

**An Assessment of Local Community Involvement in
Community Based Ecotourism Planning and
Development: The Case of Takamanda National
Park. South West Region, Cameroon**

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ABSTRACT

Community-Based Ecotourism (CBET) has been identified as a potential proactive means of development, especially in less developed countries. Based on this conception, many countries are devising different strategies to actively engage in CBET development. In the case of Cameroon, with abundant natural resources and touristic potentials, the government embarked upon conservation of its resources through creation of reserves and national parks. However, they failed to recognize the fact that, these resources are the main source of livelihood for the communities in and around the parks. This is manifested in lack of realizing the need to integrate the conservation strategies with community's needs. This has resulted in various shortcomings such as, lack of infrastructural development and absence of community involvement in the planning process as the main stakeholders in these areas, especially the Takamanda National Park (TNP). So the big question is; will these communities accept to give up their main source of livelihood for the sake of conservation under the banner of CBET while they are the least beneficiaries of this form of CBET?

This study has tried to unravel the impacts and consequences of such undertaking by investigating local community's awareness of and willingness to participate in the planning and development of CBET in the TNP area bearing in mind that their livelihoods tied to these resources. The study revealed that, despite the level of awareness of the concept of CBET, the community dwellers are willing to participate and involve in its planning and development on conditions of an approach that will not jeopardize the quality of the resources as the sources of their livelihood. They

believe this should be guaranteed by the authorities. Communities are also blaming the government for the poor state of infrastructural development in the area and would rather to collaborate with NGOs in instituting a collaborative form of management (bottom-up approach) towards the realization of these goals. Therefore, for a collective realization of this goal, government has to adopt a proactive developmental approach which is the key to CBET's success.

Keywords: community based tourism, collaborative management, Takamanda national park, community collaboration, Cameroon

ÖZ

Toplum-Temelli Ekoturizm (TTE), özellikle azgelişmiş ülkelerdeki gelişimin proaktif aracı olarak kabul edilir. Bu anlayışa göre, birçok ülke TTE gelişiminde aktif olarak yer almak için farklı stratejiler tasarlamaktadır. Kamerun örneğinde, doğal kaynaklar ve turistik potansiyel ile hükümet, kaynaklarını ulusal parkların ve rezervlerin yapılması yoluyla korumaya almıştır. Ancak, bu kaynakların parkların içinde çevresindeki toplumların temel yaşam kaynağı olduğu gerçeği unutulmuştur. Bu durum kendini toplumsal ihtiyaçların koruma stratejilerini birleştirme ihtiyacı eksiliği fark edildiğinde göstermiştir. Bu da bazı altyapısal ve özellikle Takamanda Ulusal Parkı (TUP) gibi planlama sürecinde bu bölgelerde ana hissedar olan toplum katılımı gibi eksiklikler olarak ortaya çıkmıştır. Bu yüzden önemli soru şudur; bu toplumlar TTE sembolü altında TTE'den en az fayda sağlayanlar olarak, kendi ana yaşam kaynaklarından koruma için vazgeçmeyi kabul edecekler mi?

Bu çalışma böyle bir girişimin etki ve sonuçlarını, bu kaynaklara bağlı olan yerel halkın TUP alanındaki TTE program ve gelişimine katılımda duyduğu bilinç ve istek düzeyini çözümlenmeye çalışmıştır. Çalışma sonundaki bulgular göstermiştir TTE konseptinin farkındalık düzeyine rağmen, toplum sakinlerinin kendi yaşam kaynaklarının kalitesi tehlikeye atılmadığı şartıyla bu gelişim ve planlama sürecine katılmak ve dâhil olmak için gönüllü olduklarını göstermiştir. Bunun otoriteler tarafından garanti edilmesini gerektiğine inanmaktadırlar. Toplumlar, bölgede altyapı gelişimindeki zayıf durumun hükümet yüzünden sebep olduğunu ve bu amaçların farkedilmesi için NGOlar ile işbirliği yapılması gerektiği böylelikle daha sistemli bir yönetim olacağını (aşağıdan yukarı yaklaşımı) düşünmektedirler. Bu yüzden, bu

amacın toplu farkındalığı için hükümet, TTE'nin başarısının anahtar kapsamında proaktif bir gelişim yaklaşımını benimsemelidir.

Anahtar kelimeler: toplum temelli ekoturizm, işbirlikçi yönetim, Takamanda ulusal parki, toplumsal birlik, Kamerun.

To The Lord Almighty

And to my family for their love support and encouragement

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CBET	Community Based Ecotourism
DED	German Development Service
GTZ	German Agency For Technical Cooperation
ILO	International Labor Organization
LC	Local Communities
LDC	Less Developed Countries
MINEF	Ministry Of Environment And Forestry
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
NTFP	Non-Timber Forest Product
PROFA	Project For Protection Of Forests Around Akwaya
PRSMNR	Project For Sustainable Management Of Natural Resources
SD	Sustainable Development
TNP	Takamanda National Park
UNWTO	United Nations World Tourism Organization
VDP	Village Development Plan
WCS	Wildlife Conservation Society
WHO	World Health Organization
WTTC	World Trade And Tourism Council
WWF	World Wide Fund For Nature

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Conservation has increasingly turned to ecotourism to provide local economic benefits while maintaining ecosystem integrity (Stem et al, 2003). In order for local residents to effectively manage the protected area where they are the custodians, their participation needs to be fostered and encouraged through developing local income streams, such as ecotourism (Sirivongs and Tsuchiya, 2012). The green career center NGO describes ecotourism as an umbrella term for responsible, ethical travel to natural areas with a preconception of minimizing any negative harm to the environment while directly or indirectly creating social and economic benefits to the local community thus the emergence of community based ecotourism to encourage community involvement and collaboration.

Community biased ecotourism is a renounce strategy for biodiversity conservation biased on the principle that, biodiversity must pay for itself by generating economic benefits particularly for the local people (kiss, 2004). It is how ever important to understand that it is on the same resources that the local community depends on, to supplement their house hold income. In rural communities where employment opportunities are limited, many people collect natural resources for their own use or sell to supplement household income (Chan and Ravallion,2004; Yemiru et al, 2010).it is no news now are days that one of the millennium development goals is poverty alleviation. Therefore the urgency of poverty elimination has made the

relationship between biodiversity conservation for ecotourism development and poverty elimination an important element for debate (Adams, 1999; Adams et al, 2003), thus biodiversity loss and poverty elimination and linked problems that should be tackled together (Fisher et al 2006; Pearce,2011).

The notion of conservation makes the rural dwellers feel alienated from their God given land that was ‘unjustly’ taken over under the guise that both the colonial and succeeding post-independence governments were better custodians of nature and natural resources. It is for this reason however that in Cameroon and many other LDC, despite the repressive legislation in place the rural people continues to trespass into protected areas where they roam in search of cultural values and traditional needs for survival (Ayeni, et al 2003). As challenging as it may seem, ecotourism has been forwarded as a new approach and perspective to reconcile the conflict between mass tourism and its negative impacts especially on the environment and the ecosystems (Kishra and sherma, 2010; Parmering et al 2011)

1.1 Statement of Problem

Cameroon is no doubt a major tourist destination within the Central African Sub Region. It has enjoyed peace and stability since independence in 1960 (Woodgate et al, 2011). In addition to its economic and political stability, the country is blessed with abundance of touristic potentials ranging from its dual official languages (French and English), to beautiful sandy beaches like Kribi and Limber, mountain ranges like Mt Cameroon the highest mountain pick in central and western Africa which attract thousands of athletes for the annual mountain raise, beautiful forest and savanna vegetation, magnificent rich majestic palaces in the north and western regions of the country which earned the country “Africa in Miniature”. Despite its

potentialities, the country is yet to be recognized as one of the major tourist destinations by WTO as it receives less than 500,000 tourists per annum (Nambale, 2010). According to the ministry of tourism statistics in 2009, the country received 451,000 tourists (Lew, 2008). These trends caught the attention of the prime minister and head of government who during the 5th session of the national tourism board meeting held on February 14, 2008 in Yaoundé and attended by both public and private tourism administrators called for immediate action. (Onamuubele, 2010).

In line with the government's need to develop the tourism industry after recognizing its significance and potential benefits and backed by Murphy's (1985) community approach to tourism which states that, there is great potential for social and economic benefits if planning can be directed from a pure business and development approach to a more open and community-oriented approach which views ecotourism as a local asset (Murphy, 1985). There have been renegotiations, redirection, reorganizations and law enforcements especially within the community-based ecotourism sector involving many stakeholders each with its motive. This directly or indirectly affects the local communities harboring these touristic potentials including the Takamanda national park and the buffer communities who feel cheated and alienated from the ancestral right thus resisting any action to this effect.

1.2 Research Aim and Objective

The complexity, multiplicity and competing positions stakeholders have in the ecotourism industry can lead to complications in the negotiation of its purpose and implementation of ecotourism planning and development (Gullette, 2001). Community-based ecotourism is considered an agent of development and has the potentials to maintain its viability in an area over an indefinite period (Wang and

Wall, 2005). Being custodians of the resources, the local communities are often denied the right to maintain and manage their resource and the impacts from tourist activities (Odi, 2006; Ajake, et al 2010). It is also proven that unless the local population receives incentives from ecotourism, they will seldom recognize its positivism and motivation to protect the environment upon which tourism depends (Milan, 2008; Ashley, 2000). What is therefore the fate of the locals of the newly created Takamanda National Park which is yet to record ET benefits? There is therefore a need for critical evaluation to understand the way forward by evaluating their awareness of conservation in general and also their stand on the planning and development of community based ecotourism within the area since they are in direct contact with the natural environment on which they depend on for their daily existence.

The attitude of the local people towards ecotourism is an important factor to consider before carrying out such developments. Regardless of the purported significance and benefits of ecotourism, there is still considerable doubt on what it really means especially in rural communities adjacent to reserves and parks in less developed countries including Cameroon. These buffer zones seldom believe in conservation policies for they consider them as being inefficient (Ross and Wall, 1999a) especially in newly created parks and reserves like the TNP bearing in mind that it is on these resources they depend for their daily survival. This will likely affect their willingness to participate in the conservation, planning and development of any ecotourism venture within the community. This is a common phenomenon in Cameroon thus, requiring proactive approach that seeks to create awareness and mitigate the negative and enhance the positive attitude among the locals toward community based ecotourism planning and development. It is on this note therefore that this thesis

seeks to generally investigate factors influencing community willingness to participate in community based ecotourism within the Takamanda national park region. But specifically it seeks to

- Assess local community awareness and perception about community based ecotourism
- Find out whether the local population has been sensitized on CBET and environmental conservation.
- Assess local community-NGO- Government collaboration for conservation
- Assess local community willingness to participate in community based ecotourism planning and development.
- Explore the deficient factors in establishment and implementation of CBET.

1.3 Research Questions

The study seeks to answer these main research questions:

- Is the community knowledgeable about ecotourism and what is their perception about community based ecotourism development in the communities and how does their perception affect their zeal to participate in CBET development?
- Are the local communities willing to participate and collaborate with other stakeholders in the planning and development of community based ecotourism (CBET) in the area?
- How and what can be done to facilitate the sensitization and creation of awareness and eventual development of community based ecotourism (CBET) within the communities?

1.4 Significance of the Study

We are living in an era when there is a strong avocation of the practice of sustainability especially in the sphere of natural resource use. Everybody is becoming conscious of this fact especial with the devastating effect of climate change felt at every country in the world today including Cameroon coursed mainly by human activities. A glaring example of the effect of climate change is Lake Chad, located between Nigeria, Chad and Cameroon, which has been gradually drying up over the years. With this awareness tourist gain more delight in nature tourism. Cameroon is enjoying a slow but steady growth in its tourism industry with the potentiality of performing better if dourly managed taking into consideration its uniqueness and touristic potentialities especially its natural resources (Sumelong, 2012). Urbanization and industrialization has destroyed these natural resources. However, they are abounding in protected areas like parks and reserves around the country sides of the country. The Governments is creating more reserves and parks each day and these parks and reserves where formally owned by local community on which they depend for their daily need and survival. The literacy level of the people of these local communities around the Takamanda National Park region (TNP) is very low. Thus, their knowledge and level of understanding of the effect and importance of these natural resources even for their own benefits is band to be low. In this regard, they continue to hunt, fish, gather and harvest both timber and non-timber forest products (NTFPs) from the park for house hold consumption and even for sale. This study will therefore increase environmental and cultural awareness and even respect for both the community dwellers and stakeholders involves in CBET planning and development. It will also create awareness on the impacts alienated with such venture and provide and inside of the significance of collaboration between

communities and other stakeholders like NGOs thereby increasing their willingness to participate bearing in mind that the national park remains an important approach to conservation (de Sherbinin, 2008). And finally add its own quota to the already existing literature on community based ecotourism in the Cameroon and the world at large.

1.5 Research Method

A qualitative research methodology based on interpretive epistemology was adopted in this research. Interpretive epistemology holds the view that knowledge is created and negotiated between human beings (oliver, 2003). Supported by the fact that, the social world is generally local and can be acknowledged in a specific context since it is temporal and historically situated and can be shaped according to a researches objective (Bailey, 2007), the qualitative research methodology offers an opportunity to study and describe these experiences and social phenomenon (Silverman, 2006).

1.5 Organization of the Study

Chapter 1: This chapter introduces background information about the research topic. It also outlines the research aim, the questions and even the objectives and significance of the study.

Chapter 2: This chapter constitutes the literature review. It through light on the term community based ecotourism. Particularly this chapter tried to bring out intricacies of community development including its definition, typology. It father elucidate the intricacies of community participation, types of participation and concluded with the factors influencing community participation.

Chapter 3: this chapter will bring out tourism and its evolution from mass tourism to the adoption of the concept of sustainability and finally to the emergence of community base tourism. Some tourism theories where also presented in this section

including the cost and benefits of every form of tourism along the evolutionary calendar. Community based tourism in its entirety was discussed including its definition, characteristics and principles guarding its implementation. An overview of the concept of ecotourism will also be presented in this chapter including its potential benefits and operational critiques. This part will be concluded by an overview of community base ecotourism and its rationales.

Chapter 4: this chapter will gave an overview of Cameroon including its touristic potentials and relative setbacks to successful tourism development but particularly, it gave a detailed description of the study area, its physical as well as its human environment.

Chapter 5: this chapter will present the methodology used in this work. It presents the research design, data collection and analysis process and the findings of the qualitative data analysis on awareness of the local population about community based ecotourism and the instigative role of this awareness on the willingness of the people to participate in the planning and development of community based ecotourism within the buffer communities. The compliance between the locals and other stake holder in the planning and development of CBET like NGO is also uncovered.

Chapter 6: in this section, the results from chapter 6 are discussed in line with the literature review of chapter 2 followed by presentation the conclusion drawn from the study and recommendations.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

Community based tourism was hatched from a continuous evolution of the conceptual, philosophical and managerial aspects of general resource management and tourism resource management in the world (Tasci, 2013). Her birth was instigated by socioeconomic, political and environmental phenomenon in quest for a more viable and valuable economic development of local communities after a critical evaluation of the impacts of mass tourism. Tourism as a double edge sword is praised for its economic benefits but however, it is sabotaged for its social, economic, political and environmental impacts especially to the local communities which offer the aesthesis for tourist pleasures.

There is a gearing prove that the tourism industry is endowed with enormous potentials yet to be exploited and till date it has been the fastest growing industry in the world (UNWTO, 2011). Tourism no doubt plays a major role in promoting development in all dimensions and its working in many countries. However, the modus operandi of tourism as a developmental instrument has been a bone of contention the mind of academicians and other goodwill advocators in the world today .The success of every tourism venture will depend on goodwill-host community collaboration (Morphy, 1985) thus it will be unethical to sideline those who will live with the impact of such venture in every stage of its planning and development. Their participation will rather lead to coherence and ensure public

support, build trust and confidence between planners and the locals and also provide valuable guidelines for policy making (Liu and Var, 1986). Lack of the locals in the participation may rather lead to contradiction of purpose and even resistance long term developmental objectives (Tosun and Timothy, 2001) for; the local community is general subsistence depending on these resources for their day to day living.

2.1 The Concept of Community Development.

The tourism industry is no doubt the fastest growing industry and tourist now gain more delight in natural environment. These natural environments which forms the backbone of the tourism industry is intertwined within communities thus the local communities are the Centre of attraction for tourist yet these there is evidence of massive rural-urban and even transnational migration from these local communities to seek for brighter futures abroad. There is therefore the need for community development (CD).

However, community development is very contradictory or inconsistency either in usage, definition and even understanding. Some people equate it to economic development like infrastructural development, business development etc. while others see it as a mean to achieve economic development through the interplay of social qualities. Unless there is a clear understanding of the real meaning of community development, achieving its purpose will still be wanting and benefits inequitably distributed since the diverse skills, knowledge, experiences and resources within the communities are not well managed. Community developments generally build and develop the capacity of the communities to collectively make decisions as to the proper use, development and management of resources in the communities.

Community planning and development is bound to be positive in situation where there is the collaboration and community participation every step in the planning and development of tourism projects (Gogfry& Clark, 2000; Tosun & Timothy, 2001). Thus for effective sustainable community development, the bottom-Up approach is advocated where the local control prevails over authoritarian or public decision making (Gibbs; 1994). This approach facilitates community development backed by national and even regional policy frameworks that encourages community based tourism development policies. This will go a long way to cement public- private - community partnership ensuring sustainable developmental outcome and also financially support community backed initiatives (Grybovych & Hafermann, 2010).

2.2 Defining Community Development.

The fact that community development can be a process and product, it has created a hindrance to the development of a unanimous universally accepted definition (Wise; 2008). It neither focuses solely on natural resource development nor on addressing needs, thus, an integrated model that will address these community problems, builds community capacity and then goes a long way to provide solutions or solving these problems will be accepted (Jones & Silver; 1991).Community development stemmed up from the amalgamation of two ideas i.e. community from one hand and development on the other.

Defining community has not been an easy task. Its definition is strictly based on the focus of interest. It is more than just a physical place endowed with geographical elements even though it can. It might be a group of persons with same interest even though from different places and many not even correspond about their shared interest (Wise; 1991). As a matter of fact, community of interests has been used to

characterize this term and it need not be made up of similar perspectives. Rather, it is more often than not characterized by diverse perspectives engulfing a common idea. As difficult as it is to define community, defining development is even more problematic. Many descriptions have been made as to what it really means. Christenson et al, (1989) describes development as a process of choice i.e., diversification, thinking about issues differently with an anticipation of change. Shaffer on the other hand describes it as the creation of wealth which does not necessarily dollar not. It requires vitality improvement i.e. a direct attempt to improve participation, flexibility, equity, attitudes, the functioning of institutes leading to an improvement in the quality of living. This will definitely increase community assets and dismiss the controversy of “zero sum” where a job created here is a job lost there.

Despite the inconsistency and the difficulty in bringing out a clear definition of the term, many scholars have put forth definitions based on its characteristics as summarized by Greg Wise; (1998) as shown in (Appendix 5). However the definitions can be summarized as; community development depicts a community in its self-engaging in a process aiming at improving the social, economic and the environmental situation of the community. This means that, the community acts in double capacity; a means and end of community development. It brings forth an idea and actively participates in developing the idea making the community economically and functionally strong and vital. In this vane, community development biffs up the capacity of the community in collectively and better decision making as far as resource uses such as labor, knowledge and infrastructure is concern for better development. This clarification was presented by Shaffer in a model as seen in below (figure 1)



Figure 1. Community development enhances community decisions about the employment of resources Source: Shaffer, (1989)

2.3 Typology of Community

The concept of community describes a social organization considered fundamental to traditional society or religious. Such communities are often regarded as natural grouping based on ties of shared blood, language, history, territory and above all, culture (Upadhyya, 2006). In their edited book, *Lives in Context: the Art of Life History Research*, Coles and Knowles (2001: p.11) define community as ‘Clusters of individual lives make-up communities, societies and cultures. To understand some of the complexities, complications, and confusions within the life of just one member of a community is to gain insights into the collective’. These are just two example of community definition. As mentioned earlier, a universal definition for community has been farfetched due to its dynamic nature and connotes a wide range of meanings.

This concept has become popular in many academic disciplines and in day to day usage. Forming a community may span longer for some individuals while for others, it may be shorter and fast. Just like its creation, the nature and function of a community also has two opposing dimensions or views. On one hand, it is believed to be natural and a key to human welfare and on the other hand, it is argued to be non-dynamic and a hindrance to individual growth and freedom. This complex and fluid nature of community have been deeply examined by scholars coming out with diverse interpretations. It has therefore become prominent in the field of international development and reconstruction as it is synonymous to something good and desirable. No matter the length of formation, the nature or even the function of a community, it is worth noting that they are dynamic as they act, interact, evolve and change after being acted upon by both internal and external social, economic, political and environmental forces. There are generally three different types of communities which are not mutually exclusive so an individual can be a member and fully participate in the activities of the different community at the same time. These communities include:

2.3.1 Geographic Community

It is the only type of community generally accepted by scholars. It is geographically bordered by physical features such as rivers, streets, etc. clearly rendering it distinctive in every perspective. There can be many communities within a city with each having distinct characteristics like religion, rich, poor etc. it is also constituted of diverse population with individuals and groups occupying different physical space within the landscape. It also shows a clear distinction of occupants and the characteristics of a particular space. The peculiarity of each community with the geographic community can give birth to other types of communities like community

of individuality, community of interest and even become a replica of international community.

2.3.2 Community of Identity

This is a community identified by common identifiable characteristics, i.e. a group of people who are unified by something they have in common which may be where they live, a common interest or ethnic ties. The attributes that bond the people together may be a common language, culture, age, sexuality etc. It is however important to note that, an individual belonging to this community may not necessarily constitute with the norms and regulations of the community and such communities may be geographically bound. For example, I may not necessarily fill anything in common with student in EMU but for the fact we all study in English.

2.3.3 Community of Interest

Community of interest generally refers to a common interest of a class of people within a space or without defined space. It may be equated to a movement; social, political, environmental etc. without a compulsory membership. The level of participation in the activities of the community is undefined as some people may be very active, some proactive and others even inactive. Such communities may be legally bound or even illegal depending on the “w” question (what, why, where and for whom) response. There are certain things you have to consider when thinking about your community of interest such as the people you have to meet, see, speak to, e-mail, share information or phone on regular bases. What is your contribution to such relationship, what do you benefit from the contacts and finally, for how long have you been part of the group. A critical assessment of this point may be an instigator of the performance level of an individual.

2.3.4 Intentional Community

This is another commonly observed type of community, equated to eco-village, cohousing communities, residential land trusts, communes, urban housing cooperatives, intentional living, cooperative living and other projects where people live together with a common vision. In this type of community, individuals voluntarily come together to chart a particular course as a group and are one another's keepers. The members may have same interest, same identity and may even reside in the same geographical location. e.g., members of a study group getting together every Wednesday.

2.3.5 Indigenous Community:

Over thirty years of deliberation about indigenous by UN and ILO, arriving at a unanimously accepted definition for this concept is still in the wilderness. However, one of the most cited descriptions of the concept of indigenous communities was given by Martinez (1986), in his Study on the Problem of Discrimination against Indigenous Populations. He forwarded a working definition of indigenous communities based on an intellectual framework which examined the right of the indigenous people themselves to define what and who is indigenous. He defined it as people and nation having a historical community with pre-invasion and pre-colonial societies that developed on their territories. They consider themselves as being distinct from other sectors of the societies who are now benefiting on the resources of their territories, or parts of them. They usually form the non-dominant sectors of society and are determined to preserve, develop and transmit their ethnic identity and ancestral territories to the future generations as the basis of their continued existence as peoples, in accordance with their own cultural patterns, social institutions and legal system (UNEIS, 2004). An indigenous person is therefore a person who

belongs to these indigenous populations through self-identification as indigene and is also recognized and accepted by these populations as one of its members. This preserves the community`s sovereign right and power to decide who belongs to them, without an external interference.

There are more than 370 million self-identified indigenous people in some 70 countries around the world. They have a deep, varied and locally rooted knowledge of the natural world and with these communities harboring about 80% of the earth`s biodiversity; they can play a preponderant role in natural resource management. Unfortunately, most of these indigenous communities especially in the LDC have been marginalized while their God giving lands and properties marked for reserves and parks by governments due to the massive impacts of global warming without a proper sensitization of the communities. They have often turned to lost control of their own way of life and also resist developmental initiatives in the communities thus continuing to wallow in poverty. In this light, an effective way to overcome poverty within these communities is to support their efforts to shape and direct their own destinies by ensuring that, they co-create and co-manage developmental initiatives (UN IFAD, 2011).

2.4 Community Participation and Nature Management

The main ponder of many development programs and projects not whether to increase participation but how to achieve effective participation (Bunch, 1995). Participation is a means of developing aims, ideologies, and a behavior resembling equity and democracy thus people must have the opportunity of participation in all developmental processes, be it planning, implementation and or evaluation (Cohen and Uphoff , 1997) . Community participation can be of different forms: locals

can be informants in formative and evaluative research relevant to the delivery of services, design or shape interventions or projects; deliver services; advocates etc. Community participation a process geared toward an end and an outcome in itself especially when it concerns marginalized and underprivileged groups, who seldom have any voice in matters that concern them thus community involvement often facilitates community mobilization toward a given end (UNAIDS 1997). Community dwellers are often willing and ready to invest their own resources in activities perceived to be beneficial to them and to their community. They are prepared to take leadership role, responsibility, and work in collaboration with the national government and also devise means to sustained community initiated projects. This is evidenced by a case studies carried out in Australia, Canada, Thailand and Uganda (UNAIDS 1998 b).

Past decades witnessed increasing failures in developmental project introduced by goodwill international organizations especially in developing countries due to the implementation of the top-down developmental approach. This approach leads to insufficient provision of public good and unsustainable projects (Asim, 2004). There was a wakeup call for community participation and this will only occurs if a community is organizes or organizes itself and takes responsibility for managing its problems. In Africa, the participatory theme in the development process has become very prominent, such that development is virtually defined in terms of people's participation. There has been so far massive support toward community participation dating as far back as 1970s, when ILO assisted rural workers organizations and also supported their educational activities to bring about effective participation (Elishiba et al, 2011). The 1976, World Employment Conference (WEC) identified issues of basic needs and the critical role of participation programme in the improvement and

development of rural life. WHO in the same vein stressed on the significance of community participation in extending primary health care in a conference held in Alma-Ata, USSR, in 1978. UNESCO is also noted since the 1970s for its involvement of beneficiaries and other stakeholders in their development program (Kombo, 2011)

National development entails finding solutions to the problems of environmental or natural resources exploitation and degradation; health, human settlement, educational and cultural enhancement for a better and more meaningful living standards (Harris, 1997). This emphasizes the importance of involving local communities in any development project or program which is meant to improve their own welfare, hence the term “community participation”. Harris described it as local community involvement in the development, maintenance and sustainable management of their natural or environmental resources. The involvement of local people in the design of strategies and management of natural resources is paramount to the success of any conservation project (Graziaetal, 2000). In fact any program that fails to recognize the needs and values of the local population is bound to fail or at best meet with strong local resistance. This point is emphasized by Kenneth et al (1956) who opined that; “the ways of life of a people present a body of imponderables that must be continuously taken into account by those who would bring about change in any phase of their life”. The involvement of local communities in the management of natural resources will enable forest dwellers have their share in the benefits of sustainable forest management (IDB, 1994). This will also enable the local communities to appreciate the value of the resources and consequently fight against any form of misuse. Harris (1997) observed that involving local communities in the management of natural resources is an invaluable innovation in the management of such resources.

As a matter of fact, Sada (1988) attests that, the essential approach to conservation and sustainable development is to educate man about his responsibilities in producing for his welfare as well as ensuring that the environmental equilibrium is not distorted to the extent of threatening the very existence of man. This stresses the need for sensitization and awareness campaigns which is the bases for this thesis. There are several different forms of community participation which include; passive, informant participation, Participation by Consultation, functional participation, Participation for Material incentives, interactive participation and Self-Mobilizations (Pretty, 1995. p.1252; Kumar, 2002. p.24-25).

2.5 Community Willingness to Participate

The previous section (2.4) gave a clue of the concept of participation including an illustration of the various type of participation. Just like the other contradictory and conflicting in the tourism field like community, sustainable development etc., where their definitions are mostly marched with the existing situations and circumstances, the definition of community participation has told the line leading to the avocation of many definition of the term but no matter the definition it all boils down to all stakeholders involvement in decision-making. According to Okazaki, (2008.p. 511) it is a process that involve rational and unanimous deliberations and sharing in decision making for their interest. The stakeholders in a typical tourism development venture include local government officials, local citizens, architects, developers, business people, and planners. This concept in conjunction with sustainable tourism development has also been deeply deliberated in tourism literature (Prentice, 1993; Simmons 1994; Jamal & Getz 1995; Joppe 1996; Li 2006; Okazaki 2008). However, the phenomenal truth of the matter is that, benefits of tourism can only get to the communities if they are involved and participate towered the realization of the goal

which is really the case in developing countries as the community dwellers even hardly know when and how to get involve and participate for their own development (Joppe, 1999).

Despite the avocation of ethical tourism by NGO and other tourism organizations which warrant greater community involvement, its practical implementation especially in developing countries remain shallow thus power sharing between the stakeholders remain in-balanced proving that change can hardly come from top but rather from the grassroots if empowered, where the change is needed most (Mowforth & Munt 2009). On this note, the NGOs and their alliances advocating development for all especially of the marginalized through greater involvement and collaboration have therefore become the pillars for both regional and national development. This has resulted to the avocation of grater community involvement and participation within the tourism literature. However, testing and evaluation of better methods to instigate community involvement and support has remained wanting within the same literature (Simmons, 1994).

The willingness and ability of local communities to participate in community development has remained an issue of debate in community development literature (Hall, 1995). Pretty, (1995) has clearly illustrated the various typologies of community participation where the reality and community reaction and interactions are presented. It however remains clear that, should community development initiative represent outside expert's values the outcome may be lack of local interest limiting full support (Taylor, 2001). Therefore, local community willingness to participate and their ability of developing practical and logical options for their development should be critically evaluated for a successful tourism development

venture despite the fact that, they often lack the experiences and resources which can no doubt be instigated or established for ethical consideration and goal attainment (Scheyvens, 2002).

2.6 Factor Influencing Community Participation in Developmental Projects.

In the last two decades, community participation has been propagated as the most reliable and effective strategy to be used in realizing sustainable development. These decades have been intellectually termed participation decade. Much literature has been published which attest to the benefits and significance of community participation in developmental project within the local framework (Armitage, 2005; Kellert et al 2000; Kayat, 2002; Kiss, 2004; Li, 2002; Mosse, 1995; Ostrom et al 2002; Pollnac & Pomeroy, 2005; Stem et al, 2003; Wilson et al, 2001; Wunder, 2000 etc.). However, factors influencing such participation are limited in literature thus a review of this literature on factors influencing community participation in developmental project is elucidated in this section. A range of studies have identified a range of factors acceleration or limiting community participation in developmental projects especially for the purpose of tourism. Amongst these factors is the influence of local leadership. Powerful local leadership has a great influence on community participation in developmental project. Njoh (2002) concluded in his report on a self-help water project in Cameroon that, powerful local leadership has a great impact in the selection and participation of the people involved. Adebayo (1985) in a community based project in Nigeria also pointed out the significance of local leadership and their influence on local community participation in developmental projects. Local communities will not participate in developmental project if they lack confidence in the abilities and capability of the community leadership power (Oakley, 1991). This

claim was supported by Tewari and Khanna (2005) who found out that effective local leadership motivated people to participate in an irrigation management project in Gujarat due to their trust in their leaders. They found that good leaders get along well with their community members, speak for them, have honest decisions with them and also spend time and efforts to solve their collective problems. Therefore, recognizing the potentials of community leadership give a clue on the participation and effective commitment on the local community members which is an indicator of the potential success of the developmental project within the community (Wilson et al, 2001)

Furthermore, educational and literacy level of the community member has also been revealed to have a great impact on the participation in community development (Glendinning et al, 2001; Napier & Napier, 1991; Walters et al, 1999). They found that more educated people recognize the benefit alienated with participation in developmental project than illiterates. Lise (2000) supported this accession after a study on host participation in forest management and conservation in India. It was made clear that literate villagers in three communities (Bihar, Haryana and Uttar Pradesh) were more likely to participate in a forest development project compared to the illiterates. A study carried out in Southern Mali on farms and community development by Likewise et al (2001) provides an inside to the fact that educated households within the community are likely to participate in non-farm sector than less educated. In this light therefore, to increase community participation in community developmental project, the literacy level of the community must be taken into consideration (Briedenhann et al, 2004). A study carried out on community participation by Narayan (1995) using 121 rural water supply projects in 49 countries around the world provided a backing to the fact that local community participation

can be significantly influence by perceived benefits from the project by the local population. Another study carried out in Sierra Leone (William, 1997) provided support to this accession where by a project regarded as a potential source of income to the community instigated their participation. This accession was proven right by studies carried out in Costa Rica, Chile, China, Haiti, India, Indonesia, Kenya, Nepal and Philippines which shows that projects not viewed to be potentially beneficial to the communities repel their participation (Cheyre, 2005; Dolisca et al, 2006; Lise, 2000; Ogutu, 2002; Pollnac & Pomery, 2005; Stem et al, 2003; Studsrod, 1995; Stone & Wall, 2004; UdayaSekhar, 2003; Wunder, 2000)

Community understanding about the project details is another very important factor that was hypothesis (Briedenhann and Wickens, 2004) to have an influence on community participation. This research was conducted using South African tourism sector and it was proven that lack of awareness of the value of natural resource for tourism, resulted to reluctance and lack of enthusiasm to participate in tourism development activities in the area. Passive participation is an outcome when community dwellers lack confidence in the developmental project (Burkey, 1995). Lack of confidence coupled with reluctance to change was also attested to limit community willingness participation in tourism development project in the United States (Wilson et al, 2001)

A study carried out in kampong Relau Ecotourism program in Malaysia (Kayat, 2002) which was based on the level of local participation and the reasons for passive participation in the developmental project showed that personal choice was the main reason for lack of effective commitment in the project. Latter finding pointed out clearly that, the locals had a choice and alternative employment from the government

and even the private sector, self-employment thus would not want to be limited hosting tourist or participating in regular meetings to this effect.

Accessibility or location is another factor influencing community participation developmental projects. Farmers in a remote area in Mali will less likely participate in non-cropping when compared to those living close to the market. Increasing infrastructural development will facilitate accessibility thus fostering community participation of local households in developmental projects.

Gender is another factor that has greatly influence community participation in developmental projects (Dolisca et al, 2006). In the past decade, culture and gender inequality have limited women participation in developmental activities especially in less developing countries. Very few women participated in the Kribhco Indo-British Rainfed Farming Project (KRIBP) of India (Mosse, 1994). In this area, the women were busy working on their farms as their place is to take care of the family thus their marginal status in the society kept them away from such projects. Women in Southern Iran work about 17 hours per day especially in spring during milk harvest and thus cannot participate in developmental projects (Haidari& Weight 2001)

The factors mentioned above and a host of other like unfavorable past experience (Vos, 2005; Njoh, 2002) in Philippines and Cameroon respectively, age (Dolisca et al, 2006) etc. are also important factors influencing community participation in developmental projects.

CHAPTER 3

COMMUNITY AND TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

3.1 Tourism Development and Impacts

In an era when internationalization and globalization has shrink the worlds in to a global village through increase technology and communication, people can now be informed and participate in world events television and internet. Through this same means there has been exposition of interesting natural unexploited parts of the world very attractive to people which technology cannot provide. This natural environment is in a close correlation with the local communities thus acting as hosts and guards for tourist. Measures are therefore put in place to facilitate tourism like package holidays forcing tourist to move with reduced cost (Beeton, 2006)

Although recognized by Tourism academia, the United Nations, and the UN World Tourism Organization as a promoter of cultural understanding, goodwill and peace among different nations worldwide and more especially its contribution to economic development and creation of environmental awareness, (Fleming and Toepper, 1990; Stynes, 2013). The quagmires about tourism such as low pay and seasonal jobs, overuse of resources, rapid and short-term developments, increased cost of living, increased cost of properties, as well as loss of jobs to outsiders (Wall and Mathieson, 2006), not living out environmental, cultural, and social degradation etc., has been a headache on those same acceptor of its importance. With these negative impacts threatening the world today backed by the earth's diminishing resources there has

been a strong avocation of the concept of sustainability. The developing and the least developed countries (LDCs) are the centers of attraction because they are still harboring these resources, (Hall, 2000; Stone and Stone, 2011). Below (table 1) is a summarized list of social, environmental and economic costs and benefits alienated with tourism adopted from <http://geographyfieldwork.com/TourismProsCons.htm>.

Table 1. Costs and Benefits of Tourism

<p><u>Social benefits</u></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Brings in outside dollars to support community facilities and services that otherwise might not be developed. 2. Encourages civic involvement and pride. 3. Provides cultural exchange between hosts and guests. 4. Encourages the preservation and celebration of local festivals and cultural events. 5. Facilities and infrastructure developed for tourism can also benefit residents. 6. Enhances community's collective ego. 7. Improves quality of life. 8. Re-populates by keeping or attracting emigrants and driving labor force from outside. 9. Capacity building- encourages the learning of new languages and skills. 10. Tourism related funds have contributed towards schools being built in some areas. 11. Builds human capital and social capital. 	<p><u>Social cost</u></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. May attract visitors whose lifestyles and ideas conflict with the community's. An example may be the visitors' use of drugs and alcohol. 2. May change individual behavior and family relationships. 3. May lead to an increase in sexually transmitted diseases. 4. Loss of traditional values and culture through imitation of visitor behavior or cultural diffusion resulting from normal, everyday interaction. 5. May create crowding and congestion. 6. May compete with residents for available services, facilities, and existing recreation opportunities. 7. May result in harassment of visitors perceived to be wealthy and an increase in crime. 8. Can involve violations of human rights. People have been displaced from their land and beaches have been reserved for hotel guests while access is barred to local people.
<p><u>Environmental benefits</u></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Fosters conservation and preservation of natural, cultural and historical resources. 2. Encourages community beautification and revitalization. 3. Could be considered as a clean industry. 	<p><u>Environmental Costs</u></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. May threaten specific natural resources such as beaches and coral reefs or historical sites. 2. May increase litter, noise, and pollution. 3. Brings increased competition for limited resources such as water and land, resulting in land degradation, loss of wildlife habitats and deterioration of scenery. 4. Directly contributes to sewage and solid waste pollution. 5. Emissions generated by forms of transport are one of the main

Economic benefits

1. Helps diversify and stabilize the local economy.
2. Provides governments with extra tax revenues each year through accommodation and restaurant taxes, airport taxes, sales taxes, park entrance fees, employee income tax etc.
3. Creates local jobs and business opportunities. These include those jobs directly related to tourism (hotel and tour services) and those that indirectly support tourism (such as food production and housing construction).
4. The multiplier effect:
5. Brings new money into the economy. Tourist money is returned to the local economy as it is spent over and over again.
6. Helps attract additional businesses and services to support the tourist industry.
7. Is labor-intensive.
8. Earns valuable foreign exchange.
9. Increases commercial and residential development

Economic costs

1. Tourism development of infrastructure (airports, roads, etc.) can cost the local government a great deal of money.
1. May inflate property values and prices of goods and services.
2. Leakages: If outside interests own the tourism development, most of the economic benefits will leave the community. Considerable amount of foreign exchange revenues leaks back out of the destination countries for tourism-related imports.
3. Employment tends to be seasonal. Workers may be laid off in the winter season.
4. Many jobs in the tourism industry are poorly paid. This is a particular problem in the LDCs where the local workforce lacks the skills to fill the better paid management positions.
5. Tourist numbers can be adversely affected by events beyond the control of the destination e.g. terrorism, economic recession. This is a big problem in the LDCs dependent on tourism.
6. Tourism follows a "product life cycle", with a final stage of decline, where the destination no longer offers new attractions for the tourist, and the quality has diminished with the rise of competition and tourist saturation

Source: <http://geographyfieldwork.com/TourismProsCons.htm>.

3.2 Tourism Theories

3.2.1 Understanding The Process: Butler's Tourist Area Life Cycle (Talc)

Inspired by Walter Chistallar (1960) who stated that a typical development follows a particular pattern, Butler (1980) developed his Tourist Area Life Cycle (TALC) model based on product life cycle and it has contributed immensely to the wealth of information about tourism in the world today. Cristallar liken he developmental pattern to a painter who conceives a new idea and paints an untouched surface or place which is then acted upon by poets to a meaning that catches the attention of

visitors, thus, the need for an entrepreneur for better management for business purposes. Only a painter with a business aim will remain in the area other wish he moves to a new area and start the cycle all over again. In the same vein, a fisherman cottage evolves in to boarding house and then hotels come to the scenario etc. based on this explanation Butler presents a TALC model to explain the life cycle of tourism and its activities in a destination from destination exploration to decline being equal as shown on the graph (figure 2) bellow.

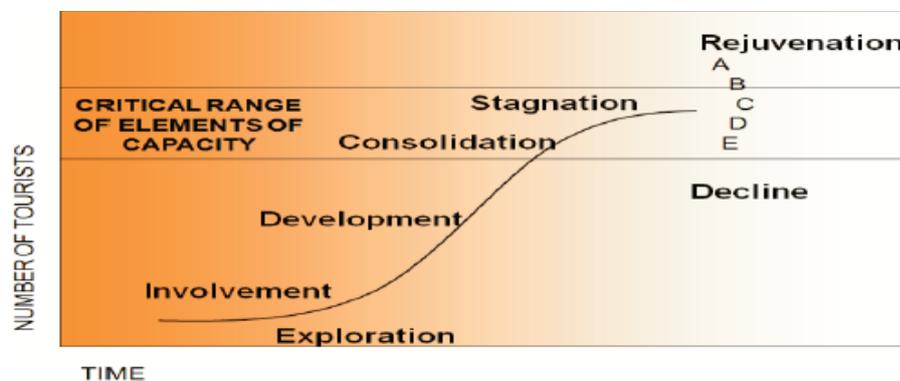


Figure 2. Butler's Tourist Area life cycle Source: Redrawn from Butler 1980 (Beeton, 2006)

In Butler's model, tourism development goes through four stages giving a bell shaped curve as seen above. The first stage is full of uncertainties and lack of knowledge. This stage is characterized by very low tourist arrival enough to be supported by the limited resources of the destination which is even yet to understand the needs of the tourist. Also, the tourists in this stage are very adventurous seeking new experiences and new sites thus sowing a seed for awareness and change in the destination. This new development brings us to the second stage of the life cycle where destination become more recognized thus increase in tourist arrivals. This stage witnesses an increase in destination marketing, information dissemination, and tourist facilities provision. The destination popularity is therefore increased leading

to a massive inflow of tourist with an outcome of mass tourism (third stage). As tourist arrival continue without a proportionate increase in facility provision, destination`s carrying capacity is reached and it begins to experience the cost alienated with mass tourism thus the declining stage (forth stage).

Destinations fall prey to the declining stage because of assumptions that a tourist destination will always attract tourist, public and private tourism agencies rarely anticipate the life span of a destination or its aesthesis as they are blinded by the fact that tourism has the potential for growth and development (Butler, 1980 p.10). However a change in attitude of those involved with the planning, development and management of the destinations by imbibing the fact that tourism resources and attraction are not infinite and even non-renewable thus should be protected and preserved by maintaining a predefined carrying capacity while maintaining competitiveness. This can go a long way to reinvigorate the tourism destination management tactics there by evading the declining stage of the life cycle. This model has been criticized for its simplistic nature but has however formed the bases of understanding of tourism and its developmental antics and has widely been used in academic papers and dissertations. It has remain a strong theory today as can be seen in its recent edition (Butler 2006)

3.2.2 Understanding the Industry: Leiper's Industrial Tourism System

While Butler's model paid attention to tourism activities and its effect on the destination within a given period, Leiper strive to evaluate tourism in its entirety, evaluating it from departure to destination. He focused his model (Figure 3) on three fronts (tourist generating region, tourist destination region and the rout region). The rout region depicts the space in- between the TGR and TDR. The region between these two regions may acts as secondary destination based on its potentials of

captivating tourists on transit. These may be a small towns, larger towns, rural areas, national parks etc.

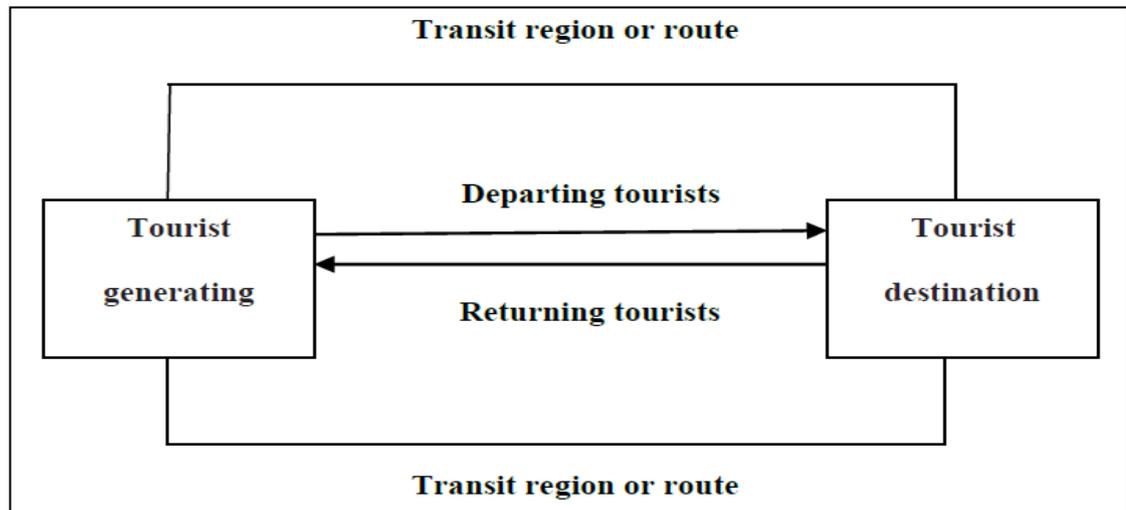


Figure 3. Leiper's industrial tourism system Source: Leiper, 1995

To better understand the tourism system, Leiper (1979) describes the system as tourist generation region connecting to tourist destination region by means of transit routes. Boniface and Copper (1987) follow suite and describe the system as a generating area connected to a destination by routs travelled between these two sets of location. A stop in such a transit areas may be a necessity, (purchase fuel or food, or for a toilet break etc.) or of interest (walk in a national park, to experience a theme park ride or to photograph a view). These transition areas may not have been a planned stoppage zone or a destination but the provide services which may directly or indirectly enhance or detract the overall tourism experience. It is very important for a community to identify its position with the model and act in relationship to the other destinations. In a stopover destination for whatever reason, certain businesses such as restaurants and motels will be thrive well while such as theme parks may not”(Beeton,2006).

3.2.3 The Industry as A Market: Hall's Tourism Market System.

Modeling tourism functioning system is driven by the demand and supply sides. Tourism is not made of hotels, airline or even the tourist industry; rather it is a system of major components linked together in an intimate and interdependent relationship. Based on the work of Murphy (1985) and Hall and McArthur (1993; 1996), Michael Hall developed a model which incorporates the behavioral and social aspects of tourist in to the demand and supply element of tourism. According to him, tourist experience is the livewire of tourism system thus tourist and markets should be hold in high esteems. He further explained that tourist experience will depend on their desire and need (demand) and the actual product provided to them.

For demand to be satisfied, the supply side must provide a variety of developments and services. The key to attaining tourism development goal is to match supply side to the market demand. It is therefore fundamentally logical to always strive for a balance between the demand and the supply side of the tourism system. A critical examination of this fact by Hall reveals that, it is the tourist experience that creates an impact which in turn affects both the demand and the supply elements. Thus, the concept of experience should therefore be critically examined for the purpose of sustainable tourism development.

No doubt this model plays an important part in the introductory text of tourism. It is however criticized for its omission of host community in the model which is very significant in the tourism system and should be considered by all players in the game. Halls approach was also market oriented rather than community oriented despite the fact that it was based on the work of Murphy; "Tourism, a Community Approach" cited in (Hall, 2003a, p. 17, 20, 25).

3.2.4 Tourist Motivation: Push and Pull Factors

As tourism and its effects continue to plague the world, so too does academia's quest to investigate not only the number of tourist that move and their contribution to economies whether positive or negative but also why they actually move (Dann, 1977) and (Crompton, 1979). Tourist movement is still webbed and an understanding of the reason for movement is still a mystery yet to be unraveled. A prominent researcher; Dann, (1979) tried to unravel this mystery by investigating the reason and drivers of tourist movement to a particular destination. Dann considered two complementing factors (PULL and PUSH) as the main drivers of tourist movement and this push-pull model (figure 4) has become one of the most popular concepts of tourist motivation and has been used by many researchers (Dann 1977; 1981; Crompton 1979; Zhang and Lam 1999; Jang and Cai 2002; Hsu and Lam 2003). Push factors motivate an individual to consider moving. This might be in reaction to anomie (a feeling of social alienation) or ego-enhancement (providing psychological boosts supported by a desire for fantasy). These may include, stress, escape routine etc. Pull factors on the other hand are characteristics and attribute of a destination that influence tourist choice for a particular destination. The attractiveness of a destination constitutes the most powerful component of a supply side and form the energizing power unit of the tourism system. Attraction provides two major i.e. enticing leisure and stimulating interest to travel. Examples of pull factors include good weather, beaches, cleanliness, recreation facilities, cultural attractions, natural scenery or even shopping (Dann 1981; Crompton 1979).

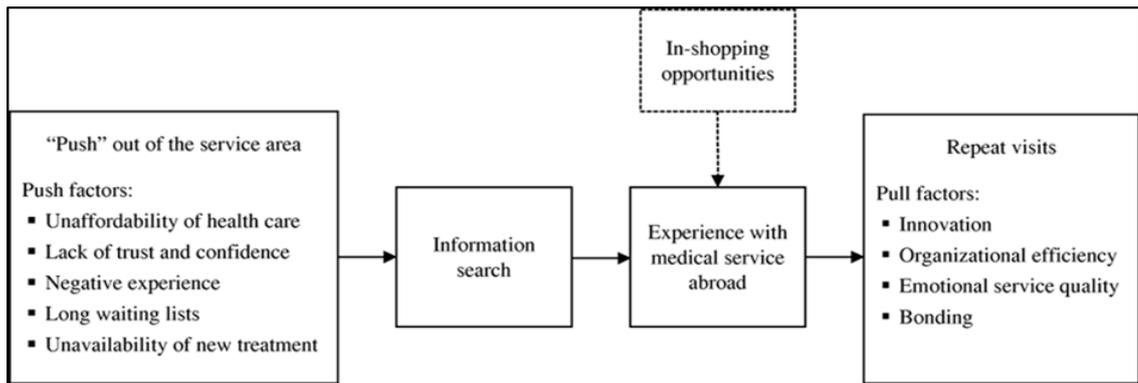


Figure 4. : Tourist Motivation: Push and Pull Factors.
Source: adopted from shahmirzadi (2012)

Dann (1977) discovered that the pull motivation has taken precedence in tourism research and there is a lack of enthusiasm for push factors. Crompton (1979, p.421), just like Dann has the same observation about the prominence of pull factors as the motivators of tourism within the tourism literatures as he also argued that “... modus operandi is based on the assumption that people go on vacations to see things” and thus these things are the pull factors that motivate people to go on vacations. Based on this observation, they both tried to fill this gap in the tourism literature by portraying the significance of push factors as also being significant motivators of travelling. Crompton’s (1979) push-pull model emphasizes that a tourist’s choice of a travel destination is influenced by Push factors which push individuals from home, and pull factors that pull individuals toward a destination. He based his attention on seven push- socio-psychological factors which are perceived to be related to the tourist themselves and they include; escape, exploration and evaluation of self, relaxation, prestige, regression, enhancement of kinship relations and facilitation of social interaction and also two cultural pull factors; novelty and education, closely tied to the destination. Tourists are motivated to vacate to destinations that fit their psychological needs, rather than the specific qualities or attractions they offered

(Uzzell, 1984). He therefore did not recognize pull factors as relevant to the study of tourist motivation described they are rather mere explanations for common touristic activities.

This has triggered the quest for a more understanding of this concept of tourism motivation leading to more simple and clear definitions of the concept. People travel because they are either pushed by their own internal forces or pulled by the external forces of destination`s attributes” (Baloglu and Uysal 1996). Pearce and Lee (2005) on their part, identified fourteen motivation factors; novelty, escape/relax, relationship (strengthen), autonomy, nature, self-development (host-site involvement), stimulation, self-development (personal development), relationship (security), self-actualize, isolation, nostalgia, romance and recognition which they consider as influencing tourism overall behaviors. Crompton finally concluded that push and pull factors complement each other. Thus, they should not be considered as acting independently from each other, even though they might not correspond at certain stages in travel decision making.

3.2.5 Tourist Motivation: Iso-Ahola’s Travel Motivational Model

Iso-Ahola (1980) after a critical evaluation of the various motivational factors influencing tourist movement, decide to merge all these factor in to two categories; individuals who wish to escape personal or interpersonal constraints and those in search for intrinsic rewards (Iso-Ahola, 1982). He further ascertained that, these two categories are simultaneously met in a tourism venture as they provide a means to flee away from something with an outcome of seeking something else. For example, fleeing from family responsibility or work pressure to gained gain enjoyment or relaxation. He therefore stressed that, it is baseless separate the motivation and gain from tourism as they are complimentary to each other for, a reason for travelling for

leisure can also be a benefit, while a benefit of escaping from family pressure can also be a reason for travel (Iso-Ahola, 1980).

3.3 Towards a Sustainable Tourism

The concept of sustainable tourism strongly tallies with sustainable development as was first publicly recognized in the Rio conference of 1992. The tourism industry adopts the principle of Sustainable development to develop the concept of sustainable tourism (Fennel, 2002). Based on this conception, Bendell & Font (2004, p. 25) define sustainable tourism as meeting the need and right of the present tourist and destinations without compromising the possibility and the ability of the future tourist and destinations to meet their own rights and needs. Toth (2002) on his part, describe it as the possibility of creating a balance between the social, environmental and economic interests of every stakeholder in the game. Despite the equivalence in importance of all three dimensions, environmental sustainability is more often emphasized by scholars in their researches and papers. It is however important to lay emphasis on necessary conditions aiding practical implementation of sustainable tourism in its entirety rather than merely defining it (Garrod and Fyall, 1998).

In the 1950s and 1960, the communities became a hot spot for development in a bit to decongest the rapid expanding cities and also to check rural exodus. To create a sense of belonging within the locals, the World Bank (WB) and United Nations (UN) encouraged community participation in developmental; programs (Sebele, 2010). With these communities hosting most of the natural resources needed to balance the already threatened ecosystems and mitigate the increasing global warming, their participation in the management of these resources for their own development and for the world at large became top of the agenda in summits, conferences, research

articles etc. Moves to accelerate awareness of sustainability amongst the communities were made more especially as these communities depend on these resources for their daily existence. . With the local communities being at the center of such ventures and coupled with the fact that, they still lack the technical and managerial knowhow, the top-down approach to resource management was therefore deemed unfit to facilitate the realization of SD. The top-down approach is characterized by management from the top i.e. developmental initiatives are planned, executed and managed by authorities (Aronsson, 2000).

As the Population growth rate increased during the years, the quest for better living conditions and economic development also increased mounting great pressure on land, water, forest and biodiversity resources. It becomes difficult for governments and other environmental organization to conserve these resources through the top-down approach. This government's inability to enforce law and order especially in the social, cultural and ecological spheres compounded natural resource managerial problems. A natural resource management approach requiring the integration and increase of the role of the local community in the management of their own natural resources will be the most appropriate solution to these problems. Thus the emergence of sustainable development concept (community based natural resource management) a more holistic, integrative, comprehensive approach to development with a focus on community participation and thus, capacitating the locals' to control and manage their resources gaining more importance in economic development (Hall, 2000; Stone and Stone, 2011).

Many definitions sprouted to better uncover the intricacies of this concept. Amidst these, the World Commission on Environment and Development (the Brundtland

commission) in their 1986 report titled “our common future” defined sustainable development as; development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of the future generation to meet their own needs. The simplicity of the definition increased its popularity and has gone a long way to publicize the fact that economic developmental actions and policies that threatened or damage the natural resources jeopardize long term human survival. On the other side of the coin, this same simplicity also blurs institutionalization of the concept. It is how ever important to note that engagement of the local communities to sustainable development was deemed necessary due to the following reasons as advanced by (Brown et al. 2002; Brown, 1999)

- Proximity to resources. Those in closest contact with, and whose livelihoods are impacted by, natural resources are best placed to ensure effective stewardship.
- Equity. Natural resources should be managed to ensure equitable benefits for the diverse interest groups within a population.
- Capacity. Communities often have better knowledge and expertise in the management of the natural resources than government agencies/private industry because they are the custodians of the resources.
- Biodiversity. Multiple-purpose management of natural resources by communities generally provides more varied land use, with greater species diversity than private/industrial management systems.
- Cost-effectiveness. Local management may help reduce government costs.
- Development philosophy. Local participation, decentralization, and subsidiary may, in themselves, be considered important development objectives

Tourism just like natural and socio-cultural resource witness same transformation. The concept of Sustainable tourism is therefore drawn out of the concept of sustainable development as the interest of tourist and the tourism industry coincides with that of natural heritage managers to maintain nature in a non-degrading state (Endresen, 1999).Tourism in its self is neither positive no negative to the environment. Its relationship to environmental degradation is determined by the manner in which the activities of tourism are exhibited within a particular environment (Woodgate, 2011). Prior to the growth and development of environmental awareness, the tourism industry was caught in the web of being unsustainable and contributed immensely to environmental degradation. The un-sustainability was due to inconsideration of the importance of conservation of natural resources, it's focused on un-qualitative growth, unequal distribution of the benefits and also failure to match the uniqueness of each territory to tourism.

Awareness of the negative impacts of mass tourism to destination called for an alternative form of tourism resource management. This led to the emergence of sustainable tourism with greater attention geared towards biodiversity conservation. This biodiversity in question is intertwined within these local communities, thus, community involvement and development could not be bypass and these communities are considered the key factors to the sustainable development and management of these tourism resources as they are the custodians of the resources (Stone and Stone, 2011). Sustainable tourism has the potentials of fascinating healthy development especially in less developed area if there is enough time for the local community to learn, develop experience, knowledge and knowhow, develop the capacity to make adjustments and grow along with the tourism, leading to the sustenance and propagation of culture, heritage and economic wellbeing, sense of

environmentalism and local based small- scale development just to name a few (Aronsson, 2000).

Information system technology advancement which has facilitated globalization thus providing information about even unexploited destinations has augmented environmental awareness giving a possibility of a deeper look in the pros and cons of human activities in the natural environment including tourism. This has gone a long way to change tourist preferences (Lopez-Guzman et al, 2011), leading to the development of several different sustainable tourism resource management models with varied characteristics to suit the quests and aspiration of tourist seeking new experiences especially in the unexploited natural environment of developing and underdeveloped countries. These new models include: ecotourism, green tourism, rural tourism, nature-based tourism, heritage tourism, responsive tourism, pro-poor tourism, progressive tourism, sensitive tourism, postindustrial tourism, voluntary tourism, alternative tourism, low impact tourism, conscious tourism, fair trade tourism, soft tourism etc. whatever the model of sustainable tourism, this industry is categorized as one of the world's fastest growing industry and has proven to be a faceable strategy to promote international trade, sustainable economic development and also the best strategy or tool for poverty alleviation especially in the Less Developed Countries (LDC) (Honeck, 2008; Scheyvens, 2007; UNCTAD, 2007; UNWTO, 2006, 2007a, 2007b, 2008, 2009, 2013). The overwhelming significance of sustainable tourism has led to the formation of several tourism developmental programs by international organizations and institutions such as United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO), World Bank, World Trade Organization (WTO), International Monetary Fund (IMF), World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC), with each financing diverse sustainable tourism projects. For example,

UNWTO lunched a Sustainable Tourism for Poverty Elimination (ST-PE) program in 2002 where 140 developmental projects were carried out benefited by 19 LDCs and some trans-frontal areas. Such gestures have skyrocketed development of tourist potentials in these countries thus, increasing tourist arrival and making the industry the leading export industry and the main source of foreign exchange revenue in many LDCs ((Honeck, 2008; UNCTAD, 2007). There has been a general increase in tourist arrival in LDCs over the last few years (table 3). UNWTO report shows that the poorest countries are experiencing the fastest rate of tourism growth and tourism receipt is more than double worldwide rate. However, tourism in LDC still contributes just about 1% of the total world market share (UNWTO, 2006).

Table 2. Statistics of Tourism for some LDC 2010-2011

LDC	<i>INTERNATIONAL TOURIST ARRIVALS</i>			<i>INT. TOURIST RECEIPTS</i>		
	2010 (1000s)	2011 (1000s)	%change (10/09)	% change (11/10)	2010 (\$mil)	2011(\$mil)
Angola	425	-	62.2	-	719	-
Bangladesh	303	-	13.4	-	81	-
Benin	199	-	4.7	-	133	-
Bhutan	27	37	14.7	39.2	35	-
Burkina Faso	274	-	1.8	-	72	-
Burundi	142	-	-33	-	2	-
Cambodia	2,399	2,882	17.3	20.1	1,180	1,683
CAR	54	-	2.7	-	6	-
Comoros	15	-	35.4	-	35	-
Ethiopia	468	-	9.6	-	522	-
Gambia	91	-	-35.7	-	32	-
Haiti	255	-	-34.1	-	167	-
Kiribati	5	5	19.2	12	-	-
Lao PDR	1,670	-	34.8	-	382	406
Lesotho	414	-	29.5	-	34	-
Rwanda	619	-	-4.2	-	202	252
Samoa	129	127	0.2	-1.6	124	-
Sao tome & Principe	8	-	-47.4	-	9	-
Senegal	900	-	11.1	-	453	-
Sierra Leone	39	-	5	-	26	-
Solomon island	21	23	12.4	11.8	54	-
Sudan	495	536	17.8	8.3	94	-
Togo	202	-	34.7	-	66	-
Uganda	946	-	17.3	-	784	-
Tanzania	754	-	8.5	-	1,254	1,457

Vanuatu	97	94	-3.5	-3.5	-
Yemen	536	-	23.5	-	622
Zambia	815	-	14.8	-	125

Source: UNWTO (2012)

The results above show that despite the increase tourism arrival in the LDCs is still generally low, thus there is need for amendments. Despite the significance of sustainable tourism, it has be criticized for its inability to effectively involve and coordinate local participation, thus, a more comprehensive and holistic approach where planning and development is spearheaded by the locals for the local is needed (community Based Tourism).

3.4 Emergence of Community Based Tourism

The advocates of sustainable tourism acknowledge the dependency of the tourism industry on the preservation of the natural environment and cultural diversity and also the potentiality sustainable tourism in promoting community participation, environmental protection and improvement of the quality of life for all (France, 1998; Lea, 1988; Roseland, 2005). It is however important to note that, the adaption of the top-down approach of empowerment dissemination to various stakeholders in the game of sustainable tourism is considered the main challenge to collaborative community participation (Goodwin and Santilli, 2009; Sebele, 2010). The participation of people in such venture will therefore be determined by empowerment structure and distribution among stakeholders in the game there by rendering a total dependence of any successful poverty reduction venture on the exiting institutional, legal and political framework in place (Wang and Wall, 2005). In a bit to provide a real and all-inclusive approach to sustainable tourism development inversing the developmental approach to bottom-up, a new model (community based tourism),

where the communities will participate at every stage and level in the tourism planning and development emerged in the mid-1990s (Asker et al, 2010).

Just like other tourism development models, has been incoherence between the academic definition and the practicalities of the concept of CBT (Goodwin and Santilli, 2009). This variation in definition and practicability also extends to different destinations in the world. The (table: 3) provides varied definitions from different advocates of the concept. However, merging all the definitions, it can be summarized as; tourism that is planned, developed, owned and managed by the community for the community, guided by collective decision-making, shared responsibility, shared access, shared ownership and shared benefits CBT is therefore applauded for taking in to consideration environmental, social and cultural sustainability thereby increasing visitor’s awareness of the community and its way of life (Suansri, 1997). It is also important to note that, some other sustainable tourism models are either used interchangeably or in collaboration with CBT. An example such combined terminologies is Community-Based Rural Tourism instituted in Latin America and Community-Based Ecotourism in Asia (Asker et al, 2010).

Despite the similarities between CBT and sustainable tourism development in sustaining the natural environment and cultural heritage with a steady increase and improvement of the socio-economic conditions of the locals, community base tourism is unique in prioritizing local control and power in channeling their own developmental direction there by advocating the bottom-up approach in outlining, designing and executing its developmental plans.

Table 3. Defining community based tourism

<i>Author/Source</i>	<i>Definition of CBT and its derivatives</i>
WWF International (2001)	A form of tourism “where the local community has substantial control over, and involvement in, its development and management, and a major proportion of the benefits remain within the community

Dixey (2005)	Tourism owned and/or managed by communities, that is designed to deliver wider community benefit. Communities may own an asset such as lodge but outsource the management to a tourism company. Alternatively communities may not own the assets on which their tourism enterprise is based (e.g. land, campsite infrastructure inside national parks, national monuments) but are responsible for management and there is an objective of wider community benefit” (p.29)
Goodwin and Santilli (2009)	“Tourism owned and/or managed by communities and intended to deliver wider community benefit” (p.12).
Asker et al (2010)	“Generally small scale and involves interactions between visitor and host community, particularly suited to rural and regional areas. CBT is commonly understood to be managed and owned by the community, for the community. It is a form of ‘local’ tourism, favoring local service providers and suppliers and focused on interpreting and communicating the local culture and environment” (p.2)
Kibicho (2010)	“Empowering local people by generating employment opportunities, thereby improving their incomes and developing their skills and institutions” (p.212).
Zapata et al (2011)	“Any business organizational form grounded on the property and self-management of the community’s patrimonial assets, according to democratic and solidarity practices; and on the distribution of the benefits generated by the supply of tourist services, with the aim at supporting intercultural quality meetings with the visitors” (p.727).
Salazar (2011)	“Aims to create a more sustainable tourism industry (at least discursively), focusing on the receiving communities in terms of planning and maintaining tourism development” (p.10).
Rensonsibletravel.com (2013)	“Tourism in which local residents (often rural, poor and economically marginalized) invite tourists to visit their communities with the provision of overnight accommodation.”
Kyrgyz CBT association (2013)	“The practice of providing natural, value-packed travel services that utilize local accommodation, food, music, art, crafts and traditions.”
SNV-(Netherlands Development Organization) and University of Hawaii (2013)	“A type of sustainable tourism that promotes pro-poor strategies in a community setting. CBT initiatives aim to involve local residents in the running and management of small tourism projects as a means of alleviating poverty and providing an alternative income source for community members” (p.9).
World Bank (2013)	“Community driven development aims at giving a voice to the stakeholders, involve them in identifying their own needs and the ensuing decision making, encourage them to take responsibility, and mobilize the majority of actors in a given community through a participatory process.”

Source: Asli et al (2013)

3.4.1 Characteristics of Community-Based Tourism

The characteristics of community base tourism are developed to suit its original goal for which it is developed. Firstly, CBT targets remote, rural, impoverished,

marginalized, economically depressed, undeveloped, poor, indigenous, ethnic minority and people of small towns who are nourished by a traditional or agricultural economic system. In this system, economic activities and marketing exchanges is shaped by tradition.

Secondly, community based tourism is communal centric i.e., powered by community participation for the community development and benefits rather than for individual benefits such the production and distribution of the goods and services is carried out by a combined public participation while sharing the risks and ruminates for work done proportionately.

There is also the possibility of the local communities encountering obstacles during the transition period from an agrarian activity to service production because communities prior to tourism planning and development are subsistence depending on agricultural production for their economic and developmental wellbeing (Pinel, 2013). To evade such crisis, CBT development should take in to consideration the existing local community knowledge system, their traditional way of life, existing community capital, skills, community attractions, environmental and cultural asserts of the community.

Furthermore, it is characterized by a non-western culture and dwells on environments where the local lifestyle and other socio-cultural and environmental attractions become products for CBT. These traditional products constitute ideal attractions for CBT and are novel, different, exotic, pleasant, enriching and unique in all ramifications especially when it flavored with a genuine enthusiasm, warmth and

hospitality of the host community creating a unique environment for cross-cultural expression and exchange.

It is however not out of place that, some communities at time consider certain aspects of their way of life as a weakness, backward or even as being unpleasant rather than an attraction. But, a well-structured and targeted community capacity building which goes a long way to increasing community awareness about cultural identity, pride and self-confidence there by empowering the community with a sense of control and skills to outweigh outsider's pleasure. It is also important to note that, with the goal of empowering community support for tourism development, CBT approach is also applicable to less developed parts of developed country.

3.4.2 Requirements and Principles for a Successful Community-Based Tourism

Local communities cannot be alienated from the changes brought about by the effect of globalization and it is important to note that, community based tourism has been proven to be an effective tool to grasp and positively change with the changing situation of the world at large. Lacking the managerial and financial ability to meet the demands in achieving their desired change poses a stumbling block to absolute self-reliance, thus, the communities increasingly depend on the outside world. These local communities harbor the touristic resources but ironically, more than 50 years after the emergence of the tourism industry, they are receiving very few if at all any benefits from tourism and are instead suffering from the negative impacts that damage their resources and cultural heritage through adulteration. Community based tourism does not however seek to address the question of how can communities benefit more from tourism? Rather, it seeks to investigate and address the question of can this same tourism contribute to the process of community development? Based on its principles and complexity in implementation, it is of significance to educate

and create awareness by preparing and building the managerial capacity of the community dwellers so that they can realize the importance of CBT both as a community development, natural resource management and cultural preservation thereby attracting and increasing the willingness of the community dwellers to participate in any activity geared toward CBT planning and development.

Apart from being a tool for community development and environmental conservation CBT should be operated in a holistic approach merging the social, economic environmental and political developmental factors with an adherence to its principles (figure 6) thereby creating an understanding of the community situation which will facilitate the resolution of the quest of tourism contribution to community development. Community based tourism is also commonly used as a means of revenue generation, employment creation, promotion of growth especially in the private sectors and infrastructural development in its entirety (WTO, 1997). A great deal of CBT projects and programmes have failed to meet their original objectives due to ineffective functioning and or lack of some crucial factors including employment creation, equitable benefits distribution, benefits from land, lack of managerial and entrepreneurial skills, inadequate community involvement and participation in the process, lack of a sense of ownership by community member and inadequate local financial resources resulting to heavy reliance on foreign aids. The influence of these factors to a particular destination is backed by its characteristics and stakeholders involvement since there are neither any two similar destinations nor a universally accepted CBT model for implementation. Based on these presumptions the table below (table 4) shows many principles which have been developed by authors and bodies for a successful and suitable development of community based tourism as seen on the table below.

Table 4. Principles for a Successful application of CBT

Salazar (2011)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Economically viable: the revenue should exceed the costs, 2. Ecologically sustainable: the environment should not decrease in value, 3. An equitable distribution of costs and benefits among all participants in the activity, 4. Institutional consolidation ensured: a transparent organization, recognized by all stakeholders, should be established to represent the interests of all community members and to reflect true ownership (p.11).
Zapata et al, (2011)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Located within a community (i.e. on communal land or with community benefits such as lease fees), 2. Owned by one or more community members (i.e. for the benefit of one or more community members), 3. Managed by community members (i.e. community members could influence the decision making process of the enterprise) (p.727).
Asker et al, (2010)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The community is already well organized and cohesive, 2. Community members, women, men and youth are, widely involved in decision making processes, and financial management around the CBT, 3. Land ownership and other ‘resource’ issues are clear and well defined, 4. ‘Bottom up desire’, in the community reflected in the facility design, decision-making and management structures, 5. Decision for CBT is made by the community based on informed choice, of impact, options, risk, and outcomes 6. High participation levels, 7. Driver is not purely income generation but also cultural and natural heritage conservation and intercultural learning, 8. The activity is supported by good marketing mechanisms, 9. A strong plan for expansion, and/or to limit visitor numbers in balance with the carrying capacity of the community and environment to avoid adverse effects on both, 10. Strong partnership with local NGOs, relevant government bodies and other supporters, 11. Approaches are contextually and locally appropriate and not just ‘imported’ from other contexts, 12. CBT is part of a broader/wider community development strategy, 13. Linked to visitor education on the value of culture and resources present, 14. Clear zoning of visitor and non-visitor areas, 15. There is good existing infrastructure to access the product (P.4)
Silva and Wimalaratana (2013)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Undeniable role for the community on cost-benefits sharing principle, 2. Community consultation in tourism related legislations and planning, 3. Projects implemented with the consent and active participation of the community, 4. Community initiated, owned, and managed projects, 5. Community and private/public partnerships, 6. Economically viable and ecologically sound projects,

7.	Fair distribution of costs and benefits among involved parties,
8.	Institutional consolidation and well-developed institutional environment,,
9.	Accountability and transparency of all activities (p.8).
World Bank (2013)	1. Ensuring participation at all levels of the community and avoiding the exclusion of marginal groups,
	2. Remaining responsive to the priorities of the communities,
	3. Establishing a dialogue between the communities and the local government,
	4. Ensuring that intermediaries are held accountable to community groups,
	5. Be demand oriented,
	6. Support policy reforms necessary for the success of a given project undertaken with a community driven approach.

Source: adopted from Asli et al, (2013)

In situations where touristic potential and attractions are situated within the community living space, their participation is very important for the planning and development of tourism because they encounter the direct impact of such venture especially its negativities (Kibicho, 2003). In this regard, a total collaboration between ordinary members of the community, decision-makers within the community, tourism professionals, tourism businesses and NGOs is required for the protection of the touristic attractions for an effective and successful tourism planning and development. In achieving community participation, they must be actively take part in gathering useful information through household surveys, interviews, field observations, document analysis, and informal discussions, participate in the decision making process to ensure protection and respect of their social values and finally, rationalizing benefits such as employment without undermining the women and the underprivileged for these are the root causes of community resistance and revolts etc.

3.5 Cost and Benefits of Community Based Tourism

3.5.1 Benefits of Community Based Tourism

Community Based Tourism has gained support from numerous multinational, international and even intranational institutions and organizations for its ability to instigate empowerment to communities, fostering socioeconomic development, enhancing cultural and environmental sustainability and conservation, and creating a forum for stakeholder integration and collaboration for tourism planning and development (SNV-Netherlands Development Organization, 2001; World Bank, 2013). Apart from shielding local's culture from the ravishing effect from globalization, it also set the past for local wellbeing and living standard improvement through infrastructural amelioration and development such as transport, PBW, rural electrification, telecommunication, legal and institutional structural reforms, security, healthcare, environmental and cultural preservation etc., thereby provided basic human need for both the locals and for tourist consumption (Asker et al, 2010; Goodwin & Santilli, 2009). CBT also open grounds for a sure source of income earning through local employment in all its forms which facilitate the provision of education and health care, clothing, construction of houses, etc. by the locals (SNV, 2001).

The fact that CBT development is based on a participatory approach with massive involvement and participation by the locals in every stage in the developmental process, it has gone a long way to build the skills, knowledge and confidence of the locals to take charge of the activities, exploit the potentials and direct the planning and development of tourism within their communities. This has stimulated oneness and collaborative participation, improving the vices unskillful youths, women, elderly, marginalize etc. creating grounds for a common knowledge about community resource and assets, shared decision making and equitable distribution of

risks and benefits (Medeiros and Bramwell, 1999; Okazaki, 2008). A Great deal of these benefits are abstracts and difficult to be measured. However, several studies investigating the results of some CBT projects reveal several benefits both economic, social, environmental etc., as shown on table (table 5) below.

Table 5. Benefits of Community Based Tourism

Economic Benefits of CBT	Environmental Benefits of CBT
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Increased local income: revenues and employment; 2. Poverty alleviation; 3. Economic recovery; 4. Improved infrastructure; 5. Harmony with other existing sustainable economic activities; 6. Development of linkages among sectors; 7. Provision and creation of markets for existing products and services; 8. Contribution to balanced development: providing economic diversity, eliminating economic dependency on a few sectors, improving geographic distribution of employment and income generation opportunities; 9. Increased flow of resources towards local level development initiatives. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Sustainable use and development of sensitive natural capital environments; 2. Conservation of local natural resources; 3. Use of a wide range of resources rather than depending on one intensively; 4. Encouraging non-consumptive uses of natural resources; 5. Increased environmental awareness at the national and local levels; 6. Improved understanding of the relationship between the environment and sustainable economic development.
<hr/>	
Socio-cultural Benefits of CBT	
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Enhanced human capital- provision of training and education for locals to improve skills and capacity relevant to planning, production, business development and management of business related tourism services; 2. Enhanced social capital- support on community institutions, improved capacity of, linkages between, and involvement of public, non-governmental, private, local, civil society and non-governmental organizations in tourism development; 3. Good governance by involvement of participatory planning at all levels; 4. Community development- enhanced community identity, sense of pride, social cohesion, community empowerment and social equity through the participation of local people in the planning process, development and management as well as monitoring, reduced emigration and attracting immigration; 5. Increased local quality of life- improved local health by development of a sanitation and sewage system, public facilities and infrastructure, such as roads, water system, electricity network and telecommunications; 6. Preserving and promoting the local culture, historical heritage and natural resources with the help of increased willingness of community members to conserve natural, cultural and heritage resources because the generation of income from the enterprise is directly linked to the existence of CBT; 7. Improved inter and intra-cultural relations and links through cultural exchange and dialogue between local community members and tourists. 	

Source: Adopted from Asli et al, (2013)

Of all benefit of CBT, a change in locals' outlook be it physical, mental or the environment is considered the most important. CBT can open up ways and means for future community development, giving hope for the community thereby instigating their willingness for involvement, produce and take control of their lives seeking a change of an undesirable living condition. This may also motivate the communities to overcome potential obstacles of development and productivity such as laziness and learned helplessness, thereby resulting to belief in themselves, improved self-confidence, and self-respect among locals. In this way, communities will no longer depend on subsidies from donors to stay focus and active in production for development and enrichment thereby achieving UN's Millennium development goals of combating poverty and hunger, illiteracy, gender discrimination, HIV/AIDS, and achieving health for children and mothers, environmental sustainability and global partnership respectively.

3.5.2 Cost of Community Based Tourism

A failure actualizing and putting in to practice the principle of CBT may be catastrophic especially with the fact that, CBT projects directly affects the marginalized, poor, and disadvantaged groups. Such project disappointments may threaten the well-being of the community dweller who may have been still struggling to salvage the precarious socio-economic situation entangled with by many local communities today. A critical examination of the pros and the cons of any CBT venture are therefore required so as not to put the life span of any community in jeopardy (Asli et al, 2013)

Despite the preponderant role CBT plays in attaining the UN millennium development goals it is still debilitated especially with divergence in its conception and meaning articulated by different community, difference in stakeholder's skills,

goals, support and commitments in its developmental projects. Community based tourism may be impaired by lack of community trust and equity which may arise from sapping information flow and transparency within and amongst the community and stakeholders. Insufficient human and social capital coupled with suppression of the roles of gender and youths and other cultural obstacles which may bring about uncertainty and misconception about their own roots and purported earnings of CBT may thwart its developmental efforts. The eventuality of such scenario in a community creates awareness within the stakeholders about the cost and benefits of the venture. There is a variation in success of any CBD project depending on the dynamism and interplay of these issues. An increase in the intensity eventually creates a supersession of the cost to benefits of the project leading to negative consequences like alienation and loss of cultural identity; creation of frictions within the community, disruption of socio-economic structures; conflicts over use of resources and even disturbance to local (Asker et al, 2010, p.10). However, to avoid such negative consequences, there is need for reassurance and reaffirmation of the original premises of CBT and a collaborative functional, proactive and all-inclusive development of CBT project (Pinel, 2013)

3.6.1 Ecotourism: As a Mechanism for CBET

As confusing as it is to define, one thing for sure is that, the ancestry origin of ecotourism is tourism that emerged in the 1980 as a direct outcome of an increasing awareness of the world's environmental problems, increasing desire of the wealthy westerners for experience the intricacies of nature and the emergence of the concept of sustainability (Diamantis, 1999). Many definitions have therefore sprouted up in tourism literatures creating confusion about the actual definition and even its fundamental principles and mode of operation (Diamantis, 1999) so much so that, it

is becoming a limitation for the growth and development of the ecotourism industry on the global scale (Herbig and O'Hara, 1997). Lascuráin in 1987 forwarded one of the most cited definitions of ecotourism; "traveling to relatively uncontaminated natural areas with the specific objective of studying, admiring and enjoying the scenery and its wild plants and animals, as well as any existing cultural manifestations (both past and present) found in these areas. Wight (1993) described the term as activities that are conducted in alliance with nature opposing the activities of mass tourism. In 2004, IES summarized ecotourism as; responsible travel to natural areas that conserves the environment and sustains the well-being of local people.

There is however, no universally accepted definition of the concept. Some authors equate it to nature-based tourism (Gould, 2004) while others clearly acknowledged the educational purpose fulfillment and environmental conservation purpose distinctiveness between ecotourism and nature-based tourism (Blamey, 1995; Dawling and Page, 2001; Weaver, 2005). Ecotourism strives to minimize environmental problems, an adage by Dawling (2001) in a bit to further clarify its difference with nature-based tourism. It is however important to note that, the definition and practical implementation on the concept of ecotourism varies in different countries as this will depend on the importance attached to it, their socio-cultural, economic, and the environmental characteristics of the country (Linbdery & McKercher, 1997). Developed countries will pay more attention on the environmental and socio-cultural preservation aspect of it while the developing countries will dwell more on the economic gain of ecotourism (Linbdery et al, 1997). Ecotourism is regarded an empowerment tool for local, marginalized, poor communities rather a mere product as considered by nature-based tourism

(Sheyvenes, 2002). It therefore instigates an appreciative attitude to local community dwellers towards nature conservation and development backed by an increasing awareness of the impact of global warming and its relation to environmental conservation (Wearing and Neil, 1999)

A deeper look at the definition of the concept of ecotourism in tourism literature reveals that it is environmental centric but recent literature has modified and expanded the definition after recognition of natural and regional diversities coupled with need to satisfy the increasing need for ecotourism experience (Gibson and Joppe, 2002). It now lays more emphasis on the liaison between the environment and tourism rather than just on nature based characteristics of ecotourism. Ecotourism therefore now focuses on enhancing and supporting the environment while fostering an inseparable positive relationship between the natural environment and local communities' harboring the natural environment through involvement in the developmental process related to ecotourism conservation. The evolution of the concept of ecotourism over time coupled with the increasing awareness of the impact of mass tourism and environmental degradation has reoriented it toward the concept of sustainability thus an adoption of the principles of sustainable development in defining, clarification and practical implementation of the concept of ecotourism (Jessica et al, 2011).

3.6.2 Critiques and Of Ecotourism.

Despite the numerous success stories of ecotourism project development presented in the tourism literature, there are also massive reports in tourism literature of its failure in attaining the practical realities of the purported objectives and principles implementation. There is a widening of the gap between theoretical and practical implication and implementation of ecotourism. These shortcomings are elucidated in varied degree and dimensions in the tourism literature. Ecotourism is strongly

criticized for being a product of western construction in a bit to clearly expose the irrationality in the relationship between the developed and the developing world there by strengthening their hegemonic domination over developing countries (Cater, 2006)

In the economic perspective, an investigation in the Pacific Island by Thaman (1994, p.185) revealed that ecotourism has become a tool used by marketing managers to for new sales and market development for profit maximization rather than practical implementation and accomplishment of its purpose as elucidated in the principles of ecotourism (Cater, 2002; Orams,1995; Scheyrens, 2002). Furthermore, it has also fallen short in the equitable distribution of benefits between the local and outsiders. And evidence in the Komodo national park region reveals a high level of revenue and employment leakages (Goodwin, 2002). The evidence of inequitable distribution of ecotourism benefits was also reported in the Nepalese Himalaya and North Sulawesi by Nepal (2000) and Ross & Wall (1999) respectively.

Lack of communication skills by the locals to effectively communicate with tourist earning them low- skilled, low-paid and seasonal job thereby limiting their economic benefits thus inequitable distribution of ecotourism benefits is another economic setback of ecotourism (Walls, 1997; Cater, 2006).

Also, limitation in local economic benefits is often as a result of the limited scale of ecotourism operation in local communities. Scale limitation goes a long way to limit tourist arrivals thus limited spending and limited economic benefits (Walls 1997). This point was evidenced by a study in Niue Island where ecotourism was found to be economically in viable due to limited tourist arrivals (Haas, 2003). It is also

important to note that, most tourist attraction sites are located in remote areas harboring limited infrastructures and avenues for spending thus restricting economic earning and it is observed that only 22% to 25% of ecotourism benefits is retained in destinations (Cater, 1993).

Ecotourism is also accused for environmental degradation no matter the quality and number of tourist arrivals if not properly regulated (Cater, 1993). This can be due to the fact ecotourism potentials are strategically sited in ecologically sensitive and vulnerable areas usually visited and sensitive periods of the year, like during mating and breeding which disrupts free nature flow and interaction in the system (Cater, 1993; Walls, 1997). Apart from disruption and disturbance of nature flow and interaction it can also lead to soil erosion and compartment, wildlife disturbance, and water and air pollution (Linberg and McKercher, 1997). Ecotourism growth over carrying capacity can lead to grave environmental cost (Cray & Hogh, 2003). It is therefore undoubtedly clear that, ecotourism at times turns to violate its objectives which bring about environmental devastations earning it a consideration of being ecologically based but not ecologically sound (Cater, 1994, p.4).

Apart from the economic and environmental critiques of ecotourism, it is also blamed for numerous socio-cultural adversities ranging from cultural adulteration, local land-use conflicts to social relationship disruptions (Weaver, 2001). These socio-cultural ecotourism consequences may be in proportion to number, quality and diversity of tourists arriving the destination (Butler, 1994, McKercher, 1997). Another consequence of ecotourism is social inequality (Weaver, 2001) it is also criticized for local community displacement especially in situations where the locality has been cited for ecological conservation with inadequate compensation (Wall, 1997). This is

a common cause of tourism developmental resistance and conflict between communities and other stakeholders. There is also the potentiality of cultural comodification (Caroline et al, 2004; Gould, 2004)

Nevertheless tourism is still adopted by numerous nations as a tool for development. The irrational success in development by these countries engraining ecotourism as a developmental tool is a clear indication of the gap between the theoretical and practicalities of ecotourism (Nepal, 2000b; Ross et al., 1999b; Brandon, 1996; Wells, 1997; Lindberg, 1991; Ziffer, 1989). A regular assessment of the impacts of such venture is therefore required so as to set aside strict guards toward the realization of its objective while instigation participatory zeal and willingness of the locals for rational equitable distribution of benefits thereby reducing the chances of community resistance.

3.7 Community Based Ecotourism and Its Intricacies

Community based ecotourism is a sensitive and strategic amalgamation of two term community and ecotourism to create a functionally similar, yet practically different concepts from ecotourism. The two terms form the bases for community based ecotourism and have been critically examined in earlier sections of this thesis. For recap, there are many types of community each having its own characteristic and fulfilling a particular purpose but in general, it refers to an existing group of people with shared values, common goal and shared rights and duties (WWF-International, 2001) while ecotourism by Lascrain (1987) refers to travelling to a relatively uncontaminated natural environment with an objective of studying, admiring and enjoying its scenario captivities including its wild plants and animals not living out the cultural manifestations present in the area. There is rather no universally accepted

definition for this concept of community based ecotourism, but however, it reflects ecotourism which is community centric and involvement. It is regarded to, as tourism activities with greater local developmental and managerial influence and in turn gaining higher proportion of the benefits (WWF, 2001). Despite the fact that ecotourism stands apart compared to traditional tourism due to its small scale, sustainability centric and grater local insolvent, its practical implementation often falls short of promoting local community interest especially in developing countries (Campbell, 1999; Cochrane, 1996). Community based ecotourism is therefore developed to meet the need and acknowledges the concern of the local community rather than just the natural areas (Belsky, 1999; Fotton, 1996; Timothy & White, 1999). it offers the potential and possibility of greater community involvement, control and participation if there is proper awareness and understanding of its actualities by the locals (Murphy, 1985)

Small scaled, locally oriented and a holistic approach to community growth and social change are the guiding principles of community development from where the principles of community based ecotourism are drawn and developed (Horwich et al, 1993, Woodley, 1993). Community development encourages self-reliance, empowerment of locals in decision making, encourages local participation and community control over community developmental initiative, development and direction of community developmental projects (Timothy, 2009). Community base ecotourism creates a sense of equity since local community dwellers are band to be restricted from the traditional usage of the natural resources (Eagle et al, 1992). Thus, to attain social sustainability, local communities should clearly knowledgeable of, and actively involved in every stage in the planning and development of any community based tourism development project (McCool & Moisley, 2001). Their

participation can be encouraged through public dialogues and consideration in decision making and benefit sharing (Diamantis, 2004).

Ecotourism planning and development without incorporation of local communities in every step all the way is liable to fail (McCool & Moisey, 2001). In such circumstances, they are prone to develop a negative attitude toward ecotourism development in their community and will oppose and resist any attempt towards conservation of the natural resources on which ecotourism depends for it on these same resources they rely on for their day-to-day survival (Lawton, 2001). They tend to regard ecotourism as a competitor thus, a threat to their source of livelihood (Ross & Wall, nd). To salvage the situation, sensitization for awareness creation about the potential benefits of such venture with an assurance of a rational and equitable distribution of benefits can motivate locals to support and participate in ecotourism project that aid in the reduction of environmental degradation activities like poaching. It is however important to note that such gestures is not a guarantee to the stoppage of community consumption and trespass in to protected and reserved areas especially in the short run (Gossiling,1999).

Community control over planning and management of ecotourism projects which the guarding principle of community based ecotourism, aids in overcoming the obstacles to the success of the project thus facilitating the realization of social and economic benefits (Trokolis, 2001). Psychological, economic, social and political local community empowerment are the driving forces of community based ecotourism. Psychological empowerment inculcates self-esteem and pride for their unique beautiful cultural heritage, sociological empowerment instills social bond and cooperation among community members, economic empowerment aids in the

generation and equitable distribution of long term benefits which can be used for infrastructural development in the community and finally political empowerment creates a forum for self-expression and democratization of community development issues i.e. the voice of every person is heard relevance taken into consideration in any developmental venture within the communities (Scheyvens, 1999).

Conclusively, community based ecotourism sets the path for local development but its practical implementation is rather the bone of contention especially in communities that lack government assistance and attention. A sudden urge for ecotourism development in such community which solely depend on the resources for their survival need critical and systematic awareness creation of the intricacies of such venture so as to gain community support and total collaboration while striving to attain the desired objectives. In this light community resistance and revolution in the long run will be evaded.

CHAPTER 4

STUDY AREA

4.1 Cameroon: An Overview

The republic of Cameroon is situated at the armpit of the African map stretching from the center to the west of Africa. It is bounded by Lake Chad in the north, Equatorial Guinea, Gabon and Congo in the south, Nigeria in the west and the Atlantic coast line eastwards (figure, 7). Cameroon is diverse in all ramifications from flora to fauna, natural features like mountains to plains, rivers beautiful sandy and rocky beaches and well over 200 ethnic groups with diverse mother tongue but with two official languages French and English. This diversification ends the country Africa in miniature (all Africa in one county). It has a surface area of 465,500km² with a total population of 20,129,878 as per the July 2012 census statistics giving an average population density of 43.24person/km².it is however important to note here that this population is far from being evenly distributed over the surface area (Cameroon demographic profile,2012)

4.1.1 A Brief History of Cameroon

Rio dos Camarões, a Portuguese connotation of river of prawns from where Cameroon got its name when Portuguese explorers anchored at the coast of Cameroon in the 15th century. The Germans later colonized the country in 1884 establishing Chiefdoms and Fondoms in the west and north western regions of the country respectively (African history, 2012). At the stroke of the First World War 1914 -1918 and with the defeat of the Germans by a joined French and British forces in 1915, the

jointly administered the country under the condominium before partitioning it. By 1922 the county was partitioned between France and Britain to be administered separately as trustee territories of the League of Nations in preparation for self-administration and independence. While the French administered their own territory through direct rule, the British use indirect rule and administered their section as part of Nigeria. After series of revolts and resistances, the French part of the country got her independence under UPC (Union des Population du Cameroon) in 1960 under the leadership of President Ahmadou Ahidjo forming La Repulique Du Cameroun and on the 11th of February 1961, the united nation supervises the plebiscites where the English part of the country voted to join their French brothers to form the Federal republic of Cameroon and in 1972, the country was renamed the United Republic of Cameroon still under the leadership of President Ahmadou Ahidjo. In 1982, the then prime minister Paul Biya became the president of the country and in 1984, the name was changed to the republic of Cameroon (African history, 2012). Till date Cameroon has enjoyed peace and stability and coupled with its numerous natural and human potentials it's a fertile grown for the development of the tourism industry



Figure 5. Cameroon and its neighboring countries Source: www.infoplease.com

4.2 Tourism in Cameroon

The tourism industry in Cameroon a minor industry but has witness a slow and steady growth over the years. The country is noted for its peace and stability and a visit to Africa with Cameroon is considered wanting but on the other hand, Cameroon contain all a tourist can find in Africa earning it, Africa in Miniature meaning all of Africa in one country. It harbors all the beauty of Africa and with its contrasting view, Cameroon offers a splendor admired by tourist such as beautiful beaches, mountain ranges, deserts, waterfall, and good climatic condition etc. the diversity of the country also stretches to the aspects of tribal societies, fauna and flora, languages etc. and all this creates an impression in the tourist mind as visiting many countries at the same time.

The fast and rapid growth of the tourism industry in the world and more especially its potentiality for poverty alleviation and infrastructural development and environmental conservation acted as an eye opener to the Cameroon government which immediately acted by infrastructural development and investments other sectors for the purpose of tourism. The industry became so prioritized earning it special status by an order from the then president of the republic of Cameroon; Ahmadou Ahidjo in 1974 establishing the general commiserate of tourism which was later transformed to General Delegation for tourism in 1975 (Travel and Tourism in Cameroon 2012). Under the delegation for tourism, there was massive infrastructural development including transport and communication for easy accessibility of the countries touristic potentials. Road transport is ranked first in term of tourism transportation means in the country followed by air with Douala and Yaoundé hosting the two main international airports in the country. (Table 8) below

shows the number of tourists that arrived the country from 2006 to 2010 as per the different transportation modes.

Table 6. Transport means of tourist arrivals in Cameroon 2006-2010

	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Land	239689	247698	243689	253485	280924
Air	199020	216667	223971	217857	238198
Sea	12723	12471	18861	26958	53607
Total	451441	476836	486530	498300	572729

Source: Africa in one country, (2010)

Apart from transport and communication envelopment, there was also investment in accommodation e.g. Hotels, to host the potential increase in the number of tourist visiting the country. Majority of the hotels were situated in Doula the economic capital of the country and Yaoundé the national capital of the country. By 1960, the total number of hotels was 37 with a total number of 599 rooms. By 1976, the hotel number rose to 203 with 3229 rooms and by the number of hotels had reached 7.500 rooms. As years go by, Cameroon popularity as a tourist destination kept increasing and by 1975, the total tourist arrival in the country was 100000 persons compared to 29500 persons in 1971. By 1980 the number of tourist arrival has risen to 130000people with most of the tourist coming from Canada, France and Britain. 2008 statistics showed a total of about 298000 tourists had visited the country and by 2010 the number of tourist has reached basic UN limit of 500000 earning the country recognition by the WTO as a touristic destination (Africa in one Cameroon, 2010)

4.3 Cameroon Tourist Attractions

The diversity and variability of Cameroon in terms of people, culture, and physical or environmental diversities offers the opportunity for tourists to gain pleasure from the country in varied destinations and in varied degree. Cameroon as a tourist destination is noted for its attractiveness pulling massive number of tourist every year. It is true, no site or event is a tourist attraction on itself without proper development and management to create it recognition through marketing (Noudou, 2012). Cameroon has set an example to this effect in many places and situations, be it physical or human. Taking the Foumban Palace for example this was elevated from a mere Fun shelter to a world heritage center due to its rich cultural manifestations brandishing it for the purpose of tourism by the government (Jafari, 2000). Here is now a day full engagement of the government to develop it touristic potentials so as to especially create job opportunities for it millions of unemployed youths. The Cameroon government uses both the cognitive and perpetual tourism development procedure so as to develop it infrastructure as also market its tourism potentials for financial gain. From culture to safari, the tourist attractions of Cameroon are presented bellow

4.3.1 Eco-Tourist Attractions

The ecotourism sector in Cameroon is at the pick of support by both the government and NGO bearing in mind the devastation effects of climate change plaguing the world today. This offers great opportunities for tourist to savor the unadulterated natural environment of the country stretching from the rich savanna vegetation in the northern part of the country to the thick evergreen forest in south containing varied wildlife and world endangered species. There are also beautiful mountain, crater lakes, and waterfalls offering the opportunity for the creation of numerous parks and

reserves. This makes the country unique in all ramifications earning it “ecotourism Heaven” (Mbiakop, 2012)



Figure 6. Menchum fall in the northwest region of Cameroon



Figure 7. River Kienké in Kribi that empty in to ocean by a rapid

4.3.2 Seaside Resort Tourist Attractions

The coastline of Cameroon bordering the Atlantic Ocean stretch over an area of about 400km² and extends from the littoral region across the south west to the southern region of the country. Douala, Limbe and Kribi are the most prominent beaches in the country with the Douala seaport being the main international seaport of the country. The warm sandy beaches of Limbe and Kribi attract thousands of tourists annually. Immediately pass the sandy beaches, is thick mangrove forest and

coconut trees which shield the beaches from the sun giving it an extraordinary splendor that tourists will miss for nothing.



Figure 8. Some rocky beach Limbe Cameroon



Figure 9, KRIBI Sandy Beach. Adapted from Global bush travel and tourism agency 2012)

4.3.3 Altitude (Mountain) Tourist Attractions.

The undulating nature of the country contributes to its aesthetic beauty and attraction to tourists. Cameroon is not only endowed with beautiful beaches and other natural

endowments. It is blessed with high and beautiful mountains like Mt Oku, Mt Mandara, Mt Manenguba, Mt coupe and Mt Cameroon with a height of 4100m above sea level and the highest in west and central Africa (Tamsia, 2011). Mt Cameroon is an active volcano and the latest eruption took place on the 28th may 2000. The volcanic eruption improves the soil fertility of the region as can be noticed with the proliferation of numerous plantations in around the area. Mt Cameroon race of hope an annual mountain race participated by athletes from all over the world there by increasing the tourist inflow of the country.



Figure 10. Mt. Cameroon during eruption and tourist visit



Figure 11. Mt. Cameroon Race of Hope 14th Edition

4.3.4 Cultural Tourist Attractions.

The diversity of Cameroon is not limited on its physical environment. It is also culturally diverse. It comprises of almost 200 ethnic groups with diverse cultures. Interestingly, the country is occupied by both Muslims and Christians all having equal stakes in the affairs of the nation. The Muslims pre-dominate the northern part of the country while the Christians dominate the south. This two renounce groups however cohabit within cities and even intermarried. Cameroonians are for their close ties with tradition as they proudly express their cultural diversity everywhere they find themselves. These diverse cultural heritage offered different cultural satisfactions for the pleasure of tourist not found in other African countries (Mbiakop, 2012)

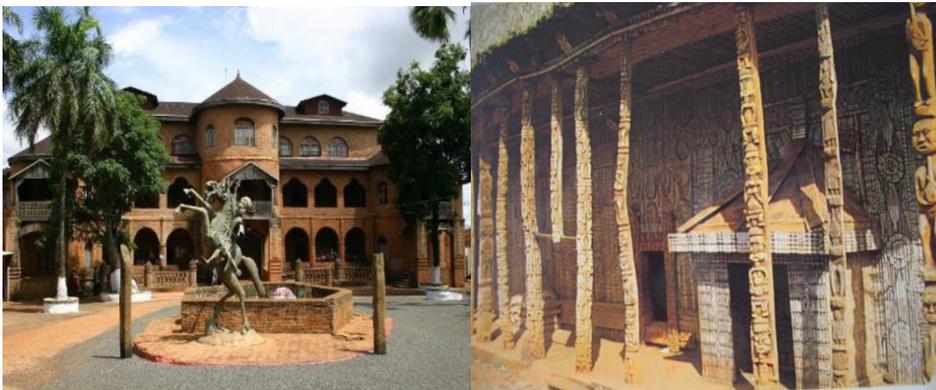


Figure 12. Founban palace recognized as a world tourism attraction and Bamum cultural palace respectively. Source: africapostcards.blogspot.com

4.3.5 National Parks and Reserves for Safari Tourist Attractions

Just like many other countries, Cameroon in a bid to conserve its abundant natural resources thereby creating potentials for safari tourism, has created many national parks and reserve all over the country (table 9). These parks and reserves are homes for millions of both endangered and non-endangered plants and animals. Table 9, shows the main national parks of the country and their total surface areas

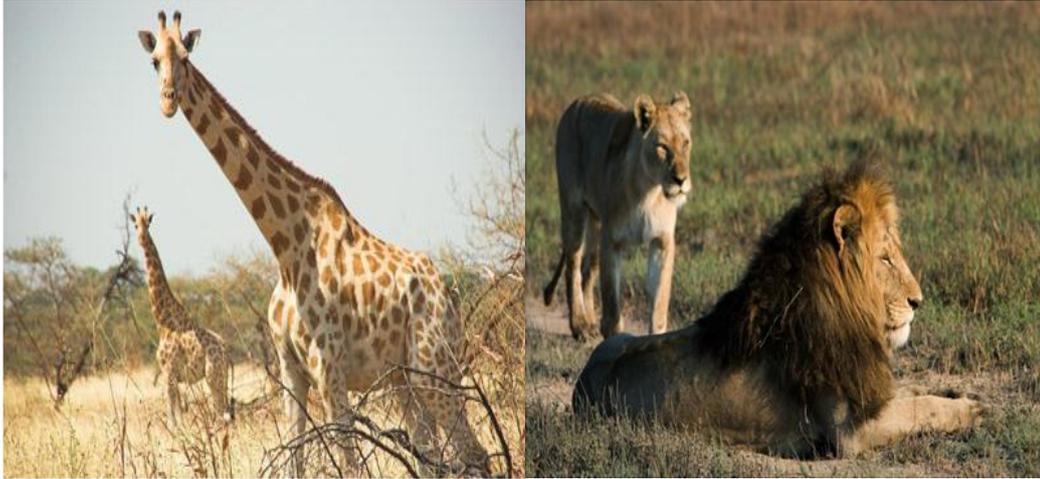


Figure 13. Figure: lion and giraffe in the Waza National Park.
Source: Tumenta et al., 2013

Table 7. Cameroon National Parks

NATIONAL PARKS	SEUFACE AREA OCCUPIED IN Ha
BENOUE NATIONAL PARK	180,000
BOUBA NATIONAL PARK	220,000
CAMPO NATIONAL PARK	264,064
FARO NP	330,000
KALAMALOUÉ NP	4500
KORUP NP	125,900
LOBE KE NP	217,854
MBAM & DJEREM NP	416,512
MOZONGO GOKORO NP	1,400
MPEN & DJIM NP	97,480
MBERE VALLEY NP	77,760
WAZA NP	170,000
BOUMBA BEK NP	238,255
NKI NATIONAL PARK	309,362
BAKOSI NATIONAL PARK	29,320
TAKAMANDA NATIONAL PARK	67,599
Mt CAMEROON NATIONAL PARK	58,178
DENY BENG NATIONAL PARK	52,347
TOTAL	2,860,531

Source: Africa in one country, (2010).

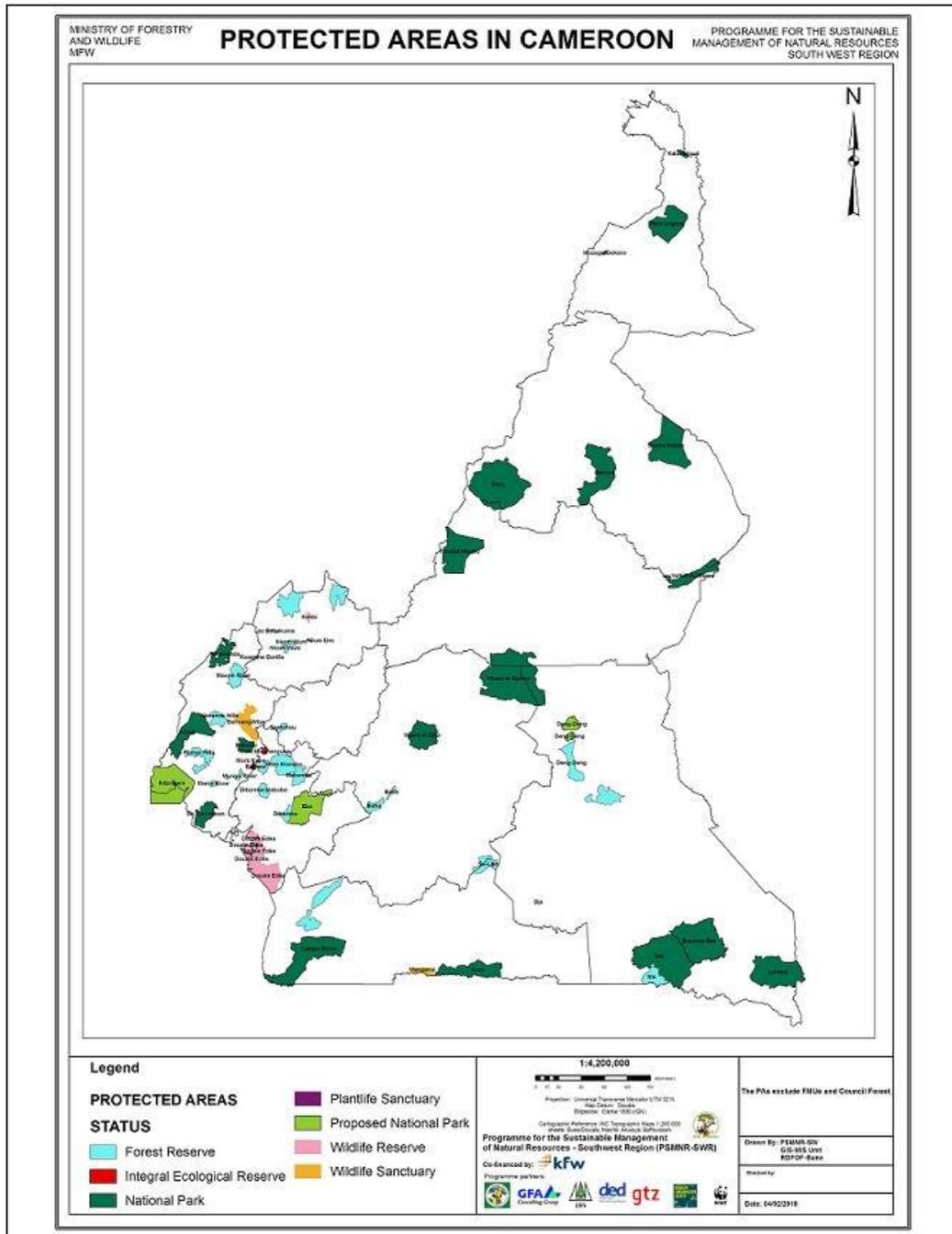


Figure 14. Protected Area Network in Cameroon
Source: Global Forest Watch (2007)

The most renowned and visited national park in the country is the Waza national park situated at the far northern region of the country and covering a total surface area of 170000 hectares. It harbors animals like elephants, giraffes, gazelles, and a large variety of birds, hyenas, antelopes, buffaloes, leopards, gorillas and black rhinos

(WNP, 2012). Another very important national park in Cameroon is the Korup national park which is considered the oldest compared to all other national parks of the country and is situated at the south western region of the country covering a total surface area of 1,260km square. It is rich in fauna and flora containing about 400 different species of medicinal plants. Its profile also shows that, the park harbors about 400 species of birds, 174 species of reptiles, 98 amphibians, 1000 species of butterflies, 160 mammals and 130 different species of fishes in the streams and rivers around the park. The park was recently discovered with a liana species an antidote for cancer and Aids. There are also many forest reserves in the country and gorilla sanctuaries e.g. the Takamanda national park (WNP, 2012)

Apart from the above mentioned attractions, sports are another area of touristic investment in the country. The sporting activities include hiking, trekking, swimming, golf, football, tennis, and fishing, rock climbing and mountaineering. A typical example of sport tourist attraction of the country is the annual mount Cameroon race of hope which attracts thousands of athletes from different countries in the world.

4.4 Plagues of Cameroon Tourism Industry

The Cameroon tourism sector has been wallowing to nowhere despite the abundance of touristic potentials of the country. Much is yet to be done to gain the WTO accreditation as a touristic destination since the country is yet to receive above 500,000 tourist a year (Sumelong, 2012). The statistics from the ministry of tourism reveals that, the country was visited by 402,580 in 2009 and with this development, the world tourism day of June, 2010 was commemorated with holding of several meeting to evaluate, the tourism success so far in the county, identify the problems

hindering the progress of the sector despite its countries potentials and finally seek for sustainable solutions and develop a strategic plan for the industry in the future (Fonka & Mesape, 2010). The Press Association for Responsible Tourism (APTOUR) seminar held on the 31st may 2010 in Yaoundé identified lack of international advertisement of the countries touristic potentials and also inadequate investment on ecotourism planning and development as the main retardations of tourism development and progress of the tourism industry in the country (Fonka & Mesape, 2010). Apart from the above setback, the ministry of tourism claims not to have sufficient material and financial backing to effectively perform their duty compared to the challenges alienated with tourism development in the country (Sumelong,2012)

The tourism industry is plagued by corruption, police harassment, administrative problems like lack of organization, lack of destination marketing, inaccessibility to touristic sites, insufficient communication and strikingly up till date there is not recognize government institution to train tourism personals ever thing has been left in the hands of NGO who operate for their financial benefits (Fonka & Mesape, 2010). The view of ineffective communication means was also supported by Superintendent of No. 2 at the Ministry of Tourism, Mr Boniface Piga. A London based tourism university lecturer, Carole Favre; remarked during the world tourism day commemoration 2010 in Cameroon that, the tourism sector in Cameroon is far for succeeding due to lack of a strategic developmental plan for the industry. Summarily, lack of information flow especially the creation of awareness, lack of professional training and inadequate financial support for the industry are frustrate the efforts for tourism development in the country despite its potentialities (Sackmen, 2003).

4.5 The Case of Takamanda National Park

4.5.1 General Description

Established in 1934 as Takamanda Native Administration Forest Reserve in 1934 and managed by the Cameroon Ministry for Environment and Forest (MINEF) through the Divisional Delegation in Mamfe, Manyu Division, the Takamanda National park (figure 17) was created in 2008 after many years of work and collaboration between WCS and the ministry of forestry and wildlife in Cameroon in a bid to conserve the world rarest great ape 'the cross river gorilla' and other animals like forest elephants, chimpanzees, and drills another rare primate and a close relative of the better-known mandrill (Sunderland, 2001). The park stretches from longitudes $05^{\circ} 55' - 06^{\circ} 22' N$ and latitudes $09^{\circ} 10' - 09^{\circ} 35' E$ of the Cross River Basin and covers an area of about 675.99 km^2 at the northern-most corner of the Southwest Province, Cameroon. The park enclaves 65 km^2 of village (figure 17) including: Obonyi I, Obonyi III, Kekpani, and Matene (Ayeni, et al, 2002). Majority of the lowland forest area within the southern and central part of the park which lies between 100-400m is characterized by a rolling terrain that rises sharply to 1500m altitude in the northern part of the park with extremely steep slopes. Small hills of about 725m lie towards the northern part of the Obonyi villages along the Nigerian borders. The hills separating the villages of Kekpane and Basho are similar in height, rising to about 600-700m. The Cameroon-Nigeria international boundary separates the park from the southeast section of the Okwangwo Division of the Cross River National Park (CRNP), Nigeria giving a continuous and significant, and cross-border area of "protected" forest. The Cross River which is the most prominent water body in the region and its multitude of headstream waters drain the southwestern Cameroon and southeastern Nigeria.

The Oyi river, a tributary of the Cross river, forms the greater part of the western border of the TFR.

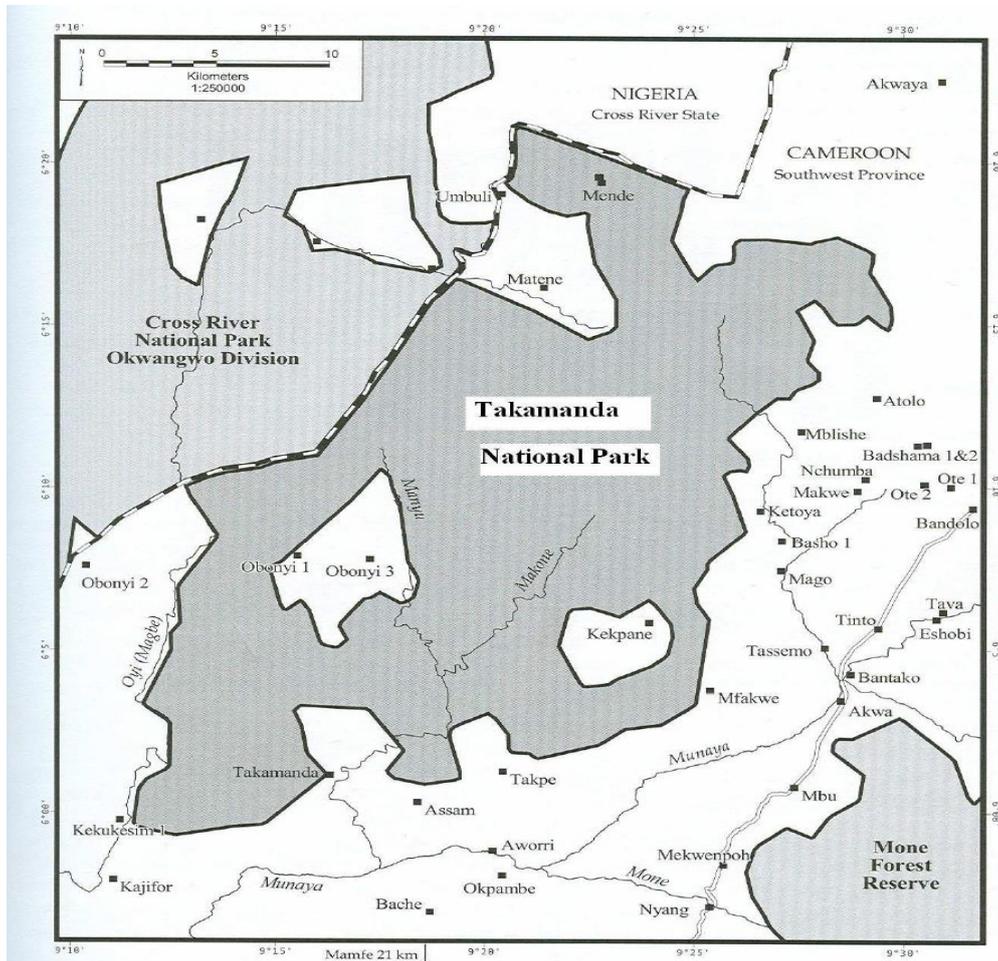


Figure 15. Location of the TNP and constituted villages
Source: PROFA (2002)

The east and south of the national park borders follow small rivulets of streams and footpaths. The first proposed management plan for the park was elaborated by GTZ/MINEF Project for the Protection of forests around Akwaya (PROFA) in 2002 with a general objective of advising and support the local population on local know-how on sustainable exploitation and management of the natural resources as well as assistance to the self-help potential of communities to improve living conditions through measures in agricultural, forestry and infrastructure sectors (Ayeni et al,

2002). It is however important to note here that, despite the status of the national park, the inhabitation of the communities within and buffer zones of the park greatly depend on and utilize the forest for their livelihoods. They do subsistence agriculture, hunt (Groves, 2002), fish (Mdaihi *et al.*, 2002) and gather non-timber forest products (NTFPs) from the park (Sunderland, *et al.*, 2002). There is a strong cross-border trading in the area due to legal right of passage through the park by the people.

4.5.2 Cultural Background of the Study Area

TNP area just like Cameroon is culturally diverse. Boki, Anyang, Ovande, Becheve, Asumbo and Basho are the six main ethnic groups in the area. The southern section of the park shares a common boundary with the Boki community. Anyang villages covers the south western and south eastern sections of the park, Ovande villages covers the north western and north east, Becheve villages with the northern section, Asumbo villages with the north east and Basho villages has a common boundary with the eastern section of the park. The communities are generally subsistence predominantly depending on agricultural productions cultivating both Food and cash crops. The slash and burnt method of cultivation is used in this area where the forest is cleared, burnt before cultivating food crops like maize, yams, coco yams, cassava, plantains, bananas and groundnuts both for home consumption and to a lesser degree commercialisation. The commonly cultivated cash crops include oil palms, ground nuts, cocoa and coffee. Hunting within the park is a common activity for the males but the gathering of NTFPs is done by both sexes except for Eru (*Gnetum africanum*) which is predominantly done by females. All the villages' settings unconsciously promote environmental conservation through the establishment of secret forests for the worship of various gods and also meeting grounds for some traditional activities like Ekpe forest, Makwo Forest etc

4.5.3 Demography and Housing Situation of the TNP

The TNP and its buffer communities as in 2001 was inhabited by 15707 people of which, 11996 were Cameroonians and 3711 Nigerians (Soltau *et al.*, 2001). (Table 9) below contains information on the population and state of housing of the villages around the national park

Table 8. Summary of Demographic Information and State Of Housing in Villages around the Takamanda National Park

S/N	Village	Population (1924/25)	Population (1960)	Population (2001)	Total No of Houses	No of Zinc Houses
1	Kalumo	NA	395	1370	129	11
2	Atolo	NA	160	182	39	10
3	Tinta	NA	315	545	119	39
4	Mbilishi	183	167	276	50	4
5	Basho II	167	198	214	24	6
6	Basho I	66	216	166	31	4
7	Mfakwe	52	120	161	42	7
8	Takpe	136	NA	182	52	13
9	Assam	166	205	175	52	20
10	Takamanda	167	157	411	108	52
11	Kekukesim I	132	NA	423	99	37
12	Matene	NA	311	725	144	30
13	Obonyi II	324	NA	414	76	35
14	Obonyi I			344	90	32
15	Obonyi III	346	428	372	-	
16	Kekpani	51	52	168	45	18
17	Kajifu I	534	258	757	309	172

18	Kajifu II	749	259	613		
TOTAL		-	-	7498	8907	490

Source: Extracted from PROFA socioeconomic data (2001). NA = Not available.

4.5.4 Climate

The regions have two seasons of a typical equatorial region i.e., the rainy and the dry seasons. The rainy season has a single peak pattern and is clearly distinct from the dry season (figure 18). The rainy season spans over a period of approximately 9 months i.e. from mid-March to mid-November while the dry season takes the other periods of the year from mid-November to mid-March. The annual average rainfall ranges between 2,500 to 3,900mm and the mean annual relative humidity as per the Besong-Abang weather station in Mamfe ranges between 76% and 89% (figure 20). The months from December to February are the hottest of the year with a mean annual temperature 23°C. The average annual maximum temperature is 32°C while the minimum is 21°C (figure 19). However, as per the temperature inversion rule “the higher you go the colder it becomes” the temperature decreases as we move from Mamfe with an average altitude 152m recording a maximum of 34°C in the month of March and a minimum of 18.6-18.7°C between the months of December and January, to Akwaya with an altitude 1,500m in the northern extremity of the TNP which is relatively colder (PROFA reports, 2002) as can be seen on the figures below.

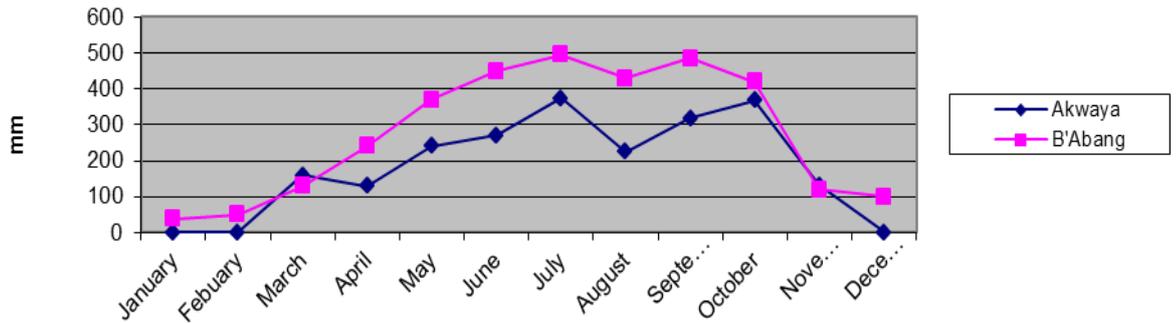


Figure 16. Average Monthly Rainfall for South (B'Abang) and North (Akwaya) of TNP. Source: Besongabang and PROFA weather stations

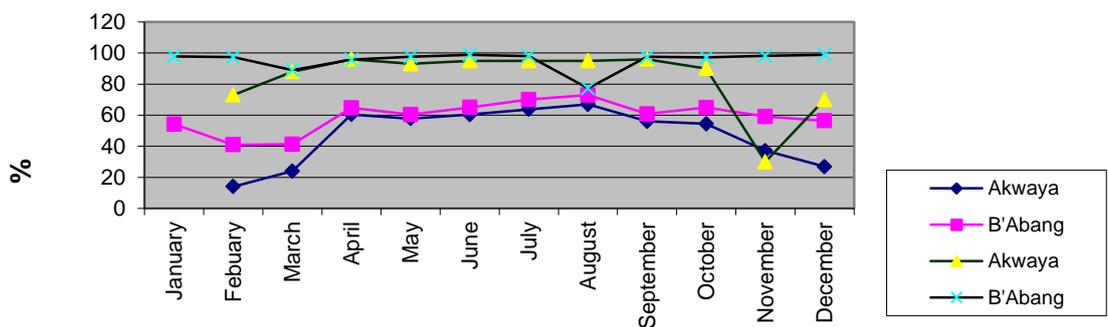


Figure 17. Average Minimum and Maximum Relative Humidity for South and North of TNP Source: Besongabang and PROFA weather stations

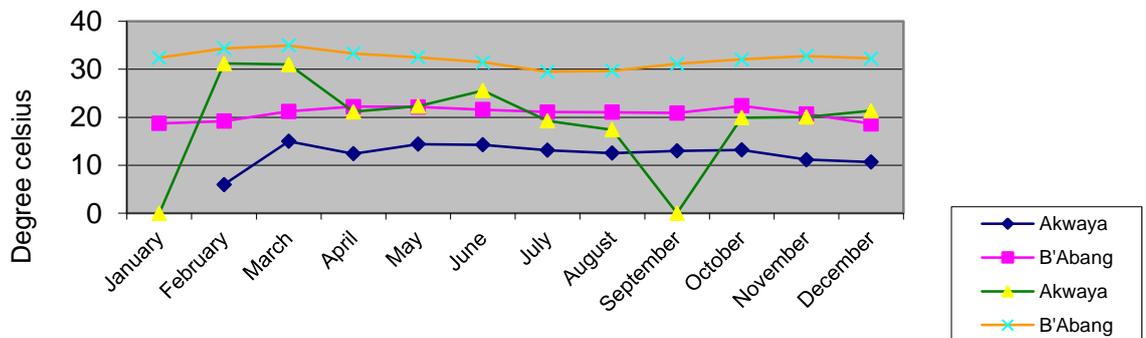


Figure 18. Average Minimum and Maximum Temperature for North and South of TNP Source: Besongabang and PROFA weather stations

4.5.4 Hydrology

Rivers Mone, Baya, Makone, Manfi, Mabe, Ebe, and Oyi the main tributates that flow downstream to form the river Nkoman and Ameli take their rise from the northern

plateau of the national park. . These rivers and numerous streams flow in to river Katsina which eventually empties itself into the Manyu river around Mamfe which finally develops into the Cross river as it enters Nigeria. Crossing these rivers is done by canoes or in most cases there are locally constructed bridges. There is high rate of downstream erosion in the area due to topographical undulations and steep hills within the area.

4.5.5. Topography

Topographically, the terrain of the TNP is generally undulating having steep hills and valleys with altitude ranging between 600-1500m asl. There are however vast areas of plane and hilly topographies. The southern and central part of the park is generally flat with the highest parts lower than 300m especially around Takpe, Obonyi I and Mfakwe village respectively. Mid-eastern section of the park is conspicuously hilly especially around Basho I, Basho II, and Mbilishi with altitudes reaching 700m asl. The hills stretch right to the northern section of the park.

4.5.6 Vegetation

The TNP is characterised by 4 main vegetation types closely related to the climate and topography of the region. They include; Lowland Rainforest, Mid-altitude Forest, Montane Forest, and Savanna.

4.5.6.1 Lowland Rainforest

This is a predominantly low altitude forest occupying the southern part of the park with altitude hardly exceeding 500m asl. This forest can be seen in the lowland areas of the park around Takamanda, Assam, Obonyi I, Obonyi II and Takpe villages. There are also patches of reverine forest along Rivers Makone and Magbe within this lowland forest region. The plant species here include; *Irvingia gabunensis*, *Desbordesia glaucusense*, *Gilbertiodendron dewevrei*, *Pterocarpus sauyauxii*, *P. osun*, *Poga oleosa*, *Cola sp*, *Cylicodiscus gabunensis* *Treculia obovoidea*, and other

members of the Euphorbiaceae etc, which floristically associated with species of Atlantic coastal forest.

4.5.6.2 Mid-Altitude Forest

This forest occupies an area with a generally flat topography with few patches of high altitudes, stretching over an area of about 9km from Obonyi III village towards Matene village and about 4km from Kekpani towards Basho. It extends to the southern part of Matene. The plant species commonly found here are; *Dactyladania mannii*, *Annonidium mannii*, *Citropsis sp*, *Penianthus longifolius*, *Crotonogyne argentea* and *Mareyopsis longifolia*.

4.5.6.3 Montane Forest

This predominantly occupies the hilly area of the park with altitude of above 800m asl. This forest stretches between Matene and Mendi and extends towards the north-eastern section of the park. The plant species is predominantly members of the families Acanthaceae, Costaceae, Selaginellaceae, and Graminae, with Common tree species like Orchids, *Xylopia staudtia*, *Santira trimera*, *Anthonotha cladanta*, *Vernonia frondosa*, and *Gaertnera paniculata*.

4.5.6.4 Savanna

This is predominantly grassland vegetation interwoven with gallery forests around wet valleys with spotted trees commonly found at the northernmost part of the park with altitudes greater than 1500m asl. It also extends to the Obudu Cattle Ranch in Nigeria through Oshenukpa. The tree species commonly found here are *Uapaca togoensis* and *Aniogeissus leiocarpus*. (Besong et al, 2001)

4.6 Some Touristic Potentials of the TNP

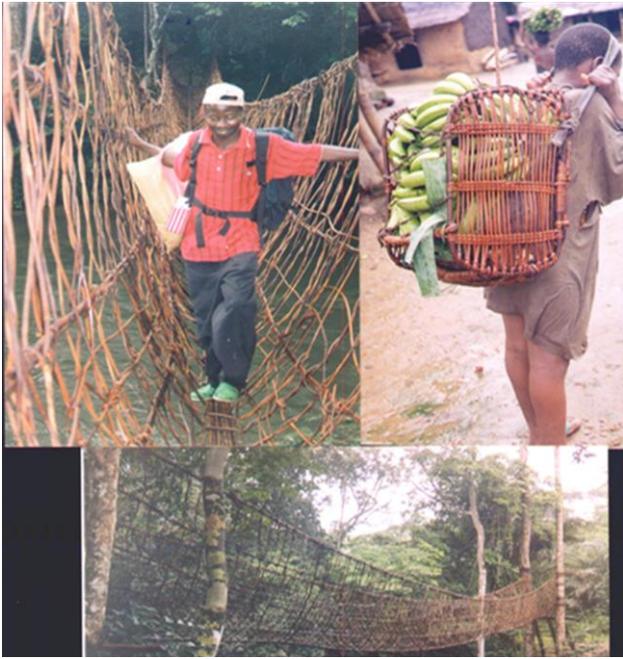
The Takamanda national and its surrounding can also be termed Cameroon in miniature for it possesses almost all the touristic potentials of the country from

environmental to cultural etc. environmentally, it is bless blessed with physical features like high picks, rolling hills, vast flat surfaces, rivers, lakes, varied vegetal cover of both medicinal and non-medicinal plants harboring varied mammals of the different classes i.e., reptiles, amphibians etc. As far as animal composition is concern, the park links up with Nigeria’s Cross River National Park safeguards an estimated a third of the world Cross River gorilla (Figure 20) population which the reason for the creation of the park. In addition, the park will protect forest elephants, chimpanzees, and drills. Apart from there arte are other exiting cultural manifestations and locally made materials of great touristic attraction as will be presented below.

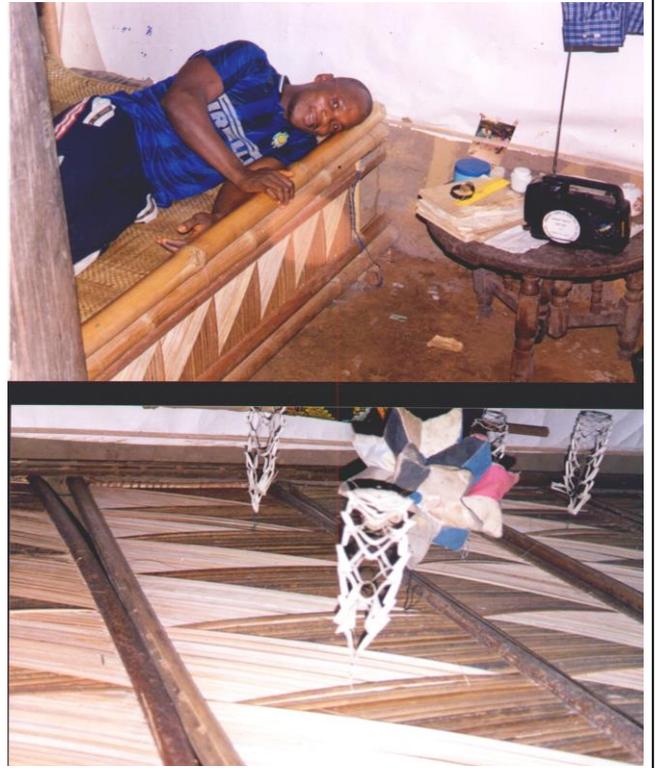


Figure 19. Cross river gorilla and elephant within the park

Below and left above: rattan is used to make bridges for crossing rivers during the rainy season. Above right: back-pack basket of green bananas.



Beds and house ceiling are made from rachis of leaves of *Raphia hookeri*



A old man at Ingini making traditional mats from the leaflet of *Phoenix reclinata* (Arecaceae)



An old man in the process of weaving back-pack from the stem of *Laccosperma secundiflorum* cane



Above left: woven leaves around the head are an emblem of performing rituals. Above right: leaves being prepared for vegetable soup. Below: leaves used to tame snakes



Free flowing river running through the forest

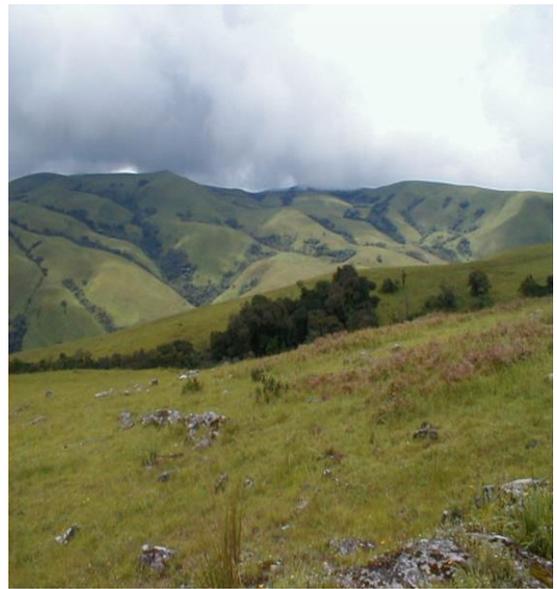


Figure 20. Beautiful landscapes with rolling hills interwoven by valley forest and streams. Source: Author

CHAPTER 5

METHODOLOGY

5.1 Introduction

The preceding chapters provide an inside into the concepts of community and tourism which is cemented by the concept of sustainability leading to the emergence of other forms of tourism like community based tourism. These new forms of tourism emerged as a result of the plaques of mass tourism, global environmental awareness including global warming and with the quest of meeting the UN millennium goal of poverty alleviation and self-reliance especially in the developing countries. The local communities therefore became the center of attraction since they harbor natural endowments which play a preponderant role in maintaining a global ecosystem balance. Apart from safeguarding nature to curb environmental quagmires in the world, Community based ecotourism provide other benefits to local communities and improving the living standards while directly or indirectly contributing to national growth especially in less developed countries including Cameroon. This has led to the proliferation of parks and reserves for the purpose of developing community based ecotourism. It is however important to note that the gap between the theory and practical implementation of the concept is yet to be fully bridged and the concept yet to be understood especially in newly created national parks like the Takamanda National Park. Therefor the justification and willingness to participate in such venture is worth investigating.

5.1.1 Research Design.

A qualitative research methodology based on interpretive epistemology was adopted in this research. Interpretive epistemology holds the view that knowledge is created and negotiated between human beings (oliver, 2003). Supported by the fact that, the social world is generally local and can be acknowledged in a specific context since it is temporal and historically situated and can be shaped according to a researches objective (Bailey, 2007), the qualitative research methodology offers an opportunity to study and describe these experiences and social phenomenon (Silverman, 2006).

The adoption of this method was drawn from the fact that, every research approach should be designed to meet the research aim (Hay, 2005) and with my aim being investigating community awareness and willingness to participate in community based ecotourism planning and development which requires an exploration of the “H” and “W” questions, the exploratory qualitative research methodology was deemed necessary. This method offers the opportunity to understand peoples thoughts and believes about their surrounding and to better understand their reactions toward its circumstances (Henn et al, 2006). Semi-structured interviews, focus groups and observations were used in collecting primary data while documents consultation/content analysis for secondary data collection. To complement this methodology, a case study approach was also adopted for this research because the TNP is constituted of over 18 villages consisting of 6 ethnic groups speaking 4 languages. This approach is suitable in answering the how and why questions in real life context (Yin, 2003) and are also suitable for an in-depth investigation and analysis of an individual, a social setting or group or an event (Bergs, 2007) .The main stages in the case study approach as advocated by Yeni (2003) include; define

and design stages elucidated above followed by data collection and analysis which will be discussed in latter paragraphs.

5.1.2 Sampling

A purposive sampling method was adopted for the study. Of the five main tribes in the study region with 4 main languages, one village was selected as a representative sample site for the tribe. The selection of the studied village sites was guided by:

- The cultural representativeness of the tribe. This was judged simple from the language similarity and location of the village vis-à-vis their neighbours, since intertribal influence might be lower in villages surrounded by neighbours of same tribe than otherwise.
- The location of the village with respect to the forest paths. This was considered to reduce time spent in trekking between sample villages.

5.1.3 General Information about Surveyed Villages

The tables bellow provide a summary of the general information of the sampling villages stating their geographical location, altitude above sea level, vegetation type, and tribe which form the bases for their selection. From the table below (table 11) , it is seen that the villages have a high proportion of youthful population (<31 years) which is why I based my focus group interviews on youthful population as they form the man and economic power of the communities. Therefore, the sampling method is purposeful sampling known as non-probability approach.

Table 9. General Information about Sampling Villages

Village	Location	Altitude	Vegetation type	Tribe	Total population
Takamanda	N 05° 55' 22" '' E 009° 09' 35"	500masl	Lowland rainforest	Anyang	411
Matene	N 06° 16' 9.1" E 009° 21' 25.3"	800m asl	Midaltitude Forest and Montane Forest	Ovande	<u>725</u>
Kekukessim 1	N 05°59' 44.7" E 009° 11' 13.8".	97m asl	Lowland Rainforest	<u>Boki</u>	<u>423</u>
Basho	N 06° 7' 47.7" E 009° 17' 13.9".	117m asl	Lowland Rainforest and Midaltitude Forest	<u>Basho</u>	214

Source: Extracted from PROFA report, 2001

5.2. Data Collection

Primary data was collected from both NGOs and government officials' in charge of the park management and the inhabitation of the 4 sample communities. Collection of data in the communities was done in two phases with each phase lasting for 3 weeks.

The first phase was from July 8th to 28 while the second phase was from August 5th to 25. The period between the two phases (one week) was spent interviewing government officials and workers of the main NGOs in charge of the park management. Targeted interviewees within the communities are the village traditional council members constituting of women and youth representatives. They form village government headed by the traditional chief and are highly respected within the communities and make final decisions concerning activities in the village.

The main information gathering format was the semi-structured interviews and a total of 51 semi-structured interviews were conducted 40 within the communities (average of 10 person/ village) and 11 interviews were done with the administrative desk of the park consisting of government officials and NGOs (appendix 2). The longest interview lasted for about 1 hour 30 minutes while the shortest lasted for about 30

mints with the use of a digital recording device depending on the anxiety and state of mind of the interviewees. The interviewees gave me some time to take down notes as the interview unfolds and some allowed the use of digital tapes especially the local people and this was done face-to-face due to the low literacy rate of the village man (Kisembo, 2008).

A total of 21 and 26 open ended questions (appendix 1a and b) were designed for the two different groups of interviewees respectively but all the questions revolved around the ecotourism planning and development within the area in particular and conservation in general covering perceptions, participations and attitudes towards conservation, relations with NGO and views of an ecotourism venture within the community. To supplement information from the interviews, I spent most of my free time visiting friend I had made in the villages while working as a consultant and in the course of our casual discussing notes were taken. There was also participant observation, focus groups and secondary data sources were also consulted to gain a holistic understanding of the participant's behaviors, their point of views and attitudes toward the ongoing conservation initiative and the proposed ecotourism venture within the area. This exposes clearly their actions and reason for their actions as far as conservation is concerned and their willingness to participate in community based ecotourism planning and development in the area.

5.2.1 In-Depth Semi-Structured Interviews.

The semi-structured, open ended one-to-one interview was adopted in this study for it facilitates a two-way communication and knowledge exchange and interaction between with the participant (FAO, 2003). This group of interviewees was selected because of their deep knowledge, experience and expertise especially the government and NGO officials with the activities in the park. The effectiveness of in-depth

interview in qualitative method is its ability to get people express their personal feelings, opinions and experiences (Mack et al, 2005:30). This method is advantageous when compared to other data collection methods like survey because it provides much more detailed information coupled with a more relaxed atmosphere for information collection (Boyce and Neale, 2006).

The preference of Semi-structured interviews is because it facilitates comparison of participant's responses to question through standardization and control (Burton and Cherry, 1970; Finn *et al*, 2000). It also enhances flexibility in discussion and creates a serene environment for confidential expression of participants thoughts (Flick, 2002), and the probing up of ideas which seek clarification and elaboration thereby generating detailed, 'rich' context, qualitative data (Long, 2007) while maintaining the course of the research aim (Silverman, 2006). In this light, there is a full in-depth exploration of the interviewee's point of view, opinion and perception about the subject matter (Gray, 2004). The interviews were recorded using a recording tape and at the end of the day, they were transcribed and deleted in preparation for the next days' interviews. A set back to this approach is the fact that, indirect representation of the interviewees point of view and opinion about the subject matter due to the questions posed may blurred their direct access to facts and realities of event (Silverman, 2006).

General questions (appendix 1.1) concerning sensitization and collaborations were to establish a tie of the responses from government officials, NGOs and the communities. The other questions (appendices 1.2) for the government officials and NGO were coined to get their own views and assessment of the local communities

willingness to participate in CBET and their contribution towards conservation and development in general within the communities.

5.2.2 Structure of the Interviews.

In a like manner like Tosun (2006) during his study of the nature of community participation in tourism development in Hatay, Turkey, I personally conducted all the interviews to curb language and translation problems. All the participants were encouraged to be explicit in presenting their opinions, perceptions, thoughts and intentions. All interviews were done in English but the villagers were encouraged to express the difficult word in their vernacular for better explanations and with their permission, all the interviews were recorded and notes taken. All recorded tapes were transcribed at the end of each day in preparation for the next day interviews and each interview lasted between 30 minutes to 1 hour 30 minutes. The time and place of the interviews were at the discretion of the interviewees and questions were geared toward conservation in general and community based ecotourism planning and development in particular. The interviews were guided by two checklists with that of the local communities oriented toward assessing their awareness of CBET, conservation and their willingness to participate in their realization and sustainability (appendix 1.1), and that of the government officials (appendix 1.2) was geared towards assessing their contribution for the same purpose and also to assess their own perception about the local communities and their activities in relation to the research objectives and questions because of their expertise and acquaintance with the park. This will go a long way to supplement my own assessment of the local communities.

5.2.3 Focus Groups

After an impressive discussion with a group in Basho 1 village which occurred spontaneously and grew from 8 boys to a total of 18 villages of active age group and some few elderly, I decided to fully engage this method to gather more primary data in the other villages. I targeted the youths and drew an agenda (appendix 1.3) for discussion as per my research questions and objectives. The choice of youth was because there where the active age groups and their opinions count more despite the overriding power of the village traditional councilors.

Focused group interview according to Bery (2007) and Bouma (1996) offers the opportunity to gather a rich variety of especially unanticipated information within a short time interval as it creates a serene environment for mutual interaction between participants and every contribution has an impact on the thoughts and perception of another participant. Such brainstorming inspires participants and builds in them new ideas in the course of the discussion (Blumberg et al, 2008). However this method portrays biased characteristics in danger of people holding back their own perceptions and point of view if being convinced or intimidated by the majority ideas of feelings.

Apart from the above methods of data collection, there was also participant observation and secondary data sources including; books, pamphlets, article, magazines, local newsletters, local and official documents (e.g. VDP documents, PROFA documents and reports, NGO survey reports and documents, Maps, village layouts etc.) which provided valuable information about management and developmental activities in the area or similar situations needed for the research.

5.2.4 Strengths and Limitations of the Semi-Structured Interviews

In-depth semi-structured interviews are applauded for flexibility and greater allowance for idea probing, standardization and response control. On the other hand, the general tendency of participant friendliness and desire to help the researcher can affect their responses as they will reveal only information they perceive the researcher would want to hear. This can be a possible source of bias in this method because such interviewees will try to cover or exaggerate their interest in favor of the researcher (Veal, 1997). However, Veal, (1997) observation was not experienced in this study which may be possibly due to the fact that, apart from a common ancestral origin, the researcher had worked as a capacity building consultant within the national park and has shared in social and cultural activities within the area.

5.3 Analysis of the Data

Data analysis in a qualitative research context is the next step after data collection and it is closely followed by interpretation and presentation (Patton, 1990). The preceding sections present a vast discussion on the methodology and strategies used in collecting both the primary and the secondary data. This section will present detailed analysis of the data which involve revision of interviewee's responses and observations in relation to my research objectives and questions. Day (1993) advocated a circular interactive qualitative data analysis framework (Figure 22) consisting of three interwoven parts i.e. data description, classification and a linkage between these different categories to bring out meaning from the raw data.

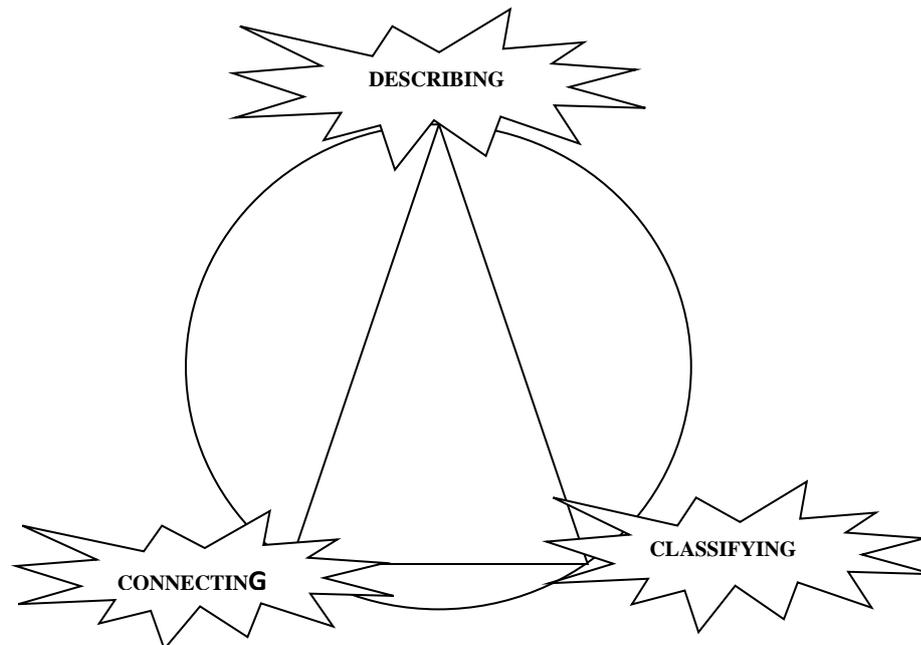


Figure 21. Procedure of analyzing qualitative data
Source: Day (1993.p.31)

Step one according to Day's framework requires the development of a detailed description of the phenomena of the research by illustrating the contextual actions, intentions and reason for their actions (Day, 1993). To achieve this, all the raw data form records were transcribed and together with the data interviews and observations, the materials were systematically penned down. As mentioned earlier, transcriptions of all recorded information were done before the close of the day and documents translated to bring out the interpretive meaning of the data.

The classification stage (second step) requires the categorization of relevant information from transcripts and themes from the literature review in relation to the research question and objectives, thereby creating comprehensible information for others (Day, 1993). In this study, the interview notes and transcript coded by making comments on the margined while extracting key themes, concepts and categories which will be needed for a synthesized discussion in the later sections of the work.

For the assessment of local community willingness to participate in CBET planning and development, their response were categorized then qualified. The data was then organized in accordance to my research question, objectives (appendix 6) and emergent themes that prop up during the analysis.

The connecting stage (step 3) requires the critical examination of the substantive variable and the liaison between the existing literature and research findings. Here there is the consideration and construction of representative thematic headings. The main findings follow suit while results interpreted and discussed in accordance with existing literature (chapter 6) closely followed by conclusion and recommendations to boost and facilitate the awareness creation and foster CBET planning and development within the region.

5.4 Findings

The uniqueness of the communities of the Takamanda national park is far from emanating from the fact that they are situated close to or within a protected area and are in touse over control and utilization of their good given resources (Ghimire and Pimbert 1997), but rather on the fact that it is newly created national park under the quest of rapid development haven been sight lined from government development and other related activities and are pruned to depending on the forest and its resources for their survival on which the study interest is based. A socioeconomic survey carried out by Ayeni (2005) revealed that, total cash income from farming, NTFP-gathering and hunting within the Takamanda National Park which are the main reproaching activities to ecotourism development totaled more than 1.3 Billion FCFA in 2000. Planning and development of community based ecotourism within these communities will mean restriction form trespass in to the national park for

obvious reason. Therefore an assessment of the factors that can influence their participation in the ventures will be of significance importance to the realization of purpose and also contribute to similar initiatives in like situations within the country and the world.

In this chapter the empirical finding of the work will be presented structured according to the research objectives which include

- Assessing community awareness and perception about community based ecotourism
- Find out whether the local population has been sensitized on CBET and environmental conservation.
- Assess effect of local community awareness on NGO – LC collaboration for conservation
- Assess local community willingness to participate in community based ecotourism planning and development.
- Explore the deficient factors in establishment and implementation of CBT.

As mention in the previous chapter, government officials, NGO officials and four communities where sampled out of the eighteen communities situated within and around the TNP though in-depth semi-structured interviews, focus group discussion and personal observation backed by materials form secondary sources. Each community represented the five main collaborative ethnic speaking four different languages and easily accessible through footpaths which are the basses for their selection. The village interviewees where village councilor headed by the traditional chief because they have the final verdict concerning any activity to be carried out in the village while the government and NGO officials are people working closely with the villages for the development of the park. The selection of the group of interviews

was to complement and attest to each other's claims so as to improve on the authenticity of the claims and reason for every action in relation to conservation in general and CBET planning and development within the area in particular.

5.4.1 Local Community Awareness and Perception about Community Based Ecotourism

5.4.1.1 Awareness

Knowledge on the concept of community base ecotourism has a direct and significant correlation with the local community perception and participation in its planning and development. A negative perception will hinder their willingness to participate in its planning and development and the reverse is true for a positive perception. Knowledge of the awareness level of the local communities towards the concept will give an understanding of the people's view and perception of the concept and a backing to their actions and relation to the park development. In a bid to get the information as per their awareness, the local community dwellers were asked what they understood by community based ecotourism and possibly define it. In the focus group discussions participants were not only asked to define the concept, they were also asked to explain to others by illustration for easy understanding. Some common phrases in their definitions and explanations of the concept are as follows:

- An organization managing tourists and their activities
- People visiting the forest to see gorillas over the hills
- Protection of endangered animals and plants by not hunting or cutting down of trees in the park and also no killing of endangered animals within the local community forest
- Enjoying nature

- Protecting plants and animals for future generation by eating today not forgetting tomorrow.

The result shows that, the community dwellers do not have a comprehensive knowledge of the concept. However, there were certain of the fact that, whatever be the case, community based ecotourism was meant to improve on their standards of living especially in the long run as one chief said

Since GTZ started the issue of conservation, we have also changed positively unknowingly. Our farms are now close to our homes, we now have farm to market road we can now use our motor bikes and bicycles which has greatly reduced and ease our movement time and we know with CBET, thing will even be better.

To support this claims, the community development officer attests and from my observation that, there has been the construction of new road linking most of the villages and also the donations processing units like cassava processing machines to ease procession in the villages.

5.4.1.2 Perceptions

As mentioned earlier, community perception also contributes to their participatory level in any activity within the community. A negative perception will definitely lead to a negative attitude towards the activity and the reverse is true for a positive perception. This situation was also witness within the study area. Their perception about the concept was diverse. (Table 15) presents the total number of responses and their perception of the concept either being positive or negative. The result show that, there is a general positive perception towered community based ecotourism. But for a few youths (3 in total) who has bad experiences with Eco guard when they went for a hunting spray in the park. Their guns where ceases while the matter reported to the traditional council and were levied huge fines for violating rules and regulation of the

village thus developed a negative perception about community based ecotourism as one victim said;

Conservation has cunningly taken almost all of our forest, community based ecotourism will just come and take the rest and we will no longer have land to build out houses and the worst is that, you will not only pay the village fines, this foolish Eco guards will take you to the city and put you in prison. It is better we stay like this rather than finding more trouble for ourselves in the name of community based ecotourism, I have said my own.

Also a general negation of the concept and its practical implication that stumped up during focus group discussions was the fear of not receiving their due benefits due to the corrupt nature of the government officials. One participant commented that;

The only fear we have is those corrupt eco-guards and other government who will not let any benefit come to us, they are all corrupt they don't want to see where money is passing; may God help us

However, their hope was raised from the fact that there are diverse reasons for the development of community based ecotourism thus if they cannot benefit from it directly, they will benefit indirectly especially through infrastructural development as they have been sidelined from government development until the creation of the TNP. For this reason and a host of other, they are positive of a brighter tomorrow through the CBET within the area.

5.4.2 Sensitization on CBET and Conservation

As mentioned in the introductory part of this research (see section 1.2.1) and in the introductory section of chapter six (see section 6.0), one of the objectives of this study was to assess if the local community dwellers have been receiving any form of sensitization on CBET and conservation. This is the basis of creating an awareness of the actuality and intricacies of the concept and its implementation. Information about this will give an understanding of the population's basic knowledge of the concept and also assist the researcher in designing recommendations for a successful

practical implementation of the concept. To get the information regarding their sensitization, the participants were directly asked if they have been sensitized on the concepts and by whom?

Table 10. Common areas of sensitization in the communities

Activities sensitized on	Persons responsible
Sustainable management of natural resources	All the sensitization was done by GTZ and DED (GIZ),and
Nature conservation	
Avoiding poaching (illegal activities in the park)	WCS
Endangered species	
Significance of tourist and tourism	
Modern methods of farming and cultivation	
Capacity building for responsible management (book keeping, financial management, group legalization,)	

To verify their responses, the Government and NGO officials were also asked if they have carried out sensitization campaigns within the areas regarding CBET and conservation in general and the results (table 14) was confirmed. From my observation, the local communities had deep knowledge as per the concept of conservation compared to CBET. No matter the educational level and age, every person I came across could confidently identified all the endangered species in the forest and confidently defined sustainability management as; making use of the natural resources to satisfy their needs without compromising the ability of the future generation to meet their own needs. My observations were proven wright when all the community dwellers testified that, they have rather been sensitized on conservation and not community based ecotourism. For example one of the respondents said

We have attended several meeting where we were told of the importance of conserving our resources for example during village development planning

done by GTZ. We also attended meeting with the delegate of environment and the conservator. Infarct, we participated in setting ruled and regulation and also there is a forest management committee for the proper conservation of the park and we also have our local way of punishing defaulters. It was a new initiative to us but we have decided to embrace it, thanks to the assistance of GTZ and DED

Interviews with government officials and especially the NGO officials attest to the fact that, massive sensitization has and is still going on concerning conservation and developmental initiatives but sensitization on CBET is still done indirectly. For example the community development officer of GIZ commented that

We are still preparing their minds towered that because we are still assessing the possibilities of its development since this area is seriously underdeveloped infrastructure wise but however we make sure we mainstream its importance in all of our activities and gathering with the community dwellers

Result shows that, the local communities have been sensitized on sustainable management of resources, nature conservation, avoiding poaching, significance of tourist and tourism, modern methods of cultivation, capacity building for responsible management etc. and it is important to note here that these sensitization activities were carried out by NGOs especially GTZ, DED and WCS not the government. The steps taken toward the realization of this goal as mentioned by the GIZ technical adviser include:

- Village development planning
- Capacity building of the community dwellers
- Cluster sensitization meeting (including clarification of cluster conservation zone)
- Village sensitization meeting (including rapid agro socio-ecological assessment)
- Community development activities negotiation

- Elaboration of community development activities
- Signing of community development activities (and MoUs)
- Implementation

To justify the effectiveness of the of the sensitization campaigns, there have been the proliferation of common initiative groups (CIG) within the villages which apart from sensitizing other villages on the importance of conservation, the work together in the development of micro- finance institution giving out low interest loans to members and the communities which aids in self-development and support such as purchase of domestic animals and fertilizers for their farms. Almost every homes within the communities where also observed with the rearing of domestic animals. One respondent when asked to give his reason for keeping domestic animas said that:

I have to keep my own animals so that I will not waste my time to go to the forest to hunt and disturb the environment and I also use fertilizers in my farm to improve on the yields since I cultivate the same land almost every year.

All respondents attest to belonging to at list one CIG in the village, involved in rearing at list one kind of domestic animal, are no longer entering the park for hunting, identify endangered species by photo and can confidently explain and illustrate the concept of sustainability as seen during focus group discussion attest to the fact that the sensitization campaigns were effective and well understood.

5.4.3 Community – Ngo - Government Collaboration

As per the level of collaboration between the different stakeholders, all the three groups were directly asked if there was a mutual collaboration with the other partied for the same purpose. Success in any ecotourism development venture is directly influence by the level of collaboration in every step of the planning and development between the different stakeholders even of conflicting interest. Despite the general

claims of the government officials to have a close collaboration with the local communities, the result from interviews with the local community show that they community dwellers hold a contrary view.

Table 11. NGOs-GO-LC collaboration and community perception about CBET

	Relationships and impacts	Takamanda village	Kekukessim 1 village	Matene village	Basho 1 village
Community perceptions	Positive	11	10	11	8
	Negative	0	0	0	0
NGOs and LC collaboration	Positive	1	3	2	2
	Negative	10	7	9	6
Government Officials and LC collaboration	Positive	11	8	10	8
	Negative	0	2	1	0

The result on the table (15) shows that besides the general positive perception of the concept (5.4.1.2), there is a negative collaboration between the villages and the government officials. A primary reason advanced for the negative collaboration is the fact that the government has taken over their forest with no compensations rather they are being embargoed no to carry out their usual activities in the park. One village sited that,

the government left us to suffer with no roads, no pipe born water, no electricity, no hospitals and now they have finally taken away our forest and instead of them to come and help us, they stay in their offices just making laws and giving orders. If not of GTZ, we will still enter the park and let them kill us all

The statement above show how disgruntled the community dwellers are, with the activities of the government thus reducing effective collaboration. However the reverse is true as concern the NGO. The result shows that there is a strong and mutual collaboration between the NGOs and the community dwellers. In a bit to

strengthen their collaboration the community development officer of GIZ (GTZ + DED) reported that:

Apart from the elaboration of 21 village development plans belonging to 23 villages within and around the park (Kajifu I and Kajifu II, Okpambe and Awuri) we have also done capacity development within the villages in the following sectors as listed below

- Focal Points from each village were trained to improve cocoa management, Improve bee keeping.
- Road Management committees were trained and handed tools for the maintenance of the road
- Groups in villages were trained on the formation and developing legal documents for CIGs registration, Book keeping and Groups management.
- HIV Committees were trained to sensitize on HIV/AIDS
- Land use Planning: Land use plans were elaborated and recommendations made on how to use land (11)
- HIV and AIDS sensitization was carried out in all the villages (15)

We have also carried out our development project within 18 villages within and around the park as shown on the table below

Table 12. Developmental Projects in the Communities

Developmental projects	Number of villages benefited
Multipurpose Nurseries (bush mango and Oil palms)	18
Multipurpose Nurseries (bush mango and Oil palms)	18
Improved Cassava Processing Units (19 machines)	18
Improved cocoa Farming	18
Improved Ginger and Pepper farming	18
Improved Oil Palm Farming	18
Eru Domestication	4
Improve Bee keeping	18
Snail Farming	9

The infrastructural development projects carried out include

- The construction of two motor bike earth roads with the first one linking Okpambe, Awuri, Assam and Takpe Villages, inauguration ceremony was done by the SDO and MINFOF and the second linking kajifu, kekukessim I, Kajifu and Takamanda villages
- Four canoes belonging to the Okpambe and Awuri community over river Ebe and one over River Oyi at Kekukessim I

Finding show that, there a strong communities-NGO compared to community-government collaboration. However, the NGOs are working in partnership with the government under the supervision of PSMNR, South West Region Cameroon.

5.4.4 Local Community Willingness to Participate In CBET Planning and Development

A critical evaluation of the CBET situation within the TNP region from the community awareness and perception of the concept to their sensitization and finally to collaboration, it is realized that the concept is relatively new and has not been properly apprehended. No doubt the local communities have a sound knowledge of conservation. The reality is that conservation is not an alternative of community based ecotourism, it just set the past for the development of CBET. Therefore an understanding of the community willingness to participate in the planning and development of CBET was worth investigating. Information regarding this was gotten from two front, firstly from the community participants themselves and secondly from the views of NGOs and Government officials to this effect.

According to the community development officer GIZ, “it hasn’t been easy trying to convince the people to participate in conservation in the first place. Their level of understanding of the conservation concept coupled with the fact that, the park was

the only source of livelihood made the whole process very tough". She further explained that the "whole scenario was like using corn to capture a cork since trying to force them can instead make matters worse. Any attempt to push them lead to grave consequences just like the case of the park headquarter where activities stopped completely as they were ready to kill any person that venture to enter the park for any reason. There were series of sensitization and negotiations as you can see numerous project (table 16) to make them accept to practice conservation. All we needed was to gain their confidence by involving them and seeking their opinions in every activity such as the village development plan elaboration etc. It is obvious that, they will willingly participate in CBET if they if we continue with the collaborative management approach where everybody is involved for their own development.

Observation show that, much has been done to involve the people in the management of the park as can be seen in 6.3 above there by fostering willingness to collaborate with other stakeholders for the same purpose. According the conservator during the construction of the ranger camps, the communities participated in the transportation of all there raw materials from the road terminus to the construction sites. The conservator's statement goes a long way to support the community development officer's view of adopting a collaborative management approach to get the full attention of the villagers.

Finding show that, the communities are willing to participate in the planning and development of CBET as all the interviewees responded positively to the direct and indirect question testing their willingness to participate in the venture. For example a chief in one of the villages commented that;

We have been leaving in the wilderness until the park initiative started making the government to recognize our existence. We would like this to continue so in anyway and any capacity we have to contribute to the realization of the new venture we are ready provided it is for our own benefit

The finding also show that, the full participation of the community will be achieved if there are actively involved in the every step along the way and their active involvement will also depend on their awareness of the benefits that comes with the development of such venture. For example many participants remarked that, they cannot leave our farms to do tourism if we cannot benefit from it. This finding therefore tallies with the views of the conservator and the community development officer that, the willingness of the community dwellers to participate in the planning and development of CBET within the area can be triggered through a collaborative developmental and management approach where they are actively involved in the whole process with a clarification of their duties and benefits.

5.4.5 Deficient Factors in Establishment and Implementation of CBET

According to the divisional delegate for environment and forestry, the current management of the national park is carried out within five management programs they include administrative and finance, park protection, participatory management, research and monitoring and Trans-boundary conservation. Each management program carries out particular functions geared towards safeguarding the environment for the eventual development of ecotourism. With this in place, it might seem every deficiency factor towards the realization of the goal is taken care of; however, this is not the case. The investigation of the limiting factors towered CBET planning and development within this area was carried out in two forms i.e. from personal observation and more especially from the repeats and views of government officials and NGOs.

According to the community development officer GIZ, the main hindrance toward the development of CBET within the area is infrastructural development. The infrastructural development of this area is so poor that it will require huge capital and investment to get the work done especially in the domain below.

5.4.5.1 Transport and Communication

Finding show that, about 41km road from the main city Mamfe to Okambe the park entrance toward the south and also 36 km road from Mamfe to Kajifu within the same area are seasonal often interrupted by overflowing rivers during the rainy season. Also the Mamfe-Akwaya road which is to link the southern south eastern, eastern and north eastern of about 60km has been opened but lack bridges thus hardly accessible during the rainy season since there are many fast flowing rivers. Furthermore, more than 90% of the park area is only accessible on foot. The absence of a reliable road network in the area is a significant hindrance to CBET development To support this factor, a participant commented that, “our crop even gets rot in the house because there are no roads to transport them to the market especially during the rainy season.”

As for telecommunication, the park is completely cut off from the official national radio and TV network most of the radio signals captures in the area are Nigerian local FM stations. However, they whole area is animated by the Mamfe Local FM stations (Voice of Manyu – VOM and Munaya Broadcasting Corporation – MBC), which sometime relay national news casts. This communication hindrance also hinders CBET activity with the area.

5.4.5.2 Provision of Electricity and Potable Water

None of the communities within the park has pipe born water or main electricity supply. They depend on local streams for the supply of portable water thus most

communities are often plagued with water borne diseases like cholera. Also, because of the proximity of the communities to Nigeria where generators are sold at a cheaper rate, the rich villages make use of the generator to occasionally light their houses and rent them out to other villagers during festivities. This irregular supply of power and portable water is also a hindrance to the effective development of CBET in the area.

5.4.5.3 Health Facilities

Apart from Tinta village at the extreme north eastern section of the park with Cameroon Baptist convention Health Board and a government integrated health center in Kajifu village some few KMs from the park, no other village within the park had dispensaries or health facilities. The average tracking time to the nearest health center is about 6 hours. Thus, most of the villages make use of traditional herbs to cure all forms of sicknesses (Zafack *et al*, 2001)

5.4.5.4 Education

The illiteracy level of the communities in and around the park is very high. The only secondary school found in the area is located in Kajifu village often run by unqualified teachers. The area also has 11 primary schools of the same situation as the secondary school. The schools are situated in Kajifu, Kekukessim I, Obonyi I, Obonyi II, Obonyi III, Assam, Takamanda, Matene, Basho I, Kalumo, Tinta. Most of these villages are very far-off from the main secondary school thus most of the children do not continue their education due to the distance to track to the secondary school. They turn to farm and hunt in the villages to earn a living. This high illiteracy level hinders educative collaborative management within the park which is very detrimental to the planning and development of CBET within the area.

It is important to note that just as there is viability in the park management programs and team which complement and at times contradict each other as far as the

management of the park is concern, there is also variability of the hindrances to the attainment of the goal of CBET within the park. Apart from the main factors highlighted above which have a direct influence towards eco-tourism development within the area, my observations especially during focused group discussion reveals a range of other factor which indirectly withhold the planning and development of eco-tourism within the area they include

- Role conflict for example a participant complained that, “we no longer know who to believe everybody is becoming a boss giving instructions to us because we are villagers even the eco-guards are now want to carry out the work of Mrs, Delpine (community development officer)” the reality is that situations like this lead to miss information and inaccuracy in date, time and place of scheduled activities and programs.
- Lack of understanding of subject matter is another hindrance to the realisation of the ecotourism development in the area. Most of the community dwellers wish to see the reality of any developmental project. Their inability to understand to comprehend long term planning renders them impatient and will agitate in any slightest provocation. For example an angry participant commented that, “*we have been fooled for too long, what do they want to say that they have not said before*”. This was in reaction to a project that was meant to be executed in 2014 but the communities were briefed upon in 2012.
- Inability of the local to implement practically some micro projects for their own development. This has close ties with their educational level and also their culture. For example it was observed that most community social groups do not practice bookkeep, one of the component in capacity building

package that I personally did the training. Also most of the micro projects like snail rearing, and some demonstration farms have failed due to lack of commitment and other related factors.

- Financial power is another very important factor hindering the tourism development in the area. The community totally depend on agriculture, gathering and harvesting to NTFPs and hunting to raise income for household sustenance etc.

From the above finding, it is realised that, the draw backs of community based ecotourism development within the TNP region is from multiple fronts. Despite the fact every stakeholder in the game is claiming to do its possible best toward the realisation of the goal, they are directly or indirectly blamed for the precarious situation and state of the communities and the happening in the park.

The government did not meet their infrastructural and otherwise developmental goals which have greatly influence the community capabilities and actions which in turn are retarding goodwill gestures from NGOs toward realisation of the goal. In the same vein government negligent attitude toward these communities have rendered them submissive to environmental antics like weather and seasonality. Thus it is a whole cycle that need to be addressed from the beginning.

Finding also show that, there is broad knowledge of conservation compared to CBET due to sensitization from NGOs like GTZ, DED, GIZ, WCS. The communities rather collaborate with the NGOs instead of government officials because they try adopting the bottom-top management approach whereas the government is adopting top-down approach.

The provision of alternative sources of livelihood for the local community (table 16) is the main driving force for their willingness to participate in community based ecotourism in the area.

The level of understand of the about CBET is very low due to their high illiteracy rate but they however perceive CBET as a developmental instrument thus are willing to participate in its planning and development.

The communities blame the government for the poor state of development in the area for which reason they will not collaborate with the government officials until she assumes her responsibility of infrastructural development in the area including development of basic need like portable water supply, power supply, health falsities, educational facilities etc.

This section can be concluded that, CBET development in this area is still in its infancy state as per Butler's (1980) Tourist Area life cycle and requires huge investment from both the government and Goodwill organization.

CHAPTER 6

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

6.1 Introduction

The research focused on accessing local community involvement in community based ecotourism within the TNP-SWR of Cameroon. The study was carried out under four main objectives, the first being to assess community awareness and perception about community based ecotourism, secondly, finding out if the local population has been sensitized on CBET and environmental conservation, thirdly, assessing the effect of local community NGO – LC collaboration for conservation, local community willingness to participate in community based ecotourism planning and development and finally, explore the deficient factors in establishment and implementation of CBT. Attainment of these objectives were guarded by 3 main research question which are as follows

- Is the community knowledgeable about ecotourism and what is their perception about community based ecotourism development in the communities and how does their perception affect their zeal to participate in CBET development?
- Are the local communities willing to participate and collaborate with other stakeholders in the planning and development of community based ecotourism (CBET) in the area?

- How and what can be done to facilitate the sensitization and creation of awareness and eventual development of community based ecotourism (CBET) within the communities?

Guided by the above objectives and research questions, the previous chapter presented the findings of the study in relation to each objective. Based on the fact that the study had to do with people's perception and thoughts, it adopted the qualitative research methodology strengthened by selected cases (case study approach) and the interplay of multiple stakeholders (community dwellers, NGOs and Government officials) working in close collaboration within the park so as to supplement and complement each other for variation and authentication of related facts. Data collection methods adopted were in-depth open-ended semi-structured interviews, focused group discussion, observation and document analysis in order to improve on the validity of the findings and response to the questions. This chapter will therefore summarize the major findings with an objective of responding to the research questions in relation to the literature review while providing recommendations for effective development of CBET within the area and for future research.

6.2 Discussion

The key to awareness creation is sensitization and the magnitude and degree of sensitization in relation to the practical reality instigates the perception of the local community as per the project at hand. Findings revealed that, the local communities have received more sensitization on conservation than on community based ecotourism (5.4.1.2). However, according to Salafsky & Wollenberg (2000), conservation ventures should provide incentives for the conservation of the environment and poverty reduction initiatives for the buffer communities. This

requires a mutual-help initiative through the provision of alternative sources of income there by gaining their confidence for other long-term project (Marisa & Ghoguill, 1996). The elaboration of micro projects within the area (table 17) provides support to this fact. Thus, the linking of conservation to community development initiatives, through the provision of alternative sources of livelihood in the TNP changed their attitudes thereby fostering sustainable conservation for tourism development.

Finding also revealed that, the concept of CBET was not properly conceived by the community members and different participants held different views about the concept and defined it variable (5.4.1.1), supporting the view that there is no clear cut universally accepted definition of the concept (WWF, 2001). However, their definitions boiled down to be in accordance with the principles on which the definition of the concept is based. Firstly, the role of natural environment as a product of ecotourism and secondly its role in the conservation of the environment supporting the view of Scheyvene (2002.p.69). This shows that, they were aware that CBET is a positive movement and beneficial despite the fact that knowledge about specific benefits of the movement in relation to economic, environment, culture, skill, influence, and infrastructural development was lacking (Simpson, 2008). This also had an influence on their perception and eventual participation supporting the fact that, understanding about project details has an influence on community participation (Briedenhann & Wickens, 2004). Results however contradicts (Briedenhann and Wickens, 2004) view as the local communities are willing to participate in the development of CBET in the area despite the incomprehensive knowledge of the details of the project.

Findings also revealed that, apart from a few persons (table 16) having a negative perception about CBET due to a bad encounter with some officials and would not want to participate in its planning and development, supporting the views of ((Cheyre, 2005; Dolisca et al, 2006; Lise, 2000; Ogutu, 2002; Pollnac & Pomery, 2005; Stem et al, 2003; Studsrod, 1995; Stone & Wall 2004, UdayaSekhar, 2003; Wunder, 2000). The rest of the community dwellers interviewed (table 13) had a positive perception about CBET which also significantly affect their participation positively supporting the fact that, communities will participate in project perceived to be of potential benefits to the community (Narayan, 1995; Williams, 1997). Therefore, sensitizing the locals on conservation while providing alternative sources of income for the local communities, act as a boost for their participation in planning and development of community based ecotourism within the area.

Community Based Ecotourism venture should be regarded as a cooperative effort between local community who are the custodians of the natural resources and any other stakeholder (Butcher, 2007). This cooperation brings about trust, transparency and eventual collaboration between the parties. This means that it should not be politically used to influence decisions about issues that affect communities but rather a means of fostering mutual help initiatives (Marisa & Ghoguill, 1996). Therefore ecotourism success does not only depend on the incentives other stakeholders provide to the local communities but also the relationship that exist between them. The analysis of the relationship that exists between the local communities and the other two stakeholders considered in this study is presented in this section.

Collaboration between the communities and the other two stakeholders was not the same (table 15). The result show that, there local communities collaborated with the NGO more that with the government officials. Collaboration with the NGOs was due

to the direct incentives provided to the local communities. The NGO also try to empower them (table 16) by training them to be self-reliance e.g. capacity building, modern methods of cultivation, provision of improved seeds and other infrastructural development. The NGOs are adopting a participatory management plan participate in the decision making and implementation process (bottom top approach). Collaboration with the government officials is very poor. Apart from the top-down approach of management, these local communities have been alienated from government infrastructural development and they believe that government is robbing them of their livelihood and making life difficult for them. Though the benefits from the NGOs were not much, they are at least happy they are getting something hope that with time things will get better and were willing to collaborate with them than the government.

Form informal discussion and observation, there is a possible conflict between the local communities in the field. This can be termed transfer aggression due to government negligence of the area. The people considered that the government is depriving them of their means of livelihood without any sustainable alternative despite the fact that there are almost no infrastructural developments in the communities done by the government as quoted by a villager in (p.118). That is the government has failed to reconcile its conservation initiatives with substantial alternative source of income generation and infrastructural development. Thus, since of the local people rely on these natural resources for survival there is bound to be conflicts at any slightest provocation.

Furthermore, majority of the community dwellers were willing to participate in the planning and development of CBET in the TNP area. However this this willingness

where attached to some factors. It is important to note that awareness, perception, collaboration are a chain reaction that directly or indirectly influence each other. Apart from perceived benefits, understanding, and trust/empowerment as key factors that motivated community willingness to participate for the development of CBET within the area infrastructural lack, high illiteracy level, lack of health facilities as per the development officer of DED also act as a drawback to the realization of the CBET.

6.4 Conclusion

Cameroon is blessed with ecotourism potentials that can successfully brand the country a tourism destination if properly explored and managed. Adopting a strategy of creating more national reserves and parks like the TNP in a bid to conserve nature for the purpose of developing its tourism sector and attracting more tourists into the country should be done in recognition of the fact that, the natural resources upon which tourism depends has always been the main source of livelihood of the local communities thus the communities will always feel deprived from their good given resources and will resist its development without a positive perception or trust of a corresponding alternative source of livelihood.

This study assessed the awareness and willingness of the communities in TNP to participate in the planning and development of CBET considering the fact that, it is a newly created national park and that the development of such venture will restrain their main source of livelihood. To this effect, the awareness and understanding of the concept was assessed to have an understanding of their perception about the practical implementation of CBET. These factors were also analyzed in conjunction with their collaboration with other stakeholders so as to establish an understanding of

their willingness to get involved and also the factors influencing their participation in the planning and development of CBET and the realization of the goal in general.

Finding show that the local communities did not have a comprehensive knowledge of the concept of CBET but perceived it will be a source of development for their communities thus are willing to participate in the development of CBET due to the already established positivism of the concept of conservation. The conservation positivism was directly related to the alternative sources of livelihood and empowerment provided for them by NGOs like DED depicting their close collaboration. On the other hand, the local communities were aggrieved with the government for its inability to meet its obligation yet denying them the right to their source of livelihood and subjecting them to a direct reliance on nature. High illiteracy rate, limited infrastructural developments all alienated with government negligence are recognized to be the direct hindrance towered the realization of the goal of CBET in the area.

Furthermore the potential economic benefits were the most important factor influencing the willingness to participate. This finding supported the views view that, projects perceived to be of potential financial and developmental benefits, the communities willfully participate towered its realization (Narayam, 1995; Ogutu, 2002; Pollnac & Pomeroy, 2005; Stem et al, 2003; Stone & Wall, 2004).

Secondly, understanding of the project was also influential to their participation. Despite incomprehensive knowledge about the project, community dwellers held a general view that, CBET was meant to increase their standard of living after receiving incentives form NGOs as for conservation. This supported the view that,

lack of community knowledge of a project, hinders reduces willingness to participate postulated by Briedenhann & Wickens (2004) in a study carried out in South Africa.

Thirdly, gaining trust and confidence of the other stakeholder has been influential in getting the communities willing to participate in the venture. Burkey (1993) and Willson et al (2001) found out that lack of confidence reduces willingness to participate. This is in consistence with the study as finding shows that, the local communities collaborate with the NGO because they have gained their trust involving them in decision making and even empowering them to for self-development through capacity buildings, training, infrastructural development and elaboration of micro projects as an alternative source of livelihood due to nature conservation. The reverse is true with government officials for obvious reasons like destroying their source of livelihood with no compensation.

Realizing the hindrances and disagreement between the local communities and the other stakeholders especially the government officials due to the fact that, they fill alienated from their sources of livelihood without an adequate alternative source of survival. It was worthwhile to ask the local their opinion on how to bridge the gap and also what could be done to improve their participation in the planning and development of the venture in the area. Their responses were motivations, rewards and empowerment. Motivation obviously make human begins to be dedicated .Therefor ensuring effective participation especially at the community level requires motivations. However, the participants did not only relied on financial motivate, they pressed on that, it could also be in kind. (Appendix 4) is the priority of the villages as per their motivation desires. The form of motivation could be, given them the legitimate right to express their views and opinions.

It was realized that, Government motivation the communities through the provision of the demands (appendix 4) would boost their willingness to participate in the planning and development of CBET in the area.

Furthermore, they wanted rewarded for giving up their only source of livelihood for the purpose of conservation. And finally empowering them by involving them in decision making and planning for their own development. According to Cernear, (1991) there must be a shared view of political and economic control between the communities and other stakeholder and a fair distribution of ecotourism benefits to achieve success.

6.5 Limitations

There is hardly a perfect research design as trade-offs are always inevitable (Marshall and Rossman, 1999,p.42). Major hitches to this study were the low literacy level of the participants especially in the villages. More than 80% of the villages could neither read nor write but where able to assimilate explanations and verbally pass on valuable information with backed facts. Thus much time was spent in explanations and illustrations and translations made if necessary for better understanding and responses.

Furthermore, this research was conducted in a period when the community dweller where just recovering from the headquarter location crisis. They were still nursing grievances especially in the Takamanda village thus they will always response in a bit to justify their claims and actions as per the park management and conservation. This may hinder their actual contribution to the realization of a comprehensive recommendation as per the planning and development of CBET within the area. Thirdly, out of 18 villages, only four were chosen for sampling due to time constrains

and season constrain. With the notion that no two villages can ever be the same, the thought, perception opinions and ideas of the other communities about the subject matter was not considered.

Furthermore, the study was conducted during the rainy season which is pick harvest and farming period. Thus most villages return home tired thus may not have a free thinking mind as a result of fatigue. And for the researcher, there road were almost inaccessible and transport very expensive increasing the overall cost of the research.

6.6 Contribution and Recommendations

Community based ecotourism as a developmental agent has been discoursed in the study and some finding is in accordance with the existing literature on CBET planning and developments while some are unearthed. Firstly, knowledge of conservation and the attached alternative sources of livelihood are the main propagator of participation and collaboration for CBET development in the TNP. Secondly, knowledge of the reason for inconsistency in collaboration between the local communities and government officials will enable the government adopts the bottom top approach to management there by fascinating participation and collaboration thus promoting CBET. The study will also contribute to the sensitization of the communities who are yet to understand the concept of CBET. Furthermore, it will add its own quota to the already existed knowledge in CBET especially in Cameroon

As for recommendations, the government needs to recognize the fact that, the areas that turned to reserves of parks where formally the main source of livelihood to the communities in or around the park or reserve. Thus alternative sources of income

should be made available for the communities especially in the short run so as to evade resistance and reduce the cost of letting go their main source of livelihood

There is need for the infrastructural development such as the construction of transport and telecommunication means to aid not only, evacuation of especially farm products to the market but also to ease movement and link up the country. Amend water and power supply, health and educational facilities.

The government should strive at reducing the illiteracy level of the communities by offering more educational opportunities like schools etc. and increase awareness creation about the global importance conservation. This will increase the potentiality of involvement in decision making and empowerment there by installing a sense of ownership and responsibility, increase their understanding of the challenges that come with the tourism and also providing a platform for the acquisition of the technical knowhow of ecotourism business operation.

There should be increased collaboration between the different stakeholders and the government should act in its capacity and wallowing behind NGOs there by blurring their action though present. This instead increase community dislike the government officials.

6.6 Suggestion for Future Study

This study was based on the investigation of witnesses and threat to the realization community based ecotourism within the TNP region. Therefore, the other two component of a complete SWOT analysis (strength and opportunities) is worth investigation as this park is newly created thus a full knowledge of its potentiality is worth reporting. Furthermore, effect of conservation and its policies towards the

realization of CBET within this area is also worth investigating. Also an assessment of this topic in a multidimensional perspective engaging triangulation methodology should be conducted as to the best of my knowledge; no study on community based tourism has been conducted in the area.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Interview Guides

Government officials/ NGOs interview Guide

- What are the general objectives towards tourism development in the parks?
- What are the specific objectives towards conservation and ecotourism development in parks?
- Have there been local community outreach/education activities with regard to the Park/tourism?
- What strategy (or policy) exists for ecotourism development in parks for the organization?
- How do you intend to implement these strategies?
- Are the communities aware of this strategies and how did you create the awareness?
- What is their perception about conservation and CBET development in the area?
- How did they react to the idea, positive or negative? Can you give me any reason for their reaction?
- Do you think they will participate in the planning and development of CBET?
- How could the community participate more in the future tourism development?
- How and what mechanisms are you putting in place to encourage their participation?
- What policy has been put in place for community development of surrounding areas?
- What activities have been developed to support community development in the surrounding areas?
- Are the local communities collaborating with other stakeholders for the realization this goal?
- What challenges have been faced with regard to ecotourism development in national parks?
- What threats to the parks' ecology maybe alleviated by successful ecotourism?
- What are the major constraints that inhibit conservation and CBET development the area?
- What opportunities exist for CBET development in national park?
- What threats to the parks' ecology maybe alleviated by successful ecotourism?
- So to your opinion do think can be done to fascinate CBET in the area?

Community interview guide

- Are you aware that a National Park exists near your community?
- Why do you think it was designated a 'Park'?
- Has Park establishment impacted your livelihood in a positive and/or negative way?
- What are your feelings about the Park? Overall, is it a good or bad thing?
- What are your feelings about tourism/tourists and, the possibility that tourism in this region may increase in the future?
- Is the protection of natural forest important to you? How and why?
- What do you understand by conservation and sustainable development and CBET?

- Can you define any of the terms?
- Have you ever been sensitized about the above terms and by whom?
- What is your perception about conservation and sustainable management?
- Are you engaged in conservation and what are you doing to ensure its practice?
- Do you benefit from conservation and what are the benefits?
- How does the community participate in ensuring conservation and what are the measures put in place to ensure participation?
- Have you ever been sensitized about community based ecotourism and by whom?
- What is your perception about community based ecotourism?
- Will you like to be involved in CBET? Why?
- What do you think is the relationship between CBET, conservation and sustainable development?
- What do you think are the benefits of CBET?
- Who are the major stakeholders involved in the management of the park?
- Do you equally collaborate with the Government authorities and NGOs for the park management? And in what areas do you collaborate with them?
- What is the reason for your collaboration?
- In what capacity would you like to be engaged in the development of CBET in the area?
- What are your major challenges for the development of CBET in the area?
- What are your expectations and concerns about ecotourism in the Park?
- What do you think can be done to encourage their participation?

Focus group discussion topics

- Community awareness on conservation, sustainable development
- Community's contribution and involvement in conservation and ecotourism
- Community Involvement and response to ecotourism and community projects
- Community collaboration with other stakeholders
- Constraint to community collaboration and participation
- Community willingness to participate and influencing factors
- Other issues of concern and conclusions

Appendix 2: Profile of Interviewees.

Interviewees	Composition
Government officials	delegate of environment and forestry, the conservator of TNP, Asst. Delegate of environment and forestry, MINFOF focal person and Eco-guards
NGOs	GIZ (DED/ GTZ) technical adviser, WCS focal person and GIZ community development officer
Villagers	The traditional council members constituting of the chief as the head of the council, women and youth representatives and a host of councilors which form the village governing body.

Appendix 3: Summary of the Sample Size of the Interviewees

Interviews conducted from the July 8th to August 25th 2013.

Description of participants	Number of males	Number of females	Total number of semi-structures interviews.	Qualitative method adopted
Government officials	6	2	8	Semi-structured interviews
NGO officials	2	1	3	-Semi-structured interviews -secondary information's from PROFA, GTZ, WCS and GIZ reports
Takamanda village	7	4	11	-Semi-structured interviews -2 focus groups discussion -participant observation
Basho 1 village	5	3	8	-Semi-structured interviews -1 focus groups discussion -participant observation
Kekukessim 1 village	6	4	10	-Semi-structured interviews -2 focus groups discussion -participant observation
Matene village	8	3	11	-Semi-structured interviews -2 focus groups discussion -participant observation

Source: author

Note: the focus group interviews had youth as a majority and the male in every case where greater than the females.

Appendix 4: Community Needs for Motivation

NEEDS	COMUNITIES
Education	All communities
Health facilities	All communities
Road construction	All communities
Pipe born water supply	All communities
Power supply	All communities
Improved seeds and farming equipment	All communities
Job	All communities

Appendix 5: Definition of Community Development by Different Authors

Authors	year	Definition
Bennett	1973	The deliberate attempt by community people to work together to guide the future of their communities, and the development of a corresponding set of techniques for assisting community people in such a process.
Darby & Morris	1975	An educational approach which would raise levels of local awareness and increase confidence and ability of community groups to identify and tackle their own problems.
Dunbar	1972	A series of community improvements which take place over time as a result of the common efforts of various groups of people. Each successive improvement is a discrete unit of community development. It meets a human want or need
Frederickson	1975	Finding effective ways of helping and teaching people to develop new methods and to learn new skills. This process is, however, done in such a way as to retain community control and community spirit
Hammock	1973	A process of creating special community organizations throughout society which will be responsible for channeling demands to centers of power, to distributors of benefits
Hauswald	1971	A process, as a method, as a program, and as a movement; or as a set of purposes
Huie	1976	The process of local decision-making and the development of programs designed to make their community a better place to live and work
Koneya	1975	All of the efforts made to establish and maintain human interaction while improving the appropriateness of the physical setting to that interaction. Underlying values to this development are the recognition of the individual's right to select the extent of community or privacy and the group's right to identify its own needs for community development
Littrell	1975	An open system of decision making, whereby those comprising the community use democratic and rationale means to arrive at group decisions to take action for enhancing the social and economic well-being of the community
Long	1975	"An educational process designed to help adults in a community solve their own problems by group decision making and group action. Most community development models include broad citizen involvement and training in problem solving
Lotz	1970	"The involvement of people and the coordination and integration of all efforts directed at bettering conditions
Maser	1997	The capacity of people to work collectively in addressing their common interests.
Miles,	1974	The process which basically initiates and develops structure and facilitates program development that includes users of the program. I identify Community Development in the context of initiating and of developing supportive human relationships.
Oberle, Darby, & Stowers	1975	A process in which increasingly more members of a given area or environment make and implement socially responsible decisions, the probable consequence of which is an increase in the life chances of some people without a decrease in the life chances of others.
Parko		Facilitating those cultural mechanisms that provide for shared experience, trust, and common purpose
Ploch	1976	The active voluntary involvement in a process to improve some identifiable aspect of community life; normally such action leads to the strengthening of the community's pattern of human and institutional

		interrelationships.
Ravitz	1982	The active involvement of people at the level of the local community in resisting or supporting some cause or issue that interests them
Shaffer	1990	“Many community development efforts are essentially efforts to help community residents understand what is happening and recognize some of the choices they face in order to achieve the future community they desire.
Vaughn	1972	People who are affected by change participate in making it ... A system provides for communication among all groups in the community, including open discussion of issues, feelings, and opinions. The community understands its problem-solving process and needs no further instruction.
Voth	1975	A situation in which some groups, usually locality based such as neighborhood or local community, attempts to improve its social and economic situation through its own efforts using professional assistance and perhaps also financial assistance from the outside and involving all sectors of the community or group to a maximum.
Warren	1978	A process of helping community people analyzes their problems, to exercise as large a measure of community autonomy as is possible and feasible, and to promote a greater identification of the individual citizen and the individual organization with the community as a whole.
Weaver	1971	A public-group approach dedicated to achieving the goals of the total body politic.
Wilkenson	1979	Acts by people that open and maintain channels of communication and cooperation among local groups

Summarized by Greg Wise, (1998)

Appendix 6: Qualitative Data Analysis Matrix

Village	Respondents	LCA	LCP	LCS	LC-NGO-C	LC-GO-C	LCWP	
Takamanda village	R1	+	+	+	+	-	+	R= Respondents LCA= Local Community Awareness On Ecotourism LCP= Local Community Perception LCS= Local Community Sensitization on Conservation and Ecotourism LC-NGO-C= Local Community Ngo Collaboration LC-GO-C=Local Community Government Officials Collaboration LCWP=Local Community Willingness To Participate In CBET Planning and Development. + positive action - negative actions
	R2	+	+	+	+	+	+	
	R3	+	+	+	+	-	+	
	R4	+	+	+	+	-	+	
	R5	+	+	+	+	-	+	
	R6	+	+	+	+	-	+	
	R7	+	+	+	+	-	+	
	R8	+	+	+	+	-	+	
	R9	+	+	+	+	-	+	
	R10	+	+	+	+	-	+	
	R11	+	+	+	+	-	+	
Kekumessim 1 village	R1	+	+	+	+	-	+	
	R2	+	+	+	+	-	+	
	R3	+	+	+	+	+	+	
	R4	+	-	+	+	-	+	
	R5	+	+	+	+	+	+	
	R6	+	+	+	+	-	+	
	R7	+	+	+	+	-	+	
	R8	+	-	+	+	-	+	
	R9	+	+	+	+	-	+	
	R10	+	+	+	+	+	+	
Matene village	R1	+	+	+	+	-	+	
	R2	+	+	+	+	-	+	
	R3	+	+	+	+	-	+	
	R4	+	+	+	+	-	+	
	R5	+	+	+	+	-	+	
	R6	+	+	+	+	-	+	
	R7	+	-	+	+	-	+	
	R8	+	+	+	+	-	+	
	R9	+	+	+	+	+	+	
	R10	+	+	+	+	+	+	
	R11	+	+	+	+	-	+	
Bacho village	R1	+	+	+	+	-	+	
	R2	+	+	+	+	-	+	
	R3	+	+	+	+	-	+	
	R4	+	+	+	+	-	+	
	R5	+	+	+	+	+	+	
	R6	+	+	+	+	-	+	
	R7	+	+	+	+	-	+	
	R8	+	+	+	+	+	+	