

**SUSTAINABLE TOURISM DEVELOPMENT MANAGEMENT
IN CENTRAL AFRICA: A CASE STUDY OF THE TOURISM
INDUSTRY IN CAMEROON.**

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Abstract

The tourism industry in sub-Saharan Africa has been experiencing one of the fastest growth rates in the last decade at more than 10% in 2006, +7% in 2007 and +5% in 2008 and 2009 respectively and this positive trend is predicted to continue in future in spite of the present global recession. However, there are significant variations in tourism growth between the various countries and different sub-regions. Until now, there has been no detailed examination by researchers to find out the reasons for these variations in general and the stagnation and even decline in tourism growth observed in countries of the Central African sub-region in particular, which have recognised natural and socio-cultural potentials of developing a thriving sustainable tourism industry.

Using Cameroon as a case study, this research examines the reasons of this stagnation in the Central African sub-region, and explores the possibility of tailoring, adapting and/or applying the key concepts of sustainable tourism in developing and managing the tourism industry in the Central African sub-region which is still at an early stage of development through the conception of a strategic framework for sustainable tourism development management in Cameroon.

The principal objectives of the thesis are:

- a. To identify and outline the growth potential of the tourism industry in Cameroon as a means of improving the socio-economic conditions of the local communities.
- b. To examine the contradictions and challenges facing the development of a viable sustainable tourism industry in Cameroon.
- c. To determine how far sustainable tourism concepts successfully applied in other countries can be adapted and used in developing and managing the tourism potential of Cameroon in particular, and its sub-region.

The research philosophy is interpretive and it adopts the case study (which is both exploratory and descriptive) as the research strategy. Mixed methods were used in collecting data for this research which combines both the deductive and inductive approaches, the former being the secondary approach and the latter being the primary. Primary data was obtained through a tourist satisfaction questionnaire, in-depth semi-structured interviews and field observations while secondary quantitative data was collected from existing published literature on (sustainable) tourism, grey literature and unpublished documents from the Ministry of Tourism as well as the

Ministry of Forestry and Fauna in Cameroon. The questionnaire data was analysed with the aid of the SPSS (Version 15) statistical package, and a thematic content analysis was done of the interview transcripts and observation notes.

The results of the data analysis not only answer the research objectives and questions, but also identify core and enabling themes affecting the management of the development of a sustainable tourism industry in Cameroon. These include issues dealing with the overall tourism policy, finance, tourism promotion and marketing, stakeholder relationships, service infrastructure, human resource development, as well as national and sub-regional peace and stability. Drawing from theoretical and successfully implemented practical models of sustainable (tourism) development in other developing destinations, the study concludes by proposing a strategic framework for sustainable tourism development management in Cameroon as well as suggestions for future research.

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List of abbreviations

| | |
|-----------|---|
| ATM | Africa Travel Management |
| BBC | British Broadcasting Corporation |
| B&B | Bed and Breakfast |
| BERUDEP | Belo Rural Development Project |
| BDCP | Bioresources Development and Conservation Plan |
| CATS | Central African Tours and Safaris |
| CAMTOURS | Cameroon Tours and Safaris |
| CBNRM | Community Based Natural Resources Management |
| CBO | Community Based Organisation |
| CBT(I) | Community Benefit Tourism (Initiative) |
| CBTO | Community Based Tourism Organisation |
| CEMAC | Central African Economic and Monetary Community |
| CIA | Central Intelligence Agency |
| CIG | Common Initiative Group |
| CBFI | Community Based Forest Initiative Project |
| DED | German Development Organisation |
| DFID | UK Department for International Development |
| eMICA | Extended Model of Internet Commerce Adoption |
| EU | European Union |
| FTB | Fako Tourism Board |
| GDP | Gross Domestic Product |
| GNP | Gross National Product |
| GTZ | German Agency for Technical Cooperation |
| ICT | Information and Communication Technology |
| IP | Indigenous Peoples |
| LBZG | Limbe Botanic and Zoological Garden |
| MBCC | Mount Cameroon Biodiversity Conservation Centre |
| MDC | Movement for Democratic Change |
| MINCULT | Ministry of Culture |
| MINEP | Ministry of Environment and Nature Protection |
| MINFOF | Ministry of Forestry and Fauna |
| MINTOUR | Ministry of Tourism |
| Mn | Million |
| Mount CEO | Mount Cameroon Inter-communal Ecotourism Organisation |

| | |
|--------|--|
| NGO | Non-governmental Organisation |
| NTO | National Tourism Office |
| NTC | National Tourism Council |
| PMP | Park Management Plan |
| PNDP | National Participatory Development Programme |
| PPT | Pro-Poor Tourism |
| PRSP | Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper |
| SAPCO | Société d'aménagement de la petite côte |
| SME | Small & Medium size Enterprises |
| SNV | Dutch Development Organisation |
| ST | Sustainable Tourism |
| UNEP | United Nations Environmental Programme |
| UNESCO | United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation |
| WCED | World Commission on Environment and Development |
| WHC | World Heritage Committee |
| WTO | World Tourism Organisation |
| WTTC | World Travel and Tourism Council |
| WWF | World Wildlife Fund |
| ZANU | Zimbabwe Africa National Union |

1. General introduction

1.1 Research background

1.2. Research aims and objectives

1.3. Rationale of the research

1.4. Structure of the thesis

Introduction

Since 2000, sub-Saharan Africa has consistently posted the fastest growth in annual visitor arrivals in the world, only comparable to the Middle East. This trend has continued even into the present economic recession with the continent still experiencing growth rates of +5% in 2008 and 2009 respectively whilst the rest of the world experienced a 4% decline in tourism arrivals and revenue in 2009 (UNWTO, 2010). Interest in the continent has been spurred on by the increase in disposable incomes in tourist generating countries and the increasing popularity of new types of tourism activities especially among the wealthy classes; coupled with the ever-increasing desire of these well-to-do earners/travellers to discover new destinations offering alternative, sustainable nature/cultural tourism activities. That notwithstanding, though the continent has been witnessing uninterrupted steady growth since 2001, Africa's share of the tourist market is still very small, only 5% - or around 50 million tourists from a total of nearly 900 million visitors in 2009 (UNWTO, 2010). In addition, only some of the countries in North, East, West and South Africa have cashed in on this boom while the Central African sub-region has not experienced any significant growth. The desire to find out the reasons behind these sub-regional growth inequalities in general and the stagnation in tourism growth in Cameroon and the Central African sub-region as well as other unanswered questions that arose in discussions (with some acquaintances who worked in the tourism industry) about the state of the industry in Cameroon and the sub-region in general left the researcher frustrated because he realised that his questions could not be answered due to the scarcity and inexistence of published and unpublished academic research on the topic in Cameroon. This is in spite of the fact that it has been generally acknowledged that the sub-region and Cameroon in particular are biodiversity (and culturally) rich and thus have enormous potential for the development of a nature based sustainable tourism industry (WTTC, 2008). These questions lingered in the researcher's mind until 2007 when he applied for and was given the opportunity to conduct a systematic study on this topic for his PhD research.

1.1 Research background

The tourism and travel industry is one of the world's largest and fastest growing industries, employing approximately 230 million people. It generated 9.6% of world GDP in 2008 and it was expected to contribute 6.7% of global GDP in 2009 (WTTC, 2009). Until the outbreak of the global economic recession in 2008, global tourism had been growing steadily each year after having recovered from the downturn

following the terror attacks of September 11 2001. Sub-Saharan Africa has been experiencing one of the fastest growth rates in the last decade at more than 10% in 2006. The growth rate dropped slightly in 2007 and again in 2008 at +7% and +4% respectively but increased to 5% in 2009 (Table 1.1). This positive trend is predicted to continue in future in spite of the present global recession (WTTC, 2009; UNWTO, 2010).

Table 1.1: Sub-Saharan Africa and international tourist arrivals, 2005-2009

| Year | Sub-Saharan Africa: growth rate (%) | Global growth rate (%) |
|-------------|--|-------------------------------|
| 2005 | 10 | 5.5 |
| 2006 | 12 | 6.1 |
| 2007 | 07 | 6.1 |
| 2008 | 04 | 2.0 |
| 2009 | 05 | -4.0 |

Source: World Tourism Organisation, 2007; 2010

However, only some sub-Saharan African countries seem to profit from this tourism growth. In 2007, Senegal received more than 875,000 visitors, representing a 14.8% increase from 2005 while the number of international arrivals to Tanzania stood at 644,124 in 2006 showing a growth rate of 5.1% when compared to 2005 (WTO, 2009). On the contrary, growth in countries in the Central African sub-region like Cameroon has been very unpredictable, stagnating or even declining. In 2006 for example, only about 185,000 overnight visitors were registered in Cameroon, signifying a 5.11% increase when compared to 2005 but far less than the 277,000 visitors recorded in 2000. Even though a total of 410,000 tourists visited Cameroon in 2007, it could still not be classified as a tourist destination because this number was less than the 500,000 visitors target set by the UNWTO (MINTOUR, 2007). These regional variations in tourism growth are demonstrated in Chapter Three when a comparative analysis is done of some of the WTO indicators of tourism growth among countries of the various sub-regions of sub-Saharan Africa during the period from 2000 to 2007. It is the quest to understand the reasons behind these variations and the desire to look for the best possible alternatives of developing/managing the industry in Cameroon that motivated the researcher to look into the domain of sustainable development; its principles, concepts, practices as a possible solution that could be applied in the development and management of Cameroon's tourism industry.

Sustainable tourism, responsible tourism, green tourism, eco-tourism, nature tourism, alternative tourism, community-based tourism, community-benefit tourism, pro-poor tourism are all new terms which have been coined over the last twenty five years to express alternative approaches of developing tourism (Archer and Cooper, 1994; Butler, 1993; Mbaiwa, 2003; 2005; Propoortourism.org, 2005; Simpson, 2008). The provision of socio-economic benefits to the local communities, guaranteed tourist satisfaction and environmental protection are the main characteristics of these new approaches to tourism development. Various definitions have been put forward for sustainable tourism (Archer and Cooper, 1994; Butler, 1993; Curry and Morvaridi, 1992). This research examines some of these definitions taking into consideration the WTO core indicators of sustainable tourism to identify the elements that could be adapted and applied (via a strategic framework that is proposed at the end of this research) to developing and managing a sustainable nature-based tourism industry in Cameroon while taking full advantage and use of its rich floral and faunal diversity in addition to its location and cultural diversity.

1.2 Research aims and objectives

Using Cameroon as a case study, this study explores the possibility of sustainably developing and managing the tourism industry in the Central African sub-region which is still at an early stage of development.

The principal objectives of the thesis are:

- a. To identify and outline the growth potential of the tourism industry in Cameroon as a means of improving the socio-economic conditions of the local communities.
- b. To examine the contradictions and challenges facing the development of a viable sustainable tourism industry in Cameroon.
- c. To determine how far sustainable tourism concepts successfully applied in other countries can be adapted and used in developing and managing the tourism potential of Cameroon in particular, and its sub-region.

In the course of achieving the above mentioned objectives, the thesis will be providing responses to the following research questions:

1. Why are there significant variations in the growth of the tourism industry in different countries in sub-Saharan Africa?
2. Why are Cameroon and the Central African sub-region not profiting from the present global tourism growth and what can be done to reverse this trend?

1.3 Rationale of the research

This section presents a justification of the chosen research topic, context and methodological approach employed in this research. There are a handful of scientific publications dealing with (sustainable) tourism issues in sub-Saharan Africa, but the focus has largely been on countries in East and Southern Africa (Akama, 1997, 1998, 1999; Mbaiwa, 2003a, 2003b, 2004, 2005a, 2005b) with very limited research being undertaken in Central Africa to find out the reasons for this negative trend in a region which has recognised natural and socio-cultural potential for developing a thriving nature-based tourism industry (Shackley, 2006). Consequently, there is a very small amount of literature and academic research dealing with tourism in the sub-region and Cameroon in particular, thus the need for more research in this domain, the results of which could be practically implemented in the field to develop and manage the tourism industry in the country in a sustainable manner. The only existing fragments of published literature about tourism in Cameroon can be found in a few existing specialised guidebooks (e.g. Lonely Planet) and on the web pages of some specialised niche tour operators as well as on some working documents (many outdated) of the Ministry of Tourism (MINTOUR).

Cameroon's tourism industry is still in its infancy and its resources are best suited for the development of a sustainable nature-based tourism industry. However, there is no clear cut policy on tourism, neither is there a tourism development strategy or plan in place at the moment. Its development and management are thus mired in chaos. While the tourism industries in many other countries and regions of sub-Saharan Africa are experiencing constant growth that of Cameroon is declining or stagnating. It was thus imperative to examine the exact causes of these growth variations between the different sub-regions and the stagnation in Cameroon so that a strategic and practically implementable sustainable tourism development and management framework could be drawn up to manage the development of various aspects of the tourism industry in the country. This framework will be drawn up based on theoretical sustainable development models with examples from published literature and practical examples from successfully developed and well managed destinations in developing countries. The goal will be to tailor and adapt key concepts of sustainable

tourism to the development and management of Cameroon's fledgling tourism industry.

The concept of sustainable tourism development management in the case of this research foresees public/private/community sector partnerships of all tourism industry stakeholders actively participating in the development (because Cameroon's tourism industry is still at a very early stage of development) and management (due to the fact that the Cameroon's tourism development process has to judiciously managed/administered through the implementation of management policies and strategies that will guarantee long-term success) of the country's tourism resources in an equitable and just manner so that present and future generations can profit. The case of Cameroon is unique in that it is a country which has not yet experienced the serious impacts of mass tourism, and as such most of its potential is still intact. However, mindful of the fact that no empirical research in existing literature has been dedicated to the study of sustainable tourism development management in Cameroon and the sub-region, and mindful of the interdisciplinary nature and scarcity of data for this research topic, making use of just one method of data collection would have been an arduous and impossible task. This research which is done in the form of an exploratory and descriptive case study thus makes use of both quantitative and qualitative methods for data collection.

1.4 Structure of the thesis

This thesis is made up of nine chapters, covering the literature review, research design (methodology and methods), research findings, discussion and conclusion. The contents of each chapter are summarily introduced hereafter and a table is shown at the start of each chapter indicating the various sections and sub-sections covered in that particular chapter.

The last update of the literature review was done in May 2010 and any relevant material published after this date is not included in this thesis. In terms of structure, the literature review takes the shape of an imaginary funnel. It begins with the general research area and is progressively narrowed down to the more specific research context. Chapters Two, Three and Four deal with the literature review.

Chapter Two resembles the wide end of the review funnel. It examines the evolution of tourism in general, recent developments in the global tourism industry, factors responsible for tourism growth, impacts of tourism development, and the evolution of tourism since 1950 as well as key concepts and issues involved in sustainable tourism development.

Chapter Three is a historical overview of tourism development and management in sub-Saharan Africa. In this chapter the evolution of tourism in sub-Saharan Africa from the 16th Century to the present is done by sub-region and a detailed comparative study (using tourism indicators) of the tourism industries of Senegal, United Republic of Tanzania and Botswana (in West, East and South Africa respectively) is carried out.

Chapter Four is further narrowed down to focus on the main area of research in this thesis. It presents an overview of the development and management of the tourism industry in Cameroon. An inventory of the potential and the state of tourism industry infrastructure are outlined in this chapter. In addition, the evolution of tourism in Cameroon from the 16th Century to the present day is examined in comparison to other countries of sub-Saharan Africa, while note is taken of the various types of tourism presently being practised in the country.

Chapter Five is concerned with the research design, i.e. methodology and methods used in designing and collecting data for this research which is interpretive in nature but adopts a mixed methods choice for data collection. A justification for the choice of the research strategy and the use of a mixed methods choice is provided; the quantitative and qualitative data collection methods, the sampling issues and the data analysis strategy and analytical methods are explained and justified. Besides, fieldwork experiences and reflections during data collection are reported and mused on to identify problems and areas of possible improvement.

Chapter Six presents the findings resulting from the analysis of the tourist satisfaction survey data which was collected at the start of the fieldwork. The data is analysed with the aid of SPSS (version 15). The results of this survey are thematically reported and they form the basis for the observation and interview guidelines which were prepared and used by the researcher during visits to potential and existing tourism sites and during the in-depth semi-structured interviews with tourism industry stakeholders respectively.

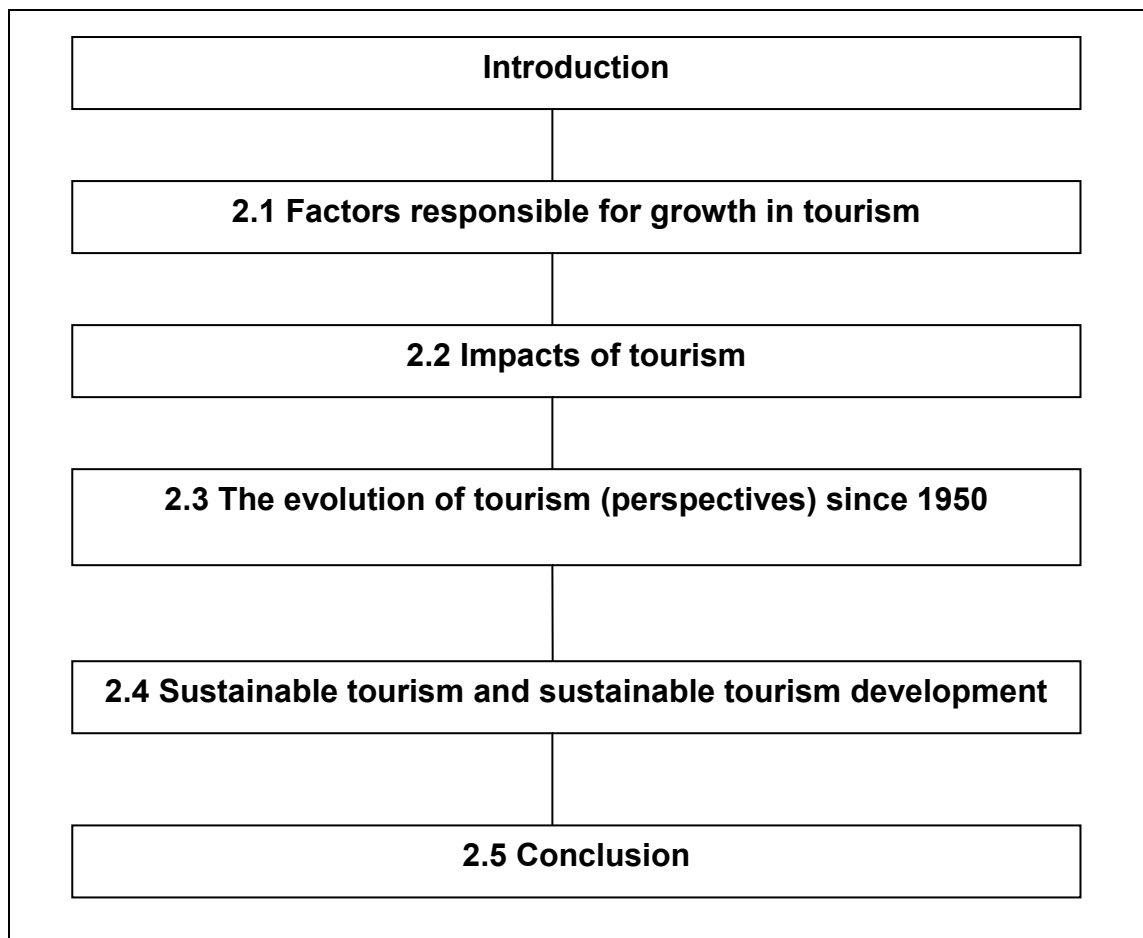
Chapter Seven begins with an overview of the sample profile of the different interviewees and their roles in the tourism industry. It then moves on to report the findings resulting from the analysis of the semi-structured interviews supported with details of observations made during fieldtrips to the sites visited by the researcher. The results are reported by identical themes and sub-themes which are further grouped into core and enabling themes for sustainable tourism development management in Cameroon. These include tourism potential and tourism policy, finance, marketing and publicity, stakeholder relationships, service infrastructure and

personnel, tourism industry prioritisation as well as internal stability and regional geopolitics.

Chapter Eight is devoted to a discussion of the results from this study in relation to the relevant literature under the main themes identified in Chapter 7. In the ensuing discussion, the researcher examines the inter-connections among these themes and sub-themes and shows how the results of this research support/challenge/fill the gaps in previous works and contribute to the current body of knowledge.

Chapter Nine concludes the thesis. The theoretical, methodological and practical implications of this research are presented, the limitations of the research reflected upon and some suggestions or recommendations for future research are made.

2. The Evolution of tourism: Concepts and issues



Introduction

Sustainable tourism developed out of the increasing need and demand for the adoption of a coherent and integrated approach in the development of both the economy and ecology in the tourism sector. The phenomenal increase in technological developments, income and increasing post-war prosperity (especially from the 1950s) in many developed countries led to an increase in the purchasing powers of citizens who could now afford to undertake leisure and travel activities which hitherto had been the preserve of a limited few. Thus demand for tourism activities and travel steadily increased after this period provoking the rapid and in many cases uncontrolled development and construction of tourism infrastructure geared at maximising short-term economic benefits with little regard for the environmental consequences. The shortcomings of this myopic approach became evident in the 1970s when the negative effects of tourism, especially as an economic activity, could be clearly seen and felt on the natural and cultural environments at the destination level (UNEP, 2002; Archer *et al.*, 2004; Holden, 2000; Coccossis and Nijkamp, 1995). As a result of the rapid deterioration of tourism destinations, environmental campaigners, policy researchers and scholars began raising questions as to the ethics of running such ventures based purely on the principles of profit maximisation with little concern for the welfare of the destinations.

These groups also began expressing the need to exercise caution in the development of the industry especially at the destination level. In the late 1980s and early 1990s a completely new approach to looking and studying tourism as a whole thus began circulating among tourism researchers and professionals. It was based on the need to adapt tourism development to the particularities of each destination if the negative effects of tourism development experienced so far were to be sidelined. This approach called for the 'scientification' of tourism (Jafari, 2003; Jafari, 2001). The increase in popularity of green movements and activities and new brands of alternative tourism activities as well as sustainable development principles and practices in the late 1980s and early 1990s coupled with the increasing recognition of tourism as a very important subject and indispensable element of the global economy especially after the tremendous contributions it had been making to regional and global GDPs during the last 5 decades ensured that tourism and its problems became an international issue. Efforts began to be made on how to develop the industry as a whole but more specifically at regional and national levels with the formation of various organisations and bodies at national, regional and

international levels all exclusively concerned with tourism development and management in a sustainable manner.

This was in consideration the fact that *the 'environment is a core feature of the tourist product, tourists, it can be justifiably argued, are consumers of the environment who travel to the producers' location which in this case is the tourist destination in order to consume the product'* (Goodall, 1992, p. 60), but if this product is not well conserved and maintained, it eventually loses its quality and leads to a decrease not only in the revenue for the operators but to the destruction of the setting¹.

This chapter will examine the factors favouring the rise and growth of tourism from the 1950s up to the present. The impacts of tourism development and its growth from the economical, socio-cultural and environmental perspectives will be examined. This chapter will also involve an appraisal of the rise of environmental concerns in the industry and the establishment of sustainable tourism development (management) principles and practises as the best approach to move forward in the global travel and tourism industry in general and in the management of the fledgling tourism industry in Cameroon in the 21st Century.

2.1 Factors responsible for growth in tourism

Travel and tourism between the 17th Century and early 19th Century was in most cases very tiring, uncomfortable and perilous. Travellers had to resort to travel on foot, by horse or using man or horse-drawn carriages. Roads before this time were very poorly surfaced and in winter, they were completely impracticable making travelling almost impossible during this period. The introduction of stage coaches and macadamisation early in the 17th Century and coach services throughout Britain, continental Europe and the United States in the 18th Century coupled with the discovery and use of steam in industry, trains (1825) and ships (1821) during the Industrial Revolution of the late 18th and 19th centuries as well as the opening of the Suez Canal in 1869 greatly facilitated and encouraged mobility. These developments made it possible for many people to travel and distant destinations to be reached as transport costs dropped significantly due to the effects of competition among the

¹ This was the experience of many tourist destinations in the 1970s leading Butler to come up with the widely quoted model (Mathieson and Wall 1982, Pearce 1989, Cooper and Jackson, 1989, Akama 1998) which summarises the lifecycle of tourism development in a destination area by making use of the number and types of tourists visiting the area, the nature and level of infrastructural development and community participation as the key factors in establishing the position of the area under study in his the life cycle. (Butler, 1980)

various railway companies. They also significantly contributed to trans-Atlantic and long-distance travel between Europe, Africa, America and Asia during this period (Holloway and Taylor, 2006; Holden, 2005; Löfgren, 2002; Khurmi and Gupta, 2000; Freeman and Aldcroft, 1988). In Africa, colonisation in the second half of the 19th Century heralded the construction of railway lines from the coastal regions into the interior. The construction of railway lines into the interior of Germany's African colonies of Cameroon, Togo and Tanzania was seen by the German administration at the time as the only means of rapidly developing these territories (The Royal African Society, 1914). Though initially used primarily for the transport of raw materials, railways in the colonies were increasingly used for passenger transport and long distance travel during this period and after independence. Tourism growth in Europe and America was made even faster by the introduction and popularity of the motorcar after the First World War from 1914–1919. The introduction of motorised coaches saw the opening up of new markets and destinations in Europe as well as in North, Central and East Africa where specially fitted coaches were used on safaris and adventure holidays which were increasingly becoming popular among the wealthy classes (Holloway and Taylor, 2006; Löfgren, 2002).

Air transport was introduced in the 1920s but popularised, made affordable and secure in the 1950s. It was to ultimately revolutionise the travel and tourism industry and would come to serve as the main means of long distance passenger transport and a major backbone in the internationalisation (globalisation) of the travel and tourism industry which up till then even though becoming increasingly popular had been principally domestic and regional in nature.

2.1.1 Decreasing cost of air travel

During the Second World War, major progress was made in aircraft technologies and production (Heppenheimer, 1998; Solberg, 1979). When the war ended in 1945, there was thus a surplus of aircrafts and airports all over Europe. Most of these extra aircrafts and airports were transformed into commercial civilian use thus heralding the birth of commercial aviation. This in addition to the following was to significantly impact on the growth of the travel and tourism industry:

- Introduction of the commercial aviation with the likes of Harold Gatty (Eagle Airways) and Freddie Laker creating the first private sector airlines (Holloway and Taylor, 2006; Beech and Chadwick, 2006).
- Increase in popularity, rapidity and safety of air transport so much so that by 1957, air transport had become the favoured mode of long distance travel across the Atlantic especially after the launching of the first commercial wide-

bodied Boeing 707 jet in 1955 and Airbus planes in 1970. This stimulated competition in the industry and led to the introduction of newer, faster, larger, more reliable and comfortable versions of these aircrafts for short, medium and long-distance travel² (Heppenheimer, 1998; Solberg, 1979). By 1969, flight times between destinations were slashed by more than 50% and international arrivals tremendously increased³.

- Also the entry into the market of smaller aircrafts manufacturers like Fokker, Short, Saab, BAe Systems, Fairchild Dornier, Bombardier and Embraer have all contributed in revolutionising the travel industry. Planes manufactured by these companies are mainly used for commuter and regional services (Hoeveler, 2001; Hecker and Martin, 2001).
- Deregulation of the airline industry in the United States and Europe in the 1970s and 1980s as well as in Asia and Africa in the 1980s and 1990s respectively opened the way for the creation of many small regional low-cost, no frills airlines (Holloway and Taylor, 2006; Boniface and Cooper, 2005; Dale and Oliver, 2005). In 2009 for example, there were eight native (home-based) low-cost carriers operating out of African countries⁴ while another twenty low fare carriers operated from western European and Arabian airports to cities across North and East Africa (attitude Travel, 2010).

2.1.2 Charters/package tours, prosperity and the emergence of new destinations

Due to continuous innovations in transport and communication after 1950, air travel became secure, relatively cheaper and affordable to a large portion of citizens living in the industrialised world. As a result persons who could afford it started spending their holidays visiting and exploring new towns and cities in Europe while the very wealthy and adventurous went on safari trips to Eastern and Southern Africa or spent their holidays on the American continent. Vladimir Raitz introduced the first all-

² The latest introductions in the market were the Airbus A380 with a carrying capacity of 550 passengers which went into service in October 2007 (after repeated delays), and the energy saving 200-300 seat Boeing 787 Dreamliner which was supposed to go into service in the third quarter of 2009 after repeated delays, but was still being flight-tested at the time of this research (Boeing.mediaroom.com, 2010).

³ Between 1960 and 1970 for example international arrivals grew by from 69.3 million arrivals to 165.8 million representing a 238% increase during this period while tourism receipts by 259% from \$6.9bn in 1960 to \$17.9bn in 1970 (WTO, 2006a).

⁴ South Africa alone now has four low fare airlines which serve Namibia and Zimbabwe as well as South Africa; Virgin Nigeria operates out of Nigeria servicing the West and Central African regions, Atlas Blue and Jet 4 you both operate out of Morocco and fly 540 was launched in Kenya in 2007.

inclusive holiday to Corsica using air transport in the summer of 1950 under the banner of Holidays Horizon. This innovative idea was ultimately to revolutionise the all inclusive packaged tours business (Holloway and Taylor, 2006; Shaw and Williams, 2002). Raitz's innovative idea became so successful that in the years preceding 1950, other companies in the United Kingdom and Europe copied it and started their own package holiday companies, with Club Méditerranée and Tjaereborg Travel in France and Denmark respectively emerging as some of the most popular in the business during the 1960s. Club Méditerranée constructed winter sun holiday resorts in Senegal, the Gambia, Tunisia and Morocco for example (Holloway and Taylor, 2006; Shaw and Williams, 2002). The introduction of a variety of affordable chartered flights and package tours by various companies throughout the 1960s and 1970s heralded and encouraged the rapid expansion, construction, development and growth of tourism and hotel infrastructures not only in Europe but also in Africa (Williams, 2001; Elliott, 1997). The introduction of packaged tours in the 1950s thus helped in creating a new integrated and networked system in an industry which had hitherto been completely fragmented and where each sector (hotels, transport operators and travel agents) had worked independently of each other. This new integrated approach saw the introduction of new services (like the provision of secretarial and conference services in hotels, car hire services and medical services in tourist destinations) apart from the traditional services which had previously been offered. The approach improved the quality of holidays because it liberated tourists from the worries, stress and confusion which always accompanied holiday planning and execution (Lickorish and Jenkins, 1997).

From the 1970s onwards, the search for the sun and the apparent signs of decline of tourism infrastructure in some Mediterranean regions together with a further drop in transport costs making charter flights and packaged tours even cheaper all combined to make distant 'exotic' destinations increasingly popular. It was now possible for tour operators to offer flights and package tours to these destinations at affordable costs. As a result long distance travel became more popular and many newer destinations emerged in the temperate and tropical regions of the southern hemisphere such as the Canary Islands and even much further away like Mauritius, Seychelles, the Maldives in the Indian Ocean as well as destinations in Africa like Egypt, Morocco, Tunisia, the Gambia, Senegal, Kenya, Tanzania and South Africa, in addition to destinations in the Caribbean and South East Asia (Hall and Page, 2000). Furthermore, the growth of long-distance destinations to the tropics and the emergence of a winter sun market for tour operators was spurred on by the low-cost opportunities and incentives (cheap labour and lower taxes) offered by the countries

in these new destinations which for the most part were less developed and wanted to develop their tourism industries but lacked the necessary capital needed and as such attracted foreign investors with these incentives. These opportunities were seized by the emerging hotel and tourism companies like Club Méditerranée (who opened up a resort chain in Senegal) and packaged tour operators like TUI and Thomson who grasped the opportunities and increased the number of all-inclusive tours to the Mediterranean and North African regions. In addition to the climate being the principal characteristic of these tours, other characteristics such as culture and heritage tours of the destinations were eventually added making them more interesting and attractive (like in Egypt, Tunisia, Morocco and Zanzibar for example). Low investment and management costs meant the tour and hotel operators could offer their products at cheaper rates thereby attracting larger segments of the population (Holloway and Taylor, 2006).

Finally, the introduction of further measures aimed at liberalising the air transport market, the reduction and final abolition of foreign currency exchange laws as well as changes in the labour market in the 1970s and 1980s in Europe and the United States (and later to a lesser extent in some Asian, African, Caribbean and Latin American countries in the late 1990s and 2000) saw the rapid expansion and growth of the tourism industry in these regions of the globe (ELFAA, 2004; WTO, 2003a). The economy in many of these countries (especially those in the western hemisphere) witnessed almost constant and stable growth during this period. This was reflected in the wages and salaries of the workers which were increased (annually in most cases) and various new allowances were introduced including paid holidays. In addition, the number of hours of work per week was reduced enabling the workers to have more leisure time (Lickorish and Jenkins, 1997). As a result, many workers living in countries of the relatively wealthy northern hemisphere (Europe and the United States of America) could now afford to take longer paid holidays abroad and some could even do so twice a year. In winter for example, they could go on holidays to countries with tropical or mild climates (most of which were located in the less developed regions) for a few days or even weeks (Holloway and Taylor, 2006).

2.1.3 Developments in information and communication technologies (ICT)

Many countries have recognized the potential of the Internet and World Wide Web (WWW) as an indispensable tool for tourism marketing and eCommerce. Countries (Botswana, Kenya, Tanzania, Namibia, Senegal, the Gambia) have developed a

strong Internet presence (at both the public and private levels) to promote their tourism products and increase their share of the competitive international tourism market. This research also examines the level of ICT development in Cameroon with special emphasis of its use and contribution to Cameroon's tourism education, promotion and marketing.

Improvements and developments in the internet especially after the introduction of the Web in 1993 which guarantee the security, rapidity and volume of data capable of being stored and transferred as well as the speed of sending and receiving communication have all combined in making the internet the favoured tool of most business and personal transactions nowadays. It can now be used for leisure, educational and commercial purposes (Buhalis, 2008; Poon and Jevon, 1997; Maler 1997). The tourism and hospitality industry has not been left out of this revolution and it has embraced all aspects of e-commerce ranging from adopting online advertisements, sales and marketing tools through online reservations and booking systems as well as adopting and using search engine optimisation tools specially designed for the travel industry. Considering the fact that tourism is one of those products which cannot be sampled at the selling point before making a purchasing decision, it relies heavily on information. Most tourists nowadays initially get information about a particular destination they are interested in from the internet where primary knowledge and multimedia images can be retrieved (WTO Business Council, 1999). The interactivity, flexibility and multimedia capability of the internet and its ability to reach wide audiences has made it to be one of the most cost effective resources that can be used by tourism operators and companies for promoting and distributing tourism services (Walle, 1999) as well as for destination marketing (information, advertisements, sales, reservations and bookings, payment transactions, etc) (Buhalis, 2008; Gretzel *et al.*, 2000; WTO Business Council 1999; Hannar and Millar, 1997).

Sophisticated internet technology has ensured that the interactivity of the contents of modern day internet sites makes it possible for governments, tourism organisations and operators to portray destinations in a more interesting and appealing way and in so doing drawing the attention and interest of the potential consumers to the products being displayed as well as encouraging them to participate (Doolin *et al.*, 2002). Tourism destination web sites, however, vary in terms of content, structural quality and interactivity, aspects which are usually used to measure the degree of maturity not only of the sites but also of the organisations and operators. These factors are particularly important because they directly influence the perceived image of the destination and help the consumers in creating a virtual experience in a

destination (Buhalis; 2008; Doolin *et al.*, 2002; Gretzel *et al.*, 2000; Cano and Prentice, 1998).

Recent advances in information and telecommunication technologies have thus facilitated rapid communication and interaction not only between the potential visitors and tourism operators, but it has also enabled the creation of networks between tour operators, airlines and hotels at the host destinations leading to better planning and coordination. Tourists are now benefiting from improved quality services as a result. These developments have also helped tourism operators at the local and regional levels to create networks and partnerships among themselves thus helping to market their image better and promote better coordination and management of resources at the destination level and consequently offering better services to tourists while maintaining their sustainability (Lazzeretti and Petrillo, 2006; Middleton *et al.*, 2009). The ICT innovations have also made potential tourists less stressed when travelling because, even when away on holiday, it is still possible to keep abreast with developments taking place at home through the use of internet (email) communication and mobile phones (even in some of the most remote destinations of the globe) (Bojnec and Kribel, 2005).

Even though the World Wide Web in the developed world has become more of a necessity and is almost indispensable, in many less developed regions, internet access is still a major problem and good internet services can only be found in the major towns and cities. As a result tourism organisations and operators in many developing regions are catching on only very slowly to the benefits and advantages of the ICT as an effective and low-cost marketing and communication tool which can be exploited for the benefit of the local tourism industries. According to the model of Internet Commerce Adoption (eMICA) (Burgess and Cooper, 2000) frequently used to determine the level of ICT development in the tourism industry, in organisations which have an internet presence, the services provided on their sites are still at the very elementary level of ICT development (where only basic information of the companies are displayed) or at the level where online enquiry forms, product catalogues, hyperlinks for further information, customer support services are available online (for those countries in which the tourism industry plays a pivotal role in the economy).⁵ However, even having only a minimal internet presence is still

⁵ On the internet sites of firms still at the stage 1 level the basic information of the companies are displayed. These include the company name, physical address and (email) contact details, area of business, location, information on company activities, annual reports. Here the goal is mainly to promote the company.

At stage 2, online enquiry forms, product catalogues, hyperlinks for further information, customer support services (e.g. FAQ, sitemaps), industry specific value added features, discussion forums and chat rooms, news letters or mail

advantageous because it creates an awareness of their existence and also offers opportunities for smaller operators in less developed countries to forge contacts and create links with the major operators in the industrialised countries (Poon and Jevons, 1997).

In the developed world, however the situation is different. Most tourism organisations and operators are already past the level of stage 2 and are at stage 3 or in the process of implementing it. Major international, regional and national tourism organisations as well as operators already offer a variety of services on their web pages which cover all the three eMICA stages ranging from special tools being created specifically for online sales and marketing, providing information in multiple languages and guaranteeing flexibility of services on offer, secure online booking and payments systems as well as search engine optimisation of travel and tourism businesses (Middleton *et al.*, 2009; Uysal and Fesenmaier, 1993).

The speed and rapidity of recent developments in ICT have significantly revolutionised some key operations of the industry. Increased online marketing and advertisements coupled with increases in quality and volume of information on destinations available on tourism sites on the World Wide Web, the ease of booking and carrying out other transactions as well as the increasingly interactive nature of the World Wide Web and other telecommunication technologies have all helped in making ICT an effective tool in tourism destination marketing and contributed to the rapid expansion and growth of the tourism industry in the last two decades not only in Europe but in other African countries which have a solid internet presence like Botswana, Kenya, Tanzania, South Africa, the Gambia and Senegal.

Using this eMICA model in this research will thus help in understanding the level of ICT development and use of Cameroon's tourism industry and enable the formulation of recommendations which if applied might help in improving the quality and quantity of ICT usage, thereby making the industry competitive with other destinations in terms of destination management/marketing.

updates and multi-media features are added and the websites becomes more interactive. Various services to respond to customer demands and queries are thus provided (Doolin *et al.*, 2002).

Stage 3 is the last stage dealing with processing. It involves the web site being able to process interactions between the operators and customers. These range from carrying out secure online transactions, being able to place orders and track them and interacting with corporate servers.

2.1.4 Increased curiosity, awareness and education of the modern day tourist

At the end of World War II in 1945, returning veterans had plenty of stories to recount about their experiences of the people and places in which they had fought. The war had made these ex-combatants develop new friendships and relationships as well as interest in different cultures while in the far flung battlefields. The stories and tales (many of which were published in books and newspapers) about distant peoples, regions, countries and continents as recounted by these soldiers played a significant role in the development of tourism beyond national boundaries (Holloway and Taylor, 2006). These stories awakened the curiosity of many Europeans (especially the British, French and Germans) to read and learn more about these sometimes distant and 'exotic' peoples, places, and cultures which were scattered on all corners of the globe. Also, many soldiers who had fought in Europe, Asia and Africa had the desire to return to areas where they had been stationed and show their families these new peoples and places as well as take a final farewell to fallen comrades. For those who had not been directly connected to the war, the stories, articles and books on the war increased their desire to see for themselves not only the sites where major battles of World War Two had been fought (e.g. the beaches of Normandy and the site at St Nazaire in France) but it also reignited their interest to visit sites where some of the major battles of World War One (1914-1919) had been fought like at Verdun, Marne and Somme in France and Ypres in Belgium. In like manner, many American and Japanese citizens were also curious and increasingly attracted to the major Pacific battlefields such as Iwo Jima and Guadalcanal. Visits to historic military sites behind the 'Iron Curtain' were, however, not possible (until after the fall of Communism in 1989) because of prohibition from the communist regimes in place at the time and because of the horrific nature of the battles fought on the eastern front, the dramatic effects of which were still on the minds of the population (Bulloch, 2006).

Even though political barriers and the lack of financial means coupled with strict foreign currency restrictions across national borders hindered movements in the immediate aftermath of the war, successful economic regeneration and the increase in income and wealth of the citizens but most importantly the decreasing cost of air travel and the liberalisation of currency laws by many Western European countries and the US in the 1960s and 1970s finally gave people the opportunity to satisfy their curiosities and begin exploring these destinations. This interest has continued up till the present with millions of people attracted every year not only to sites and regions

where important military battles took place but to new 'exotic' destinations in Africa, Asia and the Americas which had hitherto been beyond reach. As a result the impacts of tourism growth are nowadays clearly visible in both the tourist generating and destination regions.

2.2 Impacts of tourism

The environment as has been mentioned earlier is a main component of the tourist product. How it is managed and developed is very important not only in determining its immediate success or failure but in assuring its long term sustainability or unsustainability. Thus depending on the perspective from which it is viewed, tourism and the environment have always had a symbiotic and/or antagonistic relationship. Tourism development has both positive and negative impacts (physical and human) on the environment. However, discussions most often than not always focus on the negative impacts because in most cases, they are very glaring and overshadow the positive impacts of tourism in a region.

2.2.1 Positive impacts of tourism on the environment

Savignac (1992, p.2), summarises the positive impact of tourism to the environment thus:

- Travel promotes environmental awareness;
- Well managed tourism is a good friend of the environment;
- A successful tourism industry needs a high quality environment.

Tourism is very often highly dependent on the quality of the environment in which the operations take place and the environment is one of the single most important contributors of the desirability and attractiveness of a destination. Consequently those involved in the industry (all stakeholders, both national and international; i.e. multinational hotel owners, national tourist organisations, local inhabitants) most often understand the importance of preserving this asset for their operations. As such, environmental protection measures (if only on paper) are often put in place aimed at ensuring that harmful or destructive construction/ development does not take place within the vicinity of tourist destinations (WTO, 1983). Thus one of the most important advantages of tourism activities is that in most cases, it raises the level of environmental awareness which leads to the protection of resources and guarantees the continuity and attractability of that environment.

The increase in 'green' campaigns in all sectors in the last two decades has increased the degree of environmental consciousness exercised by many tourists

nowadays. A new breed of tourists seeking to spend vacations in 'unspoilt' environments has developed. The mass tourism market is even taking steps to improve their previously sullied anti-environmental image. As a result, a good proportion of environmentally conscious tourists are no longer prepared to spend their holidays in over crowded, concrete jungles in some destinations of the Mediterranean coastline such as the Costa del Sol and parts of the Island of Mallorca, and Ibiza (Spain) (Earth Report, 2010). There is thus an increasing demand for relatively well protected and unspoilt destinations in Africa such as Botswana, Namibia, Tanzania, The Seychelles and Mauritius Islands among others which are already popular and potential hot spots like Cameroon which are still relatively virgin and unknown. The environmental destruction of many coastlines and tourism destinations has led to the increasing adoption and application of measures (by organisations like the World Tourism Organisation and other tourism industry stakeholders (especially national governments) aimed at regulating tourism and other related activities, thereby protecting the environment where tourism activities take place (Holloway and Taylor, 2006; Inskeep, 1991).

Tourism activity also helps in partly financing the refurbishment, conservation, protection, renovation, regeneration and sometimes transformation of historical areas, buildings, monuments, and heritage sites (some of which are then transformed into other functional uses like catering establishments, guest houses, souvenir shops) through the money (entrance fees, purchase of souvenirs) made from tourists when they visit these places (Holloway and Taylor, 2006; UNEP, 2002; Inskeep, 1991; Mathieson and Wall, 1982). Cameroon is home to a large number of colonial monuments ranging from churches (in Bali and Kribi), castles (in Buea and Douala), forts (in Bamenda and Yoko) and normal houses (in Buea, Mamfe, Limbe) to lighthouses (in Kribi and Limbe), fountains (in Buea), cemeteries (in Buea, Limbe, Yaounde) and bridges (in Edea, Mamfe, Wum) dating from the period of German colonisation (1884-1919). Some of these buildings/structures have been refurbished and are presently being used for various religious, administrative and residential purposes while others are in various stages of disrepair and ruin, a good number of which stand the chance of being completely destroyed if they are not restored on time (Mbunwe-Samba, 2001; Lauber, 1988).

More often than not, the negative effects of tourism (on the environment) in some destinations like in Kenya, Botswana and the Caribbean islands have always received more attention than the positive impacts (Mbaiwa, 2005a; *ibid*, 2005b; *ibid*, 2003a; Akama, 1999; *ibid*, 1998). This is perhaps justifiable because these negative impacts of tourism are widespread and are much more felt and experienced

especially at the destination level (in developing countries) not only by those directly involved in the industry but also by persons who have nothing to do with it. The fact that tourism activity in most cases often peaks only during particular periods of the year makes it impossible in most cases for tourist demands to be conveniently satisfied by the limited natural resources of the destination leading to the generation of problems associated with structures and the environment of the tourist destination (UNEP, 2002; Coccossis and Nijkamp, 1995). For the purpose of this research, the negative impacts of tourism (which could either be short term or long term) will be analysed from the environmental, socio-cultural and economic perspectives.

2.2.2 Negative environmental impacts

Due to the fact that many governments before now had always placed tourism development and profits generation before environmental concerns, the focus in many countries had been on how to look for ways to maintain and keep the tourist economies running to the detriment of their ecosystems. Uncontrolled tourism development is thus seen as posing a serious threat as well as being responsible for the destruction and exhaustion of the environment and its scarce resources to the detriment of the local communities and future generations as well as potential tourists. Tourism's impacts on the environment are multifaceted and diversified. They can be classified into three main streams thus: pollution in its various forms, depletion of natural resources, and the physical impact of tourism on the landscape.

2.2.2.1 Pollution

Pollution has and is still one of the most widely observed and discussed negative/harmful impacts of tourism to the environment. Pollution can either be:

- air pollution (which most often results from the production and use of energy and traffic from all sorts of motorised vehicles, aircrafts, dust, acid rain, etc) (Kuylenstierna *et al.*, 2002);
- water pollution (which is often the result of the indiscriminate discharge of untreated waste into rivers, lakes and seas due to the lack of or malfunctioning of sewage treatment plants in the tourist regions and disposal of solid waste into the sea by cruise ships) (UNEP, 2002; Inskip, 1991; Mathieson and Wall, 1982; WTO, 1983; Tourism Concern, 2008);
- noise pollution (caused by noise generated from transport vehicles as well as recreational vehicles, tourists and entertainment facilities (Holden, 2000; Mieczkowski, 1995);

- visual and aesthetic pollution and degradation (which is the result of poor planning, designing and layout of hotels and other tourist infrastructures, improper landscaping, use of poor quality material on external surfaces, defacement and pilfering of historical and important natural sites) (Archer *et al.*, 2004; Holden, 2000; Mieczkowski, 1995);
- site pollution caused by solid waste, littering, and sewage disposal is the result of rampant and uncontrolled littering and disposal of waste due to the absence or inadequacy of proper waste disposal facilities as is the case in many parks and nature reserves which are remote and receive very high number of tourists (UNEP, 2002; Nepal, 2002).

The research will examine the existence and potential impact of the various types of pollution on sustainable tourism development in Cameroon in existing sites like on Mount Cameroon and in the Korup National Park for example and along the coastal resorts of Limbe and Kribi.

2.2.2.2 Depletion of natural resources

These can be water/marine resources, local resources and land degradation, conflicts with methods of land use. Tourism development is most often accompanied by the intensified utilisation of resources both within and without the immediate vicinity of the area in question by the tourism facilities and the local communities. Water, for example, is one natural resource that is overused in the tourism industry. It is used, for example, by tourists, hotels, golf courses and swimming pools. During the holiday season, over usage can lead to water shortages and degeneration in the water supply especially in drier regions like around the Mediterranean Sea (France, Spain, Portugal, Italy, Greece, Turkey, Tunisia) for example which harbour some of the world's most popular holiday destinations as well as in arid regions of the Middle East and North Africa which are also popular tourist destinations (De Stefano, 2004). With the allocation of land and other concessions to tourism companies, the quantity of land/marine resources available for the local communities is diminished. This is due to the fact that tourist infrastructure will not only be constructed on previously open areas which could have been land used for agricultural and pastoral activities (especially in developing countries) but tourism development also leads to sand mining and quarrying for construction (which is likely cause beach and sand dune erosion as well as soil erosion if done in excess) for example resulting in competition between developers and local inhabitants over the use of these resources. Road and airport construction necessitates sand mining and quarrying which not only causes pollution but is responsible for land degradation, loss of wildlife habitats and

deterioration of scenery as well as a rapid depletion of these natural resources. Paradoxically, however, while the utilisation of resources (natural sites like beaches and forests) allocated to the tourism companies are in most cases well managed and conserved because public access is often not permitted, the host community's utilisation of the resources not delineated for tourism activities is intensified because their areas of operation are reduced. This leads to the rapid depletion of resources within these host community areas (UNEP, 2002; Holden, 2000; Mieczkowski, 1995). Tourism development usually accompanies population movements. If the workers needed to staff the new infrastructures cannot be recruited locally, they will have to be brought in from elsewhere. These workers will not only need land for housing but will also need water, building materials, fuel (wood) among others, thereby increasing pressure on the existing resources because they will have to compete with local residents for the existing natural resources thereby intensifying their usage and rapid depletion. In addition the seasonal character of the tourism industry implies that many destinations often have as much as ten times more inhabitants in the high season placing extreme pressure on the available resources. This accentuates the rapid depletion of the available resources, the depletion of which could act as a springboard for conflicts (Archer *et al.*, 2004; Sulaimann, 1996).

2.2.2.3. Physical impacts

Negative physical impacts of tourism could be in the form of:

- Land degradation and floral/faunal deterioration which often results from trampling by tourists in vegetation, deforestation and poor land use through clearing of forests, sand extraction from the seas, destruction of coral reefs for the construction of new tourism facilities and exaggerated marina activities and development (like in the United Arab Emirates and the coastal resorts of Tanzania, Kenya, Senegal and the Gambia). The fragile nature of most of these ecosystems (which includes rainforests, mangroves, coral reefs, wetlands and alpine regions) entails that they succumb very easily to the slightest perturbations. Unfortunately however, regions with these eco systems are very popular and attractive among tourists and developers, and as a result their ecosystems are under ever increasing pressure (UNEP, 2002; Coccossis and Nijkamp, 1995).⁶

⁶ According to UNEP (2002), in industrial countries, mass tourism and recreation are now fast overtaking the extractive industries as the largest threat to mountain communities and environments. Since 1945, visits to the 10 most popular mountainous national parks in the United States have increased twelve-fold. In the European Alps, tourism now exceeds 100 million visitor-days. Every year in the Indian Himalaya, more than 250,000 Hindu pilgrims,

- Unsustainable and intensified land use caused by increased tourism development. Land used for other (agricultural and pastoral as well as natural landscapes) activities is allocated to construction activities leading to the destruction and disappearance of some flora, fauna and marine life on the land where the developments take place. This is often the case in many tropical regions, and coastal wetlands where forests are cleared and wetlands drained for construction and other marina development activities respectively. These activities seriously disturb the existing ecosystem in the short term and provoke their destruction in the long term (Archer *et al.*, 2004; UNEP, 2002; Jenner and Smith, 1992). Some areas of the African continent where the environmental impacts of tourism have been deeply felt are along Africa's Mediterranean coasts, Egypt, Kenya, Mozambique, Tanzania, Senegal, Gambia, Seychelles, South Africa and Zanzibar among others (Tourism Concern, 2008; Jones, 2003).

2.2.3 Socio-cultural impacts of tourism development

Society from time immemorial has always been in a state of change. These changes have resulted from the coming into contact of various peoples and groups for various reasons. In the past centuries, these contacts were created as a result of trade and wars between nations but in the recent past especially as from the beginning of the 20th Century, globalisation and tourism have been some of the key factors causing population movements. These movements impact on the daily social and cultural lives of the host communities and are responsible for creating the various socio-cultural changes in communities, regions and countries.

According to Mathieson and Wall (1982), three main cultural types are susceptible to change and can attract tourists to a particular destination. These are inanimate forms of culture (traditional arts and crafts, historical buildings and monuments), animated cultural forms (carnivals, traditional festivals and ceremonies, and religious events), and scenes of the normal day to day life of the host communities.

In relation to tourism, these changes are very obvious in many regions due to the rapid pace with which tourism development has taken place in these destinations and the significant differences between the host communities and the guests. Many of these changes especially with regards to the host communities (in developing

25,000 trekkers, and 75 mountaineering expeditions climb to the sacred source of the Ganges River, the Gangotri Glacier. They deplete local forests for firewood, trample riparian vegetation, and strew litter. Even worse, this tourism frequently induces poorly planned, land-intensive development.

regions) have largely been viewed as being negative even in areas where economic development has been (and could be) brought about only through tourism development. Through direct and indirect employment in the tourism industry (service staff in hotels, shops, nutrition, arts and crafts, agriculture), members of the local communities perform formal and informal jobs and thus profit from the establishment of the industry in the region. This has clearly been observed in developing countries like in Botswana (Mbaiwa, 2004), Kenya (Sharpley and Telfer, 2002) and in The Gambia (Brown, 1992). The focus however is often on the negative impacts of tourism development which include congestion, conflicts, erosion of traditional values and norms, prostitution and increased crime rates.

2.2.3.1 Congestion

Congestion of people and other motorised vehicles in popular destinations caused by the seasonal nature of the industry thereby overloading the tourist infrastructures and amenities and increasing the carbon emissions in these destinations resulting in serious noise and air pollution which is environmentally destructive, alters the behavioural pattern of wildlife and also seriously diminishes the quality of the holiday experience (UNEP 2002; Mowforth and Munt, 1998).

2.2.3.2 Conflicts

Conflicts and confrontations between host communities and visitors many of whom have little knowledge about the customs and traditions of the places they are visiting. This could give rise to social tensions and in some cases open culture clashes in places where there are very high tourist densities. Conflicts could also arise as a result of the inequality gaps between the tourists and host communities working in the tourist industry. Culture clashes have been observed in Egypt Senegal, Tanzania, Kenya, Namibia, South Africa, Zanzibar, etc (Tourism Concern, 2008).

2.2.3.3 Erosion of traditional values and norms

This is the direct consequence of the employment of a high proportion of women in the tourism industry. Full time employment in this industry means some women have long working hours and work even on weekends, they are thus away most of the day. Some women even earn more than their partners and husbands, thus reducing their dependence on men and being 'independent'. This often causes friction and tensions in the households and is also responsible for the disruption communal lifestyles (Duffy and Smith, 2003; McCarthy, 1994).

2.2.3.4 Prostitution, human trafficking and crime

Though many developing countries consider prostitution to be illegal, many government officials actually take a very passive stance on the issue of prostitution and in some of these countries, it is actually considered to be a very important source of foreign exchange. In the Philippines for example, sex tourism is considered to be the third largest source of foreign exchange (Hashimoto, 2002). This is the same situation in Thailand where even though prostitution is illegal, the development of prostitution is part and parcel of Thailand's tourist industry and it is actively but indirectly encouraged by the government which considers it to be a very important foreign exchange earner (Becker, 1994). The growth of male prostitution (beach boys) in many of the Caribbean Islands (Dominican Republic, Jamaica) according to Momsen (1994) is a direct response to tourist demand (from European women). The sex tourism industry in less developed regions has been fuelled by the ever increasing demand for prostitutes by tourists and business men from the rich western and other industrialised countries. This has led to the increase in crime rates (especially petty thefts being perpetrated on tourists) human trafficking across many national and international borders (with the flow moving from very poor regions and countryside to the tourism centres) resulting in the rapid spread of sexually transmissible diseases (HIV/AIDS in particular), child prostitution and an increase in hard drug use in the destinations where the sex tourism industry flourishes (Clift and Carter, 2000; Hall, 1997; Seabrook, 1996; Davidson and Taylor, 1995).

Socio-cultural interactions between hosts and guests can thus have both positive as well as negative effects on the host communities. Proper sustainable tourism development management should ensure that from the very onset of tourism planning and development, stringent measures should be taken which will eventually guarantee that the cultures of the host and guests are not trampled upon when the two cultures come into contact. This can be done through education and sensitisation of all stakeholders on key aspects of societal and cultural norms, behaviour and practices of the various societies, creation of visitor information centres and publication of information about the regions to be distributed at the sales points in the countries of departure which could help in reducing culture clashes, conflicts and misunderstandings (Coccosis and Nijkamp, 1995; OECD, 1980).

The above mentioned socio-cultural impacts are ethical in nature because they raise issues relating to behavioural patterns and interactions. These concerns deal with the impacts and consequences that tourism development has on the communities i.e. among the members of the community themselves, between the host communities

and tourism operators, and between the host communities and the visiting tourists (Hudson and Miller, 2005).

2.2.4 Economic impacts of tourism development

According to the WTTC, after four years of growth averaging 3.6% p.a., travel and tourism economy GDP growth slowed to just 1.0% in 2008, its weakest performance since the beginning of the recession. The contribution of the travel and tourism industry to world GDP was expected to rise from 9.4% (US\$5,474 bn) in 2009 to 9.5% (US\$10,478 bn) by 2019. At the same time, total employment within the travel and tourism economy was expected to rise from 219,810,000 jobs in 2009, 7.6% of total employment, or 1 in every 13.1 jobs to 275,688,000 jobs, 8.4% of total employment or in 1 in every 11.8 jobs by 2019 (WTTC, 2010). However, the proceeds from this growth is in most cases unevenly distributed with the developed regions profiting more to the detriment of the less developed regions even though they have some of the leading tourist destinations and are actually witnessing phenomenal growth (double that of the developed regions) but poor capital returns because they do not own the facilities located in their regions. It has been observed in many tourism ventures that the host communities actually benefit very little in capital terms. This is as a result of the many hidden costs which are involved in the operations. These costs are detrimental to the host communities because in most cases, they are merely passive stakeholders and have a very little say in the management operations and decision making processes of the industry making the distribution of profits very unbalanced between the various stakeholders and very profitable for the foreign owners who pass on these hidden costs to the host communities. This can be very detrimental to the less developed regions and countries which have tourism as the backbone of the economy and heavily rely on it for income, employment and general rise of the standard of living (Mbaiwa, 2005a; Mbaiwa, 2005b; Shackley, 1994). Unfair competition, leakages from tourism revenue, the development of enclave tourism in some tourist destinations as well as the non-inclusion of local businesses and products in the product pallet of the tourism operators are some of the major reasons for this economic imbalance between the various stakeholders.

2.2.4.1 Competition

Tourism development usually uses up a lot of space and requires a lot of manpower to service the operations. Thus, in some situations, land destined for agricultural and pastoral usage is diverted to the tourist industry with the resultant effect that less land

is then available to the local inhabitants for the traditional activities (like food cultivation and cattle rearing for example) which then stand the risk of dying out. Also the local labour used in executing these activities becomes reduced as they are then recruited by the tourism industry or begin carrying out mainly tourism related activities. The consequence is less output and price increases in some tourist areas and destinations because of scarcity and the influx of more visitors with a higher purchasing power (Inskeep, 1991; OECD, 1980).

Competition also happens when migrant workers from other regions descend on the tourist region in search of better living standards, thereby increasing the level of competition for jobs and other services, thus placing extra pressure on the resources of the community (Todaro, 2000; Sharpley, 1994; Krippendorf, 1994; Parnwell, 1993)⁷.

2.2.4.2 Leakages

The development and increasing popularity of all inclusive package holidays during the last five decades by foreign owned companies or transnational tourism corporations (TTCs), has led to a drastic decline in the revenue that goes to the host communities. Almost 80% of the tourists' expenditure as well as the proceeds gained by the owners of the businesses remain or is exported back (export leakage) to the home country (Holloway and Taylor, 2006). However, the degree of foreign leakage depends on the tourism sector. In the Kenyan tourism industry for example, the degree of leakage is lesser in the safari tourism sector (34-45%) because it employs tour guides and rangers as well as independent locally run tour operators when compared to the all-inclusive beach tourism sector which has a leakage rate of 62-78% (Madeley, 1996).

The percentage of leakage at the destination level further increases if local businesses are marginalised or completely cut out of the operations and tour companies decide to import all basic necessities (import leakage⁸). This is often the case in less developed regions where hotels practice what is commonly referred to as enclave tourism. According to the World Tourism Organisation, in 2005, it was estimated that leakages accounted for about 10% of tourism income in developed

⁷ Other research however shows that the influx of migrant workers actually does not increase the level of job competition. Most often they take up employment in sectors which the local inhabitants do not want to work in (Monk and Alexander, 1986; Connell, 1987; Lever, 1987). This is the case for example with the tourism and construction industry in the United Arab Emirates where almost all low-skilled jobs in these sectors are occupied by foreigners.

⁸ According to UNCTAD at the dawn of the 21st Century, (1999/2000) the average import-related leakage for most developing countries was between 40% and 50% of gross tourism earnings for small economies and between 10% and 20% for most advanced and diversified economies (UNCTAD, 2000).

countries, while in developing regions with a high dependence on tourism such as Mauritius, Seychelles, Kenya, leakages varied between 20% to over 50% of gross tourism receipts (Holloway and Taylor, 2006).

2.2.4.3 Employment and exploitation

Tourism is responsible for the generation of employment both in the tourism generating countries as well as in the destination countries. In the tourism generating countries, employment is created for tour operators, travel agents, and through the revitalisation of regional airports and surrounding regions (Sharpley, 2002). However, on the side of the host communities, the type and quality of formal and informal employment generated is most often questionable as most of the workers are employed mainly in seasonal low-paid unskilled jobs in the formal sector as well as hawking and petty trade in the informal tourism sector. The senior and better paid jobs are most often occupied by expatriates or non-natives (Gladstone, 2005).

Thus, in many tourism destinations especially in less developed regions, the host communities end up receiving only a very minimal fraction of the proceeds from tourism. This often creates economic problems (e.g. job insecurity and loss of income, no fixed working contracts and thus no guarantee of employment from one season to the next, difficulties in getting training, the absence of employment-related medical benefits and unsatisfactory housing and working conditions) for destinations that are heavily dependent on tourism (Holloway and Taylor, 2006; Gladstone, 2005; UNEP, 2002). In addition, women employed in the tourism industry where they make up to 70% of the labour force (half of whom are below the age of 25 years) suffer from severe exploitation. They are underpaid, undervalued, have no say in the decision making and tourism planning processes, discriminated upon and earn less than men even when they have higher qualifications than their male colleagues (Cukier, 2002). Exploitation (of women) in the tourism industry has been observed for example in Kenya, the Philippines, Senegal, Tanzania, Thailand and Zanzibar (Tourism Concern, 2008).

2.2.4.4 Enclave tourism

In addition to completely depending on imported commodities, some tour operators operate and own all the basic infrastructures which cater for the daily needs of the tourists within their resorts. The resorts are therefore self-containing with restaurants, shopping arcades (offering all sorts of services from barbers to souvenirs) and other recreational facilities for example located within the resorts or onboard cruise ships (as the case maybe). They are owned by the hotel operators and are very similar to

those in the developed countries in terms of architectural design and style, gastronomy and management (Gladstone, 2005). As such the tourists during their holidays have no incentive to go out of the confines of the resort to purchase anything in the regions where the resorts are based or where the ships anchor. The local communities in such situations profit or stand to gain very little from the tourism industry. In Botswana for example, in 2005, more than 53% of all accommodation facilities were 100% foreign owned and only 18% fully owned by nationals. Foreign owned hotels imported more, and employed fewer local people per dollar of revenue than other hotels. Thus the trickle-down effect on local economies was small (Mbaiwa, 2005b and 2003a). Therefore tourism's contribution to the economy in most of these less developed regions via the tourism income multiplier effect is infinitesimal (Tourism Concern, 2008; Holloway and Taylor, 2006).

The introduction of alternative forms of tourism in the last three decades most especially in the 1980s and early 1990s was motivated by the desire of environmentally conscious researchers, scientists and scholars to measure, control, monitor and propose measures aimed at limiting the negative effects of tourism development in the destination regions while guaranteeing profitable and active participation of all stakeholders as well as the desire of environmentally conscious tourists to seek better and alternative ways of enjoying their vacations in clean, unpolluted and non-congested environments. These forms of tourism have at different moments variously been called 'responsible', 'green', 'nature', 'adventure', 'soft', and 'eco'- tourism). Though different in name, most of them represent only very limited variations in their themes (Weaver, 2006; Wheeler, 1993; Lindberg, 1991; Farrel and Runyan, 1991). Many countries especially in areas where the natural beauty and resources have not yet been destroyed are increasingly adopting these environmentally conscious and sustainable approaches in developing their tourism industries.

Mindful of the fact that one of the main goals of this research is to examine how these sustainability practices and principles can be applied when developing Cameroon's tourism industry which is still in a relatively early stage of development, subsequent sections of this chapter examine the various stages in tourism evolution from the 1950s which jointly contributed to the emergence and development of sustainable tourism management principles and practices.

Also, issues and problems which could be eradicated or reduced if sustainability principles and practices are adopted by already existing tourist destinations or better still if adopted when managing the development of the tourism industry in Cameroon

and the Central African sub-region which have not yet experienced the effects of mass tourism will be examined.

2.3 The evolution of tourism (perspectives) since 1950

Before sustainable tourism (development) came to be implanted as the way forward for the global tourism industry in the 21st Century, Jafari (1989, 2001) noted that in the course of the last five decades there had been the sequential appearance of different factors which had significantly influenced the perception and evolution of the tourism industry as a whole since the end of the Second World War. These were summarised by Jafari (1989) into the 'advocacy', 'cautionary', 'adaptancy', and 'knowledge-based' perspectives or platforms, which all appeared sequentially.

2.3.1 Advocacy perspective

This perspective showed strong support for tourism development immediately after the Second World War in the 1950s and 1960s and this growth was motivated by factors discussed in 2.1. According to this perspective, tourism growth would be sustained by the unlimited supply of tourism resources like beaches, wildlife and scenery and local cultures. Tourism was seen as a tool which could be used to develop the newly independent but impoverished countries of the developing world which lacked the resources for large scale industrialisation but had good climates, were proximate to the tourist generating markets and possessed an abundance of cheap labour. Direct and indirect revenue (generated by the multiplier effect on other sectors of the local economy) could thus be generated from tourism. Since the tourist industry is a highly labour intensive industry, skilled and unskilled employment would be generated in the communities as a result of tourism development and it could also serve as a stimulus for the economic development of stagnating peripheral regions which had no resources for large scale industrialisation (McNulty, 1985).

According to supporters of the advocacy platform, the incentive and desire to support the preservation of the unique socio-cultural, environmental and historical assets would increase and a portion of the revenue collected will be used for restoration and conservation work. Also, cross-cultural understanding would be advanced and global peace will be enhanced between the hosts and guests (D'Amore, 1988). An interventionist element was however postulated by some supporters of this perspective who insisted that governments should take the first step in establishing conducive market-sustained economic development through tourism (Truett and Truett, 1982).

2.3.2 Cautionary perspective

The intensification of tourism in many less developed destinations in the 1960s and early 1970s clearly began exposing the negative impacts of unregulated tourism development leading to calls for caution by many tourism experts and professionals. Residents of tourist destinations (especially in less-developed countries) in the long run suffered from unacceptably high environmental, economic and socio-cultural costs due to indiscriminate, uncontrolled and unregulated tourism development. Mindful of the fact that this was during the peak of the Cold War, some neo-Marxist writers (Harrigan, 1974; Hills and Lundgren, 1977; Watson, 1982) saw international tourism as a continuation of the domination and exploitation of the less developed regions just as it had been in the colonial era. Also the birth and popularisation of environmentalism during this period and the publication of various books by Crittendon, (1975) and Budowski, (1976) detailing the negative impacts of tourism on the environment and the imminent conflicts between uncontrolled tourism development and environmental protection helped in increasing awareness to the cautionary perspective (Weaver and Lawton, 2002).

Advocates of the cautionary platform were quick to point out that some of the merits of international tourism postulated in the advocacy perspective were very minimal in concrete terms and as such tourism was not a very effective vehicle for the economic development of less developed regions. They pointed out for example that the so-called direct revenue was rapidly eroded through other administrative and marketing costs which increased as destinations became more competitive. Also, host communities found employment only in unskilled and underpaid jobs which in most cases were seasonal jobs, and the multiplier effect was virtually minimal due to leakages in the host economies which were not capable of creating linkages to the tourism industry (Holloway and Taylor, 2006; Gladstone, 2005; UNEP, 2002).

Proponents of the cautionary perspective also held the opinion that conflicts were likely to arise because of misunderstandings and envy between visitors and host communities due to the cultural differences, economic (wealth) disparities, and the utilisation of resources between these two groups. According to Cohen (1988), these differences could however be countered and conflicts avoided if the residents are able to adapt services and products to tourist demands rather than satisfy their own needs, hence the *commodification* effect.

2.3.3 Adaptancy perspective

One of the main shortcomings of the cautionary perspective was that even though its supporters identified many of the shortcomings of uncontrolled tourism

(development), they did not put forward any models which if implemented in the tourism industry could make the realisations of the benefits outlined in the advocacy perspective (of the 1950s and 1960s) possible. As a result, in the late 1970s and early 1980s, focus in discussions among tourism scholars began shifting to the formulation of possible solutions that could counter the negative impacts of tourism highlighted by the cautionary platform. The adaptancy platform thus propagates the adaptation of tourism (development) to the *'unique socio-cultural and environmental circumstances of any given community'* (Weaver, 2006). In this regard, support for small scale locally owned tourism ventures is encouraged over large scale foreign owned tourism ventures (Brohman, 1995)⁹. Among the various terms which have been used to describe these adaptations, the term 'alternative tourism' came to be widely recognised as the most befitting description of this form of tourism (Holden, 2000; Cazes, 1989; Gonsalves, 1987; Holden, 1984). As the name implies, the various forms of tourism in the adaptancy platform were seen to be alternatives to mass tourism and the two forms were considered to be polar opposites.

2.3.4 Knowledge-based perspective

The realisation of the inadequacies of the first three models and the inappropriateness and impracticability of applying the adaptancy platform proposals to destinations which could already be considered as mass tourism destinations coupled with the increasing economic importance of the tourism industry and growth in environmental consciousness led to the development of the knowledge-based platform as from the late 1980s and into the 1990s. There was a gradual increase in awareness and concern (if only in theory) of many governments, organisations, and communities on the need to develop and manage environmental resources in a sustainable manner. The guiding principles on how to go about environmental protection and use which were eventually postulated found a good nesting ground in the tourism industry which came to espouse most of the ideas of sustainable development.

In addition, it became crystal clear that no particular model of tourism was perfect for a destination. Positive as well as negative impacts were destined to occur irrespective of the type of tourism practised in a destination (2.2). Tourism according to Jafari (2001) thus had to be approached and studied using scientific methods like

⁹ Ecotourism which emphasises nature based attractions and first gained considerable importance in the mid 1980s, was one of the manifestations of alternative tourism.

was done with other science disciplines in higher academic institutions and research institutes.

According to supporters of this platform, tourism development had to be carried out in a given destination only after thorough scientific analysis of its characteristics and studies on the implementation of the required planning and management strategies had been undertaken. That will be the case of this research which has as one of its main objectives the drawing up a strategic framework for sustainable tourism development management in Cameroon.

It is important to note that all these perspectives do coexist and can still be found in the global tourism industry today (Jafari, 2001).

2.4 Sustainable tourism and sustainable tourism development

2.4.1 Definitions

Depending on the perspective from which it is examined, various definitions of sustainable tourism and tourism within the context of sustainable development respectively have been advanced by eminent professionals, researchers and scholars of tourism and hospitality studies which some argue are one and the same concept or two completely different concepts (Weaver, 2006; Sharpley, 2000; Nijkamp and Verdonkshot, 1995; Butler, 1993). As Hunter (2003), Sharpley (2000) and Butler (1996) argue, at the basic level there is a dichotomy in the way sustainable tourism is perceived (i.e. either as an end in itself or as a means to an end) and defined by the various actors concerned.

Butler, (1993, p. 29) defines sustainable tourism as

“a form of tourism that is able to maintain its viability in an area for an indefinite period of time;”

Cater and Goodall (1992) on their part state that

“sustainable tourism depends on: (a) meeting the needs of the host population in terms of improved standards of living, (b) satisfying the demands of the increasing tourist numbers and continuing to attract them to achieve this (c) safeguarding the environment to achieve the two foregoing aims”(p. 318); whilst to

Archer and Cooper (1994),

“the concept of sustainability is central to the reassessment of tourism’s role in society. It demands a long-term view of economic activity...and ensures that the consumption of tourism does not exceed the ability of the host destination to provide for future tourists” (p. 87);

The dichotomy results from the fact that some arguments have been advanced that sustainable tourism should be concerned in creating conducive environments and situations where tourism flourishes as an end in itself like an economic activity, i.e. environmentally sustainable tourism (Hunter; 1997; Hunter, 1995; Cater and Goodall, 1992) while other researchers however maintain that sustainable tourism theories, practices and policies should be directed at finding a role for tourism in which it becomes part of a more holistic concept covering the general framework/concepts of sustainable development from which the whole concept of sustainable tourism evolved in the early 1990s (Collins, 1999; Butler, 1996; Archer and Cooper, 1994; Curry and Morvaridi, 1992; Cronin, 1990). Whatever the school of thought may be, there is general agreement among tourism scholars of the applicability of the elements which have been outlined by the WTO as the core indicators of sustainable tourism and they are those which are generally used to measure the degree of tourism's sustainability in a given destination (Manning, 1996).

Figure 2.1: WTO core indicators of sustainable tourism

| | |
|---|--|
| 1. Site protection | <i>Category of site protection according to IUCN</i> |
| 2. Stress | <i>Tourist numbers visiting a site (peak per annum/peak per month)</i> |
| 3. Use intensity | <i>Intensity of use per peak periods (persons per hectare)</i> |
| 4. Social impact | <i>Ratio of tourists to locals (peak period and over time)</i> |
| 5. Development control | <i>Existence of environmental review procedure or formal site controls</i> |
| 6. Waste management | <i>Percentage of sewage from site receiving treatment</i> |
| 7. Planning process | <i>Existence of organised regional plan for tourism</i> |
| 8. Critical ecosystems | <i>Number of rare endangered/species</i> |
| 9. Consumer satisfaction | <i>Level of satisfaction by visitors</i> |
| 10. Tourism contribution to local economy | <i>Proportion of total economic activity generated by tourism</i> |

Source: Manning *et al.*, 1996

Sustainable tourism development should be on the same par with other economic activities when development decisions are being made by the various international and national authorities. The former perspective is actually that which has come to dominate tourism planning in practice leading to serious criticism by some scholars of sustainable tourism about the attitude of some tourism policy makers, international organisations and researchers. Some of these institutions for example describe

those countries (like the Seychelles Islands, Mauritius and the Gambia) with the consistently heaviest reliance on tourism as top performers making tourism exclusive and ignoring all other sectors. They sometimes view sustainable tourism as a means of maintaining the sustainability of tourism industry itself and not as a tool of sustainable development (Lanfant and Graburn, 1992). However, it has been justifiably argued that *'for sustainable tourism to occur, it must be closely integrated with all other activities that occur in the host region'* (Mckercher, 1993, p. 14) and this should take place within the context of sustainable development as is the case in Namibia, Senegal and Botswana.

Sustainable development¹⁰ in itself propagates and encourages development in the present so long as it is not detrimental to future generations and the environment thereby guaranteeing that the options of future generations will not be limited (Telfer, 2002). The principles and recommendations presented in the Rio Declaration on the Environment and Development and in Agenda 21 during the Rio Conference in 1992 further helped to propagate the idea of sustainable tourism development. These principles became the guiding tool for the 1995 World Conference on Sustainable Tourism which took place in the Canary Island of Lanzarote, Spain (France, 1997).

Butler (1993, p.29) defines tourism in the context of sustainable development as:

“Tourism which is developed and maintained in an area (community, environment) in such a manner and at a scale that it remains viable over an indefinite period and does not degrade or alter the (human and physical) environment in which it exists to such a degree that it prohibits the successful development and well being of other activities and processes”.

The World Tourism Organization's (WTO, 1998) definition of sustainable tourism development is the one which is frequently used by tourism planners and in tourism research literature. It states that:

“Sustainable tourism development meets the needs of the present tourists and host regions while protecting and enhancing opportunities for the future. It is envisaged as leading to management of all resources in such a way that economic, social, and aesthetic needs can be fulfilled while maintaining cultural integrity, essential ecology processes, biological diversity, and life support systems” (p. 21, 1998).

¹⁰The sustainable development concept was popularised after the 1987 publication of the WCED report titled *'Our Common Future'* also commonly known as the Brundtland Report which defined sustainable development as 'development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs' (Steer and Wade-Gery, 1993; WCED, 1987, p. 43)

The definitions clearly points out that in order for the sustainable development of tourism to be successful, sound management of environmental, social and cultural resources which guarantees satisfaction to all stakeholders and ensures the protection and conservation of these resources for the present and future generations, as well as the integration of tourism into other economic activities of the region is indispensable and very important. These managerial, organizational and educational demands have come to be referred to as principles governing the sustainable development of tourism.

2.4.2 Principles of sustainable tourism development

From the above definitions, it is evident that sustainable tourism development or tourism within the context of sustainable development guidelines and management practices can be applied to all forms of tourism in all types of destinations, including mass tourism and the various niche tourism segments. According to the United Nations Environmental Program (UNEP),

“...sustainability principles refer to the environmental, economic, and socio-cultural aspects of tourism development (and management), and a suitable balance must be established between these three dimensions to guarantee its (tourism developments’) long-term sustainability” (UNEP, 2002).

This approach as it can be observed contrasts sharply with the neoclassical economic theories, on which mass tourism development models were founded in the 1950s resulting in positive but mostly many negative consequences for the host regions and in the process increasingly widening the gap between rich and poor, increasing crime rates and disrupting traditional life styles.

Regardless of the perspective from which sustainable tourism development is perceived, from the heretofore mentioned definitions and other definitions of sustainable tourism development which abound, certain key principles and tenets dealing with this topic can be clearly identified. These include:

2.4.2.1 Conservation and optimal/sustainable use of resources

Sustainable tourism development encourages the use and conservation of natural, cultural and social resources. For this to be effectively developed, proper planning and management guidelines have to be laid down by the authorities concerned with due consideration to the environmental and human resources. In these guidelines, principles and policies, care should be taken to guarantee that these resources are optimally, appropriately and proportionately used through encouraging active cooperation that between the various stakeholders. Potential conflicts between the

stakeholders (individuals, organisations and business investors, government as well as national and international organisations) will thus be avoided in the immediate and long-term, and present as well as future generations will benefit from the development and management of the resources (Harris *et al.*, 2002; Hall and Lew, 1998; Cater and Goodall, 1997; Olindo, 1997; Eber, 1992; Butler, 1991).

2.4.2.2 Linkages

Mindful of the fact that sustainable tourism is part and parcel of sustainable development, sustainable tourism planning, development and management should not be done in isolation. In fact proper planning and management are the essential keys to successful tourism development at the initial and operational phases respectively. Poorly planned and managed (sustainable) tourism ventures are doomed to be disastrous to the host communities, guests and the place itself as experience has proven (Tosun and Timothy, 2001; Tosun, 2000). As such, the whole process of sustainable tourism planning, development and management should be integrated into the national and regional sustainable development objectives of the country or region where it is being carried out (Farrell, 1992). Existing links between the use of the various environmental and economic resources as well as socio-cultural resources and factors in a region should be taken into consideration when developing the various types of tourism. All the key players (host communities, guests and environment) should be willing and ready to accept and adapt to changes, the degree of which may vary depending on the region and type of sustainable tourism being developed. In this way, a dynamic and harmonious relationship favouring the growth of tourism is established among the stakeholders (Wight, 1998). Sustainable tourism development should thus be able to blend in with the surroundings and use of resources through proper planning and effective management using tools such as:

- carrying capacity and levels of use (Daily and Erlich, 1992; Shelby and Heberlein, 1984);
- measuring the cumulative effects assessment (CEA) (to ensure and preserve the optimal functioning and productivity of the natural resource base while taking into consideration social goals and values when making proactive decisions aimed at guaranteeing environmental and social sustainability) (Duinker, 1994; Ross, 1994; Sadler, 1986);
- Measuring the limits of acceptable change (LAC) which can be effected when dealing with issues guaranteeing the quality and the management of the impacts of tourism attractions taking into consideration the tourism potentials

as well as the environmental and socio-economic attributes of the area of potential tourism development and due consultation with the host community before and during development. This guarantees broad-based local and public involvement through all stages of the development process and offers the possibility of constantly adapting as well as adjusting and fine tuning the sustainable development indicators to meet the changing demands (Wight, 1998);

- Assessing the visitor impact management (VIM) on resources of tourism destinations and the level of their experiences through systematic and continuous data collection. This helps in determining the impacts (success or shortcomings) of the various managerial strategies being implemented and the degree of desirability of probable alternatives (Vaske *et al.*, 1994);
- Addressing the issue of visitor experience (and use) and resource protection (VERP) by collecting data from the visitors and involving the local population in all stages especially during the planning (and management phases), as well as constantly monitoring the effects of measures which are already in place and adjusting them annually to match existing demands. In so doing, it is possible for planners and managers to be able to have measures of the appropriate conditions in which sustainable tourism can flourish rather than measures of the optimum capacity at which tourism can still be sustainable in a given region. (Hof *et al.*, 1994 cited in Wight, 1998).

2.4.2.3 Integration of sustainable tourism into sustainable development

The adoption and implementation of sound management policies in sustainable tourism development should make it possible for a wide variety of local economic activities to be supported (through tourism). These activities could be formal and informal ranging for example from supplying tour guides and parks rangers who are members of the local community, agriculture (supply of dairy produce, vegetables and foodstuff to the hotels by local farmers) local arts and craft markets to service tourists' demand, cultural animation infrastructure owned and managed by the local communities. The economic activities of the host communities and the sustainable tourism ventures should be able to improve the living standards of the host communities, allow them to share in the profits of the tourism industry and contribute financially to overall local, regional and national development (Tosun, 2001). The benefits and environmental costs of these activities should always be taken into account and care should be taken to ensure that if possible, the life wire of the community should not be tourism alone because it is an industry which relies very

much on other external forces over which the tourism industry itself has no control. In the sustainable development of tourism, the community should therefore have a broad economic base and the over reliance on tourism alone should be controlled (Wight, 1998; Vanhove, 1997; Farrell, 1992).

2.4.2.4 Stakeholder participation (Public involvement)

Active stakeholder participation is encouraged and demanded of all groups at all stages of the development and operational process. In sustainable tourism development management, the local communities (which before now were sidelined by the governments and investors) are called upon and encouraged by the government and industry operators to take on active roles in the whole process of tourism development from conception through planning to implementation and operationalisation (Getz and Timur, 2005; Marien and Pizam, 1997). Developers and planners however have to give ample consideration to the attitudes and feelings of the local community to any developments as well as the community's sense of place and attachments to the area to be developed. Local communities including minority groups, women and indigenous people should be integrated in the process and encouraged to actively participate (e.g. through consultations, public information, and workshops) in planning, developing, controlling, managing and even owning tourism ventures (Sofield, 2003; Wight, 1998). In so doing, they not only become educated in aspects of the various stages and processes involved in sustainable tourism management and development, but they actively participate in the process and have a share of the benefits which should be equitably distributed. This has made it possible in places like Australia, Canada and Senegal, and to a lesser extent Botswana and Tanzania for the local citizens to own and operate their own businesses ranging from tour operating services, art and craft galleries, bed and breakfast services as well as restaurants and eateries among others (Marchant, 1999). Active public involvement and empowerment ensures that the hands-down approach in which local communities are always consulted only towards the end of the planning stage at public meeting in which the professionals simply 'impose' their plans on them is avoided (Wight, 1998). To involve stakeholders in management and other sustainable tourism development processes however, researchers and planners must first identify and understand the socio-cultural organisation and functioning of the community as well as the elements that comprise stakeholder's knowledge of the concept of sustainable tourism. This can be effectively done by identifying what Gunn (1988) termed 'knowledgeable individuals' in the community who by virtue of their positions and training in the community have special access to

more sources of information than the ordinary members of the community and can effectively contribute to input and the development of the sustainable tourism industry by tapping on their expert knowledge, experience and insight in particular areas (Twining-Ward and Butler, 2002). It should however be noted that for public participation to be effective, a minimal degree of democratic freedom should exist in the region (and country) permitting the citizens to be able to express their ideas without fear of any reprisals whatsoever from the authorities. Education, broad based consultation and active stakeholder participation therefore become very vital ingredients if sustainable tourism development management is to succeed.

2.4.2.5 Education and monitoring

If future generations stand a chance of benefiting from our environmental and socio-cultural heritage, then these have to be protected and in order for these to be better protected and conserved, all stakeholders operating in tourism need to be well educated and trained by experts from the government, tour operators and non-governmental organisations (NGOs) not only on the benefits of sustainable tourism but also on the need to develop, manage and practice tourism forms which are environmentally, socio-culturally and economically sustainable. Tourism industry personnel should be continuously trained and educated in conferences, workshops and seminars on the importance of maintaining and observing sustainability principles as well as on the techniques and strategies which can be used to monitor and measure the effectiveness of these principles so that visitor satisfaction is guaranteed and the resources are not destroyed (ICRT, 2002; Moscardo, 1996). Also, the awareness of the local communities and tourists should be raised on issues dealing with sustainable development, relationships between the hosts and the guests through the creation of visitor information centres manned by trained personnel in the tourist destinations, and through responsible marketing of tourism and the distribution of 'tourist ethics' for example to tourists at the points of departure or on arrival at the destination (Drost, 1996). In all the stages of the process of tourism development and operation, monitoring of the impacts of tourism should be constantly done. Constant monitoring through the development of new monitoring techniques or the adaptation and usage of existing techniques such as CEA, LAC, VIM, and VERP to address the various aspects of tourism development and management should be employed at all stages from planning through to operation (2.4.2.2) (Miller, 2005; Ritchie and Crouch, 2003; Wight, 1998). This will enable problems that might arise to be solved in time as well as give ample time to the local

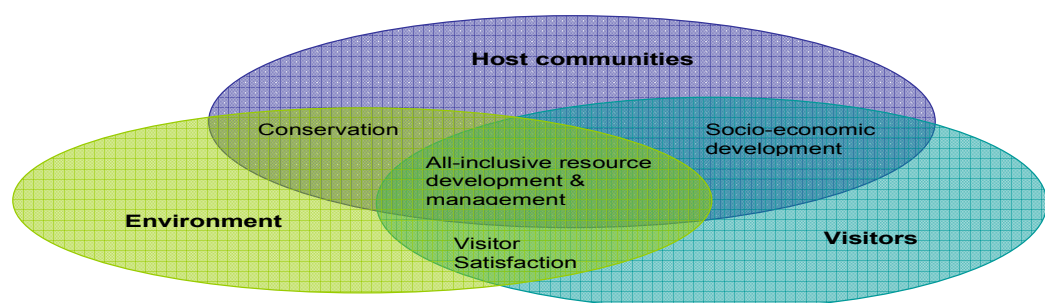
inhabitants to respond to changes which might occur and take advantage of opportunities which might arise.

2.4.2.6 Respect of the host communities

A fundamental principle of sustainable tourism development is the importance it places on the environment, economy, political, social and cultural set up or structures of the destination areas. The socio-cultural authenticity as well as the environmental and economic attributes of the host community should be respected (Edgell, 2006; ICRT, 2002). Success of this principle is guaranteed if the guests (outside investors and tourists) take time to read, learn and acquaint themselves about the cultures, customs and traditions of the host communities before embarking on projects and trips (Drost, 1996). This will ensure that culture clashes and conflicts do not occur because the visitors will have an understanding of how the host communities think, reason and function (Hudson and Miller, 2005; UNEP, 2002).

If attention is paid to the implementation of the above mentioned principles in the planning, development and management of tourism destinations, the impacts of most of the problems which always accompany economic growth caused by tourism development will be eliminated. The management of the sustainable development of tourism should therefore be geared towards ensuring that the industry develops in a way that possible problems both tangible and intangible, seen and unseen can be predicted in advance (through constant monitoring and controls). It should also ascertain that all stakeholders are consulted before major decisions are made from the very beginning and throughout the planning and development process, and they should actively and gainfully participate in the tourism and conservation ventures which should act as motors of socio-economic development to the communities and regions and guarantee increased visitor satisfaction (Figure 2.2).

Figure 2.2: Sustainable tourism development management: main goals



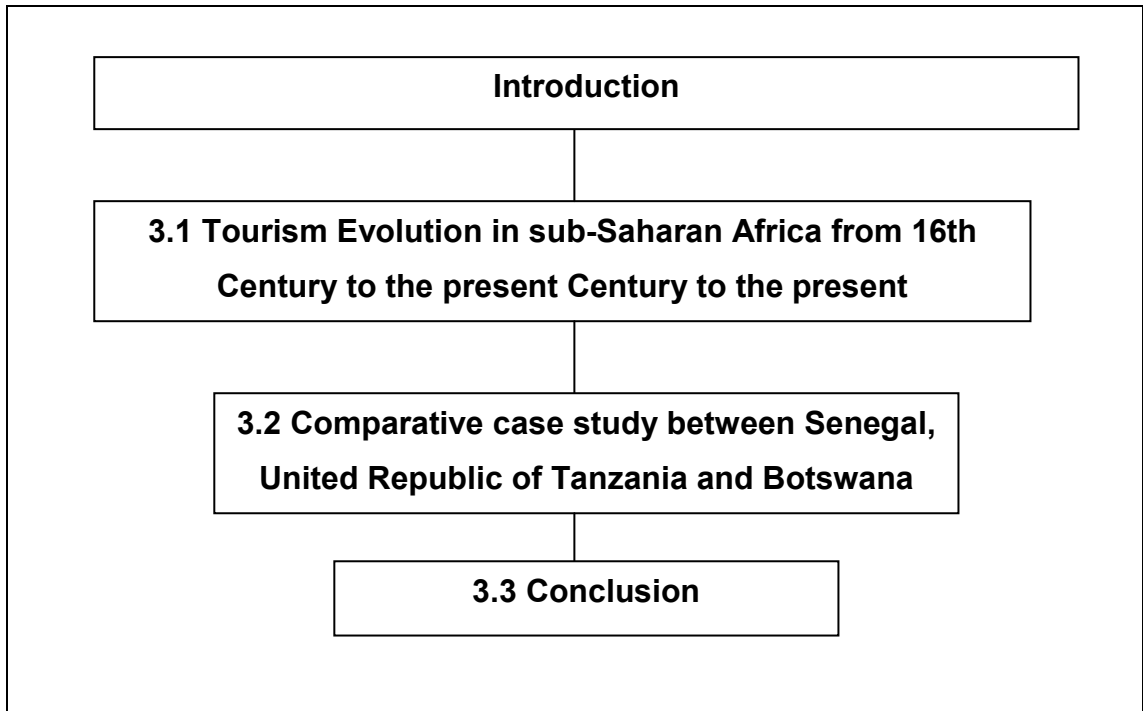
Source: Researcher

2.5 Summary and conclusion

Improvements in transport and communications, increasing income and wealth after 1950 all combined made it possible for many people to travel and visit near as well as distant destinations making the tourism industry to become a very important GDP generator to regions and countries at both the demand and supply ends of the tourism product. However, uncontrolled tourism growth and construction also led to a crisis in the industry especially at the destination level with the environment paying a very high price. Sections 2.3 and 2.4 have shown that sustainable tourism development is thus a result and response to the crisis in the tourism industry. In this research, sustainable tourism development management will be looked at from the perspective of tourism in the context of sustainable development. Analysis will be made of the progress made so far in the implantation and management of sustainable tourism development in Cameroon especially with regards to eliminating or preventing the growth of the negative impacts associated with uncontrolled tourism development; successes and shortcomings observed so far and the root cause of these shortcomings with particular emphasis from the management point of view will be examined. Also the research will be investigating if the above mentioned principles are applied both theoretically and practically in Cameroon's tourism sector. In so doing, the research will focus on sustainable tourism development management plans and concepts presently place (if any), their effectiveness and the means used in applying the above mentioned principles in the different tourist regions of Cameroon. In addition the research will investigate the possibilities of developing new tools and guidelines as well as adapting, tailoring and incorporating existing ones to suit the local conditions and demands where necessary (Tosun, 2001; Hunter, 1997) in the planning and development of various facets of Cameroon's tourism industry. These will all be integrated in a strategic framework for sustainable tourism development management in Cameroon that is proposed by the researcher at the end of this research.

This approach it is hoped and as it has been proven in other countries will be the best approach at developing not only the tourism industry of Cameroon alone but it will be viewed as a motor for the development of other sectors as a whole through linkages which will be created in the process thereby promoting not only local economic development but also regional and national economic growth.

3. Historical Overview of Tourism Development and Management in sub-Saharan Africa.



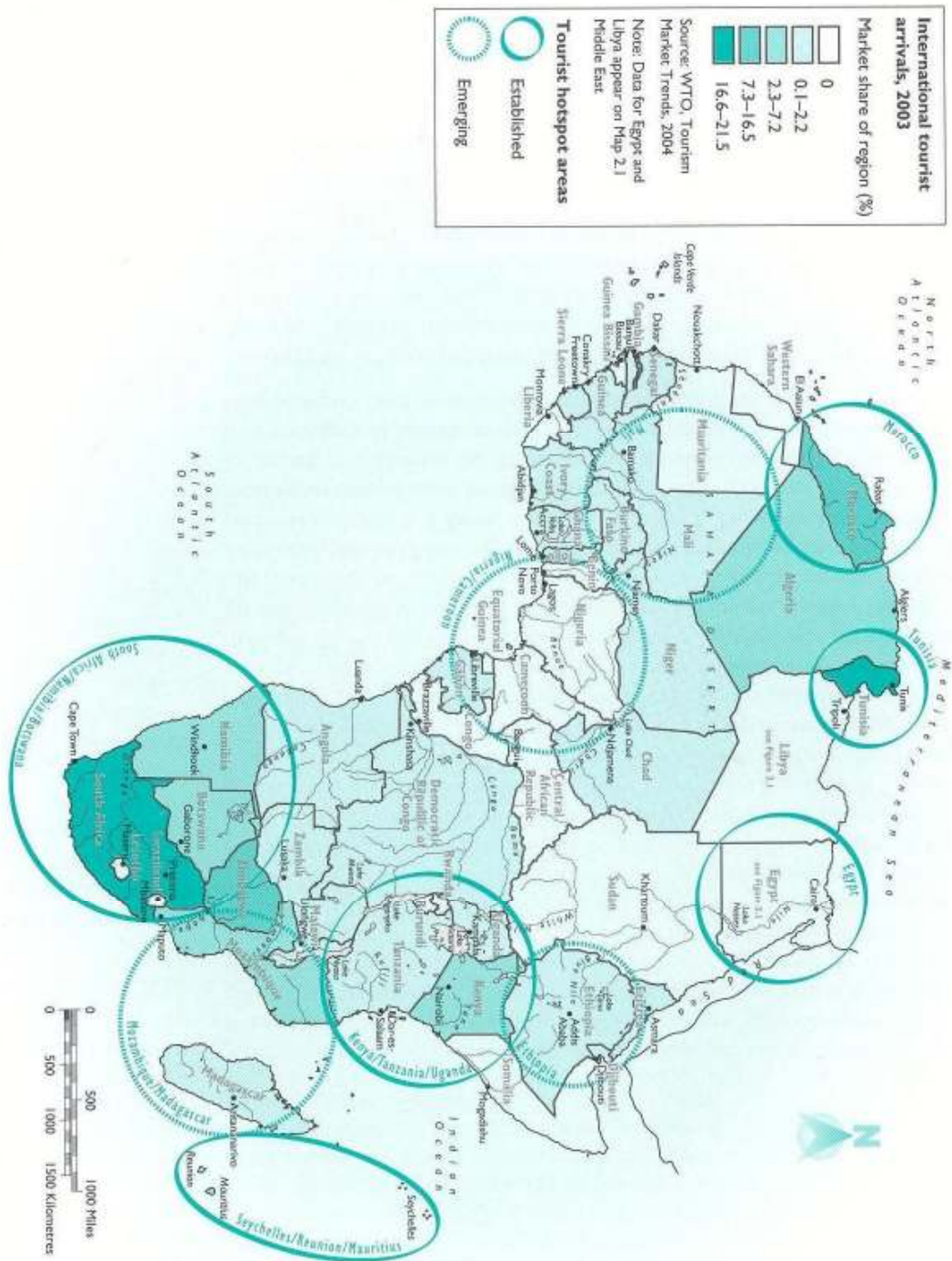
Introduction

In the context of this thesis, sub-Saharan African will include all those countries which are located south of the Sahara desert i.e. countries of west, central, east and southern Africa. This region stretches from Senegal in West Africa through the Democratic Republic of Congo in Central Africa to Ethiopia in the eastern part of Africa and down to the Republic of South Africa in Southern Africa.

The African continent is one of the most culturally and geographically diverse continents in the world. Due to this diversity, it is possible to divide the continent into 5 main sub-regions based on their topography, flora and fauna, and cultural history. To the north is the Maghreb region whose principal characteristic is the almost 10 million square miles of Sahara desert and Sahel vegetation (stretching from Mauritania, Morocco through Libya, Tunisia, Algeria and Egypt); the western region of Africa whose main feature is the River Niger (spanning countries like Senegal, Gambia, Mali, Ivory Coast, Ghana, Togo, Benin, Niger, and Nigeria); followed by the central African region whose main characteristic is the tropical equatorial rain forest (Cameroon, Congo, Democratic Republic of Congo, Gabon, Equatorial Guinea, Chad, and Central African Republic). The eastern region is made up of countries located in the rift valley (like Kenya, Tanzania, Uganda, Ethiopia, Eritrea, Djibouti, Somalia, Burundi, Rwanda) and finally the southern region comprises countries around the Kalahari and Namib deserts (e.g. Namibia, Botswana, Zimbabwe, Mozambique, Swaziland, Lesotho and South Africa). In almost all these sub-regions tourism activities are being carried out at varying degrees with different levels of development and success (Map 3.1).

It should be noted that Chapters Three and Four come before the Methodology Chapter (Five) because of the funnel shaped nature of this research (Figure 5.1). It was imperative for the researcher to clearly justify the objectives of this research and develop the research questions at the start of the research. This could best be explained by examining some of the tourism indicators of different sub-regions and countries mentioned above in relation to those of Cameroon so that a clear picture of the level of Cameroon's tourism development in relation to the other countries could be obtained thereby justifying the need for more research as to the causes of this disparity.

Map 3.1: Emerging and established tourist destinations in Africa – International tourist arrivals 2003



Source: Shackley, 2006

3.1 Tourism Evolution in sub-Saharan Africa from 16th Century to the present

In this section an examination will be made of the principal factors influencing the growth of the tourism industry in the sub-regions of sub-Saharan Africa which in spite of the economic recession has still continued to post positive visitors arrivals and recorded the fastest growth rates in terms of international arrivals during the last 5 years when compared to the rest of the world (Table 3.1). This clearly shows that the continent has enormous potential for the development of various types of tourism activities which still need to be tapped and harnessed

Table 3.1: Sub-Saharan Africa and international tourist arrivals, 2005-2009.¹¹

| Year | Sub-Saharan Africa: growth rate (%) | Global growth rate (%) |
|------|-------------------------------------|------------------------|
| 2005 | 10 | 5.5 |
| 2006 | 12 | 6.1 |
| 2007 | 07 | 6.1 |
| 2008 | 04 | 2.0 |
| 2009 | 05 | -4.0 |

Source: World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO), 2007; 2010

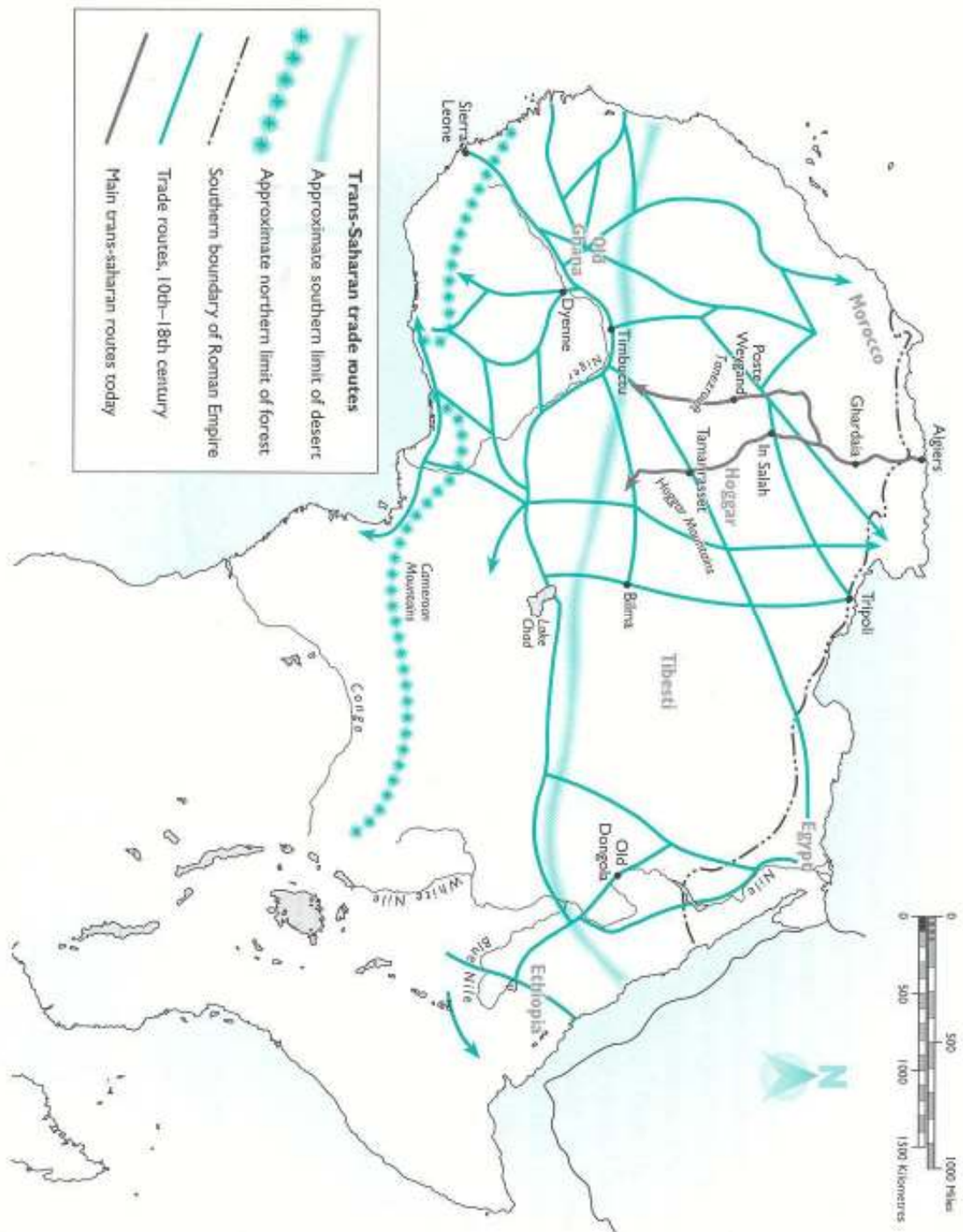
Several factors are responsible for shaping the tourism industries of the countries in these sub-regions. It is by examining these factors that it will be possible to understand why there are variations in tourism receipts between the sub-regions and also get an understanding of why different types of tourism activities are practised in the different sub-regions. These are the political history, natural and cultural histories, the environment, the transport and communication infrastructure, accommodation and sanitary facilities as well as government legislations in the various countries. Added to these, the legacy of the Slave Trade as well as colonialism all play an important role in shaping the current tourism industry in these sub-regions (Shackley, 2006).

Pliny the Elder (AD 23-79) was the first classical author to write comprehensively about the African continent. Though it was a compendium of 'fact and myth', it

¹¹ Africa's share of the tourist market was still only 5% - or around 50 million tourists from a total of nearly 900 million in 2009

included accounts about the north and west of Africa. Other earlier writers who helped in making the African continent known in those early days included Ibn Battuta in his book *The Travels of Ibn Battuta* (Macintosh-Smith, 2000); Leo Africanus (1485-1554) who travelled widely in Africa and wrote *A Geographical Historie of Africa* (Maalouf and Slugett, 1990), in which one of the first detailed descriptions is done of the city of Timbuktu which in the 16th Century was a major religious and cultural centre with a university said to have 25000 students and a population of close to 200 000 inhabitants (African Union, 2004) and a convergent point of the trans-Saharan trade routes (Map 3.2). This inspired many adventurers to visit the town but they were disappointed by what they saw. This disappointment was aptly spelt out by Rene Caillie (1799-1838) in 1828 when he expressed his disappointment on seeing the town of Timbuktu which he described as a jumble of badly built houses with only about 20 000 inhabitants (Caillie, 1830).

Map 3.2: Trans-Saharan trade routes



Source: Shackley, 2006.

3.1.1 West Africa: The slave trade, colonial heritage and politics

Map 3.3: West Africa political and physical



Source: Microsoft Corp, 2008

The Ghanaian (8th - 11th Century) and Malian (13th - 15th Century) empires dominated the West African region in the Middle Ages. They were however overtaken by invading Islamic warriors from Morocco who introduced Islam to the region (Klein, 1998). However, the Portuguese were the first Europeans to actually set up a base on the West African coast at Ile de Gorée near present day Dakar in Senegal. For close to 150 years (i.e. from the 16th – 18th Century), they were the masters of this region where they traded mainly in slaves, gold and ivory. Nevertheless, the Portuguese monopoly of the West African coast did not last very long with the arrival of the Dutch who actually settled in Gorée in 1621, the English at Fort Saint James on the mouth of the Gambia River in 1651 and the French who settled in Saint Louis at the mouth of the Senegal River in 1659 (Barry, 1998). Slaves were acquired through kidnappings, intertribal war captives and slave raiding parties some of which were led by Europeans to capture slaves in the Senegambia region, Upper Guinea and Angola (Manning, 1990; Collins and Burns, 2007). The trade in slaves demanded the construction of some form of settlements along the coasts for the collection and holding of the slaves while awaiting shipment to the New World. This led to the construction of forts and holding camps and sites along the coasts from Senegal to Angola. Some of these sites have survived until the present day notably in Ghana (like Cape Coast Castle, Elmina Castle, and Fort Saint Jago which were named World Heritage Sites by UNESCO in 1979) (Essah, 2001). Gorée and Saint

Louis in Senegal were declared World Heritage Sites in 1978 and 2000 respectively (UNESCO WHC, 2010). Other sites included the port of Ouidah in Benin from where hundreds of thousands of slaves were loaded onto ships for their journey across the Atlantic Ocean in the 18th and 19th centuries¹² (Rawley and Behrendt 2005; Lovejoy, 2000).

These places have become not only places of remembrance of the tragedy and sorrow caused by the slave trade but also attract a lot of African-American tourists who go back there to have a firsthand knowledge of the last place of residence of their ancestors before they were shipped to America (Lokossou, 2001). Such locations became especially more popular after the airing of the television series based on Alex Haley's book *Roots* in 1977 (Haley, 1980). The Gambia took up on this popularity and began organising annual 'Roots' homecoming festivals, the aim being to highlight cultural ties between people of African descent and Africans (Shackley, 2006).

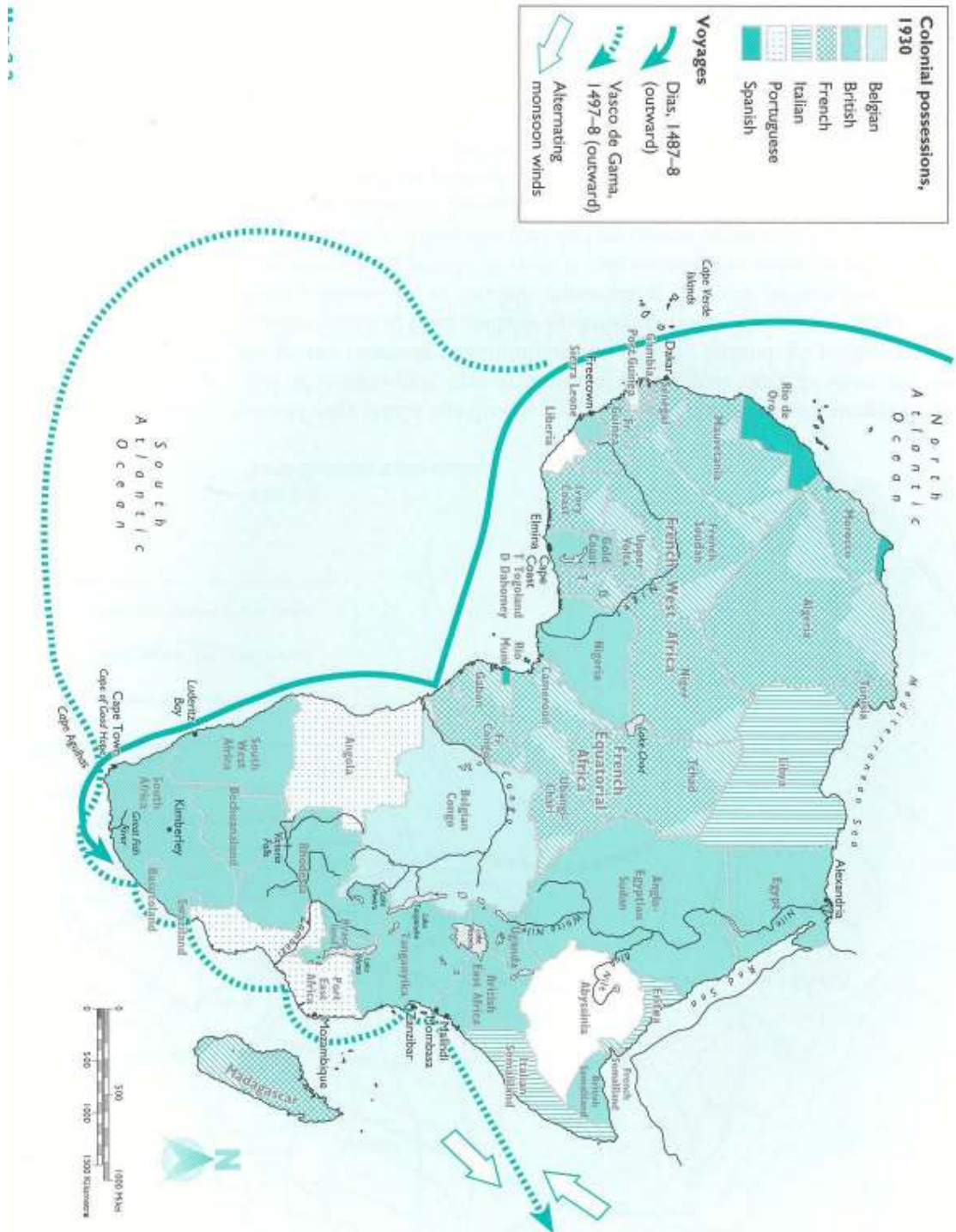
Recognising the importance of the Slave Trade not only as a means of education but also one of promoting tourism and cultural integration and development, UNESCO and the World Tourism Organisation together with African Ministries of Tourism and Culture of African Union signed a declaration in Accra, Ghana on 4 April 1995 and in 1999 to implement a new cultural project. One of the project's key objectives was to identify, restore, link-up and promote sites and localities connected or linked to the Slave Trade and slavery in Africa, Europe, America and the Caribbean (UNESCO, 2004; Teye and Timothy, 2004; Diene, 2001; Lovejoy, 1997; Eltis and Richardson, 1995).

Senegal, which had its first contacts with Europeans (Portuguese traders) in the early 1500s and a permanent French settlement on the island of St Louis in 1658, has fared much better than Liberia (the first black country for freed slaves created in 1822) in terms of making capital out of its slave history by renovating and promoting all its ancient slave sites in addition to promoting the country as a winter sun destination. French sovereignty over the colony was recognised at the Berlin Conference in 1884-1885. During this conference, using the pretext of implementing good governance and pacifying as well as civilising the Africans, the continent was formally divided among the then imperial powers - England, France, Portugal, Germany, Belgium, Italy and Spain - and later repartitioned after the defeat of

¹² In fact Ouidah is believed to have been second in terms of the shipment of slaves only to Cabinda in Angola in terms of the number of slaves exported to America

Germany at the end of the First World War (Map 3.4). Africa became a source of raw materials and cheap labour to these colonial powers (Cooper, 2005; Harlow, 2004).

Map 3.4: Colonial Possessions 1930 after World War I



Source: Shackley, 2006

During the Treaty of Versailles in 1884, England formally took control of a tiny strip of land along the Gambia River including the Banjul Island and made it a crown colony in 1888 until its independence in 1965 (Klein, 1998; Boahen, 1985). Just as French influence is clearly visible in Senegal with tourists coming mainly from France, the Gambia has developed a tourism industry concentrated around the 50 kilometres of beach near its capital Banjul, with the aim of attracting tourists from the UK during the European winter. This has been facilitated by the fact that there has been relative political stability in the country since independence, the availability of direct flights from all regional airports in the United Kingdom and its proximity to the European market (only 5 hours flight), coupled with the publicity done by tour operators on the international stage (Thompson *et al.*, 1995). Since 2000, there has been a consistent increase in the number of overnight visitors and tourism is an important backbone of the Gambian economy contributing up to 12.4% of the GDP in 2005 and offering 19% of all formal private sector jobs (WTO, 2007a; Mitchell and Faal, 2007).

The Cape Verde Islands was colonised by Portugal in 1462 and regarded as a backwater of the Portuguese trading empire. Its tourist industry was virtually inexistent and there was no official organisation responsible for managing tourism activities on the island until two decades ago. However since 1990 the tourist industry has been established on the island with the focus being on beach and wildlife tourism. Growth in this industry has been steady and constant since 2000 with direct flights from many European countries to La Sal the capital. Cape Verde which still has a strong Portuguese influence received close to 200 0000 overnight visitors in 2005 and tourism contributed up to 17.3% of the GDP that same year (Shackley, 2006; WTO, 2007a; Figures 3.1a; 3.1b).

Guinea Bissau was the last country on the African mainland to gain independence from Portugal in 1974. Though there is a strong Portuguese influence here, it is only very recently that there have been attempts to start developing a tourism industry (which is one of the least developed in West Africa) in spite of the region's scenic beauty and marine wildlife especially around the Bijagos archipelago with its biosphere reserve created in 1996 (Fortes *et al.*, 1998). Guinea Bissau has a great but unrealised potential for the development of a nature based tourism industry, being at the confluence the three major West African rivers, - the Gambia, the Senegal and the Niger. This is partly due to the fact that the country is relatively fragile after a civil war in the 1990s and continuous political disturbances since independence (BBC, 2010a).

Côte d'Ivoire is one of the countries that had until recently maintained close links to its colonial master- France. The tourism product (mainly beach tourism and a limited amount of wildlife tourism) offered by the Ivorian market as well as that of the Seychelles on the Indian Ocean is principally designed to cater for the needs of French tourists who are the main visitors to these countries. One of the main attractions here is the basilica at Yamoussoukro (a replica of the St Paul's basilica in Rome) constructed by the late president Felix Houphuet Boigny between 1986 and 1990 (at the astronomical cost of about £100 million) and consecrated by the late pope John Paul II in 1990 (Widner, 1991).

Up till the outbreak of the civil war in September 2002 which led to the partition of the country into two regions, Côte d'Ivoire had been trying to implement new strategies which could help in developing both the eco and cultural segments of the tourism industry (James, 1996) but these measures were suspended at the height of the civil war which split the country into two and has remained so up till date with tensions still running high in the country in spite of implementation of a peace deal in March 2007 negotiated by France and member states of the Economic Community of West African States (BBC, 2010b; Akindès, 2004).

Apart from the old slave forts along its coasts the major attractions being the Elmina Castle and the Cape Coast Castle, Ghana (Gold Coast to the Portuguese after their arrival in the 1470s) is also an attractive tourist destination in West Africa with room for developments especially in the field of cultural tourism. The presence of the Ashanti kingdom in the country with its rich heritage which has been maintained for centuries can be used to attract more tourists into the country. Initially considered to be one of the most prosperous countries on the African continent after its independence in 1957, (largest producer of cocoa and tenth world producer of gold), Ghana was to face severe economic and political crises starting with a series of coup d'états from the 1960s right into the 1980s which ended in 1995 when there was a return to a peacefully elected democratic government (Gocking, 2005). Since then, the country has been witnessing an upward spiral in its economy and the number of tourist arrivals into the country over the last five years except in 2005 when a record drop of -26.60% was registered in the arrival of non-resident tourists at national borders when compared to 2004 but it is recovering. In spite of this drop, the total inbound tourism expenditure has been steadily increasing since 2000 (Figures 3.1a; 3.1b).

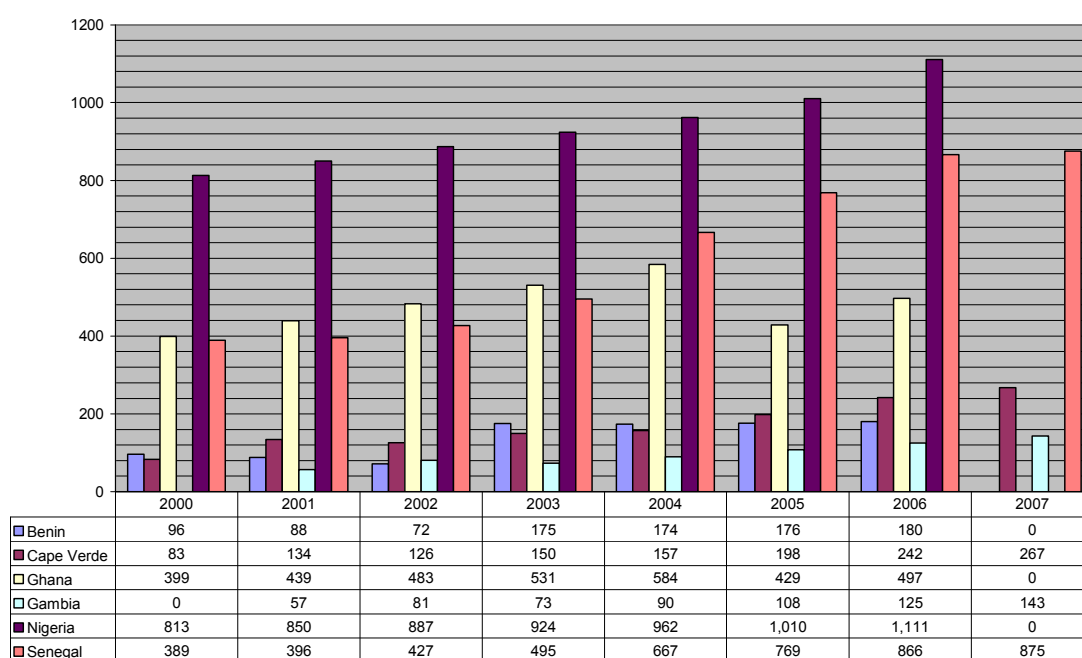
Nigeria is heavily dependent on petroleum exports as the main source of Gross Domestic Product (GDP) earnings (Nigeria is eleventh largest producer of crude oil in

the world) (Nigeria, Energy Data Statistics and Analysis, 2007), in spite of its rich cultural heritage manifested in the varied and diverse history, culture and traditions through music, song and dance, arts and crafts of the sultanate of Sokoto in the north (Mischlich and Lippert, 1905), and the Benin kingdom in the south (Afigbo and Falola, 2004; Nevadomsky, 1997). It is only in 1990 that the Nigerian government started looking for ways and adopting strategies aimed at reducing the over dependence on petroleum exports. In this regard, the National Tourism Policy was adopted in 1990 and a series of other corporations and organisations established all aimed at promoting and developing the tourism sector with the intention of making the country one of the best tourism destinations in the region. These policies and measures, if well carried out, could be successful considering the rich diversity of both ecological and cultural resources of the country (about 300 ethnic groups) and about 835 km of coastline making it possible for the development of both cultural and maritime tourism ventures (Ayeeni *et al.*, 2004). However, political disturbances in Nigeria's Niger Delta during the last decade have contributed in diminishing Nigeria's appeal as an attractive tourist destination. Thus even though overnight visitor numbers have increased tourism receipts have been stagnating or even declining (Figures 3.1a and 3.1b).

Cultural/heritage (diaspora)¹³ tourism is the main form of tourism practised in the West African region. This is favoured by its history, which spans over many centuries. The various epochs have all left their imprints on the region, seen in the contacts with the Arab world through the mosque at Djenné in Mali supposedly built around the 13th Century (Bourgeois, 1987); the forts and slave holding posts along the coasts from Elmina Castle in Ghana through to Gorée in Senegal; the rich and varied ancient cultures of the region manifested in music, song, dance and clothing of these kingdoms which have survived till date and can be seen in annual traditional festivals organised in the Ashanti and Benin kingdoms in Ghana and Nigeria respectively (Ben-Amos, 1986; Silver, 1979). These places and activities have helped in making the region popular as a cultural/heritage tourism destination. With more than 450 different bird species, Senegal and Gambia are also developing into serious bird watching destinations and attracting a number of bird watching tourists (Peckham, 2006; Walley, 2006).

¹³ Diaspora tourists in this context are meant to people of African descent who were born, live and work in other parts of the world.

Figure 3.1a: Overnight visitors to West Africa by country from 2000-2007

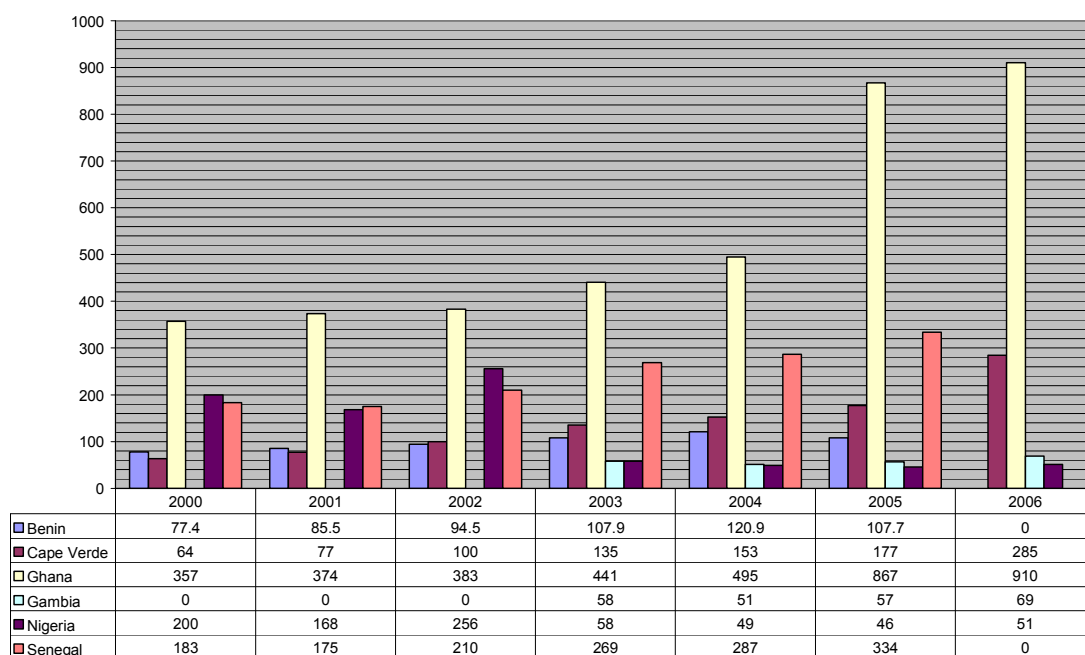


Source: UNWTO, 2007a; 2009

As a result the region offers an attractive package of culture, nature and sunshine for those Europeans longing for sunshine in winter. This added advantage is reflected in the annual number of tourist arrivals into these countries (Figure 3.1a). All the countries in West Africa for which data was available indicate growth in terms of arrival for the period spanning 2000 to 2005. The growth rates differ but the general trend is positive and most of the countries are turning to tourism as a means of economic development.

Positive change in the growth rate is also manifested in the changes which take place in the tourism expenditure in the country. In Figure 3.2b below, apart from Nigeria where inbound tourism expenditure dropped by almost 75% between 2000 and 2005, most of the countries show a positive balance sheet in terms of a constant increase in tourism revenue since 2000.

Figure 3.1b: Inbound tourism expenditure in West Africa by country from 2000-2006 (in US\$ Mn)



Source: UNWTO, 2007a; 2009

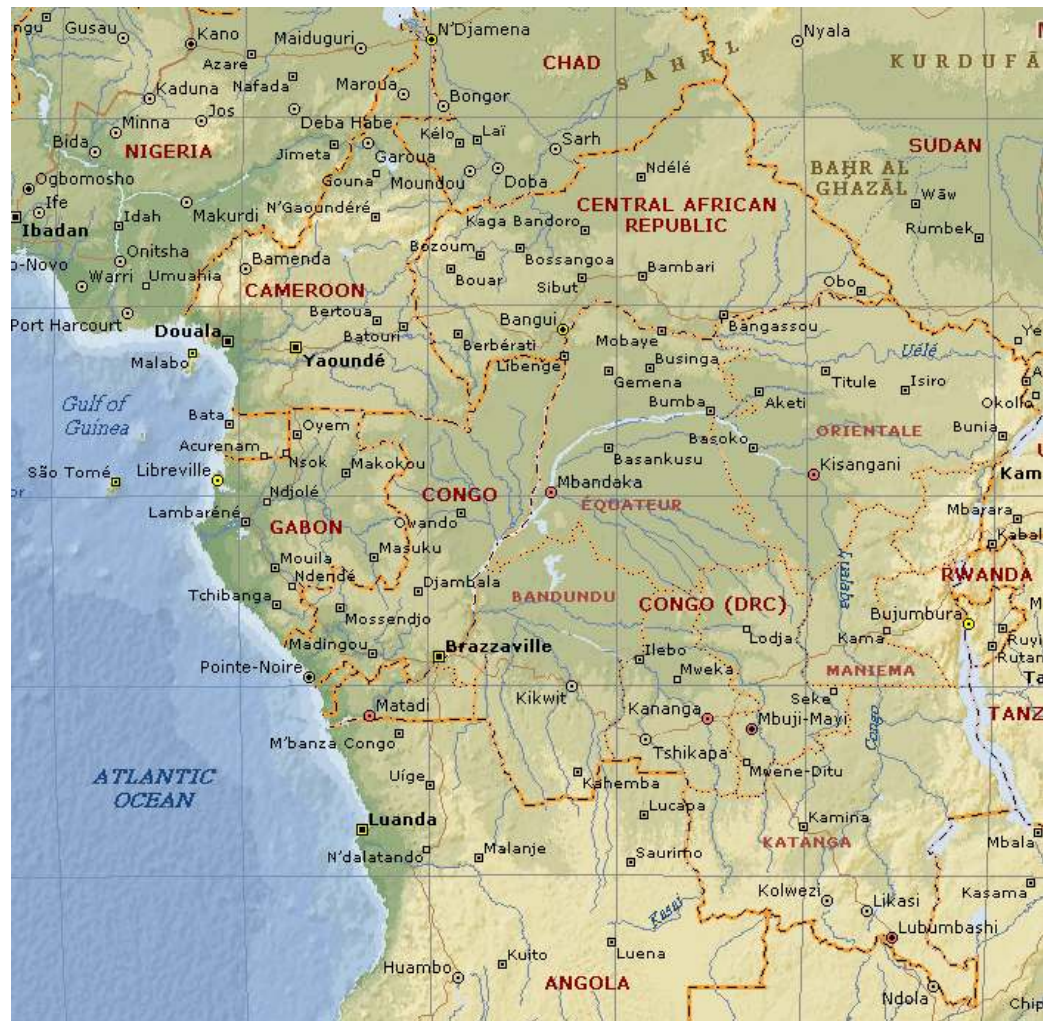
In spite of its rich and diverse cultural heritage spanning over 5 centuries West Africa receives less visitors when compared to Eastern and Southern African sub-regions but more when compared to the Central African sub-region because most of the governments in these countries are not investing much in promoting the industry.

3.1.2 Central Africa: Equatorial rain forest, cultural and natural biodiversity

While travellers are drawn to West Africa because of its rich historical and cultural heritage and to Eastern and Southern Africa because of its fascinating wildlife and incomparable topography, Central Africa is not only a combination of both but goes a step further in that it adds the equatorial experience to its portfolio. Not only is it the region with the highest number of spoken languages (dialects) in relation to the population in the world, but the climate, culture, arts and music of northern Cameroon, Chad and the Central African Republic are reminiscent of the culture and topography of West Africa while the flora and fauna of these regions are reminiscent of those present in the wildlife parks and reserves of eastern and southern Africa. The southern parts of Cameroon and the Central African Republic as well as Congo, Gabon, Equatorial Guinea, Sao Tome and Principe, and the Democratic Republic of Congo are all in the heart of the equatorial rain forest and home to the first

inhabitants of the Congo basin, the marginalised Pygmies whose unique culture, customs and traditions (presently faced with the threat of extinction) are recorded in books by European explorers such as Albert Lloyd's *In Dwarf Land and Cannibal Country* (1902), Colin Turnbull's *The Forest People* (1961) (The Onaway Trust 2009; Shackley, 2006; Clark *et al.*, 1975).

Map 3.5: Central Africa - Political and physical

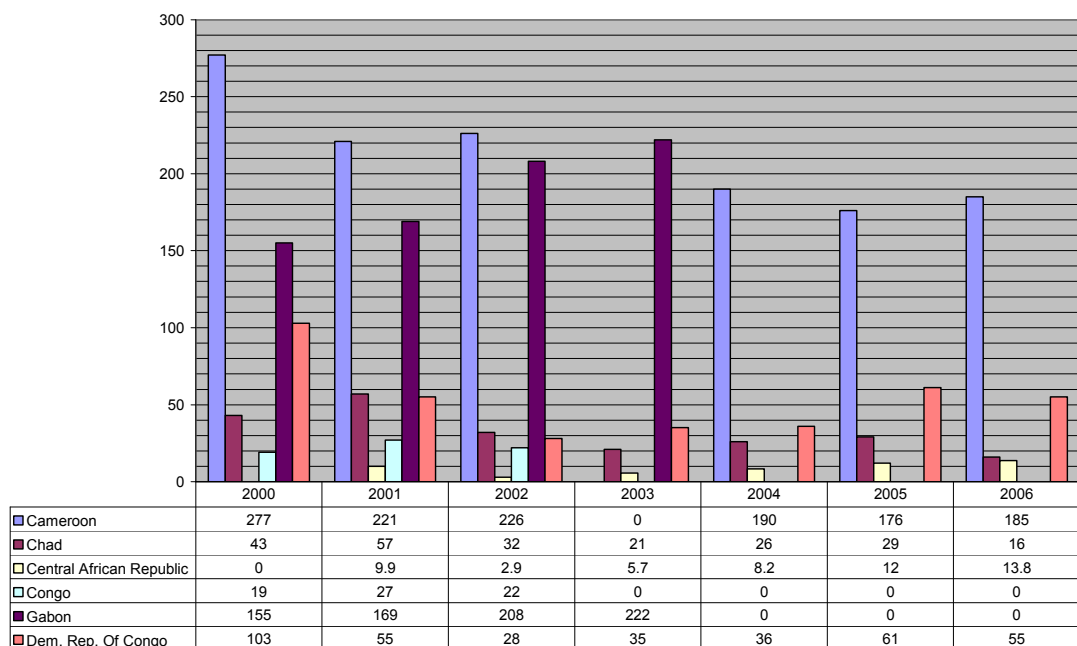


Source: Microsoft Corp, 2008

Geography, combined with tropical diseases and African hostility barred, the penetration of the interior of this region till late in the 19th Century. As a result, very little about this region was known in the western world before the arrival of the first explorers even though contacts with European sailors (especially along the coastal regions) had been made as far back as 6th Century when the Carthaginian sailor Hanno is reported to have witnessed the eruption of Mount Cameroon which he described as the “chariot of the gods” (Hart, 1926).

To the north of the Central African sub-region with its savannah climate (i.e. around the Lake Chad area), there were already contacts between Arab traders with the Karnem Bornu empire as far back as the 12th Century. The Arab traders introduced Islam to the region and traded in salt, copper, cotton and most importantly in slaves which continued until France annexed Chad as a colony in 1884 and replaced slavery with forced labour. Since independence in 1960 the country has been marred by constant civil wars up till date hampering the development of a tourism industry though it has some important attractions (Stürzinger, 1983; BBC, 2008a); the most important being located at the Tibesti Mountains which form the largest mountain range in the Sahara. Its therapeutic springs and cave paintings near Zouar, Bardai and Ennedi are some of the oldest in Africa. They depict hunting scenes and provide evidence of the regions former tropical climate dating from 5000 to 3000 BC (Bimberg, 2002). Political instability in the country saw the arrival of non-resident tourists in hotels and similar establishments plummet from 57 000 in 2001 to 25 000 in 2007 (Figure 3.2a; WTO, 2007a; 2009).

Figure 3.2a: Arrival of non-resident visitors in hotels and similar establishments (in '000) to Central Africa by country from 2000-2006



Source: UNWTO, 2007a; 2009

The Portuguese were the first to arrive in the area around the Congo basin early in the 15th Century (Edgerton, 2002). They preferred to settle on the island of Sao Tome (Africa's second smallest country) instead where they established a permanent

settlement in 1469 which served as a major entrepot for the Slave Trade between the Congo region and the New World till its official abolition in 1875. It was governed by Portugal until an uprising in 1975 forced Portugal to grant it independence (Newton, 1989). Since then the country has been relatively stable but until very recently, not much was being done to promote its tourism industry though it has clean pristine beaches and an amazing floral diversity. The government of the country has begun focusing its attention on the tourism industry by creating a national tourism office and an official web site. There a number of Portuguese companies planning to invest in developing the accommodation and tourism infrastructure of the islands (www.saotome.st, 2010; Mintel Report, 2007a).

It was only after the start of the trans-Atlantic Slave Trade that Dutch, English and French shipping vessels arrived on the coasts the Cameroon, Congo, Gabon and parts of the Central African Republic. Before then powerful semi-Bantu kingdoms such as the Teke and the Congo had been established along the coast and they carried out trans-Saharan trade on slaves and ivory. This was however superseded in the 17th Century by the trans-Atlantic Slave Trade in terms of volume (Lovejoy, 2000).

As from 1880, Savorgnan de Brazza on behalf of France annexed the areas of present day Gabon, the Central African Republic and Chad. This region then became known as French Equatorial Africa in 1908 (Oliver and Atmore, 2005). Towards the end of the Second World War, the Brazzaville Conference of 1944 was held to discuss French colonial problems. It ended with the agreement that French African colonies were to be granted a certain degree of freedom which culminated with independence for its colonies in the Central African sub-region in 1960 (Collins, 1990).

Since independence, while Gabon has experienced relative calm and stability, the Congo and the Central African Republic have been plagued by a series of political crisis and ongoing civil wars which have contributed in reducing their attractiveness as tourist destinations (Ghoura and Mercereau, 2004). Due to the rich floral and faunal diversity of these countries located in the heart of the equatorial rain forest, the main form of tourism practised in the Central African Republic, Congo and Gabon is wildlife tourism and trophy hunting but they also have the potential for the development of a successful ecotourism industry. The main natural parks are the Manovo-Gounda St Floris National Park (declared a UNESCO World Heritage Site in 1988), the Zangha-Ndoki National Park and Zangha-Sangha Special Reserve in the Central African Republic, the Odzala Park Lefini and Lekoli–Pandake game reserves

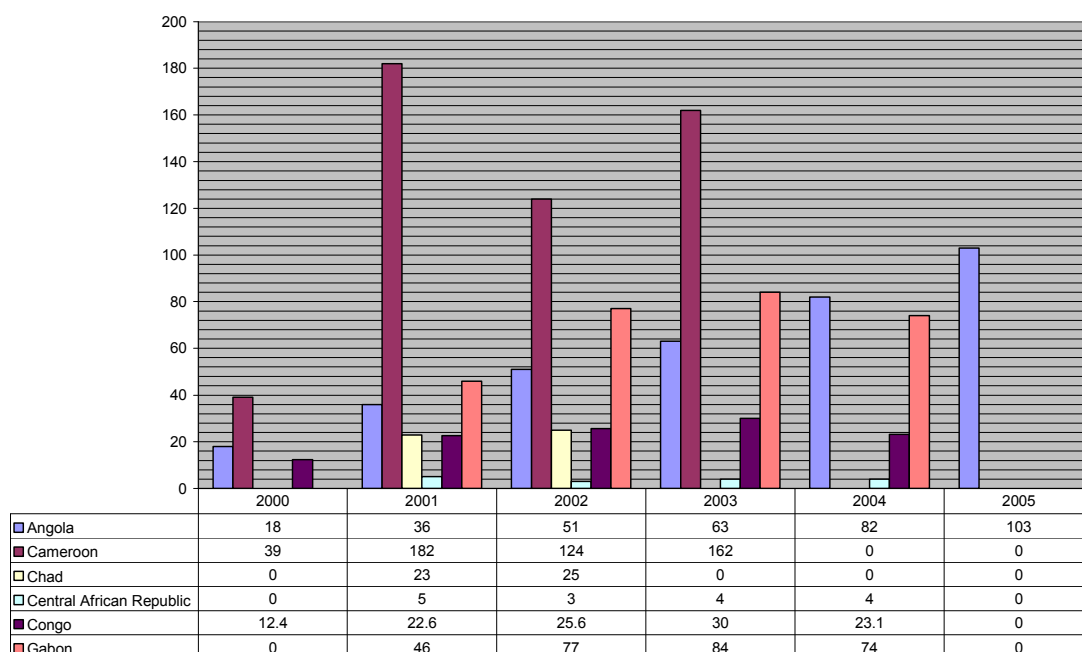
in Congo, and the Ivindo, Loango, Minkembe and Bateke Plateau national parks in Gabon among others which are renowned for their the forest elephants, the western lowland gorillas and hippopotamuses and large variety of birds and other mammals (Blom and Yamindou, 2001; Noss, 1997; UNESCO, 2010). Some of the parks have been spared from the ravages of deforestation and they are home to a wide variety of flora and fauna but poaching and deforestation are a growing threat. Recently, there have been efforts by the government of Gabon to move from its dependence on crude oil and diversify into other sectors. One of these is the tourism sector where a National Tourism Office was created in 2007 and charged with the goals of developing the tourism infrastructure and an ecologically sustainable tourism industry in the country in collaboration with the Wildlife Conservation Society and the World Wide Fund for Nature (Gabontour 2010; <http://www.congo-site.net>; 2007). This transition is not very effective because the government often takes contradictory decisions and gives out concessions to oil exploration companies in the middle of natural parks and reserves. However, unlike other Central African countries, available data for international tourist arrivals show a steady increase in overnight stays from 155,000 in 2000 to 222,000 in 2003 (Figure 3.2a).

When the Portuguese arrived in the Congo Democratic Republic in 1482, they converted the kings of the Congo to Christianity and established trade relations with them for the supply of raw materials and later slaves during the period of the Slave Trade. Conflicts eventually arose between the Portuguese and Congolese kingdoms leading to a war in 1660 in which the Congolese kings were finally defeated in 1665 (Jesman, 1961). In the 18th Century, the most powerful Congolese kingdoms were the Luba in northern Katanga and the Landa in the south which the German explorer Leo Frobenius visited in 1906 and described them as having highly developed arts and culture as well as towns with magnificent house and palm tree lined streets (Marchand, 1997). By the middle of the 19th Century, Arabs from the island of Zanzibar had invaded the eastern parts of the Congo where they established new towns and opened plantations and took over the supply of slaves to the Europeans under the command of Tippu Tip in the 1870s and 1880s (Schildkrout and Keim, 1998).

With the abolition of slavery, King Leopold II of Belgium claimed Congo as his protectorate. It became a source of raw materials for Belgian industries and little or nothing was done to provide any form of development infrastructure apart from building close to 50 000km of roads by independence used mainly for transporting raw materials especially rubber and timber from the fertile interiors (Likaka, 1994).

Civil war broke out in the Democratic Republic of the Congo immediately after independence in 1960 and lasted till 1964. From then on till 1998 there was relative peace until a new civil war erupted again and this has continued till present albeit at varying degrees in various parts of the country (BBC, 2010c) leading to the destruction of most of the basic transport and communication as well as tourism infrastructure and scared away tourists to the country's biodiversity rich national parks, which are some of the country's major touristic attractions. The eastern area of the Congo which is close to the Ugandan border is relatively calm and it is expected that its proximity to the rapidly growing tourism market in Uganda will act as a booster for the redevelopment of the infrastructure on the Congolese side of the Virunga National Park which is home to the critically endangered mountain gorillas (BBC, 2008b). Other national parks of immense biodiversity importance are the Garamba, Kahuzi-Biega and Salonga National Parks as well as the Okapi Wildlife Reserve which are all UNESCO World Heritage Sites. The fauna and flora of these parks which have immense potentials for sustainable ecotourism development risk becoming extinct due to poaching and unsustainable resource use practices (Yamagiwa, 2003; whc.unesco.org, 2007).

Figure 3.2b: Inbound tourism expenditure in Central Africa by country from 2000-2005 (in US\$ Mn)



Source: UNWTO, 2007a

Due to the volatility and political instability of most of the countries in the Central African sub-region which have enormous potentials for eco/nature tourism development, tourism growth has been very inconsistent with most of the countries experiencing stagnation or even decline in terms of tourism arrivals and tourism receipts (Figure 3.2a and 3.2b). This is vividly indicated when an examination of tourism growth indicators like visitor arrivals, overnight stays, bed capacity, contribution to GDP is done. As can be seen from the Figure 3.2a and 3.2b above, apart from Angola (which is located between central and southern Africa) which since 2000 has been experiencing constant growth in terms of arrivals and expenditure as well as the number of hotel rooms, for all the other countries with available data, growth has been inconsistent and very minimal if not negligible with tourism contributing less than 2% annually to the GDPs of the countries in this region between 2000 and 2005 (WTO, 2007a).

3.1.3 East Africa: Flora, fauna, colonial heritage and the safari

Map 3.6: East Africa - Political and physical



Source: Microsoft Corp, 2008

Trophy hunting safaris and presently photographic nature and wildlife viewing safaris have always been the backbone of the tourism industry in East Africa. The

topography of the countries in this region made it possible for them to be populated by a wide variety of faunal species which has often been a fascination to westerners and to a large extent contributed to the development of tourism in eastern and southern Africa.

Travel history and colonialism also played a key role in the development of the tourism industry in countries like Kenya, Tanzania, Uganda, Botswana, Zimbabwe, Zambia, Namibia and South Africa.

The tourism industry that developed in these countries was initially in the form of trophy hunting safaris during which rich westerners undertook expeditions in which animals were killed and their body parts returned with to Europe as hunting trophies. Nowadays, trophy hunting has been greatly reduced in most countries (Akama, 1998; Novelli and Humavindu, 2005), most of the tourism is based on wildlife watching in the various wildlife and national parks where private companies drive the tourists through so that they can see the animals in their natural habitats and take pictures of them. What makes some of these countries most attractive to photo safari tourists is the possibility of being able to see the 'Big Five' (lion, elephant, rhinoceros, leopard and buffalo) in one go. Kenya and Tanzania are the major players of the tourism industry in Eastern Africa but a good number of tourists also visit Uganda, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Rwanda and Burundi to see the mountain gorillas (Shackley, 2006; Staples, 2006; Akama, 1999; Akama, 1998).

Before the arrival of Europeans, a trading network in ivory, oil, skins, and rhinoceros horns was well established and functional in the region mostly between the sea faring Swahili tribes and Arab traders (Mazrui, 1986). It was this trade that led to the development of Zanzibar as a major trading port, eventually playing a pivotal role during the Slave Trade and later on serving as the main point of departure for explorers and adventurers into the African interior during the colonial period. Relics of this heritage can still be found today in Zanzibar (Hoyle, 2002).

Some of these explorers included James Bruce (1730-1794) who carried out expeditions aimed at determining the source of the Nile (Bruce, 1790), John Hanning Speke (1827-1864) who identified the original source as Lake Victoria eighty years later, and confirmed by Henry Morton Stanley (Stanley, 2004; Newman, 2004), and Dr David Livingstone (1813-1873), a medical missionary who in 1871 undertook another expedition to the northern reaches of Lake Tanganyika and reaffirmed Speke's conclusion about the Nile's source. Dr Livingstone is also credited with raising the level of awareness about southern and eastern Africa in Europe and the Slave Trade through trips he undertook into the interior crossing the Kalahari

Desert, 'discovering' Lake Ngami and the Victoria Falls between 1841 and 1856. These adventures were all collected in one of the first bestsellers of travel literature¹⁴ which was published in 1857 upon his return from Africa which sold 70 000 copies (Shackley, 2006; Manning, 1990; Livingstone, 1857).

In addition to the construction of the railway line linking Mombasa and Lake Victoria in 1896 and later on Western Uganda (Lange, 2004), the single most important factor which promoted the development of the tourism industry in East Africa was the opening of the Suez Canal in 1869. With its opening, travel became easier and a new breed of tourism developed – the 'safari' which was mainly big game trophy hunting.

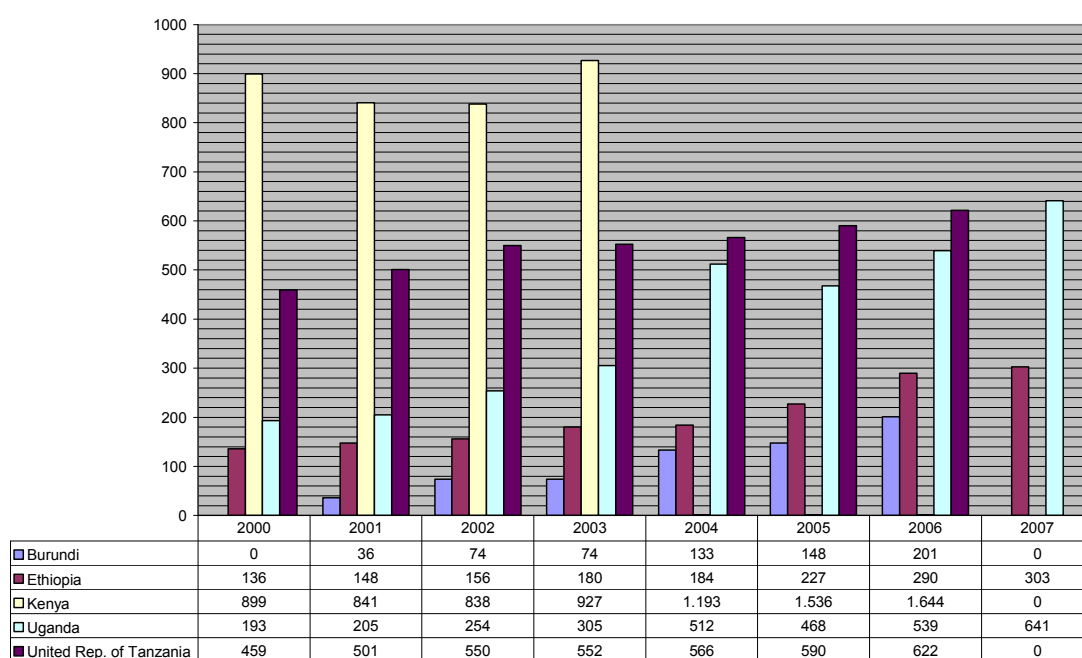
Here the expeditions were planned and organised with a good measure of comfort and luxury guaranteed for the wealthy gentlemen travellers as opposed to the explorer/discoverer travellers who had often faced a lot of hardship and encountered all sorts of hazards during their expeditions. Prominent tourists who undertook such hunting expeditions included President Franklin Delano Roosevelt (who engaged the services of Frederick Selous who was already renowned in the western world as an elephant hunter and naturalist), John Mauir, Frederik Luggard, Abel Chapman, Geoffrey Archer and Robert Coryndon among others (Anderson, 1987; Akama, 1999).

When Germany lost the First World War (1914-1919), it was forced to relinquish all her overseas dominions which were then placed under the trusteeship of the League of Nations and handed over as mandated territories to the victorious powers (Crozier, 1979; Louis, 1969). In Central Africa for example, Germany was forced to hand over Cameroon which was then jointly controlled by France and England and in East Africa, the former German East Africa was handed over to the English and renamed Tanganyika. This changed the face of tourism in the sub-region for from then on the number of visitors to the areas around the present day Serengeti, Mount Kilimanjaro and Ngorongoro National Parks began increasing (Huxley, 2000). The most prominent safari tourist to Tanganyika during this period was the Prince of Wales (who later on became King Edward III) who undertook a hunting expedition in 1928. He was accompanied on this trip by Denys Finch Hatton and Bror Blixen among others (Shackley, 2006; Akama, 1998). This trip and subsequent safari adventures to follow was greatly facilitated first and foremost by the utilisation of the motorcar which greatly eased transportation and later with the introduction of small aeroplanes which were then able to fly tourists to areas where there was enough game for hunting and

¹⁴ Missionary Travels and Researches in South Africa

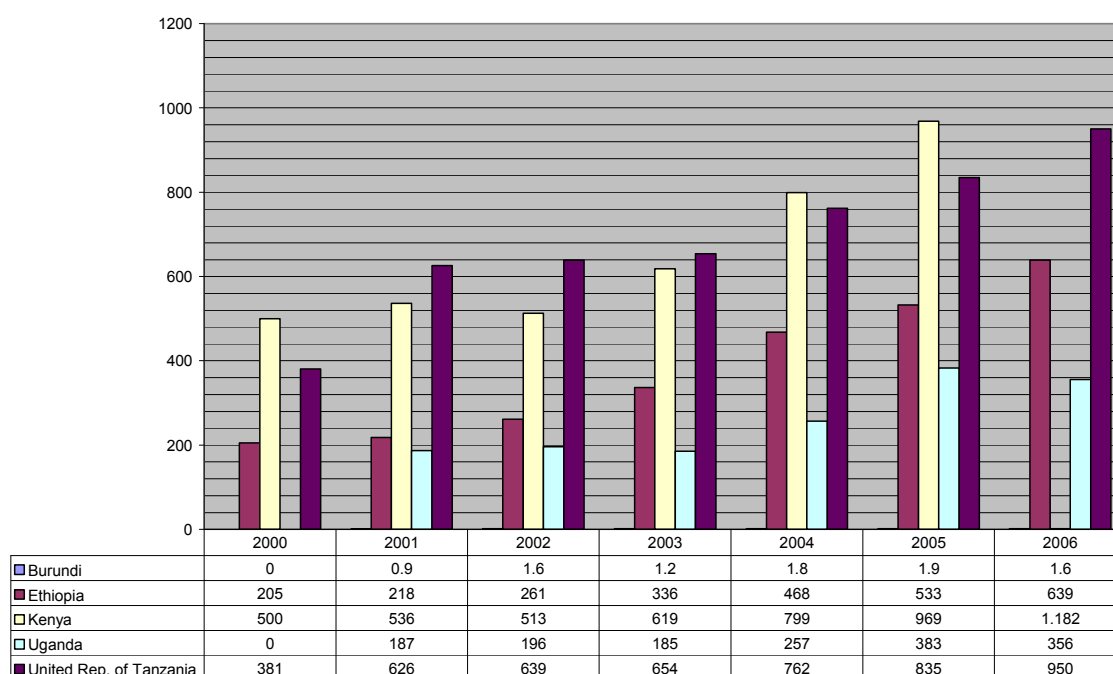
pick them up at the end of their hunting trips. With the outbreak of the Second World War in 1939, there was a decline in tourism activities in the region. It remained low key until after independence in 1963 which was obtained on the heels of the Mau Mau insurgency against to British rule between 1953 and 1963. The fall in the world market prices of Kenya's main export crops (coffee and tea) on which it heavily depended on for foreign earnings in the 1970s motivated the government to diversify and invest in the tourism industry. Thus new national parks were created, while game parks created by the colonial administration became national parks, and beach/water tourism developments on the coast around the Indian Ocean was promoted. Tourism subsequently went on to become an important backbone of the Kenyan economy with tourism being the country's best hard currency earner in 2006 (BBC, 2010d). With the support and promotion of international tour operators, introduction of charters and packaged tours, it became possible for the growing middle class in the western world to access the safari areas which had previously been the preserve of the very rich (Boniface and Cooper, 2005; Akama, 1998). Thus visitor numbers and inbound tourism expenditure steadily increased up till the mid 1980s when the social and environmental costs became visible. The quality of the safari experience declined due to uncontrolled construction and concentration of hotels and lodges near and within the parks and very near the beaches, high tourist densities into the parks sometimes resulted in overcrowding and the disruption of the natural behaviour and way of life of the animals as well as over hunting (Bachmann, 1988; Akama, 1997; Akama, 1998). Attempts were and are still being made to redress these socio-cultural and environmental impacts. A ban on trophy and wild game hunting was imposed and this has been largely replaced by photographic safaris leading to a restocking of some wildlife species which were already becoming endangered. Park rangers have been trained to fight poachers who were a serious threat in the parks and the Masaai communities on whose land most of the parks of Kenya and Tanzania are located are now being actively integrated when decisions concerning the parks are made (Akama, 1999; www.responsibletravel.com, 2007; Bachmann, 1988). Since 2000, visitor numbers and inbound tourism expenditure have been on the rise again, apart from 2007 (political disturbances) as well as the 2002 bombings in Mombasa when visitor numbers dropped but bounced back immediately afterwards (Figure 3.3a and 3.3b; BBC, 2010d).

Figure 3.3a: Overnight visitors to East Africa by country from 2000-2007 (in '000)



Source: UNWTO, 2007a; 2009

Figure 3.3b: Inbound tourism expenditure in East Africa by country from 2000-2006 (in US\$ Mn)



Source: UNWTO, 2007a; 2009

Other forms of tourism practised in Kenya and Tanzania are beach tourism and deep sea fishing on the shores of the Indian Ocean principally around Mombasa, Zanzibar and Lake Victoria (Ondicho, 2000); this is usually done in conjunction with the safari tours which are sold as packages and cultural/heritage and ecotourism to Masai country and Zanzibar even though this is still being developed.

As figure 3.3a and 3.3b above indicate, since 2000, there has been a steady growth in visitor arrival and inbound tourism expenditure to Uganda and Burundi where eco/nature tourism especially the mountain gorilla viewing is on the increase. On the other hand, cultural (heritage) tourism is the main draw of tourists to Ethiopia with its seven UNESCO World Heritage Sites that act as magnets to tourists visiting the country. Among top sites are the ancient obelisks of Axum dating back 2,000 and 3,000 years, and the centuries-old rock hewn churches in Lalibela which are in dire need of restoration (UNESCO, 2009).

3.1.4 Southern Africa: History, culture, safari and politics

Map 3.7: Southern Africa - Political and physical



In their search for a sea route to India and the Spice Islands in Asia, European sailors (especially the Portuguese) kept pushing forward along the African coasts

from the north until they arrived in the southern part of Africa. Here, they encountered a variety of African tribes like the Khoi and San (Hottentots and Bushmen) who had migrated south from present day Botswana around 2000 BC, and other Bantu speaking tribes who after migrating much later had introduced iron smelting techniques and domestication of animals to the region (Barnard, 1992; Shackley, 2006).

After Vasco da Gama 'discovered' the sea route to India in 1497, the Cape of Good Hope, which Bartolomeu Diaz had landed on a decade earlier became the restocking (water and food) point for the Dutch, British and Portuguese traders plying the African coastline during the following 200 years. Trading posts were established by the Portuguese in Mozambique and Angola not only for the restocking of ships but, most importantly, for the loading of slaves which were then shipped to the Americas while the Dutch established their base in South Africa with the first permanent expatriate settlement being set up in 1652 in present day Cape Town as a fort and supply station.

The ideal climate of South Africa made it possible for many other expatriates to begin settling there. Some 5000 British citizens were imported in 1820 to form the base of the new colony after the annexation of the Dutch colony of Cape Town by Britain in 1795 (Ross, 1999). The native inhabitants (Khoisans) were eventually subjugated as well as the Zulu tribes under King Shaka in the Anglo-Zulu War of 1879 (Hamilton, 1998).

The discovery of alluvial diamonds in 1867 at Kimberly and gold at Witwatersrand in 1886 led to a rapid growth in the population. By 1900, Johannesburg which had been nonexistent before the discovery of gold had a population of about 75 000 Europeans. The mineral resources and other issues were to cause the Anglo-Boer War (1889-1902) which ended with the formation of the Union of South Africa in 1910 and the eventual establishment of the Apartheid system in South Africa which lasted for more than five decades in spite of stiff opposition. A guerrilla campaign was launched by black South African freedom movements (notably the ANC) starting in the 1940s. Many of its leaders were arrested and imprisoned in the notorious maximum security prison at Robben Island (Beinart, 2001; Worden, 2000; Ross, 1999). In 1990, the Apartheid system was dissolved and all the political prisoners were released. Notable among them was Nelson Mandela who had been imprisoned for more than 30 years at Robben Island. He later went on to become president of South Africa in 1994 and in 1999 UNESCO declared Robben Island and its prison buildings a World Heritage Site for they symbolized *"the triumph of the human spirit, of freedom, and of*

democracy over oppression” in the fight against apartheid (UNESCO, 2010; Shackley, 2002).

Apart from the export of mineral resources (diamonds, gold, uranium) which are the country's main export and biggest contributors to its GDP, tourism is also an important income generator in South Africa. The opening of the Sun City resort (with 5 hotels, golf courses and a casino) near the Kalahari Desert in 1992 greatly helped to boost an already thriving tourism in the region which had picked up after the end of Apartheid. The tourism industry in South Africa has been organised and diversified in a way that visitors have a wide range of products from which they can choose when they visit the country. These include the traditional safaris to the wildlife parks (some of which are privately owned having been leased from the government), battlefield tourism to sites where the Anglo-Boer and Anglo-Zulu wars were fought and wine tourism around Cape town which is increasingly becoming popular with tourists (Bruwer, 2003; Preston-Whyte, 2000).

In contrast to the East African safari experience, the Southern African experience has been described as unique in that large numbers of wildlife species can still be seen roaming in the vast wilderness, and it is targeted at a market segment with high discretionary spending power. Thus the tourist density is lower in the parks because only the wealthy can afford such trips (which can cost up to £500 per night for a small room) (Shackley, 2006; Hunting Africa, 2007). This is so because the operators want to ensure quality and 'exclusivity'. Luxurious guest camps in the wildlife parks are usually constructed for a maximum of ten to fifteen persons with two or three open topped four wheel trucks used for touring and viewing the animals. The limited numbers guarantees that the visitors are well taken care of and their privacy is guaranteed (Getawayafrica.com, 2007). This type of tourism not only helps in maintaining and preserving the ecosystem, but also helps in the reintroduction of species and other conservation benefits thereby generating employment for the local communities. Wildlife and community sustainability is thereby promoted, an argument advanced by luxury tour operators like Conservation Corporation Africa which organises tours in both Southern and Eastern Africa (CC Africa, 2007).

Sports tourism to South Africa was further boosted by the hosting of the Rugby World Cup in 1995 and it is hoped that the up coming FIFA Football World Cup in June 2010 will promote the image not only of South Africa but the sub-region and Africa as a whole and increase visitor numbers (SAPA-AFP, 2010).

Up till the late 1990s, Botswana and Zimbabwe were both up and coming safari destinations until the deterioration of the political situation in Zimbabwe almost

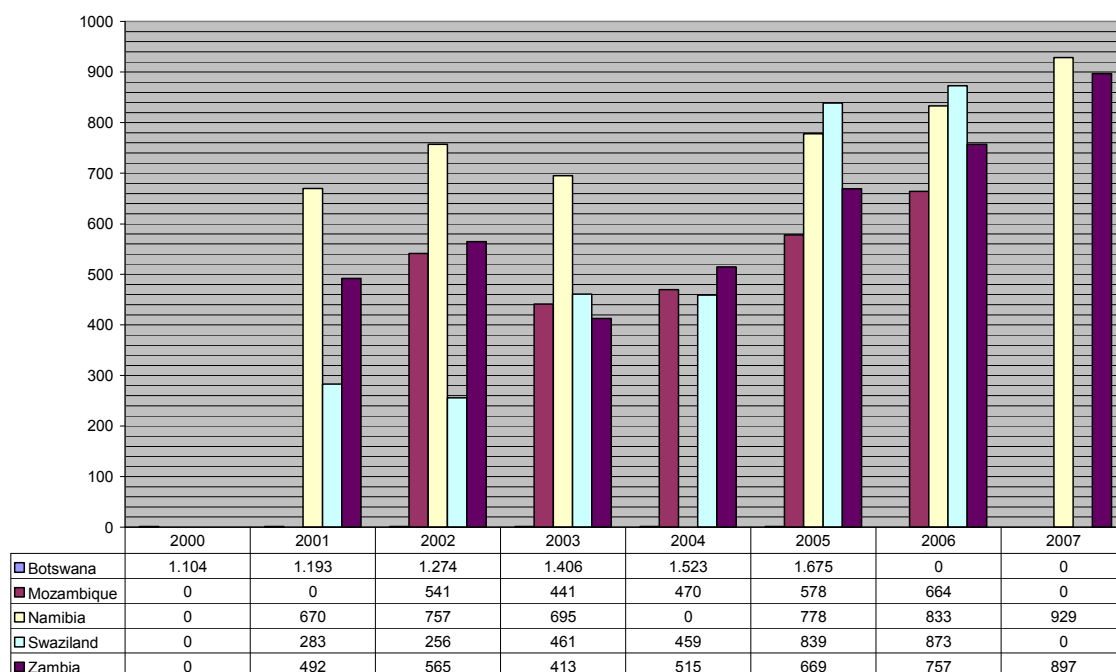
completely wiped out its tourism industry. Zimbabwe boasts the wildlife parks such as the Mana Pools and Hwange in the north of the country as well as the Victoria Falls and the remnants of the stone enclosures of Great Zimbabwe. At present Zimbabwe is only starting to recover economically after the signing of a power sharing agreement between the ruling ZANU and opposition MDC parties in 2009 (BBC, 2010e). This near collapse of governing institutions also meant a collapse of the tourism industry because the white Zimbabweans who had been the key players in the industry were forced to abandon their operations. They were evicted from their lands which were then taken over by black Zimbabweans who had little or no knowledge about managing such operations. Consequently, visitor numbers dropped drastically, tourism infrastructure fell into disuse, poaching increased and European tourists stayed away or turned to neighbouring countries like Botswana for their safari trips. However, latest WTTC reports indicate that as from 2007 but especially after the signing of the peace accord, growth in terms of tourist arrivals and receipts into the country has been constant (WTTC, 2010; Mintel Report, 2007c).

Another country which is developing its own unique brand of wildlife tourism is Namibia. The first European to set eyes on the Namib Desert was Bartolomeu Diaz as far back as the 15th Century when he landed on the Namibian coast. All of Namibia except Walvis Bay came under German rule after 1884 and later on became a mandated territory under South Africa after the First World War in 1920. Until its independence in 1990 after years of guerrilla war against South Africa, Namibia was governed as a province of South Africa (Melba, 2003).

Namibia is one of the political/economic success stories in Africa and its tourism industry has been experiencing steady growth since independence attracting close to a million tourists in 2007 from all over the world (especially from Germany) to its beautiful national parks like Estosha on the Angolan border (Figure 3.4a) and employing some 65 000 people in 2009 (WTTC, 2010). Since 1994, community based tourism development has been actively encouraged by the government and its success is already being felt in many of the communities where it is practised (Directorate of Tourism Namibia, 2004; Halstead, 2003).

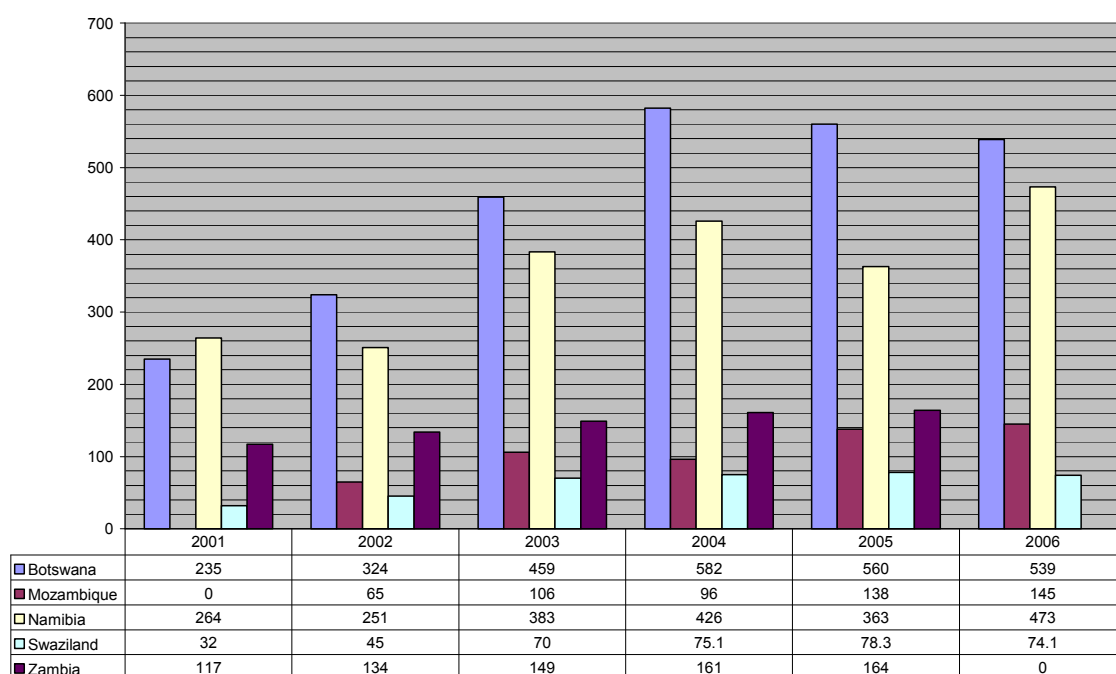
Though safari tourism is the main form of tourism, there has been a lot of diversification into other forms of tourism like white water rafting, canoeing, angling, scuba diving; bird watching (over 630 bird species); ballooning, skydiving and paragliding, sand skiing, etc (Namibia Tourism Board, 2007). Inbound tourism expenditure has also been increasing and tourism contributed up to about 7.5% of its GDP in 2005 (Figure 3.4b; UNWTO, 2007a).

Figure 3.4a: Overnight visitors to mainland southern Africa by country from 2000-2007 (in '000)



Source: UNWTO, 2007a; 2009

Figure 3.4b: Inbound tourism expenditure in mainland Southern Africa by country from 2001-2006 (in \$US Mn).



Source: UNWTO, 2007a; 2009

Other southern African countries like the Seychelles Islands which already has a well established tourism industry and Madagascar are also taking measures aimed at improving quality and developing their tourism infrastructure. They are counting on their exotic flora and fauna as well as the large expanses of sandy beaches and good weather which is favourable almost all year round.

The first European to land in Madagascar was Diego Diaz in August 1500. France annexed it as its colony in 1896. The country gained independence in 1960 but a military coup in 1975 saw it reverting to Marxist rule and a decline of the economy and virtually no attention was paid to its tourism industry. After a turbulent period, and the return of democratically elected government in 2001, much needed peace and stability which are some of the essential ingredients for tourism growth returned and efforts started being made to develop a sustainable ecotourism industry around its mostly endemic floral and faunal biodiversity which is one of the highest on earth (ca. 150,000 endemic species). This was short lived as political instability returned in 2008 and has continued to rock the country since then (BBC, 2010f; Wildmadagascar.org, 2010; Butler, 2005).

The varied topography and climate, cultural differences as well as the rich colonial and immediate past history of the southern part of Africa has made it a fertile ground for the development and practice of diverse forms of tourism ranging from the traditional safari tourism and eco/cultural tourism which is offered by almost all the countries in the region (Zambia, Botswana, Lesotho, Namibia, and South Africa as well as by upcoming destinations like Mozambique) through conventional beach tourism, white water rafting, deep sea fishing, snorkelling and scuba diving in Namibia, South Africa and the Seychelles (where in 2006 for example about 30% of the labour force was employed in the tourism industry which during this same period contributed almost 17% of the GDP) (<http://www.seychelles.travel>, 2010; WTO, 2009; Mintel Report, 2006) to heritage and wine tourism in South Africa. The impact of the tourism industry in the region becomes even clearer upon examining the tourism indicators for the countries in the region. Available data suggest that almost all the countries in the region especially those which are politically stable have been experiencing steady growth in terms of visitor arrivals, overnight stays, inbound tourism expenditure, contribution to the GDP as well as increase in employment in the industry (Figure 3.4a and 3.4b).

3.2 Comparison of tourism indicators between Senegal, United Republic of Tanzania and Botswana.

3.2.1 Justification for the selection and tourism activities in the selected countries

In order to vividly demonstrate the evolution of the tourism industry in sub-Saharan Africa, three countries in West, East and Southern Africa were selected. These are Senegal, United Republic of Tanzania and Botswana. The reason for their selection is based on the fact that they are representative of the countries of the various regions in which they are located (West, East and Southern Africa respectively) in terms of the topography, flora and fauna and culture and they are not very large countries.¹⁵ In addition, they do offer different tourism packages and cater for various types of tourists and are all varyingly related to Cameroon in terms of their colonial heritage. Senegal is a former French colony just like Cameroon after 1919, Botswana is a former English colony just like Cameroon after 1919 and the United Republic of Tanzania just like Cameroon was a German colony before being handed over to England while Cameroon was partitioned between England and France by the League of Nations after the defeat of Germany in the First World War. These factors play an important role in the level of development of the tourism industries in these regions. The three countries thus share certain similarities with Cameroon from a historical, geographical and demographical perspective.

An examination will be done of tourism (growth/decline) indicators. The only directly comparable figures which were available from all the three countries were those of overnight visitors who make up close to 90% of all international arrivals; the tourism expenditure in the country, the number of bed places available, the hotel occupancy rates as well as related indicators like the contribution of tourism to the GDP of these countries. These indicators are hereafter examined after a brief appraisal of the various countries.

¹⁵ Senegal covers a total surface area of 196,722 km²; the United Republic of Tanzania is 883, 749 km² big and Botswana covers a total surface area of 581,730 km²

Map 3.8: Political Map of Africa - Location of selected countries under investigation



Source: Microsoft Corp, 2008

3.2.1.1 Senegal

Apart from its slave history seen in the forts and buildings of the UNESCO World Heritage Sites of the Ile du Gorée and Saint Louis, where cultural (diaspora) tourism is the main activity other tourism activities in Senegal are;

- **Winter sun and sea tourism** along the hundreds of kilometres of pristine sandy beaches but mainly concentrated on the Petite Côte near Dakar;
- **Wildlife tourism, bird viewing and ecotourism** activities undertaken mainly around the Lower Casamance region and the Djoudj National Bird Park (created in 1971) and in the other six national parks in the country (Mintel Report, 2007a);
- **Village tourism** which has become very popular since its introduction in 1974 (Buckley, 2003; Echtner, 1999);

- **Cruise and sports tourism** is popular but the lack of adequate infrastructure especially for anchoring and docking of cruise ships does not permit full exploitation of this sector (Mintel Report, 2007a), and before its transfer to Latin America in 2009 due to security concerns, limited promotion was being done of the Paris-Dakar rally which was another market segment that could have been exploited.

The absence of mineral resources prompted the government of Senegal to set out tourism development as one of its key priority areas for socio-economic development as early as 1971. Since then there have been constant developments in the tourism industry in Senegal through the construction of a good communication and transport network and accommodation facilities. The availability of direct flights, the fact that it lies in the same time zone as many European countries, good destination marketing as well as its colonial past makes it to be the most visited country for vacations in West Africa. It received more than 875,000 visitors in 2007 representing a 13.8% increase from 2005 with tourists coming mainly from France and Germany (WTO, 2009).

There were disruptions in the country's tourism industry (located mainly around Dakar and the Casamance region) in the early 1990s at the height of the Casamance conflict pitting the separatist Movement of Democratic Forces in Casamance (MFDC) against the central government seeking to break away from the country. A truce and peace accord was signed in 1994 in which the Senegalese government agreed to grant the region more autonomy but refused total separation (Sonko, 2004). This led to a rejuvenation of the tourism industry not only in the region but in Senegal as a whole and the country has been experiencing constant growth in terms of international arrivals and overnight stays since 2001 (WTO, 2007a; WTO, 2009).

3.2.1.2 Tanzania

The splendid topography of East Africa favoured its colonisation by a wide variety of fauna and this has made it to become the favoured safari tourism destination (3.1.3). The region is home to the permanently snow-capped Mount Kilimanjaro in north eastern Tanzania (the highest mountain in Africa) and a series of other smaller extinct volcanoes along the Rift valley. The Mount Kilimanjaro descends into the Serengeti plains in Tanzania and the Maasai Mara in south western Kenya which are famous for their variety of game and the spectacular annual 'great migration' of animals (especially the wildebeest) across the River Mara between July and August from the Maasai Mara in the north to the Serengeti in the south and the Ngorongoro Crater in Tanzania (Anonymous, 2007; Deike, 2000).

Thus Tanzania with its 14 national parks, 31 game reserves, game-controlled areas, a conservation area that includes Olduvai Gorge (site of the discovery of some of the earliest humans remains), a marine park and hundreds of kilometres of sandy beaches, 120 different tribes and cultures as well as seven UNESCO World Heritage Sites (Ngorongoro Conservation Area; the Ruins of Kilwa Kisiwani and the Ruins of Songo Mara; Serengeti National Park; Selous Game Reserve; Kilimanjaro National Park; Stone Town in Zanzibar; and the most recent addition of the ancient Kondoa Rock Art Sites (2006) (UNESCO, 2010), is well suited for the practice of all forms of safari, nature or wildlife tourism and cultural/heritage tourism with the main ones being:

- **Safari tourism** which could be done in the form of:
 - **Trophy hunting** which is authorised in game reserves, game controlled areas, forest reserves and open areas (Baker, 1997a; Hurt and Ravn, 2000; Baker, 1997b);
 - **Photographic nature-based safaris** for wildlife viewing in the different national parks and reserves. This has been popular in Tanzania since the 1960s.
- **Beach tourism** was virtually nonexistent in Tanzania before 1990 in spite of the hundreds of kilometres of pristine coastlines with white sandy beaches in the country due to the lack of transport and communication infrastructure as well as adequate accommodation facilities (Wade *et al.*, 2001). Since 1990 substantial efforts have been made in developing beach tourism, including deep sea fishing, scuba diving and snorkelling especially in Bagamoyo, Pemba and Mafia Island and the coast south of Dar es Salaam and Zanzibar Island. (Intel Report, 2007b).
- **Cultural and heritage tourism** mostly on the island of Zanzibar which has a rich cultural heritage stretching back hundreds of years with influences from its Swahili, Arab, Portuguese, Persian and Indian heritage, as well as its slave history as can be seen in Zanzibar's Stone Town (UNESCO World Heritage Site since 2000); but also in the mainland Masai country to a limited extent (Gössling and Schulz, 2005; Hoyle, 2002; Marks, 1996).

In the late 1980s and most especially in the 1990s, there was a decline in tourism arrivals and revenue in the East African tourism industry caused by insecurity and overcrowding in the parks and game reserves. This crunch was felt mostly by Kenya and Tanzania, the main tourist destinations in East Africa. In Tanzania the worst years of recession were from 1979 to 1988 with the lowest point being attained in 1983. During this period, visitor arrivals to Tanzania which had soared up to almost

250,000 just one decade before dropped almost 80% to just slightly above 50,000 in 1983 (Wade *et al.*, 2001). The situation was redressed with new laws being implemented and special attention being paid to environmental factors. As a result, the tourism industries in both Kenya and Tanzania have been experiencing steady growth in tourism receipts and visitor arrivals since 2000 (WTO, 2007a; WTO, 2009).

3.2.1.3 Botswana

The insecurity and overcrowding in the Kenyan and Tanzanian national parks in the mid 1980s and early 1990s as well as the ongoing political disturbances in Zimbabwe has spurred the development and opening up of new destinations and markets in Southern Africa like Botswana which does not only offer safaris but also adds a rich cultural diversity to its portfolio.

This evolution has taken place around the framework of community-based natural resources management programmes which have been quite successful since their implementation. There are over fifty Community Based Organisations (CBO) in Botswana, most of which work in partnership with private tourism companies in managing and selling the touristic resources of their communities and the provision of overnight accommodation for self-drive visitors in addition to participating in the main types of tourism activities which are:

Safari tourism which could either be:

- **Trophy hunting** which usually takes place during the hunting season (March-October). Species like male elephants, lions and leopards are hunted by tourists on 40 reserved sites in Botswana (Rozemeijer *et al.*, 2004; Baker, 1997b).
- **Photographic nature-based safaris** during summer in the non-hunting season (October-March) which is less remunerating to the communities when compared to trophy hunting but is a permanent employment generator (Rozemeijer *et al.*, 2004)
- **Cultural and handicraft tourism** especially in eastern Botswana where the culture of the Bushmen is increasingly attracting a growing number of tourists who pay fees to watch traditional dances and go on guided hunting and gathering trips and listen to stories and buy locally produced handicrafts (Mutua *et al.*, 2004; Mbaiwa, 2004).

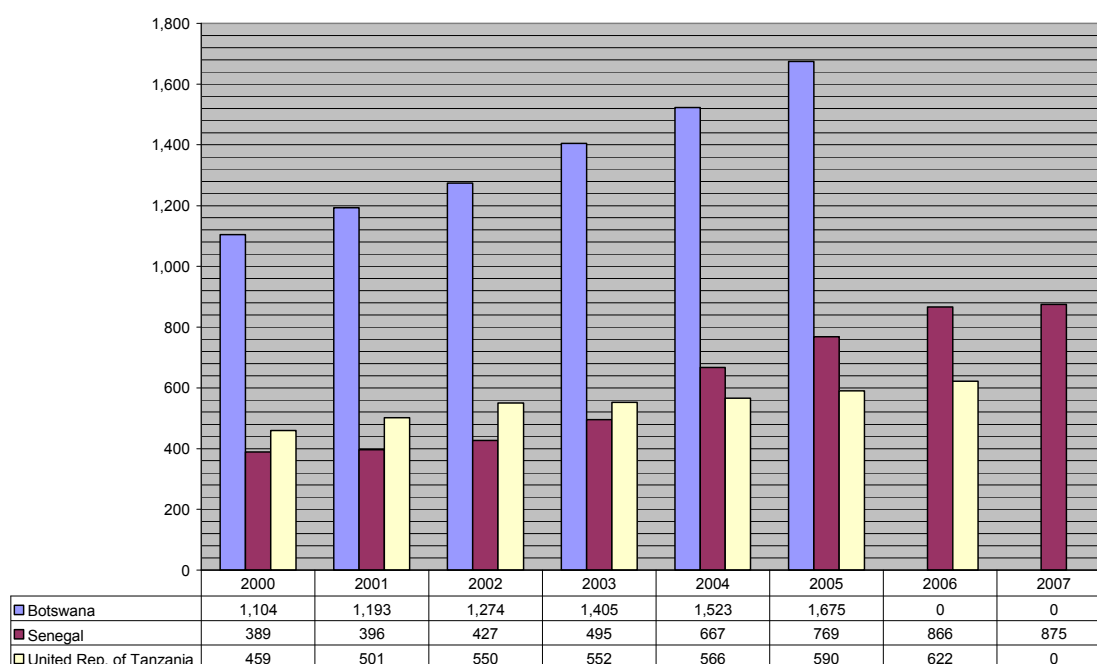
These activities take place mainly in the 15,000 sq. km Okavango Delta, a network of water channels, lagoons, swamps and islands. The Okavango is the largest inland delta system in the world and is home to a wide variety of animals. This, together with the climate and topography (84% of Botswana is made up of the semi arid

Kalahari Desert), has favoured the development in the past years of an up-market safari tourism industry similar to that of South Africa. Most activities take place in the national parks and reserves located in the Okavango Delta such as the Moremi Game Reserve and the Chobe National Park (with its estimated 120 000 elephants which are one of its main attractions) and the Central Kalahari Game Reserve among others (Mbaiwa, 2003a). The contribution of the tourism industry to the GDP of Botswana rose from 4.5% in 2001 to 5.2% in 2006 (WTO, 2007a; WTO, 2009).

3.2.2 Annual arrivals in terms of overnight visitors (in '000)

One of the indicators used in measuring tourism growth is the number of overnight stays. Figure 3.5 below shows the evolution of overnight stays for Senegal, Tanzania and Botswana from 2000-2007. Figure 3.5 clearly shows that there has been a steady increase in the number of overnight stays for the above mentioned countries since 2000. This just goes to confirm the fact there is still enough room for tourism development in all regions of sub-Saharan Africa.

Figure 3.5: Tourist arrivals i.e. overnight visitors in selected countries (in '000) from 2000-2007



Source: UNWTO, 2007a; 2009

In Senegal for example, though the average length of stay and occupancy rates of rooms which was 5.2 days and 52.5% respectively in 1974 dropped especially at the height of the Casamance crisis between 1990 and 1994, statistics from the World Tourism Organisation show that Senegal's average annual growth rate in terms of

international arrivals grew by 4.7% between 1990 and 2000. As can be seen in Figure 3.5, between 2000 and 2007, overnight visitors more than doubled from 389,000 in 2000 to 875,000 in 2007. The growth rate in 2007 when compared to 2005 stood at 12%, and this trend is projected to continue with Senegal aiming to receive 1.5 million visitors in 2010 (WTO, 2009; WTO, 2007a).

In like manner, international arrivals and the number of overnight visitors to Tanzania have been on the increase even after the U.S embassy bombings of 1998 in Nairobi and Dar-es-Salaam and the uncertainty following September 11 2001. After attaining a peak in 1999 with 627,000 international visitors (WTO, 2002a), the industry witnessed a slight decline in international arrivals but since 2000, there has been unimpeded steady growth, indicated by the increasing number of international arrivals which stood at 644,124 in 2006 showing a growth rate of 5.1% when compared to 2005 (WTO, 2007b; Mintel Report, 2007b). Added to this, the number of overnight visitors has been steadily increasing, rising from 459,000 in 2000 to 622,000 in 2006 and an annual growth rate of 35.5% in 2006 when compared to 2005 (Figure 3.5).

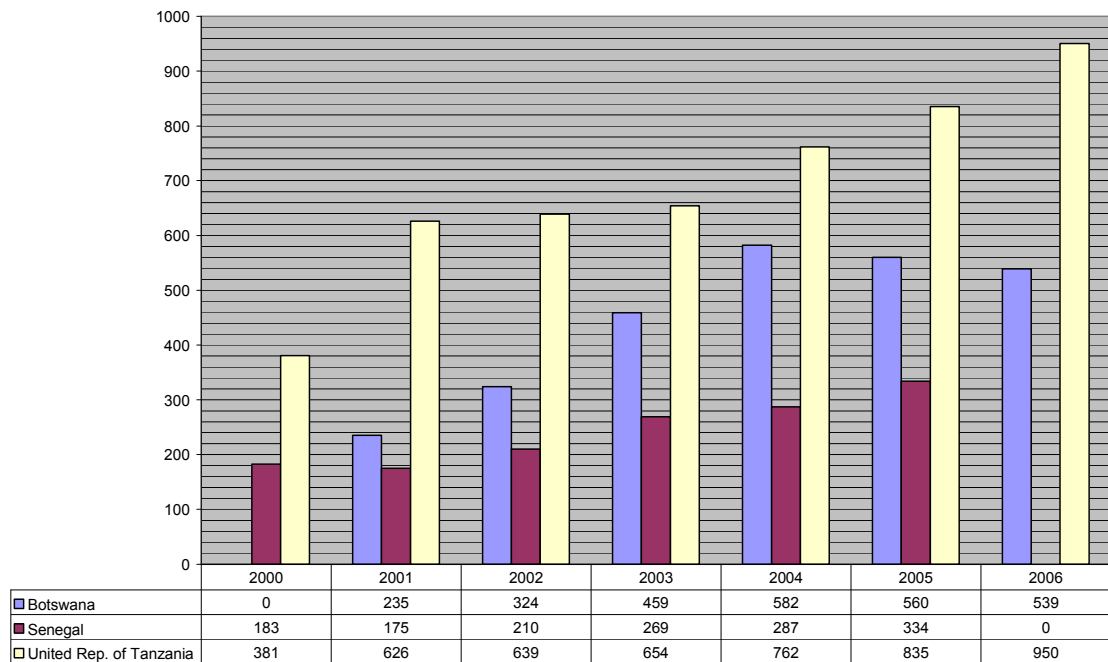
The relative political stability and safety of Botswana, the political turmoil and insecurity in Zimbabwe, the weak American Dollar and the strong South African Rand has made Botswana relatively cheaper and safer to visit. Many tourists who can no longer visit Zimbabwe's parks flock to Botswana instead because South Africa is more expensive and insecurity is a problem. Thus, international arrivals to Botswana has been steadily increasing since 2000 increasing from 1,485,000 visitors in 2002 to 1,885,000 visitors in 2005 (27% increase) with the principal tourist generating countries being the United Kingdom, the United States of America and Germany (WTO, 2007b; Mintel Report, 2005).

In the same manner, Botswana received 1,104,000 overnight visitors in 2000 and this number has been increasing ever since even after September 11 to 1,675,000 visitors in 2005. Overnight stays thus grew by 52% between 2000 and 2005 (WTO, 2007a; WTO, 2009).

3.2.3 Share of tourism expenditure in the GDP and inbound tourism expenditure

An important indicator of changes within the tourism industry is the amount of money spent by tourists when they are in the country, and the overall contribution of the tourism industry to the GDP of the country.

Figure 3.6a: Tourism Expenditure in the country (in US\$ mn) 2000-2006.

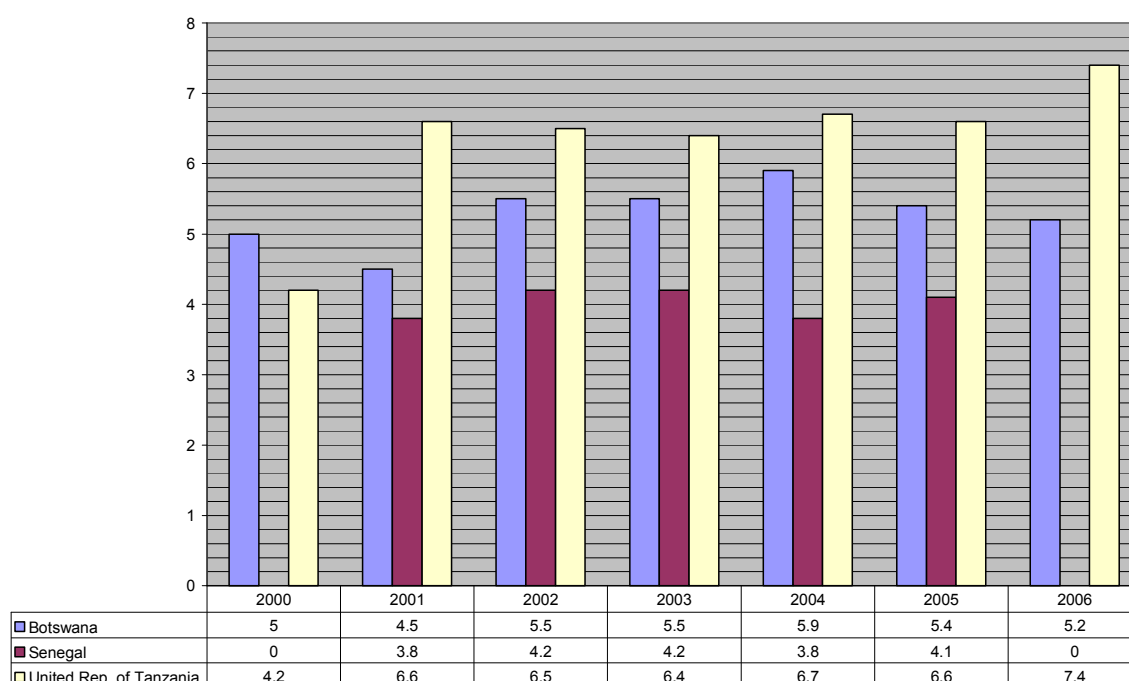


Source: UNWTO 2007a; 2009

It is clearly evident from Figure 3.6a and 3.6b that not only has there been an almost constant annual increase in the contribution of tourism to the GDP of the three countries under investigation, there is also a corresponding yearly increase in inbound tourism expenditure in these countries (i.e. receipts for the country).

Between 2000 and 2005, inbound tourism expenditure in Senegal rose from US\$183mn to US\$334mn representing an 82.5% increase in receipts (Figure 3.6a). On the whole, tourism contributed 4.1% to the GDP of Senegal in 2005 (Figure 3.6b) and was the third largest contributor after the fishing and agricultural industries. In 2008, while direct industry contribution to GDP was 3.2% (US\$411mn) with a real growth of 0.4% when compared to 2007, the travel and tourism economy's contribution as whole was 7.6% (US\$980mn) of the total GDP and a real growth of 2.8% (WTTC, 2008a; WTO, 2007a).

Figure 3.6b: Share of tourism to GDP (in %) 2000 - 2006



Source: UNWTO 2007a; 2009

Tourism is Tanzania's third biggest export and foreign exchange earner after agriculture and mining. Since 2000, there has been consistent growth in terms of annual receipts in this sector. Compared to 2005, tourism receipts in Tanzania grew by 13.7% in 2006. This was almost twice as fast as international arrivals for the same period with a higher yield per visitor reflecting the government's objective of implementing low-volume, high-value international tourism similar to that of South Africa. In 2006, the industry's contribution to the GDP stood at 7.4% and according to WTTC estimates, by 2008 the travel and tourism economy contribution to GDP had increased to 9.7% (US\$1552mn) of the total GDP but annual real growth which stood at 4.6% in 2005 was just 3.7% in 2008 and according to the WTTC (2008b), this is expected to stabilise at around 3.9% per annum over the next ten years. That notwithstanding, when compared to many other African countries, Tanzania's tourism receipts continue to be at a strong and enviable level (WTTC, 2008b; Mintel Report, 2007b).

Between 2000 and 2008, the contribution of the travel and tourism industry to Botswana's GDP has been relatively stable. In 2000, the contribution stood at 5%. By 2006 it had increased to 5.2%. In 2008, while the direct contribution from the travel and tourism industry had dropped to 4.2%, the travel and tourism economy as whole contributed 9.4% (US\$1,110mn) to Botswana's GDP. This makes the travel and tourism industry Botswana's second largest GDP contributor behind the diamond

mining industry (Figures 3.6a and 3.6b). This is a huge change from 1995 when the tourism industry contributed just over 1% to the GDP (Mbaiwa, 2003a; Government of Botswana, 2007; WTO, 2007a, WTTC, 2008c). This indicates the growing importance of the industry to the economy. However, the amount contributed could even be more if the presently existing weak linkages with other sectors like agriculture, mining, construction and manufacturing are strengthened.

3.2.4 Employment generation

Be it in Senegal, Tanzania or Botswana, the tourism industry in these countries has become one of the biggest employers generating direct and indirect employment to tens of thousands of people through linkages to other industrial sectors like agriculture, transport, industry and communications.

In 1999, the tourism industry in Senegal accounted for around 26,000 direct jobs, of which about 15,000 were seasonal. The Senegalese government aims to increase international arrivals to 1.5 million by 2010. In so doing, new opportunities for employment will be created to add to the 75,000 persons who were directly employed in the tourism industry in 2007 (Intel Report, 2007a). Added to these are 25,000 persons who are indirectly employed in services related to tourism. If the aims are well met, it was forecasted that by 2010, about 12,000 - 15,000 direct and 24,000 - 30,000 indirect additional jobs would have been created by tourism. The Senegalese government is well in line to meet this objective for the number of direct and indirect jobs has more than doubled in the last 9 years. In 2008, it was estimated that direct travel and tourism industry employment stood at 68,000 jobs (2.6% of total employment) and 162,000 jobs (6.3% of total employment) for the tourism economy as a whole. Efforts are also being made to strengthen the linkages between tourism and other sectors of the economy and this will help to increase future employment needs (WTTC, 2008a; Intel Report, 2007a).

There has been a constant growth in both direct and indirect employment in the Tanzanian tourism industry during the last decade. In 2004, about 200,000 people were employed in the tourism industry in Tanzania, a one hundred percent increase from 1996. In 2007, direct travel and tourism industry jobs stood at 308,000 or 3.3% of total employment, but this percentage is forecasted to drop within the next decade to 2.9% or 346,000 jobs in 2018. In 2008, it was estimated that total employment in Tanzania's travel and tourism economy in general stood at 719, 000 jobs or 7.7% of total employment, a 0.3% decline when compared to 2007 (WTTC, 2008b; Intel Report, 2007b). However most of the senior management positions in the Tanzanian

tourism industry are occupied by foreigners. The goal of the Tanzanian government is to make sure that Tanzanians gradually take over these roles.

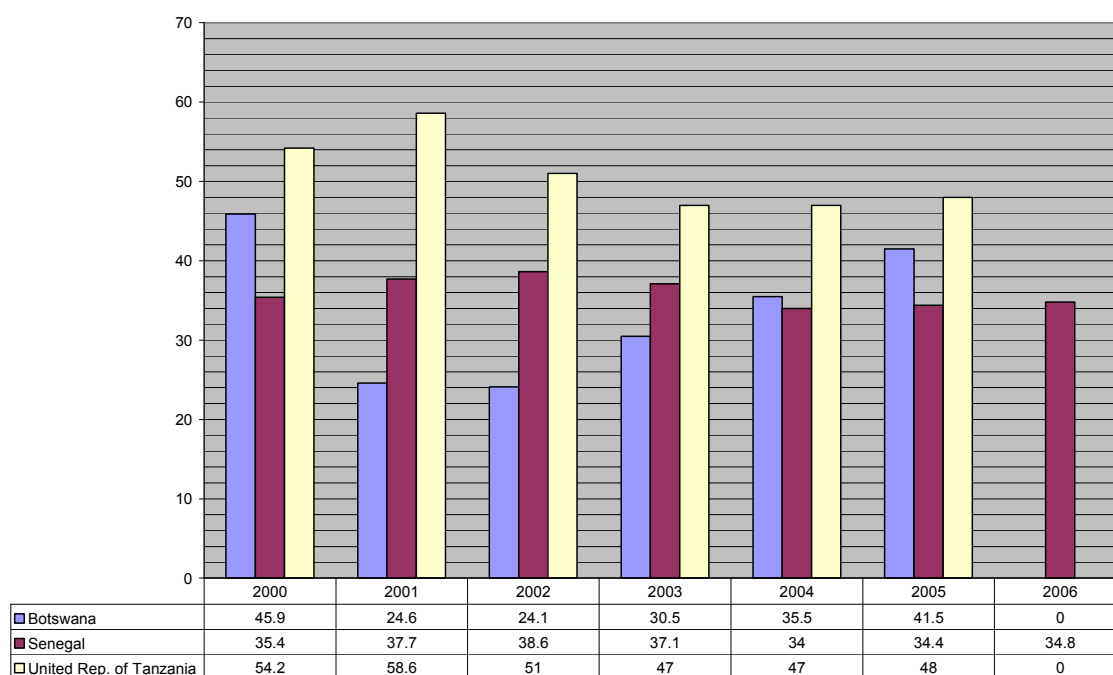
In 1999, the tourism industry according to the Department of Tourism accounted for 4.5% of total employment in Botswana employing up to 10,000 people. In some parts of the country like in the north western region of Botswana, in 1997 tourism accounted for up to 70% of all jobs according to The Botswana National Atlas. Estimates published in 2003 showed that some 15,000 people were directly employed in the tourism sector especially in the Okavango Delta and the Chobe regions where most of the tourist facilities were located. Just like in Tanzania, most of those employed in the tourism industry were in low ranking and unskilled jobs with very low wages (Mbaiwa, 2005a). The WTTC estimated that in 2008, 25,000 direct industry jobs representing 4.4% of total employment or 60,000 direct and indirect jobs representing 10.7% of total employment in Botswana were generated by the tourism industry; and by 2018, the travel and tourism economy of Botswana will grow by an additional 3.0% accounting for 80,000 jobs in the country (WTTC, 2008c; Mbaiwa, 2005a; Mintel Report, 2005).

3.2.5 Hotel and accommodation facilities

Hotels and accommodation facilities play an important role in tourism development. Considering the fact that most holiday tourists to Africa are from Europe or the U.S.A., it is very important for the accommodation facilities to be constructed to meet western standards.

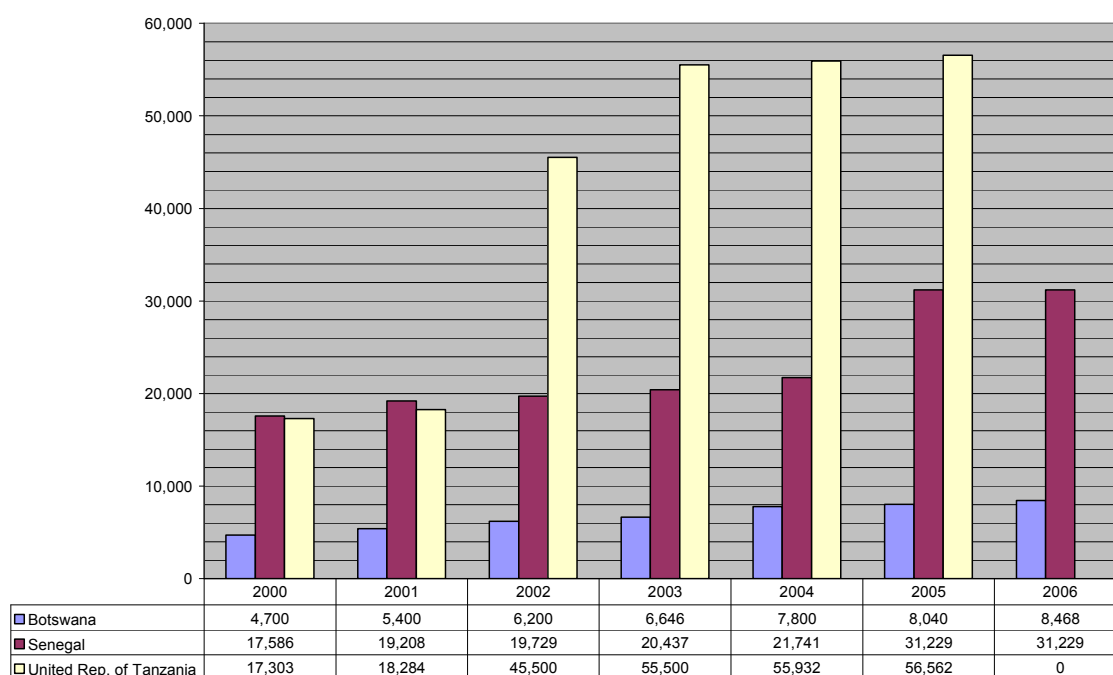
Movements within the tourism industry are also indicated by the number of bed units and the hotel occupancy rates. The data from the three sample countries suggests an almost constant rate of hotel occupation with Tanzania having the highest occupancy rates at almost 50% annually while that of Botswana has been steadily increasing since 2001. In addition, the number of bed places in all three countries has been steadily increasing indicating that there is demand for more sleeping spaces by the tourists especially during the peak seasons (Figure 3.7a, 3.7b).

Figure 3.7a: Hotel occupancy rate (in %), 2000 - 2006.



Source: UNWTO, 2007a; 2009

Figure 3.7b: Number of bed places (units in '000) 2000-2006.



Source: UNWTO, 2007a; 2009

Due to the fact that diaspora and beach tourism are the principal forms of tourism practised in Senegal, the main accommodation infrastructures and hotel complexes are concentrated around Dakar where most of these points of interest are located.

These are on the 660 km² stretch of land called the Petite Côte between Dakar and Joal and in the nearby Sali resort complex, as well as in the Casamance region in the south on the area centred on Mbour. Most of the hotel complexes here are owned by French transnational hotel chains, and the top management in these hotels is made up mostly of expatriates. The transnational hotel chains were encouraged to construct in Senegal by the government which introduced a Tourism Code containing incentives for investment in addition to those in the Investment Code. The effect of these incentives can be clearly seen in the number of bed units which have almost doubled from 17,586 in 2000 to 31,229 in 2006 (Figure 3.7b). Other forms of accommodations like the *campements* exist in villages where village tourism is practised. These are houses built using traditional building materials, techniques and styles. They contain very basic furniture and the meals are cooked in the village in traditional style (Diagne, 2004; Buckley, 2003; WTO, 2007a).

Latest figures show that there has been rapid growth in the accommodation infrastructure in Tanzania after the demise of socialism in 1990. Before then, there were only fifteen government owned and managed hotels and any foreign investments in tourism was discouraged, but the introduction of political reforms after 1990 and the liberalisation of the economy made it possible for many private and foreign companies to begin investing in the country, thereby providing hotels of international quality standards (Wade *et al.*, 2001). Thus since 2000, there has been the entrance of many small scale safari operations in the market as well as the construction of a good number of high quality hotels leading to a remarkable increase in the number of rooms and bed units from 17 303 in 2000 to 55 562 units in 2005 even though the majority are foreign owned and managed (Figure 3.7b). For the past five years, occupancy rates in Tanzanian tourist accommodation establishments have been hovering around 50% which is one of the highest in Africa. In 2005 the occupancy rate stood at 48%, a far cry from the peak period of 2000 when the occupancy rate was 54.2% but this was still better than 2004 when the occupancy rate was 47% (Figure 3.7a).

In Botswana and Tanzania where safari tourism is one of the principal forms of tourism, exclusive lodges and camps are the main form of accommodation near the national parks and reserves while large hotels can only be found in the major cities of Gaborone (Botswana), and Dar es Salaam, Arusha and the island of Zanzibar (Tanzania) where large resort hotels were built throughout the 1990s, mostly on the east coast (Gössling and Schulz, 2005).

Botswana's tourism policy of 1990 which emphasised the promotion of high-cost low-volume tourism has led to the development of an exclusive up-market (enclave) tourism product in most parts of the country especially in the Okavango Delta. The main visitors are wealthy tourists from the United States and Western Europe. The number of new accommodation infrastructure has been steadily rising from 4700 bed places in 2000 to 7800 in 2004 (Figure 3.7b). In addition, the hotel occupancy rate which was above 45% in 2000 but dropped steeply after September 11 2001 is gradually being approached. In 2003 demand for accommodation was already on the rise and by 2005 demand by international tourists for accommodation in peak season was outstripping supply by around 20% (according to industry estimates), with no rooms in camps where occupancy was generally high. Annual occupancy rate for rooms stood at 41% in 2005 and the occupancy rate for beds had also risen from 19% in 2001 to 36% in 2005 (Figures 3.7a and 3.7b; Mbaiwa, 2005b; WTO, 2007a; WTTC, 2007). It should be noted that more than half the tourists to Botswana do not stay in commercial accommodation, with 51% living at the homes of friends or relatives and hotels accounting for just 21% of room nights spent by tourists, 8% lodge in lodges and safari camps and the remainder stay in private camp sites or rented private accommodation (WTTC, 2007). Worthy of note is also the fact that just like in Senegal, more than half of the entire tourist accommodation infrastructure in Botswana is owned by foreigners resulting in serious leakages to the economy (Mbaiwa, 2005a and 2005b).

3.2.6 Evolution of tourism legislation during the last decades

3.2.6.1 Senegal

Together with the World Bank, a regional Tourist Development Plan was drafted in 1972 covering the Casamance, the Fleuve and the Petite Côte regions in order to bring some form of control to the haphazard and uncontrolled development of beach front areas prior to this period.

- A special investment code which offered various incentives (e.g. cheap land, low-interests loans and tax rebates) to potential tourism investors was also instituted in 1972 with the aim of promoting regional development and facilitating decentralisation.
- This was followed in 1975, with the creation by the Senegalese government of the *Société d'aménagement de la petite côte* (SAPCO) to help in the systematic promotion of Senegal as a tourism destination and coordinate the development of the Petite Côte project (Diagne, 2004).

It is worth mentioning that most of the tourism legislation enacted in the 1970s was primarily geared towards profit maximisation. Little concern was paid towards the negative impacts of tourism development on the environment (Diagne, 2004).

- Since 2000, the tourism development strategy has been revised as part of the formulation of the Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP), finalized in 2002. The objectives of the revised development strategy are to build on what has already been achieved (renewal of the infrastructure) and to expand tourism potential, as well as to raise involvement by Senegalese citizens in operating this sector so as to increase the positive impact on jobs and pay. Senegal hopes to attract 500,000 tourists a year over the next five years (Government of Senegal, 2002).
- A new Tourism Code containing incentives for investment in addition to those in the Investment Code was introduced by the government in 2003. Stated in this code is the Senegalese government's determination to continue to build new sites, actively promote tourism to Senegal in Europe, adopt an air transport policy that is more conducive to tourism development and fight insecurity thereby guaranteeing tourists healthier and more secure environments which are some of the problems faced by the tourist industry in the country (WTO, 2003b).

3.2.6.2. Tanzania

Unlike Senegal, which as far back as 1971 saw the need to place tourism as one of its key developmental goals, Tanzania also discovered the importance of tourism to the country's economy immediately after independence but the lack of resources to develop the industry, limited and lumpy investments, mismanagement of the existing infrastructure and its shift in the 1970s towards socialism discouraged foreign capitalist investments and contributed in slowing the development of tourism (Curry, 1990). Tourism became a major focal point with substantial investments being made only after the early 1990s with the demise of the socialist state. However a good number major tourism legislation date back to the 1960s and 1970s even though many only started being practically implemented after 1990. These include:

- The Hotel Act of 1963 which provided for the creation of a hotel board to be in charge of licensing, classifying and inspecting hotels as well as creating and enforcing industry standards. Lack of sufficient funds and socialist inefficiency made it impossible for the board to be created;
- The Tourist Agents (Licensing) Act was instituted in 1969 and has survived till date. It provides the legal framework for the licensing of tourist agents and

outfitters and stipulates levies and fees paid by outfitters and trophy hunters (Baker, 1997);

- The Hotel Levy Act instituted in 1972 which stated that hotels had to pay a levy to the state on the accommodation and food charges received from guests;
- The Tanzania National Tourist Board Act of 1992 which stipulated the creation of Tanzania Tourist Board. Part of its responsibilities was to ensure funding for research and developmental projects in tourism but this has not been the case as budgetary constraints have always been a problem (Wade *et al.*, 2001);
- The Policy and Management Plan for Tourist Hunting which includes the Wildlife Policy formulated in 1998 describing the development of Wildlife Management Areas (WMAs) which are managed by local communities and demands that the outfitters contribute to the development of the communities where they have concessions (Baldus and Cauldwell, 2004);
- The Tanzania National Parks Authority (TANAPA) which is the management authority for Tanzania's national parks and an important player in the tourism sector. TANAPA is directly responsible for the control, management, administration and maintenance of all national parks and conservation areas (Mintel Report, 2007b).

3.2.6.2 Botswana

As from the 1980s but more in the 1990s, the government of Botswana began implementing policies and legislation towards ensuring both environmental sustainability and active stakeholder participation after having realised the enormous potential of the tourism industry as a tool for socio-economic development. Some of the main policies and legislation instituted included:

- The Wildlife Conservation Policy implemented in 1986 which prescribed the utilization of wildlife resources of Botswana on a sustainable basis;
- The Botswana Tourism Policy in 1990 aimed at providing "*local communities with direct and indirect benefits from tourism activities...*" thereby encouraging the local communities to appreciate the value not only of wildlife and the need for conservation but to actively participate in other wildlife based industries including tourism for their own socio-economic advancement especially in the rural areas (Government of Botswana, 1990, p.6; Kaynak and Marandu, 2006).

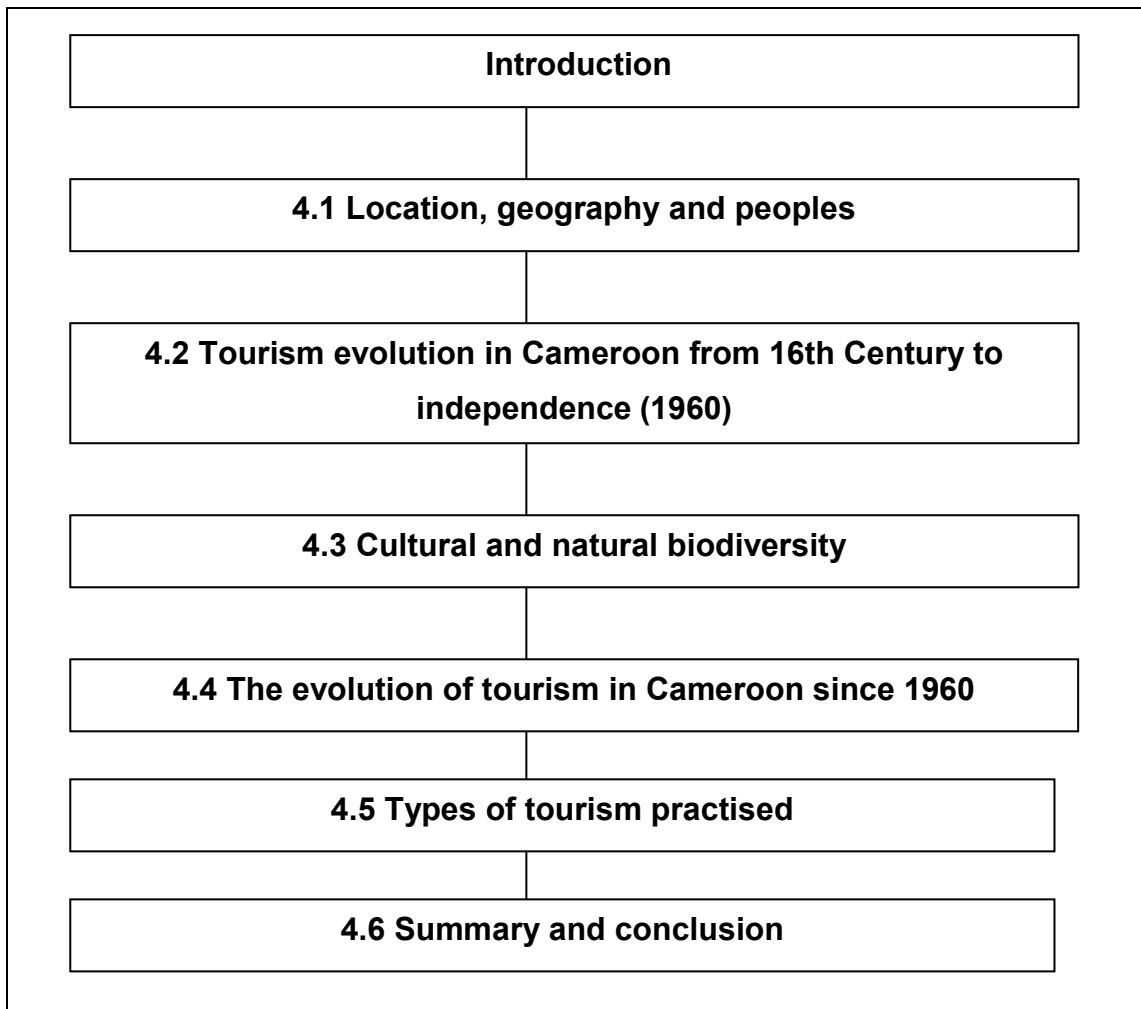
- The Wildlife Conservation and National Parks Act of 1992 governing the protection and sustainable utilisation of wildlife, making provisions for protected areas, clearly defining landholders and stipulating their privileges;
- The Tourist Act, 1992 and Tourism Regulations, 1996 authorising the Tourism Industry Licensing Board to licence, grade, and regulate tourism facilities;
- The Tourism Industry Training Fund Order, 1996, which was aimed at improving the skills of tourism employees;
- A Tourism Master Plan instituted in 2000 which shifted the emphasis from 'low-volume, high-cost' to 'modified high-volume, mixed-price' tourist development.
- A National Ecotourism Strategy implemented in March 2002 which replaced the Tourism Master Plan of 2000. The goal was to support and encourage product diversification, active and profitable community involvement in the tourism industry through Community Based Natural Resources Management (CBNRM), as well as help in enhancing the image of Botswana abroad, generate resources for conservation while at the same time minimising the negative socio-cultural and environmental impacts among others (Mbaiwa *et al.*, 2002; Mbaiwa, 2003b; Mbaiwa, 2005a; Botswana Tourism Board, 2007);
- The National Ecotourism Strategy (NES 2002) which directly invited and supported the communities to venture into ecotourism through the development of Community Based Tourism (CBT)¹⁶ projects built on the ideals of the CBNRM;
- The Botswana Tourism Board (BTB) established in 2003 with the responsibility of managing and overseeing all the operational functions of the tourism sector including marketing, investment promotion and grading of tourism, as well as a Tourism Development Fund to provide technical and financial support to community and citizen-owned projects (UNWTO-Botswana 2000; WTO, 2002b).

¹⁶ Community Based Tourism can be described as "tourism initiatives that are owned by one or more communities as joint venture partnerships with the private sector with equitable community participation, as a means of using natural resources in a sustainable manner to improve their standard of living in an economic and viable way" (Department of Tourism of Botswana, 2007).

3.3 Summary and conclusion

Various socio-cultural, historical and geo-political factors (from slavery through colonialism to floral and faunal distribution as well as climatic conditions and the legal political economy in West, Central, South and East Africa) have all contributed in one way or another to the growth of the different varieties of tourism in the different regions and countries examined where apart from the Central African sub-region, the tourism industry has become a very important contributor to the GDP as well as an increasingly important avenue for employment. This success has been spurred by the recognition of the increasingly important role played by tourism nowadays and the resultant importance placed on the industry by the various governments of these countries on tourism. This has led to the passage, updating and implementation of legislation, policies and better management institutions during the last three decades favourable for sustainable tourism growth. The effects of these policies were clearly visible in the analysis of both the primary and secondary tourism indicators of Senegal, Tanzania and Botswana. How Cameroon in particular, which is the main focus of this research has fared in terms of sustainable tourism development and management will be the subject of analysis in the subsequent chapter.

4. Overview of tourism development and management in Cameroon



Introduction

This chapter examines the evolution of the tourism industry in Cameroon from pre-colonial through the colonial period to the present as well as its tourism resources. In this respect, the achievements of the various colonial powers during their period of administration and the impact of these trans-national and multicultural encounters will be examined and documented. An overview of the country will also be made and an inventory of existing and potential natural and cultural tourism resources and tourist regions of the country will be done. Emphasis in the second part of this chapter is placed on the evolution of the tourism industry in Cameroon after independence in 1960, but most especially since 2000. In order to get a clear picture of the present state of Cameroon's tourism industry (in relation to the other countries previously examined), available data on primary and secondary tourism indicators from 2000 – 2007 will be analysed to see the direction of growth, decline or stagnation of the Cameroon's tourism industry.

4.1 Location, geography and peoples

Cameroon has always been described as “all of Africa in one country” because of its geographical, cultural and natural biodiversity. Located at the crossroads between West and Central Africa with English and French as the official languages, Cameroon has a total surface area of 475 442 km² and had a population of about 19.4 million inhabitants in January 2010. In 2005, the literacy rate was estimated at 81.1 percent, making it one of the highest in the African continent (NIS, 2005; BBC, 2008c; Lukong, 2010).

It is bound by Equatorial Guinea to the southwest, Gabon to the south, Congo to the southeast, the Central African Republic to the east, Chad to the northeast, Nigeria to the northwest and the Gulf of Guinea to the southwest. Cameroon can be divided into four topographical zones thus:

- A low coastal plain in the south opening into the Atlantic Ocean which has equatorial rain forests and swamp lands as its main characteristics;
- a savannah covered plateau near its centre known as the Adamaoua Plateau that stretches through the North West and Western Regions (where it is known as the Grassfield) into south eastern Nigeria;
- a mountainous area in the west which is covered in forests and has an active volcano, the Mount Cameroon (the highest mountain in West and Central Africa at 4,095m) in the south western part;

- a rolling sub arid savannah or sahelian vegetation in the northern region which is drained by the Bénoué and Kébi Rivers that flow through into the Niger River basin in Nigeria as well as the Logone and Chari Rivers which flow into the Lake Chad Basin. The other principal rivers in the south are the Wouri, Sanaga, Dibamba, Nyong and Ntem which all drain into the Atlantic Ocean as well as the Ngoko River which joins the Sangha River in the east of the country and flows into the Congo River Basin (Benneh, 2008; Neba, 1987; Ngwa, 1978).

Map 4.1: Physical map of Cameroon



Source: www.maps.com, 2010

Cameroon has a tropical climate which varies from equatorial in the south to semi-arid or sahelian in the north. The sahelian climate in the north has a wet season between April and September while the rest of the year is dry. Average annual precipitation for this region is between 1,000 and 1,750 mm. The equatorial south has two wet seasons and two dry seasons with one wet season between March and June and the great wet season between August and November while one short dry season is between July and August and the great dry season is from November to March. Average temperature range varies in each part of the country. In the capital

Yaoundé for example, temperature ranges are from 18°C to 29°C (64°F to 84°F) with an average annual precipitation of 4,030mm. The western part of the country (i.e. from the River Sanaga in the Littoral Region right up to the North West Region) just like the north has just two seasons, the short dry season being suppressed by the pseudo-tropical climate brought about by the Guinean monsoon. However, unlike the northern region, the wet season is longer starting in March and ending around the middle of November, while the remainder of the year is dry (Molua and Lambi, 2007). Though three main linguistic groups are identified in Cameroon; the Bantu-speaking peoples of the south, the Sudanic speaking peoples of the north and the semi-Bantu speaking peoples in the west, Cameroon's ethnic composition is varied and diverse with more than 250 distinct ethnic groups speaking more than 270 languages making it one of the countries in the world with the highest number of ethnicities and spoken languages (Paden and Soya, 1970; Benneh, 2008). The principal ethnic groups consist of the Cameroon Highlanders who account for 31% of the population, the Equatorial Bantu for 19%, the Kirdi for 11%, the Fulani for 10%, the North-western Bantu for 8% and the Nigrific for 7%, other African groups make up 13%, and non-African less than 1% of the population (Benneh, 2008; Paden and Soya, 1970). As concerns religion, around 25% of the population follow local native tribal beliefs while Christians account for 53% and 22% are Muslims, especially in the northern part of Cameroon where most of the population was converted to Islam in the 17th and 18th centuries (Neba, 1987; Ngwa, 1978).

Map 4.2: Political map of Cameroon



(Source: www.mapsofworld.com, 1992)

4.2 Tourism evolution in Cameroon from 16th Century to independence (1960)

This section examines the evolution of tourism in Cameroon from the 16th Century to right up till independence, starting with the trade in slaves and other raw materials through organised scientific, ethnographic collections and military expeditions by explorers and colonialists, to the development and trade in specialised arts and crafts in some regions.

4.2.1 The pre-colonial period and the slave trade

Present day Cameroon, according to archaeological reports, has been inhabited since prehistoric times, evidence of which can be found in the grottos of the prehistoric sites located in the Makabai Mountains near Maroua in the north of the country. The first recorded mention of Cameroon was done by the Carthaginian sailor Hanno sometime around the 5th Century BC when he is said to have witnessed the eruption of Mount Cameroon which he described as the “chariot of the gods” (Hart, 1926). The original inhabitants of Cameroon are however the traditionally nomadic, culture-rich but continuously marginalised Baka Pygmies who today live in swathes of the equatorial forests in the southern and eastern parts of Cameroon as well as in Gabon and Congo (Campagnoli, 2005; Keane, 2008).

It is known that the Sao people coming from the north settled around the Lake Chad area in the north of Cameroon sometime around the 5th Century AD. Here a flourishing civilisation developed reaching its peak around the 12th to the 15th Century A.D., with craftsmen making use of both the ‘burnt-earth’ techniques for producing terracotta sculptures and artefacts as well as using smelting techniques for producing bronze and copper artefacts. The relics of this civilisation can be found nowadays in jars, masks, statues, money and items of jewellery (bracelets and pendants) produced during this period (ICOM, 2000; Lebeuf and Lebeuf, 1977). The decline of the Sao civilisation started sometime in the 14th Century when they were attacked and defeated by the Karnemboa (Kotoko State) who were also later defeated and incorporated into the neighbouring Bornu Empire that had risen to prominence in the 19th Century and converted to Islam. The surviving Sao tribes were forced to withdraw and take refuge in the mountainous terrain of northern Cameroon and round the Lake Chad area where many relics of this once prosperous civilisation have been discovered by archaeologists (Lebeuf and Lebeuf, 1977; Mveng, 1963; Njeuma, 1989).

In the 14th Century, the Fangs settled in the Centre and South of Cameroon followed by the first Bantu and semi-Bantu groups (Bakaka, Bamilekes, Banens, Bassa, Ewondo and Tikar) who are reported to have settled in Cameroon and Central Africa sometime in the 15th Century on the central plains of the River Sanaga as well as on the Adamaoua and western high plateau in the West and North West Regions (Ngoh, 1987; Mveng, 1963).

Between the 15th and 17th Century, various groups settled in Cameroon coming in from various angles. Sudanese tribes (e.g. Massa and Toupouri) and the stockbreeding Peuhls and Fulbes migrated from Abyssinia and eastern Sudan through Mali, Senegal and Nigeria and finally settled in the north of Cameroon and intermarried with the existing tribes (Ngoh, 1987; Mveng, 1963).

However, in recent times, modern day Cameroon is said to have been 'discovered' by Portuguese explorers led by Fernao Do Poo who first landed on the island of Bioko in 1472 (Bouchaud, 1946). On sailing up the Wouri River, the sailors are said to have been amazed by the number of prawns found in the river that they decided to name it *Rio dos Cameroes* (river of prawns) (Mveng, 1963). This name was eventually translated into *Camerones* by the Spaniards, *Kamerun* by the Germans and Cameroon by the English (Ardener, 2003).

Even though the Portuguese were the first to arrive on the coasts of Cameroon, they were mainly interested in trading with the local coastal tribes especially the Dualas. The harsh climate coupled with the hostility of some of the native tribes did not permit any exploration of the interior until later (Austen and Derrick, 1999; Ngoh, 1987). Initially, the trade which was mostly in the form of barter saw Portuguese rum, glass beads and receptacles, cloth, copper and salt being exchanged for ivory, pepper, rubber, palm oil and other tropical goods. However, with the popularisation of the trans-Atlantic slave trade at the start of the 16th Century right up to its abolition in the 1850s, the trade in African slaves eventually came to supersede the trade in all the other commodities (Rawley and Behrendt, 2005; Behrendt, 2003; Richardson, 2001; Rowlands, 1998).

The Slave Trade in Central Africa was spearheaded by the Portuguese and Dutch who had lost their sphere of influence in West Africa where it had initially been concentrated. They spread eastwards thereby opening up new markets and sources for raw materials along the Central African coast right down to Cabinda in Angola which eventually became one of the main slaving ports in the 17th and 18th Centuries (Rawley and Behrendt 2005; Lovejoy, 2000).

Before the start of the trans-Atlantic slave trade, slavery was already being practised in most parts of Cameroon in the forest regions of the South West Region and in the

Adamoua Region of north Cameroon. However, slaves during this period were mostly intertribal war captives who were sold to other influential kingdoms like the Bamoun where they worked on the farms and in household chores (Weiss, 2000; Eckert, 1999; Njeuma, 1989; Mveng, 1963). The arrival of the Europeans and their demand for slaves among other goods helped to fuel the trade between the central Grassfield and the Atlantic coast. Thus raiding expeditions by powerful tribes to weaker villages became frequent during which villagers were captured and sold as slaves to European vessels (Fomin and Ngoh, 1998).

However, unlike in West Africa, there are very few physical or permanent vestiges of slavery that can be seen in Cameroon and other Central African countries nowadays because the European slave traders preferred to use only the islands of Sao Tome and Principe (where European owned plantations already existed) as their main *entrepot* for slaves from the sub-region (Miers and Klein, 1999; Mveng, 1963). Memories of the Slave Trade in this region can only be found in written records such as the Du Bois dataset and an extensive body of oral tradition (stories) from this period that has passed down from one generation to the other (Austen and Derrick, 1999; Austen, 2001).

With the abolition of the official Slave Trade, starting from 1834 in Britain, European traders who had previously avoided settling and going into the interior of Central Africa and Cameroon in particular began expanding and intensifying trade in other commodities such as palm oil, rubber and ivory. This was accelerated after the introduction of Christianity to the coastal region by Joseph Merrick and other ex-slaves from Jamaica in 1814. The result was the formation of the first permanent European settlements three decades later in Douala and Limbe (formerly Victoria) by the English engineer and Baptist missionary Alfred Saker in 1845 and 1858 respectively (Messina and Slageren, 2005; Weber, 1993; Joseph, 1980). However, due to the fact that Britain at this time was more concerned about strengthening its grip on the newly acquired East and West African territories, it was slow to take action concerning Cameroon and on July 12 1884, Gustav Nachtigal on behalf of the German Kaiser (Wilhelm II) signed a treaty with the chiefs of Douala making the area (initially around the Wouri River) a German protectorate in return for trade advantages and paving the way for the exploration of the interior (Fanso, 1989; Ngoh, 1987; DeLorme *et al.*, 1986; Austen, 1983). The Germans were thus the first real foreign explorers/tourists to Cameroon.

4.2.2 Colonialism 1884 – 1960

4.2.2.1 Cameroon under German administration (1884-1919)

With the formal annexation of Cameroon by Germany in 1884, serious exploration of Cameroon's interior commenced. Even though the Douala tribes along the coastal region peacefully welcomed the Germans, other powerful and warring tribes in the interior were not very happy with this arrangement leading to punitive expeditions and wars being undertaken by the Germans against these rebellious tribes all through the period of German colonisation (1884 – 1919). Many causes have been attributed to the wars between the natives and the Germans, but the most important seemed to have been the attempt by the natives to protect their inland trade monopolies and middle men status from the Germans, while the powerful hinterland tribes were trying to protect their independence and hegemony over other tribes (Quinn, 1989).

In the Grassland region where the colonial administration was not very welcome, punitive expeditions and wars in which the Germans were often successful (due to their superior fire power and help from weaker tribes) were undertaken against the tradition and culture-rich Bangwa, Bafut, Mankon, Kom and Nso *fondoms*¹⁷ between 1901 and 1906. These *fondoms* were eventually defeated after serious resistance, their palaces pillaged and all important artefacts looted as war booty. The defeated chiefs were forced to swear allegiance to the colonial occupier, pay reparations and supply labourers for road construction and work in newly opened plantations on the foot of Mount Cameroon (Kimbu, 2005; Chilver and Röschenthaler, 2002; Ngoh, 1987; Geary, 1983; Chilver and Kabery, 1960; Wright, 1901). German administration of Cameroon came to an end in 1919 when she was dispossessed of all her overseas colonial dominions including Cameroon after defeat in the First World War.

4.2.2.2 Cameroon under English and French mandate/trusteeship (1919 - 1960)

At the end of the First World War in 1919, Germany was forced to relinquish all her colonies to the newly created League of Nations which then handed them over to the victorious powers (Britain, France and the U.S.A). Cameroon was partitioned

¹⁷ A *fondom* is the territory over which the principal traditional rulers of the major Grassfield tribes of Cameroon rule. The rulers of largest Grassfield tribes are called *fons*. During the colonial period, the dominion of a *fon* usually covered many villages some of which had been subjugated through wars. These villages were in turn ruled by vassals appointed by the *fon* and loyal to him. They usually paid an annual tribute to the *fon* especially at the end of the harvesting season (usually between August and September) and also supplied soldiers during warring campaigns against other tribes.

between Britain and France, Britain gaining control of the western part of Cameroon (about a third of the total territory) and France controlling the rest. The Cameroons was then administered first as mandated territories of the League of Nations between 1922 and 1945 and later as trust territories of the United Nations Organisation from 1946 till both territories were granted independence in 1960 and reunited in October 1961 (Fanso, 1999; Ngoh, 1987; Mveng, 1963).

The British and the French did not have the fervour, ardour and candour which the Germans had adopted in developing Cameroon. Unlike the Germans who had seen Cameroon as the base for opening up a new African empire linking up their west and east African territories, the new colonial masters, however, invested very little in developing the resources because Cameroon was just a mandated territory of the League of Nations and not a colony. They simply took over and used most of the infrastructure left by the Germans whose traders were left to carry on work in commerce and industry as well as in plantation agriculture after the war.

The British preferred a system of indirect rule and concentrated their efforts more on Nigeria and other colonies. Thus very little infrastructural developments and investments were undertaken in West Cameroon during this period apart from using the territory to foster their territorial influence and as a source of raw materials (Ngoh, 1987; Joseph, 1975).

In East Cameroon, the French unlike the British adopted a policy of direct and sometimes oppressive rule. They saw the territory as part of France, albeit at an inferior position and it was governed directly from France with French laws being applied to the natives, except in the *lamidats*¹⁸ of north Cameroon where a policy of accommodation was established (Abwa, 1989). However, just like the British, very little infrastructural developments were undertaken leading to opposition from educated elites which then blossomed into open rebellion and armed confrontation in some parts of East Cameroon in the decade leading up to independence in 1960 (Ateba, 1988; Ngoh, 1987).

Very few cultural monuments of any touristic value can thus be attributed to the period of British and French rule in Cameroon but it is worth mentioning that, the British were good at preservation and conservation. As a result, upon gaining

¹⁸ *Lamidat* is the territory over which a *lamido* rules. The term *lamido* is mostly employed in the northern parts of Cameroon and Nigeria where Islam is the predominant religion to refer to the ruler of the 'kingdom'. Before colonisation, the territories could be very vast depending on the military might of the *lamido*. Just like with the *fondoms*, it was often made up of tribes which had been defeated during military campaigns and these tribes and villages were then incorporated and amalgamated into the *lamidat*.

independence in 1960, West Cameroon had well developed and organised museums in all the main towns (Bamenda and Buea among others) and an efficient and well preserved archival system, as well as properly maintained natural parks and reserves that had been taken over from the Germans (Mbunwe-Samba, 2001). A good number of these facilities such as the Bamenda and Buea museums and archives in West Cameroon fell into ruins or became barely accessible with most of their artefacts having been taken to the national museum in Yaoundé after reunification in 1961 and the rest publicly destroyed or left to decay and rot by the resident francophone administrators (Mbunwe-Samba, 2001). It was only at the beginning of the 1990s that restoration work on some of these facilities began with financial and technical assistance coming mainly from the British Government and European Union member countries.

With regards to biodiversity conservation, though the French colonial administration can be credited for having laid the foundations of the Waza National Park in 1934 and the Dja Faunal Reserve in 1950, as well as other parks and reserves in East Cameroon, they were used primarily as hunting grounds. This was the period when big game hunting was at its peak and Cameroon was the only French colony whose topography, climate and most especially its diverse faunal population favoured this type of tourism (Riley and Riley, 2005).

4.3 Cultural and natural biodiversity

Being one of the few countries in the world with more than 250 different ethnic groups and spoken languages, Cameroon is a melting pot of cultures and traditions. These are manifested in the architecture, local cuisine, dressing, music, song, and dance during celebrations and ceremonies which are numerous all year round. This cultural diversity is further enhanced by Cameroon's rich triple colonial heritage (German, English and French), influences and remnants (especially from the German period) which are scattered across the country, as well as by the country's topography and climate which have made the floral and faunal biodiversity one of the richest on the African continent.

4.3.1 Colonial and cultural heritage

The German colonialists were one of the first Europeans to discover the intrinsic beauty and exotic nature of African arts and cultures and can be said to be the first overseas tourists to Cameroon where they settled and established resorts in regions that had climates similar to that of Germany. This was facilitated by the fact that

unlike other colonial powers, the Germans travelling to the colonies were well trained (in institutes such as the Berlin School for Oriental Studies opened in 1887, the Witzenhausen Colonial School opened in 1899 and the Hamburg Colonial Institute opened in 1907) by teachers assisted by Africans in the main languages, customs and traditions of the areas to which they were being sent. This not only facilitated communication with the indigenes, especially in trading relations, but greatly enhanced their understanding and appreciation of local cultures (Spidle, 1973). This policy made Germany the leader in the study of African subjects, led to a better understanding and appreciation not only of the culture and arts of the colonies but also led to better preparation, organisation and execution of exploration trips by all sorts of adventurers, researchers and collectors to the colonies during this period (Crabtree, 1914).

In 1896, the colonial capital was transferred from Douala with its hot and humid climate to Buea at the foot of Mount Cameroon with its mild and cold mosquito-free climate. In addition, Bamenda in the North West, Yaoundé in the Centre and Banyo in the North Region were developed as regional capitals because of their climate; while Foumban and Dschang (with their pleasantly cool climate located at an altitude of 10,800m above sea level) were developed and used as resorts. The colonial administrators and settlers sought refuge here during the dry seasons which could be quite hot and humid especially in the coastal region (Kimbu, 2005; Cameroon Tourism Office, 2008).

A good mastery of Africa meant that the pioneers to the Cameroon interiors were trained explorer/ethnographers and almost all of them irrespective of their profession (traders, missionaries, researchers, military administrators) were collectors of Cameroonian art objects which was a very lucrative and thriving business at the time due to the increase in the appreciation of African (exotic) art in Europe in the late 18th and 19th centuries. This had two consequences thus:

The first was that as early as 1889, there were already expositions of art (stools, pillars, doorposts, statues, masks, containers covered with symbolic, metaphorical and iconographic reliefs and motifs as well as motifs from every day life) from the colonies most of which came from Cameroon on display at colonial fairs, at the Berlin Ethnographic Museum, as well as in other museums across Germany. These expositions actually attracted huge audiences and spurred many other ethnographers and explorers to visit hitherto unopened areas in Cameroon (and the colonies) not only for trade but also for the collection of 'ethnographic' material. Examples of such collector/traders included:

- Max Esser, who became the first colonial tycoon and managing director of the largest German plantation company in Cameroon in 1896. Esser later bequeathed his impressive collection of Cameroon art works and ethnographic objects to the Linden Museum in Stuttgart (Chilver and Röschenthaler, 2002);
- Dr Eugen Zintgraff was the first German explorer to reach the Bali *fondom* in the western Grassfield region in 1896 on a trip sponsored by the Berlin Ethnological Museum. During his trip, he collected a considerable amount of objects (intricately carved wooden works i.e. pillars, doorframes, lattices, doors, stools, tables, etc) which displayed the finesse of Bali architecture and arts, which he donated to the Berlin Museum and other ethnological museums in Germany (Geary, 1983);
- Captain Hans Ramsay together with Lieutenant Sandrock, representatives of the *Gessellschaft Nordwest Kamerun* (trading concession) were the first Europeans to reach the capital of the prosperous, orderly and well administered Bamoun Sultanate of Fouban in west Cameroon in June 1902 Ramsay described it as the epitome of Grassland civilisation. The workers were organised into various guilds (the most conspicuous being the carvers and blacksmiths guilds who worked on commissions and whose conspicuous sculptures and carvings adorned the royal palaces and residences as well as the residences of notables). Some of the objects which Ramsay collected in Fouban eventually made their way to museums in Germany. He even successfully coerced Sultan Njoya of Fouban to send his famous throne as a gift to the German Kaiser, Wilhelm II in 1908. This throne has been on permanent display in the Berlin Ethnological Museum ever since (Kimbu, 2005; Geary, 1983).

The second consequence was that it sparked a collection frenzy not only among museums in Germany who began financing collection expeditions to the colonies (between 1888 and 1889, more than 20 000 objects were received at the Berlin Ethnological Museum alone, more than two thirds of which came from the Cameroon Grassland), but also among explorers of all categories especially the colonial (military) administrators who were sent to open up the hinterlands and pacify opposing tribes, thereby paving the way for the traders. Resisting tribes were brutally pacified and looted, all important and significant art works taken as war booty which were then sent to museums especially to the Berlin Ethnological Museum but also to those of Munich, Leipzig and Stuttgart in Germany (where a good number are on display today), or sold to wealthy Germans who displayed them in their private

collections (Baessler Archiv, 1973). Notable military administrators/collectors included Captain Hans Glauning, Captain Hans Dominik, Commandant Pavel and Lieutenant von Putlitz who during a punitive expedition in 1905 confiscated the two very important royal figures (*Afo-a-Kom*) of the Kom *fondom* presently on display at the Berlin Ethnological Museum (Kimbu, 2005).

In the western Grassfield (West, North West and parts of the South West Region) and in some parts of the Adamaoua Region of Cameroon, the rich cultural heritage that the colonial powers discovered is still being lived in all its splendour and richness. The palaces of the *fons* (of Bafut, Bangwa, Bali, Bansa, Bandjoun for example), the Sultan, (of Foumban) in western Cameroon, and to a lesser extent those of the *lamidos* (of Rey Bouba, Ngaoundal and Ngaoundéré in the Adamaoua and Northern Region of Cameroon), still have buildings and structures dating back to the era of German colonisation, some of which are used as residences and palace museums (Gebauer, 1971). On display (in the palace museums of Foumban, Bali and Bafut) are artefacts and objects dating from the colonial period and before to the present day. On the other hand, Cameroonian owned or constructed colonial masterpieces such as the Douala palace of King Manga Bell and the aristocratic residence of David Mandessi-Bell (*anno* 1904) and Woermann House (*anno* 1902) in Douala are crumbling and in dire need of restoration (Lauber, 1988).

In Foumban, there is also a renowned artists' street which dates back to early 20th Century. Here, the best carvers exercised their profession and produced all sorts of products and artefacts for sale to the local population and also to the colonial settlers/visitors then and nowadays to tourists (Fowler, 1997; Geary, 1981). In addition, the palaces of the *fons* were (and are still being) constructed by occasionally mixing western techniques with the intricately designed traditional architectural styles and adorned with masterfully carved artworks and ornamentations or by using purely traditional techniques.

The architecture together with the traditional annual dances and celebrations (like the *lela* in Bali, the *Abin-e-Mfor* in Bafut, the *Ngondo* among the Sawa, the *Nyem-Nyem* in Ngaoundéré and the biennial *Nguon* in Foumban among others whose origins predate the 19th Century), that normally take place in these *fondoms* and *lamidats* in which the indigenes of the different communities show case their culture and tradition through lavishly embroidered costumes, traditional, music, song and dance are popular visitor attractions (presently at national level).

This architectural diversity extends to the north of Cameroon especially around the Rhumsiki, Kapsiki and Mandara Mountains (near the border with Chad and Nigeria)

where the topography and the climatic conditions have made the inhabitants of this region to develop a very unique architectural style which blends in perfectly into the scenic lunar landscape of the plateau, the wide valleys and volcanic pillars and cliffs which are fascinating attractions on their own right and a potential hiker's paradise (van Beek, 2003; 1993).

The Germans were not only interested in collecting or appreciating the value of Cameroonian art, during the colonial period, they also constructed some very important monuments and created parks which till date bear testimony to their presence. Some important cultural properties from the German colonial era that are or could become interesting visitor attractions include:

- the former palatial Governor's *Schloss* (castle) at the foot of Mount Cameroon in Buea constructed between 1901 and 1902 by Jesco von Puttkamer, it is a unique example of its kind in the whole of West and Central Africa;
- the present day Delegation of National Security and the Bismarck fountain in Buea as well as the lighthouses near the harbours of Limbe and Kribi (which need to be restored);
- the churches in Bali Nyonga (near Bamenda built in 1903), Mvolye (Yaoundé built in 1906) and Kribi (in the South Region);
- the residence of the District Officer in Victoria perched on a reef overlooking the Atlantic Ocean, his office near the Limbe Botanic and Zoological Garden; the District Officer's (Mansfeld) residence in Mamfe built in 1912;
- Lieutenant Zenker's residence in Bipindi, Captain Hans Dominik's residence in Batchenga as well as the numerous residences of the plantation managers in Limbe and Tiko.
- The forts in Yoko, Doumé, Mora, and Abong-Mbang in the north, south and east of Cameroon as well as the fort, magistrate's court and governor's residence in Bamenda constructed around 1912 to serve as the gubernatorial headquarters of the Bamenda District.

These colonial style buildings were taken over by the British and French in 1919 and used in the same capacity for which they were built. They were eventually handed over to the Cameroonian authorities during independence and till date, apart from the colonial governor's residence, they are still being used as the offices and residences of the civil administrators in these regions (Eloundou, 2005; Lauber, 1988).

4.3.2 Topography and natural biodiversity (flora and fauna)

Cameroon's floral and faunal diversity makes it to be sometimes referred to as Africa in miniature. Cameroon is home to 300 mammalian species, 849 bird species, 143 species of reptiles, close to 200 amphibian species, 542 fish species, and an estimated 9000 plant species, a considerable number of which are endemic (Stuart *et al.*, 1990; Vivien, 1991; MINEF *et al.*, 1999; Uetz, 2001). It is in this regard that the World Bank and the World Wide Fund for Nature (WWF) classified Cameroon as one of the 13 countries worldwide with the highest amount of biological diversity (Graf, 1997). It was to study and document this rich biodiversity that the foundations of most of the parks and reserves presently found in Cameroon was laid down by the Germans and later by the French and English. It is worth noting that apart from the Korup, Kilum-Ijim, Kimbi River and Mbi Crater reserves, all faunal reserves in (francophone) Cameroon were created by ordinances of the then French High Commissioners to Cameroon between 1931 and 1950 (WCMC, 1992). The reduced cover of the savannah type vegetation in the north of Cameroon which is favourable for big game hunting/viewing favoured the creation of the first six national parks in this part of the country after independence in 1960. These parks were created primarily to attract tourists.

Before then, it was the German colonial administration that for example:

- demarcated the territory around the River Kimbi in the North West Region with its scenic beauty and vast array of flora and fauna as well as the numerous crater lakes into the Kimbi River Game Reserve. This reserve was completely abandoned after the Lake Nyos toxic gas disaster in 1984 which left at least 1400 people dead (Mbunwe-Samba, 2001; BBC, 1986);
- laid the foundations of the 1000 hectares Kilum-Ijim Floral Sanctuary on Mount Oku, the second highest Mountain on mainland West Africa at 3,011m after Mount Cameroon (and home to very rare and endemic Bannerman's turaco as well as 16 endemic mammalian species) (Government of Cameroon, 2004a). Even though the British colonial administration started attempting to protect the reserve as far back as 1930, serious conservation work in the reserve only started in 1987 with the technical and financial assistance of various international agencies (Langley, 2003);
- the Korup National Park (which is one of the last remaining undisturbed equatorial forests in the world) was also designated during the period of German colonisation;

- the Limbe and Bipindi Botanical Gardens were created by the Germans for the study, nursing and cultivation of different plant species (Eloundou, 2005).

Realising the significant importance of Cameroon's biodiversity and the need for protection, upon gaining independence in 1960, the tradition of creating more parks and reserves was expanded and entrenched into law.

Thus law No. 74 / 357 of 17th April 1974 dealing with the organisation of "state forests" was promulgated. This law fixed a quota of 20% of the national territory to be designated as protected areas. In addition, the National Assembly in 1993 voted another law authorising the President of Cameroon to ratify the Rio Convention increasing this quota to 30% of the national territory. However, as of 2005, only 14% of Cameroonian territory was actually under some form of protection on paper and there were plans to increase this amount to 19% especially after the approval by the World Bank to finance the Cameroon Forestry and Environmental Project in 2005 (World Bank, 2005).

As of 2007, there were 56 protected areas in Cameroon made up of national parks, (3 of which were UNESCO-MAB biosphere reserves and one a UNESCO World Heritage Site); faunal and floral reserves and sanctuaries and zoological gardens and synergetic zones as can be seen in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: National parks, reserves and protected areas in Cameroon

| Protected Areas | Number | Surface area (ha) |
|---------------------------|---------------|--------------------------|
| National Parks | 11 | 2 577 930 |
| Faunal Reserves | 6 | 702 995 |
| Synergetic Zones | 35 | 3 083 750 |
| Faunal/Floral Sanctuaries | 2 | 132 000 |
| Zoological Gardens | 2 | 4,07 |
| TOTAL | 56 | 6 496 499,07 |

Source: Ministry of Tourism (MINTOUR), 2007

Appendix 4.1a and 4.1b respectively indicate the location on the map and lists the different existing and proposed national parks, reserves and protected sites in Cameroon, while appendix 4.1c outlines Cameroon's parks, reserves and protected areas which already have management conventions and overall goals as well as their partners.

The next section examines some of the existing and potential areas of sustainable tourism development in the different regions of Cameroon.

4.3.2.1 Mount Cameroon region and the Limbe Botanical and Zoological Garden

These are located in the South West Region of Cameroon. The area extends from the Atlantic coast in the Bight of Biafra to Mount Cameroon which is the highest mountain in West and Central Africa with an altitude of 4,095m. It is an active volcano and the last eruptions were recorded in 1999 and 2000. The fertile volcanic soil around the mountain has made the region to have a flourishing and abundant variety of flora and fauna. It is also one of the reasons why the Germans settled there in the 1884 and introduced plantation agriculture which has continued till present day. The Limbe Botanical and Zoological Gardens (LBZG) are located at the foot of Mount Cameroon in the town of Limbe (formerly Victoria). The botanical garden was created in 1892 by the German horticulturalist, Professor Paul Preuss. The garden, initially covering an area of 200 hectares, was meant to serve as an acclimatisation centre for commercial and medicinal plants before transfer to the newly opened plantations in the new German colonies of Togo and Cameroon. Successful species introduced included quinine, tea, cocoa, rubber, banana, and coffee (LBZG/MCBCC, 2002).

Till the end of the First World War in 1919, the garden flourished. Between 1919 and 1962, it was under British control and they established the first training centre for agriculturalists, horticulturalists and foresters in the region. After independence in 1961, control of the gardens passed into the hands of the Southern Cameroons administration during which time it was almost completely neglected until 1988.

In 1963, the Limbe Zoo was created as a centre for recreation and entertainment. In it were to be found animals from the forests and mountains of the region. However, like the Botanical Garden, it became neglected and fell into disrepair until the early 1980s when government started limited renovation work. In 1984, the two institutions were brought together and the name was changed from Victoria Botanic Garden to Limbe Botanic and Zoological Garden (LBZG) even though nowadays, they have different management teams in place and the Zoological Garden section is presently known as the Limbe Wildlife Centre.

International assistance for restructuring and rehabilitating the gardens came from Britain through the creation of a British-Cameroon partnership in 1988 which initiated the Limbe Botanic Garden and Rainforest Genetic Conservation Project. This project did an evaluation of the genetic richness of the surrounding rainforest.

In 1994 the Mount Cameroon Project (MCP) was established with the assistance of the British Government's Department for International Development (DFID), the Global Environmental Facility (GEF) of the World Bank, Cameroon's Ministry of the Environment and Forests and the German Agency for Technical Cooperation (GTZ).

The main goal was the conservation of biodiversity in the Mount Cameroon region through the active involvement of all stakeholders (especially populations living around the mountain). Since its inception, the LBZG has bridged research and development activities. In the course of the years, it has developed research, educational, technical and informational material which have all helped in making the LBZG a key institution for biodiversity conservation, monitoring and research at both national and international levels (LBZG/MCBCC, 2002).

With the support of the Cameroon government, a semi-autonomous and financially self sufficient project, the Mount Cameroon Biodiversity Conservation Centre (MCBCC) was created with the aim of monitoring the biodiversity in the area, provide facilities, information and services to those involved in biodiversity and to assist in improving the livelihood of the people of the region through the sustainable use of the mountain's resources (LBZG/MCBCC, 2002).

In November 2007, a project was launched by Cameroon's Minister of the Environment and Forest aimed at promoting the sustainable management and use of natural resources in the South West Region of Cameroon through sustainable tourism development among others. One of the main objectives of this programme is to oversee the creation and management of a national park around the Mount Cameroon region which will eventually be linked up with the Korup and the Takamanda National Parks. Most of the financial and technical assistance for the project is provided by the GTZ. A total of 65 villages in the region will be involved in the project (Sumelong, 2007).

4.3.2.2 The Korup National Park and south west Cameroon

The Korup National Park is one of the oldest and most biologically diverse lowland rainforest in Africa. Designated as a National Park in 1986, Korup lies on the western border of Cameroon's South West Region (between Mundemba and Eyumojock), and some 50 km inland from the Bight of Biafra with a total surface area of about 1260 km². Average rainfall within the park is over 5000 mm p.a., average temperature is 27°C while average humidity is about 86% (mount-cameroon.org, 2007; Riley and Riley; 2005). In addition to lowland rainforests, the mid-Korup region includes areas of swamp forests, a small area of secondary forest and sub-montane forest associated with Mount Johann, which at 860m is the highest point in the park. The sub-montane forest is of particularly high conservation value in the wet tropics of Africa as it is limited in extent and typically contains a significant number of endemic plants. The major reason for setting up the Korup National Park and Korup Project (1997-2002) was to conserve the unique biodiversity of the Korup rainforest.

More than 620 species of trees and shrubs and at least 480 species of herbs and climbers have so far been recorded in the park, which is also the single richest lowland site in Africa with 435 bird species, 174 species of herpetofauna (i.e. 82 reptilian and 92 amphibian species), 140 fish species, more than 160 mammalian species as well as about 1000 butterfly species recorded in the park. Some of them are endemic to the region while many other species such as the drill, chimpanzee, red colobus monkey, red-capped mangabey and red-eared monkey are endangered because villagers within the support zone of the park, as well as those from the 6 villages which are still in the park, rely on hunting and trapping of wildlife not only for food, but also as a source of income (mount-cameroon.org, 2007; Riley and Riley; 2005).

Korup is the base of the Bioresources Development and Conservation Plan (BDCP) which was set up in 1992 during the Rio Earth Summit by some scientists, industrialists and environmental organisations (with the support of some developed nations – France and the U.S.A). The goal was to link human development with conservation of the rain forests by integrating the local communities in the planning, decision making processes and in the development/management of the park through supporting programs from the WWF which included training in various aspects of sustainable land use and nature/ecotourism development and management.

Other reserves of in the South West Region include the Bakossi Mountains Wildlife Reserve and the 665 km² Mbo-Bayang Wildlife Sanctuary east of Ejagham. Though not very large when compared to other reserves and parks, it is home to 325 bird species, 63 reptiles, 73 amphibians and 33 large mammals which include forest elephants, forest buffalos and red eared guenons among others (Riley and Riley; 2005; Nchanji, 2006).

4.3.2.3 The Dja Faunal Reserve and south east Cameroon

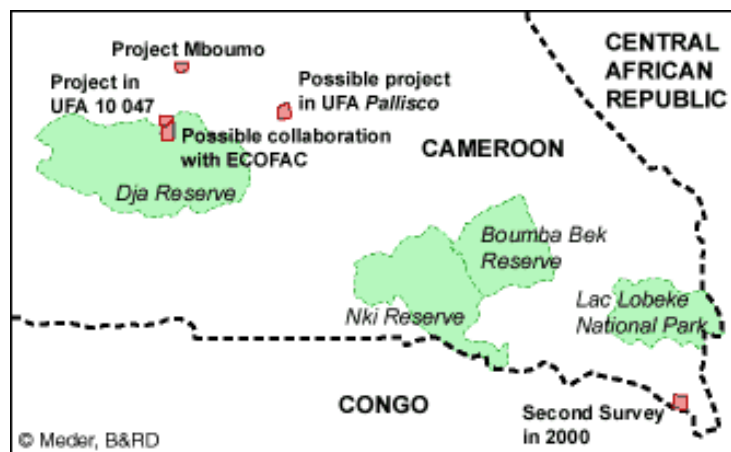
The Dja Faunal reserve is situated at the confluence of two major ecological zones, i.e. the Gulf of Guinea and the Congo Basin and is thus home to extraordinary faunal and floral biodiversity. That is the reason why as early as 1932 the reserve is reported to have received some protection but only became officially protected as a faunal and hunting reserve through Law No. 319 of 25 April 1950 of the French colonial administration. It was transformed to a faunal reserve under the National Forestry Ordinance No. 73/18 of 22 May 1973 (Nyang and Hamerlynck, 2006). Protection of certain species within Dja Faunal Reserve was stipulated in Decree No. 2254 of 18 November 1947, which regulated hunting in the French African territories. It was internationally recognised as a Biosphere Reserve under UNESCO's Man and

the Biosphere Programme in 1981 and included in the list of World Heritage Sites in 1987 under Criteria II and IV dealing with its contribution to the evolution of mankind and its abundance of biodiversity species (UNESCO, 2008; Nyang and Hamerlynck, 2006).

The reserve which is almost completely encircled by the Dja River and covers a total surface area of 5260 km² in the Centre, Eastern and Southern regions of Cameroon is home to at least 1500 plant species, 320 bird species and more than 100 recorded species of mammals with important populations of chimpanzees, mandrill baboons, gorillas, elephants, leopards, warthogs and buffalos recorded. At an altitude of about 600m – 700m above sea level, most of the reserve is fairly flat but for a few hills with average temperatures of about 24°C.

In 2005, the Global Environment Fund (GEF) approved a new trans-boundary conservation initiative, the “TRIDOM (10) Park Project” to be supervised by the WWF aimed at the conservation and the sustainable use of forest resources through sustainable ecotourism development amongst others. This project includes the Dja and Boumba-Bek National Parks in Cameroon as well as the Odzala and Minkebe National Parks in Congo and Gabon respectively. This project covers 7.5 percent of the entire Congo Basin rainforest (Nelson, 2008).

Map 4.3: Some Forest Reserves and National parks South and Eastern Regions of Cameroon



Source: <http://www.berggorilla.org>, 2008

In addition to the Dja Faunal Reserve, the 2000 km² Lobéké National Park in the south eastern part of Cameroon is a very important area for biodiversity conservation and potential hot spot for ecotourism development. The park is principally composed of semi-evergreen forest with an open canopy and the only natural savannas are small saline swamps (*bais*) where the western lowland gorillas, forest elephants,

chimpanzees and bongos which are found in the parks in high densities and other animals come to drink. A total of 305 bird species have also been recorded in the park (Dowset-Lemaire and Dowset, 2000). As part of a commitment taken by governments of the Central African sub-region to protect and ensure sustainable use of forest resources during the Yaoundé Forest Summit of 1999, the Lobéké National Park became part of the Sangha Tri-National Area, in association with the Zangha-Sangha National Park in the Central African Republic and Nouabalé-Ndoki National Park in the Republic of Congo (WWF, 2007). Other reserves in this region of Cameroon include the Boumba Bek Reserve, Nki National Park and the 264 064 ha biodiversity rich Campo-Ma'an National Park created in 2000 where species cataloguing is still going on (Riley and Riley, 2005; Tchakounte, 2008; Lukong, 2008; Government of Cameroon, 2000).

4.3.2.4 The Waza National Park and north Cameroon

The most accessible, famous, visited, developed and probably one of the best known of Cameroon's parks is the Waza National Park which is also a UNESCO-MAB Biosphere Reserve. Located 122 km from Maroua in the Far North Region in the Chad depression, the vegetation in this 1700 km² park is principally composed of acacia forests and open *yaere* savannah. It was created in 1934 by the French colonial administration, albeit as a hunting reserve but it became a National Park in 1968, and a UNESCO Biosphere Reserve in 1979. The park is home to a wide variety of animals including lions, elephants, hippopotamuses, rhinoceros among others, as well as a large variety of birds, the most popular being the ostriches which roam the plains of the savannah. However poachers from neighbouring Chad and Nigeria are the main threats to the park especially after the decline of the number of park rangers from 25 in 1985 to just 7 in 2005 in addition to 16 ecoguards (MacAllister, 2005).

Other parks of interest in the northern regions of Cameroon include the 3,300 km² Faro National Park which is home to a large variety of hippo colonies, black rhinoceroses, elephants and cheetahs (whose survival is actually threatened by poaching); the Bénoué National Park which is also a UNESCO-MAB Biosphere Reserve and the Bouba Njidah National Park in the Guinea savannah belt about 150km from Ngaoundéré which are famous for their elephants, giant elands and an abundance of other wildlife species (Riley and Riley; 2005).

It is thus clearly visible that due to the geography and topography, the south western, southern and eastern regions of Cameroon are potential havens for sustainable nature/ecotourism and beach tourism development near the Atlantic Ocean while the

northern portion of Cameroon is the Mecca for the development and strengthening of safari tourism. On the other hand, the western part of Cameroon (West and North West regions) is the soul and embodiment of Cameroon's rich and diverse cultural heritage with huge potential for cultural tourism development.

4.4 The evolution of tourism in Cameroon since 1960

In 1960, the two Cameroons (East and West Cameroon) gained independence and in October 1961 they were again reunited as one country with a federal government. A unitary state was created in May 1972 and the country became known as the United Republic of Cameroon and later the Republic of Cameroon.

Up till 1990, the tourism industry was to a greater extent controlled by the state which owned and constructed most of the hotel and hospitality infrastructures in the country sometimes in partnership with foreign hotel chains. It also owned the National Tourism Company (SOCATOUR).

It was only fourteen years after independence in 1974 that a General Commissariat for Tourism (later renamed General Delegation of Tourism in 1975) was created to oversee the development/management of tourism activities in the country (NIS, 2005; Neba, 1999; Gwanfogbe, 1983). Up till the early 1990s, any development done in this sector was concentrated on photo safaris and game hunting in the parks of Francophone Cameroon especially north of the country with the majority of the tourists coming from France. In the meantime, most of the movable tourism infrastructure which had been taken over from the British in the former West Cameroon was carted off to the capital Yaoundé after reunification and all other immovable tourism infrastructure (hotels) were poorly managed and some were even abandoned and gradually declined into a state of disuse.

On the 13th April 1989 presidential decree No 89/676 upgraded the Delegation of Tourism to a full fledged ministry to cater for the affairs of and to promote the development of the tourism industry in Cameroon.

From the 1960s onwards national parks, reserves and wildlife sanctuaries were created across the country, most of them being upgraded from the faunal and hunting reserves that had been created by the French colonial administration (NIS, 2005). Also, some legislation aimed at regulating and controlling the development of the industry was introduced, albeit at a very slow pace. Most of the accommodation infrastructure was concentrated around Douala and Yaoundé which received most of the visitors (business tourists). Visitor numbers and tourism revenue did however start to increase in the English speaking part of Cameroon first and foremost

because of the beaches in Limbe in the South West Region and the rich Grassland cultures and traditions of the North West Region which attracted and still do attract a good number of tourists (WTO, 2007b; NIS, 2005).

With the help of UNWTO indicators, a statistical analysis of the evolution of Cameroon's tourism industry is done and an examination of Cameroon's tourism service infrastructure and legislation during the last four decades is undertaken hereafter.

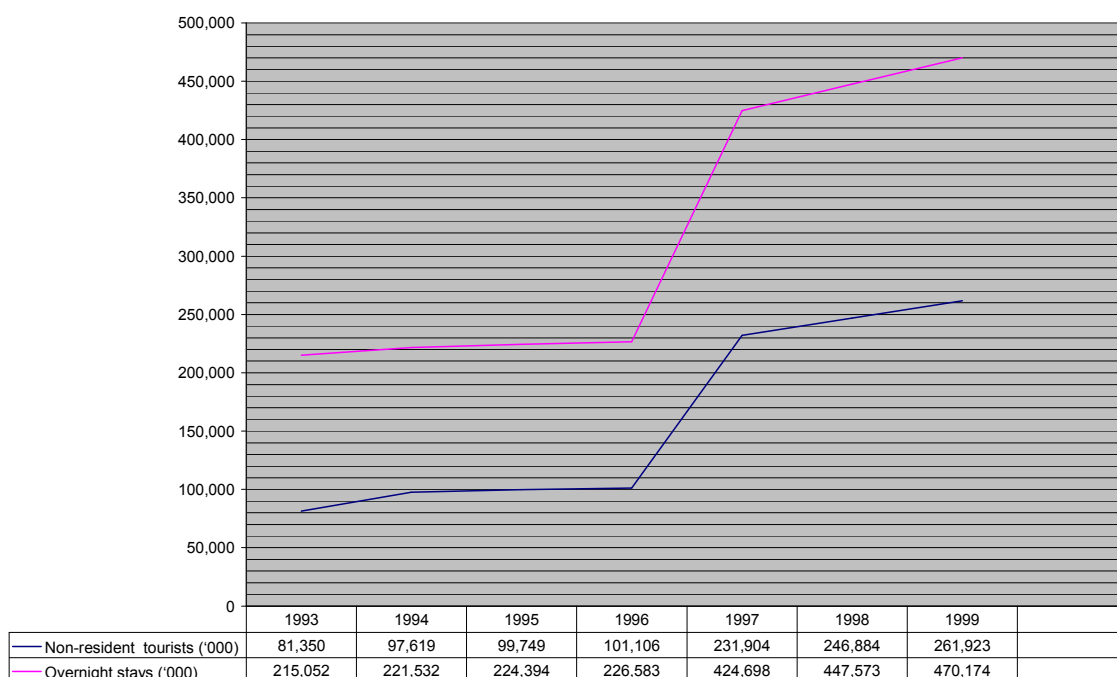
4.4.1 Statistical analysis of tourism evolution in Cameroon

In order to get a comprehensive picture of the evolution of Cameroon's tourism industry during the past decade, an in depth analysis of the industry will be done in this section using available data of the basic and related tourism indicators. These include the arrival of non-resident visitors at national borders, arrival of non-resident tourists in hotels and similar establishments, overnight stays in hotels and similar establishments, inbound/outbound tourism expenditure in the country, number of rooms and bed places in hotels and their occupancy rates; as well as related indicators such as the contribution of tourism to the GDP.

Immediately after independence (1960) and in the decades that followed up till about 1980, Cameroon's tourism industry witnessed a steady annual growth in terms of arrivals and contribution to the GDP. In 1971 for example 29,500 tourists visited Cameroon. By 1975, this number had risen to 100,000 tourists, and increasing further to 130,000 tourists in 1980 and 140,000 visitors in 1987 with most visitors coming from France, the United Kingdom, and Canada (WTO, 1988). However, the industry began a slow but steady decline afterwards so much so that between 1987 and 1992, there was a 57% decrease in international tourist arrivals to just 60,000 tourists. Decrease in tourism arrivals meant a corresponding decrease in international receipts from tourism which plummeted from US\$283 million in 1988 to US\$182 million in 1992 (WTO, 1994).

However, from 1993 to 2000, Cameroon's tourism industry witnessed an upward thrust in terms of arrivals reflected by the number of overnight visitors and stays but without a corresponding increase in inbound tourism expenditure/receipts. During this period, the number of international arrivals more than tripled rising from 81,350 in 1993 to 261,923 in 1999, a record increase of 222% within a period of just 6 years, and overnight stays more than doubled from 215,000 to 470,174.

Figure 4.1: International arrivals and overnight stays, 1993 – 1999



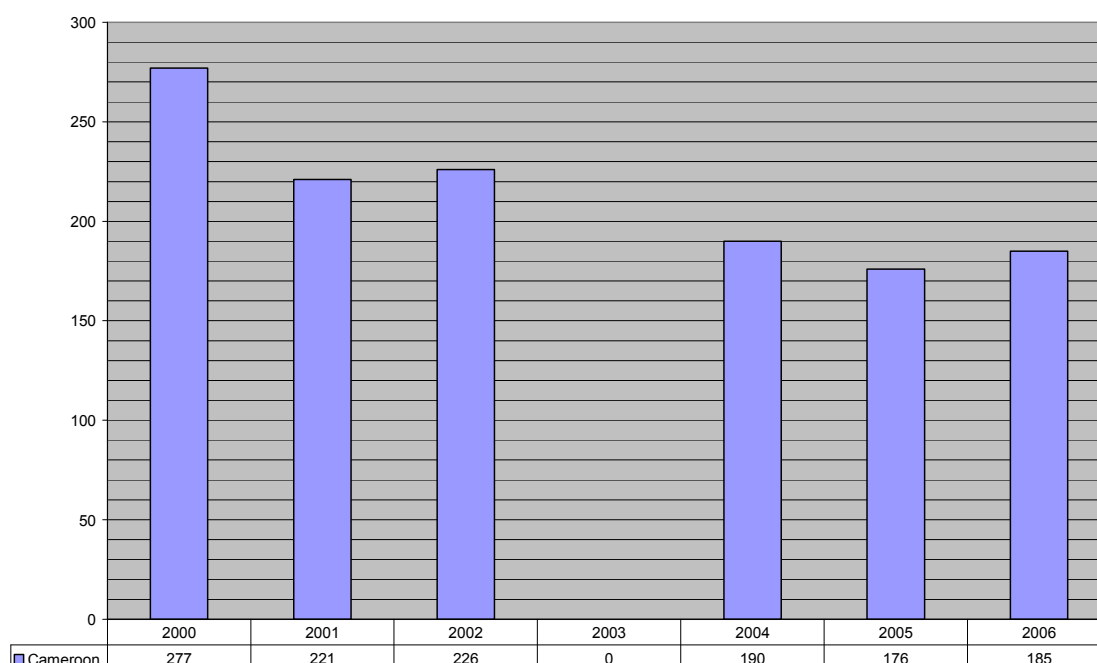
Source: WTO, 2001; 2003

Tourism receipts on the contrary experienced a 17% decrease, dropping from US\$47 million in 1993 to US\$39 million in 2000 (WTO, 1999; WTO, 2005a).

4.4.1.1 Annual arrival of overnight visitors since 2000

After registering a record 277,070 overnight visitors in 2000, Cameroon's tourism industry unlike those of other countries (Kenya, Botswana, Zambia, South Africa) which quickly recovered from the aftermath of 11 September 2001 and rapidly came back into business reaching and even surpassing the pre-terrorist attack levels, instead went into stagnation and decline. Immediately after the attack, the industry began facing a downward spiral so much so that between 2000 and 2005, overnight visitors in hotels and similar establishments dropped by more than 36%. However, in 2006, a positive balance was recorded with the number of overnight visitors in hotels growing by 4.5% when compared to 2005 (Figure 4.2). It is worth noting that a combined total of 451,000 tourists visited Cameroon in 2006 (MINTOUR, 2007; Conge, 2008). In addition, in 2005, 53% of tourists arrived by land, 44% arrived by air and the rest by sea (Table 4.2)

Figure 4.2: Overnight visitors to Cameroon (in '000) from 2000-2006



Source: *Compendium of Tourism Statistics, 2003; 2007; MINTOUR, 2007.*

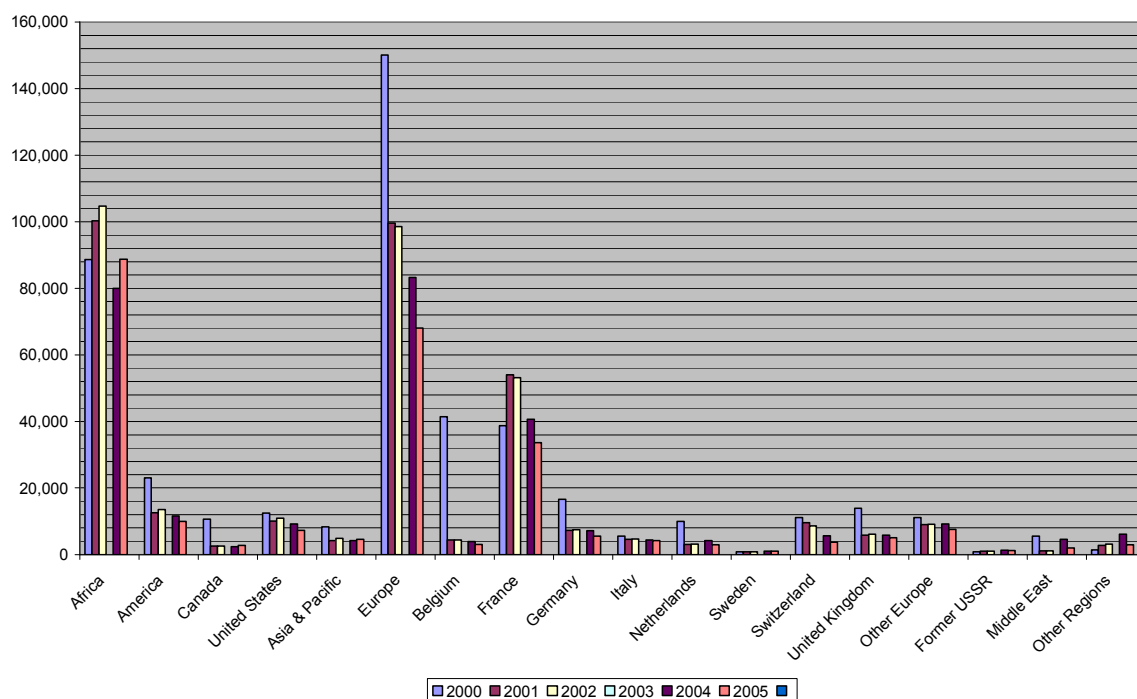
Table 4.2: Arrival of tourists at Cameroon's borders by mode of transport in 2005

| Mode of Transport | Number of Arrivals ('000) |
|-------------------|---------------------------|
| Air | 199, 020 |
| Maritime | 12,723 |
| Terrestrial | 239,698 |
| Total | 451, 441 |

Source: *Ministry of Transport, 2007*

Traditionally, most tourists to Cameroon have always come from Europe with the majority coming from France. This is so because, just like Senegal, Cameroon is a former French colony and it still has very strong economic and political links with France. As a result, Cameroon as a holiday destination is well known among the French.

Figure 4.3: Annual arrival of tourists to Cameroon (overnight visitors) by regions and countries, 2000-2005



Source: WTO, 2003c; 2007

However, during the past 6 years, the number of tourists coming from Europe has decreased by 54.6% from 150,096 European tourists received in hotels and similar establishments in 2000 to merely 68,058 tourists in 2005. Responsible for this significant decline were major decreases in tourist arrivals from Belgium, France, Germany, Switzerland and the United Kingdom, Cameroon's main tourist generating markets whose numbers declined by more than 60% overall. As can be seen in Figure 4.3 and Table 4.3, the worst decreases so far were recorded for Belgium where a 93% drop was observed in 2005 when only 3,046 Belgian tourists visited Cameroon as compared to 41,250 tourists in 2000; a 66.5% decrease in arrivals from Germany and Switzerland was recorded for this same period as well as a 63.3% decrease in arrivals from the United Kingdom (Table 4.3)

Table 4.3: Arrival of non-resident tourists (overnight visitors) in hotels and similar establishments by nationality from 2000 – 2006

| | 2000 | 2001 | 2002 | 2003 | 2004 | 2005 | 2006 | % change |
|---------------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|------|----------------|----------------|----------------|---------------|
| Africa | 88,618 | 100,282 | 104,695 | ** | 80,013 | 88,739 | 97,596 | +9.98 |
| Americas | 23,124 | 12,611 | 13,506 | | 11,593 | 10,002 | 8,999 | -10.02 |
| Canada | 10,662 | 2,568 | 2,600 | ** | 2,399 | 2,760 | 1,969 | -28.65 |
| United States | 12,462 | 10,043 | 10,906 | ** | 9,194 | 7,242 | 7,030 | -2.92 |
| Asia & Pacific | 8,308 | 4,168 | 4,882 | ** | 4,248 | 4,580 | 5,042 | 10.08 |
| Europe | 150,096 | 99,624 | 98,570 | ** | 83,272 | 68,058 | 62,668 | -7.91 |
| Belgium | 41,450 | 4,374 | 4,383 | ** | 3,885 | 3,046 | 3,129 | 2.27 |
| France | 38,771 | 53,950 | 53,167 | ** | 40,611 | 33,650 | 32,362 | -3.82 |
| Germany | 16,616 | 7,268 | 7,461 | ** | 7,121 | 5,581 | 5,166 | -7.43 |
| Italy | 5,537 | 4,575 | 4,628 | ** | 4,426 | 4,211 | 3,329 | -20.94 |
| Netherlands | 9,970 | 3,046 | 3,214 | ** | 4,217 | 2,951 | 2,724 | -7.69 |
| Sweden | 831 | 882 | 836 | ** | 982 | 1,026 | 762 | -25.73 |
| Switzerland | 11,077 | 9,609 | 8,674 | ** | 5,668 | 3,715 | 2,089 | -43.76 |
| United Kingdom | 13,847 | 5,888 | 6,069 | ** | 5,818 | 5,076 | 4,146 | -18.32 |
| Other Europe | 11,077 | 8,992 | 9,085 | ** | 9,213 | 7,560 | 7,719 | 2.10 |
| Former USSR | 830 | 1,040 | 1,053 | ** | 1,325 | 1,242 | 1,242 | 0.00 |
| Middle East | 5,539 | 1,087 | 1,153 | ** | 4,583 | 2,007 | 3,501 | 74.43 |
| Other Regions | 1,385 | 2,806 | 3,213 | ** | 6,147 | 2,986 | 6,743 | 125.82 |
| Total | 227,070 | 220,578 | 226,019 | ** | 189,856 | 176,372 | 184,549 | 4.63 |

(Source: WTO, 2006; 2009)

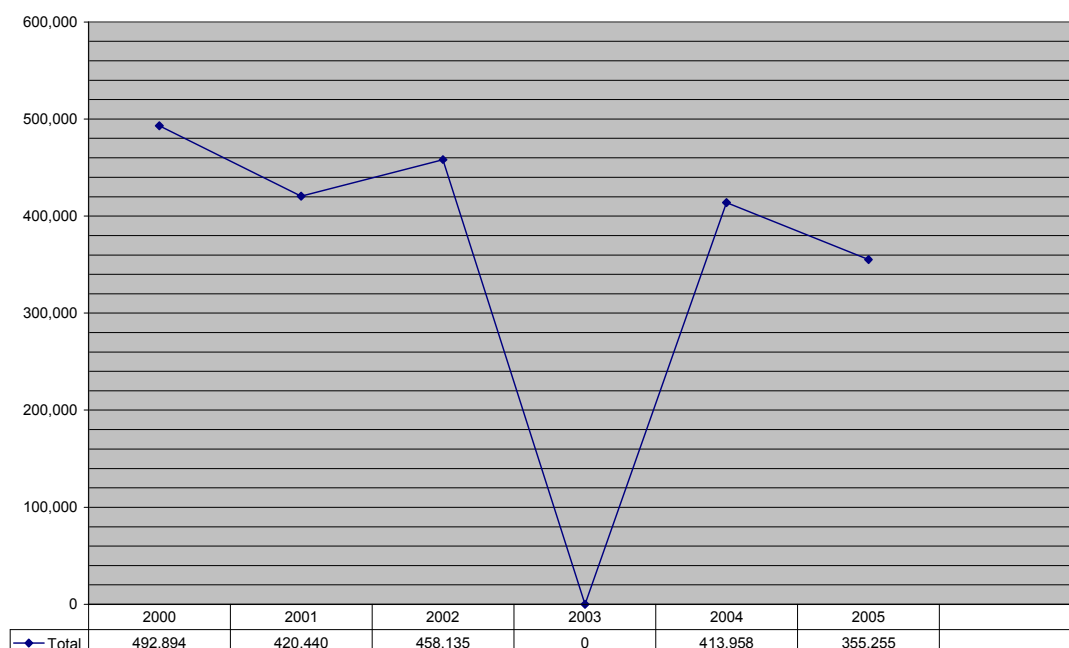
Between 2000 and 2006, a 61% decline in tourist arrivals from America as well as a 58% drop from European overnight visitors in hotels and similar establishments was recorded. However, in comparison to 2005, overnight visitors increased by 4.6%.

It is interesting to note that while the number of overnight visitors from Europe and America to Cameroon has been plummeting over the years, there has been relative stability in the number of tourists visiting Cameroon from within the African continent, with an almost 10% increase recorded in 2006 when compared to 2005. However, 2002 was the peak year when 104,965 visitors from within Africa visited the country (Table 4.3).

4.4.1.2 Overnight stays in hotels and similar establishments since 2000

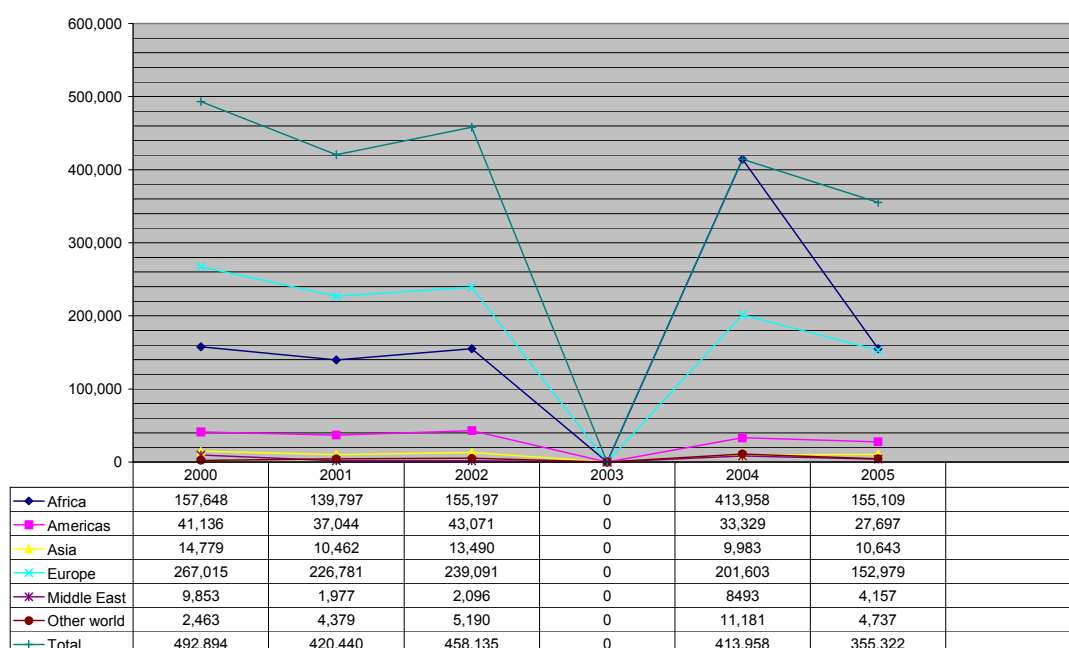
Just as is the case with the number of arrivals of non-resident visitors in hotels and similar establishment, the number of overnight stays of tourists in hotels and similar establishments in Cameroon has been plummeting since 2000.

Figure 4.4a: Overnight Stays in hotels and similar establishments 2000-2005 (in '000)



Source: WTO, 2003c; 2007

Figure 4.4b: Overnight stays of tourists in Cameroon by regions 2000 - 2005 (in '000)



Source: WTO, 2003c; 2007

Apart from slight increases recorded (3.8% and 6.6%) in the number of nights spent by tourists from African and Asian countries respectively to Cameroon in 2005 when compared to 2004, generally speaking, the number of nights spent in Cameroon by tourists in hotels has decreased by close to 50% since 2000. Whereas in 2000, a total number of 492,894 overnight stays by non-resident tourists were recorded, 267,019 (45.8%) of them being spent by European tourists, in 2005, only 355,322 nights were spent in Cameroon by tourists representing a 27.9% decrease in the number of overnight stays as a whole but a 42.7% decrease in the number of nights spent by European tourists who form the majority of non-business visitors to Cameroon (Figure 4.4a and 4.4b).

This decrease in the number of arrivals and overnight stays has led to a significant drop in the general tourism receipts for the country

4.4.1.3 Tourism expenditure and contribution to the GDP

In Senegal, Tanzania or Botswana the role and positive contribution of tourism to the national economy was clearly manifested in the amount it contributed to the GDP as well as the inbound expenditure to these countries (3.2.3). However, in Cameroon, available data shows that up to the present day, tourism is still not considered as being pivotal to the economy with a permanently negative balance of payment when the difference between inbound and outbound annual tourism expenditure is calculated as can be seen in table 4.4a.

Table 4.4a: Balance of payment for tourism (in %) in Cameroon from 1996-2005

| Year | 1996/ 1997 | 1997/ 1998 | 1999/ 1999 | 1999/ 2000 | 2000/ 2001 | 2001/ 2002 | 2002/ 2003 | 2003/ 2004 | 2004/ 2005 |
|--------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|
| Travel | -24.5 | -29.7 | -32.6 | -39.0 | -42.1 | -32.0 | -36.9 | -32.9 | -31.9 |

(Source: MINTOUR, 2007)

From 1997 up till 2005, the tourism industry in Cameroon continuously witnessed negative balance of payments in terms of inbound and outbound travel receipts, the peak being in 2000/2001 when a deficit of -42.1% was recorded. This has since then dropped and is presently fluctuating between -32.0% in 2001/2002 and -31.9% in 2004/2005.

Also, a close look at Figure 4.5 below indicates that the overall GDP of Cameroon has been experiencing steady growth since 2000. The tourism industry has however contributed very little to this growth. Even though the added value of tourism in the Cameroonian economy has been increasing in monetary terms since 1996, its

contribution to GDP and share of the economy has been stagnating in real terms, remaining at less than 2.5% overall (Figure 4.5; appendix 4.2). Whereas Botswana received a staggering US\$459 million as tourism revenue in 2003, making tourism its second biggest economic sector contributing up to 6% of its GDP; tourism receipts in Cameroon for this same period stood at US\$162 million, contributing just 1.2% of its GDP, this was nevertheless up from 1.1% in 2002 but still less than the 1.9% contribution of 2001 (WTO, 2007a; WTO, 2005a). Inbound tourism expenditure in Cameroon for 2003 was however 30.6% more than tourism receipts earned in 2002 but almost 30% less than what the country earned in 2001. Travel accounted for up to 70% of the total inbound expenditure in 2003 unlike in 2001 where passenger transport accounted for almost 60% of the total inbound receipts. Nevertheless this was still a far cry from the meagre US\$39 million dollars the country generated as revenue from tourism in 2000 (WTTC, 2008d; WTO, 2007a; WTO, 2005a).

Figure 4.5: Evolution of the added value of tourism and share of tourism in the Cameroonian economy from 2000-2005 (in US\$Bn)



Source: National Institute of Statistics (NIS) Cameroon, 2007

In spite of the fact that Cameroon is an island of tranquillity and stability in the Central African sub-region, its tourism industry has been very volatile and unpredictable; in some years there was semblance growth but in many others there was a perpetual state of decline not only in its contribution to the GDP but also to its Gross National Product (GNP) as is evident in table 4.4b. Apart from 2001 and 2002

where a significant contribution was made by the industry to the GNP of Cameroon, between 2003 and 2006, there was a permanent decline in the sector which kept going worse with each passing year attaining -1.94% in 2006 when compared to 2005. However the tourism industry witnessed a significant reversal to this trend in 2007 with a record growth rate of a 48.53% registered in the industry when compared to 2006 (Table 4.4b).

Table 4.4b: Contribution of tourism to Cameroon's GNP from 2000 – 2007 (in US\$ Mn)

| Year | 2000 | 2001 | 2002 | 2003 | 2004 | 2005 | 2006 | 2007 |
|----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| Amount | 5,621,294 | 6,306,488 | 7,000,698 | 6,813,622 | 6,414,677 | 6,270,425 | 6,148,713 | 9,132,913 |
| % Change | ** | 12.19 | 11.00 | -2.67 | -5.85 | -2.25 | -1.94 | 48.53 |

Source: *National Institute of Statistics, 2008*

In real growth terms, in 2007, direct industry revenue from the travel and tourism (T&T) industry contributed 5.6% (\$361.6mn) to Cameroon's GDP and 2.9% (\$1000mn) when the industry and other related services were taken into consideration. This amount according to the WTTC is expected to rise in nominal terms to \$588.8mn by 2018 but drop by 1.1% to 4.5% when compared to 2008. The total contribution of the travel and tourism industry would rise during this same period from 2.9% (\$999.9mn) to 4.8% (\$1,671.6mn). The direct annual contribution of the T&T industry to GDP is expected to grow at 4.5% per annum while a growth rate of 4.8% per annum for the tourism economy as a whole was forecasted between 2009 and 2018, almost 1% more than what is forecasted for the rest of sub-Saharan Africa (WTTC, 2008d).

4.4.2 Employment generation and tourism personnel

Successful sustainable tourism development does not come about without the right calibre of professionals needed to carry out the various jobs created by the industry. The first wildlife management school was opened in Garoua, Cameroon in 1970 (similar to that opened in Tanzania a decade earlier) and a school of hotel and tourism management in Ngaoundéré during this same period. These schools were meant to train wildlife and tourism personnel (game guards, park wardens and rangers and park administrators, hospitality staff) from French speaking African countries and were initially placed under the guidance and supervision of the Food and Agricultural Organisation (FAO). In 1982, the Delegation (later Ministry) of Tourism took over full management of these schools (Stark, 1986). Though the schools still train tourism and park officials today, the quality and quantity has sharply declined and admission is limited to a very few. As of 2008, there were a couple of

professional schools offering diploma courses in branches of tourism and hospitality management but no tourism department in any of Cameroon's universities leading to a scarcity of qualified personnel to work in the industry.

Table 4.5: Employment and salaries in the tourism sector 2000 – 2007 (in US\$ Mn)

| Year | 2000 | 2001 | 2002 | 2003 | 2004 | 2005 | 2006 | 2007 |
|-------------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|------|------|------|-------|
| Employment ('000) | 47,80 | 49,25 | 44,20 | 48,35 | ** | ** | ** | 49,00 |
| Salary | 54,63 | 38,30 | 39,70 | 39,44 | ** | ** | ** | ** |

Source: MINTOUR, 2007

Just as was seen with the other tourism indicators, employment created as a result of tourism and the resultant income generated by those working in Cameroon's tourism industry has been stagnating unlike in the countries discussed in 3.2.4. Between 2000 and 2007, only a 2.5% growth was observed in terms of direct tourism employment in Cameroon. In 2000, 47,800 individuals had direct employment in the industry generating a salary of \$54,63 million, and accounting for about 1.5% of general employment in the country. A slight increase was observed in 2001 when 49,250 people were employed. This number however dropped to 44,200 in 2002 but increased to 48,350 jobs the following year without a corresponding increase in salaries (Table 4.5). Estimates for 2007 showed that 49,000 people were directly employed in the travel and tourism industry while 145 000 persons had employment in the travel and tourism sector of the economy as a whole representing 1.3% of total employment in the country from the travel and tourism sector in particular and 3.9% the same sector if direct and indirect employment was considered (Blanke and Chiesa, 2008). The WTTC estimates for 2008 indicated that 48,000 (direct industry jobs) and 132,000 jobs (tourism and related economy employment) were in the industry. This represented 1.3% of total employment from direct industry jobs and 3.5% of total national employment, hence a 10% drop in direct and indirect employment from tourism when compared to 2007. Forecasts from the WTTC show that by 2018, 59,000 persons will be directly employed in the travel and tourism industry with a total 167,000 jobs or 1 in every 28.2 jobs representing 3.5% of the total employment in the country representing an annualised real growth rate of 2.1% for direct industry jobs and 2.4% for the tourism economy as a whole (WTTC, 2008d).

4.4.3 Hotel and accommodation facilities

In 1960, Cameroon could only boast of 37 hotels with 599 rooms. By 1976, this number had risen to 203 hotels with 3,229 rooms. In 1980, the country offered 7,500 hotel rooms with the vast majority of these in two major cities, Douala and Yaoundé (Gwanfogbe *et al.*, 1983). However, since 2000, the hotel and accommodation sector has witnessed very rapid growth. This is principally due to the fact that Cameroon's government in its effort to liberalise the tourism sector in the Tourism Law of 2000 decided to privatise most state-owned hotels and accommodation establishments (a process which is still ongoing) and also relax the laws governing the construction and ownership of hotels and accommodation establishments. In 1998, Cameroon had 820 hotel and accommodation establishments, 120 of which were classified. The overall capacity during this same period was 13,972 rooms and 15,542 beds with 54% of these being located in Douala and Yaoundé (Government of Cameroon, 2004b). Between 2000 and 2005 however, the number of classified hotels had risen to 1,591 as well as the number of hotel rooms which had witnessed a 58.1% increase, rising from just 13,980 units in 2000 to 22,112 units in 2005. During this same period, the number of beds also increased by 49.6%, from 16,433 units in 2000 to 24,598 in 2005. (WTO, 2005a; WTO, 2007a; Government of Cameroon, 2006; MINTOUR, 2007) That notwithstanding, in 2005, there were only two 5-star hotels (the Hilton in Yaoundé and the Méridien in Douala), and 15 3-star and 4-star hotels in the country. The remainder of the hotels which had a total of 70,213 rooms and 161,244 beds in 2005 were made up of small and medium sized hotels, inns, guesthouses and hostels which still need to be classified. In 2005 the room occupancy rate was 29.59% while the average length of stay was 1.96 days, far below what was seen in the three countries examined in 3.2.2 (Table 4.6).

Table 4.6: Hotel room and bed capacity in Cameroon 2005

| Category | Room capacity | Bed capacity | Occupancy rate of rooms (%) | Occupancy rate of beds (%) | Average stay (days) |
|--------------|---------------|---------------|-----------------------------|----------------------------|---------------------|
| 1* | 26415 | 27271 | 16,07 | 15,80 | 1,35 |
| 2* | 26412 | 27873 | 20,10 | 18,52 | 1,76 |
| 3* | 23771 | 28684 | 30,49 | 25,18 | 2,03 |
| 4* | 8365 | 12497 | 56,72 | 50,01 | 2,41 |
| 5* | 3605 | 6528 | 36,04 | 21,28 | 3,0 |
| NC | 70213 | 161244 | 18,13 | 16,02 | 1,26 |
| Total | 158781 | 264097 | 29.59 | 24.68 | 1.96 |

Source: MINTOUR 2007

4.4.4 Evolution of tourism legislation since 1960

A series of laws and legislation have been passed to regulate and administer the tourism industry in Cameroon during the last five decades commencing with the laws creating the various national parks mentioned in 4.3.2 when no tourism ministry existed in Cameroon. It was only in 1981 that a General Delegation of Tourism was created. Over the years, this delegation evolved to become a fully fledged ministry and some of its main departments were themselves transformed into other ministries with overarching responsibilities. As a result, even though the Ministry of Tourism (MINTOUR) is responsible for managing tourism activities in the country, other ministries directly and indirectly have a say in the development and management of Cameroon's tourism industry.

According to Law No. 81/13 of 27th November 1981 and Decree No. 82/216 of 12th June 1982, the responsibilities of the General Delegation of Tourism were clearly spelt out. Among others, it took over the responsibility of wildlife management from the Ministry of Agriculture in addition to the previously held responsibility for the control of national parks. This then became known as the Department of Wildlife and Protected Areas in the MINTOUR. This department was further subdivided into:

- the Wildlife and National Park Service which was responsible for research and development of wildlife conservation as well as the formulation and implementation of conservation policies;
- the Game Service which was responsible for game policy and supervision of protected areas and control of hunting.

In 1997 however, the Ministry of Environment and Forestry (MINEF) was created out of the Department of Wildlife and Protected Areas in the MINTOUR and one of its main departments became the Department of Wildlife and Protected Areas responsible for carrying out the same functions that the Wildlife and National Park Service had been undertaking in the MINTOUR.

In 2005, MINEF was further split again to form two separate ministries – The Ministry of Environment and Nature Protection (MINEP) with the Department of Conservation and two sub-directorates thus:

- The Sub-directorate of Protected Areas responsible for controlling and managing national parks, reserves, sanctuaries, zoological/botanical gardens, fragile ecological zones, and the fight against poaching;
- the Sub-directorate for the Conservation and Protection of Biodiversity.

The second ministry became the Ministry Forestry and Wildlife (MINFOF). It became responsible for the development, the implementation and the evaluation of

government policy concerning forests and fauna. It has two main departments:

- the Department of Forestry responsible for the implementation of government policy on forestry matters;
- the Department of Fauna whose main responsibility is the elaboration and execution of the government's policy regarding the fauna as well as undertaking socio-economic and technical studies on Cameroon's fauna.

As a result, the MINTOUR, MINEP, MINFOF as well as the Ministries of Culture (MINCULT) Transport, Town planning and the General Delegation of National Security are involved in one way or the other in the formulation and implementation of different aspects of Cameroon's tourism policy.

The latest series of reforms began in 1999 with Prime Ministerial decree No 99/443/PM of 25th March 1999 fixing modalities for the exploitation and establishment of tourism agencies, management of touristic sites, training of tour guides amongst others, as well as a general code of conduct issued by MINTOUR regulating and organising the work of all tourism associations in Cameroon (MINTOUR, 1999). It encourages and supports in principle the creation and emergence of independent and voluntary tourism associations (e.g. the Cameroon Hoteliers Association, the Cameroon Restaurant Owners Association and the Cameroon Tour Operators Association). These associations in principle defend the interest of their members against public sector interference as well as promote their businesses in the international market.

A National Tourism Council (NTC) was created by Presidential Decree No. 99/112 of 27th May 1999 to coordinate tourism development and management activities among the above mentioned ministries and in Cameroon as a whole.

In 2002 a Tourism Marketing Plan was drawn up and in 2008 a Destination Branding Report for Cameroon was produced with the financial assistance of the Commonwealth. These plans clearly spelled out the modalities and steps to be taken in branding, promoting and marketing Cameroon's tourism products (Emerging Markets Group, 2008).

4.4.5 Security, transport and communication infrastructure

Cameroon is one of the few countries in the African continent which has come unscathed from the political turmoil plaguing most countries in sub-Saharan Africa. Apart from a rebellion in the French speaking part of Cameroon between 1958 and 1962 and brief armed conflicts with Nigeria in 1994 and 1996 over the disputed oil-rich Bakassi Peninsula in West Cameroon (which was finally awarded to Cameroon

by the International Court of Justice in 2002), as well as short spells of public disorder after presidential and legislative elections most especially in 1990 and 1994, and food riots in 2008, Cameroon has been an island of peace and tranquillity in a region where political instability seems to be the order of the day (BBC, 2008c).

However, peace and security alone are not sufficient for the development of a sustainable tourism industry. Efficient, safe and well linked transport and communication networks and infrastructure are vital if the tourism industry is to have any chance of developing. In this regard, there are the approximately 53,000km of road network in Cameroon, 4,953km are tarred, 19,753km are gravel or improved earth roads, while 50% i.e. 28,294km are classified as rural roads or earth roads. Due to the fact that most of these roads are gravel or earth roads, they are accessible mainly during the dry season and even during this period, all weather vehicles are needed to ply them (CIA, 2010; Gwabarah, 2010).

Cameroon's topography (mountainous and hilly in most parts of the country) has not permitted the development of a consistent railway system. That notwithstanding, there are a total of 1,111 km of railroads, the foundations of which were started by the Germans. The main rail line starts from the port city of Douala through Yaoundé to the Adamaoua regional capital of Ngaoundéré, while other the line completed in 1969 leaves Douala through Mbanga to Kumba and Nkongsamba (Camrail, 2004). Presently, only the Douala-Yaoundé-Ngaoundéré line is used for passenger transport because of the distance as well as the absence of a good road network to the north of Cameroon. Most people prefer travelling with buses which are faster and much comfortable. The trains plying this line are very slow, uncomfortable and overcrowded, with locomotives dating back to the 1970s. Rail transport is mainly used to transport goods from the economic capital Douala to other parts of the country and vice versa.

In the domain of air transport, there are 50 airports and airstrips located all over Cameroon. Of this number however, only 2 (Douala and Yaoundé) have a paved runway of over 3,000m and 4 have a runway of more than 2,438m permitting the landing and take-off of medium sized aeroplanes. There are also 3 airports with paved runways of above 1,500m but less than 2,430m, while the remainder have paved and unpaved runways ranging from 914m to 2,438m (CIA, 2010). Most of these airports and airstrips (which have been abandoned) date back to the colonial era when the absence of a good road network made travelling to Cameroon's interior very difficult. The colonial authorities preferred travelling by air which was faster and safer and therefore constructed these airports/airstrips. These airports and airstrips are a very important asset which could be put to use in developing a sustainable

nature-based tourism industry in Cameroon. At the time of this research, only the airports of Douala, Yaoundé-Nsimalen, and to a lesser extent, Garoua and Maroua were operational.

Up till 1999, only the defunct national carrier, Cameroon Airlines, used to operate (inconsistently) within the country mainly on the route from Douala to Garoua, with stops in Yaoundé, Ngaoundéré, and Maroua. However, two privately owned companies, (National Airways Cameroon S.A. (NACAM) and Elysian Airlines) created in 1999 and 2006 respectively are operating almost regular air services within the country (Elysian Airlines, 2007; NACAM, 2007). These airlines service destinations within Cameroon (Douala, and Yaoundé but also Ngaoundéré, Garoua and Maroua in the north of the country) as well as destinations in West and Central Africa. In 2008 however, NACAM, suspended all flights to the northern parts of the country because of exorbitant taxes imposed on it by the government (Boyomo, 2008).

In 2009, seven main airlines serviced the country from Europe. These were SN Brussels, Swiss International and Air France which operate non-stop direct flights from Brussels, Zurich and Paris to Douala and Yaoundé, as well as Afriqiya Airways, Ethiopia Airways, Kenya Airways and Royal Air Maroc which made stop-overs in Tripoli, Addis-Ababa, Nairobi and Rabat respectively before heading to Douala and Yaoundé; while nineteen regional airline companies serviced the country (Appendix 4.3).

4.4.6 Tourism marketing, promotion and destination branding

Various measures have been undertaken in the last couple of years to improve on the image of Cameroon as a tourist destination. In 2002 for example, a Cameroon Tourism Marketing Plan was drawn up with the technical assistance of the Commonwealth. In addition there is in theory a Cameroon Tourism Office in Paris responsible for promoting its tourism industry in Europe. Whilst countries like Senegal, Kenya, Botswana¹⁹, South Africa, Tanzania for example promoted their tourist industries by creating national tourism organisations whose principal responsibilities were managing, promoting and marketing these countries as tourism destinations in renowned and popular annual international tourism trade fairs like the World Travel Market (WTM) in London and the International Tourism Fair (ITB) in

¹⁹ In 2005 for example, from the marketing budget allocated to the Botswana Tourism Board for the various marketing tools, 14% was spent on advertisements (including online adverts), 41% on tourism fairs, 41% on Information and 1% was spent on trade shows and workshops (WTO, 2005b).

Berlin respectively in the tourist generating markets, as well as forging contacts and partnerships with multinational tour operators like Thomson, Serena, TUI, LTU, Thomas Cook, ClubMed, Cameroon has not got any such organisation and is hardly ever present in these fairs or forums. At the moment, Cameroon's MINTOUR is the only body responsible for promoting/marketing Cameroon as a tourist and holiday destination. Any additional, information about tourism in Cameroon can be obtained from its embassies abroad or websites of private tour operators.

In an informal search done by the researcher of 20 popular travel/holiday marketing journals in Britain and Germany which sold holiday packages and trips to Africa and other continents for the 2008/2009 holiday season, only one of them, Neckermann *Reisen* (Tours) offered a holiday package to Cameroon. On the contrary, all of them had various offers at various times of the year to countries like the Gambia, Senegal, Kenya, Tanzania, Botswana and Namibia among others. In addition, apart from Botswana and Namibia (practising but high-cost/quality low-volume tourism), Cameroon was the most expensive country when compared with the above mentioned countries, costing about 30% more than a trip to the Gambia for example during the same period using similar transportation, accommodation and catering facilities. Also another informal search by the researcher on the internet search engine 'Google' for the key words 'holidays to' and 'tourism in' revealed the following:

Table 4.7: Internet Presence in Google search engine 05.02.2008

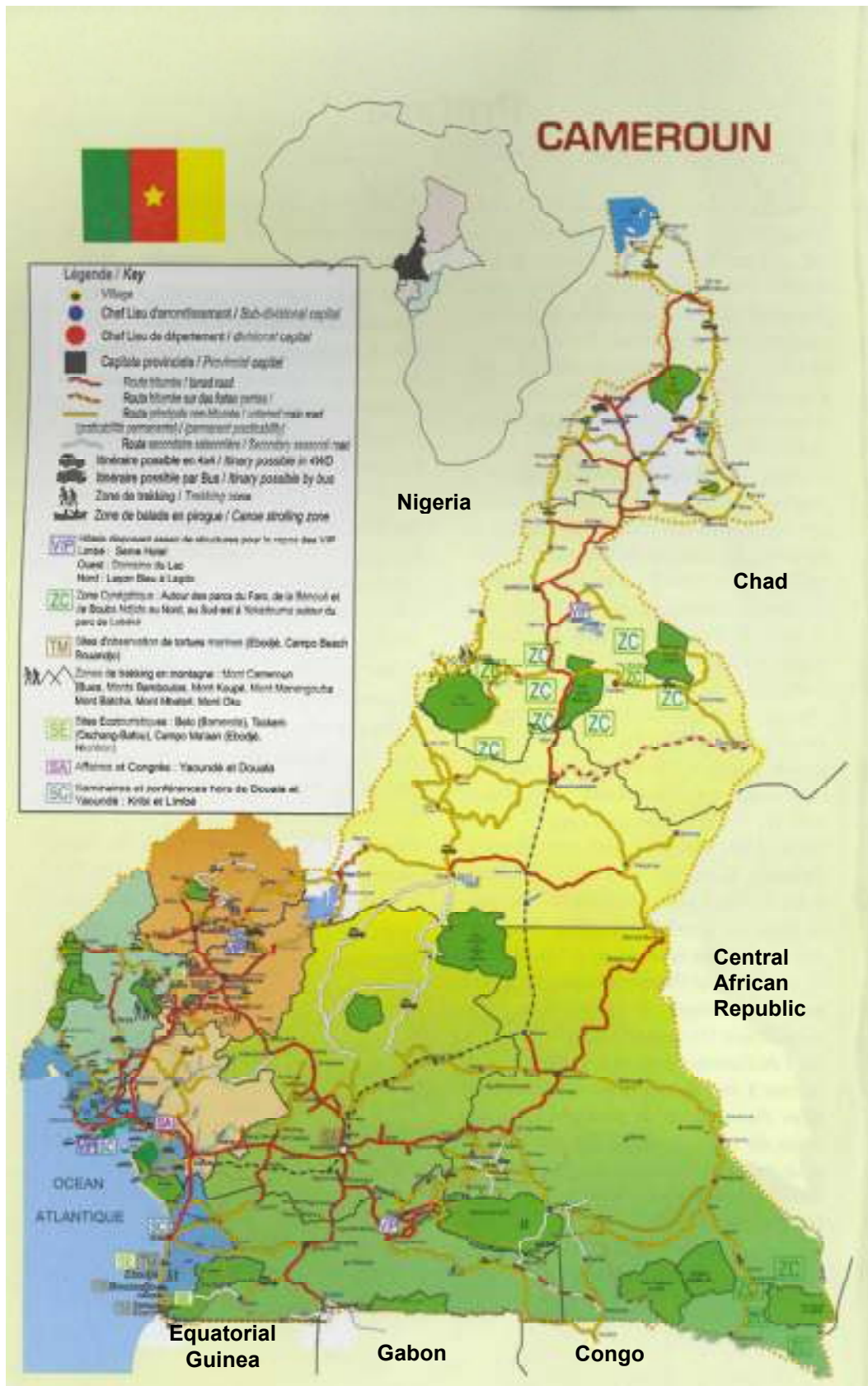
| Country | Number of entries for: Tourism in | Number of entries for: Holidays to |
|----------------|--|---|
| Botswana | 239,000 | 678,000 |
| Cameroon | 515,000 | 472,000 |
| Senegal | 2,050,000 | 2,070,000 |
| Tanzania | 259,000 | 570,000 |

Source: Researcher, 2009

The table clearly reveals that among the four sample countries used in this research, in terms of holidays, even though Cameroon has many more entries than Botswana and Tanzania but three times less than Senegal in terms of 'tourism in', it is least represented on the internet as a holiday destination with only 472,000 entries, 1.5 million times less than Senegal ('holidays to'). Countries like Senegal, Botswana and Tanzania have a much heavier internet presence because they have recognised the importance of the internet as a cost effective tool in marketing themselves as holiday destinations (Table 4.7). This is not the sole responsibility of the government but also that of local tour operators.

4.5 Types of tourism practised

Map 4.4: Transport and tourism map of Cameroon



Source: Cameroon: Practical traveller's guide 2007

Various types of tourism activities presently take place in Cameroon. These range from photographic nature and hunting safaris through ecotourism, bird watching, cultural tourism, mountain climbing, as well as sun and sea tourism in Cameroon's Atlantic coast amongst others. Map 4.4 above indicates the areas where the some of the different tourism activities take place.

4.5.1 Trophy hunting and nature based photo safaris

The three northern regions of Cameroon harbour Cameroon's safari tourism industry. Their climate, topography and location in the Chad and Bénoué depressions have favoured the development and concentration of different floral but most especially faunal and bird species in the region, all factors favouring the development of a photographic nature-based safari as well as a trophy hunting industry going as far back as the period of French colonial administration.

The Waza National Park is the most popular, developed and accessible safari destination in Cameroon and one of the few parks in the country where the 'big five' (lion, elephant, rhinoceros, buffalo and the leopard) in addition to an impressive amount of other wildlife and bird species (cheetahs, hippopotamuses, giraffes and hartebeests, ostriches, etc) can be viewed. The safari season usually commences in November and lasts until May with wildlife viewing especially very good between the months of March and May when the various species of animals and birds for which the park is famous congregate around the watering holes to drink and cool down (Riley and Riley; 2005). Wildlife viewing is also very good in the Bénoué National Park which is equally accessible by car all year round. Both parks have accommodation and camping facilities within and inside the park. However, the Bouba Njidah and Faro National Parks are not very accessible by car because of the presence of many rivers and thick vegetation but they are amongst the most poached parks in the north of Cameroon (Riley and Riley; 2005).

These parks are used exclusively for photo-safaris and hunting is strictly forbidden in them. There are designated hunting zones in the north of the country (around the Benoué and Bouba Njidah National Parks) and in the south and eastern parts of the country (around the Lobéké National Park), with a total of more than 500 km of serviced hunting tracks for tourists interested in trophy hunting. In 2002 for example, there were 28 hunting zones in the Northern Regions of Cameroon, the majority of which have been leased to expatriate professional hunters. The hunting season normally last from December to May and hunting is supposedly done in strict compliance of the convention on the protection of endangered species (Government of Cameroon, 2004b; Mayaka, 2002).

4.5.2 Ecotourism

In terms of natural resources, Cameroon as has previously been mentioned is one of those countries in the continent which still has an abundant biodiversity. Due to this abundant and rich natural resource diversity, Cameroon was ranked 42nd among the 133 countries included in the study of the 2009 TTCR (Blanke and Chiesa, 2009).

Until very recently, sustainable (eco) tourism was a term unheard of and virtually inexistent in Cameroon. During the last decade however, it has been gaining increasing importance and presently there are a few organisations/enterprises specialised in ecotourism activities in some of the country's parks, reserves and protected areas. Ecotourism takes place for example in the world famous Korup National Park (4.3.2.2). The 1984 filming in the Korup National Park of Greystoke's film, *The Legend of Tarzan, Lord of the Apes* further helped to make the park known to nature enthusiasts. Three areas within the park have been designated as camping sites in addition to the 115 km of trails and paths created within the park for use by scientists, researchers and tourists. Also tour guides have been trained and a tourist information centre opened in the town of Mundemba which is the gateway into this park (Riley and Riley; 2005; Korup National Park, 2007).

The Campo Ma'an National Park is the most accessible of the parks and reserves in the South, Centre and Eastern Regions of Cameroon. Accessibility to this park is guaranteed almost all year round only on four wheel drive vehicles and ecotourism are gradually being introduced, with two small ecolodges constructed already. Attempts are being made to involve the Baka Pygmies (Cameroon's first inhabitants who live within the reserve in small sporadic encampments, maintaining an essentially traditional hunting/gathering lifestyle using traditional methods) in the ongoing tourism development activities (Nzoo Dongmo 2001; Riley and Riley; 2005). The Mount Cameroon region is also an attractive ecotourism destination and ecotourism development/management activities here are overseen by the Mount Cameroon inter-Communal Ecotourism Organisation (Mount CEO). Apart from the rich and abundant biodiversity, the volcano itself, the craters and lava flows of recent eruptions, caves, crater lakes and waterfalls around the mountain have always attracted nature-loving tourists and mountaineers to the region. The recently refurbished Limbe Botanical and Zoological Gardens are also important sites that are visited by tourists and researchers where educative information on plants and animals of the region can be obtained (4.3.2.1).

4.5.3 Altitude (mountain) tourism and hiking

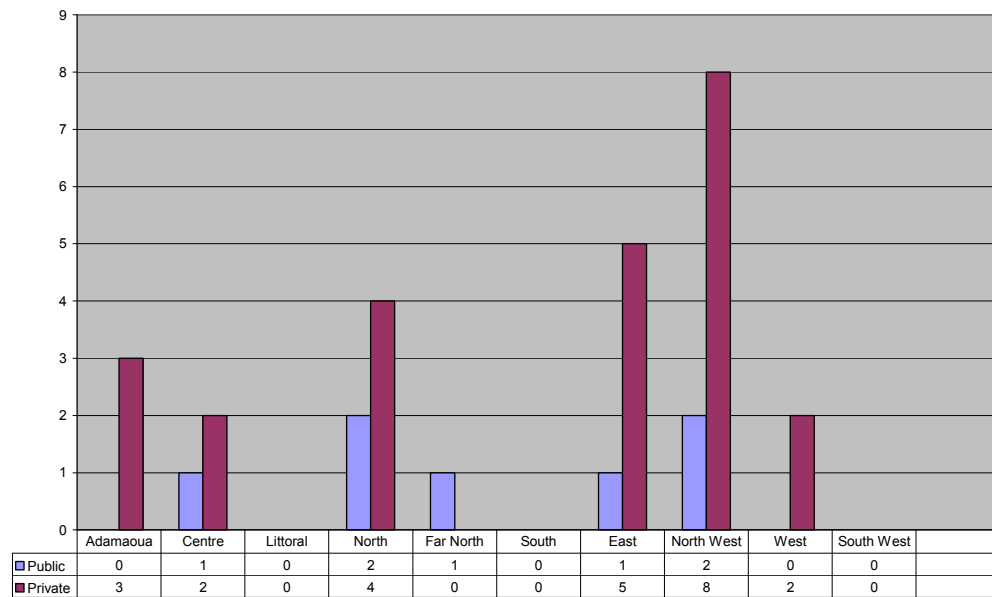
Cameroon's topography greatly favours the development of mountain tourism and trekking adventures. Limited mountaineering expeditions and hiking trips are being organised especially to the 4,095m high Mount Cameroon (South West Region) and also on the Mandara, Kapsiki and Rumsiki Mountains (Northern Region), as well as in Dschang at 1,800m (Western Region) which has been used since the German colonial era as a high altitude resort; with possibilities of expanding this to include the Mount Muanengouba in the Littoral and South West Regions

The attractiveness of the Mount Cameroon region is further enhanced by the colonial architecture and historical sites in the regional capital Buea located at about 1000m above sea level directly at the foot of the mountain (4.3.1). It also the starting point of all excursions to the mountain and the annual Mount Cameroon 'race of hope'.

4.5.4 Cultural/heritage tourism

After photo-safaris and trophy hunting, cultural/heritage tourism is one of the most important forms of tourism presently being practised in Cameroon. It is increasingly becoming popular not only with foreigners but also amongst Cameroonians themselves. Being a mosaic of more than 250 ethnic groups, Cameroon is a veritable melting pot of customs, traditions and cultures. This diversity is displayed in the annual traditional festivals and (birth and death) celebrations which take place all year round in the various fondoms, sultanates and lamidats of the country. This diversity is further enhanced by its mixed colonial heritage (4.2.2). However, the northern but most especially the western part (Grassfield) of Cameroon are famous for their cultures and traditions and form the basis of Cameroon's cultural tourism industry. It is here that the elaborate celebrations take place and the best carvers and blacksmiths in the country are to be found. Tourists do not only have the opportunity to visit the palaces of the *fons*, (of Bafut, Nso and Bali, among others,) sultan (of Foumban) and *lamidos* (Rey Bouba, Garoua, Ngaoundéré and Ngaoundal) but also their museums and other public museums, in the country. The architecture of most of these palaces and museums it should be noted are a mixture of the traditional and colonial styles copied from the colonial powers (especially Germany). This mixture is also reflected in the content of Cameroon's museums, a third of which were located in the North West Region alone in 2005 (Figure 4.6). Art works and objects on display in these museums not only depict traditional societies but also show objects acquired from the colonialist during colonisation as well as objects depicting the encounters with the colonialists.

Figure 4.6: Distribution of museums per region and type in Cameroon in 2005



Source: NIS, 2007

In addition to its living cultures, vestiges of Cameroon’s triple colonial heritage (forts, offices, residences and churches) which can be found in various parts of the country make it a very interesting destination for the development of heritage tourism (4.3.1). Most of these structures have survived the test of time though others especially those in private hands are in dire need of restoration (Lauber, 1988).

Up till 2002, cultural/heritage tourism was on the increase but a drastic decline in the number of French, Belgian and German visitors who constituted a very important segment of tourists to Cameroon has led to a stagnation in this sector (WTO, 2007b).

4.5.5 Beach/seaside resort tourism

With 400km of coastline, sun and sea tourism is already being practised in Cameroon but not at the level of countries like Senegal, Gambia or Kenya where international hotel chains have constructed large seaside resort complexes. The most popular beach resorts in Cameroon are located in Limbe in the South West Region with its dark volcanic sandy beaches, and in Kribi in the South Region with its white sandy beaches. While the proximity of Mount Cameroon to the beaches in Limbe makes it particularly fascinating, the proximity of the Campo Ma’an National Park and the Lobe Falls which drains directly into the Atlantic Ocean near the resort town of Kribi makes it an interesting destination. Activities in these resorts are presently limited to just swimming, sun bathing and tours with dug-out canoes to

Pygmy settlements in the nearby mangrove forests as well as sports fishing in Kribi (Kamen, 2009).

4.5.6 Sports tourism

Cameroon is world famous among football (soccer) enthusiasts as the first ever African country to have reached the quarter finals of the FIFA football World Cup Competition in 1990. This feat greatly enhanced the popularity of the country but the government did not capitalise on it to promote its tourism industry. However, there is some degree of sports tourism presently going on in the country.

The most remarkable event in this domain is the annual Mount Cameroon race started in 1973, the only one of its kind in all of Africa which involves ascending and descending the Mount Cameroon from the town of Buea. It brings together thousands of runners each year as well as thousands of visitors to the South West Region. International participation and promotion dwindled especially after the organisation of the race changed hands in 1990. In 1996, a new management took over and new innovations were made to the race increasing the level of promotion and attracting international participation which has been steadily increasing over the years in terms of race participants and visitor numbers (Sumelong, 2008).

Golfing is also being practised. There are golf clubs in Likomba (Tiko) in the South West Region as well as in the coastal resort of Kribi and in Yaoundé in the South and Centre Regions respectively which are starting to attract an increasing number of visitors but mostly Cameroon-based foreign expatriates.

In addition sports fishing is practised in the country and there are presently three sports fishing clubs, two of which are located in Kribi (*Marlin Club Kribi, Sirena Fishing Club Kribi*) and one in Douala (*Centre de Peche Sportive de Douala*) (Kamen, 2009; Cameroun-plus, 2010). This sector is still at an early stage of development with potential for growth and expansion to the other coastal towns of Limbe and Tiko.

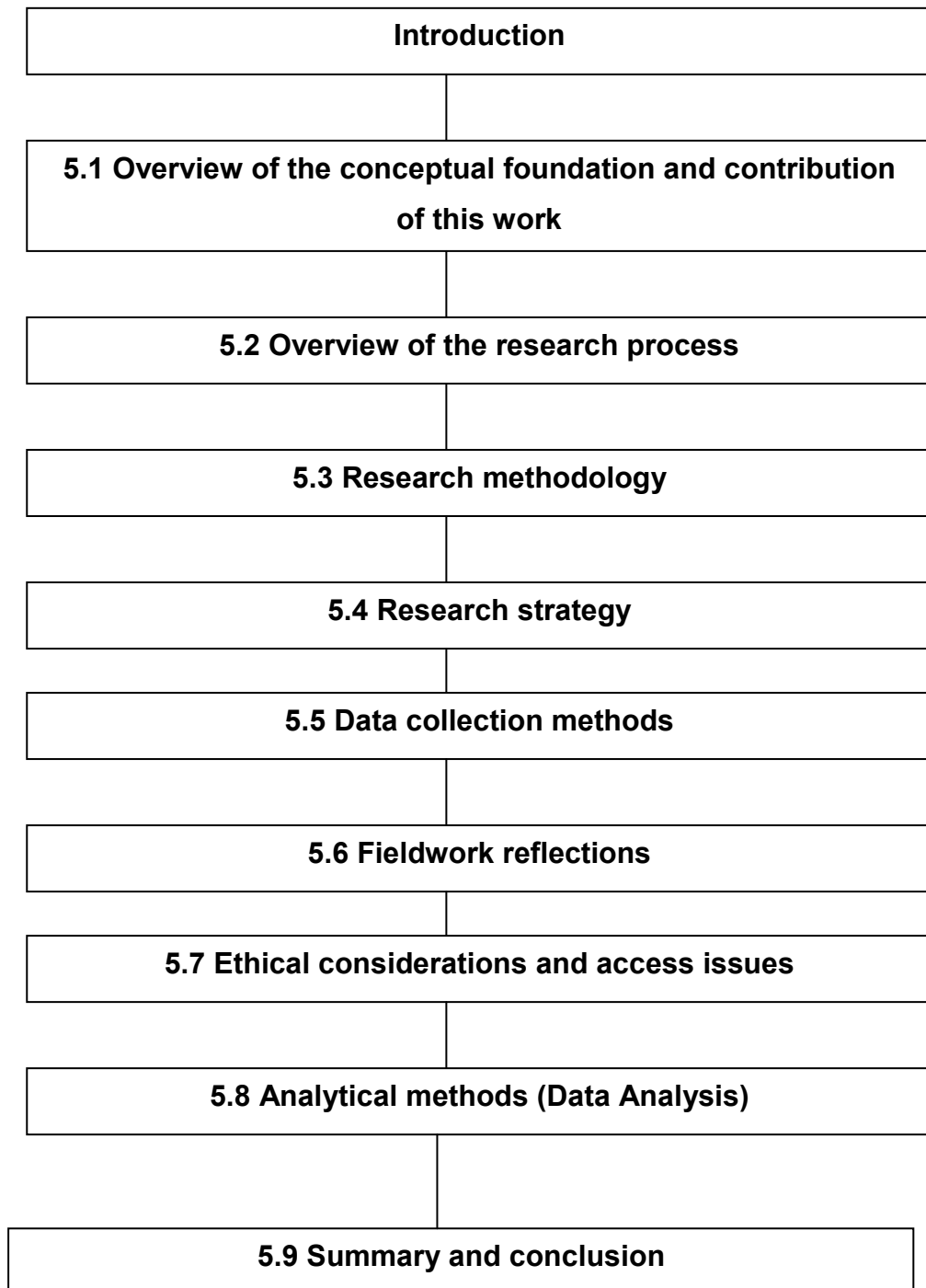
4.6 Summary and conclusion

The review of literature in this chapter has revealed that Cameroon has serious potential for the development of tourism in the sustainable nature/eco, culture/heritage, sun/sea and safari tourism sectors but unlike the Senegal, Tanzania and Botswana whose tourism industries have been witnessing steady and unimpeded growth since 2000 (3.2), that of Cameroon was in a state of stagnation and even decline in terms of international tourism arrivals and receipts for this same period until 2006. This is so in spite of the fact that its location at the cross roads of

West, East and South Africa with a favourable topography and climate have made it possible for all the primary characteristics (flora, fauna, weather, sea, culture) that are found in varying degrees in popular tourist destinations like Senegal, Tanzania and Botswana offer) to be found in the country, thus the appellation 'all of Africa in one country', yet it is not making use of these qualities. In addition a good number of departments and ministries and other stakeholders are involved in tourism development management in Cameroon making coordination and policy making an issue. A strategic sustainable tourism development management framework is imperative if Cameroon's tourism sector has to be developed in line with the sustainable tourism development (and management) principles discussed in Chapter Two and if it has to become competitive and attractive as the other case countries discussed in Chapter Three. However, before this can be conceived and drawn-up, it is very important to undertake fieldwork to Cameroon to understand the reasons for this stagnation, why Cameroon has not profited from the recent global tourism growth, as well as the exact nature of the problems facing the industry using a research methodology and methods which will be discussed in Chapter Five.

Chapters One to Four have formulated and explained the background for this research. The next chapter will discuss issues of methodology, the research methods and outline the research process.

5. Methodology



Introduction

This chapter discusses the research design and its implementation. It will present an explanation and justification of the methods that have been used in collecting data to meet the three aims of this study which are:

- To identify and outline the growth potential of the tourism industry in Cameroon as a means of improving the socio-economic conditions of the local communities.
- To examine the contradictions and challenges facing the development of a viable sustainable tourism industry in Cameroon.
- To determine how far sustainable tourism concepts successfully applied in other countries can be adapted and used in developing and managing the tourism potential of Cameroon in particular, and its sub-region.

It begins with an overview of the conceptual foundation and continues with a discussion of the appropriateness of a case-based mixed methods research design in the context of the research's aims and the general lack of prior research in this area of study dealing with sustainable tourism development management in the Central African sub-region and Cameroon in particular. The chapter proceeds with a description of the research methodology, the research strategy and then discusses the methods used to collect quantitative and qualitative data from different public/private sector stakeholders within Cameroon's tourism industry and from tourists who have come to the end of their visit in Cameroon. The various steps used to carry out the questionnaire survey and conduct discussions and in-depth interviews with these stakeholders are explained. Issues dealing with the result's validity and reliability as well as reflections from the fieldwork and ethical considerations are also discussed. A discussion and an explanation of the data analysis process takes up the last section of this chapter.

5.1 Overview of the conceptual foundation and contribution of this work

General tourism literature and research dealing with the Central African sub-region is rare. Sustainable tourism literature/research about this part of the African continent is non-existent, in spite of the fact that this region generally referred to as the Congo

Basin, which runs through six Central African countries, contains the second largest contiguous rainforest in the world after that of the Amazon. Cameroon's forests in fact contains some of the Congo Basin's most biologically diverse and most threatened forests, and are promising hot spots for the development of a sustainable nature-based tourism industry (Shackley, 2006; WWF, 2001a). Although there has been an increasingly growing number of scientific and academic publications within tourism and hospitality development and management studies dealing with sustainable tourism and its applications, management and development guidelines, and codes of practice from authors like Weaver (2005), Beech and Chadwick (2006), Edgell (2006), Jafari, (2003; 2001), Sharpley, (2000), Nijkamp and Verdonkshot (1995), Butler (1995; 1993; 1991), Hunter (1997) and Inskeep (1991) within the last two decades, very little attention has been focused on the tourism industry in countries within the Central African sub-region, in spite of their enormous potential for sustainable tourism development. A review of literature revealed a lack of systematic and dedicated research and literature dealing with Cameroon's tourism industry in general and sustainable tourism in particular. Also, a statistical analysis (of tourism indicators) done in Chapters Three and Four revealed that there were significant disparities in the development and management of the tourism industries in the different sub-regions of sub-Saharan Africa and in the specific countries examined in relation to Cameroon's tourism industry.

This realisation, coupled with the researcher's professional, academic and practical experience in Cameroon encouraged and motivated the researcher to investigate the tourism industry especially with regards to the development and management of sustainable tourism; a review (of the principal concepts and definitions) of this has been done in Chapter Two. Further discussion of the practical applications of the principles and concepts will be offered in Chapter Eight in relation to empirical data that will be generated through this study.

Since 2000, the Cameroon government's policy has theoretically been geared towards the liberalisation of the economy in general (including the tourism industry) by promoting the creation of small and medium sized businesses through simplifying the taxation system and lowering taxes. The researcher was motivated to find out the effectiveness of this policy and other policies related to the tourism industry as well as identify other sustainable tourism development management concepts which have been successfully applied in other countries and how they could be tailored and adjusted for use in the development of Cameroon's tourism industry thereby contributing to the improvement of the socio-economic situation of local inhabitants.

The contribution to knowledge of this research will be to assist in filling both a research and policy vacuum. It will not only assist the research community but it is hoped that the stakeholders within the tourism industry will benefit from the results. Future researchers, on the other hand, will be able to use this piece of research as a starting/reference source when conducting research dealing with tourism development in the Central African sub-region in general and Cameroon in particular.

5.2 Overview of the research process

An extensive literature review presented in Chapters Three and Four dealing with the evolution and management of the tourism industry in three selected countries in sub-Saharan Africa (Senegal, Tanzania and Botswana in West, East and Southern Africa respectively) and Cameroon was carried out using secondary data from books, journals, statistical publications and the World Wide Web before the primary fieldwork. To investigate the aforementioned aims and answer the research questions, mixed research methods with a case study as the research strategy were used to collect the primary data needed for this thesis. This data enabled the construction of a vivid picture of the present state of the tourism industry in Cameroon as well as provided insights and guidelines to possible answers to the research questions and the fulfilment of the research aims. Questionnaires distributed to non-resident tourists, in-depth semi-structured interviews with policy makers, key park managers and tour/hotel operators in Cameroon's tourism industry supported by field observations were the principal methods used for data collection in this study.

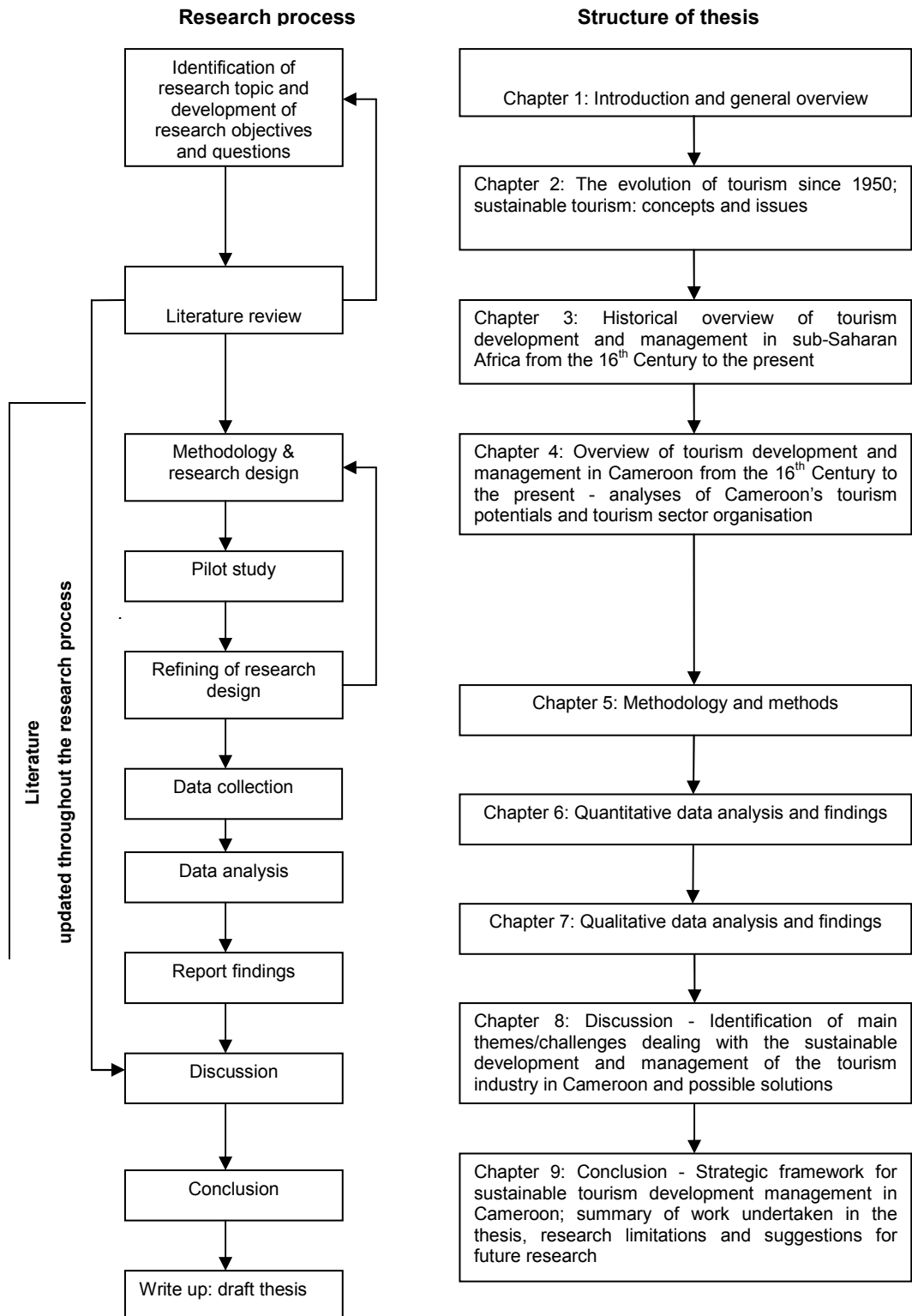
The study enables an understanding of the opportunities and challenges presently facing the various stakeholders involved in the development of Cameroon's tourism industry. It highlights the challenges and contradictions existing in sustainable tourism development especially in small countries where tourism development is not prioritised. It is hoped that in the results and strategic framework generated at the end of this exercise, the aims of the research will clearly be seen to have been fulfilled and the research questions satisfactorily answered

The researcher felt it was essential to do a pre-pilot study as well as an expert's review of the questionnaires. Thus in July 2008, a pilot survey was carried out by the researcher with 10 respondents in the United Kingdom (Nottingham) before the start of the field trip. During this same period, the questionnaires were also sent out to 4 experts with many years of experience in research and teaching in tourism and hospitality for review. The respondents were called upon to assume the role of

tourists who had just visited Cameroon and answer the questions while the experts were called upon to critically examine the questions from the perspectives of understandability and simplicity of the questions, catchability of questions, representativeness/reflection of the questions to the research aims paying close attention to the direction of causality for these were very important in ascertaining content and results validity at the latter stages of data analysis. These exercises were very useful in that they generated some very useful feedback on the length of the questionnaire, the wording and syntax of some questions as well as their morphology. Comments made by the experts as well as by the respondents of the pilot survey enabled the researcher to restructure, reformulate and simplify certain questions as well as provide explanatory comments to some sections in the final draft of the self-completion questionnaire (which was prepared specifically for tourists who had come to the end of their stay in Cameroon). This made it possible for the 'average' tourist to be able to comprehend and answer all the questions without much ado as well as strengthen the connection between the questions and the research aims.

One extended research phase lasting six months took place between October 2008 and March 2009. This was due to logistical reasons such as the high transport costs to and within Cameroon. If the research had been split into two phases, it would have entailed organising two trips to Cameroon (where all the interviewees were based) and this would have been financially difficult for the researcher. Figure 5.1 is an overview of the research process and structure of the thesis.

Figure 5.1: Overview of the research process and structure of the thesis



Source: Researcher

5.3 Research methodology

Sound research methodology and methods whether positivist (quantitative) or interpretivist (qualitative) orientated are the bedrock on which successful and solid research is built. Research methodology (and methods) are thus fundamental to any research project. Henn *et al.* (2006) state that at the start of any research it is very important to distinguish between methodology and method. Seale (1988, p. 3) makes mention of the fact that methodology which covers the research design and strategy as a whole includes “... *the political, theoretical and philosophical implications of making choices of methods when doing research*”, while method according to Henn *et al.* (2006, p. 10) refers to “...*the range of techniques that are available to us to collect evidence about the social world*”.

5.3.1 Research philosophies and approaches

Bryman (1988) defines a paradigm as “*a cluster of beliefs and dictates which for scientists in a particular discipline influence what should be studied, how research should be done and how results should be interpreted, and so on*” (Bryman, 1988, p. 4). According to Henn *et al.*, (2006) even though there are a number of alternative approaches in social research, there are broadly speaking two main divergent views or what are generally called competing paradigms about the nature of knowledge. These are the positivist paradigm (generally associated with quantitative research strategies) and the interpretive paradigm (associated with qualitative research strategies).

Proponents of the positivist philosophy work on the assumption that there is an objective reality which can be understood and described by investigation and measurable properties over which the researcher has no control. The investigation and properties are thus independent of the researcher and his instruments. Proponents of the positivist paradigm argue that “...*there is a reality over there to be studied, captured and understood...*” (Denzin and Lincoln, 1998, p. 8) and “... *that knowledge is only of significance if it is based on observations of this external reality*” (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 1991, p. 22). Henn *et al.* (2006, p.13), state that the logic in using a positivist research design is that “*we seek to identify processes of cause and effect to explain phenomena, and to test theory. Knowledge should therefore be based on what can be tested by observation of tangible evidence and researchers should use the scientific method which emphasizes control, standardization, and objectivity*”. The positivist paradigm thus works on the assumption that the researcher is independent of the subject of research and he is thus “*capable of*

studying the object without influencing it or be influenced by it" (Guba and Lincoln, 1998, p. 204).

One of the principal methods used when conducting positivist research is 'quantitative' methods of research. The quantitative research method enables the researcher to collect facts and study the relationship of one set of facts with another. Researchers are thus able to *"measure, using scientific techniques that are likely to produce quantified and, if possible generalisable conclusions"* (Bell, 1995, p. 6). A major advantage of using this method is that it is able to take into consideration the reaction of a large number of respondents to a limited set of questions, thus facilitating comparison and statistical regression of the data, enabling the generalization of the findings (Jupp and Norris, 1993).

On the other hand, contrasting paradigms have been variously labelled as anti-positivism (Burrell and Morgan, 1979), phenomenology (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 1991), humanistic (Gummesson, 2000) and interpretive (Van Maanen, 1983). Interpretive research is however the most favoured term used here due to the fact that it avoids the very specific assumptions associated with other alternative terms.

Interpretive research starts out on the assumption that it is only through social constructions like language, consciousness and shared meanings that access to reality is achieved. According to Denzin and Lincoln (2000), interpretive research is thus concerned with studying the social world from the perspective of the interacting individuals. Reliance is thus placed on the people being studied who provide their own explanation of their situation or behaviour (Veal, 1997). Strauss and Corbin (1990) state that by using qualitative research methods which is commonly associated with interpretive research, the researcher is able to gain some insight into the 'social reality' of the individual participants and their interpretation of it. Thus the main purpose of interpretive research *"is not to explain why something happens, but to explore or build up an understanding of something we have little or no knowledge of. Through piecing together such an understanding, we eventually build up a theory..."* (Henn, 2006 p. 15). Table 5.1 below highlights the key features which distinguish interpretive from positivist philosophies.

Table 5.1: Positivist versus Interpretivist philosophies

| Positivism | Interpretivism |
|--|---|
| Knowledge is based on phenomena that is directly observable | Knowledge is based on understanding interpretations and meanings that are not directly observable |
| The social world should be researched using the principles of natural science (such as experiments). Such a shared approach is always referred to as the unity of scientific method) | The social world should be studied in its natural state (using participant observation and in-depth interviews) to understand naturally occurring behaviour. |
| There is stress on reliability and generalisability | There is no stress on validity |
| An explanation is achieved through the formation of causal laws or law-like generalisations (nomothetic approach). | Explanation is achieved through description of social meanings/reasons and other dispositions to action (idiographic approach). |
| There is the use of the hypothetico-deductive method in which there is an emphasis on testing given theory. | There is the use of analytic-inductive method in which theory is generated from the data. |
| Methods imply research/respondent detachment in the objective collection of data. | Methods imply insider approach-participation in life and culture of respondent/closeness of respondent and researcher in the joint construction of subjective data. |
| Analysis is based on statistical testing of given theories. | Analysis is based on verbal, action and situation description from which theory evolves. |

Source: Henn *et al.*, (2006, p. 16)

This research is conducted from an interpretivist perspective. It combines both the deductive and inductive approaches, the former being the secondary approach and the latter being the primary approach used in this research whose data is collected and analysed using a combination of quantitative and qualitative data collection techniques and analysis procedures. It thus makes use of mixed data collection methods (for reasons that are explained in 5.4.1) and adopts the exploratory and descriptive case study as the research strategy.

5.3.2 The Research Choice: Mixed methods research

It has been mentioned before that most quantitative research tends to be confirmatory and involve the verification of theory while most of qualitative research is exploratory and involves theory generation. Thus a major advantage of mixed methods research is that “... *it enables the researcher to simultaneously answer confirmatory and exploratory questions, and therefore verify and generate theory in the same study*” (Teddlie and Tashakorri, 2003 p. 15). Green *et al.*, (1989) identified five principal purposes for using mixed methods of research (Figure 5.2).

Figure 5.2: The five purposes of mixed methods studies

- a. *triangulation*, or seeking convergence of results
- b. *complementarity*, or examining overlapping and different facets of a phenomenon
- c. *initiation*, or discovering paradoxes, contradictions, fresh perspectives
- d. *development*, or using the methods sequentially, such that results from the first method inform the use of the second method
- e. *expansion*, or mixed methods adding breadth and scope to a project

Source: Greene *et al.*, 1989

For this research, what Green *et al.*, (1989) termed 'development' (i.e. using methods sequentially such that results from the first method inform the use of the second method), 'triangulation' (seeking convergence of results) and 'expansion' (adding breadth and scope) were the main motivations behind the adoption of a mixed methods approach. This approach has variously been described as sequential mixed methods design (Teddlie and Tashakorri, 1998) or a two-phase design (Creswell, 1995). Secondary data was first collected and analysed during the literature review phase in Chapters Three and Four. This analysis gave rise to the research questions. After this a questionnaire survey was conducted at the start of the field trip with tourists who had come to the end of their stay in Cameroon. Analysis of the survey data, while enabling the researcher to understand the state of Cameroon's tourism industry from the perspective of visitors to the country, principally helped the researcher to fine-tune the discussion guidelines of the semi-structured interviews with public and private sector stakeholders in Cameroon's tourism industry as well as update the observation guidelines used during the field trips. Data produced in these exercises generated the qualitative data used in the second part of the research, an analysis of which fulfilled the research aims earlier reiterated and answered the research questions which had been raised after the analysis of the quantitative data or could not be answered through the quantitative analysis of data namely:

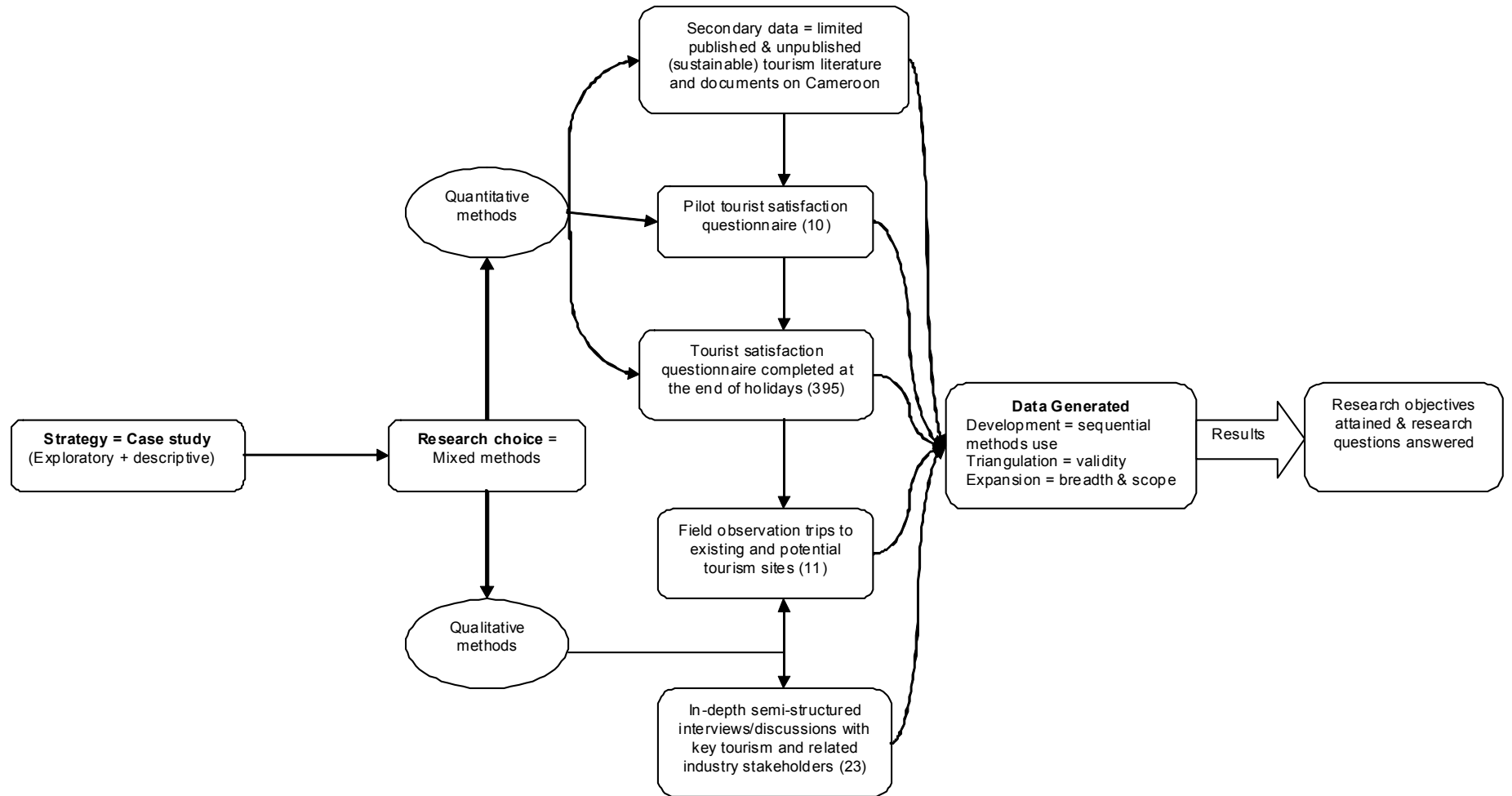
- Why are there significant variations in the growth of the tourism industry in different countries in sub-Saharan Africa?
- Why are Cameroon and the Central African sub-region in general not profiting from the present global tourism growth and what can be done to reverse this trend?

Dealing with the Central African sub-region and Cameroon in particular which has a record of poor data collection and archival systems, using only one research method

would have risked producing results which are not valid because enough data needed for the research would not have been generated. The synthesis of quantitative and qualitative data is important in that additional depth and breadth as well as a rich understanding of the data gathered during all phases of the research is guaranteed by this approach. Both methods thus complement each other by sequencing quantitative and qualitative information and providing a level of triangulation as can be seen in Figure 5.3. In so doing the mixed methods strategy assists in the development and confirmation of the hypothesis (Briedenhann and Wickens, 2002).

The next section of this thesis looks at the research strategies, techniques and processes which are usually employed when doing field research and which were used in carrying out this particular research. Fieldwork processes explain the means used in selecting a research sample and how the data gathering process is organised and coordinated.

Figure 5.3: Research strategy and data collection methods used in this research



Source: Researcher

5.4 Research strategy

Some of the various research methods frequently used when conducting quantitative and qualitative studies which were used in this research are explained in this section. This is to enable the reader to understand why this particular strategy and methods were adopted, for it has been observed as Bell (1995) rightly noted that researchers tend to use terms and sometimes jargon that maybe incomprehensible to other people.

5.4.1 The Case Study

Case studies are generally the preferred method of research when the object of research is just a single item (case) or a small number of items (cases). That was the case with this research. The researcher was out to investigate factors affecting the development and management of sustainable tourism in Cameroon. Yin (1989) and Eisenhardt (1989) both observe that the main characteristics of case studies are firstly that they can combine multiple sources of evidence and secondly that they take place over a period of time. There are varying ways of conducting case-based research but a common feature to all case-based studies are the benefits which accrue when studying a phenomena in its natural context, environment or setting as is the situation with all case-based research. Yin (2002) mentions three principal criteria which lend a distinctive advantage to case studies as a preferred research strategy; case-based research focuses on 'how' or 'why' questions, the investigator has little or no control over the events, and the question(s) being asked is about contemporary phenomenon within a real-life context. Case studies thus have an added strength in that they are empirically-based in nature and there is thus more opportunity to generate new theory from their results (Stake, 2000; Eisenhardt, 1989).

The most common research strategy adopted in tourism studies is the case study. This is due to the fact that, in general, various factors such as culture, location, history and level of development heavily impact on the background of each tourist site or destination (Ritchie *et al.*, 2004). These factors justify the adoption of the case study which usually focuses on specific sites as the favoured research strategy of many tourism researchers, this researcher not excluded.

Three principal factors, however, motivated the decision of the researcher to adopt a case study as the research strategy thus: the nature of the phenomenon being investigated, the need to study in-context; and the desire to reveal insights and perspectives in the management of sustainable tourism development in Cameroon. Investigating this subject required great depth which could be best achieved through a case-based study focused entirely on Cameroon.

Using a descriptive case-based design in this research, enabled the researcher to make a large number of observations within a small number of situations so that an in-depth understanding or insight of the case in question could be garnered and a narrative developed which is capable of linking the observations made into a plausible account of their connections to each other.

This is because, like some social scientists have argued, case-based methodology should be used to explain cases or small-N cases which are important because of their intrinsic interest (Stake, 1995) or because they represent a far broader population or the most advanced members (elite) of that population. Case studies are therefore not 'samples', but they can be used in situations where it is necessary to have a deep theoretical understanding of the necessary social changes (in this case, the sustainable development management of Cameroon's tourism sector) (Gomm *et al*, 2000; Rogowsky, 2004). The knowledge gained from this deep insight can be used to "*expand and generalize theories (analytic generalization) and not to enumerate frequencies (statistical generalization)*" (Yin, 2002. p.11).

It is in the light of the above reasons that a case-based research strategy was adopted for this study. By making a comparative analysis of some tourism indicators from the different regions and selected countries (Senegal, Tanzania, Botswana) of sub-Saharan Africa to those of Cameroon in Chapters Three and Four, the situation in Cameroon's tourism industry became very visible and therefore justified not only the validity of the research but the need for more research about Cameroon's tourism sector, for it raised questions as to finding out why the situation in Cameroon (and the Central African sub-region in general) was different and what could be done about it. Mindful of the advantages of mixed methods research (5.3.2) coupled with the scarcity of published and unpublished tourism literature about the sub-region, more information about the situation in Cameroon which would have answered the research questions and fulfilled the research objectives could only be obtained by adopting mixed methods research within the confines of a case-based strategy (Figure 5.3).

Also since the researcher was dealing with "why" questions which are generally more explanatory of particular situations within a given context, a case-based research methodology was the best approach. Data from single or small-N case-based designs are particularly suited or preferable when certain topics have to be researched, the results of which could be used to make warranted defensible inferences to either develop or to test causal interpretive theory. For the purpose of this research, an analysis of quantitative data collected from multiple secondary sources gave rise to the 'why' questions which were then answered through primary data and information collected

from questionnaires, interviews and observations which were conducted during the field trip. Thus the use of the case study employing both quantitative and qualitative methods not only tightened the scope of the research (making it clearer) but significantly increased the focus and concentration on the topic in question and allowed the exploration and use of multiple means of data collection from varying sources. More data was thus generated through triangulation and the results validity was guaranteed.

5.5 Data collection methods

The purpose of this study was to investigate why there were significant variations in tourism growth within regions and countries in sub-Saharan Africa and what could be done to develop and manage the tourism industry in a sustainable manner in the Central African sub-region using Cameroon as the case study. To do this, the opinion of various stakeholders (i.e. the consumers of Cameroon's tourism product as well as its owners/managers) had to be sought. Mindful of the fact that tourists never have time to engage in long discussions during their holidays; a questionnaire survey was deemed the most favourable tool to use in collecting their opinions while in-depth semi-structured interviews were used to collect the opinion of the other stakeholders based in Cameroon. As discussed in section 5.4.1, the research adopts the case study as the research strategy employing both quantitative and qualitative methods. Primary data for this research was collected in Cameroon during the months of October 2008 to March 2009 through a tourist satisfaction survey, semi-structured interviews and discussions and field observation trips to existing sites and areas of potential tourism development. However, before primary data collection using the above mentioned methods during fieldwork could be undertaken, the research aims and questions had to be developed and refined and this was done after analysing secondary data from various sources.

5.5.1 Secondary data

The use of existing data collected by someone for other purposes other than the researcher conducting a current study is referred to as secondary research (Saunders *et al.*, 2007; Sekaran, 2003). Secondary data sources range from books, journals, the media and internet, government reports, industry studies, company annual reports, archived data sets and syndicated information services among others. Some of the main advantages of using secondary data are that it requires the use of fewer resources especially time and money to obtain, and it provides comparative and contextual data which may result in unexpected discoveries (Saunders *et al.*, 2007). The exclusive use of secondary data is however not suitable for all types of research, including this research

where published and unpublished information is difficult to obtain. This is because there is very little published information dealing with Cameroon's tourism industry within and out of Cameroon coupled with poorly maintained and managed archiving systems in the country.

Due to the fact that the research was aimed at satisfying the various objectives as well as providing possible answers to the research questions stated at the beginning of this chapter, it was first and foremost important to justify and validate these objectives. It was only after this condition had been met that the researcher could progress into looking at the ways and means of achieving the goals set out in the research aims as well as answering the research questions. The most effective way of going about confirming these questions was to use Mill's method of difference (Ragin, 1987) by choosing a small series of cases (countries) in the region with different outcomes to see if there were any variables that systematically explained these differences. The use of multiple cases enabled the researcher to clearly predict contrasting results (theoretical replication) so that the initial observations which had been made in the first comparison could be affirmed by an analysis of the second set of data (Yin, 2002).

The first phase of this study was thus mainly concerned with the quantitative analysis of secondary data of some tourism indicators from the various sub-regions in sub-Saharan Africa (3.1) and an analysis of these same indicators in selected countries of the various sub-regions from 2000 – 2007 (3.2). Sub-Saharan Africa was divided into four sub-regions and some countries from these sub-regions (selected by virtue of their geographical location, history and colonial heritage) which had available data on tourism indicators were selected for the respective regions thus:

- West Africa comprising Senegal, Gambia, Ghana, Benin, Cape Verde, Nigeria;
- Central Africa made up of Cameroon, Chad, Central African Republic, Congo, Gabon, and Democratic Republic of Congo;
- East Africa made up of Kenya, Tanzania, Burundi, Ethiopia, Mozambique and Uganda;
- Southern Africa comprising Botswana, Namibia, South Africa, Swaziland and Zambia.

The indicators used in examining the sub-regional tourism industries were the number of registered overnight visitors and the inbound tourism expenditure from 2000 – 2006 as well as tourism's contribution to the GDP and national employment.

By doing a comparative analysis of these indicators for the various sub-regions and countries, it was possible to determine the regions with the highest visitor reception rates and generating the highest inbound revenue from tourism activities (3.1).

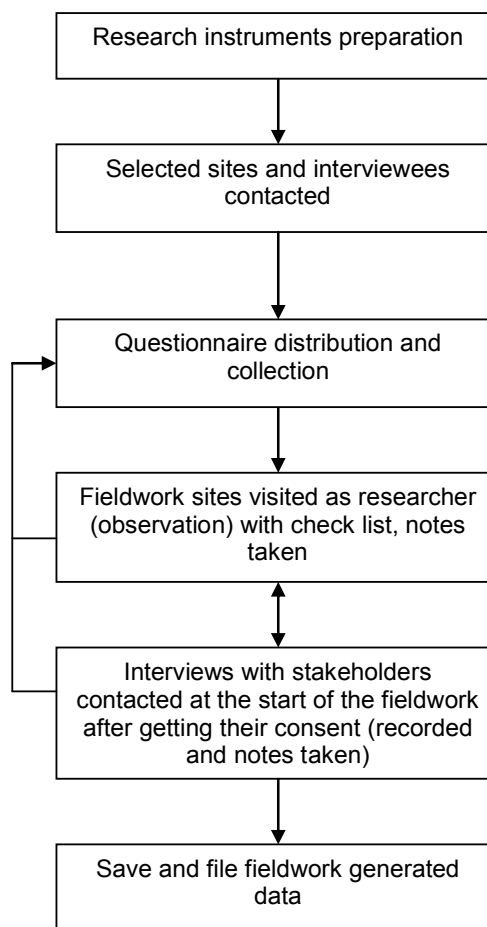
The results generated from this sub-regional analysis led to the establishment of the first warranted observation (hypothesis) thus; there was (and still is) a problem with the tourism industry in the Central African sub-region because while most of the countries in Western, Eastern and Southern Africa experienced constant and stable growth in their tourism industries as indicated by the indicators analysed for the years covering 2000 to 2006, the Central African sub-region experienced the least growth. No clear pattern could be established like had been done in the other regions. This hypothesis called for a more in depth examination of the tourism industries of a few selected countries in the region using multiple sources of evidence and a variety of methods to confirm or disprove its validity (3.2).

This involved the multiple case analyses of a selection of three countries which were representative of the other countries in the various sub-regions of sub-Saharan Africa mentioned above to see if the patterns generated by the regions were going to be repeated and confirmed by the selected representative countries. Using the quantitative research method, secondary statistical data from books, international publications and journals was obtained. This data was then analysed through the use of Excel and displayed in the form of tables, graphs and charts. By juxtaposing the countries side by side for the period of 2000 - 2006, it was possible to compare the evolution of the tourism industries in the representative countries (Senegal, Tanzania, and Botswana) to that of Cameroon using the same tourism indicators (3.2 and 4.4). In so doing, a more in depth knowledge of the variables of interest was obtained and their dynamics was well understood. The results from both sampling methods produced overwhelmingly similar patterns. It could then be decisively and conclusively said that the first hypothesis was correct. There were problems with the tourism industry in the Central African sub-region in general and Cameroon in particular as regional patterns which had earlier been discerned in the tables dealing with the various sub-regions became clearer when individual countries were examined in relation to Cameroon. The results produced further went on to justify the validity of the research design used, for it confirmed the fact that small-N case-based studies could be used in testing the plausibility of provisional ideas or hypotheses. It also confirmed the need for more research into finding out the reasons (why) for this phenomenon, what could be done about it, and how this could be done. Answers to these questions are provided in Chapters Six and Seven after an analysis of primary data collected by the researcher during a fieldtrip to Cameroon between October 2008 and March 2009.

5.5.2 Primary data

The main methods used in collecting primary data during fieldwork were a questionnaire survey, semi-structured interviews and field observations. The process of primary data collection entailed the preparation and testing of the fieldwork tools (questionnaires, interviews and observation guidelines) before the start of the fieldwork proper. It also involved the selection of the sites to be visited. After this process had been completed, the researcher then embarked on the fieldwork proper. The first task was to distribute and collect the targeted number of questionnaires. This was followed by field trips to the selected sites during which the researcher had the opportunity to interview stakeholders based in these sites who had been contacted before the start of the fieldtrip. The collected data was always stored in a rented safe deposit box during the fieldtrip and eventually brought back to Nottingham for analysis and filing. Figure 5.4 below describes the fieldwork process.

Figure 5.4: Fieldwork process



Source: Researcher

5.5.2.1 Quantitative research methods

One of the main methods frequently used in obtaining primary data when carrying out quantitative research is through the administering of questionnaires to the target group(s). In the case of this research, a tourist satisfaction questionnaire was issued to tourists who had come to the end of their holiday in Cameroon.

5.5.2.1.1 Questionnaire

The aim of surveys (which are typically in the form of questionnaires) in general is to obtain information, from a representative selection of a target population which can be analysed, patterns extracted and comparisons made. From the selected sample, the researcher is then able to present the findings as being representative of the whole population (Bell, 1995).

Great attention to the wording of the questions is required when drawing up questionnaires. This is due to the fact that all respondents are asked the same questions as far as possible under the same circumstances. The questionnaire (which can either be on paper and increasingly online) is the principal tool used in carrying out surveys which generally focus on respondents' attitudes towards particular topics under investigation.

Bell (1995) makes note of the fact that even though surveys which are generally applied when conducting quantitative research provide answers to questions dealing with 'what', 'where', 'when' and 'how', it is not always easy to find out the 'why' through surveys, hence the need for qualitative research. In qualitative research, the answers to the 'why' are obtained from (in-depth) interviews, (structured and semi-structured) discussions and observations among others, which together with a questionnaire were the main field research tools used in this study.

Even though there are certain challenges that a researcher is likely to face with the use of questionnaires such as different understanding and interpretation of questions due to different educational and cultural backgrounds and experiences, lack of depth or context, low response rates and self-selecting bias, they are faster, relatively inexpensive and offer greater anonymity (Henn *et al.*, 2006).

For this research, the researcher decided to administer questionnaires himself rather than adopt other methods such as the mail questionnaire, telephone, in-house survey, mall intercept and computer questionnaires which are frequently used in conducting surveys. The context and time frame within which the research was conducted did not allow for the use of any of the above methods. Mail questionnaires for example could not be used because even though they allow the respondent to fill it out at their own

convenience, the response rates from mail surveys are often very low and they are not the best vehicles for asking detailed written responses. Mindful of the fact that the research was being conducted within a particular time frame, there would have been a likelihood of the researcher not obtaining enough completed questionnaires at the end of the field trip. In addition, if the visitors were allowed to answer the questions when they had already left the country, some aspects/experiences of the trip could have been forgotten if this method was adopted. It was thus necessary to get in touch with them when the general holiday experience was still fresh in their minds.

The researcher initially planned to distribute the questionnaires to tourists waiting to catch their flight at the departure lounge of the Douala and Yaoundé international airports. This plan, however, failed because the authorities responsible for airport security refused to grant him access to the departure lounges after initially guaranteeing that he was going to be able to access this area. He was thus obliged to adopt a different approach (which proved to be even more convenient for both parties) in order to get in touch with departing tourists. With the agreement of the tour operators, 650 self-completion questionnaires were distributed to the tourists by the researcher at the various hotels in which they resided in Douala and Yaoundé (the main gateways into and out of the country) on the eve of their departure. This gave the researcher ample time to chat a bit with most of the respondents who were also free to ask him for clarification on any questions they did not understand. 404 of these questionnaires were completed and given back to the researcher the same evening or the following morning before departure of which 395 were deemed worthy of use by the researcher generating a response rate of 60.7%. Those who did not respond complained about the length of the questionnaire as being the main reason for not doing so.

For this research, what Greene *et al.*, (1989) terms *development* or using the methods sequentially, such that results from the first method inform the use of the second method was applied. The first 100 completed questionnaires collected within the first six weeks of the field trip were immediately analysed by the researcher. The results generated not only helped in portraying the tourists' perspective of the state of Cameroon's tourism industry, but they most importantly helped in identifying and confirming the main themes which were then used by the researcher in preparing the interview guidelines used for the semi-structured interviews with stakeholders who were directly responsible for the development and management of Cameroon's tourism sector. The remaining 295 questionnaires were collected throughout the duration of the fieldwork and analysed to ensure that the results generated in the first 100 questionnaires were correct.

The questionnaire for this research was made up of 33 questions of which 27 were closed and scaled questions while the remainder were open questions. These questions were grouped into categories or themes. The questionnaire was focused in evaluating and determining the tourists' attitudes towards issues such as level of satisfaction, perceptions of and interactions with local residents, marketing and publicity, issues dealing with conservation and environmental protection as well as the quality of the service infrastructure (6.2) which all play a very important role in sustainable tourism development and management. Also general socio-demographic characteristics such as the age, gender, nationality and occupation of the respondents were dealt with at the end of the questionnaire because literature has revealed that these factors may play a role in visitors having different holiday experiences and behavioural patterns (Ireland, 1990) (see appendix 5.1: tourist satisfaction questionnaire).

5.5.2.2 Qualitative research methods

After taking into consideration several alternative methods, face-to-face semi-structured interviews were used to collect data from public and private sector stakeholders (officials of the Ministry of Tourism and other related ministries, private tour operators, community based organisations dealing with tourism and community representatives) on their views, attitudes and appraisal of the state of tourism in Cameroon, while observation was used to record contextual information from the fieldwork sites visited.

5.5.2.2.1 Face-to-face in-depth interviews

In-depth interviews according to Mason (2002) are one of the most popular recognised forms used in conducting qualitative research. Mason (2002) also makes mention of the fact that people's knowledge, understanding, views, interpretations and experiences are meaningful properties of the research subject being studied and qualitative interviews are more suitable than other methods to obtain information on these properties from people. As such in order to get to what some qualitative researchers refer to as the ontological components of social reality, in-depth interviews are considered to be an appropriate and practical way (Silverman, 2001). Rubin and Rubin (1995, p.6) identifies three key characteristics which distinguish qualitative interviews from other forms of data collection thus:

- Qualitative interviews are extensions or modifications of ordinary conversation but the interviewer pays more attention and intensity to listen to what the interviewee says.

- Secondly, qualitative interviewers are more interested in the understanding, knowledge and insights of the interviewees than categorising people or events in terms of academic theories.
- Thirdly, the interview content as well as its flow and choice of topics change to match what the interviewee knows and feels.

Ryan (1995) states that the comments of respondents and the in-depth interview can produce a richness of information and feeling about attractions, places and experiences. This view is also echoed by Rubin and Rubin (1995) who suggest that qualitative interviewing is an effective way of finding out what others feel and think about their worlds.

Interviews can take various forms ranging from:

- the highly structured interview generally associated with quantitative survey research which requires answers from pre-determined questions to fit into predetermined categories allowing very little room for participants to freely express their own opinions. This might result in the interviewer probably missing out at the opportunity of seeing things from the interviewee's perspective (Bryman, 1988);
- the open unstructured interview (in which the researcher provides minimal guidance and the interviewee has considerable latitude when responding) or;
- the semi-structured interview in which the interviewer makes use of an interview schedule and builds the interview around a loose collection of themes which they want to talk about. The interviewee has much more freedom and control in the unstructured and semi-structured interview than in the structured interview (Bryman, 1988).

Smith (1995) makes mention of the fact that semi-structured interviews are usually used by researchers to gain a detailed picture of a respondent's beliefs about, or perceptions or accounts of a particular topic. By adopting this method, the researcher and the respondents become more flexible than in the structured interview, (and are able to identify the key themes or issues that are important to both) but become more focused and directed than in the unstructured interview.

Considering the fact that the main objectives of this research were to highlight the country's tourism growth potential, determine the adaptability and applicability of sustainable tourism concepts successfully applied in other countries in developing and managing the tourism potential of Cameroon as well as examine some of the contradictions and challenges facing the development of a viable sustainable tourism industry in Cameroon, in-depth semi-structured interviews were considered to be best

fitted to explore such issues from the perspective of the main stakeholders concerned. The discussions were therefore less constrained than in the structured interviews, giving the interviewees freedom to interpret the data and understand the core issues of the research. The semi-structured interview thus allowed the respondents to answer more on their own terms than could be permitted in the structured interview, but it still provided a greater structure necessary for comparability than that of the unstructured interview (May, 2001).

The reliability of qualitative interviews has been questioned time and again by quantitative oriented researchers because of their lack of standardisation (Chadwick *et al.*, 1984). Mason (2002, p.67) states that paying too much attention on asking the right' questions in 'the right' order can result in a peculiar social dynamic and thus affect the quality of data generated. The researcher should be able and ready to make on-the-spot decisions about the sequence and content of the interview as it progresses as well as ensure a smooth running of the conversation (Mason, 2002).

Shipman (1988) raises the issue of neutrality as another criticism of qualitative interviews due to the fact that potential interviewer-effect might influence the responses of the interviewee. Neutrality is however not a legitimate goal in qualitative research. It is almost impossible to achieve neutrality in an interview because certain factors such as the researcher's personality, mood, experiences, interests and biases affect the interview (Rubin and Rubin, 1995). Rubin and Rubin (1995) further state that it is not desirable for the interviewer to have a neutral role even if it were possible because it does not equip the researcher with enough empathy to elicit personal stories or in-depth discussion. Rather than being neutral, distant or emotionally uninvolved, the researcher needs to forge a pleasant relationship with the interviewee clearly manifesting his or her empathy, sensitivity, sincerity and humour, in order to get quality data.

In-depth semi-structured interviews and discussions were thus used for this research because it allowed the interviewer to ask certain major questions the same way each time but was still free to alter the sequence and to probe for more information (Fielding, 1993). The researcher, working from a set of prepared guidelines then asked the respondent probing but non-directive questions requesting clarification, specification and examples wherever need arose.

Twenty three in-depth semi-structured interviews/discussions lasting between 30 minutes to 1.5 hours were held with tourism industry stakeholders (tour operators, local community representatives, non governmental organisations (NGOs), tourism and

related ministries officials and park conservators). On three occasions²⁰ the interviewees were assisted by their close collaborators who also contributed to the discussions. The questions posed during the discussions were aimed at eliciting as much information as possible pertaining to the research in question and which could not be obtained in the existing literature. Depending on the level of interest and experience/mastery in the sector, the researcher felt that if allowed to speak openly, the interviewees were able to provide more quality data. The main themes of the research could not, however, be left to chance. The questions in general were focused on the participant's opinions about the development and management of a sustainable tourism industry in Cameroon. As such questions asked during the fieldwork varied according to the participant's position/role in the tourism industry. Themes discussed ranged from organisational structure of the ministries and private tourism companies and NGOs, inter-ministerial, national and international stakeholder collaboration and cooperation, issues related to marketing and branding, sustainable tourism development management, effects of tourism legislation and policies and their implementation, ICT and its usage in the sector, service infrastructure and its impacts on the development of the industry as well as professional training and personnel development in the tourism sector as a whole (Appendix 5.2: Interview guidelines).

5.5.2.2.2 Observation

Observation, which is widely used to study people's behaviour, involves *"the researcher immersing herself or himself in a research setting and systematically observing dimensions of that setting, interactions, relationships, actions, events and so on, within it"* (Mason, 2002 p.60). Depending on the researcher's level of engagement, Gold (1958) identified four different roles the observer can take on: the complete observer, the participant as observer, the observer as participant and the complete participant. Sarantakos (1988, p.207) however makes note of the fact that 'observation is open to all observable social phenomena besides human phenomena'. Bryman (1988) adds that it is only by witnessing the context of the event or circumstance to which people refer that a comprehensive understanding can be obtained. The presence of the researcher is thus required in the field to examine these settings usually via observation. Observation is therefore a very useful tool in collecting contextual information about the contextual dimensions of a particular product which Gottlieb *et al.* (1994) suggest play an important

²⁰ During interviews with the Conservators of the Campo-Ma'an and Korup national parks and with the CEO of BERUDEP

role in determining the quality of the holiday experience as was the case with this research.

Part of the research involved making an assessment and inventory of Cameroon's tourism potential (natural parks, reserves and cultural sites) both frequented and unfrequented by tourists but which could become potential tourist attractions and how they could be developed for the socio-economic benefit of the local communities.

However, according to Sarantakos (1988), there a number of issues which need to be taken into consideration by the researcher when undertaking research which uses observation as one of its data collection methods. These are issues of interpretation and reliability, which have always been advanced by opponents of observation as a research method.

Even though the problem of imposition is always inevitable in any social research because the researcher chooses what to observe, record, use as well as decide what is significant, there is always the risk that in observation, the observer's attitudes, beliefs and values heavily influence his interpretation of the phenomenon being studied. There is thus a likelihood of the observer imposing his own opinion upon the related description or explanation.

Reliability is another issue raised due to the fact that replication is impossible in a natural setting. Control should thus be exercised by the researcher to ensure that errors in observation are reduced through the use of check lists and audio-visual recordings as was the case with this research.

A checklist prepared by the researcher was used to facilitate observation. Collected data was further supplemented by notes which were taken during and/or immediately after site visits and pictures of sites that were taken where permission was granted.

Primary data collected through a mixture of in-depth semi-structured interviews and discussions as well as field observations were thus the main sources of qualitative data while an analysis of the tourist satisfaction questionnaire provided primary quantitative data and a deeper understanding of the present situation in Cameroon's tourism industry from the perspective of the foreign tourists who are the main consumers' of the country's tourism product.

5.5.3 Sampling and representativeness

Sampling, which entails taking large samples to measure variables and identify fundamental laws of behaviour and attitudes is a fundamental element of research design in positivist studies and it ensures that the sample is representative of a wider population (Easterby-Smith (1991). Unlike positivist studies which pay serious attention to adequate sample size, randomness, and representativeness when conducting

research, sampling in interpretive research is focused on generating understanding and meaning and accepting multiple interpretations of situations. Qualitative researchers according to Denzin (2002) are thus required to seek out groups, settings, and individuals where and for whom the processes being studied are most likely to occur. The principles of generalisability and representativeness which are usually applied in quantitative research are not appropriate because qualitative research is based on non-random samples in which the probability of selection or non-selection of units is impossible to estimate (Silverman, 2001). While a quantitative researcher is concerned in obtaining a statistically representative sample, qualitative researcher employing statistical sampling is primarily concerned with the representatives of concepts advanced in the research as well as with being able to access the social processes in which they are interested. One of the aims of sampling in qualitative research should thus be to locate strategic data which may refute emerging hypotheses. When no new analytical insights are forthcoming from a given situation, it means 'theoretical saturation' has been reached and sampling should be stopped (Henn *et al.*, 2006).

The key objective of this study was to generate a rich picture and depth of understanding of Cameroon's tourism situation (i.e. potentials, developmental and management challenges and contradictions) from the perspective of all stakeholders involved in order to be able to come up with a strategic framework for sustainable tourism development management in Cameroon (within which these issues could be addressed and solutions proposed). Pragmatic concerns therefore determined the selection of the respondents for the questionnaires, the people to be interviewed as well as the sites which were visited during the field trip.

Due to the fact that most of the private and public sector tourism stakeholders to be interviewed were based in Douala and Yaoundé which were also the starting points of all holidays in the country and therefore where the tourists commenced and concluded their journeys, cluster sampling was applied to select sampling units. In addition convenience sampling techniques were applied to recruit respondents from each sampling unit due to time and cost constraints (David and Sutton, 2004). Thus all semi-structured interviews were organised at the convenience of the interviewees who determined the time and location of these interviews, and questionnaires were filled out by tourists at their convenience. This facilitated the process of conducting most of the interviews and distributing the questionnaires due to the fact that two thirds of the interviewees could be easily contacted and access to many potential survey respondents was significantly increased.

In addition, a purposive snow ball sampling strategy was used to recruit both public and private sector stakeholders who were to be interviewed (Table 5.2). Using the snowball sampling strategy, few respondents were initially selected and after interviews with them, they recommended other potential participants/respondents which the researcher got in contact with. In this manner, even though four potential participants contacted declined to be interviewed after having given initial assurances, the required number of interviews/discussions needed for the research could be attained.

A purposive sampling strategy whereby participants interviewed for the research were selected based on their positions and functions within Cameroon's tourism industry in both the private and public sectors i.e. their relevance to the theoretical focus of the research, was also used (Mason, 2002). This also helped to maximise variation in the sample.

Since the aim of the research was to understand the issues affecting the sustainable development and management of tourism in the country with the goal of developing a framework for its development, a random sampling of interviewees was thus not possible. Rather, the quality of data generated and the participant's depth of knowledge were the important factors taken into consideration in selecting the interviewees who came from the following organisations or institutions within the Cameroonian tourism industry outlined in Table 5.2.

Table 5.2: Professional/sectorial background of interviewees

| Sector | Number of interviewees |
|--|-------------------------------|
| Ministry of Tourism | 3 |
| Ministry of Forestry and Fauna (National Park conservators), | 3 + 3 collaborators |
| Ministry of Culture | 1 |
| Tour and travel operators | 7 |
| NGOs dealing with community based tourism initiatives | 4 + 1 collaborator |
| CIG Community representatives (tour guides) | 2 |
| Cultural (festival) affairs managers | 3 |

Source: Researcher

Interviews for this research were conducted within a period of six months during which the researcher constantly reflected forwards and backwards between the sampling and theoretical reflections until he was sure he had reached a point of theoretical saturation. On the other hand, the selection of questionnaire respondents went on throughout the

field work until the researcher had met the initial target number of completed questionnaires which was set at the start of the research.

All questionnaire respondents selected were visitors who had been to the country exclusively for holidays or for holidays and business. In addition, only those who had come to the end of their stay were selected because they now had a general overview of the country and could make a complete appraisal of their stay and the areas visited in the country. In this case, a large scale sample was suitable and 395 completed questionnaires were returned.

There is always the possibility that using various sampling strategies might cause bias in the data. Using the snowballing sampling strategy indirectly implied the researcher was introduced to an interviewee by another participant who in most cases was also a tour operator and a friend at the same time. As a result snowball selected respondents could be a group of like minded individuals expressing similar opinions and ideas which could be prejudiced. This was however not the case with this research because information was obtained from different groups of stakeholders.

5.5.4 Accessibility

Accessibility and physical setting as well as other service infrastructure have an impact on the visitors' judgement not only of the service experience but of the general holiday experience (Weiermair, 2000; Weiermair and Fuchs, 1999). These two factors in addition to the geographic location of some sites were taken into consideration when existing and potential tourism sites to be visited for observations and interviews were selected by the researcher. Sites offering very diverse features and forms of tourism were selected (Table 5.3).

Table 5.3: List of sites visited during fieldwork

| Site | Geographic area | Level of tourism development ¹ | Accessibility ² | Physical setting | Tourism Practised |
|--|---------------------|---|----------------------------|--------------------|-------------------------------------|
| Douala | Littoral Region | High | High | River bank | Cultural |
| Douala-Edea Forest Reserve | Littoral Region | Low | Medium | Nature Reserve | Nature |
| Bafut Fandom | North West Region | Medium | High | Palace | Cultural |
| Bali-Nyongha | North West Region | Low | High | Palace | Cultural |
| Kimbi River Game Reserve | North West Region | Low | Low | Nature Reserve | Nature/eco |
| Foumban Sultanate | Western Region | High | High | Palace/arts market | Cultural |
| Campo-Ma'an National Park | South-Centre Region | Low | Low | Nature | Nature/eco |
| Kribi Coastal Resort | Southern Region | High | High | Town | Cultural/sports sun and sea/fishing |
| Korup National Park | South West Region | Medium/Low | Low | Nature | Nature/eco |
| Limbe Botanical Garden and Wildlife Centre | South West Region | High | High | Town/Nature | Nature/beach |
| Mount Cameroon Region | South West Region | High | High | Nature | Nature/sports |

1 Level of tourism development is based on the number of tourists visiting the site p.a. as well as the availability of service infrastructure.

2 High accessibility denotes the existence of direct and regular transport links between the town centre and the site as well as frequent public transport between the local area the nearest bigger cities every day

Medium accessibility indicates the existence of regular transport link between the town centre and the site and there is the existence of public transport though not very frequent between the local area and the nearest bigger cities.

Low accessibility indicates the absence of a direct transport link to the site and public transport links between the local area and other cities are very infrequent.

Due to issues of accessibility the researcher was able to undertake observation trips during which the semi-structured interviews were conducted at 11 different sites in the

country. These included trips to four different parks in the North West, South West, South and Littoral Regions of the country. The remaining trips were undertaken to observe cultural festivals and visit heritage sites in the Fouban sultanate, Bali-Nyonga and Bafut *fondoms* in the Western, North West Regions as well as the coastal towns of Douala, Kribi and Limbe, located in the Littoral and South West Regions of Cameroon respectively. It was impossible to travel up to the north or east of the country because of the very poor road, air and rail network. As such the researcher was obliged to focus the research on the North West, West, Centre, South, South West and Littoral Regions of Cameroon which actually contain most of the hotspots for the development of a sustainable culture and nature-based tourism industry (Table 5.3).

5.6 Fieldwork reflections

Fieldwork was conducted in Cameroon during the months of October 2008 to March 2009. This was the dry season which was very hot but the research had to be conducted during this period because it was the tourist season. During the course of the fieldwork, in order to be able to witness firsthand the state and infrastructural development of these parks as well as hold discussions with the conservators and local inhabitants, the researcher visited the Korup, Douala-Edea, Campo-Ma'an National Parks as well the Kimbi River Game Reserve, the Mount Cameroon region and the Limbe Botanical Garden and Wildlife Centre. He also undertook various trips to the sultanate of Fouban and the *fondoms* of Bafut and Bali where he had discussions with the cultural affairs representatives of these villages. Numerous trips were also made to Yaoundé and Douala where the government officials and most of the tour operators to be interviewed were based. In the course of the fieldwork, the researcher travelled about 10,000km crisscrossing the country. Considering the state of the road infrastructure and public transport services in Cameroon, this would not have been possible if the researcher had not bought and shipped a four wheel drive vehicle to Cameroon before departure. This greatly facilitated his mobility throughout the research. The complexities of organising these meetings, especially with the government officials, and travelling to the location of the respondents meant that the researcher spent a good amount of time crisscrossing the country to meet up with these people and see these sites. It was thus almost impossible to organise two interviews in one day. This was sometimes tiring but it was nevertheless an interesting and enriching experience. All interviews were carried out in places chosen by the respondents, mostly in their offices which guaranteed a greater degree of quietness and enabled the researcher and respondent to concentrate on the

discussion. However, it sometimes, though rarely, occurred that telephone calls interrupted the discussions and in some offices where the respondent worked together with other colleagues, the clatter of these colleagues and the sound of other background noise resulted in poor quality recording. Another issue which the researcher encountered was the inability of some respondents to keep to pre-arranged appointments without informing him before hand of any changes made to the appointments. This is typical of sub-Saharan Africa and in this case the researcher had to exercise patience or reschedule new appointments.

5.7 Ethical considerations

A study is impossible without access to respondents and the fieldwork setting. As such access to individuals and sites is a crucial part of the research process. This research was conducted bearing in mind the 2003 Social Research Association's Ethical Guidelines which clearly states that *'if social research is to remain of benefit to society and the groups and individuals within it, then social researchers must conduct their work responsibly and in light of the moral and legal order of the society in which they practice...'* (p. 13), and have a responsibility to protect their subjects from undue harm arising from their participation in the research. In addition, the Nottingham Trent University Graduate School's guidance code on ethical research and the regulations of the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Innovation in Cameroon where the field study was carried out were borne in mind all through the duration of the research. Confidentiality and anonymity of any information generated from the questionnaires and interviews at every stage of the research was ensured. Data was stored in a secure environment and only used for research purposes. Furthermore, the questionnaire forms were fully anonymised, without names or other unique identifiers and without written consent; this provided more confidentiality for the consumer (visitor) generated data. The questionnaires were also distributed only by the researcher.

Before the onset of the fieldwork proper, the researcher requested and was given recommendation letters by the Nottingham Trent University as well as an identification document which he presented whenever it was required by staff at the sites visited or persons to be interviewed. Research authorisations were also obtained from Cameroon's Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Innovation (MINRESI) and the Ministry of Tourism (MINTOUR) which enabled the researcher to have uninhibited access to some

stakeholders and sites visited²¹. Contact was initially made with the respondents through a phone call or an email in which the researcher explained the aims and objectives of the project thus justifying the need to encroach on the respondent's time. Once the respondent agreed to an interview, an appointment was made and the interview took place on the agreed date. The interviews were conducted solely by the researcher.

All but three interviews and discussions were tape-recorded after written consent had been obtained from the participants. At the beginning of each interview, the interviewee was briefed on the purpose of the research and procedures of the interview. However, in spite of the nervousness and anxiety which was provoked in some respondents when certain topics were broached, using the audio recorder played a vital role in the success of the interview phase of the research.

During the interviews and discussions, notes were taken of any important observations. At the end of each interview session, the tapes and notes were taken and stored in a safe deposit box which was rented for the duration of the field trip. In the cases where interviewees refused permission for the interviews to be tape recorded, the researcher had no other choice but to carry out the interview while writing down the main points and summarising the rest by hand. In this situation, he asked the interviewee to speak slowly and the discussion took longer than was originally planned. Longer interviews lasting more than an hour showed the broad knowledge and interest of the respondents to the research topic and questions being discussed. Three respondents (government officials) refused the researcher permission to record the interviews/discussions but instead permitted him to take notes while a few others were hesitant about being named in the final document for fear of repercussions from their hierarchy.

The anonymity of the research subjects is guaranteed in that a fully anonymised version of the thesis has been produced at the end of the research with no mention of the real names of the persons who were interviewed. Codes have been used in place of names and results reported in statistical summaries. The transcripts have been archived by the university and the researcher has destroyed the digital audio of the interviews and erased the relevant files from his computer.

Pictures, it should be noted, were taken only after consent was granted. The researcher left his card which contained his email address (for those with internet access and email) and telephone number in case further contact or the research results is needed by them in future.

²¹ See appendix 5.3 for NTU recommendation letter and authorisation letters from MINTOUR and MINRESI

5.8 Data analysis

Dey (1993, p.30) describes data analysis as the process of separating data into its constituent components so that its characteristic elements and structure are revealed. Depending on the researcher, the process according to Dey (1993) can start with an initial description followed by the breaking into bits of the data, identification of the inter-relationships among these bits and ends with a the formation of a new account based on the reconceptualisation of the data.

This section describes the process of analysing the data which was done in 4 stages. It started with the analysis of the visitor satisfaction questionnaires. This was followed by the transcription of the data after which came a brief account of the interviewee profiles and description of the data collection process. The third stage was an analysis of this data taking into account audio-visual information collected during field observation. During the analysis process, categories were created and emerging themes identified. The fourth stage was identifying relationships among these themes.

5.8.1 Questionnaire distribution and analysis

A final questionnaire draft to be used during fieldwork was prepared after having taken the observations of the pilot survey respondents into consideration. It contained 33 main questions in thematically organised sections, as mentioned earlier in section 5.5.2.1.1. While in the field, the self-completion questionnaires were distributed by the researcher himself throughout the period during which the fieldwork took place.

Analysis of the questionnaire was done with the aid of the SPSS statistical package (Version 15.0) often used in analysing questionnaire data in the social sciences. Before the start of fieldwork, the researcher coded all the questionnaires into variables which were then entered into an SPSS spread sheet specially prepared for that purpose on the computer. A total of 91 variables were created and a code book was prepared by the researcher, to assist in analysing the data. The data was analysed in crosstabulations, frequency tables, chi-square tests, the results of which are presented in Chapter Six. At the end of every week throughout the fieldwork, the completed questionnaires which he had collected from the tourists during that week were each given a code number and the data recorded in the computer. In organising the process as such, the researcher was able to enter all the questionnaire data in the computer before leaving Cameroon. The questionnaires thus remained in Cameroon but were locked up in a safe environment in case the researcher has to consult them again in the course of the research.

Bias was eliminated due to the fact that questionnaire respondents were selected exclusively from tourists who were about to leave the country at the end of their holiday

and could thus give an unbiased appreciation of their experiences and the state of the sites which they had visited. In order to identify and get in contact with such tourists, the researcher was very much assisted by some tour operators who always arranged for the researcher to meet the tourists in their hotels on the eve of departure. The tourists could trust the researcher and up to 70% readily agreed to respond to the questionnaires because he approached them on the recommendation of the tour operators with whom they had been touring.

5.8.2 Tape recording and data transcription

As was earlier mentioned in 5.7, all but three interviews were digitally (tape) recorded after written consent had been obtained from the participants. Tape recording was favoured over writing because it ensured that time was efficiently used. In addition, it spared the researcher the pains of not being distracted by asking, listening, understanding, writing and responding at the same time, a situation which might have arisen if he were to take only notes. Recording of the interviews guaranteed that the whole interview was captured and the complete data could therefore be analysed. Independent checking, analysis and replication was guaranteed in recorded interviews. However, a setback observed in two of the recorded interviews was that the interviewees became hesitant to speak freely when some sensitive questions were asked for fear that the recording could end up in the wrong hands and cause them problems at their work places.

The transcription was a very time consuming process. Atkinson (1998, p. 56) states that 'it will take...from 3 to 6 hours of transcribing time per 1 hour of tape'. The transcription process of interviews conducted in this research was no different.

Considering the fact that Cameroon is a bilingual country with English and French as the official languages and Pidgin English as the language widely spoken by those not fluent in the first two languages mentioned, the interviews were conducted in any of these three languages depending on the interviewees' fluency in any of them²². The researcher is fluent in all three languages having studied in English and French right up to university and having grown up speaking Pidgin English out of the classroom and in informal settings. This was not the case with all respondents, however. All in all, the researcher needed about five hours on average to transcribe one hour of interview. While listening to the recordings during the transcription process, the researcher was able to get a clear grasp of the topics discussed and the various opinions of the persons interviewed. This facilitated the initiation of the data analysis phase of the research.

²² 10 interviews were conducted in English, 10 in French and 3 in Pidgin English

Due to the fact that various stakeholders (tour operators, tourism NGOs, officials of the tourism and related ministries, community representatives, cultural affairs representatives) were interviewed, even though the themes handled in the interview guide were the same, slightly different wordings were used to ask the questions to the different groups. Questions not found in the interview guide and which arose during the interview were also transcribed. As such verbatim transcription was chosen over partial transcription of the interviews. All in all, 23 interviews were conducted and each interview produced approximately seven pages of single spaced text.

Digressions from the topic under discussion are always common during semi-structured interviews. The researcher was obliged to summarise remotely relevant content as well as eliminate unrelated discussion during the data transcription because as Dey (1993, p. 81) says, *'it makes no sense to read through more than once any data that is clearly irrelevant to the analysis'*. By eliminating all the unwanted data, efficiency in the data analysis was guaranteed because the researcher was then able to focus exclusively on the relevant data.

All the transcriptions which followed the original flow of the interviews in order to keep the discussion in context were double-checked to ensure accuracy. Notes and picture taken after visiting each location were filed together in the same folder with the transcription for easy reference.

5.8.3 Participant observation

Contextual information for this research was provided through observation trips made to 11 selected sites in Cameroon by the researcher. Part of the research involved making an assessment and inventory of Cameroon's tourism potential (natural parks, reserves and cultural sites) both frequented and unfrequented by tourists but which could become potential tourist attractions and how they could be protected and developed for the socio-economic benefit of the communities. Sites and parks visited during fieldwork were selected based on their accessibility, the level of tourism development (number of visitors they received, availability of service infrastructure) as well as from the ratings given some of them by Cameroon's government and international organisations such as the WWF and UNWTO. With the help of an observation check list prepared before hand, contextual information was generated through field trips to the Campo Ma'an, Korup, Douala- Edea and Kimbi River National Parks and also to the *Lela*, *Nguon*, and *Ngondo* annual cultural festivals celebrated by the Bali, Bamoun, and Douala ethnic groups respectively which had earlier been mentioned in Chapter Four. Attention during the trips was paid to environmental factors which according to Ward and Russell (1981) impinge upon the visitor experience and sense of destination. Thus the people, activities and

objects which refer to the site, visitors and facilities respectively were the main environmental components of this research (Figure 5.5).

Figure 5.5: Observation checklist

| |
|---|
| <p>General environment / atmosphere (core factors)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• People: number of visitors/staff<ul style="list-style-type: none">○ Level/types of interactions between host and guests• Activities: types and quality of sustainable tourism resources and activities• Security: to and within sites• Site: appearance, state of infrastructure, cleanliness<ul style="list-style-type: none">○ Availability/quality of visitor information centres <p>Service Infrastructure (enabling factors)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Accessibility: quality of transport infrastructure and services to the sites and within the sites• Accommodation facilities: availability, quality, number, frequency of use• Other visitor facilities: availability, quality, number |
|---|

Source: Researcher

During observation trips, notes were taken of the nature of the interactions and activities between tourists and hosts communities, and between these two groups with the environment, the physical appearances of the sites in terms of cleanliness and the state of visitor facilities, accommodation, health facilities and other service infrastructure if they were available, how well they were maintained and integrated into the sites, as well as accessibility to and within the sites.

Considering the fact that visual research methods, if well used, are distinctive and robust, with one of their major strengths being the possibility of uncovering previously unknown or unconsidered dimensions of social life (Banks, 2007), audio-visual material collected during these trips helped the researcher in strengthening the validity of the data generated from interviews/discussions and also added additional depth and breadth to areas where published literature was lacking.

5.8.4 Data description

The most basic and yet indispensable part of qualitative data analysis is description which has been described by Geertz (1973) and Denzin (1978) as being 'thin' and 'thick'.

Denzin (1978) goes further to say that 'thin' description differs from thick description in that it merely states facts while 'thick' description is the layered, rich and contextual description of an event, setting or social scene.

This research makes use of 'thick' description. Taking into consideration data generated by the transcribed interviews, emphasis during the presentation of the contextual information collected through observation carried out after analysing the questionnaire survey as well as from secondary sources was placed on the conditions of the core and enabling environments of the sites in which the research was undertaken. Chapter Seven makes use of thick description in detail.

5.8.5 Content analysis and thematic identification

Mindful of the existence of different software used in aiding the analysis of qualitative interviews such as QSR NVivo or NUDIST, the researcher opted to do an in-depth content analysis of the interview transcripts in which key themes were identified (Bryman, 2008). The main motivation behind the adoption of a content analysis approach without using any software was due to the fact that there were only 23 interviews and the interviewees came from different sectors (private and public) of the tourism industry. As such in some cases, there were just two or three respondents from a particular sector. The number of interviews did not therefore warrant the use of a complex computerised software programme for their analysis as this could be done manually.

Denzin (1998) makes mention of the fact that the researcher's closeness and familiarity with the data is the key relationship in the identification of themes in qualitative analysis. In order to identify important issues about the data, continuous examination, questioning and thinking has to go on throughout the analysis stage. This can only be achieved if an effective and reliable method of coding and retrieving data is put in place by the researcher. This research adopts a holistic approach in its data categorisation and thematic construction process. Instead of deconstructing and reconstructing the data at each stage of the data collection and line by line analysis (of the verbatim transcriptions), broad themes based on the researcher's comprehension of the data were first identified as Miles and Huberman (1984) suggest. After this, the researcher then proceeded to a fuller and more detailed categorisation and sub-thematic breaking down of the main themes that had been identified (Jones, 1985). The general idea was to construct an index of central themes and sub-themes after reading and re-reading the transcripts and field notes in a matrix like framework. This framework was then applied to the data which had initially been organised into core and enabling themes. The data was then displayed in terms of sub-themes within the matrix (Bryman, 2008).

For this research, a general overview of the data revealed some broad themes and their interconnections which were extracted. This was followed by a detailed analysis during which these broad themes were subjected by the researcher to another sub-categorisation process which resulted in the production of more refined sub-themes that were then used as cell headings under which came the position of the respondents with regards to that particular sub-theme as can be seen in 7.2.

Ryan and Bernard (2003) recommend the following when looking for themes in the data;

- theory related concepts (using social scientific concepts as a springboard for themes);
- missing data (reflecting on what is not said in the data and asking questions about what the interviewees omit when answering questions);
- repetitions (i.e. topics that recur again and again);
- metaphors and analogies (the way in which interviewees express their thoughts through the use of metaphors and analogies);
- transitions (the way topics shift in transcripts and other material);
- similarities and differences (how interviewees might discuss a topic in different ways or differ from each other);
- linguistic connectors (examining the use of words like 'because' or 'since' due to the fact that such terms point to causal connectors in the minds of the interviewees).

In addition to the above, initial or emergent research questions, inferences from the data, theoretical issues, policy and the researcher's imagination as well as intuition and previous knowledge of the research topic can all play an important role in thematic identification and category generation (Dey, 1993). The themes/categories developed in this research come mainly from the last four sources mentioned above as well as from examining questions where repetition was observed in the interviewees' responses, their use of metaphors and linguistic connectors. Thematic categorisation was also facilitated by the structure of the interview schedule itself.

5.8.6 Thematic inter-relationships

By linking data bits, it is possible to make connections among categories and themes. Dey (1993, p. 180) makes mention of the fact that linking allows categories and themes to be viewed as individual points in a complex web of relationships rather than as unrelated bits of data. Identifying the nature of the link which can be causal as well as explanatory or even descriptive between the selected data bits is all part of the linking

process. This procedure is usually carried out manually on paper or using a matrix-like framework.

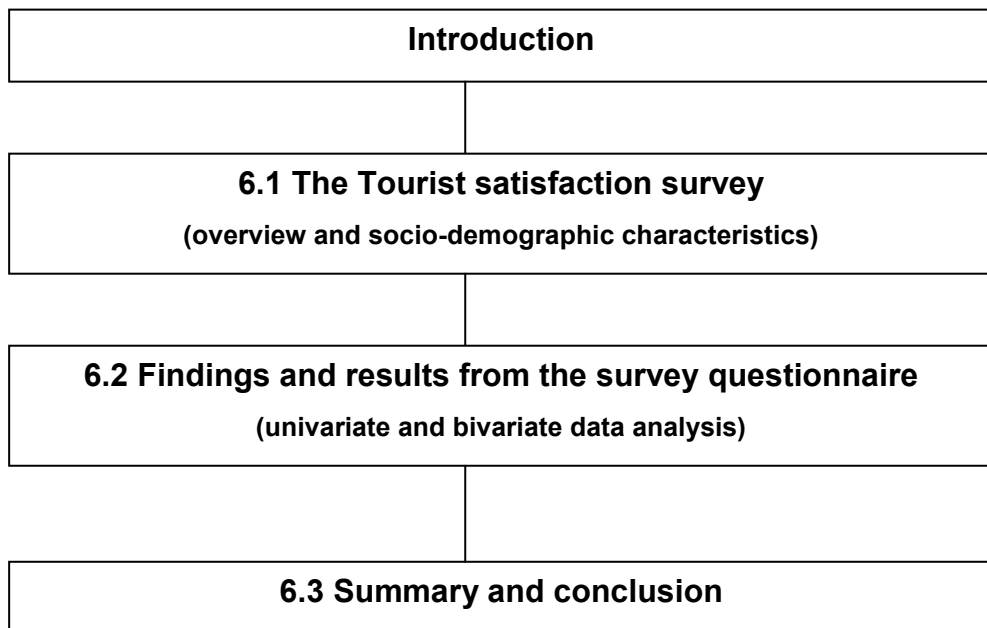
The main idea is to build up an index of main themes (and sub-themes) and the views of each interviewee with regards to a particular theme are entered beneath this theme into the framework (Bryman, 2008) as was done in this research. The framework was then applied to the data which had been organised into core themes after the researcher's analysis of the questionnaire and thoroughly reading and rereading the interview transcripts and observation notes. This data was then displayed in terms of themes and sub-themes within the matrix and for each case (i.e. the responses of the interviewees who had been allocated case numbers at the left hand side of the matrix were entered into the matrix on top of which were outlined a theme and sub-themes) (Bryman, 2008). As such important snippets of the each interviewee's response to a particular theme or sub-theme were placed in the appropriate cell. After completing this process, comparisons were made among the various responses to understand the attitudes of the various groups of interviewees with regards to the themes which had been raised in the interviews and understand where they agreed and/or disagreed and the reasons thereof. It was also possible for the researcher to easily verify and quote some very important snippets of these discussions with the various stakeholders interviewed and thus add more weight and quality when writing-up the results of the data analysis in Chapter Seven.

5.9 Summary and conclusion

This chapter has given an explicit account of the research methodology and methods that were used in undertaking this research as well as the rationale behind the choice of this research strategy. The exploratory and descriptive nature and context of the research demanded that the researcher settle for an interpretive research philosophy that was primarily inductive in perspective with Cameroon as the case study after evaluating various possible research philosophies, approaches and methods. Data collection, organisation and analysis was carried out using a combination of both quantitative and qualitative methods for development, triangulation and expansion purposes. Analysis of secondary data before conducting the primary research enabled the researcher to gain a thorough insight into the research context and topic that was being investigated. A pilot questionnaire issued to respondents in Nottingham enabled the researcher to make adjustments to some questions in the questionnaire. Primary research via a tourist satisfaction questionnaire administered to tourists at the end of

their holidays enabled the researcher to collect data on their opinion of the state of Cameroon's tourism industry and their holiday experiences, an analysis of which enabled the researcher to develop discussion guidelines and an observation checklist which became the two main tools used in collecting qualitative data. The guidelines were then used to conduct semi-structured interviews with home-based tourism industry stakeholders while the checklist was consulted during observation trips to the sites and parks. Practical considerations meant that cluster sampling was applied to select sampling units and convenience sampling techniques were applied to recruit respondents from each sampling unit. In addition, a purposive snow ball sampling strategy was used to recruit interviewees, whilst sites to which observation trips were undertaken were selected based on their national and international importance and tourism development potential as recognised by the Government of Cameroon, the UNWTO and the WWF as well as their accessibility. All the collected data was then analysed in a four tier process starting with analysing the completed questionnaires, transcribing and conducting a content analysis of the interview materials in conjunction with the site observation notes, the identification of suitable themes and sub-themes, and then exploring the inter-relationships between these themes.

6. Analysis and findings from the Tourist Satisfaction Survey



Introduction

This chapter reports the results of a detailed quantitative analysis of the questionnaire survey data in accordance with the data collection and analysis processes described in 5.5.2.1.1 and 5.8.1 respectively. Using the SPSS statistical package (v15.0) as the main tool for analysing the survey data, the first section of this chapter presents a general overview of the survey data as well as the socio-demographic characteristics of the survey respondents. This is followed by a univariate and bivariate analysis of the data whilst taking into consideration written comments made by the survey respondents. In the analysis, the nature of the relationships between the various independent and dependent variables, their significance (strength/weakness) and whether they had an impact on the general holiday experience of the respondents are determined. Results of the survey data analysis enabled the researcher to strengthen existing questions as well as add new questions to the interview guidelines (which were used in semi-structured interviews) and to improve on the observation guide he had prepared for the observation trips, results of which will be discussed in the subsequent chapter.

6.1 The tourist satisfaction survey

Data for this survey was collected in Cameroon between October 2008 and March 2009, in accordance with the process described in 5.5.2.1.1. A total of 650 questionnaires were distributed, 404 questionnaires were returned but only 395 were deemed worthy of use generating a response rate of 60.7%. The other 9 questionnaires were not retained for analysis due to the fact that instructions on answering the questionnaire were not respected by the respondents (e.g. double answers to some questions where only one response was needed).

6.1.1 Overview of the survey data

The survey data is divided into four parts. The first part examines the socio-demographic characteristics of visitors to Cameroon. In this regard, a brief examination is done of the age, gender, marital and economic situation of the visitors. The second part of the analysis looks at the attitude of the respondents towards some evaluative factors which are inevitable for the successful development of a sustainable tourism industry not only in Cameroon but in the sub-region and beyond. In this regard, an analysis is done of the respondents' attitudes towards the existing factors e.g. transport and other service infrastructure, promotion and marketing strategies and techniques, branding and ICT usage already being used to manage the development of sustainable tourism in other

developing countries like Botswana, Uganda and neighbouring Gabon. These, along with political and environmental changes as well as constantly addressing stakeholders concerns are some of the factors influencing the sustainable development and management of destinations. Emphasis was thus placed on getting the perspective of the tourists with regards to the above mentioned factors. In order to achieve some harmony in the exercise, questions in the survey were grouped by the researcher into main themes thus: the motivations or reasons for visiting the country; service infrastructure (accommodation, transportation); tourism industry service personnel; quality of attractions, level of satisfaction and interaction with local residents; marketing, publicity and ICT, contribution to conservation and sustainable tourism. Initially, 91 variables grouped into 33 questions were developed, but during the analysis phase, some variables were recoded to facilitate the analysis process. At the end of the process 101 variables were analysed using the SPSS software and the following results were generated.

6.1.2 Socio-demographic characteristics of the survey data

Socio-demographic characteristics taken into consideration were age, gender, marital status, professional background and nationality.

6.1.2.1 Age, gender and marital status

More than half of the respondents (58.7%) were between the age of 30 to 49 while 17% and 19.5% fell into the 18 to 29 and 50 to 59 age groups respectively and the rest (4.9%) of visitors to Cameroon were above 60 (Table 6.1a).

Table 6.1a: Age of respondents

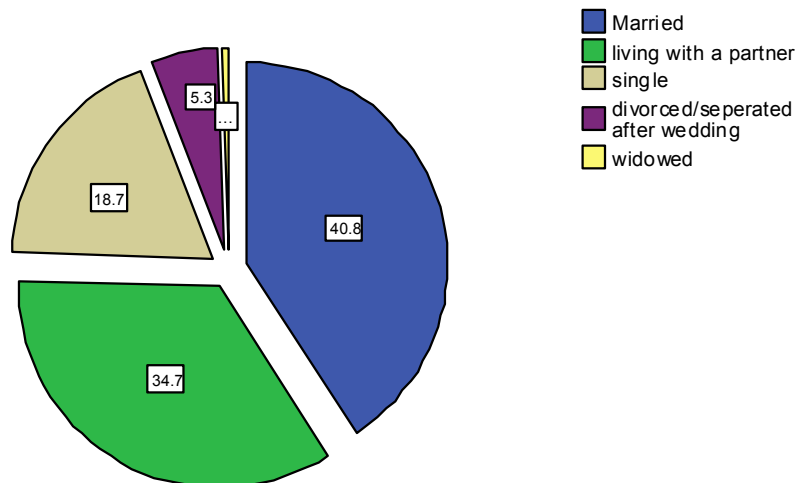
| | Valid Percent |
|--------------|---------------|
| Valid 18-29 | 17.0 |
| 30-39 | 25.8 |
| 40-49 | 32.9 |
| 50-59 | 19.5 |
| 60-69 | 4.6 |
| 70 and above | .3 |
| Total | 100.0 |

Table 6.1b: Gender of respondents

| | | Frequency | Valid Percent |
|-------|--------|-----------|---------------|
| Valid | Male | 205 | 51.9 |
| | Female | 190 | 48.1 |
| | Total | 395 | 100.0 |

Men made up 52% of the respondents while 48% were women making the gender representation fairly balanced (Table 6.1b). In addition, three quarters (75.4%) of the respondents were married or living with a partner, while the remainder were single, divorced, or widowed (Figure 6.1).

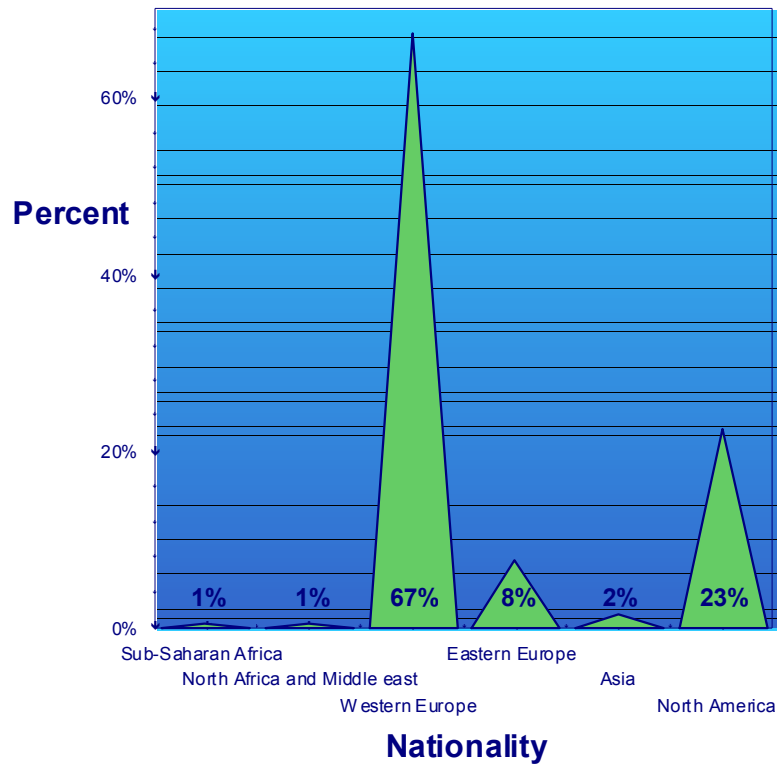
Figure 6.1 Marital status



6.1.2.2 Nationality and professional background

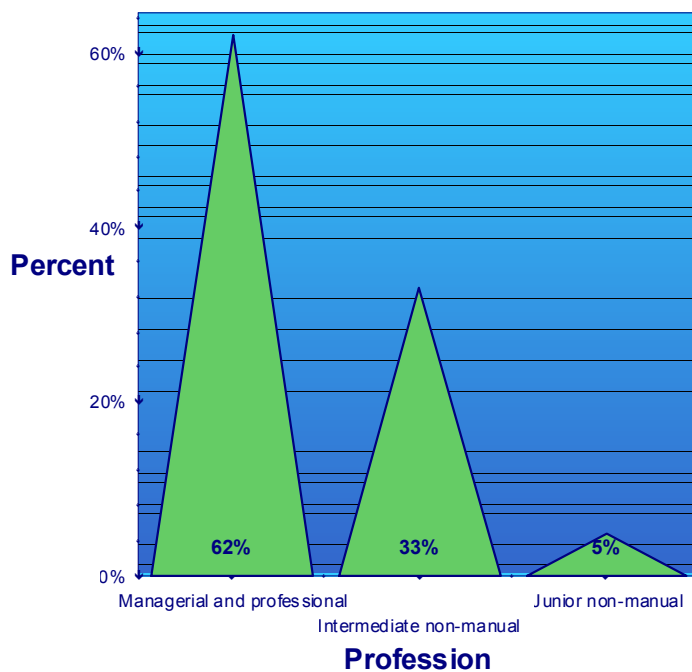
Two thirds (67.3%) of all tourists to Cameroon came from Western Europe. Another 22.5% of visitors to the country came from North America. The remainder were from Eastern Europe (7.6%), Asia (1.5%) and 1% from Africa and the Middle East (Figure 6.2).

Figure 6.2: Nationality of respondents



With regards to professional background, 62.1% of the respondents worked in managerial and professional occupations while 33.1% worked in intermediate non-manual positions. Only 4.9% of visitors to Cameroon worked in junior non-manual occupations (Figure 6.3).

Figure 6.3: Professional background of respondents



6.2 Findings from the questionnaire survey

Univariate and bivariate analysis of the survey data was done to find out if there were any significant relationships or correlations between the independent variables of age, gender, marital status and professional background and the dependent variables earlier mentioned in 6.1. Through a series of cross-tabulations, the researcher was able to explore the relationships between the independent and dependent variables, the results of which allowed him to start testing theories that could confirm or deny the existence of causal relationships between them. Univariate and bivariate analysis of the data enabled the researcher to:

- identify relationships whose validity/reliability was then tested through Chi-square tests after which relevant measures of association such as Phi, Cramer's V or Spearman's Rho could be verified and statistically presented;
- determine those relationships which showed interesting variations in the cross-tabulation tables but were not found to be statistically significant and,
- determine those relationships whose cross-tabulation tables did not indicate anything at all.

At the end of this analysis, the results outlined in the subsequent sections were generated.

It is worth noting here that some of the original variables in the cross-tabulation tables which apparently showed statistically significant relationships in Chi-square tests but whose validity and reliability could not be established because they were higher than the 20% count which is normally accepted in social science had to be recoded for better statistical analysis. This is due to the fact that Chi-square is not a reliable test when the expected frequencies are small (Bryman and Cramer 1999).

6.2.1 Main reasons for visiting Cameroon.

More than half (56.3%) of the survey respondents stated that their principle motivation for visiting the country was for holidays while another quarter (26.9%) were in the country to visit friends and relatives. The remainder visited the country for other reasons ranging from business to study tours or a combination of both. The cultural richness and diversity as well as its climate were considered by 89.7% and 83% of the respondents respectively to be fairly or very important considerations for visiting the country (Table 6.2a). Another 82% considered the friendly and hospitable nature of Cameroonians as an added motivation while 75% named its abundant biodiversity and unspoiled beaches as other very important motivators. Only 12.5% and 1.5% respectively considered the

diverse business opportunities and the price of the tour package offered to be very (or fairly) important reasons for visiting the country (Table 6.2b).

Table 6.2a: Primary purpose of visit

| | | Frequency | Valid Percent |
|---------|-------------------------------------|-----------|---------------|
| Valid | Holiday | 222 | 56.3 |
| | Visit friends and relatives | 106 | 26.9 |
| | Business/work | 20 | 5.1 |
| | Study tour | 13 | 3.3 |
| | Combined business/work and pleasure | 32 | 8.1 |
| | others | 1 | .3 |
| | Total | 394 | 100.0 |
| Missing | System | 1 | |
| Total | | 395 | |

Table 6.2b: Summary of main considerations for visiting Cameroon (in %)

| Consideration | Percent |
|-------------------------------------|---------|
| Cultural richness and diversity | 89.7 |
| Friendliness of the people | 82.1 |
| Pleasant climate | 83.8 |
| Clean tropical beaches | 75.6 |
| Natural diversity and scenic beauty | 74.1 |
| Unique wildlife attractions | 53.8 |
| Diverse business opportunities | 12.5 |
| Price of tour package | 1.5 |

A little more than half (54.6%) of the survey respondents undertook photographic nature based/ecotourism trips and safaris with only 1% engaging in hunting safaris. During their holidays, almost all the visitors (96.7%) spent some time on the beach while 86.5% were engaged in one or more cultural tours to different parts of the country and 10% did undertake sports holidays (Appendix 6.1a – 6.1e).

The total amount spent by a visitor on a two week holiday in Cameroon was about £3000. The average length of stay was 14 days with 54% spending between 8 – 14 days while 34.7% stayed in the country between 15 – 21days (Table 6.2c).

Table 6.2c: Holiday duration

| | | Frequency | Valid Percent |
|---------|------------------|-----------|---------------|
| Valid | 2-3 days | 2 | .5 |
| | 4-7 days | 10 | 2.5 |
| | 8-14 days | 210 | 53.3 |
| | 15-21 days | 137 | 34.8 |
| | 22 days and more | 35 | 8.9 |
| | Total | 394 | 100.0 |
| Missing | System | 1 | |
| Total | | 395 | |

6.2.2 Service infrastructure

Univariate and bivariate analysis were carried out to determine the opinion of the various respondents to the quality of the service infrastructure and how this contributed to their holiday experience. In this regard, variables dealing with the service infrastructure (accommodation and transport) were analysed in relation to the independent variables dealing with gender, marital status, professional background, nationality and age of the respondents with the following outcome:

6.2.2.1 Accommodation infrastructure

Most of the tourists to Cameroon did not use just one type of accommodation infrastructure during their stay. Depending on the sites visited, tourists were lodged in a variety of accommodation establishments and categories ranging from 5-star hotels through guest houses and hostels to campsites and home stays. Only 6.3% lodged in 4 – 5 star hotels (which were found only in Douala and Yaoundé, Cameroon's economic and political capitals respectively) while 94.2% lodged in 2-3 star hotels and other accommodation establishments. At one time or the other during their stay, 39.8% undertook camping expeditions and thus lodged in campsites and guesthouses while another 20% were lodged by their friends or relatives (Appendix 6.2a – 6.2f).

However, only 42% considered the quality of the accommodation infrastructure to be good or excellent while 23.1% deemed the accommodation infrastructure to be poor or very poor (Table 6.3a).

Table 6.3a: Quality of accommodation infrastructure

| | | Frequency | Valid Percent |
|---------|-------------------|-----------|---------------|
| Valid | Excellent | 20 | 5.1 |
| | Good | 148 | 37.6 |
| | Neutral | 134 | 34.0 |
| | Poor | 77 | 19.5 |
| | Very poor | 14 | 3.6 |
| | Not used/relevant | 1 | .3 |
| | Total | 394 | 100.0 |
| Missing | System | 1 | |
| Total | | 395 | |

Accommodation infrastructure and gender/age

Though a generalisable relationship of statistical significance did not exist between the two variables of accommodation and gender, it could however be deduced that women generally tended to be more critical of the state of the accommodation infrastructure and up to 25.6% of women found the accommodation infrastructure to be of poor or very poor quality in comparison to just 20.9% of men who shared this view. Only 42.5% of both groups considered the accommodation infrastructure to be of good quality (Table 6.3b).

Table 6.3b: Quality of accommodation infrastructure * Gender of respondent Cross-tabulation

| | | | Gender of respondent | | Total |
|---|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|----------------------|--------|--------|
| | | | Male | Female | |
| Quality of accommodation infrastructure | Excellent | Count | 11 | 9 | 20 |
| | | % within Gender of respondent | 5.4% | 4.8% | 5.1% |
| | Good | Count | 78 | 69 | 147 |
| | | % within Gender of respondent | 38.0% | 36.7% | 37.4% |
| | Neutral | Count | 73 | 61 | 134 |
| | | % within Gender of respondent | 35.6% | 32.4% | 34.1% |
| Poor | Count | 37 | 40 | 77 | |
| | % within Gender of respondent | 18.0% | 21.3% | 19.6% | |
| Very poor | Count | 6 | 8 | 14 | |
| | % within Gender of respondent | 2.9% | 4.3% | 3.6% | |
| Not used/relevant | Count | 0 | 1 | 1 | |
| | % within Gender of respondent | .0% | .5% | .3% | |
| Total | | Count | 205 | 188 | 393 |
| | | % within Gender of respondent | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% |

In addition, respondents in the older age group were much more critical towards the quality of the accommodation infrastructure with only 27.8% of the 60-69 age group considering the quality to be good as opposed to 45.5% in the 18-29 age group. Also, 5.2% of the 50-59 and 5.6% of the 60-69 described the quality as very poor as opposed to just 3.0% of the youngest age group (Table 6.3c).

Table 6.3c: Quality of accommodation infrastructure * Age of respondent Cross-tabulation

| | | | Age of respondent | | | | | Total | |
|---|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------------|
| | | | 18-29 | 30-39 | 40-49 | 50-59 | 60-69 | | 70 and above |
| Accommodation -Quality of accommodation infrastructure | Excellent | Count | 5 | 7 | 5 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 20 |
| | | % within Age of respondent | 7.6% | 6.9% | 3.8% | 2.6% | .0% | 100.0% | 5.1% |
| | Good | Count | 30 | 33 | 53 | 27 | 5 | 0 | 148 |
| | | % within Age of respondent | 45.5% | 32.4% | 40.8% | 35.1% | 27.8% | .0% | 37.6% |
| | Neutral | Count | 17 | 44 | 40 | 26 | 7 | 0 | 134 |
| | | % within Age of respondent | 25.8% | 43.1% | 30.8% | 33.8% | 38.9% | .0% | 34.0% |
| | Poor | Count | 12 | 15 | 28 | 17 | 5 | 0 | 77 |
| % within Age of respondent | | 18.2% | 14.7% | 21.5% | 22.1% | 27.8% | .0% | 19.5% | |
| Very poor | Count | 2 | 3 | 4 | 4 | 1 | 0 | 14 | |
| | % within Age of respondent | 3.0% | 2.9% | 3.1% | 5.2% | 5.6% | .0% | 3.6% | |
| Not used/relevant | Count | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | |
| | % within Age of respondent | .0% | .0% | .0% | 1.3% | .0% | .0% | .3% | |
| Total | Count | 66 | 102 | 130 | 77 | 18 | 1 | 394 | |
| | % within Age of respondent | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | |

Accommodation and marital status

Survey respondents who were single, divorced or separated generally tended to be more critical of the quality of the accommodation infrastructure than those who lived in a relationship. Up to 29.9% of them considered the accommodation infrastructure in the country to be poor or very poor as opposed to just 20.8% of married couple who shared this same opinion (Table 6.4). Another observation was the fact that more than a third of all respondents, irrespective of marital status, voiced a neutral opinion towards this question.

Table 6.4: Quality of accommodation infrastructure * marital status Cross-tabulation

| | | | marital status | | Total |
|---|-------------------------|-------------------------|------------------------------|---------------------------|-------|
| | | | married, living with partner | single, divorced, widowed | |
| Quality of accommodation infrastructure | Excellent | Count | 17 | 3 | 20 |
| | | % within marital status | 5.7% | 3.1% | 5.1% |
| | Good | Count | 111 | 37 | 148 |
| | | % within marital status | 37.4% | 38.1% | 37.6% |
| | Neutral | Count | 107 | 27 | 134 |
| | | % within marital status | 36.0% | 27.8% | 34.0% |
| | Poor | Count | 53 | 24 | 77 |
| | | % within marital status | 17.8% | 24.7% | 19.5% |
| Very poor | Count | 9 | 5 | 14 | |
| | % within marital status | 3.0% | 5.2% | 3.6% | |
| Not used/relevant | Count | 0 | 1 | 1 | |
| | % within marital status | .0% | 1.0% | .3% | |
| Total | Count | 297 | 97 | 394 | |
| | % within marital status | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | |

Accommodation and professional background / nationality

Worthy of note is the fact that 41.7% of respondents in managerial and professional positions who formed the bulk of visitors to the country considered the quality of accommodation infrastructure to be good as opposed to just slightly above 31% of respondents in the other two groups. This is perhaps because visitors belonging to the first category were rich enough to lodge in the best hotels which conformed to international standards (Table 6.5).

Table 6.5a: Quality of accommodation infrastructure * Profession Cross-tabulation

| | | | Profession | | | Total |
|---|---------------------|---------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------|-------|
| | | | Managerial and professional | Intermediate non-manual | Junior non-manual | |
| Quality of accommodation infrastructure | Excellent | Count | 12 | 5 | 2 | 19 |
| | | % within Profession | 5.0% | 3.9% | 10.5% | 4.9% |
| | Good | Count | 101 | 40 | 6 | 147 |
| | | % within Profession | 41.7% | 31.3% | 31.6% | 37.8% |
| | Neutral | Count | 73 | 54 | 7 | 134 |
| | | % within Profession | 30.2% | 42.2% | 36.8% | 34.4% |
| | Poor | Count | 47 | 23 | 4 | 74 |
| | | % within Profession | 19.4% | 18.0% | 21.1% | 19.0% |
| Very poor | Count | 8 | 6 | 0 | 14 | |
| | % within Profession | 3.3% | 4.7% | .0% | 3.6% | |
| Not used/relevant | Count | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | |
| | % within Profession | .4% | .0% | .0% | .3% | |
| Total | Count | 242 | 128 | 19 | 389 | |
| | % within Profession | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | |

Even though a majority of visitors who took part in the survey came from Western Europe, more than 20% of respondents irrespective of their nationality considered the

quality of the accommodation infrastructure to be (very) poor with just about 35% of Western, Eastern European and Asian respondents acknowledging that the accommodation services were good (Table 6.5b).

Table 6.5b: Quality of accommodation infrastructure * Nationality Cross-tabulation

| | | | Nationality | | | | | Total | |
|---|-------------------|----------------------|--------------------|------------------------------|----------------|----------------|--------|--------|---------------|
| | | | Sub-Saharan Africa | North Africa and Middle east | Western Europe | Eastern Europe | Asia | | North America |
| Quality of accommodation infrastructure | Excellent | Count | 0 | 0 | 15 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 20 |
| | | % within Nationality | .0% | .0% | 5.7% | .0% | .0% | 5.6% | 5.1% |
| | Good | Count | 0 | 1 | 96 | 10 | 2 | 39 | 148 |
| | | % within Nationality | .0% | 50.0% | 36.2% | 33.3% | 33.3% | 43.8% | 37.6% |
| | Neutral | Count | 0 | 1 | 89 | 13 | 3 | 28 | 134 |
| | | % within Nationality | .0% | 50.0% | 33.6% | 43.3% | 50.0% | 31.5% | 34.0% |
| | Poor | Count | 2 | 0 | 54 | 6 | 0 | 15 | 77 |
| | | % within Nationality | 100.0% | .0% | 20.4% | 20.0% | .0% | 16.9% | 19.5% |
| | Very poor | Count | 0 | 0 | 10 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 14 |
| | | % within Nationality | .0% | .0% | 3.8% | 3.3% | 16.7% | 2.2% | 3.6% |
| | Not used/relevant | Count | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| | | % within Nationality | .0% | .0% | .4% | .0% | .0% | .0% | .3% |
| | Total | Count | 2 | 2 | 265 | 30 | 6 | 89 | 394 |
| | | % within Nationality | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% |

In their final comments, some of the survey respondents complained of the lack of any information about potential problems that might occur in hotels (e.g. water shortages and electricity blackouts), cleanliness and, in the words of SR264²³, many hotels in Cameroon “...are simply just hotels but not places to feel comfortable and cosy.”

6.2.2.2 Transportation infrastructure and services

Close to three quarters (72.1%) of the survey respondents did travel in a group with the majority (68.1%) travelling in groups of 2 to 6 persons (Tables 6.6a and 6.6b).

Table 6.6a: Did you travel in a group?

| | | Frequency | Valid Percent |
|---------|--------|-----------|---------------|
| Valid | Yes | 284 | 72.1 |
| | No | 110 | 27.9 |
| | Total | 394 | 100.0 |
| Missing | System | 1 | |
| Total | | 395 | |

²³ SR = survey respondent. Respondents range from R001 – R395

Table 6.6b: If yes, what was the size of the group?

| | | Frequency | Valid Percent |
|---------|-----------------|-----------|---------------|
| Valid | 2 - 6 persons | 228 | 68.1 |
| | 7 - 12 persons | 105 | 31.3 |
| | 13 - 18 persons | 2 | .6 |
| | Total | 335 | 100.0 |
| Missing | 9 | 16 | |
| | System | 44 | |
| | Total | 60 | |
| Total | | 395 | |

Only 23.1% of the respondents did travel by air within the country with the remainder using a combination of road transport forms from coaches (47.3%), through rented cars (54.4%) to private cars (20%) and a tiny fraction (2%) even made use of pick-ups and vans (Appendix 6.3a – 6.3f).

With regards to the state of the ground transport infrastructure, even though three quarters of the respondent considered the cost of transport within the country to be relatively cheap, 89.9% were of the opinion that the state of the roads out of the main towns and cities and accompanying services were (very) poor (Tables 6.7a – 6.7c). Public transport was thus generally considered unsafe and not adapted to tourist needs.

Table 6.7a: Transportation infrastructure and services

| | | Frequency | Valid Percent |
|---------|-----------|-----------|---------------|
| Valid | Good | 3 | .8 |
| | Neutral | 31 | 7.9 |
| | Poor | 206 | 52.7 |
| | Very poor | 151 | 38.6 |
| | Total | 391 | 100.0 |
| Missing | System | 4 | |
| Total | | 395 | |

Table 6.7b: Cost of transport

| | | Frequency | Valid Percent |
|---------|-------------------|-----------|---------------|
| Valid | Excellent | 58 | 14.8 |
| | Good | 236 | 60.1 |
| | Neutral | 89 | 22.6 |
| | Poor | 1 | .3 |
| | Very poor | 2 | .5 |
| | Not used/relevant | 6 | 1.5 |
| | 23 | 1 | .3 |
| | Total | 393 | 100.0 |
| Missing | System | 2 | |
| Total | | 395 | |

Table 6.7c: State of the roads

| | | Frequency | Valid Percent |
|---------|-----------|-----------|---------------|
| Valid | Good | 6 | 1.5 |
| | Neutral | 34 | 8.6 |
| | Poor | 187 | 47.5 |
| | Very poor | 167 | 42.4 |
| | Total | 394 | 100.0 |
| Missing | System | 1 | |
| Total | | 395 | |

Mention should be made of the fact that only 13.2% of the questionnaire respondents travelled in tailor-made packaged tours with the rest making their travel arrangements individually. In addition, more than a third (63.8%) planned and booked the trip on their own or with the help of friends and relatives and only 5.6% entrusted the full organisation of their trip to a travel agent (Tables 6.8a and 6.8b).

Table 6.8a: Travel arrangement - Did you travel in

| | | Frequency | Valid Percent |
|---------|--------------------------------|-----------|---------------|
| Valid | All inclusive package tour | 52 | 13.2 |
| | Individual travel arrangements | 341 | 86.8 |
| | Total | 393 | 100.0 |
| Missing | System | 2 | |
| Total | | 395 | |

Table 6.8b: How did you plan and book your travel itinerary

| | Frequency | Valid Percent |
|---|-----------|---------------|
| Valid Through a travel agent | 22 | 5.6 |
| I/we planned and booked the trip on our own | 171 | 43.3 |
| I/we planned and booked the trip with the help of relatives and friends | 81 | 20.5 |
| I/we received some information from a travel agent but booked the trip on our own | 121 | 30.6 |
| Total | 395 | 100.0 |

The main components of these tailor-made tours were a return air ticket, accommodation and transportation to designated sites within the country. Less than 15% of these tour packages included meals, car rentals and entry tickets into parks, museums and other attractions (Appendix 6.4a – 6.4e).

Transport infrastructure and gender

Though no generalisable relationship could be deduced from a cross-tabulation of transport infrastructure and services to gender in the survey (Pearson Chi-square = .133), there was general agreement among the respondents that they were in a (very) poor state. Male respondents were slightly more critical of the infrastructure and services with 41.4% of female respondents considering these services to be very poor as opposed to only 35.8% of male respondents even though 56.9% as opposed to 48.4% of females said the infrastructure was poor (Table 6.9).

Table 6.9: Transport infrastructure and services * Gender of respondent Cross-tabulation

| | | | Gender of respondent | | Total |
|--|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|----------------------|--------|--------|
| | | | Male | Female | |
| Transportation infrastructure and services | Good | Count | 0 | 3 | 3 |
| | | % within Gender of respondent | .0% | 1.6% | .8% |
| | Neutral | Count | 15 | 16 | 31 |
| | | % within Gender of respondent | 7.4% | 8.6% | 7.9% |
| Poor | Count | 116 | 90 | 206 | |
| | % within Gender of respondent | 56.9% | 48.4% | 52.8% | |
| Very poor | Count | 73 | 77 | 150 | |
| | % within Gender of respondent | 35.8% | 41.4% | 38.5% | |
| Total | | Count | 204 | 186 | 390 |
| | | % within Gender of respondent | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% |

Transport infrastructure and age

It is worth noting that even though more than 85% of respondents in all the age groups considered the transport infrastructure and services to be (very) poor, respondents in the 50+ age group were more critical with more than 94% considering the transport infrastructure and services to be of poor or very poor quality (Table 6.10). However a statistically significant relationship did not exist between these two variables because though the Asymp. Sig. was .003 implying that this view could be generalised, the validity and reliability of this test was called to question because 25% of cells had an expected count less than 5 and this was above the 20% normally accepted in social sciences. (Appendix 6.5a - 6.5c).

Table 6.10: Transportation infrastructure and services * age Cross-tabulation

| | | | age | | | | Total |
|--|--------------|--------------|--------|--------|--------|--------------|-------|
| | | | 18-29 | 30-39 | 40-49 | 50 and above | |
| Transportation infrastructure and services | Good | Count | 0 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 3 |
| | | % within age | .0% | 2.9% | .0% | .0% | .8% |
| | Neutral | Count | 9 | 12 | 5 | 5 | 31 |
| | | % within age | 14.1% | 11.8% | 3.9% | 5.2% | 7.9% |
| | Poor | Count | 36 | 40 | 73 | 57 | 206 |
| | | % within age | 56.3% | 39.2% | 56.6% | 59.4% | 52.7% |
| | Very poor | Count | 19 | 47 | 51 | 34 | 151 |
| | | % within age | 29.7% | 46.1% | 39.5% | 35.4% | 38.6% |
| Total | Count | 64 | 102 | 129 | 96 | 391 | |
| | % within age | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | |

Transport infrastructure and professional background

Respondents in the lower professional categories even though making up a smaller proportion of respondents were more critical of the transport infrastructure and services, with up to half of all respondents in junior non manual category saying that the transport infrastructure was very poor as opposed to just 33.9% of respondents in the managerial and professional categories. This view could not, however, be generalised to the whole population as the Chi square test (.176) did not indicate the presence of any statistical relationship (Table 6.11).

Table 6.11: Transport infrastructure and services * Profession Cross-tabulation

| | | | Profession | | | Total |
|--|---------------------|---------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------|-------|
| | | | Managerial and professional | Intermediate non-manual | Junior non-manual | |
| Transportation infrastructure and services | Good | Count | 3 | 0 | 0 | 3 |
| | | % within Profession | 1.3% | .0% | .0% | .8% |
| | Neutral | Count | 24 | 7 | 0 | 31 |
| | | % within Profession | 10.0% | 5.4% | .0% | 8.0% |
| | Poor | Count | 131 | 65 | 9 | 205 |
| | | % within Profession | 54.8% | 50.4% | 50.0% | 53.1% |
| | Very poor | Count | 81 | 57 | 9 | 147 |
| | | % within Profession | 33.9% | 44.2% | 50.0% | 38.1% |
| Total | Count | 239 | 129 | 18 | 386 | |
| | % within Profession | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | |

Transport infrastructure, nationality and marital status

Worthy of note is the fact that irrespective of nationality and marital status and in spite of the fact that Chi-square tests did not reveal any statistically significant and generalisable relationships between the above mentioned variables, more than 90% of respondents considered the transport infrastructure and services to be poor or very poor irrespective of their nationality (Appendix 6.6a, 6.6b).

Thus according to SR28 “*public transport was unsafe and not adapted to the needs of tourists*” while SR264 went on to add “*that transport within the country is generally too time consuming and stressful especially for Europeans who don’t normally have much time for holidays, sometimes just 14 days, but in Cameroon, 3 days are already needed to go to the far north for example*”.

6.2.3 Tourism industry service personnel

The survey respondents generally considered the performance of public sector personnel (police, customs, embassy/consular staff) working in the tourism and related sectors to be very inefficient and only half of the survey respondents considered the performance of private sector workers (hotel staff, tour guides) in general to be good. However, when broken down in terms of the different services offered, close to two thirds (66.8%) of the respondents considered the tour guides and interpretation services offered at the various sites visited to be good or even better (Table 6.12a).

Table 6.12a: Interpretation services/ tour guard services

| | | Frequency | Valid Percent |
|---------|-----------|-----------|---------------|
| Valid | Excellent | 55 | 14.1 |
| | Good | 206 | 52.7 |
| | Neutral | 89 | 22.8 |
| | Poor | 38 | 9.7 |
| | Very poor | 3 | .8 |
| | Total | 391 | 100.0 |
| Missing | 9 | 1 | |
| | System | 3 | |
| | Total | 4 | |
| Total | | 395 | |

Only 48.1% considered the service offered by personnel in hotels, restaurants and other accommodations establishments to be of good quality, but 60.7% acknowledged the fact that the food quality was good (or even better). The worst grades were observed in some public sectors providing services to tourists. In this regard, only 2.9% of those who obtained visas to Cameroon from the Cameroonian embassies and consulates in their home countries were satisfied with the reception and treatment they received at the embassy while and 46.1% considered the reception and treatment of guests by embassy and consular staff to be miserable. In like manner 84.2% of respondents felt they were harassed and poorly treated by customs and immigration officials at the airport and on the highways during their holidays (Tables 6.12b and 6.12c).

Table 6.12b: Embassy and consular reception and treatment

| | | Frequency | Valid Percent |
|---------|-----------|-----------|---------------|
| Valid | Good | 11 | 2.9 |
| | Neutral | 97 | 25.4 |
| | Poor | 126 | 33.0 |
| | Very Poor | 50 | 13.1 |
| | Not used | 98 | 25.7 |
| | Total | 382 | 100.0 |
| Missing | 9 | 2 | |
| | System | 11 | |
| | Total | 13 | |
| Total | | 395 | |

Table 6.12c: Controls by immigration and police officials

| | | Frequency | Valid Percent |
|---------|-----------|-----------|---------------|
| Valid | Good | 12 | 3.0 |
| | Neutral | 54 | 13.7 |
| | Poor | 196 | 49.7 |
| | Very poor | 132 | 33.5 |
| | Total | 394 | 100.0 |
| Missing | System | 1 | |
| Total | | 395 | |

The behaviour of the workers in the tourism industry (most especially police and immigration officials and workers in the accommodation and reception sectors) has proven to be very important in determining the quality of the general holiday experience to most visitors and determining whether they are likely to recommend their trips to others as well as determine the propensity to revisit a destination again.

It is thus in consideration of this negative results that a detailed bivariate analysis was done to find out the real nature of the relationships of some of the dependent variables dealing with service quality and the independent variables with a view to determining how these impacted on the general holiday experience.

6.2.3.1 Immigration/police officials

Analysis in 6.2.3 above clearly showed that whilst there was general satisfaction for the job done by tour guides, improvements still had to be done with the quality of services provided in hotels, restaurants and other accommodations establishments but most especially by immigration and police officials at the airports and on the highways within the country.

Controls by immigration/police officials and age/gender

More than 80% of all respondents considered the behaviour of police and immigration officials to be (very) poor. However older respondents in the 40+ age groups were more critical of the behaviour of immigration officials with 36.2% in the 40 – 49 age group and up to 43.8% in the 50+ age group describing the behaviour of these officials as being very poor. This was in contrast to respondents in the younger age group where less than a third of the respondents viewed the behaviour of these officials as very poor (Table 6.13).

Table 6.13: Controls by immigration and police officials * age Cross-tabulation

| | | | age | | | | Total |
|--|----------------|----------------|--------|--------|--------|--------------|-------|
| | | | 18-29 | 30-39 | 40-49 | 50 and above | |
| Controls by immigration and police officials | Good | Count | 4 | 3 | 4 | 1 | 12 |
| | | Expected Count | 2.0 | 3.1 | 4.0 | 2.9 | 12.0 |
| | | % within age | 6.1% | 2.9% | 3.1% | 1.0% | 3.0% |
| | Neutral | Count | 15 | 15 | 13 | 11 | 54 |
| | | Expected Count | 9.0 | 14.0 | 17.8 | 13.2 | 54.0 |
| | | % within age | 22.7% | 14.7% | 10.0% | 11.5% | 13.7% |
| | Poor | Count | 33 | 55 | 66 | 42 | 196 |
| | | Expected Count | 32.8 | 50.7 | 64.7 | 47.8 | 196.0 |
| | | % within age | 50.0% | 53.9% | 50.8% | 43.8% | 49.7% |
| | Very poor | Count | 14 | 29 | 47 | 42 | 132 |
| | | Expected Count | 22.1 | 34.2 | 43.6 | 32.2 | 132.0 |
| | | % within age | 21.2% | 28.4% | 36.2% | 43.8% | 33.5% |
| Total | Count | 66 | 102 | 130 | 96 | 394 | |
| | Expected Count | 66.0 | 102.0 | 130.0 | 96.0 | 394.0 | |
| | % within age | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | |

In addition, male respondents tended to be more sensitive to this behaviour than their female counterparts. Thus 36.1% of male respondents considered the behaviour of police and immigration officials to be very poor as opposed to 30.9% of women whilst only 1.5% of men considered their treatment of tourists to be good as opposed to 4.8% of female respondents (Table 6.14).

Table 6.14: Controls by immigration and police officials * Gender of respondent Cross-tabulation

| | | | Gender of respondent | | Total |
|--|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|----------------------|--------|-------|
| | | | Male | Female | |
| Controls by immigration and police officials | Good | Count | 3 | 9 | 12 |
| | | % within Gender of respondent | 1.5% | 4.8% | 3.1% |
| | Neutral | Count | 26 | 28 | 54 |
| | | % within Gender of respondent | 12.7% | 14.9% | 13.7% |
| | Poor | Count | 102 | 93 | 195 |
| | | % within Gender of respondent | 49.8% | 49.5% | 49.6% |
| | Very poor | Count | 74 | 58 | 132 |
| | | % within Gender of respondent | 36.1% | 30.9% | 33.6% |
| Total | Count | 205 | 188 | 393 | |
| | % within Gender of respondent | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | |

Controls by immigration/police officials and marital status

Married respondents or those living with partners considered the many controls by immigration and police officials to be a serious problem. Only 1.7%% of respondents in a

relationship considering their behaviour to be good as opposed to 7.2% of those living alone (singles, divorced or widowed) who thought they did their job well. In addition, more than four fifth (86.9.2%) of married/coupled respondents considered the behaviour of officers during these controls to be poor (Table 6.15a).

Table 6.15a: Controls by immigration and police officials * marital status Cross-tabulation

| | | | marital status | | Total |
|--|-------------------------|-------------------------|------------------------------|---------------------------|-------|
| | | | married, living with partner | single, divorced, widowed | |
| Controls by immigration and police officials | Good | Count | 5 | 7 | 12 |
| | | % within marital status | 1.7% | 7.2% | 3.0% |
| | Neutral | Count | 34 | 20 | 54 |
| | | % within marital status | 11.4% | 20.6% | 13.7% |
| | Poor | Count | 152 | 44 | 196 |
| | | % within marital status | 51.2% | 45.4% | 49.7% |
| | Very poor | Count | 106 | 26 | 132 |
| | | % within marital status | 35.7% | 26.8% | 33.5% |
| Total | Count | 297 | 97 | 394 | |
| | % within marital status | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | |

The existence of a statistically significant though weak positive relationship between these two variables meant that the results could be generalised to the whole population. The Chi-square was .003 whilst Cramer's V correlation coefficient stood at .189 meaning that one could rightly conclude that married couples or those who lived with partners considered controls by immigration/police officials at airports and roads to be more of a nuisance than single, divorced or widowed travellers, and this had an impact on their general holiday experience (Tables 6.15b and 6.15c).

Table 6.15b: Chi-Square Tests

| | Value | df | Asymp. Sig. (2-sided) |
|------------------------------|---------------------|----|-----------------------|
| Pearson Chi-Square | 14.057 ^a | 3 | .003 |
| Likelihood Ratio | 12.562 | 3 | .006 |
| Linear-by-Linear Association | 10.756 | 1 | .001 |
| N of Valid Cases | 394 | | |

a. 1 cells (12.5%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.95.

Table 6.15c: Symmetric Measures

| | | Value | Asymp. Std. Error ^a | Approx. † | Approx. Sig. |
|----------------------|----------------------|-------|-----------------------------------|-----------|-------------------|
| Nominal by Nominal | Phi | .189 | | | .003 |
| Nominal by Nominal | Cramer's V | .189 | | | .003 |
| Interval by Interval | Pearson's R | -.165 | .054 | -3.321 | .001 ^c |
| Ordinal by Ordinal | Spearman Correlation | -.144 | .052 | -2.881 | .004 ^c |
| N of Valid Cases | | 394 | | | |

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

c. Based on normal approximation.

Controls by immigration/police officials and professional background

The professional background of the respondents did not significantly alter their perception of the behaviour of police and immigration officials. However respondents belonging to the higher professional groups tended to be more critical about the behaviour of these officials with more than 32% of those in professional and managerial occupations as well as in intermediate non-manual occupations considering the behaviour of these officials to be very poor as opposed to just 21% of respondents in the junior non-manual professions (Table 6.16).

Table 6.16: Controls by immigration and police officials * Profession Cross-tabulation

| | | | Profession | | | Total |
|--|---------------------|---------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------|-------|
| | | | Managerial and professional | Intermediate non-manual | Junior non-manual | |
| Controls by immigration and police officials | Good | Count | 10 | 0 | 1 | 11 |
| | | % within Profession | 4.1% | .0% | 5.3% | 2.8% |
| | Neutral | Count | 37 | 13 | 4 | 54 |
| | | % within Profession | 15.3% | 10.2% | 21.1% | 13.9% |
| | Poor | Count | 117 | 69 | 10 | 196 |
| | | % within Profession | 48.3% | 53.9% | 52.6% | 50.4% |
| | Very poor | Count | 78 | 46 | 4 | 128 |
| | | % within Profession | 32.2% | 35.9% | 21.1% | 32.9% |
| Total | Count | 242 | 128 | 19 | 389 | |
| | % within Profession | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | |

To summarise, whilst SR264 observed that “*annoying police checks at the airport are a serious handicap, give a bad impression on arrival and make people not to want to buy any souvenirs on departure*”, SR039 summed it up in his final remarks thus “*airport arrival, customs clearance and excessive police checkpoints along the main highways are a serious impediment to developing tourism in Cameroon*”.

6.2.3.2 Hotel and accommodation services/ reception service

The reception services and treatment of guests in hotels and other accommodation establishments was considered to be just average (ca 50%) by the survey respondents. This implied the existence of deficiencies in certain aspects of the services rendered by personnel working in this sector and this had to be looked into during discussions with the tourism industry stakeholders. However, before this could be done it was imperative to examine the detailed results generated from cross-tabulating the views of the various visitor categories with regards to these services for any peculiarities or discrepancies and to see if the results could be generalised to the whole population.

Reception service and treatment of guests and age groups

Though forming a very small proportion of the survey respondents, people in the older age groups were more critical of services and the quality of workers in the hospitality sector with 27.8% of respondents in the 60-69 age group describing the treatment of guests as being very poor as opposed to just 14.7% of respondents in the 40-49 age group who constituted the bulk (33%) of the survey respondents (Table 6.17).

Table 6.17: Reception/treatment of guests * Age of respondent Cross-tabulation

| | | | Age of respondent | | | | | | Total |
|-------------------------------|----------------------------|----------------------------|-------------------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------------|--------|
| | | | 18-29 | 30-39 | 40-49 | 50-59 | 60-69 | 70 and above | |
| Reception/treatment of guests | Excellent | Count | 3 | 2 | 3 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 11 |
| | | % within Age of respondent | 4.7% | 2.0% | 2.3% | 2.6% | .0% | 100.0% | 2.8% |
| | Good | Count | 21 | 34 | 48 | 26 | 10 | 0 | 139 |
| | | % within Age of respondent | 32.8% | 33.7% | 37.2% | 33.8% | 55.6% | .0% | 35.6% |
| | Neutral | Count | 30 | 42 | 59 | 33 | 3 | 0 | 167 |
| % within Age of respondent | | 46.9% | 41.6% | 45.7% | 42.9% | 16.7% | .0% | 42.8% | |
| Poor | Count | 9 | 22 | 19 | 15 | 4 | 0 | 69 | |
| | % within Age of respondent | 14.1% | 21.8% | 14.7% | 19.5% | 22.2% | .0% | 17.7% | |
| Very poor | Count | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 4 | |
| | % within Age of respondent | 1.6% | 1.0% | .0% | 1.3% | 5.6% | .0% | 1.0% | |
| Total | | Count | 64 | 101 | 129 | 77 | 18 | 1 | 390 |
| | | % within Age of respondent | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% |

Even though the Asymp. Sig. figure of .000 of the Chi-square test suggested a statistically significant relationship between these two variables, the fact that (53.3%) of cells had an expected count less than 5, when the minimum expected count was .01. meant that the test was not reliable since the expected frequencies in the age groups were too small (Appendix 6.8a - 6.8c). A new cross-tabulation using the recoded age variable showed there was in fact no statistically significant relationship between these two variables.

Reception/treatment of guests and professional background/marital status

Though no generalisable statistical relationship did exist between these variables it is worth noting that the percentage of respondents having a neutral opinion of the hospitality/reception services and workers increased as the professional level decreased with up to 55.6% of respondents in junior non-manual professions preferring not to have an opinion on the quality of the service craft as opposed to just 40.2% in the managerial class (Table 6.18a).

Table 6.18a: Reception/treatment of guests * Profession Cross-tabulation

| | | | Profession | | | Total |
|-------------------------------|---------------------|---------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------|-------|
| | | | Managerial and professional | Intermediate non-manual | Junior non-manual | |
| Reception/treatment of guests | Excellent | Count | 9 | 1 | 0 | 10 |
| | | % within Profession | 3.8% | .8% | .0% | 2.6% |
| | Good | Count | 92 | 40 | 6 | 138 |
| | | % within Profession | 38.5% | 31.3% | 33.3% | 35.8% |
| | Neutral | Count | 96 | 59 | 10 | 165 |
| | | % within Profession | 40.2% | 46.1% | 55.6% | 42.9% |
| | Poor | Count | 40 | 27 | 2 | 69 |
| | | % within Profession | 16.7% | 21.1% | 11.1% | 17.9% |
| | Very poor | Count | 2 | 1 | 0 | 3 |
| | | % within Profession | .8% | .8% | .0% | .8% |
| Total | Count | 239 | 128 | 18 | 385 | |
| | % within Profession | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | |

However, irrespective of marital status, whilst 17.9% of respondents considered the hotel staff reception and treatment of guests to be poor, only 38.4% considered the behaviour of staff working and dealing directly with guests in the hospitality sector to be good or very good (Table 6.18b).

Table 6.18b: Reception/treatment of guests * marital status Cross-tabulation

| | | | marital status | | Total |
|-------------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|------------------------------|---------------------------|-------|
| | | | married, living with partner | single, divorced, widowed | |
| Reception/treatment of guests | Excellent | Count | 8 | 3 | 11 |
| | | % within marital status | 2.7% | 3.2% | 2.8% |
| | Good | Count | 107 | 32 | 139 |
| | | % within marital status | 36.0% | 34.4% | 35.6% |
| | Neutral | Count | 126 | 41 | 167 |
| | | % within marital status | 42.4% | 44.1% | 42.8% |
| | Poor | Count | 54 | 15 | 69 |
| | | % within marital status | 18.2% | 16.1% | 17.7% |
| | Very poor | Count | 2 | 2 | 4 |
| | | % within marital status | .7% | 2.2% | 1.0% |
| Total | Count | 297 | 93 | 390 | |
| | % within marital status | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | |

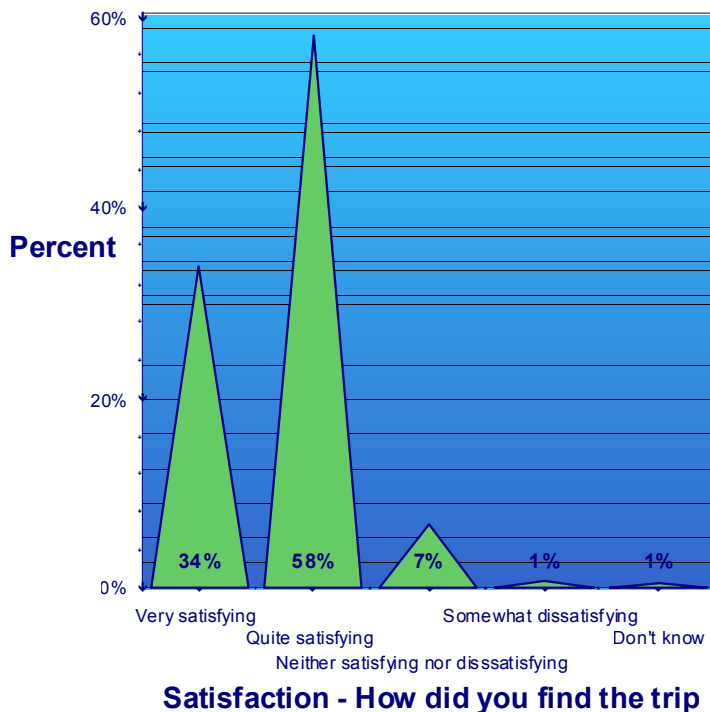
Some respondents such as SR038 in their final comments clearly mentioned that “*the stay was agreeable with the exception of the arrival and departure at the Douala International Airport which was very disagreeable due to its disorganised and chaotic nature and lack of professionalism by the workers at the airport*”, while R264 went on to add that “*customer service in hotels was very poor and people generally unfriendly.....and police harassment is rampant and the police always try to look for complaints so that they are bribed even when all the documents are in order*”.

6.2.4 Quality of attractions and level of satisfaction

Natural and cultural attractions, the weather, beaches and interactions with local inhabitants were considered by tourists who responded to the survey as being some of the most interesting aspects of the holidays while the other aspects such as shopping, sporting and business opportunities were considered not to be interesting by almost 40% of the survey respondents (Appendix: 6.9a - 6.9e).

Up to 91.9% of survey respondents did find their holidays to be quite (or very) satisfying in spite of the dissatisfaction with the many aspects of the service infrastructure (Figure 6.4).

Figure 6.4: General level of satisfaction



Even though only about 12% of the survey respondents felt that they were hustled or nagged by beggars, people trying to sell goods to them or by cheats and thieves during their stay in the country (Appendix 6.9a – 6.9e), a good proportion of respondents

alluded to the fact that deficiencies in some parts of the tourism services and infrastructure as well as in the quality of the attractions had an influence on the general holiday experience (6.2.2 and 6.2.3). In this regard only half of the respondents considered the attractions to be of good or even better quality. In spite of these shortcomings, 66.9% said they would probably think of visiting Cameroon again if these deficiencies were redressed while only 17% said they would definitely visit the country again. The remainder said they will not probably visit the country anymore (Tables 6.19 and 6.20). In addition, though the overall quality of attractions in general was considered to be good or excellent by 49%, only 17% of the respondents considered it to be poor. However, 79.8%, and 80.4% considered the quality of the natural and cultural attractions respectively to be good or excellent in particular (Appendix 6.9a – 6.9e). The cost of food was seen as being relatively cheap by more than 69.8%, whereas 67.1% considered the food quality to be good or even better. However, the performance of service personnel in accommodation establishments was considered to be good by just 48% of the survey respondents (Appendix 6.10a – 6.10j).

Table 6.19: Quality of attractions

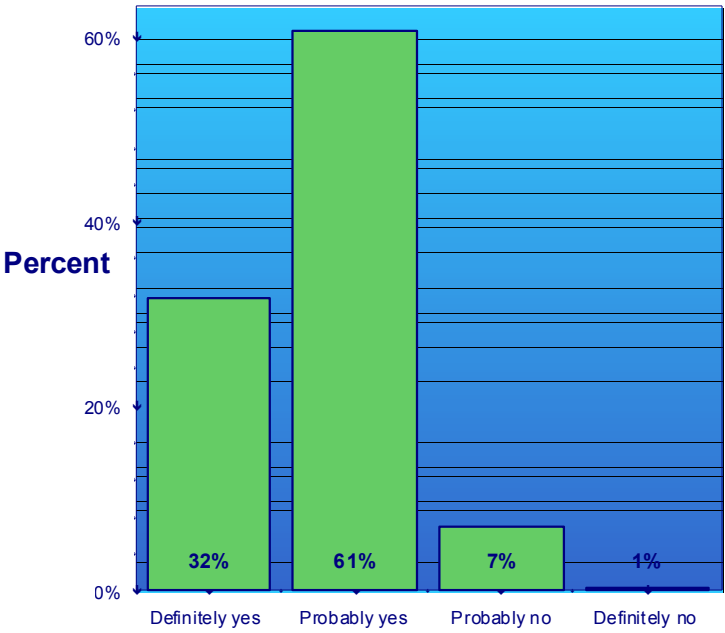
| | | Frequency | Valid Percent |
|---------|-----------|-----------|---------------|
| Valid | excellent | 8 | 2.0 |
| | Good | 185 | 47.0 |
| | Neutral | 131 | 33.2 |
| | Poor | 62 | 15.7 |
| | Very poor | 5 | 1.3 |
| | not used | 3 | .8 |
| | Total | 394 | 100.0 |
| Missing | System | 1 | |
| Total | | 395 | |

Table 6.20: Will you visit Cameroon again?

| | | Frequency | Valid Percent |
|---------|----------------|-----------|---------------|
| Valid | Definitely yes | 67 | 17.0 |
| | Probably yes | 263 | 66.9 |
| | Probably no | 62 | 15.8 |
| | Definitely no | 1 | .3 |
| | Total | 393 | 100.0 |
| Missing | 9 | 2 | |
| Total | | 395 | |

That notwithstanding, 31% of the respondents said they would definitely recommend the trip to others while up to 60% of respondents acknowledged the fact that they will probably recommend the trip to their friends and acquaintances (Figure 6.5). This is very important in promoting Cameroon considering the fact that more than three quarters of the respondents had heard about Cameroon and visited it on recommendation from others (6.3.6).

Figure 6.5 Will you recommend this trip to a friend?



It is worth noting that men generally tended to be more satisfied overall with the trip than women. The lower standard deviation of male respondents also suggests that there was less variation in men’s views on this matter while those of women in the sample were more dispersed (Table 6.21).

Table 6.21: Satisfaction - How did you find the trip?

| Gender of respondent | Mean | N | Std. Deviation |
|----------------------|------|-----|----------------|
| Male | 1.71 | 205 | .618 |
| Female | 1.82 | 187 | .740 |
| Total | 1.76 | 392 | .680 |

Just like in the previous sections, a bivariate analysis of the independent variables to those dealing with the respondents’ level of satisfaction was also carried out to confirm or

deny the existence of causal relationships between them with the following interesting results.

Cultural attractions and age of respondents

Four fifths of all the survey respondents considered the cultural attractions to be good or even excellent. It is worth noting that, visitors in the older age groups tended to be more critical of the quality of cultural attractions as opposed to those in the younger age groups and up to 6.5% of the 50-59 age group considered these attractions to be poor or very poor as opposed to just 1.5% in the youngest age group (Table 6.22). However, no statistically generalisable relationship existed between these variables (Appendix 6.11a and 6.11b).

Table 6.22a Cultural attractions * Age of respondent Cross-tabulation

| | | | Age of respondent | | | | | Total | |
|----------------------------|----------------------------|----------------------------|-------------------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------------|
| | | | 18-29 | 30-39 | 40-49 | 50-59 | 60-69 | | 70 and above |
| Cultural attractions | Excellent | Count | 19 | 34 | 34 | 23 | 9 | 0 | 119 |
| | | % within Age of respondent | 28.4% | 33.7% | 26.2% | 29.9% | 52.9% | .0% | 30.3% |
| | Good | Count | 32 | 51 | 71 | 35 | 8 | 0 | 197 |
| | | % within Age of respondent | 47.8% | 50.5% | 54.6% | 45.5% | 47.1% | .0% | 50.1% |
| | Neutral | Count | 15 | 12 | 24 | 14 | 0 | 0 | 65 |
| % within Age of respondent | | 22.4% | 11.9% | 18.5% | 18.2% | .0% | .0% | 16.5% | |
| Poor | Count | 1 | 3 | 1 | 4 | 0 | 0 | 9 | |
| | % within Age of respondent | 1.5% | 3.0% | .8% | 5.2% | .0% | .0% | 2.3% | |
| Very poor | Count | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 3 | |
| | % within Age of respondent | .0% | 1.0% | .0% | 1.3% | .0% | 100.0% | .8% | |
| Total | Count | 67 | 101 | 130 | 77 | 17 | 1 | 393 | |
| | % within Age of respondent | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | |

In addition, women generally tended to have a more favourable opinion of the quality of cultural attractions. Given that the scoring system in relation to this (and other variables concerning the quality of the other variables concerning the most interesting aspects of the trip) runs from 1 for those who say that the various aspects are ‘excellent’ through to 5 for those who say that the aspects of the trip were ‘very poor’. The higher standard deviation for women also suggested that there was more variation on women’s views on these matters while those of men in the sample were less dispersed (Table 6.22b).

Table 6.22b: Report

| Cultural attractions | | | |
|----------------------|------|-----|----------------|
| Gender of respondent | Mean | N | Std. Deviation |
| Male | 1.94 | 204 | .782 |
| Female | 1.91 | 188 | .790 |
| Total | 1.93 | 392 | .785 |

Natural attractions and profession of respondents

Even though the professional status of respondents in this survey did have an effect on their appreciation of the natural and cultural attractions in the country, this appraisal could not be generalised as no statistically relationship was found to exist between the two variables. However, it is worth noting that whereas 5.6% and 5.3% of respondents in junior non-manual professions considered the cultural and natural attractions respectively to be of poor quality, less than 1% and 2.5% of those in managerial professions shared this same view about the quality of the above mentioned attractions (Tables 6.23a and 6.23b).

Table 6.23a: Quality of natural attractions * Profession Cross-tabulation

| | | | Profession | | | Total |
|---------------------|---------------------|---------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------|-------|
| | | | Managerial and professional | Intermediate non-manual | Junior non-manual | |
| Natural attractions | Excellent | Count | 102 | 57 | 5 | 164 |
| | | % within Profession | 42.1% | 44.2% | 27.8% | 42.2% |
| | Good | Count | 118 | 63 | 10 | 191 |
| | | % within Profession | 48.8% | 48.8% | 55.6% | 49.1% |
| | Neutral | Count | 20 | 8 | 2 | 30 |
| | | % within Profession | 8.3% | 6.2% | 11.1% | 7.7% |
| | Poor | Count | 1 | 1 | 1 | 3 |
| | | % within Profession | .4% | .8% | 5.6% | .8% |
| | Very poor | Count | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| | | % within Profession | .4% | .0% | .0% | .3% |
| Total | Count | 242 | 129 | 18 | 389 | |
| | % within Profession | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | |

Table 6.23b: Quality of cultural attractions * Profession Cross-tabulation

| | | | Profession | | | Total |
|----------------------|---------------------|---------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------|-------|
| | | | Managerial and professional | Intermediate non-manual | Junior non-manual | |
| Cultural attractions | Excellent | Count | 74 | 38 | 7 | 119 |
| | | % within Profession | 30.7% | 29.7% | 36.8% | 30.7% |
| | Good | Count | 120 | 68 | 7 | 195 |
| | | % within Profession | 49.8% | 53.1% | 36.8% | 50.3% |
| | Neutral | Count | 41 | 18 | 4 | 63 |
| | | % within Profession | 17.0% | 14.1% | 21.1% | 16.2% |
| | Poor | Count | 6 | 2 | 1 | 9 |
| | | % within Profession | 2.5% | 1.6% | 5.3% | 2.3% |
| | Very poor | Count | 0 | 2 | 0 | 2 |
| | | % within Profession | .0% | 1.6% | .0% | .5% |
| Total | Count | 241 | 128 | 19 | 388 | |
| | % within Profession | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | |

In addition, whereas more than 40% of respondents in the first two professional categories said the natural attractions were of excellent quality, only 27.8% of respondents in junior non-manual professions shared this view (Table 6.23a).

Quality of attractions and gender / nationality

Female respondents (35.6%) tended to adopt a much neutral stance as regards to quality of attractions when compared to men who were slightly more critical (Table 6.24a).

Table 6.24a: Quality of attractions * Gender of respondent Cross-tabulation

| | | | Gender of respondent | | Total |
|------------------------|-----------|-------------------------------|----------------------|--------|--------|
| | | | Male | Female | |
| Quality of attractions | excellent | Count | 6 | 2 | 8 |
| | | % within Gender of respondent | 2.9% | 1.1% | 2.0% |
| | Good | Count | 97 | 87 | 184 |
| | | % within Gender of respondent | 47.3% | 46.3% | 46.8% |
| | Neutral | Count | 64 | 67 | 131 |
| | | % within Gender of respondent | 31.2% | 35.6% | 33.3% |
| | Poor | Count | 33 | 29 | 62 |
| | | % within Gender of respondent | 16.1% | 15.4% | 15.8% |
| | Very poor | Count | 3 | 2 | 5 |
| | | % within Gender of respondent | 1.5% | 1.1% | 1.3% |
| | not used | Count | 2 | 1 | 3 |
| | | % within Gender of respondent | 1.0% | .5% | .8% |
| Total | | Count | 205 | 188 | 393 |
| | | % within Gender of respondent | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% |

In addition, Western European visitors offered the most favourable opinion of the attractions with 52.5% considering the attractions to be good or even very good as opposed to only 41.6% of American respondents (Table 6.24b). That notwithstanding, these relationships were not statistically significant and therefore not generalisable

Table 6.24b: Quality of attractions * Nationality Cross-tabulation

| | | | Nationality | | | | | | Total |
|------------------------|-----------|----------------------|--------------------|------------------------------|----------------|----------------|--------|---------------|--------|
| | | | Sub-Saharan Africa | North Africa and Middle east | Western Europe | Eastern Europe | Asia | North America | |
| Quality of attractions | excellent | Count | 0 | 0 | 5 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 8 |
| | | % within Nationality | .0% | .0% | 1.9% | .0% | .0% | 3.4% | 2.0% |
| | Good | Count | 0 | 0 | 134 | 14 | 3 | 34 | 185 |
| | | % within Nationality | .0% | .0% | 50.6% | 46.7% | 50.0% | 38.2% | 47.0% |
| | Neutral | Count | 1 | 1 | 77 | 10 | 3 | 39 | 131 |
| | | % within Nationality | 50.0% | 50.0% | 29.1% | 33.3% | 50.0% | 43.8% | 33.2% |
| | Poor | Count | 1 | 1 | 41 | 6 | 0 | 13 | 62 |
| | | % within Nationality | 50.0% | 50.0% | 15.5% | 20.0% | .0% | 14.6% | 15.7% |
| | Very poor | Count | 0 | 0 | 5 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 5 |
| | | % within Nationality | .0% | .0% | 1.9% | .0% | .0% | .0% | 1.3% |
| | not used | Count | 0 | 0 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 3 |
| | | % within Nationality | .0% | .0% | 1.1% | .0% | .0% | .0% | .8% |
| | Total | Count | 2 | 2 | 265 | 30 | 6 | 89 | 394 |
| | | % within Nationality | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% |

Quality of attractions and marital status

Very little distinction existed in the appreciation of the general quality of attractions by the married or unmarried respondents with more than 45% of respondents in the different groups considering the quality of attractions to be good. However, singles tended to be more critical with 17.6% describing the quality of attractions as poor as opposed to 14.3% of married respondents. In addition, there even apparently seemed to be a statistical relationship between the quality of the attractions and the marital status of the respondents as the Asymp. Sig. of the Chi-square tests (.000) indicated. However, because 19 cells (63.3%) had an expected count less than 5. when the minimum expected count was .02, this meant that some of the expected frequencies were very small (Tables 6.25a and 6.25b). This result could not thus be relied upon. The marital status variable had to be recoded by grouping some of the categories to boost the expected count (or frequencies) in the cells concerned. A new cross-tabulation of the recoded marital status variable showed that there was in effect no statistical relationship between the two variables (Appendix 11c and 11d).

Table 6.25a: Chi-Square Tests

| | Value | df | Asymp. Sig. (2-sided) |
|------------------------------|---------------------|----|-----------------------|
| Pearson Chi-Square | 51.202 ^a | 20 | .000 |
| Likelihood Ratio | 22.530 | 20 | .312 |
| Linear-by-Linear Association | 1.994 | 1 | .158 |
| N of Valid Cases | 394 | | |

a. 19 cells (63.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .02.

Table 6.25b: Quality of attractions * Marital status Cross-tabulation

| | | | Marital status | | | | | Total |
|------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|----------------|-----------------------|--------|----------------------------------|---------|-------|
| | | | Married | living with a partner | single | divorced/separated after wedding | widowed | |
| Quality of attractions | excellent | Count | 5 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 8 |
| | | Expected Count | 3.3 | 2.8 | 1.5 | .4 | .0 | 8.0 |
| | | % within Marital status | 3.1% | 1.5% | .0% | 4.8% | .0% | 2.0% |
| | Good | Count | 80 | 60 | 35 | 10 | 0 | 185 |
| | | Expected Count | 75.6 | 63.9 | 34.7 | 9.9 | .9 | 185.0 |
| | | % within Marital status | 49.7% | 44.1% | 47.3% | 47.6% | .0% | 47.0% |
| | Neutral | Count | 51 | 48 | 24 | 7 | 1 | 131 |
| | | Expected Count | 53.5 | 45.2 | 24.6 | 7.0 | .7 | 131.0 |
| | | % within Marital status | 31.7% | 35.3% | 32.4% | 33.3% | 50.0% | 33.2% |
| | Poor | Count | 23 | 23 | 13 | 3 | 0 | 62 |
| | | Expected Count | 25.3 | 21.4 | 11.6 | 3.3 | .3 | 62.0 |
| | | % within Marital status | 14.3% | 16.9% | 17.6% | 14.3% | .0% | 15.7% |
| | Very poor | Count | 1 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 5 |
| | | Expected Count | 2.0 | 1.7 | .9 | .3 | .0 | 5.0 |
| | | % within Marital status | .6% | 2.2% | .0% | .0% | 50.0% | 1.3% |
| | not used | Count | 1 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 3 |
| | | Expected Count | 1.2 | 1.0 | .6 | .2 | .0 | 3.0 |
| | | % within Marital status | .6% | .0% | 2.7% | .0% | .0% | .8% |
| Total | Count | 161 | 136 | 74 | 21 | 2 | 394 | |
| | Expected Count | 161.0 | 136.0 | 74.0 | 21.0 | 2.0 | 394.0 | |
| | % within Marital status | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | |

In written observations concerning the above mentioned variable, some respondents expressed dismay at the state or lack of maintenance of many cultural, but most especially natural attractions and sites. According to SR021 and SR028, for example, it was the lack of effective and basic maintenance of many sites and attractions which made almost a third of the respondents have a neutral attitude towards the question of their quality and more than 15% describing them as poor or very poor.

6.2.4.1 General impression of the people

Mindful of the fact that more than 82% of the respondents considered the friendliness of the people as well as recommendations from others as important motivators for choosing and visiting Cameroon, a bivariate analysis of the survey data enabled the researcher to find out their impressions of the people in relation to the independent variables (gender, age, professional background, marital status).

General impression of the people and gender/age

From table 6.26 below it can be seen that while 34.7% of male respondents found Cameroonians to be very friendly and hospitable, only 29.5% of female respondents thought so. Generally speaking, 61.2% of female respondents considered Cameroonians to be just friendly and hospitable. However less than 1% of all respondents did think that Cameroonians were not friendly or hospitable at all.

Table 6.26: What was your general impression of the people * Gender of respondent Cross-tabulation

| | | | Gender of respondent | | Total |
|--|--|--|----------------------|---------------|--------------|
| | | | Male | Female | |
| What was your general impression of the people | Very friendly and hospitable | Count % within Gender of respondent | 69 34.7% | 54 29.5% | 123 32.2% |
| | Friendly and hospitable | Count % within Gender of respondent | 109 54.8% | 112 61.2% | 221 57.9% |
| | Neutral | Count % within Gender of respondent | 18 9.0% | 16 8.7% | 34 8.9% |
| | Not so friendly and hospitable | Count % within Gender of respondent | 2 1.0% | 0 .0% | 2 .5% |
| | Very unfriendly and not hospitable | Count % within Gender of respondent | 0 .0% | 1 .5% | 1 .3% |
| | Don't know | Count % within Gender of respondent | 1 .5% | 0 .0% | 1 .3% |
| Total | Count % within Gender of respondent | 199 100.0% | 183 100.0% | 382 100.0% | |

In addition whilst 90% of all the age groups agreed that Cameroonians were friendly and hospitable, up to 6.7% of the 60-69 age group did not consider the people to be friendly nor hospitable as opposed to only 1.5% of the 18-29 age group who shared the same opinion. In addition, though table 6.27 suggests that a higher the percentage of respondents in the older age groups considered Cameroonians to be friendly and hospitable, with up to 53.3% of the 60-69 year olds considering the people to be very friendly and hospitable as opposed to just 41.8% in the 18-29 age group (Table 6.27). These results could however not be generalised because the Chi-square Asymp. Sig. (.075) was above the normally accepted maximum of .050.

Table 6.27: What was your general impression of the people * Age of respondent Cross-tabulation

| | | | Age of respondent | | | | | | Total |
|--|--------------------------------|----------------------------|-------------------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------------|-------|
| | | | 18-29 | 30-39 | 40-49 | 50-59 | 60-69 | 70 and above | |
| What was your general impression of the people | Very friendly and hospitable | Count | 28 | 29 | 31 | 27 | 8 | 0 | 123 |
| | | % within Age of respondent | 41.8% | 28.4% | 24.6% | 37.5% | 53.3% | .0% | 32.1% |
| | Friendly and hospitable | Count | 34 | 64 | 81 | 37 | 5 | 1 | 222 |
| | | % within Age of respondent | 50.7% | 62.7% | 64.3% | 51.4% | 33.3% | 100.0% | 58.0% |
| | Neutral | Count | 4 | 9 | 14 | 6 | 1 | 0 | 34 |
| | | % within Age of respondent | 6.0% | 8.8% | 11.1% | 8.3% | 6.7% | .0% | 8.9% |
| | Not so friendly and hospitable | Count | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 2 |
| % within Age of respondent | | 1.5% | .0% | .0% | .0% | 6.7% | .0% | .5% | |
| Very unfriendly and not hospitable | Count | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | |
| | % within Age of respondent | .0% | .0% | .0% | 1.4% | .0% | .0% | .3% | |
| Don't know | Count | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | |
| | % within Age of respondent | .0% | .0% | .0% | 1.4% | .0% | .0% | .3% | |
| Total | Count | 67 | 102 | 126 | 72 | 15 | 1 | 383 | |
| | % within Age of respondent | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | |

General impression and professional background

Visitors in managerial and professional occupations (92.2%) generally tended to consider the nationals as being (very) friendly and hospitable as opposed to only 68.4% of those in intermediate non manual occupations who shared this same view (Table 6.28a).

Table 6.28a: What was your general impression of the people * Profession Cross-tabulation

| | | | Profession | | | Total |
|--|------------------------------------|---------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------|-------|
| | | | Managerial and professional | Intermediate non-manual | Junior non-manual | |
| What was your general impression of the people | Very friendly and hospitable | Count | 84 | 33 | 6 | 123 |
| | | Expected Count | 76.5 | 40.3 | 6.2 | 123.0 |
| | | % within Profession | 35.7% | 26.6% | 31.6% | 32.5% |
| | Friendly and hospitable | Count | 133 | 79 | 7 | 219 |
| | | Expected Count | 136.2 | 71.8 | 11.0 | 219.0 |
| | | % within Profession | 56.6% | 63.7% | 36.8% | 57.9% |
| | Neutral | Count | 16 | 10 | 6 | 32 |
| | | Expected Count | 19.9 | 10.5 | 1.6 | 32.0 |
| | | % within Profession | 6.8% | 8.1% | 31.6% | 8.5% |
| | Not so friendly and hospitable | Count | 1 | 1 | 0 | 2 |
| | | Expected Count | 1.2 | .7 | .1 | 2.0 |
| | | % within Profession | .4% | .8% | .0% | .5% |
| | Very unfriendly and not hospitable | Count | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| | | Expected Count | .6 | .3 | .1 | 1.0 |
| | | % within Profession | .4% | .0% | .0% | .3% |
| | Don't know | Count | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| | | Expected Count | .6 | .3 | .1 | 1.0 |
| | | % within Profession | .0% | .8% | .0% | .3% |
| Total | Count | 235 | 124 | 19 | 378 | |
| | Expected Count | 235.0 | 124.0 | 19.0 | 378.0 | |
| | % within Profession | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | |

However, this assumption could not be generalised because a statistically significant relationship could not be deduced between these two variables even though the Chi-

square test Asymp Sig. of .028 in the original variable and .008 in the recoded variable (Table 6.28b; appendix 6.12a and 6.12b) indicated the existence of one, but since the expected frequencies were too small even after recoding the variable, the cell counts in both the original and recoded variables remained above the scientifically accepted 20% bench mark.

Table 6.28b: Chi-Square Tests

| | Value | df | Asymp. Sig. (2-sided) |
|------------------------------|---------------------|----|-----------------------|
| Pearson Chi-Square | 20.093 ^a | 10 | .028 |
| Likelihood Ratio | 16.038 | 10 | .099 |
| Linear-by-Linear Association | 5.043 | 1 | .025 |
| N of Valid Cases | 378 | | |

a. 10 cells (55.6%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .05.

6.2.5 Publicity, marketing and ICT usage

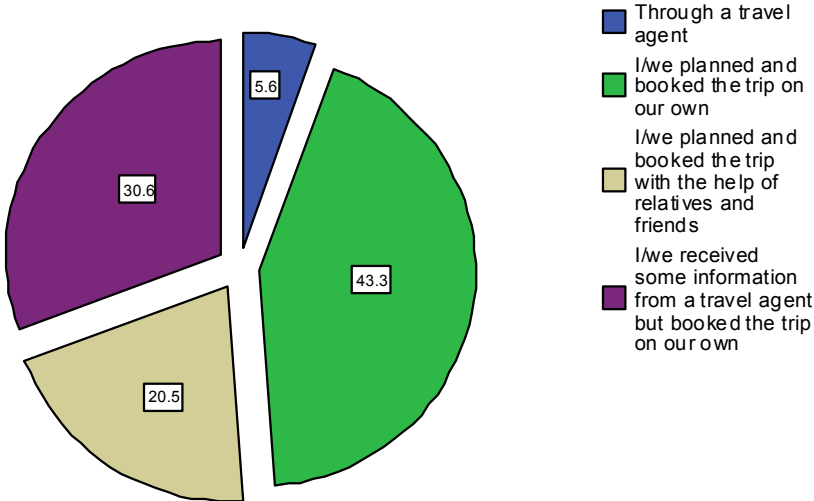
With regards to publicity and marketing of Cameroon as a tourism destination abroad, 83.2% of the respondents felt that there was very little being done towards promoting and marketing the country at the international level. As a result more than three quarters (77.7%) of the respondents initially learnt about Cameroon from friends or acquaintances (who had been to the country before). Information about the country was scarce and was collected from a variety of sources, but the primary source was from friends and acquaintances. Additional information about the country was obtained from the internet by 60.2% of the survey respondents but it was sometimes not up-to-date. On the other hand, only 12.4% obtained some information from travel marketing journals and vacation guides while the percentage who obtained information about the country from the Cameroonian embassy or travel shops in their home countries was below 2% (Table 6.29; appendix 6.13a – 6.13e).

Table 6.29: Publicity and international marketing

| | | Frequency | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|-----------|-----------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | Good | 3 | .8 | .8 |
| | Neutral | 63 | 16.0 | 16.8 |
| | Poor | 242 | 61.4 | 78.2 |
| | Very poor | 86 | 21.8 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 394 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | System | 1 | | |
| Total | | 395 | | |

Only 5.6% of the respondents booked their trip through travel agents or tour operators. The rest booked the trips on their own after having received information or help from family, relatives, friends and Cameroon based travel/tour operators (Figure 6.6). Even though close to a quarter (73.5%) of the respondents found their source of information user friendly and easier to use, only 37.4% said the information content especially on the internet was good or even better. In like manner, 43.7% found the information they had about Cameroon to be interesting and educative while only 15.6% considered the presentation and formatting of this information to be good. Mention should also be made of the fact that 64.5% of the respondents said the information obtained from the different sources was not always complete (Appendix 6.14a – 6.14e).

Figure 6.6: How did you plan and book your travel itinerary?



Publicity / international marketing and professional background / age / gender

In terms of relationships, no statistical relationship was found to exist in this survey between publicity and international marketing in relation to the independent variables of professional background, age and gender. However, it was observed that though close to 82.5% of all respondents considered the level of publicity and international marketing done to be (very) poor, only two thirds (66.7%) of visitors belonging to the junior manual category really considered the level of marketing and publicity to be poor. This was in contrast to the 84.7% and 83.7% of visitors in the other two categories who considered

the quality of marketing and publicity to be (very) poor (Table 6.30a). This opinion could not be generalised (Appendix 6.14f).

Table 6.30a: Publicity and international marketing * Profession Cross-tabulation

| | | | Profession | | | Total |
|---------------------------------------|-----------|---------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------|--------|
| | | | Managerial and professional | Intermediate non-manual | Junior non-manual | |
| Publicity and international marketing | Good | Count | 1 | 2 | 0 | 3 |
| | | % within Profession | .4% | 1.6% | .0% | .8% |
| | Neutral | Count | 36 | 19 | 6 | 61 |
| | | % within Profession | 14.9% | 14.7% | 33.3% | 15.7% |
| | Poor | Count | 154 | 75 | 10 | 239 |
| | | % within Profession | 63.6% | 58.1% | 55.6% | 61.4% |
| | Very poor | Count | 51 | 33 | 2 | 86 |
| | | % within Profession | 21.1% | 25.6% | 11.1% | 22.1% |
| Total | | Count | 242 | 129 | 18 | 389 |
| | | % within Profession | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% |

Mention should also be made that age did seem to play a role in appreciating the quality of marketing and promotion done by the authorities. Respondents in the older age groups were most critical of the general quality of publicity and marketing done about the country on an international level. 26.6% of respondents in the 50-59 age group and up to 33.3% in the 60-69 group considered the quality, level and amount of publicity presently being undertaken as being very poor. In addition female respondents tended to be more critical (Tables 6.30b and 6.30c).

Table 6.30b: Publicity and international marketing * Age of respondent Cross-tabulation

| | | | Age of respondent | | | | | Total |
|---------------------------------------|-----------|----------------------------|-------------------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| | | | 18-29 | 30-39 | 40-49 | 50-59 | 60-69 | |
| Publicity and international marketing | Good | Count | 2 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 3 |
| | | % within Age of respondent | 3.0% | .0% | .8% | .0% | .0% | .0% |
| | Neutral | Count | 9 | 14 | 27 | 11 | 1 | 63 |
| | | % within Age of respondent | 13.4% | 13.7% | 20.9% | 14.3% | 5.6% | 100.0% |
| | Poor | Count | 47 | 65 | 75 | 44 | 11 | 242 |
| | | % within Age of respondent | 70.1% | 63.7% | 58.1% | 57.1% | 61.1% | .0% |
| | Very poor | Count | 9 | 23 | 26 | 22 | 6 | 86 |
| | | % within Age of respondent | 13.4% | 22.5% | 20.2% | 28.6% | 33.3% | .0% |
| Total | | Count | 67 | 102 | 129 | 77 | 18 | 394 |
| | | % within Age of respondent | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% |

Table 6.30c: Publicity and international marketing * Gender of respondent Cross-tabulation

| | | | Gender of respondent | | Total |
|---------------------------------------|-----------|-------------------------------|----------------------|--------|--------|
| | | | Male | Female | |
| Publicity and international marketing | Good | Count | 2 | 1 | 3 |
| | | % within Gender of respondent | 1.0% | .5% | .8% |
| | Neutral | Count | 30 | 32 | 62 |
| | | % within Gender of respondent | 14.7% | 16.9% | 15.8% |
| | Poor | Count | 131 | 111 | 242 |
| | | % within Gender of respondent | 64.2% | 58.7% | 61.6% |
| | Very poor | Count | 41 | 45 | 86 |
| | | % within Gender of respondent | 20.1% | 23.8% | 21.9% |
| Total | | Count | 204 | 189 | 393 |
| | | % within Gender of respondent | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% |

Publicity / international marketing and marital status

Singles and those separated/divorced tended to be more critical of the level/quality of publicity and marketing done about Cameroon with more than 50% considering what was being done so far to be very poor as opposed to 44% of those who were in a relationship (Table 6.31).

Table 6.31: Publicity and international marketing * Marital status Cross-tabulation

| | | | Marital status | | | | | Total |
|---------------------------------------|-----------|-------------------------|----------------|-----------------------|--------|----------------------------------|---------|--------|
| | | | Married | living with a partner | single | divorced/separated after wedding | widowed | |
| Publicity and international marketing | Good | Count | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 3 |
| | | Expected Count | 1.2 | 1.0 | .6 | .2 | .0 | 3.0 |
| | | % within Marital status | .6% | .0% | 1.4% | 4.8% | .0% | .8% |
| | Neutral | Count | 30 | 20 | 8 | 4 | 1 | 63 |
| | | Expected Count | 25.7 | 21.9 | 11.7 | 3.4 | .3 | 63.0 |
| | | % within Marital status | 18.6% | 14.6% | 11.0% | 19.0% | 50.0% | 16.0% |
| | Poor | Count | 92 | 89 | 54 | 6 | 1 | 242 |
| | | Expected Count | 98.9 | 84.1 | 44.8 | 12.9 | 1.2 | 242.0 |
| | | % within Marital status | 57.1% | 65.0% | 74.0% | 28.6% | 50.0% | 61.4% |
| | Very poor | Count | 38 | 28 | 10 | 10 | 0 | 86 |
| | | Expected Count | 35.1 | 29.9 | 15.9 | 4.6 | .4 | 86.0 |
| | | % within Marital status | 23.6% | 20.4% | 13.7% | 47.6% | .0% | 21.8% |
| Total | | Count | 161 | 137 | 73 | 21 | 2 | 394 |
| | | Expected Count | 161.0 | 137.0 | 73.0 | 21.0 | 2.0 | 394.0 |
| | | % within Marital status | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% |

Contrary to initial observations (Chi-square = .0014), no statistically significant relationship existed between the variables of publicity/international marketing and the

marital status of the respondents with even after the variables had been regrouped and recoded to try to boost the expected frequencies (Appendix 6.15a - 6.15c).

6.2.5.1 Quality of publicity (information content)

Less than 40% of all respondents considered the quality of the information used for publicity and advertising to be good. Men tended to be much more critical of the information content and quality of these sources with 4.4% of them considering these sources to be of very poor quality as opposed to 1.6% of female respondents (Table 6.32a). In addition, the younger generation of respondents tended to be much more critical of the quality of information about Cameroon contained in the sources with 3.0% and 7.9% of the 18-29 and 30-39 age groups respectively considering the sources to be out rightly very poor in terms of information content (Table 6.33).

Table 6.32a: Contain the information you wanted * Gender of respondent Cross-tabulation

| | | | Gender of respondent | | Total |
|--|----------------------------------|----------------------------------|----------------------|--------|--------|
| | | | Male | Female | |
| Info content - Contain the information you wanted | Excellent | Count | 13 | 10 | 23 |
| | | % within Gender of respondent | 6.3% | 5.4% | 5.9% |
| | Good | Count | 63 | 59 | 122 |
| | | % within Gender of respondent | 30.7% | 32.1% | 31.4% |
| | Neutral | Count | 60 | 59 | 119 |
| % within Gender of respondent | | 29.3% | 32.1% | 30.6% | |
| Poor | Count | 60 | 53 | 113 | |
| | % within Gender of respondent | 29.3% | 28.8% | 29.0% | |
| Very poor | Count | 9 | 3 | 12 | |
| | % within Gender of respondent | 4.4% | 1.6% | 3.1% | |
| Total | | Count | 205 | 184 | 389 |
| | | % within Gender of respondent | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% |

Table 6.32b: Chi-Square Tests

| | Value | df | Asymp. Sig. (2-sided) |
|---------------------------------|--------------------|----|--------------------------|
| Pearson Chi-Square | 2.839 ^a | 4 | .585 |
| Likelihood Ratio | 2.971 | 4 | .563 |
| Linear-by-Linear Association | .306 | 1 | .580 |
| N of Valid Cases | 389 | | |

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 5.68.

The Chi-square of .585 which was far above the .050 benchmark generally accepted in the social sciences signified the absence of a statistically significant relationship between the two variables examined in table 6.32b above.

The perception of the quality of information and the content of the various sources used by the respondents also varied across the various age groups. However, though not statistically significant and thus not generalisable, it was evident that older generations in this survey tended to be more critical of the quality of the content of their information sources with up to 44.4% of respondents in the 60-69 age group describing the information content as being very poor as opposed only 23.8% in the 30-39 age group (Table 6.33; appendix 6.16).

Table 6.33: Contain the information you wanted * Age of respondent Cross-tabulation

| | | | Age of respondent | | | | | Total | |
|--|-----------|-------------------------------|-------------------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------------|
| | | | 18-29 | 30-39 | 40-49 | 50-59 | 60-69 | | 70 and above |
| Info content - Contain the information you wanted | Excellent | Count | 7 | 5 | 6 | 4 | 1 | 0 | 23 |
| | | % within Age of respondent | 10.6% | 5.0% | 4.7% | 5.3% | 5.6% | .0% | 5.9% |
| | Good | Count | 20 | 27 | 41 | 25 | 9 | 1 | 123 |
| | | % within Age of respondent | 30.3% | 26.7% | 32.0% | 32.9% | 50.0% | 100.0% | 31.5% |
| | Neutral | Count | 18 | 37 | 42 | 22 | 0 | 0 | 119 |
| | | % within Age of respondent | 27.3% | 36.6% | 32.8% | 28.9% | .0% | .0% | 30.5% |
| | Poor | Count | 19 | 24 | 39 | 23 | 8 | 0 | 113 |
| | | % within Age of respondent | 28.8% | 23.8% | 30.5% | 30.3% | 44.4% | .0% | 29.0% |
| | Very poor | Count | 2 | 8 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 12 |
| | | % within Age of respondent | 3.0% | 7.9% | .0% | 2.6% | .0% | .0% | 3.1% |
| Total | | Count | 66 | 101 | 128 | 76 | 18 | 1 | 390 |
| | | % within Age of respondent | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% |

It is also worth noting that even though no statistically generalisable relationship existed between the variables of information content when related to the age and professional background of the respondents, those who were single or divorced tended to be less critical of the information content of the various sources from which they obtained their material as opposed to those who were married or lived with a partner of whom more than 30% found the information content to be poor or downright very poor. In like manner, respondents in higher professions tended to be generally more critical of the quality and content of the information sources with only 6.3% in the managerial professions and 3.9% in the intermediate non-manual professions finding the information quality and content excellent as opposed to 10.5% of respondents in junior non-manual professions (Appendix 6.17a - 6.18b).

All in all, irrespective of age, gender, marital and professional status, according to SR003, "there was a general lack of up-to-date information and difficulty in finding and obtaining information about Cameroon". SR021 added that "there was very little information available in published guides about modalities for visiting several sites and nature reserves as well as obtaining permission to access these sites".

6.2.6 Nature conservation and environmental protection

Environmental sustainability and the sustainable development of tourism can only be guaranteed if the natural parks and sites are well protected by both hosts and guests. Considering the fact that availability of finance is one of the pre-requisites for environmental protection, the respondents' attitudes towards conservation measures and increased financing in the form of increased park entrance fees, for example, was demanded and obtained. Analysis of the survey data (as earlier observed in section 6.2.1) revealed that three quarters of all respondents considered the natural biodiversity as a key motivator for visiting Cameroon. This same percentage were willing to pay an increased tax or a green tax ranging from 5 – 10 U.S. Dollars (on average) for conservation purposes if they were sure the money was going to be utilised strictly for conservation purposes. Another 11.3% did not see any reason for paying extra charges on the entrance fees to the parks and natural sites which they claimed were already high enough. This was because they were not sure the money was going to be used for its intended purpose due to the fact that corruption is rife in Cameroon. Instead, in their written comments, they were of the opinion that if the entrance fees presently being collected were judiciously used, basic infrastructure and services in the park would be well maintained and there would be no need for the increase the park entrance fees. Other interesting results that were generated through a series of cross-tabulations of the independent variables and dependent variables dealing with nature conservation and protection were as follows.

Conservation/environmental protection and age

Age did seem to play an important role in determining the respondents' opinion towards conservation issues. Thus respondents in the older age groups were more opposed to paying a green tax if it was imposed with up to 27.8% of the 60-69 age group categorically opposed to its introduction (Table 6.34).

Table 6.34: Are you willing to pay green tax for conservation * Age of respondent Cross-tabulation

| | | | Age of respondent | | | | | Total | |
|---|-----------------------------------|----------------------------|-------------------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------------|
| | | | 18-29 | 30-39 | 40-49 | 50-59 | 60-69 | | 70 and above |
| Are you willing to pay green tax for conservation | Yes | Count | 4 | 1 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 7 |
| | | Expected Count | 1.2 | 1.8 | 2.3 | 1.4 | .3 | .0 | 7.0 |
| | | % within Age of respondent | 6.2% | 1.0% | .0% | 2.6% | .0% | .0% | 1.8% |
| | Yes depending on how much | Count | 8 | 9 | 16 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 36 |
| | | Expected Count | 6.0 | 9.3 | 11.9 | 7.1 | 1.7 | .1 | 36.0 |
| | | % within Age of respondent | 12.3% | 8.9% | 12.4% | 3.9% | .0% | .0% | 9.2% |
| | Yes if i can be sure of its usage | Count | 46 | 73 | 99 | 61 | 13 | 0 | 292 |
| | | Expected Count | 48.5 | 75.4 | 96.3 | 57.5 | 13.4 | .7 | 292.0 |
| | | % within Age of respondent | 70.8% | 72.3% | 76.7% | 79.2% | 72.2% | .0% | 74.7% |
| | No | Count | 5 | 13 | 10 | 11 | 5 | 0 | 44 |
| | | Expected Count | 7.3 | 11.4 | 14.5 | 8.7 | 2.0 | .1 | 44.0 |
| | | % within Age of respondent | 7.7% | 12.9% | 7.8% | 14.3% | 27.8% | .0% | 11.3% |
| Don't know | Count | 2 | 5 | 4 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 12 | |
| | Expected Count | 2.0 | 3.1 | 4.0 | 2.4 | .6 | .0 | 12.0 | |
| | % within Age of respondent | 3.1% | 5.0% | 3.1% | .0% | .0% | 100.0% | 3.1% | |
| Total | Count | 65 | 101 | 129 | 77 | 18 | 1 | 391 | |
| | Expected Count | 65.0 | 101.0 | 129.0 | 77.0 | 18.0 | 1.0 | 391.0 | |
| | % within Age of respondent | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | |

However, though a Chi-square test put the Asymp. Sig. at .000 indicating the existence of a statistical relationship between both variables, the fact that 17 cells (56.7%) had an expected count less than 5 meant that the Chi square test was not reliable and this result was not valid even after collapsing and recoding the variable (Appendix 6.19a - 6.19c).

Conservation/ environmental protection and gender

Though not generalisable, close to 75% of the respondents were favourable to the idea of paying a green tax for conservation purposes if they could be sure of its usage. However, male respondents generally tended to more opposed to it than females, with 12.8% completely opposed to the idea and 73.9% agreeing only if they could be sure of its usage. This was in contrast to 9.1% of female respondents who opposed the idea of a green tax but 75.9% who were in favour of it if they were sure it would be used for the right purpose (Table 6.35).

Table 6.35: Are you willing to pay green tax for conservation * Gender of respondent Cross-tabulation

| | | | Gender of respondent | | Total |
|---|-----------------------------------|-------------------------------|----------------------|--------|-------|
| | | | Male | Female | |
| Are you willing to pay green tax for conservation | Yes | Count | 4 | 3 | 7 |
| | | % within Gender of respondent | 2.0% | 1.6% | 1.8% |
| | Yes depending on how much | Count | 19 | 17 | 36 |
| | | % within Gender of respondent | 9.4% | 9.1% | 9.2% |
| | Yes if i can be sure of its usage | Count | 150 | 142 | 292 |
| % within Gender of respondent | | 73.9% | 75.9% | 74.9% | |
| No | Count | 26 | 17 | 43 | |
| | % within Gender of respondent | 12.8% | 9.1% | 11.0% | |
| Don't know | Count | 4 | 8 | 12 | |
| | % within Gender of respondent | 2.0% | 4.3% | 3.1% | |
| Total | Count | 203 | 187 | 390 | |
| | % within Gender of respondent | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | |

Conservation/ environmental protection and professional status

The professional status of the respondents did influence their willingness to pay a green tax for conservation purposes. It is evident in Table 36a that tourists in the two higher professional classes were more cautious towards the idea and about three quarters (77.7% and 72.1% respectively) were willing to pay a green tax only on condition that they could be sure of its usage (Table 6.36).

Table 6.36: Are you willing to pay green tax for conservation * Profession Cross-tabulation

| | | | Profession | | | Total |
|---|-----------------------------------|---------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------|-------|
| | | | Managerial and professional | Intermediate non-manual | Junior non-manual | |
| Are you willing to pay green tax for conservation | Yes | Count | 4 | 0 | 2 | 6 |
| | | Expected Count | 3.7 | 2.0 | .3 | 6.0 |
| | | % within Profession | 1.7% | .0% | 10.5% | 1.6% |
| | Yes depending on how much | Count | 19 | 15 | 2 | 36 |
| | | Expected Count | 22.2 | 12.0 | 1.8 | 36.0 |
| | | % within Profession | 8.0% | 11.6% | 10.5% | 9.3% |
| | Yes if i can be sure of its usage | Count | 185 | 93 | 11 | 289 |
| | | Expected Count | 178.2 | 96.6 | 14.2 | 289.0 |
| | | % within Profession | 77.7% | 72.1% | 57.9% | 74.9% |
| | No | Count | 28 | 14 | 2 | 44 |
| | | Expected Count | 27.1 | 14.7 | 2.2 | 44.0 |
| | | % within Profession | 11.8% | 10.9% | 10.5% | 11.4% |
| Don't know | Count | 2 | 7 | 2 | 11 | |
| | Expected Count | 6.8 | 3.7 | .5 | 11.0 | |
| | % within Profession | .8% | 5.4% | 10.5% | 2.8% | |
| Total | Count | 238 | 129 | 19 | 386 | |
| | Expected Count | 238.0 | 129.0 | 19.0 | 386.0 | |
| | % within Profession | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | |

In the same regard, it was still respondents of the highest professional group (11.8%) who were unwilling to pay this tax if it was introduced as opposed to only 10.5% from the junior non-manual group who were not willing to pay (Table 6.36).

It is worth noting that though statistically significant relationship did seem to exist (Chi-square = .002) between these two variables but due to the small number of frequencies even after regrouping and recoding the variable, the Chi-square test could still not be relied upon (Appendix 6.20a - 6.20c).

Conservation/ environmental protection and marital status

Respondents living in partnerships or who were married were generally more cautious to the idea of paying a green tax (if it were introduced). As such only 0.6% of married respondents or those living in a partnership were willing to pay a green tax without being sure of its usage as opposed to 4.2% and 4.8% of singles and divorcees respectively. Up to 13.1% of married couples were also not willing to pay this tax at all because as some of them (such as R014 and R031 for example) mentioned in their final comments, there was a lot of corruption in Cameroon and they could not be guaranteed that the money will be used for its intended purpose (Table 6.37).

Table 6.37: Are you willing to pay green tax for conservation * Marital status Cross-tabulation

| | | | Marital status | | | | | Total |
|---|------------------------------------|-------------------------|----------------|-----------------------|--------|----------------------------------|---------|-------|
| | | | Married | living with a partner | single | divorced/separated after wedding | widowed | |
| Are you willing to pay green tax for conservation | Yes | Count | 1 | 2 | 3 | 1 | 0 | 7 |
| | | Expected Count | 2.9 | 2.4 | 1.3 | .4 | .0 | 7.0 |
| | | % within Marital status | .6% | 1.5% | 4.2% | 4.8% | .0% | 1.8% |
| | Yes depending on how much | Count | 11 | 17 | 7 | 1 | 0 | 36 |
| | | Expected Count | 14.7 | 12.5 | 6.6 | 1.9 | .2 | 36.0 |
| | | % within Marital status | 6.9% | 12.5% | 9.7% | 4.8% | .0% | 9.2% |
| | Yes if it can be sure of its usage | Count | 124 | 100 | 50 | 17 | 1 | 292 |
| | | Expected Count | 119.5 | 101.6 | 53.8 | 15.7 | 1.5 | 292.0 |
| | | % within Marital status | 77.5% | 73.5% | 69.4% | 81.0% | 50.0% | 74.7% |
| | No | Count | 21 | 13 | 8 | 2 | 0 | 44 |
| | | Expected Count | 18.0 | 15.3 | 8.1 | 2.4 | .2 | 44.0 |
| | | % within Marital status | 13.1% | 9.6% | 11.1% | 9.5% | .0% | 11.3% |
| Don't know | Count | 3 | 4 | 4 | 0 | 1 | 12 | |
| | Expected Count | 4.9 | 4.2 | 2.2 | .6 | .1 | 12.0 | |
| | % within Marital status | 1.9% | 2.9% | 5.6% | .0% | 50.0% | 3.1% | |
| Total | Count | 160 | 136 | 72 | 21 | 2 | 391 | |
| | Expected Count | 160.0 | 136.0 | 72.0 | 21.0 | 2.0 | 391.0 | |
| | % within Marital status | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | |

It was thus observed from the analysis that though there were slight variations in the attitudes of the various groups towards the introduction of a green tax in the form of increased entrance fees to sites and parks, for example, there was a general lack of trust among the vast majority of respondents irrespective of age, gender, marital status and professional background on the ability of the Cameroon's tourism and nature protection

authorities to judiciously manage these taxes if they were eventually introduced because according to R014 “...*corruption is rife in the country at all levels*”. Many respondents were thus very hesitant or unwilling to pay any new fees which could go a long way towards helping in the conservation and protection of the rich natural biodiversity of the country if it was well managed.

6.3 Summary and conclusion

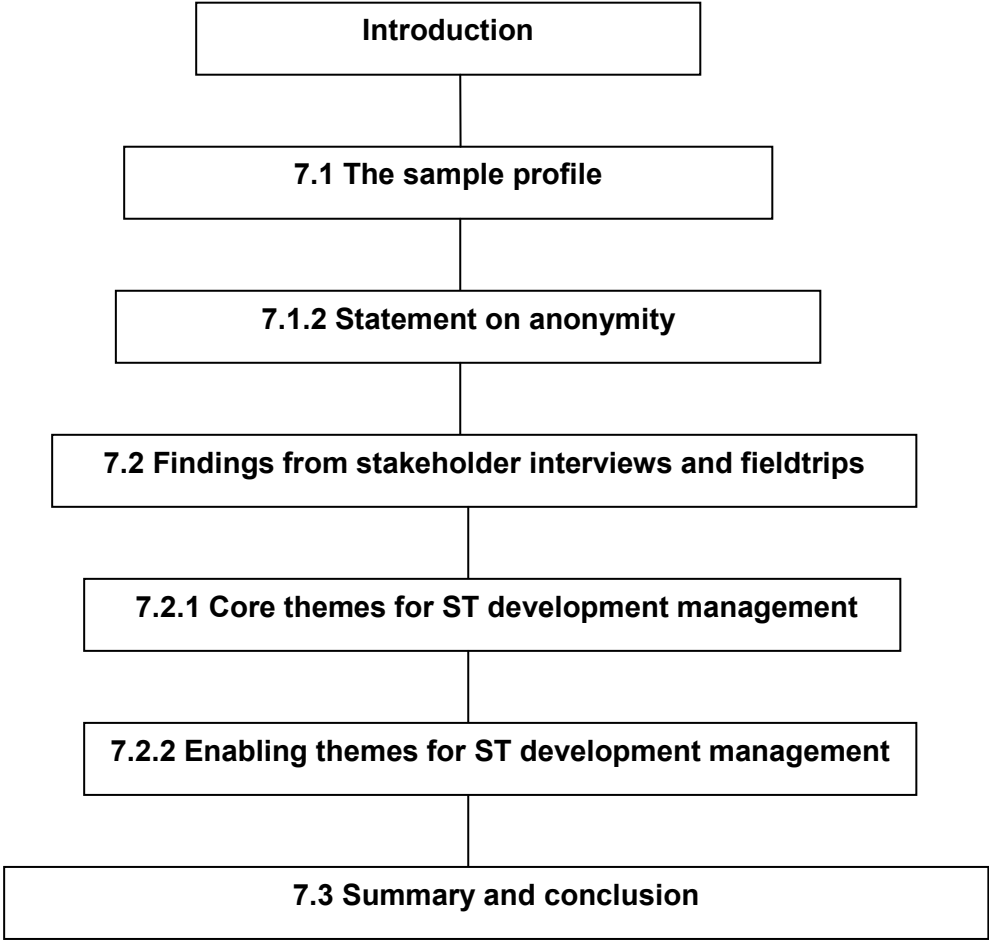
This chapter began with an overview of the survey data, moved on to examine the socio-demographic nature of this data and then concentrated on an analysis of the survey data which was grouped into themes examined in sections 6.2.1 – 6.2.6. Univariate and bivariate analyses of this data was done. Chi-square tests were carried out on the cross-tabulations to determine their statistical significance and generalisability. At the end of the analysis process, only the relationship between the attitude of immigration and public security officials and the marital status variables was found to be statistically significant and thus generalisable. Other cross-tabulations (such as age in relation to transport service and infrastructure, immigration and police controls, reception and treatment of guests, conservation (green tax payment); marital status in relation to the quality of attractions, publicity and international marketing, conservation; professional background in relation to the general impression of the people and conservation) which upon preliminary observation of the Chi-square test results showed the existence of relationships turned out not to be reliable for reasons discussed earlier on in the chapter and thus these variables had to be regrouped or recoded in order to boost the expected cell counts and facilitate a better statistical analysis, thereby enabling the researcher to arrive at solid conclusions. Though not statistically significant, other cross-tabulation results such as gender in relation to accommodation transport; professional background in relation to the service infrastructure, marketing and publicity for example showed interesting observations noted in the various sections of the chapter while others had no relationships at all.

SR028 in his final comments befittingly summed up the situation of Cameroon’s tourism industry from the perspective of the tourists thus; “*Cameroon is a beautiful and culturally rich country with a big potential for tourism, but [in most cases] roads infrastructure is very poor, touristic sites poorly maintained, hotel services poor and often very slow, public transport unsafe and not adapted to the needs of tourists, absence of and no announcements or signs advertising tourist attractions or interesting spots*”, but

according to SR027, in spite of all the odds, the holiday was “...a great experience however”.

The results obtained from the survey data was important first and foremost in that it enabled the researcher to get a clear picture of Cameroon’s tourism industry and issues affecting its development and management that had to be addressed if an efficient and profitable sustainable tourism industry was to ever see the light of day in the country from the perspective of foreign visitors (who were the main consumers of Cameroon’s tourism product) and thus important stakeholders. Secondly, these results also enabled the researcher to update existing questions and formulate new ones (focused around the various themes handled in the survey) which were addressed during semi-structured interviews that were conducted with selected tourism industry stakeholders in Cameroon in the next phase of the research, the results of which are presented in Chapter Seven.

7. Analysis and findings from the semi-structured interviews and field observations



Introduction

This chapter is dedicated to the findings generated from the semi-structured interviews and observations made by the researcher during fieldwork. It begins with an overview of the sample profile of the different interviewees and their roles in Cameroon's tourism industry. The chapter then proceeds with a report of the findings generated from the semi-structured interviews supported with details of observations made during fieldtrips to the sites visited by the researcher following the process described in sections 5.5.2.2, but more specifically in sections 5.8.2 – 5.8.6. Describing the data after a detailed content analysis enabled the researcher to identify the core and enabling themes as well as the related sub-themes. These findings are thematically presented, recurrent themes and sub-themes examined and the inter-connections among these themes will be explored after the data analysis phase in the discussion chapter.

7.1 The sample profile

In order to be able to attain the research objectives and answer the research questions, twenty three semi-structured interviews were conducted by the researcher with twenty seven stakeholders from different sectors of Cameroon's tourism industry. Twenty interviews were recorded and three interviewees were not willing to have their voices recorded, preferring instead that the researcher takes notes during the discussion. The interviewees were drawn from the public and private sectors and with one exception (Technical Adviser to the Mount CEO), all had been working in the tourism industry for at least 5 years. Only 4 of the interviewees were women. In addition, whilst all the interviewees in the public sector were trained professionals in their various domains, this was not the case with interviewees from the private sector especially the tour operators. Three had no formal training in tourism management or a related discipline but had ventured into the sector and by their own admission acquired the necessary skills and knowledge in the field. Appendix 7 is a profile of stakeholders interviewed and their positions within their respective organisations in Cameroon's travel and tourism industry.

7.1.2 Statement on anonymity

Due permission was obtained from all but two of the interviewees to be quoted in the final draft of the thesis. This was in consideration of the fact that they occupied strategic positions in their various departments and organisations with the mandate to take and implement important decisions. In most cases concealing the official roles of the interviewees would have been difficult because they were often the only persons (and in

very rare cases one of two people) occupying these positions. As such it would have been easy for any reader versed in Cameroon's tourism sector to easily deduce who made what statement, even if they were not mentioned by name or position. However, the researcher has anonymised the interviewees who participated in this research and throughout this research they will not be mentioned by name or position simply but be referred to only as respondents (R²⁴) 1 through to R27.

7.2 Findings from the stakeholder interviews and field observations

This section reports findings of the interviews conducted with officials of Cameroon's Ministries of Tourism, Culture and Forestry and Fauna, NGOs dealing with sustainable tourism development, representatives of local communities and common initiative groups (CIGs), and Cameroon-based tour operators with regards to the state of Cameroon's tourism industry. These findings which are combined with field observations and secondary data collected in Cameroon during the fieldtrip (which give details about some of the sites visited) provide a 'thick' description (Denzin, 1978) of the level of sustainable tourism development and management in Cameroon. In addition, information on the impacts (if at all) created by tourism development in sites where tourism is already being practised which were visited by the researcher are provided. Observation data is used to add weight (or point out discrepancies) to the data generated from the semi-structured interviews (dealing with the details of the history, management and preservation as well as contextual information about the level of tourism development, availability of service and other related infrastructure and commoditisation of the particular sites visited and Cameroon in general) and to the secondary data reported in Chapter Four.

Even though the interviews were semi-structured, it was possible after reading and analysing the interviews as well as reading and re-reading the field notes, for the data generated to be grouped into two principal categories of evaluative factors necessary for sustainable tourism development management in Cameroon out of which some principal themes were identified. The first category was made up of core factors which could directly contribute and have an impact on the development and management of tourism and the second category comprised enabling factors which though not directly connected could facilitate and speed-up the process of developing a sustainable tourism industry in the country (Table 7.1).

²⁴ R = Respondent

Table7.1: Emerging themes from semi-structured interviews conducted with tourism industry stakeholders in Cameroon

| Categories | Themes/sub-themes ²⁵ | MINTOUR | MINFOF | CBTOs & Community representatives | Tour/hotel operators | Cultural representatives |
|------------------------|---|---------|--------|-----------------------------------|----------------------|--------------------------|
| Core themes | Tourism policy (TP) | | | | | |
| | General TP | √ | | | | |
| | -TP in Park Management Plans | | √ | | | |
| | -TP: development and operations | | | √ | | |
| | -TP: implementation and operations | | | | √ | |
| | -TP: products and operations | | | | | √ |
| | Tourism potential | √ | | | | |
| | Finance -Government support -International support -Auto sustainable financing | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ |
| | Marketing and publicity -Internal marketing -International marketing | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ |
| | Stakeholder relationships -Government -Local communities -International partnerships | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ |
| | Role of ICT in tourism development and marketing | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ |
| Enabling themes | Service infrastructure -Transportation -Accommodation | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ |
| | Human resource development | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ |
| | Tourism industry prioritisation | √ | | √ | √ | √ |
| | Geopolitics and internal security | √ | | | √ | |

²⁵ Core and enabling themes are used in this research instead of primary and secondary themes because the latter denotes some form of vertical hierarchy, whereas core and enabling themes do not denote any hierarchy but show that even though all the factors are important and mutually dependent, the core themes have an immediate and direct impact on tourism development.

7.2.1 Core themes for sustainable tourism development management

The first category of evaluative factors examined themes which have a direct impact on the tourism industry and the management of its development in Cameroon. Analysis of the discussion revealed the following core themes.

7.2.1.1 Tourism potential

All the respondents unanimously agreed that the country had a lot of untapped natural potentials which could facilitate the development of a sustainable nature-based and ecologically oriented type of tourism. Ecotourism according to R1 *"...is the best form of tourism for countries located in equatorial Africa. Cameroon for example has mountains, waterfalls, rivers, equatorial forests, flora and fauna which effectively permit the development of ecotourism"*. He went on to cite examples of natural sites in various parts of the country such as the Ebogo nature site in the Centre Region (60 km away from Yaoundé) where the UNWTO was currently involved with its ST-EP (Sustainable Tourism for Eliminating Poverty) programme in a pilot project. Other existing and potential sites for eco/nature tourism development mentioned included the Korup National Park, Campo-Ma'an and Lobéké National Parks, Akom Falls near Nkongsamba among many others. R4, R5 and R7 were unanimous in the fact that Cameroon's parks were very rich in floral and faunal diversity with large populations of the great apes (lowland gorillas, chimpanzees and drills), and forest elephants among others recorded but these resources were being gradually decimated by poachers. In addition R20 - 23 also highlighted the cultural potentials of the country which included a mixture of both indigenous heritage and colonial heritage whose potential was largely untapped. With more than 250 ethnic groups, Cameroon was a melting pot of cultures and traditions which was manifested through costumes, music, song and dance during traditional festivals and ceremonies some of which were annual. In addition the vestiges of its triple colonial heritage could still be found throughout the country in the form of architectural monuments. This potential, according to R20, had not been exploited in the past due to the lack of will on the part of the administration on one hand and ignorance and the conservative nature of the population on the other.

R2 named some community based tourism organisations (CBTOs) and NGOs such as the Mount Cameroon Inter-communal Ecotourism Organisation (Mount CEO), the Belo Rural Development Project (BERUDEP) and the Fako Tourism Board (FTB), which had already started initiatives aimed at the development of sustainable natural and cultural tourism activities in the parts of the country where they were located.

However, he was quick to point out that they could not really offer any serious support to these CBTOs and NGOs because they themselves were running on a tight budget; a fact which was corroborated by R3. Thus the only support that could and was offered to the local tourism NGOs was limited technical assistance in irregular seminars and workshops organised by the MINTOUR, CBTOs and NGOs mostly with the technical and financial assistance of foreign governments and international organisations. These were aimed at educating the communities on how to set-up, manage and monitor their tourism operations. All the interviewees were of the opinion that the lack of effective support for tourism development in the country from the MINTOUR and MINCULT was partly as a result of the lack of an effective (sustainable) tourism development and management policy in the country.

7.2.1.2 Tourism policy

The existence of a general tourism management policy framework and a sustainable tourism policy in particular for Cameroon was addressed early during the discussions with all stakeholders. All respondents interviewed were of the opinion that there was no clearly defined policy for the development and management of tourism in general and sustainable tourism in Cameroon in particular. This was also the situation at MINCULT where no clear cut policy of using the country's cultural resources as a tool for tourism development was in place at the time of the research.

R2 and R23 were of the opinion that since these ministries were still relatively new, they were still struggling to set up their basic organigrams. The draft of that at MINTOUR had already been modified three times and they were still struggling to come up with a definite document. All these structural changes according to R2 *"...is trying to tell you that the people [MINTOUR] are still trying to kick-off without knowing exactly where we want to go"*.

Thus *"...there is no clear cut policy for now.... [the] policy they are working on is hinged on the national policy based on alleviating poverty.... So it is difficult now to differentiate tourism and other sectors.... when they [government] are making all these laws and policies, even when the Tourism Ministry is invited, a distinction is not really made. You cannot really distinguish the role or the importance of tourism in whatever project they want to realise."*

Confusion also existed in the interpretation of texts between Anglophone and Francophone workers in the MINTOUR. According to R2, since the two systems were obliged to work together, this sometimes led to confusion in the interpretation of operational texts which were considered by Francophones to be policies but to him this was not the case. This was thus a serious setback to the conception and

implementation of development/management plans in the tourism sector. R1, R2 and R3 were of the opinion that some measures were gradually being worked out and progress was being observed towards putting in place the right structures for the ministry and a tourism development policy for the country.

The absence of an independent National Tourism Board to manage the affairs of the industry and initiate tourism policies (as was the case in Gabon, Senegal, Kenya or Tanzania for example) was considered by all respondents to be a serious setback to the industry's development. R1, however, made mention of the fact that something was being done in this direction. He said there were plans on the way to create a semi-autonomous Cameroon National Tourism Board which will handle tourism development, especially geared towards the sustainable development, management and marketing of the country's tourism products as well as oversee the effective implementation of tourism policies. It was foreseen that the board was going to be independent and the MINTOUR was going to take on an advisory role in the industry. The absence of a clear cut policy governing the management of the tourism industry in the country as well as the non-recognition by other ministerial departments of their role in tourism development was thus seen as detrimental to the overall development and management of a sustainable tourism industry in the country. According to R2, to avoid confusion in future and ensure effective collaboration, all ministries dealing directly or indirectly with tourism should have articles written into their policies acknowledging this interdependence and calling for active collaboration between them and the MINTOUR. R13 and R14 did however point out that since the creation of the MINTOUR; it was only the present Minister who had taken some positive steps towards trying to put in place some effective structures. Though there were some pieces of legislation regulating the industry, their implementation was done in a very slow, haphazard and disorganised manner so much so that they were not really effective. Too much bureaucracy and poor organisation meant that it took a very long time for common things such as licences to be issued and permits granted. Another issue which came out of the discussion was the sometimes arbitrary way which staff of the MINTOUR used to implement the regulations guiding the profession when they operated in the field. R16 was of the opinion that *"the procedure of creating a simple tourism agency is tied with a lot of administrative bottlenecks. You need to compile all sorts of documents....What is the essence of all these bottlenecks... when the government is saying that they want to encourage its growth and even terming it one of the priority areas for socio-economic development?"* This to him was inefficiency and it helped in discouraging potential local and foreign investors which the industry seriously needed.

Even though respondents R4 – R7 were not directly concerned with the formulation of the national tourism policy, their job description involved the initiation of policies and measures aimed at the socio-economic development of the local communities. One of the means used to achieve this was through the development of sustainable community-based tourism initiatives which had been outlined as one of the developmental priorities in the 5 year Park Management Plans. According to R4, R5 and R6, Park Management Plans (PMPs) had been drawn up in which projects, targets and goals to be achieved in each park were outlined. It was in line with the recommendation of the PMPs that R4 and R5 had set up village consultative committees in their various parks with whom they worked on ways of developing sustainable development ventures of such as ecotourism activities (some of which were already in existence) which were beneficial to local communities and the parks. R4 made mention of the fact that their job was first and foremost conservation. He further reiterated that “...*the conservator cannot do anything when economic and institutional forces brace their muscles and come into protected areas... the conservator cannot do anything in the face of these situations when the national and economic stakes are very high....who am I? I am just an ordinary conservator*”.

Tourism policy was also examined from the perspective of tourism development and operations at the level of the community managed Community Based Tourism Organisations (CBTOs). One of the main objectives of the CBTOs was the promotion and development of sustainable community based tourism ventures in their localities and they had been doing so for a number of years. Some of these organisations included:

- The FTB which had been in existence since the mid 1960s but only recently revamped in the mid 1990s after a more than 20 years of dormancy. According to R8 – R10 their organisations operated like NGOs but they were part of the rural council initiative for tourism promotion. As such one of the principal stakeholders of the CBTOs were the local rural councils.
- The Mount CEO for its part was established in 1997/1998 with the technical and financial support of the GTZ and the German Development Organisation (DED) who oversaw its daily management and operation until the end of their contract in 2005 when they withdrew and handed over full management to a Cameroonian team. The main goal of the project was to provide an alternative source of income to inhabitants of the villages around Mount Cameroon with the aim of reducing the pressure on the forest products and poaching on the mountain which had been increasing at an alarming rate.

- BERUDEP launched its multi-faceted rural development programmes and activities as far back as 1990 but were only officially legalised in 1997. It started by developing income generating activities for people in Boyo Division. Such activities included bee keeping, medicinal plant cultivation and recently ecotourism activities in which tourists from Europe, America or Canada take part in home stays (i.e. visitors live with selected families and experience cultural differences by participating in the daily activities of the households and communities in which they live), adventure walks and hiking expeditions.

At the time of data collection these CBTOs were engaged in various ecotourism development projects in villages around the Mount Cameroon region in the South West Region and in Boyo Division in the North West Region.

Whilst the CBTOs and national parks had clearly defined policies and goals with regards to sustainable tourism development, this was not the case at MINTOUR or MINCULT. The need for the realisation, adoption and implementation of a national tourism policy was considered to be one of the conditions *sine qua non* for the effective development and management of a sustainable tourism industry in the country by all interviewees.

7.2.1.3 Finance

Finance was considered by all interviewees to be one of the key necessities for the effective development of a sustainable tourism industry not only in Cameroon but world over. The lack of finance for project development was considered to be a major handicap which prevented the implementation of major reforms and the realisation of effective development in the tourism industry in both the public and private sectors. MINTOUR and MINCULT had the smallest budgets when compared to all other ministries. The annual budget for both ministries was estimated at just \$7 million each by R2 and R20 respectively. Close to 60% of this amount was spent on administrative costs for these ministries and the rest (which was infinitesimal) was used for developmental activities. R1 and R3 were of the view that the marketing department and MINTOUR in general were unable to undertake any serious projects (e.g. carrying out destination marketing and promotional campaigns and participating in tourism fairs in the tourist generating regions for example) neither were they in a position to financially assist needy private sector stakeholders. In the same vein, R20 observed that there was need for considerable investments to be made in order to bring out the full potentials of Cameroon's cultural sector and making it economically profitable. Many ambitious projects which could facilitate this exposure could not be undertaken due to limited financial resources.

This was confirmed by R8 – R11 as well as R20 – R23 who observed that they not only received very little financial support from the government but on the contrary, Mount CEO and BERUDEP for example instead had to pay taxes to the government. Funding for developmental projects was thus limited and posed a critical problem because most tourism projects could not be implemented. However, they sometimes received financial assistance from the local councils while project-specific and time-defined technical and financial assistance also came from international organisations such as WWF, BirdLife International, GTZ and DED as well as from park entrance fees.

Only Mount CEO among the CBTOs was already a well established ecotourism organisation receiving up to 1000 visitors a year. Its main means of revenue generation was through climbing fees paid by visitors ascending Mount Cameroon. Revenue generated was enough to cover administrative and running costs, pay tour guides and porters, pay a quota to the local council and to the MINTOUR and finally to the village communities development fund. Observations were raised by R11 about the (mis)management of these funds which were destined for the execution of micro-projects (potable water provision, community hall construction) in the surrounding villages of Mount Cameroon at the end of each year. Only two villages had benefited from these funds since their inception. According to him, since the departure of the GTZ, these funds even though collected had not been disbursed by the Mount CEO management to the needy communities for which they were meant. The principal funders of BERUDEP on the other hand were international partners mentioned above with whom the organisation was working closely. Some funds according to R10 also came from members of the board of trustees and the sale of products (honey, wax, medicinal herbs) from the other operations in which the organisation was involved. Ecotourism provided very little revenue due to the fact that it was still at an early stage of development with not many tourists visiting (it received just 40 tourists in 2007 in comparison to the 1046 received by Mount CEO in 2007/2008 season).

Just like with the CBTOs, finance for the execution of projects outlined in the PMPs was considered by R4 – R6 to be a very critical problem. Though some revenue was generated from park entrance fees paid by the few tourists and researchers who visited them, it was a very negligible amount and could not cover their running costs. Thus none of the stipulated projects in the first PMP for the Korup NP drawn up in 2002 was ever realised due to the lack of funds. However, R4 and R5 observed that they tried to be much more realistic in drawing up the present PMPs and took into consideration the limited budget they were certain to obtain from the government and

international donors. The researcher did observe that most infrastructure (guest house, offices) which had been constructed for park visitors by the WWF during the Korup Project (1997-2002) when they were responsible for the park's management in the town of Mundemba as well as camps and trails inside the parks were not properly maintained and some had been abandoned. This according to R5 was because, *"between 2002 to 2007, there was practically no money for park management and to renovate the structures and most of it fell into ruins..."*. He further went on to say that even though *"a sustainable management programme has been set up [by MINEF] it covers all of the South West Region and not only Korup. As such at the level of the Korup NP we are still to an extent abandoned to ourselves"*.

R4 on the contrary said they had a guaranteed revenue source for the execution of most projects mentioned in their recently adopted PMP. This was so because they were working on an important wildlife conservation and community development project known as the Kudo-Zumbo Project in partnership with the WWF who were the main technical and financial sponsors. R6 made note of the fact that even though the government was also the main sponsor of most conservation projects around the Mount Cameroon region in which they were engaged, revenue was also generated from facilities such as the conference centre which was owned by the Limbe Botanic Gardens and from entrance fees to the garden which received more than 30,000 visitors a year. During the last decade they had received a lot of financial and technical support from international conservation organisations such as the WWF, BirdLife International and UNEP. Unfortunately however, this funding had dried up once the projects were completed and as a result some of the projects initiated had been abandoned and there was no follow-up on others to ensure their sustainability. Limited financial resources and infinitesimal government support meant that most existing tour operators could not really invest, expand and market their packages as they wished. In addition, interested and potential investors could not get into the sector because they lacked the necessary start-up capital. Also the present global world recession was already having a serious impact on their businesses leading to redundancies. According to R14, *"the tourists which they have received so far are all those who booked a long time ago before the advent of the credit crisis [2008] and all the money for the tours had already been paid. All those who booked and the financial transactions had not yet been concluded have cancelled. From January up till date [March 2009] we don't have any confirmed tours. Those who had planned on coming are hesitating and prefer to wait out the economic crisis...We used to employ a couple [5 workers] but I had to send them away because of financial constraints."*

We now rely mostly on temporal workers [guides] whom we hire on part time basis when the need arises”.

Even though R13 said he sometimes received remunerative commissions from the MINTOUR, direct financial assistance from the MINTOUR to private sector stakeholders was almost inexistent. They therefore had to fend for themselves in spite of all the ambitious projects they had for the development of the industry in the country. R18 made mention of the fact that even though there had been a tendency since the appointment of the new minister to regularly invite private sector stakeholders for consultations, seminars and workshops organised by the MINTOUR and other NGOs, it was regrettable that this was always done at the last minute making their participation almost impossible.

As concerns funding from banks and international tourism companies through partnerships, the fact that about 80% of private tour operators and hotels were small family-run businesses meant that they did not have the necessary collateral security which was often needed by financial institutions before such agreements could be reached. They thus had to fend for themselves.

Due to the seasonal nature of the industry and its present stage of development coupled with no financial support from the government; tour operators had to rely on other economic activities for subsistence. They were thus involved in different activities ranging from documentary productions with international companies such as the BBC, micro-financing of small community development projects, money transfer services, car rentals, public transport, airport security, civil aviation, event management and ticketing among many others. Tourism as observed by the researcher was not their main revenue generating activity but was rather considered as an aside. In the words of R14, *“it is obvious that we have to rely on other activities to be able to survive... if not we will fold up because we will not be able to pay the rent [and other bills]. Things are really very tough”.* Finance or the absence thereof was thus considered by all stakeholders interviewed to be a very serious setback to tourism development in Cameroon.

7.2.1.4 Marketing and publicity

Controlled tourism marketing which is a key component of sustainable tourism development was prioritised (in theory) right from the creation of MINTOUR. Nevertheless all interviewees were of the opinion that very little was presently being done towards promoting the image of the country abroad as an attractive tourism destination. R1 observed that even though a Tourism Marketing Plan had been drawn up for the MINTOUR in 2002, it was never implemented due to the lack of

finance and tourism professionals. Cameroon hardly participated in international tourism fairs for various reasons, the lack of finance and administrative bottlenecks being the most important. It was also the lack of finance which meant that Cameroon could not run tourism adverts in popular international television channels like CNN or BBC as was done by countries such as Egypt, Morocco, South Africa, Kenya and Ethiopia. According to R1, the ministry had opted to publish publicity material about Cameroon in specialised travel journals (instead of the popular vacation journals) which unfortunately did not reach a wide audience. Thus once in a while, MINTOUR did insertions in international newspapers like Newsweek, Jeune Afrique or Paris Match for example. Asked about the choice of a little known television broadcaster for a contract to promote Cameroon in the Benelux countries, financial constraints according to F1 and F3 dictated the choice of this station and little was actually known about the effectiveness of this media campaign.

Apart from football for which the country was world famous, at the moment there was no Cameroon brand on the international market. Very little information existed about Cameroon in the source markets and potential visitors did not really know what to expect if they were to visit the country. A Cameroon Brand Positioning Strategy document drawn up with the technical and financial assistance of the Commonwealth had recently (2008) been submitted to the MINTOUR. However R2 was sceptical about the validity of the document because the sample size used in the document was small and the limited number private stakeholders consulted when it was being drawn up. Though all interviewees were of the opinion that the production of this document was a step in the right direction for the successful positioning of Cameroon as a sustainable tourism destination, they all expressed worries that the document might end up being shelved and its recommendations never implemented as was the case with the 2002 Cameroon Tourism Marketing Plan.

None of the respondents had put in place an effective marketing strategy for their institutions. The interviewees acknowledged the fact that the main means which was used for making their existence and activities known on an international level was through their foreign partners and the internet for those who had websites. Publicity within the country was done through fliers and postcards (which had been printed by some of the parks) and in the visitor information centres (VIC) of some CBTOs and cultural organisations. These centres were located in Mundemba for the Korup NP, Limbe for the Botanic Garden and FTB, Buea for the Mount CEO and Belo for BERUDEP, Bafut palace for the Bafut fonom and Foumban palace for the Sultanate of Foumban. R5 added that their fliers were also often deposited in the lobbies of the

big hotels frequented by tourists in the main towns (Limbe, Buea and Douala) of the South West and Littoral Regions of Cameroon.

The VICs of both the Limbe Botanic Garden and the Korup NP the researcher observed had seen better days. Some of the information material dated back to the period of the Korup Project (1997-2002) and to the time when Limbe Botanic Garden was known as the Mount Cameroon Biodiversity Conservation Centre (1990s) and as such needed to be up-dated. In addition most of the basic office stationary was worn out and needed to be renewed but financial constraints limited any actions. There were neither VICs nor publicity material available in the Campo-Ma'an NP, Kimbi River and the Douala-Edea Game Reserves. The situation was even worse in the Kimbi River Game Reserve which until 2008 was completely abandoned after a poisonous gas explosion in Lake Nyos near the reserve left 1700 people dead in 1986. This led to extensive poaching in the park. A field trip to the park revealed that the administrative infrastructure was in ruins and completely abandoned.

R4 did mention that construction work was currently going on for a documentation and information centre in the town of Campo which is the gateway into the Campo Ma'an NP. This centre was going to coordinate the activities in all other centres which they planned to open up in the main towns across the country. R7 interjected by adding that since the initial goal from the park's creation until 2007 had been geared mainly towards conservation, maps for use by scientists and researchers had been produced and fliers which were mainly geared towards educating the local communities on the dangers of poaching had been printed. Thus they did not have ecotourism promotion fliers per se but were in the process of developing some and hoped to get them ready by the time of the opening of the documentation and information centre.

All the interviewees were of the opinion that serious promotion and marketing was needed to change the perception of potential visitors and attract them to the country. One of the means of doing this was by attending and actively participating in international tourism fairs in the tourist generating countries. However, as much as they would have wished to, this was almost impossible because of financial and administrative constraints. According to R1, *"the participation in a trade fair requires enormous resources and fore preparation. Even when we spend these resources we are however dependent on the goodwill of the Prime Minister who has the final say because he is the one to authorise us to attend or not. We had to attend the Berlin fair after which we were to proceed to the Paris fair but we did not get the authorisation nor the funds from the Prime Minister..."* Only very few operators such as Africa Travel Management (ATM) who were well established sometimes used

their own resources to participate tourism fairs such as Indaba (South Africa) and WTM (London) for example. Other respondents (e.g. R14 and R16) said they could just not afford to attend such fairs without partial assistance from the government in the form air tickets and renting of stands for example. The only means which most of the operators thus used to publicise and market themselves globally was through the internet.

With regards to marketing the cultural tourism potential of the country, R20 said their role was to collaborate with the communities in developing and proposing sites and festivals of cultural interest to the MINTOUR who then took over its management and marketing on a national and international scale. However, the MINCULT did assist the communities in cultural promotion at a national level by organising the National Festival of Arts and Culture every 2 years in which the various regions were given the opportunity to display their arts and culture during a weeklong series of activities and manifestations. R23 in contrast to R21 and R22 said they already had some measures in place to publicise their activities. One of these was a sponsorship agreement with one of the telecommunication companies in Cameroon (Orange). Thus as from 2011, Orange Cameroon was going to be responsible for running promotional campaigns for them on national radio and television stations as well as managing all other logistical issues. On the international scene however, there was no real promotion of Cameroon's cultural heritage. Cultural managers said they depended on the MINTOUR, expatriates and tour operators to bring visitors to their communities. Publicity was thus done mainly by word of mouth.

As concerns the marketing of tourism at the national level, all interviewees were of the opinion that a lot had to be done. Tourism was not yet part of the Cameroonian culture. The main reason was one of ignorance concerning tourism even though the lack of finance by a majority of Cameroonians to undertake holidays was cited as another reason. R15 and R18 did however point out that there was huge potential in this unexploited sector and they were already working towards introducing some products in this domain which would serve nationals and expatriates living in Cameroon. These included tour packages for business retreats and weekend excursions for senior staff in industry and government to national parks with accommodation facilities in the country. To get this off the ground, contacts with potential customers had already begun and according to R15 the idea had been well received in the institutions visited so far.

7.2.1.4.1 Role of the ICT in marketing and promotion

Even though the internet was accepted by all interviewees as a cost effective tool for publicity and marketing, not all of them did have websites. Even MINTOUR and MINCULT did not have functional and official websites for tourism and cultural promotion, a fact regretted by R1 and R20. According to R1, *“it is only very recently that the electronic mails service was created. It has created a website for the MINTOUR which is just left to go operational..... It has already been developed and information entered and conceptual framework organised... It is a pity that we have been unable up till now to have the site up and running because it has a problem which we didn't take seriously”*.

Of the seven tour operators interviewed, only one tour operator did not make use of the internet in his company and one still had his site under construction whilst all the CBTOs had internet sites. Discussions with R4 – R7 revealed that only the Sultanate of Fouban had a website though it was unofficial, not having been sanctioned by the Sultan's administration. An official website was still under construction; the Korup NP and Limbe Botanic Garden used to have websites when the Korup and Mount Cameroon Biodiversity Conservation Projects (section 4.3.2) were still active but they had recently (early 2009) been taken off the world wide web. These websites had been set up by their foreign partners (notably the WWF) who were also the webmasters. When they left, the Cameroonian management neglected the upkeep of the sites partly due to the lack of technical expertise, financial resources and ignorance on the role of the internet in promotion and marketing. However, R5 and R8 said plans were on the way to update their site while R4 said they were already working together with the WWF advisory team to create a suitable website for the park which was to hopefully go online at the same time as the opening of the VIC under construction or even earlier. R21 and R22 though acknowledging the importance of the internet were not certain when they could go online but expressed the desire to do so in future

In addition all the websites of interviewees examined were still at the primary stage of internet development if the eMICA model of internet development were considered (Burgess and Cooper, 2000). The websites contained basic information about the companies, addresses, and sample types of tour packages offered, projects and contact details. Even though R9 – R19 were unanimous that they acquired more than half of their clients through their websites on the internet, the researcher observed that none of these sites had been updated since their creation and the quality in terms of language, morphology, syntax, lexis, formatting, design, structure and

interactivity left much to be desired. This was confirmed by the interviewees who complained about the fact that their web hosts (who were in most cases friends and families) lived abroad (Europe and the U.S.A) and did not have time to do regular updates since they were not paid for it. However, they all said they would be updating and upgrading the quality of their pages shortly. Asked on whether they intended to move into online transactions (e-finance and e-bookings), they said Cameroon was not yet ripe for that.

7.2.1.5 Stakeholder relationships

Stakeholder relationships during the interviews were examined from three angles thus:

- between stakeholders in the public sector;
- between public sector and private sector stakeholders and NGOs;
- between private sector stakeholders.

Apart from the MINCULT which according to R20 had a good working relationship with the MINTOUR, the relationship between the MINTOUR and other related ministries (MINFOF, MINEP, Delegation of National Security and Ministry of Transport) was viewed by R1 – R3 as cordial but strained because these ministerial departments each had different goals and objectives. This, according to the R1, was especially true of the relationship between MINTOUR and MINFOF whose main responsibility was the management (conservation) of national parks and protected areas. MINFOF was opposed to the construction of accommodation infrastructure in almost all protected areas. This limited the degree of (sustainable) tourism development in many parks because the absence of comfortable accommodation infrastructure also contributed making these sites less attractive. R1 – R3 were unanimous in their view that communication and collaboration with the MINFOF which managed national parks and sites and the police which was responsible for general security, immigration and road controls was not easy. In other cases, such as with the Ministry of Town Planning and Housing, collaboration was virtually non-existent leading to the haphazard construction of hotels without proper planning according to R2. Though some little successes had been observed in terms of inter-ministerial cooperation it was very difficult to implement resolutions and policies which were inter-ministerial, thus “...*all the resolutions taken are not always applied...*” according to R1.

All interviewees especially R13 – R19 were of the opinion that tourists frequently complained about police harassment and this matter had been brought up for

discussion at the National Tourism Council (NTC) presided over by the Prime Minister in which the different ministries were represented. As a result, the behaviour of some police officers had started changing albeit very slowly after being reprimanded.

Another instance where there was general agreement among all interviewees was that of the slow pace of communication between the various stakeholders as well as in the implementation of decisions by public sector stakeholders. According to R1 for example, *“we will soon have a Cameroon Tourism Board (CTB). ...the proposal and texts for the creation of this board has been on the table of the head of state for the past 2 years and we are still waiting for his signature. It is thus a pity that these things have to take so long”*. R3 further went on to add that delays in the signing of some texts meant that most of their recommendations were outdated when they eventually became law and were thus never implemented as was the case with the 2002 Tourism Marketing Plan.

Sluggish communication between the various government departments also noted by R1 and R3 was in the disbursement of funds and granting of authorisations to participate in tourism fairs and undertaking promotional campaigns abroad. In relation to this, R1 said *“...We [MINTOUR] had already taken all dispositions to be present there [at the 2009 ITB in Berlin], and even hired a stand and prepared all the necessary materials to be displayed, but now we cannot travel...Before I go out of the country, my minister has to write a letter to the Prime Minister who then authorises my departure as well as the disbursement of the necessary funds. If the prime minister does not sign this authorisation, I cannot ask for a visa from any embassy in my capacity as a government officer...”* This he added was just one example among many and it was common practice because they were dependent on the good graces of the Prime Minister and other ministries.

Concerning the relationship with other stakeholders in the private sector, there was a general agreement that the relationship had previously not been easy. Whereas in the past when it was a purely hierarchical relationship with the MINTOUR at the top dictating the rules and giving orders to the tour/hotel operators, NGOs and other actors operating in the tourism sector, the tendency nowadays was moving towards a more linear relationship geared towards consultation with all stakeholders before any major decisions were taken. The state had adopted a policy of always trying to involve representatives of the national syndicates for hoteliers, tour operators, transporters, restaurateurs, in all meetings the MINTOUR organised. R1 – R3 held the view that communication was not always easy with these groups and as such

contacting them on time before major decisions were made was not always possible. However they were working towards ensuring better communication in future. On the question of the sometimes strained nature of relationships with private sector operators, R2 said this was all due to misunderstandings between the two groups. He then went on to cite the example of the recent hotel reclassification drive (aimed at making accommodation infrastructures to fall in line with international standards) which was presently taking place in the country. Many accommodation sector owners had complained about the arbitrary way in which the operation was taking place. To him, the disagreements sprang from ignorance of governmental texts regulating the industry on the part of hotel operators. As a result whilst the MINTOUR felt it was trying to do something beneficial for the industry, accommodation sector operators considered this to be detrimental to their business. To avoid such instances of incomprehension, MINTOUR had started to organise seminars and workshops with private sector stakeholders explaining their actions. However whilst, R13 and R14 as well as R21 and R23 appreciated this new collaboration with MINTOUR and MINCULT, R16 - R18 were of the opinion that this was just window dressing or pseudo-collaboration. According to R18, *“we are the ones who are in the field and know what it takes to go wherever but at times when decisions are to be made and programmes drawn up, we are not consulted... Well it is still a one way traffic communication wise. Information comes in down from the MINTOUR ... and you at the bottom end of the communication ladder just have to execute the decisions...”*

With regards to cooperation with international and national NGOs, there was close collaboration between the organisations dealing with sustainable tourism development and nature conservation such as UNWTO, UNESCO, WWF, GTZ, DED, SNV and the MINTOUR on the international level and between MINTOUR and FTB, Mount CEO and BERUDEP at the national level. This cooperation and collaboration both at the local and international levels was considered by the interviewees as the keys to sustainable conservation of floral and faunal resources and sustainable tourism development management. According to R1 international institutions regularly assisted the MINTOUR both technically and financially in the realisation of certain projects. R1 cited the case of the UNWTO sponsored ST-EP project in Ebogo (Centre Region) while R3 also noted that the recently concluded Cameroon Destination Brand Report had been financed by the Commonwealth Secretariat. At the national level, the relationship with local CBTOs was also considered to be cordial even though R8 – R10 would have wished for more technical and financial assistance from the government. These CBTOs did work in close collaboration with

other international NGOs such as WWF, GTZ, DED, etc who in most cases provided the technical and financial expertise which was needed for setting them up. R4 – R6 also observed that their institutions regularly collaborate with international organisations such as WWF, BirdLife International, and the EU among others who provide technical and financial support in the execution various fixed durational conservation and sustainable development projects.

R5 cited the case of the Korup Project (1997 to 2002) sponsored by the EU, the WWF, and the UKDFID among others. During this project, an inventory was done of the park's floral and faunal resources, administrative infrastructure was constructed for workers of the park, ecoguards were trained, a VIC was built and equipped with information about the park and the surrounding region, trails were opened in the parks for researchers and tourists and accommodation infrastructure in the form of a guest house and three camps within the park were built. R4 and R7 also observed that the Campo Ma'an NP had since 2002 been engaged in partnership activities with different organisations including the WWF. The main mission was that of conservation and fighting poaching in the park. However, since 2007 their sphere of operation had expanded to include environmental education and stimulating the socio-economic development of the local communities within the park (through the introduction of sustainable nature tourism activities for example) in the Kudo-Zumbo Project. This project now involved working in partnership with the local communities. R4 said WWF was totally integrated in the implementation of the PMP providing both technical and financial support to facilitate its implementation. Other foreign partners who had worked on projects in the park included the Community Based Forest Initiative Project (CBFI) which was sponsored by the EU and Linking Futures sponsored by the Dutch government.

Relationships with the local communities were sometimes strained because of the attitude of communities living around the parks. According to R4, R5 and R7, the creation of the parks and the consequent implementation of rules and regulations concerning its management had deprived the local communities of their livelihoods. Some resorted to poaching and illegal harvesting of forest products leading to constant conflict between the park management and the local communities. Even though they were allowed to hunt for small animals within the park, they sometimes colluded with poachers who came in and hunted big mammals like elephants and gorillas.

Unlike the relationship between the MINTOUR and MINFOF with the local communities which was sometimes strained, the relationship between MINCULT and the local communities was considered to be quite cordial. R23 made reference to the

constant financial support they always received from MINCULT during the organisation of the *Nguon* cultural festival even though R21 and R23 made note of the fact that they received very little government support. However, R20 observed that they were to begin working with communities country-wide to identify cultural and natural resources which could be promoted through tourism. These resources he however pointed out could not be properly packaged and marketed due to the lack of finances and skilled staff to follow-up their promotion, but the training of skilled staff was envisaged.

The CBTOs on their part had good working relationships amongst themselves and with the local communities according to R8 – R10. These institutions regularly collaborated in organising sensitisation and training workshops and seminars for the local communities. This was so because their principal goal was the promotion of local economic development by actively involving members of the various communities in profitable socio-economic activities. Thus all their workers from the managers through back office staff to tour guides were from the local communities. The view that the relationship was harmonious was contested by R11 who made note of the gradual deterioration of relations between the communities and the Mount CEO administration since the departure of the DED and GTZ teams in 2007. To him, there was favouritism in the selection of tour guides and porters to accompany tourists to Mount Cameroon, and there were irregularities in the management of funds collected from mountaineers and meant for rural developmental projects in the surrounding mountain villages. These differences according to R11 had led to some porters and guides reverting to their old preoccupation of poaching in order to sustain their families.

The relationship between local private sector stakeholders was not very harmonious even bordering on mutual mistrust. Even though associations grouping together various sectors of the tourism industry in Cameroon (such as the National Association of Hotels, National Association of Tour operators, National Association of Transporters among others) existed, R13 – R19 were of the opinion that these groups were not effective. R16 noted that “...we [*tour/hotel operators are all competitors in the same market. We sell our products in the same market and in order to stay competitive, we have to work independently...*” However some did regularly collaborate in areas where they had limited resources or expertise. In this regard, R13 and R18 regularly cooperated and both also collaborated with North Cameroon Tours which was based and specialised in the north of Cameroon. Private sector stakeholder meetings were thus not regular, and even when they did meet

they lacked the authority to implement any effective changes in the industry due to its still hierarchical nature. That notwithstanding, the number of consultations with the MINTOUR was considered to have increased but according to R18 *“...it was still a one way traffic communication wise... In September [2008], there was a meeting organised by the MINTOUR in partnership with the Commonwealth to discuss the report about branding Cameroon... In that same report however, there is no room where the opinions of the tour operators’ representatives who were consulted only prior to the publication of this report is mentioned. This guy [researcher] went to the field and we did not know. We were only called to read and endorse the draft of a report which was already ready for publishing”*. The fruits of these consultations are therefore hardly ever implemented and even those implemented are done at snail speed so much so that their effects are hardly ever felt.

Contacts between some operators and CBTOs were quite regular. R13 and R18 for example were already working together with BERUDEP in the North West Region, and were in the process of setting up CBT ventures with the Kuma people of the Mont Atlantika region in North Cameroon as well as with the Mount CEO and the Rumpi people in the South West Region.

At the level of relationships with international operators, the lack of the necessary collateral security always demanded by many operators on the supply side before agreeing to work with local ground handling operators was seen as a set back by all the interviewees. However, some of them had not only in the past but still regularly collaborated and acted as ground handling agents for international tour operators. R14 for example used to receive many European tourists from specialised international sustainable tourism companies such as Windrose, Icarus and Marco Polo but this stopped due to some disagreements. On the other hand, R13 and R18 regularly worked with European operators such as Discovery Initiative, Diamey Voyages, Schmidt Reisen, World Primate Safaris, Silver Safaris and Vintage Africa as their ground handling agents. R14, R18 and R19 did belong to international travel and tourism organisations such as African Travel and Tourism Association (ATTA) and International Air Transport Association (IATA) but the others did not because some had still not obtained operational licences which were needed before gaining membership.

In the domain of cultural tourism development, with the exception of R22, R21 and R23 all had working relationships with other international NGOs (especially the UNESCO, DED, GTZ, the British High Commission among others) which had been forged with the support of the MINCULT. Aid from these NGOs was used for

example in funding conservation projects such as roofing and renovating listed buildings in the Bafut palace museum (formerly used as a guest house for eminent visitors like renowned novelist Gerald Durrell during his Bafut sojourn in the late 1940s) and the queens' quarters of the Bafut palace constructed at the beginning of the 20th Century.

To summarise, collaboration between the various stakeholders was considered to be improving, albeit very slowly, especially between the public and private sector stakeholders even though it was still one sided. In addition, the lack of the necessary collateral security and mutual trust as well as the fear of competition also played a significant role in reducing the degree of collaboration.

7.2.2 Enabling themes

The second category of evaluative factors which emerged after an analysis of the stakeholder interviews concerned the state of service infrastructure, human resource development in the sector, prioritization of the travel and tourism industry by the government and communities, the impact of sub-regional political stability as well as internal security in Cameroon as a tourist destination.

7.2.2.1 Service infrastructure

Service infrastructure refers to parameters such as accommodation, transport, security and public health facilities and services which indirectly but inevitably contribute in making a destination attractive to visitors. The presence and quality of these facilities in a destination play a very important role in making it popular or unpopular.

7.2.2.1.1 Accommodation

A considerable increase in the number of accommodation establishments was observed in the country during the last decade. Accommodation was thus not an issue in the major towns and cities, but in the hinterland it was difficult to find quality accommodation infrastructure to satisfy tourist demand. Most of the hotels had and were still being constructed without authorisation from the Ministry of Town Planning and Housing. Some of them did not therefore meet international norms and national standards leading to the prevalence of hotels providing poor quality services.

Asked on the reason why most of these new hotels were constructed mainly in the main urban agglomerations to the detriment of rural areas which harboured most of the natural parks and sites, R2 said, market forces of demand and supply motivated investors to build hotels in the cities. They saw no reason to put up accommodation

infrastructure in places which were inaccessible. This opinion was challenged by R13 and R18 who said too much government bureaucracy and inefficiency were to be blamed. If the government reduced the bureaucratic process and installed the basic infrastructures such as roads, electricity and health services as well as facilitated the process of obtaining construction permits from MINFOF and MINEP, they would be willing to invest in accommodation infrastructure in the remote areas especially around the national parks and villages with potential for nature and cultural tourism development.

According to R14, *“the only problem we have [concerning accommodation] is when we move into the hinterlands. Here there is a problem of quality accommodation. In the north for example, the hotels in place have been there for more than 20 years. These are owned by the government and even though they try to maintain them, they are still in a decrepit state...These are hotels located in some of Cameroon’s most visited sites”*.

He further went to add that they *“sometimes we receive requests from people who wish to lodge in 4 or 5 star hotels in the north of the country but we are obliged to turn them down because we don’t even have 2 star hotels there”*.

R13 even made mention of the fact that he had applied for a licence to construct an ecolodge in the Lobéké NP which constituted part of the Tri-National Park (4.3.2.3) and had only a 50 bed ecolodge at the Zangha-Sangha NP to serve all tourists visiting these three parks) but this had been turned down. Thus to circumvent the issue of limited accommodation in the remote communities, R8, R10, R13 and R18 were now working closely with some local communities encouraging them to take in tourists for home-stays. It was the role of MINTOUR according to R13 and R18 to intercede and work together with MINFOF on behalf private operators so that they could be permitted to construct quality ecolodges in some of these biodiversity rich and potentially attractive but accommodation scarce parks and sites. Presently, tourists to these parks had to take along camping gear and in the Lobéké and Dja national parks for example, they sometimes shared the simple wooden camps used by researchers and ecoguards which had no appropriate sanitation facilities.

On the question of the situation of state-owned and managed hotels most of which the researcher observed were in a run-down state, R2 said some had been given to private operators to manage but they had not done the job well. The hotels had thus gone bankrupt and some had been abandoned and fallen into ruins as was the case of the Buea Mountain Hotel. Other state run hotels in the towns, national parks and sites such as the Ayaba Hotel (Bamenda), Miramar Hotel (Limbe) Parliamentary Flats (Buea) which the researcher visited, as well as the camps on Mount Cameroon,

lodges in the Waza and Bouba-Njidah national parks and the Rhumsiki Mountains respectively were in a derelict state due to inefficient and poor maintenance since their construction 3-4 decades earlier. The MINTOUR had no funds for their extensive maintenance. Most state owned accommodation infrastructure could therefore not compete with the privately owned hotels quality wise. The process of reclassifying hotels was presently taking place in the country albeit very slowly due to the lack of qualified personnel.

R25 observed that the lack of finance after the end of the Korup Project (1997-2002) meant that *“from 2002 to 2007 there was practically no money for park management and to renovate the structures, thus most of it [guest house and camps and trails within the park] fell into disrepair like you see now”*. A fieldtrip on Mount Cameroon, by the researcher revealed that resting and camping sites and huts (some of which dated back to the turn of the 20th Century) constructed on various parts of the mountain were derelict, barely habitable and crumbling, thus posing a potential risk to visitors. They lacked enough waste disposal and sanitation facilities and the existing ones left much to be desired. This was confirmed by R8, who acknowledged *“... the deplorable state of the camping huts [on Mount Cameroon] both internally and externally; tourists complain of rats and dirt. We have a general problem of [un]cleanliness in the huts and its surrounding. ...if the weather is favourable, most of them [tourists] prefer setting up their tents and sleeping outside instead of inside the huts but if the weather is bad, they sleep inside in spite of themselves. These camps have to be renovated at all costs”*.

Ecotourism was still at an embryonic stage of development in the Campo-Ma'an NP. No camping possibilities existed within the park at the time of the research even though future projects included plans for the opening up of miradors with a possibility of camping in areas of high faunal concentration. There were just about 50 rooms in the town of Campo itself and not up to 100 in the entire region. However, the quality of some of these establishments left much to be desired because most of them were very basic and not equipped with electricity or modern sanitary facilities. The ecolodges/huts in Campo and Nkoélon had been constructed with the financial assistance of the WWF and National Participatory Development Programme (PNDP) respectively and were managed by the few CIGs (who were still struggling to better organise themselves) or by private individuals.

From the discussions and confirmed through field trips by the researcher, it became obvious that sites with cultural attractions did have better accommodation amenities than those with natural attractions even though the quality of some was questionable. Most cultural tours did take place in the small towns and villages in the country and

R21 – R23 did observe that their towns had some hotels which could and did accommodate some foreign visitors during festivals. However they noted that most of their visitors were day visitors who came in the morning and left in the evening for the bigger towns of Bamenda and Bafoussam which were close by and had better quality hotels. As a result the communities did in effect lose revenue which could have been generated from overnight stays. Thus the absence of leisure services and other recreational facilities such as night clubs, restaurants, gaming parlours where people could go and relax at the end of the daily activities in the towns of Bali, Foumban and Bafut was noted by the researcher and considered by R22 to be another reason why visitors preferred go back to the bigger towns nearby which offered these facilities.

7.2.2.1.2 Transportation and transport infrastructure

The general transport infrastructure into and within Cameroon was considered by the interviewees to be one of the stumbling blocks for the sustainable development of tourism in Cameroon. During the discussions, transport was examined from the perspective of ground and air transport which were the two main means of locomotion into and within the country.

In the domain of air transport, flights into and within the country were considered by all the interviewees to be very expensive when compared to other destinations offering a similar range of tourism products. This thus limited the number of potential visitors to the country to those who were relatively affluent. This in itself was a blessing according to R1 who made it clear that the overall goal was not to “... go into mass tourism.” To him it was “*even fortunate that air tickets to Cameroon are quite expensive... This factor will enable us to [develop and] engage in the real green or ecologically sustainable tourism respecting all the norms with regards to nature conservation*”.

Air transport within the country was also the only reliable means of visiting the north of Cameroon which was the home of Cameroon’s safari parks, and popular cultural festivals in the lamidats of Ngaoundéré, Garoua, Rey Bouba and Ngaoundal (4.5.1 and 4.5.4). Visiting this region was only possible by rail or air and these means of locomotion were not only expensive but was they were poorly organised and irregular. According to R1 and R2 regulating air transport within the country did not fall under the competence of MINTOUR. The Ministry of Transport was responsible for organising all transport activities within the country. The absence of regular flights to the north of Cameroon, it was acknowledged by all, thus had a serious negative effect on tourism activities there.

As concerns the state of ground transport infrastructure, all interviewees unanimously agreed that there was still a lot of work to be done to make the country competitive in this domain. Ease of mobility was considered to be a key component of sustainable cultural and ecotourism activities which were to be developed around Cameroon's parks, sites and local communities, many of which were very far from the main towns. While a good ground transport network existed between most of Cameroon's main towns and cities, the absence of good transport links to many of the country's national parks/sites was considered to be a principal deterrent to the sustainable development of tourism in these areas. This was due to the fact that these roads were passable only during the dry season and even then only using well serviced 4X4 vehicles. Sometimes motorbikes instead of cars were used to ply them successfully. R13 vividly observed that *"the main transport difficulties are linked to the accessibility of certain sites. We were just talking about the Lobéké NP for example; it takes 2 days from Yaoundé to that park using 4 X 4 vehicles. The roads are very bad. You might send a 4 x 4 vehicle and it may not even return from this trip. I have sent vehicles there twice which did not come back"*.

Travelling to the culture-endowed fondoms of Banso and Oku in the North West Region was possible only with 4X4 vehicles mainly during the dry season. Accessibility to Cameroon's last remaining indigenous peoples (IPs), i.e. the Baka Pygmies who had successfully maintained most of their customs and traditions (music, song and dance) free of western influences was almost impossible. These groups lived in the heart of the Campo-Ma'an NP and the Dja Faunal Reserve and getting to them was possible only by using 4X4 vehicles to get to the entrance of these parks, followed by trekking on foot or canoeing in dug-out canoes to the villages where they lived. These excursions, even though exciting, because of their adventurous nature did physically drain the tourists from the western world who were used to more comfortable means of travelling in their home countries. This situation contributed in reducing a potential source market of the educated and financially affluent 60+ age group of tourists who could actually afford such trips. R2, however, lamented the fact that road construction and maintenance was not within their jurisdiction but under the Ministries of Public Works and Transport. Even though 700km of roads leading to some parks and sites had been earmarked for construction, it had been observed in the past that once roads were constructed they were hardly ever maintained and subsequently fell back into disrepair.

The researcher was able to experience the seriousness of the transportation problems firsthand because even though he had planned a field trip to the north of Cameroon he was unable to undertake the trip due to the chaotic nature and

irregularity of the present transport infrastructure and services explained earlier. In addition, a 4X4 vehicle was imperative to ply the earth and gravel roads to all the sites visited during the field trip even though this was during the dry season. Without this, the fieldtrip would not have been successful.

Another realisation was that potential visitors could not count on public transportation to these parks or almost all the other parks and sites in the country. This was because public (commercial) transport cars plying these roads were in a very poor state, poorly maintained and prone to frequent breakdowns and followed very irregular schedules.

Among all the parks and sites visited, only Korup NP and Mount Cameroon were outfitted with trail networks for trekking and hiking adventures. The Korup NP had a 115km trail network for use by both researchers and tourists, while there were various trails in different sections of Mount Cameroon. The exact length of this network of trails was not known and maintenance on all these trails (as observed by the researcher and confirmed by R11) was not regular and effective due to the mismanagement of funds previewed for their maintenance by the administration. A few trails, most especially the race track (used by athletes for the Mount Cameroon Race) were regularly maintained by Mount CEO. Excursions to the Kilum-Ijim Reserve were done on foot using paths cut through the forests, but the tourists were informed and aware that this whole process constituted part of the holiday adventure, according to R10. Trails still had to be created within the Campo-Ma'an NP as well as in the Kimbi River and the Douala-Edea Game Reserves.

Even though inaccessibility had helped in protecting the customs and traditions of some of these IPs, the encroachment on the habitat of these communities by logging companies opening up roads to transport their timber was gradually exposing them to negative western influences (drugs and alcohol consumption) and this was already having an influence on their way of life. This was observed by the researcher during a canoe trip to an IP settlement on the banks of the Lobe River near the coastal resort of Kribi (South Region). Hard drugs (marijuana) instead of money or food was offered in exchange for allowing tourists to visit their settlements. According to R12 the IPs preferred to be remunerated with drugs and they were always 'high'. This attitude was, however, condemned by R20 who noted that it was already beginning to have serious negative impacts on the livelihoods of the IPs and they were gradually starting to abandon their traditional preoccupations of hunting, farming and medicinal plant production for which they were renowned. The researcher during the visit to the IP settlements observed that they had been displaced (by the MINTOUR) from their real settlement and a new one had been built close by where they lived like

objects on display in a gallery. Whole families, spent all day idling away in this new settlement waiting to be photographed by curious tourists.

7.2.2.2 Human resource development

Shortage of well trained and qualified personnel and the behaviour of some tourism industry workers was considered by all respondents to be a serious draw back in managing the development of a sustainable nature and cultural tourism industry in Cameroon. In the words of R20, *“there is a lack of competent workers and the situation is quite serious... if we create structures and the people are not well trained, they will not be dynamic and will fall into ruin immediately afterwards.”* This was primarily due to budgetary constraints, the absence of professional tourism institutions in the country until very recently, a lot of administrative bottlenecks and poor coordination between the various ministerial departments responsible for training of workers in the industry. MINTOUR and MINCULT were relatively young ministries and were thus still in the process of setting up their basic infrastructures as well as employing and training qualified personnel to oversee their functioning. According to R2, and R20 it was Cameroon’s Ministry of Labour and Vocational Education that is partly responsible for organising trainings not only for tourism related activities but for all other sectors of the economy. As a result, the final decision (which was sometimes questionable) on personnel selection, training and employment was done by another ministerial department over which MINTOUR and MINCULT had no influence. That notwithstanding, with the liberalisation of the educational sector in the late 1990s, more than 40 registered institutions had been created during the last decade offering courses related to the leisure, tourism and hospitality management. Nevertheless, the quality of training offered by some of these institutions left much to be desired due to the fact that the trainers themselves were not professionals and stringent quality control mechanisms still had to be adopted. Thus the professional tourism degree module which had been introduced in the University of Yaoundé I, for example, lacked qualified staff to handle the subjects. This meant that the quality of the degrees issued was questionable. However, according to R2 the Garoua Wildlife Management School and the CEMAC School of Hotel and Tourism in Ngaoundéré (Eht-Cémac) had been given facelifts and were now internationally respected institutions training top brass personnel in the wildlife sector and safari tourism industry from the CEMAC community (Cameroon, Central African Republic, Chad, Congo, Equatorial Guinea, Gabon and Sao Tome and Principe) but had graduated only 104 students since its internationalisation in 2002. All in all, the present situation to him was a far cry from before 2000, when there

were not up to 10 institutions offering courses dealing with tourism and hospitality management in the country and it was very difficult to get trained personnel. Most tourism sector employees before 2000 were thus trained on the job.

Neither MINTOUR nor MINCULT had enough technocrats to oversee the proper functioning and execution of projects. According to R2, *"...the tendency is for people to be appointed into positions where they have no idea about the services under their control and what they are supposed to manage. That is one fundamental problem not only in the MINTOUR. In Cameroon in general, ministers are politicians"*. However, trainings, seminars and workshops were regularly carried out for ministry staff. Technical and financial support sometimes came from the UNWTO, UNESCO, other international organisations and foreign governments as well as from personnel borrowed from other departments but a lot still had to be done.

Another point of agreement among the interviewees was that a large proportion of private sector operators were not trained professionals. They thus lacked the necessary professional skills and expertise needed for management in the industry. Four out of the seven tour/hotel operators interviewed were not originally from the tourism and hospitality sector and had never received any professional training in tourism, leisure and hospitality. They themselves acknowledged that they had ventured into the industry out of curiosity and the chances they thought the industry offered. That was the reason why according to R1, MINTOUR was always willing and trying to offer technical support during the refresher courses, seminars, trainings and workshops (organised tourism industry syndicates for their workers) whenever they could afford.

Shortage of personnel was not only observed in the MINTOUR but other sectors such the national parks, CBTOs and tour/hotel operators were working with streamlined permanent staff while the rest such as international volunteers, guides and porters were employed on a freelance basis when need arose. BERUDEP for example had a full-time staff of 15 but only 2 worked full-time on sustainable tourism development and management activities, Mount CEO had a permanent staff of four, FTB, CATS and CAMTOURS for example each had a permanent staff of two persons only.

R5 graphically explained his situation thus: *"I am the only engineer based in the park [Korup NP], there are 3 technicians' i.e. mid-level and 20 ecoguards who patrol and do ecological monitoring.... This is lesser than the [IUCN] ratio and the number which was stipulated in the PMP which provided for 36 ecoguards. To arrive at this number, I am obliged to hire workers but I am blocked because I don't have free reigns to do this. If I employ them, it would be at my own risks and peril. Also I don't have the*

means to pay them. At the moment, I have just 3 temporary workers. To resume we have 28 persons all together”.

The shortage of man-power especially guards thus meant that effective monitoring of these parks was difficult and poaching still continued in remote corners, even though constant sensitisation of the villagers had helped in significantly reducing its rate.

Judging by the private sector stakeholders interviewed, all tour guides and porters for example were from the surrounding villages where they operated and they were grouped together into associations. They had been recruited and trained during various international projects such as the Korup Project (1997-2002) or the Mount CEO Project (2002-2007). Up till the withdrawal of the GTZ from the Mount CEO Project in 2007, trainings, capacity building workshops and seminars (in intercultural communication and ethics) which brought together the permanent workers as well as guides and porters of the Mount CEO, Korup NP and BERUDEP were regularly organised by the WWF, DED and GTZ. Most tourists according to the R11 and R25 were very satisfied with the services provided their guides and porters as a result of these trainings.

The lack of trained experts and event managers meant that the organisation of the cultural festivals of Bali-Nyonga, Bafut and Foumban communities was always mired in chaos and was deemed by the cultural representatives of these communities to be a major handicap to their success. During the 2008 edition of the *Nguon* festival in Foumban in which the researcher participated, for example, though the festival organisers had done their best to provide seats, more than half of the population including some invited guests were forced to sit on the floor and accommodation infrastructure could not be provided for all invited guests, in addition sanitation facilities were not enough. It was a similar situation during the *Lela* festival in Bali Nyonga and the *Abinenfor* cultural festival in Bafut. According to R23, inexperience and lack of professional expertise meant that they had always been struggling with promotional, marketing, organisational and logistical other aspects of the *Nguon* festival since its reintroduction in 1993. It is for these reasons that they decided to hand over the organisation and management of the future festivals (as from 2010) to Orange Cameroon who are now their main sponsors.

Very little publicity was done for of these festivals. If at all a few publicity spots were done in local radio and television stations, no flyers or handouts were prepared neither were any insertions done in national or international magazines. These festivals were thus relatively unknown outside the regions in which they were organised. However, unlike the Foumban festival, the other two festivals mentioned

had no official sponsors and did organise everything on their own with limited support coming from the elites of these communities.

7.2.2.3 Tourism industry prioritisation

It was agreed by all interviewees that the tourism industry was still a relatively unknown economic sector in Cameroon and its development was not prioritized either by the government or the local communities. Proof of this according to R16, is that *“... discussion panels for all sorts of activities like football, politics, etc are regularly organised in Cameroon but never for tourism. They [journalists] never take time to go around and investigate the state of the industry or talk to tour operators and other stakeholders. This just shows the place of tourism not only in government but even in the mass media and by implication the society as a whole.”*

There was therefore a lot of ignorance about the organisation, management and benefits which can be reaped from the industry on the part of the government and the local communities. In addition tourism had relatively few supporters and little influence at the higher echelons of government. This, according to R1, was partly due to the fact the *“...that Cameroon produces crude oil, diverse cash crops for export and has food self sufficiency. As such not much importance is paid to tourism [by the government and citizens] because revenue is generated from these other products...”* Thus unlike Senegal, for example, whose economy relied largely on the export of peanut (butter) and fish products, and therefore had to look for other sources of revenue generation by investing in tourism, Cameroon does not have this problem. The abundance of resources is a curse and a blessing because Cameroon's rich potential has remained largely untapped. This has indirectly helped in protecting and conserving its natural biodiversity. Tourism development is therefore not a priority for government. Thus according to R1 when it concerns tourism, *“the habit here [in Cameroon] is much talking and less action... Proof of it is that we were supposed to be at the ITB in Berlin now but here we are discussing, and there are many other similar examples where it is previewed that we will take part but at the last moment the authorisations are not granted neither are the necessary funds released. The prime minister has the latitude to say yes or no to our movements and we have absolutely no say in it.”*

Another observation which became clearer during the interviews was that Cameroonians by culture like to copy role models and so far there was no successful economic operator in the tourism sector on whom the population could look up to and emulate. This has made many potential investors and local citizens not to consider tourism as a serious and profitable business enterprise. Thus acceptance of

tourisms' benefits by a vast majority of the population still had to be achieved through practical manifestations in the field.

That notwithstanding, R8 and R10 were of the opinion that the recognition of tourism as an income generating sector capable of bringing about socio-economic development to the local communities (where operations were being undertaken) was gradually being recognised, albeit slowly, by some members of the various communities. Ignorance and the lack of basic knowledge about tourism in many local communities with potentials for tourism development meant that many members of local communities who initially responded very positively to CBTO projects/jobs reverted to their former preoccupations (poaching, illegal harvesting of forest products) when they realised that the proceeds from tourism alone was not fast, regular and enough for subsistence. This was confirmed by R11 who said more than 50% of the porters and guides trained with him had almost given up the profession and returned to hunting and other related activities due to the slow pace of financial returns from tourism activities, partially caused by poor management of the CBTO where they worked. Communities were interested in activities from which they could get immediate profits and tourism was not one of them. This was the case in the Western, South and Eastern regions of Cameroon which were still struggling to put up basic tourism infrastructure.

As earlier mentioned in 7.2.1.3, none of the tour operators interviewed worked exclusively in tourism. Their tourism operations were just part of other economic activities they were involved in. This, according to R10, was due to the fact that the tourism business was seasonal and still in its early stages of development in Cameroon with all its accruing challenges mentioned in the preceding sections. Cameroon was not yet very attractive as a destination and did not therefore attract many visitors for the operators to be able to live-off the proceeds generated from tourism. Tourism was thus considered as supplementary to their other activities and not a priority.

Analysis of interviews with R21 – R23 revealed that it was only in Fouban that the cultural element of the *Nguon* cultural festival was being exploited for socio-economic development of the community. This was due to the fact that as far back as the colonial period Fouban because of its climate was visited by colonial settlers as a holiday resort. These colonial expatriates were interested in the local arts and crafts of the surrounding region and as a result an arts market developed in Fouban (4.3.1). This trend has continued till the present day and thus the rejuvenation of the *Nguon* Festival in 1993 and the incorporation of the trade fair for crafts and arts added a further boost to the community's socio-economic development. This is

because it has succeeded in attracting not only citizens of the community, but many foreign tourists who according to R23 always purchase at least one item when they visit Foumban. R21 and R22 made it clear that even though the host communities regularly saw European visitors, the whole notion of tourism as an economic activity was still quite strange to the inhabitants. As such their festivals were seen as socio-cultural and religious platforms for bringing together the indigenes of the community and not as tourism attractions and money making ventures per se.

7.2.2.4 Geopolitical situation and internal security

Mindful of the fact that tourists generally tend to avoid areas where there are natural and political crises, regional and national security were considered to be very important elements in making a destination attractive or unattractive by all the interviewees. There was a general consensus among them that even though Cameroon was relatively peaceful and stable politically, political instability in most of the neighbouring countries (Central African Republic, Chad and Nigeria) significantly contributed in reducing the appeal of the region as a potential tourist destination. This situation thus impacted seriously on the tourism business as some of the important parks and sites of Cameroon where nature/eco tourism took place or could be developed were located near the borders of these conflict regions.

On the national level, the interviewees were quick to point out that whilst it was normal to have occasional complaints from tourists of pick-pocketing or petty theft (which was sometimes caused by the negligence of the tourists), complaints of armed robbery against visitors were inexistent.

Another main concern that was raised with regards to security had to do with the behaviour of security and immigration personnel at the airports and on the highways within the country. According to R16, *“the only instances where tourists have problems is the harassment they receive from police officers on the roads, when they take pictures their cameras and passports are confiscated and they are asked to bribe before these items are returned...”*. The interviewees agreed that the treatment meted out to foreign visitors (confiscation of passports, electronic gadgets in return for bribes, and outright extortion) was very deplorable. R14 noted that they tried to overcome this behaviour by making sure that their tourists always travelled in groups because *“the police mostly harass only tourists who travel individually. When they are in a group in a bus with a driver and guide, the guide handles all the transactions with the police. Some of the overzealous ones will always try to harass but they can never over step the bounds because they are being observed by the guide. This is not however the case with the frequent individual travellers”*.

Even though R13 – R19 said they always sent their agents to meet and pick up their guests at the airports and made sure they were always accompanied during their tours, this sometimes did not really solve matters because to them some immigration officials had lost all sense of ethics and were very unscrupulous. Thus even though there had been some reform facilitating entry to the country such as in the issuing of visas which were now obtainable at the airports on arrival, the behaviour of security officials was a serious issue to be addressed by government for according to R1. *“...it is the same authorities [police] responsible for public security who frequently harass tourists on the roads [and airports]. This means nothing to them even though it is their responsibility to protect these tourists...”* He, however, pointed out that the level of police harassment had started declining albeit very slowly because they regularly raised this issue during meetings at the National Tourism Council and also with the General Delegation of National Security whose minister had promised take action on the behaviour of these unscrupulous officials.

7.3 Summary and conclusion

This chapter started with a sample profile of respondents selected for interviews analysed in this chapter. It then continued with a presentation of the findings from the fieldwork which was a combination of an analysis of the semi-structured interviews strengthened with field notes from observations made during the interviews and to sites which were visited during the fieldwork. The results from the interviews and observation were reported in identical themes grouped under core themes and enabling themes. These were tourism policy and potential, finance, marketing and publicity, the role of ICT, service infrastructure, stakeholder relationships, human resource development, industry prioritization and geopolitics and internal security as outlined in 7.2. An analysis of these findings showed that generally speaking there was consensus on most of the topics handled during the discussions with the various stakeholders. All the interviewees were of the opinion that whilst there had been some improvements in the service sectors such as accommodation infrastructure during the last decade especially in the major towns and cities in the country, a lot still had to be done in terms of improving this as well as the transport infrastructure and services in and to the rural areas respectively. In addition the professionalisation of the industry and a reduction of bureaucratic and administrative bottlenecks were still to be attained. However, there were divergences on some issues such as the handling and management of stakeholder relationships among and between the various groups, marketing and publicity, complicated administrative and bureaucratic

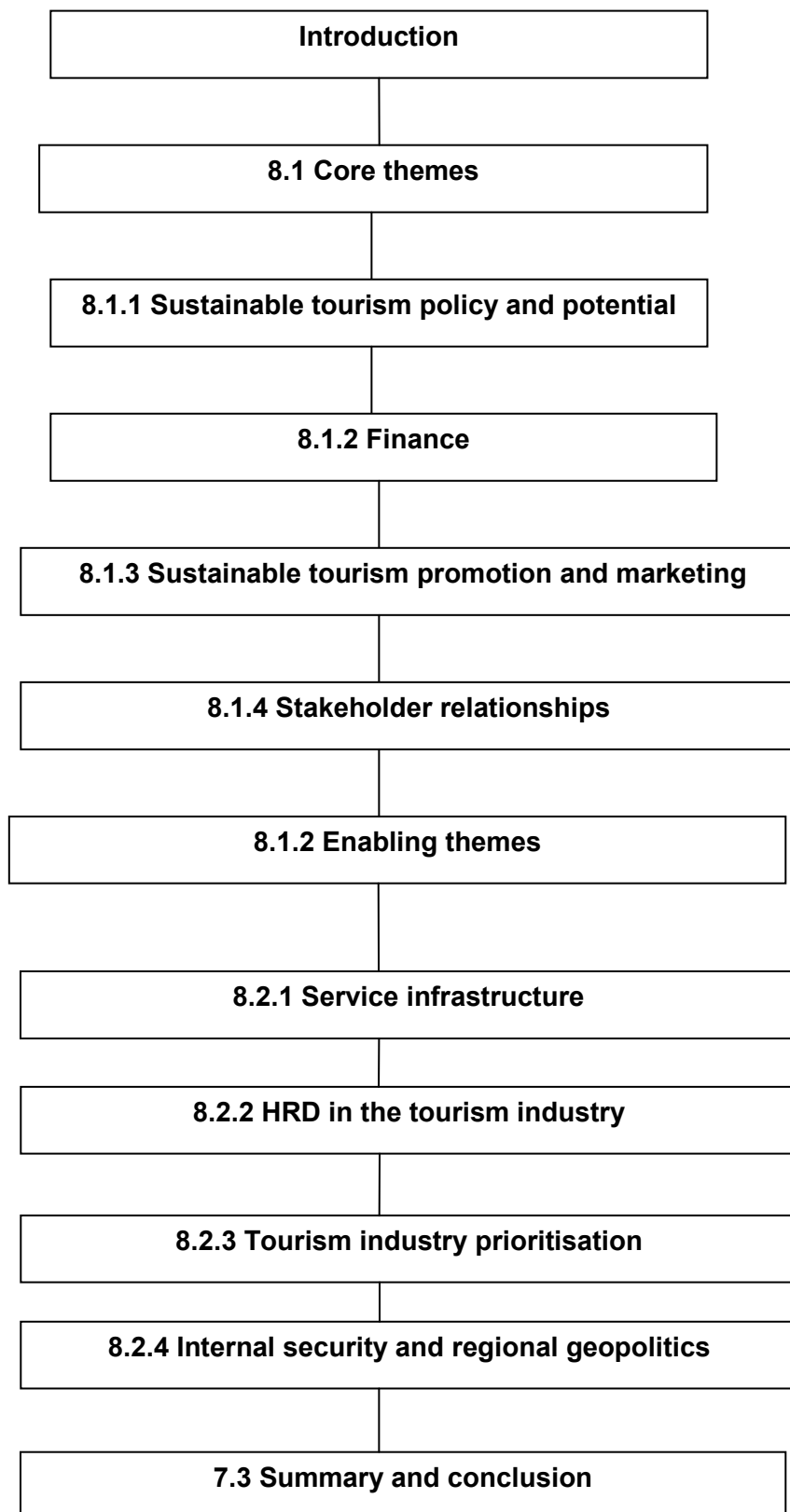
bottlenecks. The public sector stakeholders interviewed acknowledged some of the points raised but made it clear that in as much as they would have wished to, they were powerless to implement any serious reforms which could make the country become more competitive and on the same level like the Botswana, Senegal or Tanzania discussed earlier in Chapter Three and summarised in Table 7.2 below.

Table 7.2: Summary of the key strengths/weaknesses of Cameroon's tourism industry in relation to that of the selected countries examined in this study

| Factor | Botswana | Senegal | Tanzania | Cameroon |
|--|---|--|--|---|
| Tourism potential | Up-market Safari/culture, ecotourism | Heritage, winter sun/sea, village tourism | Photo safari, sun and sea, heritage tourism | Safari, culture, ecotourism, sun/sea, mountaineering, MICE |
| Tourism Policy National Tourism Organisation (NTO) | Yes; Existent, functional and well managed | Yes; Existent, functional and well managed | Yes; Existent, functional and well managed | No; still to be formulated |
| Stakeholder relationships | Well organised, participatory and actively engaged associations | Well organised, participatory and actively engaged associations | Well organised, participatory and actively engaged associations | Dormant and authoritarian – top to-bottom management approach |
| Tourism marketing and promotion | Regularly carried out especially in the source markets | Regularly carried out in especially the source markets | Regularly carried out in the source markets | Very little actions undertaken at home and in the tourist generating countries |
| Trade fair attendance | Always present in all major tourism fairs | Always present in all major tourism fairs | Present and active in all major tourism fairs | Very rarely in any present major fairs |
| ICT Usage | Well developed at all levels (public and private) | Well developed at all levels (public and private) | Developing rapidly at all levels (public and private) | Very underutilised and under-developed especially at the public sector level |
| Tourism marketing plan | Existing and regularly updated | Existing and regularly updated | Existing and regularly updated | Outdated and was never implemented |
| Destination branding | Well branded-up-market safari tourism | Identifiable brand-winter sun destination | Clearly identifiable as a photo safari destination | No clear brand image or unique identity |
| Annual visitor arrivals | Steady growth since 2005 | Steady growth since 2005 | Steady growth since 2005 | Stagnation in arrivals |
| Employment generation in 2008 | Increasing; 10.7% | Increasing; 6.3% | Increasing; 7.7% | Declining; 3.5% |
| Contribution to GDP in 2008 | Increasing; 9.4% | Increasing; 7.6% | Increasing; 9.7% | Stagnating; 2.9% |
| Accommodation infrastructure | Available and varied in all sites & tourist attractions | Diverse and varied in all sites and attractions | Developments taking place both in towns and tourist attractions | Increasing but limited mainly in that main towns and cities |
| Transport cost and transportation infrastructure | Fairly cheap and well developed land and air access into and within the country and to tourists attractions | Cheap and well developed air and land transport network into and within the country and to attractions | Cheap and well developed/linked land and air access into and within the country and to tourist attractions | Expensive transport cost into and within the country; poor/inexistent transport network to existing and potential attractions |
| Human resource development | Well trained, and well-behaved staff in all sectors; availability of professional training institutions | Well trained, and well-behaved staff, availability professional tourism management institutions | Well trained, and well-behaved staff, availability professional tourism institutions | Few professional institutions until very recently; behaviour leaves much to be desired |
| Finance and tourism industry and prioritisation | Full government financial and technical support and active private sector involvement | Full government financial and technical support and active private sector involvement | Full government financial and technical support and active private sector involvement | Very limited government and private sector support and engagement |

Table 7.2 above vividly summarises the level of development of Cameroon's tourism industry in relation to the above countries and justifies the reason why the public and private sector stakeholders interviewed all agreed that an applicable and practicable development and management strategy encompassing far reaching reforms was needed in all sectors of Cameroon's tourism industry if it was ever going to be able to put its name on the world map as an attractive and sustainable tourism destination. This is proposed in Chapter Nine but only after a discussion in Chapter Eight of the various theoretical concepts, techniques, strategies and policies which can be formulated, adapted and adopted to help in overcoming the various shortcomings mentioned in the last two chapters.

8. Discussion



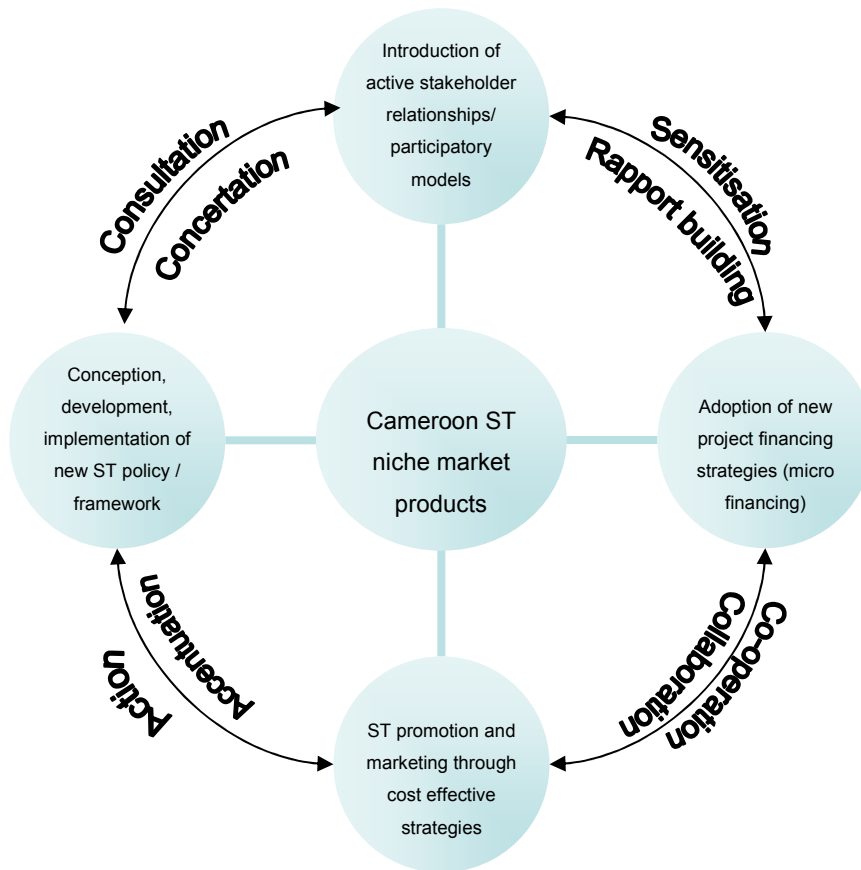
Introduction

This chapter is dedicated to a discussion of the findings generated by this study after the analyses of the field work data in Chapters Six and Seven, with reference to the relevant literature. In so doing, the chapter demonstrates how the results of this research support/challenge/fill gaps in previous research in general and tourism research in Cameroon and the Central African sub-region in particular. There is a demonstrable absence of published academic research in this area of tourism studies; these results thereby contribute to the current body of knowledge. The discussion is structured around the two main categories of evaluative factors that emerged during the data analysis. During the discussion different models and approaches used in sustainable tourism (ST) management, financing, promotion and marketing taking into consideration the sustainable tourism development principles discussed in 2.4 are examined to see how they can be adapted for use in managing the development of a sustainable tourism industry in Cameroon. Results related to each theme are discussed with the relevant literature and commonalities, as well as discrepancies with previous research are highlighted.

8.1 Core themes

The first category of evaluative factors that were identified in Chapter Seven dealt with the core themes i.e. Cameroon's tourism potential and policy, finance, marketing and publicity as well as stakeholder relationships. These themes were not mutually exclusive but rather interrelated. As such no fine line could be drawn separating them hence the double pointed arrows connecting them in Figure. 8.1. They thus interacted with each other and it was by bringing them together and understanding these interrelationships that a clear picture of the core issues affecting Cameroon's tourism and hospitality industry could be seen and a strategic framework for the development and management of a sustainable tourism industry in the country drawn-up, its implementation accentuated after consultation, collaboration, cooperation and sensitisation of all stakeholders concerned. Sections 8.1.1 to 8.1.4 discuss these themes while taking into consideration related scientific research and models which have been proposed to handle and manage these issues within tourism and related studies.

Figure 8.1: Core themes affecting ST development in Cameroon



Source: Researcher

8.1.1 Sustainable tourism policy and potential

Tourism has made a significant contribution to development as a widely accepted tool for poverty reduction and means of linking environmental stewardship with wider aspects of socio-cultural development. However, as an important economic sector for most countries and regions, especially in emerging destinations like Cameroon, wider questions of politics, power, identity, inequality and growth within the tourism industry and other economic sectors need to be better identified and policies which can guarantee better stewardship of these resources formulated.

Wahab (1973) states that the formulation of a tourism plan and policy at various levels is essential when the tourism sector is prioritised in a country's overall development choices as is the case in the Gambia, Kenya, Botswana and the Seychelles for example. Jenkins (1980) argued that because uncontrolled tourism development can lead to long-term socio-cultural (and environmental) problems especially in developing countries that have little influence on tourism demand and where tourism policy is client driven and not nationally determined, it was imperative

for host-country governments to intervene so that the full benefits of tourism could be best achieved through a well thought out and formulated tourism development and management plan and policy. Therefore, it is always necessary to bear in mind that tourism is not only an economic activity but it is in essence, a massive interaction of people, demanding a wide range of services, facilities, and inputs that generate opportunities and challenges to host countries. It is for this reason that it is necessary to manage the growth of the tourism sector and to have clear guidelines to ensure that growth is compatible with national and sectorial objectives. Tourism policy provides the guidelines and the reference point against which any development in the sector should be evaluated (Dieke, 2006). These guidelines should be drawn up based on sound interdisciplinary research bringing together all stakeholders involved. Thus having the raw ingredients necessary for the development of an ecologically balanced ST industry alone is not sufficient.

Field observation and analysis of the discussions confirmed that Cameroon was blessed with various forms of natural and cultural attractions which made it unique and out of which potential niche segments could be developed. Niche markets could be developed in adventure tourism (in the country's remote natural parks) hiking/trekking tours with a tropical experience on Mount Cameroon, Mount Oku, Bakossi Mountains and the Mandara Mountains amongst others which also offer fantastic bird watching opportunities (another niche that could be developed). There are also enormous possibilities of developing the backpacking sector; Cameroon could develop into a regional hub for regional business/MICE tourism (Meeting, Incentive, Convention, Exhibition) especially considering its location at the cross-roads of Anglophone West and Francophone Central Africa. Based on survey data and interview/observation data analysis, Cameroon as a tourist destination according to Butler's (1980) tourism area life cycle is still at the (late) exploration stage and is mostly favoured by Plog's (1974) allocentric travellers and Cohen's (1972) explorers. However, it is only after devising (guidelines and) policies governing the use and development of these resources that it can be possible for these niches to be developed and well managed, taking into consideration the three key principles of ST (2.4). Failure to draw-up and implement these guidelines will see very little controlled infrastructural developments leading to a rapid depreciation in the value of these natural and cultural resources with some running the risk of being destroyed all together. Therefore, the government of Cameroon through the MINTOUR will not only have to express strong verbal support for tourism development as is presently the case, but it will have to show more effort by taking on a much more active developmental and managerial role. As such drafting favourable laws and policies

which guarantee the principles of sustainability, initiating a practically implementable and realistic strategic planning process as well as defining the development goals after consultation with other stakeholders would be one of the first tasks (Jenkins and Henry, 1982). Regional and municipal governments on their part will have to recognize the value of their tourism assets and establish and rehabilitate the moribund local tourism organizations to promote local attractions.

The state has an important role to play in tourism especially in developing countries such as Cameroon because as Wood (1980) way back in 1980 observed, tourism represents a new relationship with both the national and world economy, and this almost always involves a greatly expanded role of the state. At the very least, the state must cooperate with tourism development, e.g. in visa policy, foreign exchange requirements and import regulations, land use policies, training and employment, etc. The state usually plays an active role in opening up new areas to tourism because either government expenditure or resources from international agencies are required for the provision of infrastructure and often for tourist facilities themselves.

Factors such as local involvement and control over tourism development; forging private-public sector partnerships for tourism development; raising gender awareness to enhance women's participation in the tourism sector; promoting regional tourism co-operation and integration; availability and allocation of appropriate resources (e.g. financial, human, product); developing equity in tourism benefits-sharing; promoting community tourism awareness campaigns; availability of appropriate legal framework for tourism; building of the destination's image through marketing and promotional campaigns; expanding tourism entrepreneurial initiatives/investment opportunities will all have to be considered and embedded in any policy document being drawn up by the authorities responsible with the possibility of amending it over time (Dieke, 2006). However, results from the data analysis in Chapter Seven revealed the absence of such a clearly articulated ST development and management policy/framework in Cameroon. Still with no organigram 20 years after creation, the MINTOUR's working guidelines were still attached to the country's overall national development policies with the general goal being that of using tourism as a means of alleviating poverty.

As a result, Cameroon's tourism sector was:

- Very poorly organised with very little stakeholder co-operation/communication, poor sectorial coordination, low quality service and infrastructural development and inadequate protection of natural and cultural resources (Chapters Six and Seven);

- Institutional strengthening including the improvement of the capacity of municipalities to manage tourism, and guidelines for supporting the competitiveness of local tourism small and medium sized enterprises (SMEs) was virtually nonexistent in the country;
- Measures towards coordinating all these aspects responsible for the development and management of a viable ST industry in Cameroon could not be effectively carried out because of the absence of a ST development policy.

In addition, other policy issues that will have to be dealt with and which affect ST development include:

- Cameroon's mixed administrative and legal systems derived from the English and French systems. The different cultural/educational backgrounds always creates regular discord among (MINTOUR) officials when it comes to drawing-up, interpreting and implementing new and/or existing laws/guidelines leading to confusion and inefficiency.
- The role of women who still had to become active and take up managerial positions in the industry where 90% of all workers in managerial and other senior positions and 75% of all employees in the tourism sector were male.
- Prioritising ST development management in realistically conceived, financially and practically implementable PMPs which was not presently the case. (Chapters Two and Seven).
- Emphasising the promotion of community tourism awareness campaigns which were presently virtually inexistent.

It is as a result of the lack of a clearly defined and articulated tourism policy regulatory framework that Cameroon was ranked among the last countries (126th out of 133) in the 2009 TTCR (Blanke and Chiesa, 2009). The absence of such a clearly defined sustainable tourism development management policy could be attributed to the absence of a Destination Management Organisation (DMO) which in many developing countries is the National Tourism Office (NTO) at the national level with countrywide regional offices.

8.1.1.1 Destination Management Organisation and sustainable tourism development in Cameroon

In developed countries DMOs could be independent entities or other organisations working together in close collaboration with the NTO. According to Crouch and Ritchie (2003, p. 111), destination management is a micro-level activity *'in which all stakeholders carry out their individual and organisational responsibilities on a daily basis in efforts to realise the macro-level vision contained in policy, planning and*

development'. If eventually created in Cameroon, the DMO will be responsible amongst others for the coordination of all tourism industry stakeholders, policy making, development, management and marketing of Cameroon as a destination.

However there are some inherent challenges which are likely to be encountered when forming associations such as DMOs especially in developing countries and Cameroon in particular where most tourism operated businesses are SMEs.

One of the main problems has to do with overcoming the mistrust that exists between the different stakeholders in Cameroon highlighted in 7.2.1.5. Since most of the providers of tourism and hospitality goods and services were competing SMEs, they were afraid to lose their market position by joining an association. Though there was some collaboration between a few tour/hotel operators in Cameroon, this mainly occurred when the operators were overbooked, had no resources or did not master the requested itinerary obliging them to collaborate with other operators who had the necessary resources. This was, however, not the norm. As the research revealed, most private sector stakeholders preferred working and presenting their enterprises individually and in isolation instead of working together and being able to use synergies of co-operation.

Drawing on examples from Senegal, Kenya, Tanzania and Botswana which have NTOs (which could be non-profit statutory organizations) that also act as DMOs, some of the main objectives/responsibilities of the NTO/DMO (and its regional offices) if created in Cameroon would include:

- Overtaking some tasks that can better be settled by a coordinating organism than by each organisation on its own, e.g. strategy planning and policy, product development, engaging in a diverse range of inbound tourism promotional and marketing activities overseas, representation of interests and creation of a strong and unified voice for the industry, setting up information collection systems and better research organization, development of infrastructure and support services for home and overseas visitors through the construction of VICs in the various regions/towns/parks, and also overseas in the key target markets (Fyall and Wanhill, 2008), all of which are poorly coordinated and organised or inexistent in Cameroon at the moment.
- Issuance of a good development strategy, including recommendations for education, training and skills development of locals, e.g. for local tourist guides, local community awareness raising programs on the importance of natural and cultural heritage preservation, of tourism as income and job provider, etc.

- Enhancing the long term prosperity of the local people, maximising visitor satisfaction through the quality of the products on display, maximising profitability of local enterprises as well as the multiplier effects and optimising the impacts of tourism by ensuring a sustainable balance between economic benefits and socio-cultural and environmental assets (Buhalis, 2000).

The NTO/DMO in Cameroon will have to assume full responsibility for coordinating, managing and overseeing the implementation of the various activities mentioned above, rather than leaving everything in the hands of the MINTOUR (as is presently the case, with very poor results) who will, however, remain the supervisory authority. In order to be able to carry out its activities and meet targets, the initial operational budget of the NTO would have to come from MINTOUR and in due course funding would be raised through contribution or co-sponsorship by local governments and the private sector operators. This is in view of the fact that DMOs nowadays tend to be *“...part of the local, regional or national government and have political and legislative power as well as the financial means to manage resources nationally and to ensure that all stakeholders can benefit in the long term”* (Buhalis, 2000, p.99).

To achieve this, the NTO/DMO will have to make use of ICTs not only to promote tourism policy, coordinate their operational functions, increase tourist expenditure in the country and boost the multiplier effect on the local economy, but it will also be able to use ICTs to facilitate the tourists’ experiences before, during and after the visits through destination management systems (DMSs) which will have to be set up online. This DMS will provide interactive demonstrations of local attractions and amenities online enabling customers to build up their own itinerary based on their own interests and requirements (Buhalis, 2008).

A NTO for Cameroon will have to be structured in a way that guarantees transparent management, efficiency of business administration and accountability of performance if its objectives and goals will have to be met. It is only through a realistic, clearly articulated and practically implementable ST policy that these and other related issues which came to light in the Chapters Six and Seven, such as finance, marketing and promotion, stakeholder relationships, infrastructural and professional development within the tourism industry can be properly addressed.

8.1.2 Finance

Finance or the lack thereof for the establishment and implementation of macro and micro-tourism related projects was considered by all respondents as a key handicap to the successful development of all facets of a ST industry in Cameroon (7.2.1.3).

Erkilla (2004) makes note of the fact that SMEs are the lifeblood of the travel and tourism industry in many developing countries. This situation was no different in Cameroon where, more than 90% of travel, tourism and hospitality operations were SMEs, more than 80% of which were family owned and managed. However, these SMEs (and other interested persons) lacked capital to expand, improve or start-up their businesses and services, and participate in international tourism and hospitality fairs where networks and partnerships with foreign operators are established. They also lacked the necessary collateral security needed before going into partnerships with international tour operators. This often led to an atmosphere of mistrust between the local tour operators and potential international operators who doubted the ability of many local operators to manage clients or tourists as well as handle finances following international norms and standards.

One possible means of raising the initial/investment capital (which in most cases do not constitute substantial amounts) needed for the commencement of small scale tourism projects especially in communities near or within natural and cultural sites could be through microfinancing.

8.1.2.1 Microfinance in tourism

It has often been asserted that community participation, conservation and tourism generate direct benefits for the people living in or around areas of high conservation importance, in return for forgoing certain rights to facilitate the protection of biological and cultural diversity. A good number of community-based conservation projects attempt to substitute the resources denied to people through the creation of regular jobs employing members of this community (e.g. as ecoguides, park rangers, etc) and more informal work such as souvenir selling, cultural performances, collection of camping fees, etc. These jobs can provide links to the local economy and supplement people's incomes but the poorest members of the community often lack the financial and technical skills needed to secure employment that can provide them with sustainable livelihoods (Ravindran and Vinodan, 2009). In Cameroon the notion of tourism is new to many communities and it is still regarded as a non-traditional revenue earner. At the moment it revolves around the entrepreneurial spirit of the few who have had the courage to go into it. Those with language skills, entrepreneurial experience and education have advantages.

Analysis of interviews with National Parks and CBTOs managers in 7.2 revealed that the local communities were more likely to adopt positive attitudes towards the conservation of local resources if they received a significant share of the tourism-related benefits derived. However, they lacked finance and the necessary collateral

security to get loans from established financial institutions such as banks. Thus obtaining finance for starting up micro-projects is always very difficult. It is thus essential to examine the possibility of adapting and applying existing microfinance initiatives used in other sectors to tourism if the problem of finance needs to be solved. Two such models of microfinancing which if adopted could make small loans available to members of the local communities are the Grameen Banking Model²⁶ (Grameen Foundation, 2009) and Village Banking Model²⁷ (FINCA International, 2009).

Even though they are not called banks *per se*, the researcher did observe during his stay in Cameroon before and during the fieldtrip that almost every village and town in Cameroon has at least one of these village (banking) associations which are sometimes formed based on family and social ties, ethnic origin and professional relationships. The modus operandi of these associations locally referred to as 'credit unions', '*njangis*' or '*tontines*' in Cameroon is very similar to those operated by the Village Banks or the Grameen Bank Model.

One of the main goals of these institutions is contributing to the socio-economic development of the localities from which the members originate. It will thus be easier and possible for members who are interested in getting into the business of tourism to obtain microcredits as individuals or as groups from these institutions rather than from the banks. Credit here is obtained based on trust and fulfilment of membership contributions. The members contribute money which is loaned out to needy members at a minimal interest rate and in some other cases, ballots are cast and it is then

²⁶ Grameen Bank Model: Rural livelihood model initiated in Bangladesh by Nobel Laureate Mohammed Yunus. Grameen Bank Model Characteristics:

- Clients form Solidarity Groups of minimum 5 people: mutual assistance and lowering risk
- Regular meetings, usually on repayments days, with loan officers: problem solving and information exchange
- Small amounts: average of loan is US\$100, but it depends on context, loan cycle, and activity
- Prevalence of women: money management skills, trickling of wealth effect

²⁷ Village Banking Model: Semi formal and member-based institutions originated in Bolivia.

- Beneficiaries form a "village bank" that involves 25-50 households, directed by the members themselves
- Village bank members elect four officials: director, secretary, cashier and accountant
- Obligatory savings is set at 20% of loan amount, enacted at time of delivery
- Regular meetings with entire membership: loan repayments, savings collection, information sharing and training
- Periodical training sessions, often paid by participants

decided who takes home the contribution during each given session. Such 'informal' microfinance institutions can thus help in ST development through destination facilitation by providing grants to its members for the creation of the various essential amenities needed in the industry. In Cameroon, activities whose creation could easily be facilitated through microfinancing and which were identified during the research include the formation of major components of the existing tourism industry i.e. travel agencies, tour operators, guides and escort services, small hospitality activities like home-stays, restaurants, running of vehicles, setting up of souvenir shops, etc in the visited areas. These facilities could all be set up through the collective mobilization of money and the social cohesion of the stakeholders. Besides these, it will be possible for natural/cultural sites to be developed by the communities funded by these associations. The investment costs would be recouped through entrance fees while the rest would go for site management and maintenance.

On the national level, MINTOUR had one of the smallest budgets when compared to that of the Ministry of Defence for example, more than 60% of which was used for running and administrative costs alone (7.2.1.3). In order for the MINTOUR to be able to function effectively, the annual operational and investment budgets will have to be increased to the same level as the other Ministries. It is only by so doing that it will be possible for any niche products to be developed and marketed without which Cameroon's tourism industry will never be competitive and will not be able to substantially contribute its own quota to the socio-economic development of the country.

8.1.3 Sustainable tourism promotion and marketing

ST marketing, according to Middleton and Hawkins (1998, p. 8) "*. . . is essentially an overall management orientation reflecting corporate attitudes that, . . . must balance the interests of shareholders/owners with the long-run environmental interests of a destination and at the same time meet the demands and expectations of customers*". For a country to be able to meet these objectives and meet the demands of a rapidly changing environment where many countries offer similar tourism products, a well thought out and coordinated marketing plan and planning process is a condition *sine qua non* to be known and survive in the global tourism industry. Data analyses results in 6.2.5 and 7.2.1.4 respectively, revealed the absence of a well conceived and coordinated promotion and marketing strategy abroad and at home as one of the fundamental challenges affecting the development of a ST industry in Cameroon.

The MINTOUR rarely participated in international tourism fairs, neither did they carry out any serious promotional campaigns on popular, audience rich international

television channels as done by other countries e.g. Kenya and Egypt. Financial and administrative bottlenecks were stated as the main reasons for these shortcomings. Thus the destination image most potential western visitors had of the Central African sub-region and Cameroon in particular (which became world famous after its exploits during the 1990 FIFA football world cup in Italy) was very fuzzy with their tourism products considered to be economically, physically and performance-wise risky. In order to change this image and portray the country as an interesting and exciting nature and cultural tourism destination, the government of Cameroon has to take decisive action which will see the introduction of tourism promotion/marketing measures that have been successfully introduced in other developing countries with positive results. These will include the creation and empowerment of a NTO/DMO as discussed in 8.1.1.1, the introduction of a marketing plan as well as strategising the role of ICT in tourism marketing.

8.1.3.1 Effective implementation of a marketing plan

Systematic thinking and better coordination of company efforts which leads to improved sales and profits are some of the benefits of formal marketing planning (Kotler, 1984). Though described as one of the pillars of socio-economic development by Cameroon's President, in practice, tourism is still not considered as a priority economic sector. As a result, since the MINTOUR's creation in 1989, only one marketing plan has ever been drawn up (in 2002) to promote/sell the country's tourism potential but none of its recommendations were ever implemented.

The plan broadly identified key priority markets in Europe, North America and Asia which were to be targeted with public relations and reassurance campaigns under the supervision of marketing agencies in those markets whose appointment was envisaged in the plan. It also envisaged the creation of a national tourism website as well as the creation of new partnerships and the solidification of existing ones with foreign tour operators. It however failed to identify the particular group/classes of potential visitors who were to be targeted with these campaigns and realistically address the question of where the means would come from to achieve these objectives.

The plan did not fully follow any particular strategic tourism planning and marketing planning process such as the one suggested by Fyall and Garrod (2005) which entailed defining the strategic context (vision, mission, goals and objectives), carrying out a complete marketing audit (macro and micro environment analysis, internal resources analysis as well as a SWOT analysis) before moving onto the planning and formulating a marketing strategy which would have seen the adoption and

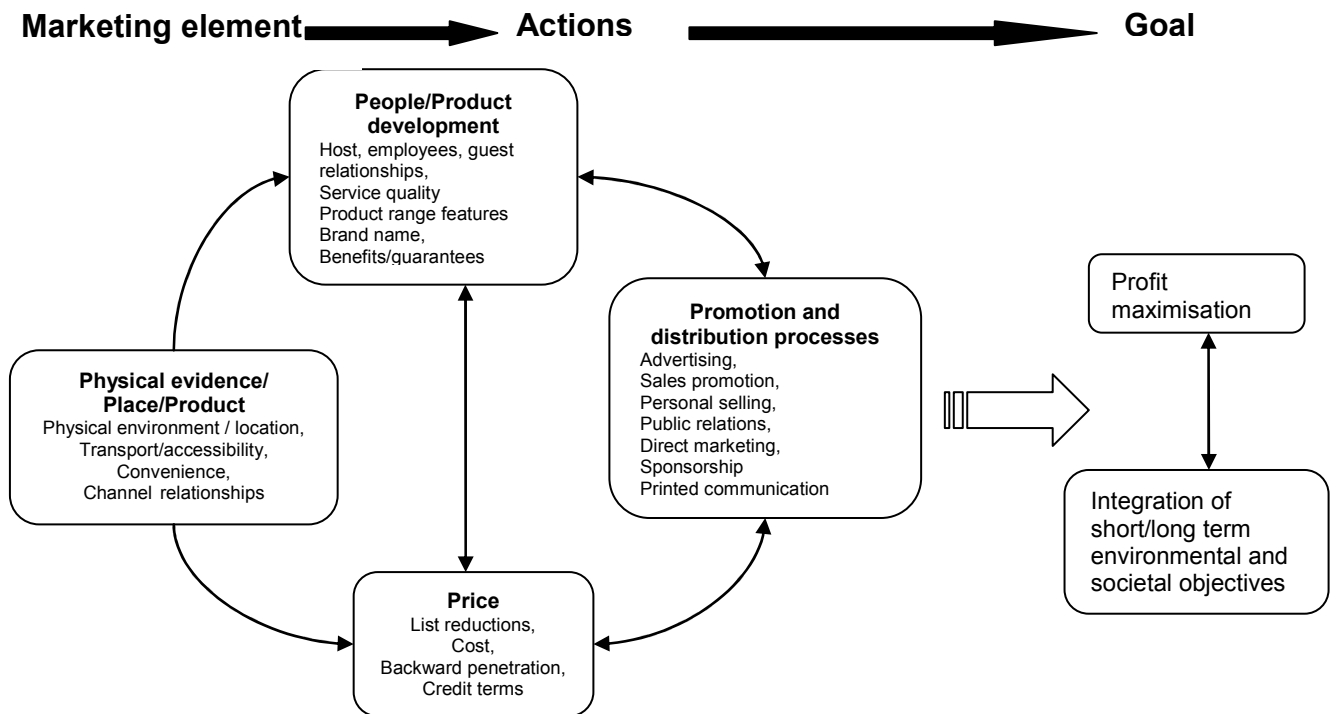
implementation of the marketing mix and the institution of control, evaluation and monitoring mechanisms to ensure that the plan was successfully implemented. The plan thus, wholly failed to concentrate on the four principal issues that Socrates (1989) mentioned that any tourism marketing model should focus on. These are:

- Examining the present state of tourism in a country;
- How did it get there?
- Where does the government want tourism to go?
- How does it get there or what measures could be implemented to achieve the set objectives?

Presently, there is no up-to-date, realistic and clearly defined and coordinated marketing plan/strategy for Cameroon's tourism in which the target markets and specific products or services are clearly identified, specific and achievable goals clearly set and the time frame for their realisation stipulated. Hence the need for a new marketing strategy and plan which in addressing the above questions will simultaneously redress the shortcomings of the 2002 plan.

However, care would have to be taken to ensure that the recommendations made in the new plan be prioritised and implemented in a phase by phase approach while making sure that it is not only geared towards profit maximisation which is the main goal in the traditional marketing approach but that it integrates environmental and societal objectives in the immediate and distant future while ensuring the sustainability of the plan itself. The new plan will have to be dynamic and the process continuous with the principal goal being to collect, process and utilise data when planning, executing and controlling marketing strategies (Jamrozy, 2007; Gilbert 2008). In other words, a financially executable tourism marketing plan for Cameroon will have to take into consideration the interaction of the original four Ps of the marketing mix (product development, price, promotion and place) which Kotler and Armstrong (2005) identify as one of modern marketing theory's key concepts, in addition to people (host, tourism industry employees and guest interactions and relationships), processes (service delivery) and physical evidence (physical environment) variables (Fyall and Garrod, 2005) which still need to be strengthened and developed in Cameroon (Figure 8.2).

Figure 8.2: Application of the marketing mix to ST development in Cameroon



Source: Researcher, adapted from Kotler & Armstrong, 2005; Fyall & Garrod, 2005

The advantage of adopting this type of marketing model is that if it is successfully adopted, satisfying and profitable tourism experiences will be guaranteed while living systems (communities and environment – both natural and cultural) will be sustained and the life quality of the residents will be enhanced both economically and socially through this interaction (Figure 8.2).

In the near future, it will be possible for all elements of this model (which usually make use of information about past growth, past market research, survey data) to be used in drawing up marketing plans for Cameroon because since 2007, tourism data collection and collation in annual TSAs has begun to be prioritised and reorganised. A marketing model for tourism in Cameroon will have to integrate the 4 Ps (in addition to people, processes and physical evidence) and make use of the recent advances in ICTs which are less expensive than traditional marketing and promotion tools.

8.1.3.2 Emphasising the strategic role of ICT in tourism marketing

Mindful of the fact that tourism services are intangible goods which cannot be viewed before purchase and are often bought in advance and away from the point of consumption, reliable, up-to-date and accurate information is imperative if tourism

demand is to be satisfied. Information according to Buhalis (2008) is thus the lifeblood of tourism and ICT²⁸ technology is therefore fundamental for the successful operation of the industry at the macro and micro-levels from the demand and supply sides of the spectrum. The chances of ensuring efficient internal organisation, effective communication with partners, and interactivity with consumers, are all greater when ICTs are properly used.

Noteworthy is the fact that ICTs and the internet on their own are not a panacea and cannot guarantee financial success. However, ignoring and underutilising them can generate significant competitive disadvantages.

ICTs, especially the internet, through its ever increasing globally distributed infrastructure has proven to be a very effective tool for the delivery of inexpensive multimedia information, marketing, promotion, distribution and coordination of tourism (Buhalis, 2008). However, the research revealed that unlike in some African countries (e.g. Botswana, Kenya, the Gambia, Gabon), ICTs are still very underutilised and sometimes completely 'ignored' in Cameroon especially in the public sector and the MINTOUR in particular which does not even have an internet presence (6.2.5 and 7.2.1.4). This situation was decried by three-quarters of the survey respondents who deplored the absence of a NTO and website, lack of well developed websites by local tour operators and the general absence of up-to-date and concise information about Cameroon on the WWW.

The creation of a national website, which nowadays is widely acknowledged as a very important and effective step and one of the primordial requirements for any country wanting to develop its tourism industry should thus be prioritised. This internet site/portal will enable a much wider audience to be reached which otherwise would be difficult to reach through other promotional, public relations campaigns and trade fair attendances alone. It will also enable the country to be able to distinguish itself from the others because it will be able to adequately highlight its unique characteristics, thereby enabling it to have a competitive advantage through product differentiation. The job of differentiation will have to be undertaken by the destination management system (DMS) which will have to be created (Buhalis, 2008).

A well conceived DMS for Cameroon will:

²⁸ ICTs include the complete array of electronic tools, which eases the operational and strategic management of organisations thereby enabling them to manage their information, functions and processes in addition to communicating interactively with their stakeholders for achieving their mission objectives (Buhalis, 2003).

- Enable Cameroon to distinguish its tourism product(s) (sustainable equatorial nature-based and cultural tourism) from others and as a result particular niche markets will be targeted.
- Could lead to sub-regional collaboration (twinning) with other countries offering similar products for it would be possible to theme these products and present them together as packages in the niche markets.

Adopting new ICTs and the internet nowadays is very important for destinations/operators wanting to attract more visitors because according to IPK International's 2006 *European Travel Monitor*, 45% of European outbound travellers used the internet as their main information source while 20% used travel agencies and 17% used friends/relatives. The internet is thus increasingly becoming the favourite source of information for the vast majority of travellers. Cameroon and other countries with very little information on the WWW will definitely lose out on tourism generated income if they do not adopt ICTs and the internet, which also serve as an avenue to counter and respond to any negative discussions and publicity about the country that might arise.

The websites of 20 tour/hotel operators and CBTOs in Cameroon examined by the researcher clearly showed that Cameroon's tourism distribution system was still very rudimentary and elementary when aspects (e.g. outbound air ticket reservations, financial transactions, online payments, instant access to hotel reservations, car hire, interactive media and general e-hospitality, e-tour operators, e-travel agencies and e-destinations etc), which enabled agents/tourists to easily arrange and book tailor-packaged holidays at ease online as well as provide other online services to customers, were taken into consideration. None of the sites had any detailed in-country information or comprehensive systems which could support itinerary building, online reservations/payments, blogging possibilities and multimedia usage. These deficiencies accounted for why more than 75% of visitors to Cameroon got most of the information about their trip not from the internet but from their friends and relatives, who also helped them in planning and organisation (6.2.5).

Tour operators should therefore be encouraged to upgrade and/or create accurate, up-to-date, information-rich and interactive websites for their companies providing some of the above mentioned options. In addition, the sites should clearly define environmentally sensitive areas and the expected behaviour of tourists in such areas, and provide information on sensitive socio-cultural norms, ritual and practices which exist in some of Cameroon's sites. By highlighting these facts on their Internet sites as well as on those of the DMO(s), visitors would be able to acquaint themselves with important information about the country/regions before embarking on their trips.

This would contribute in improving the interaction and understanding between locals and tourists thereby avoiding culture clashes which have been known to occur in societies where tourism activities are high and less attention is paid to the sensitisation of both hosts and guests before and during the visits.

Through MINTOUR organised meetings, seminars and workshops, operators in Cameroon's tourism sector would be shown the necessity, effects and advantages of incorporating ICTs in tourism promotion, marketing and education. Their web pages should be linked to that of the NTO/DMO (when it is eventually created). A strong internet presence will help in making the country competitive in this highly demanding and competitive industry.

8.1.3.3 Developing and implementing an appropriate branding and positioning strategy

Apart from football, almost no poignant image(s) in particular is conjured in peoples' minds at the mention of Cameroon. It is little known as a tourist destination. Many potential tourists from the source markets in Europe and North America are unaware of its existence as an interesting, hospitable and promising ST destination. Research indicates that consumers are prepared to pay a price premium (brand equity) for perceived added values related to buying a well marketed brand; therefore creating awareness of Cameroon's existence and potential is very important in order to make it an attractive and well visited destination. However, Cameroon in spite of its almost unique advantage of being "all of Africa in one country" (MINTOUR, 2006), has up till date not done anything to project itself on the international market by creating and fostering its own distinct and unique brand. It is thus no wonder that in the TTCR 2009, Cameroon was classed 118th in terms of the effectiveness of the government's marketing and branding strategies and 98th in terms of trade fair attendances out of 133 countries examined (Blanke and Chiesa, 2009).

Nation branding is a complex procedure involving many stages and various stakeholders from government through tour operators to local communities whose views all have to be taken into consideration when coming up with the concept of national identity (Hall, 2004). In the case of Cameroon, the process should begin with identifying what makes it unique (4.3 and 8.1.1) preceded by stakeholder education and sensitisation on the *raison d'être* and importance of creating this brand and what their involvement will be. This uniqueness will form the basis of the brand and it will be represented by a logo to be created which should encapsulate some of the main qualities of the country (Emerging Markets Group Ltd, 2008).

Parallel to the designation of a logo should be the appointment of an official(s) responsible for developing and managing the brand and coordinating relations with all the stakeholders as well as the designation brand guardians/promoters who should be respected members of society with enough political clout and leverage. Their main role will be to encourage the various stakeholders to adopt and use this newly created brand in the various sectors of the economy and at the international stage as well as lobby for more funding for tourism related projects at the higher echelons of government, business and industry. The institution of brand promoters will provide the industry with the necessary patronage that it presently lacks and create awareness of the existence of the Cameroon brand. At the same time, brand associates (which could be government ministries, embassies and corporations) with strong national and international presence would have to be looked for. They will be encouraged to incorporate the value of the Cameroon brand in their marketing and publicity programmes (Kotler and Gertner, 2004). If this strategy is well executed both at home and abroad (through promotional activities such as advertising, trade fair attendances, internet presence, etc), international tour operators and potential visitors will become familiar with the brand and the mention of Cameroon in tourism circles will automatically conjure particular images in their minds as is presently the case when countries such as Kenya, Senegal or South Africa are mentioned. This is so because *'people will often buy a familiar brand because they are comfortable with the familiar'* (Aaker, 1991 p.19). Since branding is about promising that the industry's offerings will create and deliver a certain level of performance, the promise behind the brand becomes the motivating force for all activities of the industry and its partners (Kotler and Pfoertsch, 2006). All stakeholders will thus be called upon (through specific guidelines, regular sensitisation and monitoring in workshops, seminars and conferences) to ensure that the brand is not misused; standards prescribed in the brand are maintained thereby guaranteeing that visitors to Cameroon actually live the brand experience. Failure to live this experience will lead to negative publicity from the visitors and destroy the image of the country.

In order to make the brand name more familiar and the target groups more aware of Cameroon as an interesting and unique destination, promotion will have to be regularly carried out. The objective of this will be to court and influence:

- Journalists and writers specialised in the travel, tourism and hospitality industry;
- Public figures and opinion makers/formers at the local national and international level to act as brand guardians and promoters;

- Retail agents, major tour operators and organisers and the general public in the target markets at home and abroad on whom sales depend.

Success in any promotional campaign depends on the disposable budget and the level of professionalism of the persons carrying out the campaign. The goal of the promotional campaign which could be in the form of advertising, sales promotion, personal selling and public relations (Gilbert, 2008) should be aimed at providing knowledge about Cameroon's tourism products while ensuring that potential visitors feel favourable towards its tourism package and build up a preference towards it. For this to be effective, it will be necessary for all stakeholders to agree on a working budget. Mindful of the fact that more than 90% of all tourism and hospitality sector operators in Cameroon are SMEs, raising promotional budgets from them through obligatory/voluntary contribution will be difficult. On the contrary they expect the government to carry out marketing and promotional campaigns on their behalf, something the MINTOUR cannot do due to budget limitations (7.2.1.4). The problems of tourism promotion will only be sorted out by a ST management model that identifies, incorporates and develops particular niches of tourism in the country which are unique, and target marketing done for these niches by both the government and the operators/communities with the full backing of economic operators and politicians (who have so far manifested very little interest in taking up this role) acting as brand patrons/promoters.

8.1.4 Stakeholder relationships

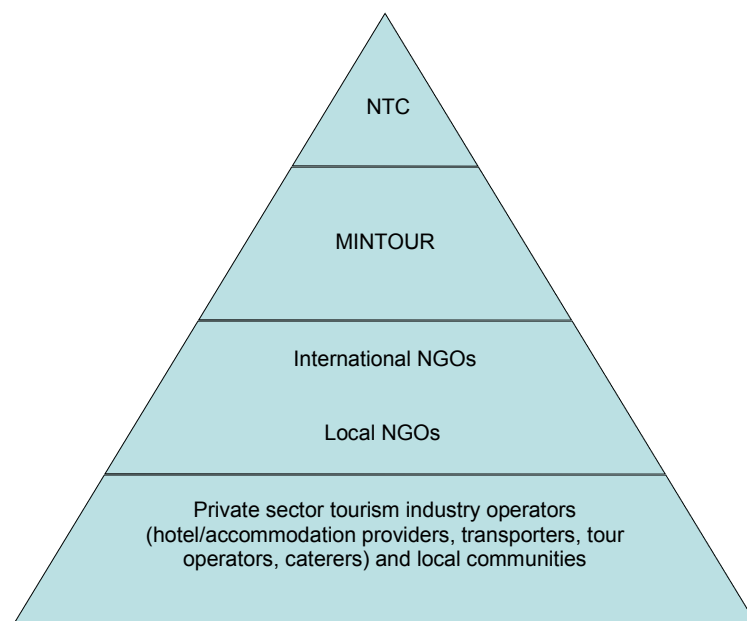
Actively involving all persons affected by proposed development and subsequent management is the underlying premise of stakeholder theory pioneered by Freeman in 1984. An organization is characterized by its relationships with various groups and individuals, including employees, customers, suppliers, governments, and members of the communities who are considered to be its stakeholders (Freeman, 1984).

Unlike in the past when only the most obvious stakeholders, i.e. tourists, business owners and government officials were often considered in tourism planning and management processes, successful and cohesive sustainable development and management of tourism nowadays requires the active participation and collaboration of all those different persons or groups who are affected by tourism or have interests in the planning, process(es), delivery and/or outcomes of the tourism service in the areas of current and/or envisaged tourism development (Freeman, 1984). However, the fragmented nature of the tourism industry in general and in Cameroon in particular where knowledge of tourism is still very basic in various communities with opportunities for ST development creates a recognized need for education,

coordination and collaboration amongst the many different stakeholders in the planning and management processes/phases of tourism development (Ladkin & Bertramini, 2002; Hall, 2000; Hall, 1994). Cooperation and collaboration as well as integration and active participation which have been linked to the idea of ST development and CBT are thus major issues that have to be seriously considered and addressed in any model that deals with the role of stakeholders in tourism planning, development and management (Bramwell & Lane, 1999; Selin, 1999; Hall, 2000; Tosun, 2000 and Mitchell & Reid, 2001).

Analysis of the stakeholder relationships in Cameroon's tourism sector in 7.2.1.5 revealed a purely hierarchical top-to-bottom management structure (Figure 8.3). At the top of the ladder was the NTC and MINTOUR while private sector operators and local communities were at the bottom. All major decisions were unilaterally decided at the top and simply imposed on those at the bottom (private sector operators/local communities). This hierarchical system created animosity between the various groups especially between those at the bottom and MINTOUR who felt that being on the field and dealing directly with the tourists, it was imperative that they should be consulted before any major decisions were made concerning the sustainable development and management of Cameroon's tourism sector, but this was hardly ever the case (7.2.1.5).

Figure 8.3: Management pyramid of Cameroon's tourism industry



Source: Researcher

This hierarchical structure resulted in mutual distrust, poor, slow and sometimes in-existent communication between the different public sector stakeholders, between the public and private sector stakeholders and between the private sector stakeholders respectively. This was further aggravated by institutional/administrative bureaucracy, the absence of proper communication facilitation mechanisms and channels between these different groups. However, effective communication did only exist between the public sector stakeholders and international NGOs who were technically and financially active in conservation work and community development in some of the country's parks and protected areas.

Since tourism is closely related to transport policy (air, land and maritime), provision of infrastructure, regional development policy, building communities with diversity and achieving higher quality of life, it is always imperative that all the stakeholders involved work together to achieve these goals. That was not the case in Cameroon as the research revealed underlying conflicts and gaps in communication and collaboration between the various ministerial departments dealing with tourism in spite of the existence of the NTC which had been created to solve inter-ministerial/departmental conflicts caused by tourism development (7.2.1.5). Though the existence of the council has led to one of MINTOUR's longstanding demands (i.e. rapid visa delivery to tourists at airports on arrival in the country) being recently fulfilled, other issues such as visitor harassment by immigration and customs officials, construction within national parks and access roads to these parks and sites still had to be sorted out. These divergences could only be resolved if a strategic ST development management framework for Cameroon is drawn up which will ensure that ministerial departments dealing directly and indirectly with tourism include ST principles and practices in their programmes. In so doing regular consultations between the various departments and other stakeholders will be guaranteed when any of them undertakes tourism-related activities.

It has been observed that SMEs which greatly influence the development of a region do constitute the life blood of the economy in most developing countries and the travel and tourism industry is not excluded (Erkkila, 2004). However cooperation between these SMEs is always difficult. There was a limited degree of collaboration between some Cameroonian operators interviewed, but the general atmosphere was one of mutual distrust and competition because SMEs operating in the tourism and hospitality industry often regarded each other as competitors and not as partners. Trust was also generally lacking between Cameroonian operators and foreign operators who did not feel confident enough to trust the locals to go into partnerships with them because they lacked the necessary collateral security (7.2.1.5).

A lot of trust building and collaboration is thus required and social capital has to be invested to counter balance some of the effects which the non-collaboration and mutual distrust not only between tour operators but also between tour operators, the government and communities has generated. For this to be effective, a linear model of decision making based on consultation and discussion between stakeholders before decision making has to be adopted as opposed to the existing pyramidal structure now in place.

A good number of these SMEs, as Novelli *et al.* (2006) point out, have been created in response to increasing tourist arrivals and the resultant demand for various services at the destinations. In Cameroon, even though there were various associations (of hotel staff/managers, tour operators, transporters, etc) supposedly aimed at bringing together workers of the various sectors of the tourism industry, they existed only in theory and became active only when important celebrations (e.g. National Tourism Day) took place. Thus many of the SMEs in tourism lacked coordination and hence operated in isolation. The consequence was that there was an uncontrolled mushroom growth of SMEs created by individuals with very little knowledge about tourism and hospitality management. This had a huge impact not only on the quality of material and professional services rendered to visitors (Chapter Six) but most importantly on the common pool of resources (water, sewage treatment facility, solid waste management, parking and roads) at the popular destinations which experienced capacity strain leading to problems often associated with unsustainable development. Unplanned development and operation of such enterprises with little or no infrastructural support affects the local environment and impacts on the visitor experience as was observed in some parts of the coastal resort towns of Limbe and Kribi (Figure 8.4).

Figure 8.4: Part of the beach front close to the 3* Fini Hotel in Limbe



Source: Researcher, 2008.

Overcoming the lack of coordination among the SMEs at the destination is one of the key challenges in ST and sustainable development management. According to Novelli *et al.* (2006), the problem of lack of coordination is often addressed through adopting a cluster approach. The shortcoming of this approach is that the usual cluster approach does not take into consideration the community concerns of tourism development which are very important from the tourism sustainability point of view (Simmons, 1994). Various researchers and practitioners have highlighted the critical importance of active community participation in ST development and management (Murphy, 1985; Campbell, 1999; Ross and Wall, 1999), but there is still not much clarity on how this participation should come about. Debates on stakeholder participation have so far focused on issues such as planning and development paradigms, participation typologies, role of stakeholders and tourism initiative ownership structures (Ashley, 2000; Beeton, 2006; Ryan, 2002; Tosun, 2006). In developing countries, some of the issues around which community based tourism (CBT) revolves include questions of ownership, management, decision making and control of tourism projects (Lea, 1988; Scheyvens, 1999; WWF, 2001; Li, 2006). However, it is not always possible to ensure community ownership of tourism initiatives and in certain cases this may even end up creating internal conflicts (Murphy, 2003).

In the case of Cameroon, what is more relevant, is the formation or creation of partnerships where all stakeholders participate directly or indirectly in managing the sustainable development of the various tourism niches, thereby guaranteeing that the needs of communities are addressed in all situations. Their involvement, be it active or passive, will depend on the relevant skills, expertise and resources that these stakeholders have and are willing to bring into the development of tourism. One of the means of getting them to become involved is by adopting the Community Benefit Tourism Initiative (CBTI) model which can be used for ST development management everywhere because it incorporates aspects of CBT and pro-poor tourism (PPT). The CBTI approach relies on the transfer of benefits to a community regardless of location, instigation, size, level of wealth, involvement, ownership or control (Simpson, 2008) and its main goals just like those of any CBT or PPT initiative is the provision of economic and socio-cultural benefits to the local communities as well as guaranteeing environmental conservation. Stakeholders in this partnership aim at ensuring the delivery of benefits to the community while achieving ST development, and communities where the operations are based could be directly involved or not involved in the execution of the project but still profit from the initiative. This is slightly different from PPT or CBT where emphasis is placed on predefined sections of society, ownership, management and/or control of tourism projects (Simpson, 2008). It is in consideration of this and mindful of the complex nature of Cameroonian society, shortage of qualified tourism/hospitality industry personnel and the 'low' perception of the tourism industry in the community when compared to other economic sectors, that a CBTI model is best suited for ST development in Cameroon where the few existing projects (Korup and Mount CEO Projects), which had been set up following CBT guidelines are presently facing difficulties (mismanagement, lack of qualified staff and finance) after having flourished under well trained expatriate professional management (7.2).

The CBTI model stresses that it is not essential for a community to be directly involved in tourism management or ownership. In so doing it gives governments, industry and NGOs the latitude and potential to be able to design and deliver benefits to a community without the worries that can come with the community being directly involved in the decision-making processes (Simpson, 2008). In the proposed CBTI the model for Cameroon, the community will still get involved in that 'junior' and mid-level workers for the industry will be recruited and trained from within the community as is the case with all CBT and PPT initiatives but top management will be recruited from trained professionals regardless of background. This will ensure that the

organisation is well managed, the objectives met and effective collaboration among stakeholders guaranteed without any intervention from local influences.

Critical to the implementation of this collaborative planning and management approach will be the identification and legitimization of all potential stakeholders, (planning, development and management processes organisers included) (Roberts & Simpson, 1999) before the creation of collaborative partnerships to execute identified CBTI projects which could help in the development and management of the destinations at the local and national levels. According to Reed (1997), identifying stakeholders is always a complicated issue in destinations experiencing emerging tourism development where interests are not collectively organized such as Cameroon. However, once identified, collaboration among them has proven to be a vital bridge between the competencies of public and private (and community) sector organisations allowing them to gain access not only to high levels of funding (Palmer, 1996) but also to technical expertise needed for sustainable tourism development management which many communities in the Central African sub-region lack.

A variety of collaborative partnerships and working relationships bringing together all the stakeholders in the localities concerned will have to be set up in Cameroon. This model will see the institution of private/community, public/community, public/private community, NGO/community, NGO/public/community and NGO/private/community partnerships.

8.1.4.1 Private- Community

Under this participative model, existing private enterprise(s) at the destination area or outside, working in tourism or without can undertake or sponsor locally formed Self Help Groups (SHGs) or Common Initiative Groups (CIGs), who can contribute to destination facilitation through entrepreneurial operations as well as assume corporate social responsibility. The partners can fix the preference and the operational areas of the project. This model actually exists in Cameroon and is known as the '*two party agreement*' but mainly in the domain of agriculture where private individuals and/or communities/villages establish SHGs/CIGs and go into working partnerships with private sector economic operators wishing to invest in agriculture and who have the necessary financial and technical resources needed for commercial agricultural development but no farmland. These private enterprises provide the necessary capital which in most cases are not large sums of money (in the form of farm tools, fertilisers, training in modern and sustainable farming techniques, etc) needed by the local farmers and CIGs to increase food production. The crop when harvested is sold in the national/international markets and the profits

equitably distributed among the stakeholders involved. It has been observed that it is always a win-win situation for both the farmers and the private enterprises as output is significantly increased leading to profit maximisation. It would be possible for tourism industry stakeholders to adapt this model for the development of Cameroon's tourism industry. This model envisages that the private investors become shareholders (for the duration of the agreement) in the joint venture initiatives. They would supply the capital and necessary expertise for ST development, management and marketing activities and get a share of the profits. In this way, they will make sure to get returns on their investments and as such stringent and efficient management will be guaranteed.

8.1.4.2 Public – Community

This is a partnership model formed when the community initiative is supported by the government agencies including public sector enterprises.

Mindful of the fact that the government is responsible for the provision of a good number of laws, regulations and services directly or indirectly affecting the tourism industry such as land use/management, labour and environmental regulations, skills training and capacity building, the provision of essential infrastructure, social and environmental services (including health, safety, waste disposal, energy supply and water provision) vital for the running of the tourism industry, it becomes a very important partner without which the sustainable development of tourism in Cameroon cannot take place. Assistance from the government to the communities with potential for tourism development in Cameroon may come through the form of the provision of the above mentioned services and infrastructure, and also in the form of money, tax rebates, subsidies and single window clearance for the enterprise formation and capacity building. This partnership model is momentarily difficult to implement in Cameroon given the present economic crisis and budgetary and technical constraints of MINTOUR (7.2.1.3 and 7.2.2.2).

8.1.4.3 Public – Private – Community

This joint initiative for enterprise formation is also quite viable in the Cameroonian context where the economy often demands private-public-community partnerships for developmental operations. In this instance local community groups with potential for tourism development will be supported by the private economic operators in the region in association with government establishments through their businesses and connections. Private operators become project sponsors, brand ambassadors and patrons of projects (or regions in the source markets) thereby assisting in the

development and promotion of tourism activities in the communities/regions just like is done in Britain where the EU and the National Lottery have sponsored various urban regeneration schemes and stimulated the development of new ones through partnerships with the local councils (Fyall, 2003; Fyall *et al.*, 2000). Cooperation of this nature was beginning to see the light of day in Cameroon between the Sultanate of Fouban and Orange Telecom Cameroon supported by the government (7.2.1.5). Such collaboration does not only ensure more 'inclusivity' in the travel, tourism and hospitality industry operations but also enhances the visitor experience, ensures optimum visitor satisfaction and brings in significant returns to the communities through the influx of more visitors.

8.1.4.4 NGO- Community - Public

This is one of the very old partnership models and it involves cooperation between communities and (national or international) NGOs; and this is often extended to include the government and/or public sector enterprises. Here, the community seeks to benefit from both public sector enterprises or from the government departments as well as from NGOs. The role of the NGO in this partnership/association ranges from providing technical and financial assistance, investment capital, equity holding in projects to capacity building, building civil accountability, campaigning, consultancy as well as providing funds for consultants and conducting important research (Kalisch, 2001).

In developing countries especially, the formulation and administration of micro-tourism initiatives is done by the NGOs because the local communities often lack the financial and professional resources as well as the technical know-how to embark on such projects. This was the case with the Mount CEO Project which was conceived, financed, executed and managed by international NGOs such as the GTZ, DAD, SNV, and the WWF among others and the BERUDEP project which received technical and financial support from the SNV when it was being set up and still does receive regular professional support from European NGOs/volunteers who assist in developing various aspects of the project. However, it is almost always impossible for a partnership to be formed which exclusively involves just the NGO and the community concerned. The government is always involved because many ST initiatives involve dealing with national legislation and fiscal policies, areas such as national parks which are government owned or administered and for which the government has to be consulted before any developments take place within them

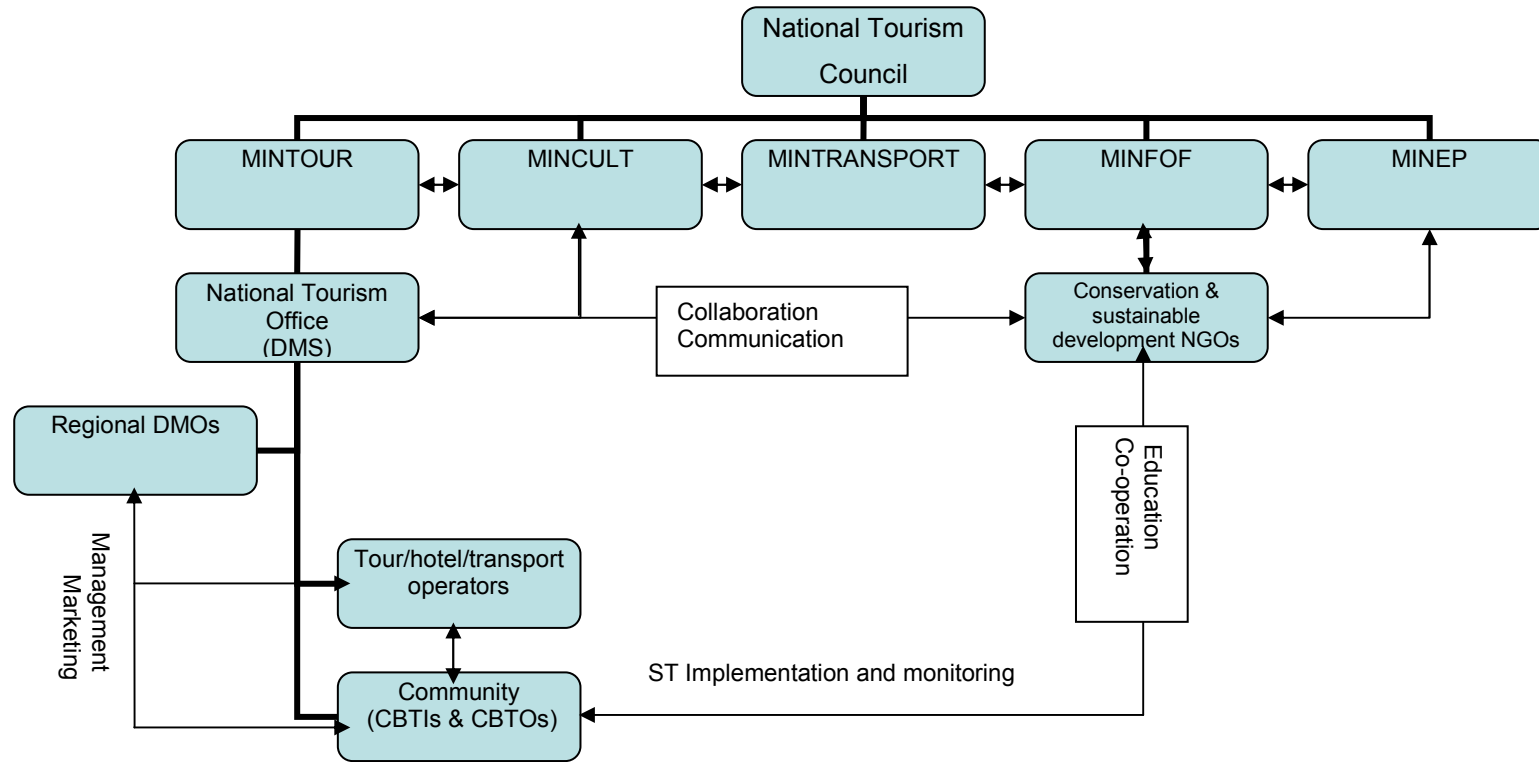
8.1.4.5 NGO-Private-Community

This partnership model is fully promoted by the private sector and NGO's for a common cause. The private parties who could be affluent individuals (from within or out of the community) or companies, associate with NGOs to support (ST) development projects of their choice in a community. They thus undertake to sponsor and develop projects which they deem could be beneficial to these communities. This form of collaboration is presently very rare in Cameroon's tourism sector because of the low esteem in which tourism is held by the local communities and the society in general. Thus sensitisation and awareness campaigns and lobbying will have to be regularly carried out among the potential sponsors in order to make them sufficiently interested to collaborate and contribute to tourism-related development projects.

As discussed in 7.2.1.5, some cooperation and collaboration did already exist between the various stakeholders involved in the sustainable development of nature/cultural tourism in various parts of the country. On the national level, there was or had been collaboration between the MINFOF, (and MINTOUR) and at various periods in the past and also presently, fixed-duration joint-venture conservation and ST development projects have been carried with international NGOs such as the WWF, SNV, DED, UKDFID and the GTZ. Though successful in the short-term, serious doubts have been cast on the sustainability of these operations. What was observed is that when these international NGOs were present in these parks and sites, they provided all the technical and financial support needed in the execution of ST projects. Once the contracts ran out and these organisations departed, all work and achievements that had been realised virtually came to a standstill because funding and technical support was discontinued. Tourism infrastructure which had been constructed during these projects gradually fell into disrepair, promotion of these sites which was done through fliers, brochures and the internet sites became rare because these fliers were no longer printed and the internet sites were taken off the WWW completely (7.2.1.4). Bearing in mind the above mentioned problems, it becomes very evident that long-term sustainability in tourism projects can be achieved through collaboration only when evaluation/monitoring and continuity in tourism projects is guaranteed. This could be done by the setting up of monitoring and evaluation mechanisms which through professional management will ensure long lasting benefits of the projects to the stakeholders and guarantee continued environmental conservation even when the main (foreign) sponsors have departed. Figure 8.5 below outlines a stakeholder relationship model for ST development

management in the country which stresses the need for constant communication between the various stakeholders at all levels. This model also envisages the creation of a NTO (DMO) which will coordinate all tourism activities in the country. It will also have to actively collaborate with MINFOF and MINEP as well as with other NGOs dealing with conservation and ST development if it has to succeed in its objectives. At the same time, the NTO through regional DMOs will work together with local tourism and hospitality operators, communities represented by CBTIs and CBTOs or directly with the communities with tourism potentials in the various regions of the country to develop, market and manage these potentials. All these stakeholders will be able to consult and channel their desires and grievances to the NTO through the regional DMOs. This will ensure that there is a two-way communication/participation process in every stage of the development phase as well as during the management stage as indicated by the two-way arrows in the figure.

Figure 8.5: Proposed participatory stakeholder relationship model for sustainable development management in Cameroon

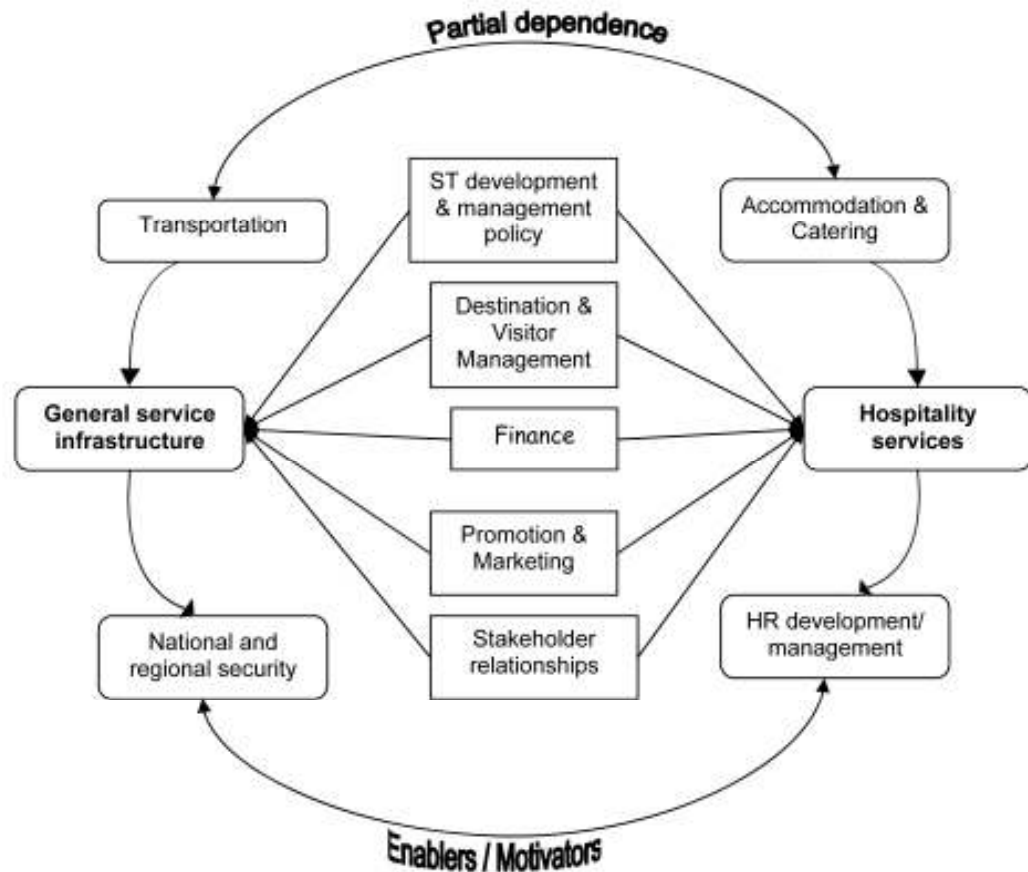


Source: Researcher

8.2 Enabling themes

As discussed in Chapters Six and Seven, additional issues which contributed in handicapping Cameroon as an eco/nature (and culture) holiday destination but which if developed and/or improved and well managed could make the destination more attractive to visitors included the state of the hospitality and general service infrastructure and the level of human resource development (HRD) in tourism among others. As indicated by the connecting arrows, just like with the core themes which are outlined in the centre of Figure 8.6, the enabling themes around it are not mutually exclusive but depend on and reap benefits from each other and from the core themes if they are well developed and managed (Figure 8.6). The tourism industry partially depends on these enabling themes for their development and growth and these on their part are also developed and improved as tourism's contribution to the economy increases or when tourism development becomes prioritised by regional and national governments. The enabling themes thus act as motivators for tourism development. A critical assessment of the importance and impact of these issues to sustainable tourism development is done hereafter while drawing on existing theoretical models to see how they could be adapted to facilitate tourism development in Cameroon.

Fig. 8.6: Importance of enabling factors to ST development management in Cameroon



Source: Researcher

8.2.1 Service infrastructure

The importance of the service infrastructure especially transport, accommodation, catering and personnel services to tourism development in general from both a geographical and economic perspective has already been acknowledged by many tourism researchers (Gunn, 1994; Burton, 1994; Picard, 1993; Smith, 1992; Hall, 1991; Inskip, 1991). In spite of this realisation, results from the data analysis revealed that whilst countries like Botswana (Mbaiwa, 2005); Kenya (Akama, 1998) Mauritius (Khadaroo and Seetanah, 2007) as early as the mid 1980s and early 1990s realised and recognised tourism as a “natural resource-dependent industry” (McKercher, 1993) and began undertaking serious investments in the construction and expansion of new and existing road networks as well as constructing, upgrading and privatising the accommodation infrastructure in a sustainable manner, this was not the case in Cameroon where developments in the above-mentioned sectors

virtually came to a standstill with most of the existing infrastructure instead falling into ruins.

Apart from Gabon, other countries in the Central African sub-region in general and Cameroon in particular are investing very little in developing their infrastructure base. As a result Cameroon's service infrastructure is considered to be underperforming and in need of serious development if it has to become competitive. Drawing on existing literature, this section discusses the importance and contribution of the service infrastructure to the development of a ST industry in Cameroon if they were improved.

8.2.1.1 Transportation and transport infrastructure

As far back as the Middle Ages, transport systems and infrastructures have always played a significant role in the development of travel and thus the development of destinations. The role of transport as an agent and successful component of the development of destinations can therefore not be overlooked. Transport acts as a motivator for tourism development in that it stimulates the creation of new attractions and the growth of existing ones (Kaul, 1985).

The role played by the infrastructure base of a destination as an important factor in enhancing its attractiveness has already been cited by various authors including Inskeep (1991) and Gunn (1988). In analyzing the tourism product from a comparative and competitive advantage, Crouch and Ritchie (1999) clearly demonstrated that without the existence of roads, airports, harbours, electricity, sewage, and potable water, tourism planning and development in a destination will not be possible. Transport and accommodation services are two key components of this infrastructure base and form an integral part of the tourism package. In broad terms, transport infrastructure in this case can be seen as the total of all roads, airport and seaport facilities while the accommodation base can be broadly viewed as the sum total of all lodging facilities from hotels, inns, hostels, bed and breakfasts to camping places.

A destination should be easy to get to and easy to get around (Prideaux, 2000). How people travel and why they choose different forms of holidays, destinations and transport is influenced by the transportation (and accommodation) system of the tourist destinations. Access to tourism sites is thus influenced by the nature of the sites, the state of the infrastructure and the efficiency of the public transport system (Lumsdom and Page, 2004). In this regard, good road networks, airport and maritime infrastructures enhance tourists' accessibility into and within the destination country and enables a good transition on arrival and during departure, while good

accommodation infrastructures enables the tourists to have comfortable stays and relaxed holidays by providing quality services similar to those from the tourists' country of origin.

However, whilst a good transport network fosters tourism development and increases accessibility to certain hitherto unknown and undiscovered destinations, its construction is also responsible for the natural and socio-cultural degradation of the destinations especially in many developing countries where sustainable development and management practices are not fully implemented.

This research identified the absence of a good and efficient transport network as one of the critical factors that negatively impacted on the general holiday experience of the visitors and their general appreciation of the country as a tourist destination. There is therefore need for serious developments if due consideration is given to the proposal mentioned in 8.1.1 that the potential for the development of a ST industry in Cameroon lies in focusing on the development and promotion of niche sectors. However most of the potential and existing ST sites are located far away from the major towns and cities and have serious accessibility problems stated in 6.2.2.2 and 7.2.2.1.2. This situation created a lot of difficulties and stress not only for the tour operators but more so to the unaccustomed tourists. Thus only the very resilient could undertake such trips because it was time consuming, very strenuous and tiring even though adventurous and exciting (Figure 8.7 and 8.8).

Figure 8.7: Road leading to the Campo-Ma'an National Park, January 2009



Source: Researcher

Figure 8.8: Road leading to Mundemba, gateway to the Korup National Park; September 2008 & March 2009



Source: *www.postnewsline.com*, 2008; *Researcher*, 2009

Just like road transport, transport by rail within Cameroon was deplorable. Even though the country had been linked by an efficient rail network before and immediately after independence in 1960, this was no longer the case as the rail network had been left to disintegrate with very little maintenance being undertaken. Thus the only line which still transports passengers is the Douala –Yaoundé - Ngaoundéré line which is however very poorly organised, over congested, not punctual and very uncomfortable with inhospitable personnel making travelling by rail most often a nightmarish and unforgettable experience even to the most hardened travellers (4.4.5). From Ngaoundéré, transportation to other parts of north Cameroon is only possible by road. However, insecurity in some parts of neighbouring Chad and the Central African Republic which sometimes spills into Cameroonian territory makes transportation on partially tarred earth/gravel roads a risky and harrowing experience that is not recommended for visitors. Thus visitors to the north of the country which is home to a good number of Cameroon’s parks and reserves can only travel there by air which is quite expensive and irregular. This in addition to the expensive costs of flights into the country, high airport taxes and the absence of charters flights all contribute in making Cameroon an expensive destination when compared to other countries in West and East Africa. With only about 6.5 hours away from most European countries, it could have been profiting as a winter sun destination just like the Gambia and Senegal and a safari paradise just like Kenya, Tanzania or Botswana but this is however, not the case.

There is thus no wonder why Cameroon occupied the 125th position in terms of the quality of air transport capabilities and the 113th and 97th positions out of 133

countries in terms of the quality of roads and ground transport infrastructure respectively in the 2009 TTCR (Blanke and Chiesa, 2009).

The transport situation could have been better if some of the 50 airports and airstrips of various lengths located throughout the country (4.4.5) especially those near almost inaccessible but important potential visitor attractions were rehabilitated and put to use as has been done, for example, in the Botswana Okavango Delta (Mbaiwa, 2005a). Due to the lack of paved roads in the delta, and in order not to destroy the environment of the national parks with road construction, small airstrips have been created near the parks and reserves and are used by small planes to transport tourists from the big towns into the camps and lodges in the delta. In Cameroon, only 3 airports, i.e. those of Douala, Yaoundé-Nsimalen, Garoua and Maroua were operational. However, apart from the Yaoundé-Nsimalen airport which was well maintained, the physical state and infrastructure of the other airports left much to be desired. The external and internal structures/decorations of the Douala International Airport (which was the gateway into the country) for example have remained untouched for at least 30 years. The paint has worn off and the assignments have never been renovated making it very difficult for first time visitors to find their way. In addition the behaviour of immigration personnel and cacophony of unemployed youths roaming around the airport hustling visitors as well as the state of the roads leading from the airport do not help in creating a positive welcoming image of the country to visitors.

A well developed transport infrastructure (especially road and air) could likely lead to reduced cost of transport and the holidays in general. Road capacity improvements (such as more lanes, improved reliability, higher quality road surfacing, improved safety through more and wider lanes and improved signage) help in reducing fuel consumption, wear and tear, and transit time of traffic (Khadaroo and Seetanah, 2008). Such hard transport infrastructure investments which were absent on the roads leading to many of Cameroon's parks and tourism sites and which still need to be developed do impact on the cost and quality of holiday experience.

To alleviate the transport problem and make the country more competitive as a ST destination, the government would have to adopt all or some of the following measures:

- Serious infrastructural development which will see the construction of all weather access roads and/or rehabilitation of the airstrips located near the parks and sites in the country while introducing laws facilitating the introduction and operation of budget airlines.

- Adopt a good transport development strategy which should promote the use of non-motorised, public transport and other environmentally friendly modes of transport (where possible) especially in nature reserves that will ensure that some of the negative effects that come with the disenclavement of destinations are prevented.
- Reduce the presently high airport taxes paid by airline companies which will lead to a decrease in the costs of flights into the country thereby making it more affordable to potential visitors.
- Use part of the revenue generated from airport taxes to renovate the derelict airport infrastructure as well as maintain the roads leading to and from the airports, thereby simultaneously creating taxable employment for the throngs of youths roaming the airport and creating an atmosphere of security and tranquillity for visitors on arrival and during departure.

With regards to the role of the private sector in transport, all transport to and within tourism sites was managed by private sector stakeholders. Some of the tour operators interviewed also ran car rental agencies. They hired or used their own cars in transporting their guests to the various sites within the country. It was observed that cars which were owned by the tour operators were always better maintained than those used for general public transport on which tour operators who did not possess their own cars had to rely. This posed a lot of problems to tour operators who had to rely on public transport for conveying their visitors because public transport vehicles were prone to frequent breakdowns along the roads and the country did not have automobile emergency rapid response systems. This contributed in reducing the visitors' general holiday experience and portrayed the country in a negative light to other potential visitors.

8.2.1.2 Accommodation

In addition to a good and well-linked transport network into and within the destination country, the availability of a wide range of well planned and appropriately located tourist accommodation and catering (food and beverage) services are key factors in the development and establishment of a successful tourist industry in a country or region. Accommodation is therefore a fundamental element of the tourism product and a very important component for development of tourism within any destination in addition to being an essential ingredient of the tourism experience (Goss-Turner, 1996).

It is thus important for the host countries to provide and retain a range of appropriate good quality accommodation and catering infrastructure ranging from serviced accommodation like hotels, motels, inns, guest houses, bed and breakfast establishments as well as non-serviced self-catering accommodation like caravan and camping sites, youth hostels and home stays to cater for all categories of visitors. This is because staying or overnight visitors usually make a significant contribution to the local and national economies and are thus very important to the tourism economy in terms of the direct and indirect jobs generated and the related expenditure into the local economies. In fact, it is generally assumed that accommodation accounts for approximately one-third of total trip expenditure (Barron and Baum, 2008).

This is even more important in the case of Cameroon where the industry is heavily reliant on foreign visitors, 80% of whom are overnight visitors because domestic tourism is still in its infancy (MINTOUR, 2007). The expectations and needs of the visitors are in most cases reflected in the choice of the quantitative and qualitative characteristics of accommodation services supplied and this in turn directly influences the type of tourism/tourists attracted to destination areas (Sharpley, 2000b). A close look at the tourist accommodation (and catering) sector in Cameroon revealed gaps in both the quantitative and qualitative characteristics of accommodation and catering services. In the early 1990s, the Cameroon government privatised most state run hotels and appointed private individuals to manage the remainder. This venture flopped as confirmed by R2 and R14 in 7.2.2.1. The quality of these hotels rapidly deteriorated and some like the Buea Mountain Hotel which used to be a profitable and well managed 4 star hotel during and after independence in the 1960s were mismanaged, abandoned and fell into ruins (Figure 8.9).

Figure 8.9: Ruins of the once famous 4* Buea Mountain Hotel on the foot of Mount Cameroon



Source: www.postnewsline.com, 2007

During this same period, government increasingly encouraged the construction and ownership of privately run hotels but this was however beset with administrative bottlenecks described in 7.2.2.1. It was only in 2006 that a drive was initiated by the MINTOUR to start classifying and reclassifying hotels and fast-tracking the processing of applications of investors wishing to invest in the accommodation sector. Nowadays, investments in the tourism industry are dominated by the private sector with the government mainly playing the role of a facilitator and ensuring that laws are implemented and respected. Almost all the entire hotel, restaurant, travel agency and tour operator businesses are owned, controlled and managed by the private sector but the government still retains control over some hotels and it is the sole administrator of all the national parks and other protected areas in the country.

By retaining total control over access to the national parks and reserves around which the development of nature-based ST industry relies, there has been very little infrastructural development near or within them apart from those of Waza and Benoué in the north of Cameroon. This in a way has helped in preserving the floral and faunal diversity of these parks where issues such as carrying capacity, over visitation, pollution and waste disposal, etc, are unheard of. On the other hand however, the lack of accommodation coupled with the limited accessibility has contributed in making most of Cameroon's natural parks and sites off limits to many potential visitors who could have visited them and thereby contributed to the local and national economies. This has also contributed in making the sites less attractive

and non-competitive in the eco-tourism market when compared for example to Gabon which offers a similar even though smaller and less varied eco-tourism portfolio but it is well planned and managed, with environmentally friendly upmarket eco-lodges and camps within its parks (Gabontour, 2010).

Away from the main towns (which have a variety of accommodation infrastructure of varying quality and comfort), the situation when moving into the hinterland was critical, and this was where most of the (potential) touristic attractions were located. Mindful of the fact that an important element in the overall tone or attraction of tourism destinations is the physical location, density and quality of accommodation, visits by the researcher to the Korup NP, the Kimbi River Game Reserve and on Mount Cameroon in the west of the country for example revealed that the accommodation facilities in these sites were in a derelict state and a health hazard. The guest houses of the Korup NP and Kimbi River Game Reserve had been completely abandoned and were in ruins, while the camping huts on Mount Cameroon constructed during the colonial era at the start of the 20th Century were actually falling into ruins and had no adequate waste disposal facilities. Tourists hardly slept in them and many preferred sleeping in their tents outside instead (Figures 8.10 and 8.11).

Figure 8.10: Camp (Hut 1) on Mount Cameroon, February 2009



Source: Researcher (courtesy of MountCEO)

Figure 8.11: Camp at Mannspring on Mount Cameroon, February 2009



Source: Researcher (courtesy of MountCEO)

Amongst the parks located in the south and eastern parts of the country on the other hand, only the Campo Ma'an NP had a semblance of accommodation in two villages located at the entrance of the park. There were no provisions for camping within the park which received no tourists apart from researchers. The Dja, Nki and the Lobéké national parks with their important colonies of forest elephants and potentially habituable lowland gorillas amongst other faunal species, did not also have any permanent accommodation infrastructure in place, with only the Lobéké NP being visited by tourists who camped in the park or lodged at the nearby and permanently over-booked 50 room Doli Lodge of the Zangha-Sangha NP as discussed in 7.2.2.1. Bearing in mind that the success of tourism destinations is largely dependent upon the appropriate development of the accommodation sector (Sharpley, 2000b), and in order to be competitive and establish itself as an important and interesting ecotourism destination in the sub-region, the government of Cameroon will have to:

- Amend the laws which presently prohibit any construction within the country's national parks, reserves and other protected sites.
- Cut down on bureaucratic and administrative bottlenecks which presently make the process of obtaining licences for accommodation infrastructure construction cumbersome, expensive and long, thereby enabling potential investors/operators to obtain licences to construct temporary and/or permanent environmentally friendly and comfortable infrastructure in

designated areas within or near these protected sites, thus making them more attractive to visitors and competitive.

- Planning, designing and development of these transport and accommodation infrastructures should follow strict environmental guidelines.
- Employee and visitor sensitisation through workshops, seminars, capacity building exercises, on the importance of environmental consciousness and adoption of responsible environmental behaviour would have to be prioritised. This will ensure that the principles of sustainability are respected during accommodation construction and utilisation in the sensitive and fragile ecosystems of Cameroon's natural parks and reserves.

Considering the fact that adopting new legislation permitting construction in the national parks and sites could take long, an alternative to solving the accommodation problem in these sites will be to encourage communities around these sites to take up home stays and B&B services. However, for this to be successful, the communities in general and willing or interested members in particular will have to be sensitised on the socio-economic as well as intercultural advantages of accommodating 'strangers' in their homes. This approach is already being practised to a very limited extent by BERUDEP and Mount CEO but discussions with their representatives revealed that the idea still had to be fully accepted by the local communities because in addition to getting used to the whole concept, they lacked the necessary finance to undertake improvements in their homes making them clean and comfortable as well as providing the basic necessities and sanitation facilities for the tourists. The necessary project funds could become available if communities adopt the microfinancing model discussed in 8.1.2.1. By engaging in home stays and B&Bs, it will therefore be possible for the local communities to play a profitable and active role in the development and management of the tourism industry in the different regions. However, success in this guaranteed only if the skills and human resource developmental needs of the industry at all levels is addressed.

8.2.2 Human resource development in the tourism industry

In addition to the non-competitive nature of the physical infrastructure, results of the survey and interview analyses in 6.2.3 and 7.2.2.2 clearly identified the lack of proper strategies and policies for human resource development (HRD) leading to a shortage of quality tourism/hospitality training infrastructure and qualified trainers, shortage of trained, efficient and qualified professionals at all levels and poor working conditions in all sectors directly and indirectly related with the management of Cameroon's tourism industry. This led to poor performance in the execution of duties especially

by tourism and auxiliary staff employed in the public sector (parks, police, customs, and embassy/consular staff), and contributed in reducing the quality of the visitors' holiday experience with more than 80% saying they would think of visiting again or recommending the country to others only if such issues were redressed and rectified (6.2.3). This is thus a serious issue which has to be addressed by the government (and private sector stakeholders) through the conception and implementation of a proper HRD plan for tourism and hospitality. In the 2009 TTCR, Cameroon was classed 94th in terms of the availability of local research and training facilities and 104th in terms of the extent staff training in the tourism sector, clearly showing that a lot of improvements need to be done in this sector for it to be competitive (Blanke and Chiesa, 2009).

Improving the capacity and quality of the human resources is the principal purpose of HRD. This is achieved through learning and performance at the individual, process and organizational levels. The skills, knowledge and attitudes of hotel staff, immigration and custom officials, tour guides, personnel in parks and protected areas, highways, hotels and accommodation infrastructure, etc will be enriched and their overall quality of work performed will improve if a well-ordered and professional HRD approach to work is adopted.

This is not the case in Cameroon and the Central African sub-region where tourism and hospitality has been very slow to acquire recognition as a respected academic discipline in spite of its proven socio-economic importance.

Shortage of qualified staff at MINTOUR, MINCULT and MINFOF to oversee the effective functioning of these ministries meant that government projects were never successfully executed. Projects such as the hotels reclassification and licensing, and privatisation of state-run hotels which had been envisaged by MINTOUR or construction of the houses of culture envisaged for in the 10 regional capitals of the country by MINCULT were not completed or could not take-off altogether because of the lack of staff and fear of mismanagement when completed.

Though efforts had been made by the government of Cameroon to strengthen patrols in some parks, all the parks visited by the researcher were understaffed. This therefore made their flora and fauna vulnerable to poachers, with elephants, rhinoceroses and gorillas being the main targets (7.2.2.2). Mindful of the fact that one living elephant in Kenya is estimated to generate worth \$14,375 in income from tourists every year or \$900,000 over the course of its life and elephant related tourism brings about \$200 million each year to the Kenyan economy (Olindo, 1997), while gorilla related tourism is increasingly becoming popular and an important income earner in Uganda, Rwanda and Burundi, there is urgent need for Cameroon's

government to take more serious measures towards training and employing more guards to protect these parks before the fauna and flora which are the raw ingredients for the development of a ST industry in Cameroon and whose survival is already threatened become extinct.

It is thus imperative that tourism should be fully recognised (by the government and private economic operators) as an important contributor to the socio-economic development and GDP of the country. It is only after this recognition that appropriate mechanisms necessary for HRD in Cameroon's tourism industry could be instituted. This will involve actively encouraging the collaboration between the MINTOUR, the Ministry of Higher Education, as well as that of Employment and Vocational Training in the creation, control and supervision of schools and institutions offering professional and vocational training in tourism, leisure and hospitality studies. More focus should thus be placed on capacity building of the supply side i.e. private stakeholders and service providers, and local government institutions dealing with tourism for this always leads to improved and efficient performance and service quality.

In this regard, a proposal would be to increase the intake in the Eht-Cémac Tourism School in Ngaoundéré (which has successfully graduated only 104 senior tourism and hospitality management staff since its internationalisation in 2002) and the Garoua Wildlife School which both admit only government sponsored students to privately funded students too. The curriculum would therefore have to be tailored to address the needs and shortfalls existing in industry. In addition, rather than depending only on the Eht-Cémac for training tourism industry professionals at the higher level, a tourism curriculum should be instituted in universities and colleges with professional degree or diploma courses in tourism and hospitality being taught. In this regard, though the tourism degree module which had been introduced in the University of Yaoundé I under the Department of History/Geography had been transformed into a fully fledged Department of Tourism and Hotel Management in during the 2009/2010 academic year, admission was by competitive examination and thus strictly limited only to a selected few. In addition staffing was still an issue (The University of Yaoundé I, 2009). This programme would have to be rolled out to other universities. If this is implemented, personnel and management staff will be trained to take up vacant positions in the MINTOUR and MINCULT which currently have to rely on external staff from other ministries to carry out some of their duties or have actually had to defer the execution of some important projects because of the lack of personnel.

Sensitisation workshops and capacity building seminars should be regularly organised for public sector officials (e.g. police, customs and immigration officials, embassy staff as well as tour guides, taxi drivers, hotel staff) and all other workers dealing with tourists on a regular basis on ethics, social responsibility, and the treatment of guests. Participation in these workshops will help in changing the attitude and behaviour of some of these officials especially those of public sector (6.2.3 and 7.2.2.4).

However adopting and implementing these developmental measures is only possible if the tourism and hospitality industry is prioritised.

8.2.3 Tourism industry prioritisation

The travel and tourism industry up till date is still not considered as a very important income generating sector to the Cameroonian economy with Cameroon occupying the 122nd position in the 2009 TTCR in terms of prioritization of the travel and tourism industry and 103rd with regards to government expenditure in the travel and tourism industry (Blanke and Chiesa, 2009); facts all confirmed by the interviewees in Chapter Seven. In 2007, it was estimated that the travel and tourism industry would contribute only 1.6% to Cameroon's GDP and 1.3% of the total employment (Blanke and Chiesa, 2008; WTTC, 2008). It is thus evident that just like with all the other countries in the sub-region, the travel and tourism/hospitality industry in Cameroon is 'electorally weak' with no clearly defined industry leadership and lacks any form of patronage. The MINTOUR as earlier mentioned in 7.2.1.3 still has one of the smallest budgets. Consequentially, little effort is done by the MINTOUR or private tour operators towards effectively promoting and marketing the country through the attendance of travel and tourism trade fairs (which have proven to be very effective avenues for destination marketing and acquisition of distribution channels), adopting new and cost effective ICTs in tourism promotion and marketing and until very recently (2008) towards creating an effective destination brand image of the country. This is in stark contrast to other African countries with well established and developed tourism industries like the Gambia, Kenya, Tanzania, Botswana, Senegal who have made it a priority to be present in the world famous travel and tourism fairs of Berlin, London and Paris to say the least (4.4.6). These shortcomings are all a result of the low esteem with which the tourism industry is held in Cameroon. As such the mentality has to change and the industry held on a par with other economic sectors and provided with the necessary finance it deserves. In so doing, it will be possible for ST development and management activities to be prioritised in the:

- Overall government development policy leading to effective inter-ministerial cooperation
- Park Management Plans of national parks and sites
- Human resource development in the tourism and hospitality industry
- Increased promotion and marketing through the creation of a NTO/DMO and DMS which will be responsible for:
 - Strategic marketing, promotion and branding
 - Adoption and use of ICTs and the creation of a national web site
 - Creation of distribution channels
 - Destination and visitor management

Any development plan or strategy for Cameroon will have to proactively recognise the importance of the tourism industry. If the industry is given due recognition through the adoption and introduction of the above mentioned measures, it will be possible for the government, MINTOUR and other stakeholders to solve most of the challenges mentioned in Chapters Six and Seven which presently hamper ST development and management in Cameroon. Failing this and in the heat of the growing global economic recession, Cameroon will be visited only by conference participants and specialist travellers, with the holiday tourists preferring to go to other destinations where they will get better value and services for their money. However, even if all these measures were adopted, an atmosphere of peace and political stability not only in Cameroon but in the sub-region (which is presently not the case) will significantly contribute in positioning the country and the region as a friendly and hospitable destination.

8.2.4 Internal security and regional geopolitics

Results of various studies indicate that tourists modify their behaviour to minimise risk during travel (Hartz, 1989); substitute risky destinations with those considered safe (Gu and Martin, 1992; Mansfeld 1996) and attribute terrorism risk and political instability to neighbouring countries not directly affected (Enders *et al.*, 1992). Thus issues of tourist safety and risk are as engrossing as they are weighty when tourism development/management and promotion are concerned. As a result, how regions (destinations) burdened with political instability and terrorism and those located close by but free of political instability deal with negative images become very important issues and challenges because political turmoil can effectively impede travel to affected areas and create an enduring barrier to international tourism (Sönmez, 1998). In addition, crime and banditry can impede tourism by wielding a significant blow to the fragile nature of a destination's safe image. The ramifications can be

long-term and extremely difficult and expensive to recover from (Bloom, 1996, Bach, 1996).

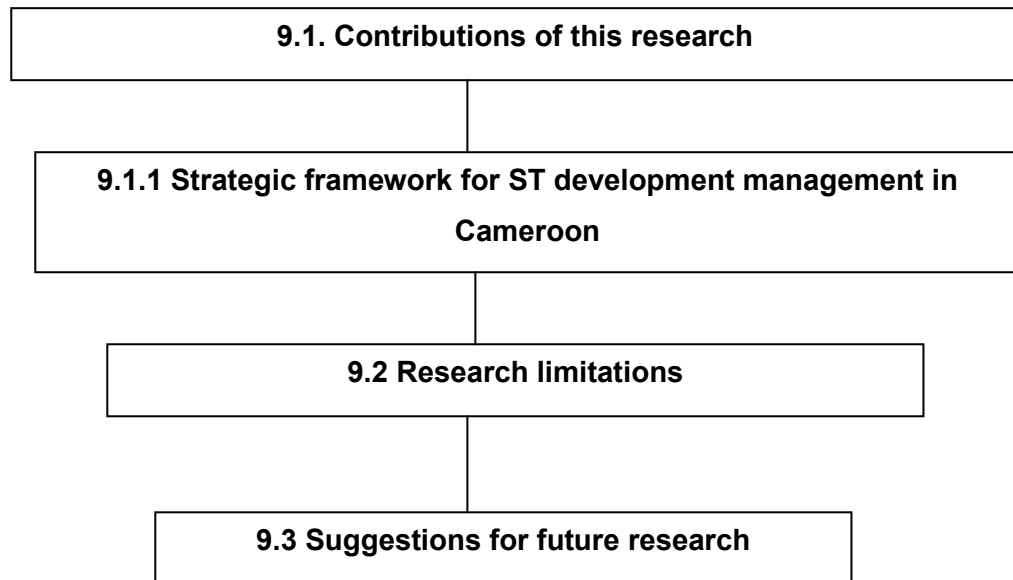
With these observations in mind, apart from a brief period of political unrest in the early 1960s (independence) and again briefly in the early 1990s (wind of change and advent of multiparty politics), and recently in 2008 (riots over rising costs of living), Cameroon has been very stable politically with very few recorded instances of serious physical aggression against foreigners. This has however not been the case with its neighbours. Almost all of them, from the Congo through the Central African Republic to Chad and Nigeria have at one moment or another during the last four decades been embroiled in political and civil unrests which sometimes escalated into open civil wars. This is presently the situation in the Central African Republic, Chad and until very recently south eastern Nigeria (BBC, 2009a; 2009b; 2009c). This directly affects Cameroon's tourism industry because the destination image of the region portrayed in the western media is one of insecurity and political instability which is not counteracted by effective PR campaigns in the target markets on the part of those countries (Cameroon and Gabon) which are not affected by these troubles. In addition some of the country's most interesting biodiversity-rich parks (e.g. Lobéké, Benoué, and Korup NP) are located along the borders with these unstable countries making it sometimes risky to visit them. This is a serious deterrent and impediment to the successful marketing of countries in the sub-region in general as tourist destinations. Political instability in neighbouring countries has thus created a general feeling of insecurity among international tour operators who fear for the safety of their clients with the consequence that countries in the region very rarely feature in popular vacation or destination brochures offered on sale in travel shops or online across Europe and the Americas as the research revealed. Only specialised travel journals did offer trips to some countries of the region.

8.3 Summary and conclusion

Though stable politically and socially, in developing a ST model or framework for Cameroon, measures geared towards developing various aspects of the service infrastructure, developing and improving the quality of services offered by workers in the industry, engaging in active PR and promotional campaigns in the target markets using various channels discussed earlier would have to be taken into consideration. These measures will help in shedding the general negative impression of the country (and region) which has contributed in reducing the country's appeal as an interesting holiday destination to potential visitors. In addition measures (negotiations) aimed at

ending the political disturbances in the sub-region have to be introduced because peace and political stability is a condition *sine qua non* towards attracting not only foreign tourists but also foreign investments in developing the industry. A strategic framework or model for ST development management in Cameroon proposed in the concluding chapter integrates both the core and enabling themes while highlighting some of the tools/techniques that could be used to bridge the various sub-themes and thereby contributing in making Cameroon an attractive destination.

9. Conclusion and implications: Strategic framework for sustainable tourism development management in Cameroon



Introduction

Managing the development of a sustainable nature and cultural tourism industry in a region where knowledge about the importance of the tourism and hospitality industry as a contributor to socio-economic development and biodiversity conservation is limited is full of challenges and contradictions as has been discussed in Chapters Six, Seven and Eight. However, mindful of the opportunities associated with first-mover advantages and the immense opportunities for niche product development, with the right degree of sensitisation, education and training, collaboration, investments, promotion and marketing, all stakeholders stand to gain, especially in Cameroon which has the capabilities of carving out and developing particular niche segments in nature/eco tourism which is increasingly gaining popularity among tourists. This research is the first detailed analysis of the reasons behind the stagnation of tourism development in Cameroon from the perspective of all stakeholders involved, with the goal being to develop a strategic framework for sustainable tourism development management in Cameroon. In this chapter, conclusions from the findings of this research are drawn; the contributions of this study are presented as well as suggestions for further research and a reflection on the entire research process.

9.1. Contributions of this research

The contributions of this research are threefold. These include a theoretical contribution, a methodological contribution (to the study of sustainable tourism development and management in Cameroon in particular and the Central African sub-region in general), and a practical contribution manifested in proposals for destination management, tourism promotion and marketing, project financing, community involvement and stakeholder participation in planning and development as well as education and training. Details of the value of this research are elaborated hereafter in the form of a strategic framework which is proposed for the development and management of a sustainable tourism industry in Cameroon. This framework takes into consideration and emphasises the importance of the following factors which were all found to be lacking in Cameroon's present tourism system but which need to be considered by Cameroon in particular and the other countries in the sub-region if they are to develop their tourism industries in a sustainable manner. These are:

- Inter-sectorial cooperation when drawing plans for tourism development which should always be integrated with national and regional planning.

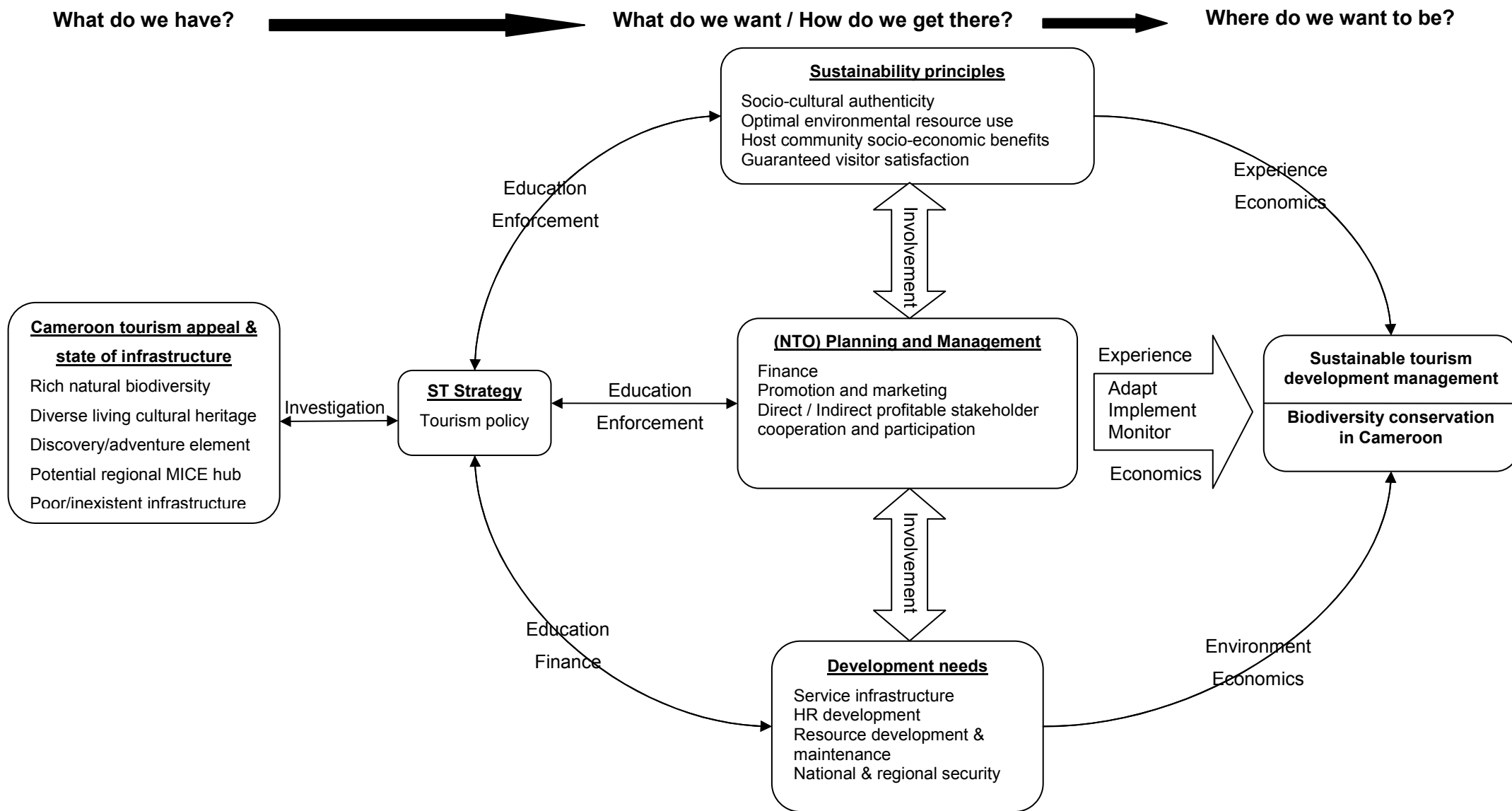
- Improvement of the enabling service infrastructure and adopting measures creating a conducive and investment friendly atmosphere in the tourism sector thereby increasing foreign and private-public-community sector partnerships for tourism development
- Active stakeholder participation and involvement of the local communities in all phases of tourism development and management.
- Increasing the availability and allocation of appropriate resources such as financial, human, products, etc needed for the development of the industry.
- Specialising in niche products that make the country unique and interesting and making sure that product and service innovations are regularly upgraded to keep the destination competitive and sustainable.
- Adopting new promotional and marketing techniques which will increase awareness and knowledge about the uniqueness of the products offered by Cameroon and its image as an exciting and interesting tourist destination in the tourist generating markets.
- Constant education and monitoring of all stakeholders, facilities and sites to maintain quality and competitive edge. In so doing the product's life cycle and the environment will be maintained and sustainable tourism development management can be achieved.

9.1.1 Strategic framework for sustainable tourism development management in Cameroon

In spite of all the opportunities present which if fully and judiciously exploited and well managed could lead to the development and establishment of a flourishing cultural and ecologically sustainable tourism industry in Cameroon, the research revealed that at the moment, tourism development in Cameroon is plagued by a plethora of challenges and contradictions which are in fact hindering its successful development. It is for this reason that research was done to analyse the strength, weaknesses, opportunities, threats and challenges (SWOT), currently confronted by Cameroon's tourism and hospitality industry, as well as lessons from the successes and/or failure of other tourist destinations (countries) which could be adapted to help in formulating an appropriate framework, plans and/or policies for the sustainable development and management of the country's tourism resources. Mindful of the fact that Cameroon's Prime Minister recently (2009) re-echoed the Head of State's position and reaffirmed the importance and need to develop the country's tourism industry not only as an avenue of socio-economic development but also as a means of reducing the

country's economic over-dependence on declining oil revenue, it becomes imperative for effective and practically implementable strategies and a tourism development and management framework to be put in place. Figure 9.1 below is a strategic framework for sustainable tourism development management in Cameroon developed by the researcher after primary and secondary data analysis and theoretical research in Chapters Two - Eight.

Figure 9.1: Strategic framework for sustainable tourism development management in Cameroon



Source: Researcher

According to the Convention on Biological Diversity (2004), sustainable tourism development (and management) involves bringing in stakeholders from different sectors. Thus it is always important for an analysis of all cross-sectorial issues to be done if the sustainability concepts and principles discussed in Chapter Two are to be applied in the management of Cameroon's tourism development. It is for this reason that as can be seen in the first two stages of Figure 9.1, the key themes in the strategic framework are connected by lines with double pointed arrows showing that an integrated approach is necessary when assessing the components needed for sustainable tourism development management in general and in Cameroon in particular, and it is also necessary in the actual implementation phase of tourism development, while the last stage is connected with lines that have but single pointed arrows showing a convergence in the outcomes to be attained. These connecting lines have key words written across them indicating the important actions that need to be undertaken at the different stages in order for this framework to be realisable and the expected outcomes at the last stage to be attained.

As shown on Figure 9.1, the first major step to be undertaken when developing a sustainable tourism industry in Cameroon (and which was one of the main objectives of this research) was to undertake an investigation (inventory) of Cameroon's natural and cultural tourism growth potential as well as the state of its service infrastructure, the results of which are outlined in Chapters Four, Six and Seven

This research was systematically and academically undertaken at the various existing and potential sites with the involvement of all potential stakeholders (or their representatives), as well as making use of secondary data using the methodology and methods described in Chapter Five. Systematic academic research enables the acquisition and understanding of the necessary secondary data i.e. information dealing with park management plans and policies and peculiarities (which were different in the various national parks, reserves and sites in the country), as well as understanding the attitudes of the different communities to tourism development. This enabled the researcher to get a clear picture of the country's appeal and proceed with the next phase of the research and objective which was to examine the contradictions and challenges facing the development of a viable sustainable tourism industry in Cameroon, results of which are discussed in Chapters Six and Seven.

Conducting an in-depth background research on the potential, state of the existing infrastructure, and the socio-economic implications of tourism on the conservation of natural and cultural heritage including environmental protection in Cameroon was thus a very important step in the development of the research because:

- Firstly it provided answers to the two research questions, i.e.

- why there were significant variations in the growth of the tourism industry in different countries in sub-Saharan Africa, and
- why Cameroon and the Central African sub-region were not profiting from the present rapid growth of tourism in sub-Saharan Africa and what could be done to reverse this trend

These questions had arisen after a comparative study of the different sub regions of sub-Saharan Africa and among selected countries from these sub-regions in Chapter Three, and the results had revealed significant disparities in tourism growth between countries in the different sub-regions.

- Secondly it facilitates the drawing up of a tourism policy and other developmental/management plans.

This policy will not only ensure that the mechanisms for the protection of these natural (and cultural) resources are instituted, but will make sure that measures aimed at enhancing the quality of interactions between the tourists, nature and the host communities, as well as developing the appropriate service infrastructure needed are equally guaranteed. Thus the policy has to ensure that the sustainability principles are all embedded therein (Figure 9.1).

In addition a sustainable tourism framework for Cameroon will have to make sure that issues dealing with planning, development and management which arose from the data analysis in Chapter Seven are clearly addressed. The first measure will be to create a National Tourism Office (NTO / DMO) (Chapter Eight) which as can be seen in Figure 9.1 will be at the centre of all actions concerning tourism development in the country. It is this office that will be responsible for executing/managing the national tourism development policy with the active involvement and support of the other stakeholders. In this regard it will handle the second objective of this research i.e. dealing with the identified challenges currently affecting Cameroon's tourism development discussed in Chapters Six and Seven, as well as implementing measures aimed at resolving them by adopting some of the theoretical concepts/models proposed in Chapter Eight. This will be achieved only if the stakeholders concerned are educated and trained for example in new/alternative ways of raising and managing the necessary capital needed for micro-investment and development projects (through '*Njangis/tontines*' which is similar to the Grameen/Village banking model), emphasising the importance of tourism promotion, marketing, and ICT usage, as well as adopting alternative methods which enhance and ensure direct/indirect but profitable stakeholder cooperation and participation ('*two-party*' model) in tourism development and management activities, thereby

making sustainable tourism an economically profitable and attractive industry to the local communities. The NTO will also have to engage in collaborative actions with other ministerial departments, in managing other developmental needs such as improving the service infrastructure, introducing measures aimed at improving the quality of HR in the industry, assist in the development and maintenance of resources, as well as push for the maintenance of national and regional security (Chapter Eight).

The NTO's key mission, as discussed earlier, will thus be to oversee and enforce the implementation of the ST policy. However in order for the NTO to be able to successfully implement the tourism policy as well as other management and monitoring of plans, legislative and other regulatory measures, and voluntary codes of conduct, a lot of sensitisation and education through seminars, capacity building workshops and trainings, etc will have to be done with all the different stakeholders (Figure 9.1). The goal will be to improve their understanding of:

- the whole notion of sustainable tourism and what it entails;
- their natural and cultural environments;
- visitor use and impacts;
- training of competent personnel to work at all levels in the industry.

These were all revealed in Chapters Six and Seven as key issues affecting the industry's development and management in Cameroon. These educational measures if successfully adopted and implemented will go a long way towards promoting financial profitability without destroying or depleting the natural capital and eroding the cultural values of the host communities.

If the third objective of this research, which is to determine how far sustainable development theories and models from other sectors as well as sustainable tourism concepts successfully applied in other countries can be adapted and used in developing and managing the tourism potential of Cameroon as was discussed in Chapter Eight is to be achieved, a lot of commitment and engagement will be required from the public and private sectors in the adaptation and application of these models (Figure 9.1). The private sector as discussed in 7.2.1.5 were not often consulted before major decisions were made, the local communities lacked the necessary start-up capital and often did not show much interest in the industry itself. The research revealed that with the right amount of education and sensitisation, local economic operators and communities, could become more interested in tourism and take up more activities in the sector through the various financing and partnership models proposed in 8.1.2

and 8.1.4 respectively, while the public sector will have to act as a facilitator by implementing investment friendly laws and providing the major services (roads, electricity) which the private sector cannot provide. Both parties will have to make sure that in managing the development of tourism, the principles of sustainability are observed and all the development projects implemented only after actively consulting the stakeholders including local/host communities (representatives) who should be involved in all planning, decision making, and implementation processes.

Mindful of the fact that no two regions/countries are the same, as seen in Figure 9.1, a ST policy will have to be drawn in way that it could be adapted to fit in with the existing park/regional management plans of the different parks and sites in the country as well as with local realities of these regions and sites. Embedded in these plans and framework should be active monitoring mechanisms which will guarantee the observance of the three key principles of sustainable tourism development. The implementation of such a framework with the necessary monitoring and control mechanisms will have practical implications on the field in that it will effectively facilitate the development and management of a tourism industry in Cameroon which will guarantee the conservation of the biological and cultural diversity as well as provide socio-economic benefits to the host communities while guaranteeing optimum visitor satisfaction. It is only through a concerted effort of all stakeholders guided by the NTO that it will be possible to implement all the elements of the framework featured in Figure 9.1 above.

From a methodological perspective, difficulties encountered during field work and during the literature review write-up clearly indicated that for any meaningful academic research on tourism to be successfully carried out in Cameroon and the sub-region, mixed research methods as well as a good amount of time, patience and resilience is needed by the researcher(s). This on the one hand (as explained in Chapter Five) is due to the absence of published academic/scientific research about tourism in the region caused by its non-prioritisation, and on the other hand, as a result of weaknesses within Cameroon's institutional and organisational set-up, lack of resources and infrastructure, poor HR performance not only in Cameroon but by countries in the Central African sub-region in general. It is only by adopting a case study as the research strategy and combining various research methods that it is possible to get the necessary material needed for research of this calibre.

9.2 Research limitations

Considerable efforts were made to minimise errors and bias in this research. However, it still has a few limitations which were difficult to overcome mainly due to theoretical and practical constraints resulting from the low administrative and civil society coverage and importance given to the tourism sector in Cameroon. This means that potential researchers and this research are often faced with a plethora of challenges when conducting research in tourism in the country (and sub-region). The following limitations were encountered in the course of conducting this research:

- Access to some data, sites and some stakeholders was difficult. This was due to inefficiency caused by the lack of investment in (human) resources and infrastructure which led to low standards of book keeping, low administrative coverage, bureaucratic bottlenecks and deficiencies in law and order. The consequence is that administration, businesses and enterprises and the general population are unable to process data well and part with timely and reliable information. Thus the researcher experienced difficulties in finding appropriate published and unpublished information relevant to the study area. As a result he had to employ various qualitative strategies to obtain this data – in-depth semi-structured interviews and field observations to the accessible parks and sites.
- Qualitative data for this research was collected through a combination of convenience sampling, purposive sampling and snowball sampling techniques. Thus the randomness of the sample was low, hence a limitation. In addition, cost limitations, administrative bottlenecks and infrastructural deficiencies meant that even though an amazing amount of data on the topic in question was acquired from the in depth semi-structured interviews and field observations, it concentrated only on Cameroon though the researcher would have wished to expand the research to include other countries in the sub-region. This therefore makes generalisability difficult even though the challenges in the neighbouring countries could be similar.
- Mindful of the fact that qualitative analysis and interpretation are undertaken by humans based on their existing knowledge, thought processes and world view, the inevitability of bias is always present. Thus bias and subjectivity are always an issue owing to the fact that the researcher's understanding,

perspective and knowledge of the research topic could influence the qualitative analysis and interpretation of the data. Nevertheless, efforts were made to ensure that the respondents' opinions were correctly interpreted and reported thereby avoiding any intentional misinterpretations or misrepresentations, and that the spirit of the original raw data was maintained during its reconceptualisation and interpretation.

9.3 Suggestions for future research

Reflections on the whole research process not only revealed the existence of the above mentioned limitations, but it does offer some insight as regards the direction of future research on tourism in Cameroon.

- This research focused entirely on international (overseas) visitors even though a domestic tourism market is gradually starting to develop in Cameroon. As such further research is needed to investigate the state of domestic tourism in Cameroon and the attitudes, expectations, experiences as well as the levels of satisfaction or dissatisfaction of domestic tourists and whether they are similar to or different from those of international tourists. Results obtained from the study will provide information that will make it possible for Cameroon's tourism organisations to establish appropriate development and management policies encompassing both market segments.
- Mindful of the fact that the welfare of local residents is one of the central components of sustainable tourism development management in which they are called upon to play important roles, research will be needed to find out their attitudes and views, their expectations, needs and wants as regards the development of international tourism not only in areas of existing tourism activities as was the case of this research but also in potential tourism development sites. Informed research on this subject is very important for the development of a tourism product that is sustainable from an economic, environmental and socio-cultural perspective.
- An avenue for further research will be to investigate the ways of co-ordinating and improving co-operation between tour operators, hoteliers and the airline sector so as to reduce costs (especially into the country which was considered by tour operators and some visitors to be quite expensive) while

improving quality so that visitor numbers could be boosted and the utilisation of the country's tourism capacity is maximised.

- Considering the fact that the countries of the Central African sub-region share a similar biodiversity and culture, future research could be undertaken to determine how regional collaboration can be promoted so that the tourism industries/products in the sub-region can be themed, twinned and jointly promoted and marketed in the tourist generating regions.

Even though the objectives initially set out at the start of this research were attained and research questions answered, bearing in mind the above limitations and suggestions, it is important to note that while this study will help in filling the present research and policy vacuum on the management and development of sustainable tourism in Cameroon, it should only be seen as a contribution to the start of a continuous process of tourism research in Cameroon and not as an end in itself. Future researchers will be able to use this research as a starting/reference source when conducting research dealing with particular aspects of tourism development in the Central African sub-region in general and Cameroon in particular.

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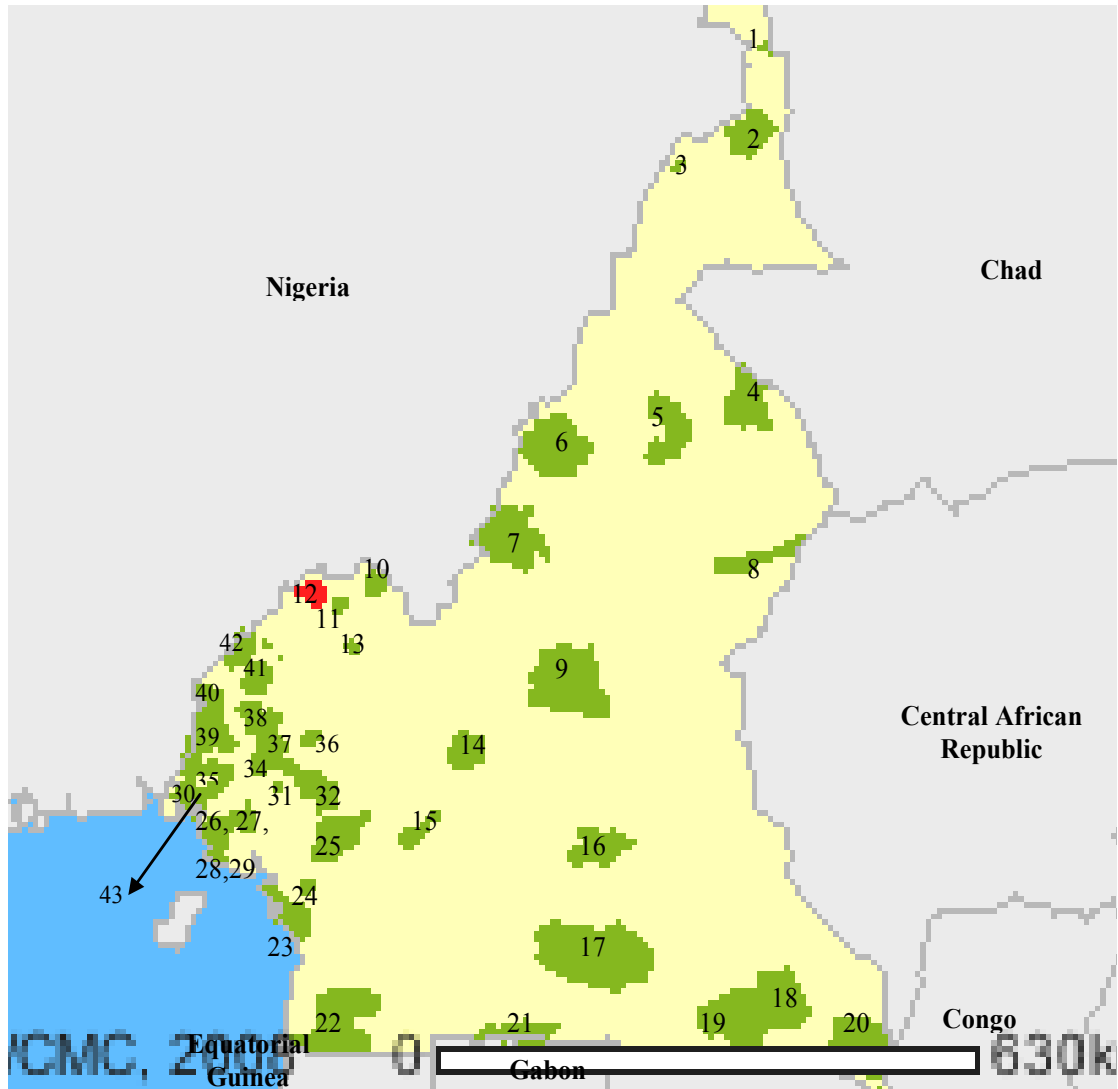
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Appendices

Appendix 4.1a: Map of Cameroon indicating national parks reserves / protected areas



(Source: UNEPWCMC, 2008)

Appendix 4.1b: List of National Parks, Reserves and Protected Areas in Cameroon

| No | Name of Reserve or National Park | No | Name of Reserve or National Park |
|----|--|----|---|
| 1 | Kalamaloue NP | 23 | Douala Edea WR |
| 2 | Waza NP | 24 | Lac Ossa WR |
| 3 | Mozogo – Gokoro NP | 25 | Ebo WR (proposed) |
| 4 | Bouba Ndjida NP | 26 | Babules FR |
| 5 | Benoué NP | 27 | Mokoko River/South Bakundu FR |
| 6 | Faro NP | 28 | Bambuko Forest Reserve/Mekonge Integral Ecological Reserve |
| 7 | Tchabal Mbabo (proposed) | 29 | Etinde WR/ Wo'onge WS (proposed) |
| 8 | Vallée du Mbéré (proposed NP) | 30 | Mangroves de Ndongore NP (proposed) |
| 9 | Mbam et Djerem | 31 | Mount Koupe Integral Ecological Reserve |
| 10 | Mbambe FR | 32 | Mont Nlonako/Makombe WR (Proposed) |
| 11 | Kimbi River WR | 33 | Mount Manengouba NP |
| 12 | Fungom FR | 34 | Bakossi Mountains WR (proposed) |
| 13 | Mount Oku FR/Kilum Ijim Floral Sanctuary | 35 | Rumpi Hills WR |
| 14 | Mpem et Djim (proposed) | 36 | Santchou WR |
| 15 | Bafia Wildlife Reserve (WR) | 37 | Banyang Mbo Wildlife Sanctuary (WS) |
| 16 | Abong-Mbang (WR) | 38 | Nta Ali FR |
| 17 | Dja Wildlife Reserve | 39 | Korup National Park |
| 18 | Boumba Bek NP/WR | 40 | Ejagham FR |
| 19 | Nki NP | 41 | Mawne River FR |
| 20 | (Lac) Lobeke NP/Mongokele WR | 42 | Takamanda FR |
| 21 | Mengame Gorilla Sanctuary | 43 | Mount Cameroon NP (proposed) |
| 22 | Campo-Ma'an NP and Ma'an/ Boucle du Ntem FR | | |

Source: UNEPWCMC, 2008

Appendix 4.1c: Parks, reserves and protected areas in Cameroon with their guiding management conventions, partners and overall goals

| Institutional arrangements for protected area management | | | | | |
|--|----------|-------------|---|--|--|
| National Parks | Approach | Size (ha) | Management category/ Conventions | Institutions involved or Management/ Partners | Programme thrusts or Goals |
| Bénoué | | 166,57 1 | UNESCO-MAB Biosphere Reserve, CITES ²⁹ , IUCN II ³⁰ | MINEP ³¹ , MINFOF ³² , MINTOUR ³³ , WWF ³⁴ , GEF ³⁵ | Improvement of management effectiveness, conservation, curbing illegal poaching through the organisation of refresher courses and training of park rangers (2005), beneficial and sustainable use of resources through community-based common initiative groups, promotion and management of tourism activities (trophy hunting and photo safaris) Approved management plan. |
| Boumba – Bek | | 611,56 9 | IUCN II | MINEP, MINFOF, GEF, WWF | Conservation and the sustainable use of forest resources in the park |

²⁹ Convention on the Trade in Endangered Species; Cameroon is a signatory to this convention and has put in place an action plan for recovery of non certified forestry products. As a result, the trade in endangered species is forbidden in the country and carries a maximum penalty of up 3 years in jail when found guilty of trading or dealing with endangered species and by-products.

³⁰ IUCN Management Category II: Protected areas (national parks and reserves) managed mainly for ecosystem protection and recreation

³¹ Ministry of the Environment and the Protection of Nature

³² Ministry of Forestry and Wildlife

³³ Ministry of Tourism

³⁴ World Wide Fund for Nature

³⁵ Global Environment Forum

| | | | | | |
|--|--|----------------------------|---|---|--|
| | | | | | through integrated community participation |
| Bouba-Njidah Faro | | 203,33 7 341,82 3 | IUCN II IUCN II | MINEP, MINFOF, MINTOUR, WWF | Conservation and protection from poaching and trade in endangered species, promotion of sustainable use of natural park resources through income generating tourism and related activities (Bouba Njida has a park management plan in place) |
| Campo - Ma'an/ Ntem Basin (<i>Boucles du Ntem</i>), (2000) | | 260,44 3 | IUCN II | MINEP, MINFOF, MINTOUR, WWF, FEDEC ³⁶ , DGIS ³⁷ EU ³⁸ . | Global conservation of significant terrestrial and marine ecosystems (especially endangered species and habitats and to check the effects of Chad-Cameroon Pipeline Project) in the area through landscape planning and management for sustainable development, sustainable ecotourism development and management following a approved management plan |
| Korup | | 129,48 1 | Bioresources Development and Conservation Plan (Earth | MINEP, MINFOF, MINTOUR, ODA ³⁹ , GTZ ⁴⁰ , EU and WWF- | Conservation, sustainable development and management of forest resources with environmental education |

³⁶ Foundation for Environment and Development in Cameroon

³⁷ Directorate-General for International Cooperation

³⁸ European Union

³⁹ Official Development Assistance of the UK's Department for International Development (DFID)

⁴⁰ German Fund for Technical Cooperation

| | | | | | |
|---|--|---|--|--|---|
| | | | Summit, 1992), IUCN II | UK | and training, integration into regional development plans; studying the link between conservation of tropical rainforest, commercial development, and human coexistence within the rainforest in accordance with the park management plan |
| Lobéké | | 183,85 5 | IUCN II | MINEP, MINFOF, WWF | Sustainable forest management and biodiversity conservation, improvement of management effectiveness following the management plan |
| Nki, Mbéré Valley Kalamaloué Mozogo-Gokoro | | 293,53 9 94,500 6,696 1,723 | IUCN II IUCN II IUCN II | MINEP, MINFOF, MINTOUR | Faunal conservation, promotion sustainable ecotourism development, protecting the habitat of species like hippos, and buffalos, elephants, and consolidating the network of protected areas in Cameroon |
| Mbam and Djerem (2000) | | 423,47 8 | IUCN II | MINEP, MINFOF, FEDEC | Sustainable forest management and biodiversity conservation, promotion of alternative uses of the forest and forest products other than poaching, illegal logging through sustainable communal activities |
| Waza | | 141,93 9 | UNESCO-MAB Biosphere Reserve (1979), IUCN II | MINEP, MINFOF, MINTOUR, IUCN, WWF | Park conservation, exclude exploitation or occupation inimical to the purposes of designation of the area by providing (training) eco park |

| | | | | | |
|--------------------------------|--|--------|-----------------------|------------------------------|--|
| | | | | | rangers, promotion and management of income generating tourism and related activities e.g. trophy hunting and photo safaris |
| Bakossi Mountains | | 35,800 | IUCN IV ⁴¹ | MINEP, MINFOF, GEF, IDA, WWF | Sustainable forest management and biodiversity conservation, development and management with environmental education and training, integration of the community within the park and the park itself into regional development plans especially ecotourism development and intensive farm land usage through common initiative groups (CBOs) carrying out agro-forestry and organic farming |
| Mount Manengouba (proposed NP) | | 8,740 | | MINEP, MINFOF, WWF | Raising environmental awareness among all age groups, common initiative groups carrying out agro-forestry and organic farming, institution of laws governing sustainable use of forest resources through the creation of Community Based Organisations(CBO) for farming and other activities |
| Mpem et Djim | | 104,13 | | MINEP, | |

⁴¹ IUCN Management Category IV: Protected area (habitat/species conservation reserve/managed nature reserve) managed mainly for conservation through management intervention

| | | | | | |
|--|--|-----------------|--|--|--|
| (proposed) Ngondoré (proposed) | | 8 64,475 | | MINFOF | |
| Wildlife/Faunal/ Floral/Mountain Reserves | | | | | |
| Dja | | 590,05 3 | IUCN IV, UNESCO-MAB Biosphere Reserve Natural World Heritage Site - Criteria ix, x | MINEP, MINFOF, MINTOUR, ECOFAC ⁴² , IUCN, UNESCO, GEF, WWF, WCS, CI ⁴³ , FFEM ⁴⁴ , NPACA ⁴⁵ , CyberTracker Conservation | Implementation and enforcement of management plan adopted in 2006 to combat effects of most especially of poaching, illegal logging, excessive farming through the education and employment of local communities in alternative activities in and within the park, promotion of community assisted ecotourism ventures, regulation of commercial hunting and monitoring of mining operations adjacent to the park. GEF TriDOM Park" project supervised by the WWF and GEF aimed at conservation and the sustainable use of forest resources in the park |
| Boumba-Bek | | 248,74 5 | | MINEP, MINFOF, GEF, WWF | Conservation and the sustainable use of forest resources in the park |

⁴² Program for the Conservation and Rational Utilisation of Forest Ecosystems in Central Africa
(*Programme de Conservation et Utilisation Rationale des Ecosystemes Forestiers en Afrique Centrale*)

⁴³ Conservation International

⁴⁴ French Fund for World Environment

⁴⁵ Network of Protected Areas in Central Africa

| | | | | | |
|--|--|--------------------------------------|---------|---|---|
| | | | | | through integrated community participation |
| Douala – Edéa | | 168,116 | IUCN IV | MINEP, MINFOF, CWCS ⁴⁶ | Protection and conservation of endangered floral and faunal species in both its dry land and marine ecosystem like the forest elephants, chimpanzees and manatees in the reserve, introduction and promotion of ecotourism development |
| Kilum-Ijim Floral Sanctuary (2004) | | 1,000 | | MINEP, MINFOF, UNDP/GEF, GTZ, WWF, BirdLife International, UKDFID ⁴⁷ | Biodiversity conservation, protection of endemic species in their natural habitats, protection of the patches of MINEP, MINFOF mountain forests within the sanctuary, sustainable use of community forests (resources) promote the development of ecotourism, protection of sacred sites within the sanctuary |
| Mount Oku (proposed) | | 4,944 | | MINEP, MINFOF, WWF, | |
| Rumpi Hills ⁴⁸ Mount Nlonako (proposed) Mount Kupe (proposed) Tchabal Mbabo (proposed) | | 45,675 64,124 4,300 316,664 | | MINEP, MINFOF, GEF, IDA, WWF, BirdLife International | sustainable transitional forest management and biodiversity conservation, development and management with environmental education and training, integration of |

⁴⁶ Cameroon Wildlife Conservation Society

⁴⁷ UK Department for International Development

⁴⁸ Rumpi Hills is currently a Forest Reserve but due to extensive logging and deterioration of the flora in the reserve, it is now being proposed as a Wildlife Reserve instead.

| | | | | | |
|---|--|--|---------|---|---|
| | | | | | the community within the park and the park itself into regional development plans (especially ecotourism development and intensive farm land usage) |
| Santchou (1947) | | 9,506 | IUCN IV | MINEP, MINFOF, CARPE ⁴⁹ , USAID, | Reforestation, conservation and management through community participation, introduction of alternative sources of income |
| Takamanda Mone (Mawne) River | | 67,599 45,500 | | MINEP, MINFOF, WWF, GTZ, WCF, FFI ⁵⁰ , NCF ⁵¹ LBZG ⁵² FOREP ⁵³ , CBCS ⁵⁴ , ERuDeF ⁵⁵ , University of Dschang; University of Rostock , CamHerp; Nature Cameroon. | Protection of the Cross River gorillas and other faunal/floral species from extinction through excessive hunting and introduction of other revenue alternatives other than poaching and illegal logging |
| Lake Ossa Bafia Ebo (proposed) Etinde (proposed) Makombe | | 4,539 32,344 143,00 0 18,577 35,549 | IUCN IV | MINEP, MINFOF, WWF | Raising environmental awareness among all age groups, common initiative groups carrying out agro-forestry and organic farming have been initiated, |

⁴⁹ Central African Regional Program for the Environment

⁵⁰ Flora and Fauna International

⁵¹ Nigerian Conservation Fund

⁵² Limbe Botanic Garden

⁵³ Forests, People and Resources

⁵⁴ Cameroon Biodiversity Conservation Society

⁵⁵ Environment and Rural Development Foundation

| | | | | | |
|--|--|---------|---------|---|--|
| (proposed) | | | | | institution of laws governing sustainable land use and use of forest resources by creating and working in CBOs |
| | | | | | |
| Wildlife Sanctuaries | | | | | |
| Banyang – Mbo | | 69,145 | IUCN IV | MINEP, MINFOF, WCS ⁵⁶ , LAGA ⁵⁷ | assisting in elephant conservation, development of a strategy to fight against poachers, integration of the local communities in the fight against elephant poaching by introducing alternatives to poaching like acting as guards for ecotourism |
| Mengame Gorilla Sanctuary | | 121,807 | | MINFOF, ITTO ⁵⁸ , WWF's (CARPO ⁵⁹) | promote trans-boundary conservation of the lowland gorilla within two protected areas—Mengame in Cameroon and Minkebe in Gabon and initiate development of alternative uses of forest resources by communities living within and around the reserves |
| | | | | | |
| Forest Reserves and other Protected Areas | | | | | |
| Mokoko River | | 9,447 | | MINEP, | Overall aim is the |

⁵⁶ Wildlife Conservation Society

⁵⁷ Last Great Ape Organisation Cameroon (Wildlife Law Enforcement Agency). It should be noted that the MINFOF works together with LAGA to arrest and prosecute all those dealing in the illegal trade in endangered species

⁵⁸ International Tropical Timber Organization

⁵⁹ Central Africa Regional Programme Office

| | | | | | |
|--|--|-------------------------------------|--|-------------------------------|---|
| (1952) Bambuko Mbambe Fungom Kimb (1964) | | 24,151 28,575 33,277 5,162 | IUCN IV | MINFOF | biodiversity species protection and conservation but there is no government management plan in place |
| Nta Ali, Ejagham South Bakundu | | 30,715 81,146 18,824 | | MINEP, MINFOF, WWF | Reserve protection, development and management with environmental education and training, integration of the reserves into regional development plans |
| Abong-Mbang Babules Wo'ong River | | 7,474 | | MINEP, MINFOF | Protection and conservation of endangered species especially the forest elephants and gorillas |
| Waza-Logone Floodplain (Lake Chad) River Sangha (Cameroonian side) Barombi Mbo Crater Lake | | 600,000 6,200 415 | RAMSAR ⁶⁰ wetlands of international importance | MINEP, MINFOF, GEF, IDA | sustainable floral and faunal management and biodiversity conservation |

Sources: DFAP-MINFOF, 2006; World Bank; 2005; UNEP, 2008.

Appendix 4.2: Evolution of the added value of tourism and share of tourism in the Cameroonian economy from 1996-2005 (in XAFBn⁶¹)

| Year Aggregate | 1996 | 1997 | 1998 | 1999 | 2000 | 2001 | 2002 | 2003 | 2004 | 2005 |
|-------------------|-------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| Added value of | 99,66 | 121,32 | 130,02 | 130,17 | 146,84 | 147,02 | 142,64 | 179,62 | 174,89 | 192,18 |

⁶⁰ It should be noted that Cameroon is a signatory of the RAMSAR Convention on the protection of humid zones as well as the Convention on the protection of biological diversity which covers wetlands of international importance as well as the national parks, reserves and other protected areas in the country.

⁶¹ 1 XAF = 0.00207644 USD

| | | | | | | | | | | |
|-----------------------------------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| Tourism | | | | | | | | | | |
| GDP | 4004,80 | 4529,32 | 4883,83 | 5324,76 | 5797,92 | 6170,61 | 6612,39 | 7061,44 | 7583,08 | 7916,96 |
| % Share of tourism in the economy | 2,49 | 2,68 | 2,66 | 2,44 | 2,53 | 2,38 | 2,16 | 2,46 | 2,31 | 2,43 |

Source: MINTOUR, 2007

Appendix 4.3: Past and present airlines flying into and out of Cameroon

| Airlines | Flights/week 1995 | Flights/week 2008 | Observations |
|------------------------------|----------------------|----------------------|--|
| Air France | 4 | 7 | Intercontinental with daily flights |
| Afriqiya Airways | 0 | 4 | Intercontinental with flights on Monday, Tuesday, Friday and Sunday via Tripoli |
| Ethiopian Airlines | 0 | 5 | Intercontinental with flights on Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, Friday and Saturday via Addis Ababa |
| Kenya Airways | 0 | 7 | Daily intercontinental with flights via Nairobi |
| SN Brussels Airlines | 0 | 5 | Intercontinental with flights on Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, Friday and Saturday |
| Swiss International Airlines | 0 | 3 | Intercontinental with flights on Tuesday, Fridays and Sundays |
| Royal Air Maroc | 0 | 7 | Daily intercontinental flights via Casablanca |

| | | | |
|----------------------------|---|---|---|
| Virgin Nigeria Airways | 0 | 3 | Regional flights on Monday, Wednesday and Friday |
| Bellview Airlines | 0 | 3 | Inter African flights on Monday, Tuesday and Saturday |
| Toumai Air Chad | 0 | 4 | Inter African flights |
| Air Ivoire | 0 | 2 | Inter African flights |
| Compagnie Aerienne du Mali | 0 | 4 | Regional flights |
| Elysian Airlines | 0 | 4 | National flights |
| National Airlines Cameroon | 0 | 3 | National and inter regional flights |
| Benin Golf Air | 0 | 2 | Regional flights on Tuesday and Friday |
| Air Leasing | 0 | 6 | National flights |
| Air Service | 0 | 7 | Sub-regional daily flights to Gabon and Chad |
| Trans Air Congo | 0 | 2 | Sub-regional flights to/from Congo on Monday and Friday |
| Inter Air | 0 | 1 | Weekly flight from Douala to Libreville and Cotonou |
| | | | |
| Cameroon Airlines | 4 | 0 | Liquidated |
| Air Afrique | 4 | 0 | Liquidated |
| Swiss Air | 3 | 0 | Liquidated |

Source: Cameroon Airlines Guide, 2009

Participant Information: Tourist Satisfaction Survey

Hello, my name is Albert Kimbu and I am a postgraduate researcher carrying out research in sustainable tourism development management. This research involves investigating the management and development of tourism in sub-Saharan Africa with particular emphasis on Cameroon's tourism industry. It is also examining the socio-cultural and economic challenges which might be encountered in the event of tourism development in the country. You will therefore be asked to answer some questions relating to your stay in Cameroon which directly relates to this study. Filling out this questionnaire will take about 15 minutes of your time.

Data collected from this questionnaire will be confidential and anonymous. This questionnaire will be coded and anonymised. Your participation in this exercise is entirely voluntary and you have the right to stop at any time and for any reason (though one need not be specified).

If in filling out of the questionnaire, you have any queries regarding our questions, please do not hesitate to ask. If you have any questions regarding the nature of the research please feel free to ask them at the end of the exercise.

I can also be contacted via email at: Albert.kimbu@ntu.ac.uk

Tourist (Customer) Satisfaction Survey Questionnaire

Case Number

| | | |
|--|--|--|
| | | |
|--|--|--|

The questionnaire is designed to find out a few things about you and of your (stay) holidays in Cameroon. There are no right or wrong answers.

Reason for visit

1. What was the primary purpose of your visit to Cameroon?

Please tick the relevant box

- Holiday
- Visit friends and relatives
- Business / professional
- Attend conference/convention
- Study tour
- Combined business/pleasure
- Shopping (carvings and textiles)
- Other (Please specify) _____

2. What were the major considerations in selecting Cameroon for your visit?

Rate by order of importance by ticking the relevant boxes

(1 = Very important, 2 = Fairly important, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Not so important, 5 = Not at all important)

| Statements | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 2a- Unique wildlife attractions | | | | | |
| 2b- Cultural richness and diversity | | | | | |
| 2c- Unspoilt / clean tropical beaches | | | | | |
| 2d- Pleasant climate | | | | | |
| 2e- Scenic beauty | | | | | |
| 2f- Friendliness of the people | | | | | |
| 2g- Business / conference opportunities | | | | | |
| 2h- Price of tour package offered | | | | | |

| | | | | | |
|--------------------------------|--|--|--|--|--|
| 2i- Recommendation from others | | | | | |
| 2j- Others (Please specify): | | | | | |

3. What type of trip did you undertake?

Tick the relevant box(es)

(1 = Yes, 2 = No)

| Statements | 1 | 2 |
|--------------------------------------|---|---|
| 3a- Photographic nature based safari | | |
| 3b- Trophy/wild game hunting | | |
| 3c- Beach holidays | | |
| 3d- Cultural tour | | |
| 3e- Sports holidays | | |
| 3f- Others (please specify): | | |

Type of accommodation

4. Where were you lodging?

Please tick the relevant box

- Five/four star hotel
- Three/ two star hotel
- One star hotel
- Guest house or hostel
- Campsite
- Staying with friends and relatives
- Other (Please specify) _____

5. What was the duration of your trip?

Please tick the relevant box

- 1 day
- 2-3 days
- 4-7 days
- 8-14 days
- 15-21 days

22 days and more

Mode/Cost of travel

6. Did you travel in?

Please tick the relevant box

An all inclusive tour package

Individual travel arrangements

Other (Please specify) _____

7. If you travelled in a packaged tour, which services were included in this tour?

Tick one or more boxes

(1 = Yes, 2 = No)

| Statements | 1 | 2 |
|---|---|---|
| 7a- Return ticket | | |
| 7b- Accommodation | | |
| 7c- Car rental | | |
| 7d- Meals in restaurant | | |
| 7e- Entry tickets into parks museum and other attractions | | |
| 7f- Local tour guides (transportation) | | |
| 7g- Others (please specify): | | |

8. What type of transportation did you use to travel within the country during your trip?

Tick one or more boxes

(1 = Yes, 2 = No)

| Statements | 1 | 2 |
|------------------------------|---|---|
| 8a- Airline | | |
| 8b- Train | | |
| 8c- Motor coach tour | | |
| 8d- Rented car | | |
| 8e- Private car | | |
| 8f- Pick-up/Van | | |
| 8g- Others (please specify): | | |

9. Did you travel in a group?

Please tick the relevant box

- Yes
- No

If no, proceed to question 11.

10. If yes, what was the size of the group in which you travelled

Please tick the relevant box

- 2 - 6 persons
- 7 - 12 persons
- 13 – 18 persons
- 19 and above

11. How much do you estimate you spent on this trip in total (including travel expenses from your home meals/lodging/local transportation/purchases/etc)?

Total _____ or daily _____

Please state in your home currency

Interactions with local residents

12. What was your general impression of the people?

Please tick the relevant box

- Very friendly and hospitable
- Friendly and hospitable
- Neutral
- Not so friendly and hospitable
- Very unfriendly and not hospitable
- Don't Know

*

13. What was the most interesting aspect of the trip?

Please rate the following by ticking the relevant box

(1 = Excellent, 2 = Good, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Poor, 5 = Very poor)

| Statements | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 13a- Wildlife | | | | | |
| 13b- Cultural attractions | | | | | |
| 13c- Interaction with the local inhabitants (people) | | | | | |
| 13d- Beaches | | | | | |
| 13e- Weather | | | | | |
| 13f- Food | | | | | |
| 13g- Shopping opportunities | | | | | |
| 13h- Sporting opportunities | | | | | |
| 13i- Business opportunities | | | | | |
| 13j- Others (Please specify): | | | | | |

Level of satisfaction

14a. How did you find the trip?

Please tick the relevant box

- Very satisfying
- Quite satisfying
- Neither satisfying nor dissatisfying
- Somewhat dissatisfying
- Very dissatisfying
- Don't know

14b. Please briefly state your reasons if you were not satisfied with the trip

14c. Please briefly state your reasons if you were satisfied with the trip

15. How would you describe the general organisation of the trip?

Rate by ticking the relevant box

- | | |
|-----------|--------------------------|
| Excellent | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Good | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Neutral | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Poor | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Very poor | <input type="checkbox"/> |

16. What aspects of your trip in your opinion need to be improved?

Please rate the following by ticking the relevant boxes

(1 = Excellent, 2 = Good, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Poor, 5 = Very poor)

| Statements | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 16a- Visitor attractions | | | | | |
| 16b- Transportation infrastructure and services | | | | | |
| 16c- Reception/treatment of guests | | | | | |
| 16d- Hotel/Room quality | | | | | |
| 16e- Food and catering services | | | | | |
| 16f- Interpretation services/tour guides | | | | | |
| 16g- Publicity | | | | | |
| 16h- Others (Please specify): | | | | | |

17. What was your impression of each of the following?

Please rate the following by ticking the relevant boxes

(1 = Excellent, 2 = Good, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Poor, 5 = Very poor, 6 = not used/relevant)

| Statements | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 17a- Cost of transport | | | | | | |
| 17b- Cost of food | | | | | | |
| 17c- Controls by immigration officials and police | | | | | | |
| 17d- State of the roads | | | | | | |
| 17e- Planning and organisation of the trip by the organisers | | | | | | |
| 17f- Quality of accommodation infrastructure | | | | | | |
| 17g- Quality of attractions | | | | | | |

18. What were the most annoying aspects of your trip?

Please rate the following by ticking the relevant boxes

(1 = Excellent, 2 = Good, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Poor, 5 = Very poor, 6 = not used/irrelevant)

| Statements | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 18a- Hustling from beggars | | | | | | |
| 18b- Hustling from people trying to sell goods to you | | | | | | |
| 18c- Hustling from thieves and people trying to cheat you | | | | | | |
| 18d- Weather | | | | | | |
| 18e- Roads | | | | | | |
| 18f- Health services | | | | | | |
| 18g- Food quality | | | | | | |
| 18h- Hospitality service in hotels/accommodation establishments | | | | | | |
| 18i- Reception and treatment at embassies and consular services | | | | | | |
| 18j- Other (Please specify): | | | | | | |

19. Will you visit Cameroon again?

Please tick the relevant box

- Definitely yes
- Probably yes
- Probably no
- Definitely no

Marketing and publicity

20. Where did you learn about Cameroon and this tour?

Please tick the relevant box

- From a friend/acquaintance
- From the internet
- From a travel shop
- From a travel marketing journal/vacation guide
- From the Cameroonian embassy
- Other (please specify) _____

21. Could you please rate the quality of the source from which you learnt about the trip?

Please rate the following by ticking the relevant boxes

(1 = Excellent, 2 = Good, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Poor, 5 = Very poor)

| Statements | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 21a- Content of the information you wanted | | | | | |
| 21b- Ease and simplicity of use | | | | | |
| 21c- Interesting and educative | | | | | |
| 21d- Formatting and colourful presentation | | | | | |

22a. Was any information lacking from the sources you used?

Yes

No

22b. If yes, what was lacking? _____

23. How did you plan and book your travel itinerary?

Please tick the relevant box

Through a travel agent

I / We planned and booked the trip on our own

I / We planned and booked the trip with the help of friends/relatives

I / We received some information from our travel agent but booked the trip on our own

Others (Please specify) _____

24. Will you recommend this trip to a friend?

Please tick the relevant box

Definitely yes

Probably yes

Probably no

Definitely no

25. Do you have any comment(s) regarding the quality and content of the source from where you booked the trip? _____

26. Do you have any comments regarding the welcome / information centres (meet and greet) in the places you visited? _____

Conservation and sustainable tourism

Conservation and management of the natural and cultural biodiversity is very important but costs money. However, if it is well done, it can lead to the sustainable use of tourism resources and provide socioeconomic benefits to the host communities not only for the present but also for future generations.

27. Are you willing to pay a small conservation fee (green tax) in the form of increased entrance fees which will be used to finance conservation projects such as reforestation, eco guard training at sites you visited?

Please tick the relevant box

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|--------------------------|
| Yes | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Yes depending on the amount | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Yes if I can be sure of its usage | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| No | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Don't know | <input type="checkbox"/> |

If yes:

How much extra will you be prepared to pay?

Euro (€): _____ **US Dollar (\$):** _____ **Franc (XAF)** _____,

Others, please state the denomination _____

If no:

Please state why _____

Socio-demographic Data

Gender of respondent

Are you?

Please tick the relevant box

Male

Female

Age of respondent

To which age group do you belong?

Please tick the relevant box

18-29

30-39

40-49

50-59

60-69

70 and above

Marital status

Are you?

Please tick the relevant box

Married

Living with a partner

Single

Divorced / separated after wedding

Widowed

Nationality

Where do you come from?

Please tick the relevant box

- Sub-Saharan Africa
- North Africa and the Middle East
- Western Europe
- Eastern Europe
- Asia
- North America
- Others

Profession

To which professional group do you belong?

Please tick the relevant box

- Managerial and professional occupations
- Intermediate non-manual occupations
- Junior non-manual
- Supervisor / skilled manual
- Semi-skilled / personal services
- Unskilled manual
- Inadequately described / not stated (Please specify) _____

How much do you spend a year on vacations (Please state the amount in your home currency and the type of denomination)? _____

Do you have any other comments you would like to add?

Thank you for taking time to help me with this survey.

5.2a: Interview / Discussion guidelines - Tourism Ministry Professionals

1. Preliminaries

- Job title
- Role/functions

How long have you been in the job?

- Generally speaking, how would you describe the current state of the Cameroonian tourism industry?
- Cameroon's tourism industry seems to be in a state of crisis. The number of international arrivals and overnight stays has been steadily declining in the last 7 years in spite of the fact that sub-Saharan Africa has been experiencing the fastest growth in tourism. In your opinion, is there a crisis in the industry?

If yes:

- What are the types of crises facing the Cameroonian tourism industry?
- What plans and strategies are being devised and implemented to manage and overcome these crises?

2. Organisational culture/structure

How is the Ministry of Tourism organised (departments and sub departments)?

What are the principal roles and responsibilities of the various departments in the development of Cameroon's tourism industry?

How are these departments interrelated and is the relationship functional?

3. Inter-ministerial and international cooperation

What is the relationship between the Ministry of Tourism (MINTOUR) and

- Ministry of Culture (MINCULT)
- Ministry of Environment and Nature Protection (MINEP)
- Ministry of Ministry of Forestry and Fauna (MINFOF)
- Ministry of Transport (MINTRANS)

Are there clear boundaries between the various ministerial responsibilities with regards to?

- Tourism development management;
- Decision making;
- Devising and implementing solutions to problems

Considering the fact that all these ministries have something to do with tourism, is there an overlapping of responsibilities and conflicts of interest between them?

What is the relationship between Cameroon and other international bodies responsible for tourism development and management?

- World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO)
- United Nations Environmental Programme (UNEP)
- World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC)
- Africa Travel Association (ATA)

How does Cameroon's tourism industry benefit from these relationships?

Tourism Satellite Accounting (TSAs) are a very important tool for managing and measuring the level of tourism growth/decline and its contribution in real terms to national economies. Many countries with the support of the UNWTO have adopted this system.

- What is the actual situation of implementing TSAs in Cameroon?
- When will it be implemented if it is not yet being implemented?

4. Marketing and branding

- Marketing and branding are key elements in destination marketing and are partly responsible for the successful growth of the tourist industry in many destinations like the Gambia, Seychelles, Mauritius, Botswana, Tanzania, etc which when mentioned automatically conjure particular images to peoples mind.. Cameroon virtually has no brand name in the international tourism scene. Is anything been done by the MINTOUR to change this situation?

If yes:

- What exactly is being done?

If no:

- Why is nothing being done to create a particular brand for the country as has been done in other countries like Gambia, Tanzania, Kenya?
- What is presently being done Ministry of Tourism in this regard i.e. to create a name (branding) and market the country as an attractive tourism destination?
- When was the Cameroon Tourism Office in Paris created and what was its role in marketing Cameroon as tourist destination?
- What were the reasons for its dissolution?
- How come it that after its dissolution, it still maintains and outdated web page with very old and misleading information about the country?

What are the functions and the role of the 2005 created *Conseil National du Tourisme (National Tourism Council)* in Cameroon's tourism development?

How successful has it been so far marketing Cameroon as tourist destination?

Advertisements, tourism fairs, information, and trade shows/workshops are some of the main means used by countries, organisations and TNCs in marketing and publicising the tourism potentials of various destinations.

- Why is Cameroon hardly ever present in any of these events?
- Are there plans for future participation?

What is the budget of the national tourism organisation (*Conseil National du Tourisme*)?

How (i.e. what proportion or percentage) it is spent on various marketing tools:

- Advertisements
- Tourism fairs
- Information
- Trade shows/workshops

Could you please explain how and with what justification is the budget (if any) allocated to the promotion of the following?

- Hunting and nature based photo safaris
- Cultural tourism,
- Sun and sea,

- Active tourism/sports,
- Countryside/rural tourism/mountain tourism,
- Sustainable/Ecotourism,
- MICE and events, etc

Destination image surveys are important tools in getting a clear picture of the images that a destination conjures in the minds of potential visitors.

Has a survey ever been carried out to determine the destination image of Cameroon?

If yes:

- What were the results?

If no:

- Why have such surveys never been carried out and are any being planned?

Cameroon is the most stable and relatively democratic country when compared to other countries in the central African sub-region.

- What in your opinion is the best marketing approach that can be developed to send this message to international tourists?
- How can policy makers successfully develop Cameroon's tourism industry with the existence of the unstable political situation in the central African sub-region?
- Domestic tourism is rarely mentioned in Cameroon. Are there any plans by the government to encourage domestic tourism?

5. Sustainable development of tourism

Over the last decade most governments have come to recognise - or at least pay lip service to - the need for a sustainable tourism.

What is the Cameroon government actually doing to promote the sustainable development of tourism in the country?

Do you feel there is a commensurate rise in new sustainable tourism ventures and sensitivity among local inhabitants, or is sustainable tourism still the domain of politicians, academics and consultants?

Sustainable tourism demands the protection, justifiable and commensurate use of natural resources so that future generations are not left out. However the tendency is that conflicts always arise on how to use and manage these natural resources.

What is the government doing to practically guarantee the justifiable exploitation of these resources which include:

- forest products and destruction of flora and fauna by logging firms
- Avoiding the handing out logging concessions near reserves
- Poaching and the illegal trade in wildlife species which are necessary if eco tourism is to be developed

The eradication of extreme poverty is at the heart of the Millennium Development Goals. Sustainable development of tourism actually focuses on precisely that. How successful has (sustainable) tourism development helped in alleviating the socio-economic situation of the communities in which ST operations are carried out in Cameroon?

What is the relationship between the MINTOUR and other stakeholders?

- Tour operators
- Local communities
- Local NGOs

How is this relationship organised and functions?

- Participatory
- Hands down
- Bottom up approach

Considering the fact that a good number of tourism operations are owned and operated by foreign tour operators in the country; how far and with what incentives are local inhabitants encouraged and empowered to open up SME tourism operations in the country keeping in line with sustainable tourism development principles?

Cameroon has always been described as Africa in miniature due to its topographical, cultural and geographical biodiversity.

- What plans are there for the cultural promotion of Cameroon? E.g. introduction of annual /biannual cultural festivals by various *fondoms/lamidats/sultanates* etc into national calendar

If Cameroon is known by many foreigners today, it is because of football (sports). Apart from the annual Mount Cameroon Race of Hope, no other sports event draws tourists into the country.

- What measures if any are being undertaken by the government at promoting sports tourism (water sports, mountaineering and trekking, football) in the country?

6. Tourism legislation and policies

Is there any particular legal framework guiding the operation of the tourism industry in Cameroon?

If yes:

- Which?
- Why are they important?
- How stringently are they applied and respected by stakeholders in the industry?
- What are the risks/penalties involved if these laws are not respected?

Various ministries have a connection with the tourism industry.

Is there no conflict of interest in the implementation of the various tourism laws and policies with other ministries (MINEP, MINFOF)?

7. ICT and its usage

ICT has become a very important tool in tourism operations, marketing and research. More than 40% of tourism operations are conducted online nowadays and it's the first source of information about destinations. The Ministry of Tourism just like many other ministries has no functional web page; the national tourism organisation also has none. Information about tourism in Cameroon is virtually inexistent in print and electronic media

Why is this the case?

What is being done by the Ministry of tourism to make ICT a reality in Cameroon's tourism industry from the government's view point in terms of:

- Tourism marketing and transactions
- eDatabase creation for researchers
- General up-to-date information about Cameroon in general and its tourism resources in particular for potential visitors

8. Accommodation and transport infrastructure

Tourists visit a destination when they are sure of the availability of some basic necessities like accommodation, transport and health services.

The accommodation industry in Cameroon is not very well organised and Cameroon officially has only two 5 star hotels.

- Could you please explain the measures being done to reclassify the hotels in the country taking into consideration the fact that the last reclassification was done about 20 years ago?
- Which measures are being taken to curb the spread of illegally constructed and non-licensed hotel/inn operators which have sprung up haphazardly all over the country in the last two decades?
- There have been complaints about long delays in obtaining permits/licences to construct and operate hotels and other accommodation and hospitality establishments with delays of up to 5 years experienced.
 - What is the ministry of Tourism doing to solve this situation?
- Why is air transport very expensive into and within Cameroon when compared to other African countries in spite of the high volume of passenger traffic?
- What measures have been undertaken and are planned for the future to reduce these high transport costs and lure tourists into the country?
- Is the government prepared to accept charter flights for tourism growth?
- With many smaller regional airports located around the country, is the government thinking of using these as a means to transport people to the enclaved areas?
- Low-cost airlines are springing up through out the world and are a major stimulant for growth in the tourism and travel industry. What is the government doing to ensure that some of them invest and start operations in the country?
- Some African countries like Kenya have recently signed Open-Skies Agreements with other countries. Under the agreement, airlines, not governments, decide which cities to serve, the frequency of flights, the

equipment used, and the prices charged. This is expected to strengthen and expand trade and tourism links between the signature countries and provide benefits to carriers and the travelling public, while preserving commitment to aviation safety and security.

- Why has Cameroon not signed such agreements which have been proven to boost tourism?
- Is the government planning to do anything in this vain?

If no:

- Why not
- What is government doing to disenclave unreachable areas especially taking into consideration the fact that most potential sustainable ecotourism development t sites are located in these areas?
- What is being done to upgrade the marauding rail line which is the cheapest way to travel to the north of the country which is the haven of photographic nature safaris but is virtually accessible only by train and air?

5.2b: Interview / Discussion guideline – Cultural affairs managers/representatives

1. Preliminaries

Can you tell me a little bit about?

- Yourself
- Role/duties
- Job (title)

How long have you been in charge of this organisation?

Are you accountable to anybody?

2. Description of community/organisational structure

Can you please tell me a little bit about your community?

- When was it founded?
- Significant events which have taken place in the community

How is the society organised?

- In terms of hierarchy
- Roles of the various groups (adults, youth; male and female)

How many important annual festivals are celebrated in your village and during what periods of the year are they celebrated?

Could please tell us the significance and importance of these festivals to the community?

Among those you have named, which is the most important?

Why is this particular festival the most important?

Could briefly describe its organisation?

Which festivities actually take place on the days that these festivals are celebrated?

3. Tolerance levels and culture clashes

Since you began organising these cultural festivals, has it attracted a significant foreign audience apart from the indigenes of the region who live out of the village?

Are these festivals meant only for the natives of the village or are foreigners allowed to participate or see the displays that take place during the festivals?

If yes:

- So far have there been any foreign visitors (tourists) who came to the village purposely to observe these festivals?
- Since when did tourist begin visiting and how has the attendance been since the arrival of the first tourists? (Have the number of tourists been increasing over the past years?)
- Where did they come from (regions or countries)?
- Did you or any of your colleagues ever have a chance of speaking with the tourists?
- Do you think they enjoyed the festival?
- What was your impression of them?
- Is this a view shared by many of your fellow villagers or is this your personal opinion?

If no:

- For which festivals are foreign guests not allowed?
- Why are they not allowed?

Do you have any idea of the duration normally spent by the tourists in the town? Do they overnight or are they just day visitors?

Interactions between people of different cultures could sometimes lead to clashes. Have there so far been any instances of conflicts between the guests and the visitors?

If yes, could you please tell me:

- What the cause(s) of these clashes where?
- How where they settled?
- What is the community doing to ensure that such clashes no longer occur?

Economy and Finance

Has the arrival of tourists brought any significant changes to the local economy?

If yes:

- Could you please tell me what type of changes this has brought?
 - Are there families who live entirely from tourism and related activities
- Is it the whole community profiting from these change or is it just a few people?

If no:

- Could you please tell me why nothing has been done to promote activities (such as retailing, catering, arts and craft markets) that could be of interest to the tourists and at the same time be beneficial to the local communities?

4. Marketing and publicity

Many communities in other developing countries use cultural festivals as a means of drawing guests to their regions and these visitors bring in additional income by spending in the communities.

- Have you ever thought of using this festival as a means of attracting more visitors to your communities?

If yes:

- What has the community or your group actively done to promote the festival and the village abroad?

If no:

- Could you please explain to me the reasons why the community does not want to do any publicity for these festivals?

It has been observed in some communities that the villagers pretend to recreate scenes and actions as if they were original ('staged authenticity') to satisfy customer demand.

- Have you experienced any of this so far
- Are you not worried that the influx of many tourists might disrupt some of your traditional habits and systems?

5. Interaction with Government/NGOs

The Ministry of Culture recently started a drive and awareness campaign to rejuvenate cultural festivals throughout the various tribes in the country some of which had been abandoned. The goal is not only to preserve our rich and diverse living cultural heritage but to stimulate and promote the growth of the cultural tourism in Cameroon as well.

- Could you please tell me the nature of the relationship between your cultural association (organisation) and the Ministry of Culture?

- Do you receive any support from NGOs or the government?
 - If yes: what kind of support?
 - If no: Have you ever contacted any body to assist in popularising the region and festivity?

Is there anything else you would like to add?

Thank you for taking time to discuss with me.

5.2c: Interview / Discussion guideline – Park/Reserve conservators

1. Preliminaries

- Job title
- Role/functions

How long have you been in the job?

Generally speaking, how would you describe the current state of the Cameroon's parks and reserves?

Can you tell me a little bit about this park/reserve?

2. Organisation and training

How many guards presently work in this park?

What are their responsibilities?

Is this number enough to patrol the whole park?

If no:

- How many guards are normally required to effectively patrol the park?
- Why are there not enough guards?
- What type of training do guards undergo before being qualified to work in parks?

3. Legislation, policies and law enforcement

Which principal legal frameworks guide the operations of the Ministry forest and fauna and govern your operations in this park?

- Why are they important?
- How stringently are these laws enforced or applied and respected by stakeholders in the industry and to what effect?
- What are the risks/penalties involved if these laws are not respected?
- What are the consequences if they are broken?
- Is the manpower and equipment at your disposal enough to effectively oversee the implementation and respect of the laws and by various stakeholders?

Problems and conflict management

- What are the major problems usually encountered in the execution of your daily responsibilities?

- How do you solve these problems?
- What is the general perception of the local communities to your presence in the area?

Some villagers like in Ngoyla in the East Province have complained that the designation of the TriDOM park project has made their lives miserable and they are now at daggers drawn with forest guards and other responsible authorities.

- Can you tell me more about this?
- What concrete measures have been put in place to offer alternative opportunities to local inhabitants?
- How effective in your opinion are these measures?
- So far what is the reaction of local communities when policies which forbid them from harvesting forest products are implemented?
- Have they been offered any compensation for the loss of their use for forest

Many forest communities complain that they do not benefit or receive any royalties from forest exploitation companies in spite of the fact that they are entitled to (50% state, 40% council) 10% of royalties?

- What is your ministry doing towards solving this issue
- How can better management of this royalties be ensured

4. Inter-departmental and international cooperation

Various ministries (MINTOUR and MINEP have a direct connection with your ministry and

mindful of the fact that the management of parks and reserves frequented by tourists falls under your jurisdiction;

What is the relationship between MINFOF and

- Ministry of Tourism (MINTOUR)
- Ministry of Environment and Nature Protection (MINEP)
- Ministry of Transport (MINTRANS)

Are there clear boundaries between the various ministerial responsibilities with regards to?

- Tourism development management in and around national parks and reserves;
- Decision making;

- Devising and implementing solutions to problems related to the various ministries

Considering the fact that all these ministries have something to do with tourism, environmental and nature conservation;

- Is there an overlapping of responsibilities and conflicts of interest in the implementation of the various laws and policies with other ministries (MINEP, MINTOUR)?

What is the relationship between Cameroon/ this park and other international bodies responsible for nature conservation and sustainable management of forest resources?

- United Nations Environmental Programme (UNEP)
- World Wide Fund for Nature (WWF)
- German Technical Cooperation Mission (GTZ)
- UK Department for International Development (DFID)
- Global Environment Facility (GEF)
- TRIDOM 2005 (Dja and Boumba-Bek National Parks in Cameroon and the Odzala and Minkebe National Parks in Congo and Gabon)

What have been some of the positive effects of these relationships to the various stakeholders?

- Government
- International organisations
- Local communities

5. Sustainable development and tourism

Over the last decade most governments have come to recognise - or at least pay lip service to - the need for a sustainable tourism.

What is the Cameroon government actually doing to promote the sustainable development in and around the national parks and reserves of Cameroon?

Do you feel there is a commensurate rise in new sustainable tourism ventures and sensitivity among local inhabitants in general (and in this park in particular), or is sustainable tourism still the domain of politicians, academics and consultants?

Sustainable tourism development demands the protection, justifiable and commensurate use of natural resources so that future generations are not left out.

However the tendency is that conflicts always arise on how to use and manage these natural resources.

What is the government doing to practically guarantee the justifiable exploitation of these resources which include:

- forest products and destruction of flora and fauna by logging firms
- Avoiding the handing out logging concessions near reserves as well as the illegal logging of by lumbering companies in and around nature parks and reserves especially in the south and eastern parts of Cameroon
- Poaching and the illegal trade in wildlife species which are necessary if eco tourism is to be developed

The eradication of extreme Poverty is at the heart of the Millennium Development Goals. Sustainable development of tourism actually focuses on precisely that. How successful has (sustainable) tourism development helped in alleviating the socio-economic situation of the communities in which ST operations are carried out in Cameroon?

What is the relationship between the MIFOF and other stakeholders?

- Forest resource exploiters and tour operators
- Local communities
- Local NGOs

How is this relationship organised and functions?

- Participatory
- Hands down
- Bottom up approach

How far and with what incentives are local inhabitants encouraged and empowered to open up SME activities and operations in the country keeping in line with sustainable development principles?

6. Visitor information and infrastructure

- Do tourists visit this park?
- During which period of the year do they usually come?
- Are there facilities (campsites, toilets, waste disposal for example) available for tourists?
- What attracts tourists to this park?
- How much information about the park is available to tourist when they visit?

- Do you have a visitor information centre,

If yes:

- When was it opened?
- What is found in there (Brochures, maps, handouts, park guides, floral and faunal information, etc)
- Are the workers in the centre trained for the job?

If no:

- Why don't you have one?
- Where do visitors to the park get information about it?

7. Is there any thing else you would like to add?

Thank you for taking time to discuss with me.

5.2d: Interview / Discussion guideline – Tour operators / Hotel managers

1. Preliminaries

Can you tell me a little bit about?

- Yourself
- Role/duties
- Job (title)

How long have you been in the job?

Are you accountable to anybody?

2. Company description

In which sector of the tourism industry are you specialised, if at all?

How would you describe your business?

How many people do you employ?

Do your employees have any formal professional training?

What type of training do they have, is it on-site or off-site? Tell me a bit more about this?

Tourism is relatively not very well developed in Cameroon; does this cause any problems with the availability of skilled staff?

How do you select your staff and what are their responsibilities?

Which tour services does your company offer?

3. Planning and organisation

Who is responsible for work organization in your company?

Do you ever get complaints from customers?

How do you respond to customers complaints?

If customers make a complaint, what is the reaction time?

Are immediate explanations and alternatives proposed to customers in case of disruptions?

Are employees empowered to solve the problems of guests without having to wait for decisions from the manager only (e.g. wanting to change hotel rooms, cars, delays)?

4. Interaction with other operators/stakeholders (National, regional, international)

Does your company have cooperation agreements/protocols with foreign tour operators?

What form of cooperation does this take?

Can you tell me a bit more about your experience with your business partners? What did you do to build up and maintain contacts with them?

Does your company belong to any national, regional or international networks?

If yes:

Which ones and what is the nature of this relationship?

If no:

Don't you think it would be beneficial for your company if you formed networks with other operators?

5. Government policy and taxation

What is your relationship with Ministry of Tourism?

How do you view government's recent policies on tourism development?

What sort of motivation/encouragement do companies in the tourism sector get from the government?

In your experience do you think the recent measures adopted by government to boost tourism in Cameroon will be strictly implemented?

What in your opinion needs to be done (by all stakeholders) to bring tourism

Since the creation of the National Tourism Council in 2005, in your opinion have there been any changes in policy and administration of the tourism industry?

6. Marketing and publicity

How many tourists do you normally receive in a year?

Where do they come from (Nationalities)?

Do you make use of intermediaries for distributing your products?

- Wholesalers
- Other tour operators
- Retailers
- Other service providers

Do you change / innovate your packages / products offered for sale?

If yes:

How often do you change the packages?

If no:

Why don't you maintain the same packages?

Who normally initiates this change of product?

Which means does your company use to publicise itself?

Does your company participate in international (and regional) fairs, workshops, advertises in journals, radio and television?

Have you ever participated in the Berlin or the London Tourism fairs?

If yes:

- How frequently do you take part in these ventures?
- What lessons have you learn from these participations?

If no:

- Why don't you participate in them?

Many foreigners with an interest in visiting Cameroon often complain about the high flight and living costs as a key factor hindering them from coming.

- What in your opinion is the reason for these high costs in Cameroon when compared to other countries (Senegal, Gambia, Kenya, etc) which offer similar services?
- Will you be prepared to lower your fares to accommodate a higher number of tourists?

7. Tourism Infrastructure

- What is your impression of the present tourism infrastructure in the country?
 - Accommodation
 - Transport and communication
 - Security and health
- Is the present state of the tourism infrastructure a real concern?
- How does it affect your business?
- Where do you accommodate your guests?
- Are they lodged in privately managed or state owned hotels, inns and private accommodation?

7. ICT has proven itself to be a very effective tool for tourism marketing and management

Do you have an internet presence?

If yes:

- What reasons motivated you to create a web site for your business?

If no:

- What are the reasons holding your company back from creating a web page?

At what (eMICA) level of internet development is your company?

What services are offered in your website?

- e-newsletter
- Blog
- Rich media content (online videos, flash or audio)

How often do you update any of the following items if you already have them on your website?

- Main website
- Blog
- e-Newsletter
- Rich media content

Are there plans to upgrade your internet presence to include the above mentioned interactive features and online financial transactions?

If no:

- Why would you not want to upgrade your internet presence?

Since you had an internet presence, has there been any shift in terms of increased bookings?

Roughly what proportion of your total bookings/turnover do you believe comes from the Internet (This can include people who telephone you as a result of seeing your website)?

7. Challenges and prospects

Do you consider yourself as a successful tour operator?

As a tour operator in Cameroon, what do you consider to be the principal challenges faced by people operating in your line of business?

What do you think can be done to improve the situation of Cameroon's tourism industry?

From the perspective of:

- Tour operators
- Government
- Communities where tourism operations are undertaken

In your opinion what are the prospects of tourism growth in your niche of operation?

The tourism season lasts for about 6 months. What do you do during the rest of the year?

Do you organise trips for local residents also? I mean domestic tourism.

What are your future plans? Do you think about expanding the business or about ways of providing much better quality services?

8. Is there anything else you will like to add?

Thank you for talking to me.

5.2e: Interview / Discussion guideline – Community Representatives/Tour Guides

1. Preliminaries

Can you tell me a little bit about?

- Yourself
- Job description
- Role/duties

How long have you been in the present job?

What was your former occupation?

What motivated you to abandon your former occupation for the present one?

Are you happy and able to live well from your present occupation?

How much on the average do you earn per trip to the Mountain?

2. Planning and organisation

How are you organised – co-operative, CIG, etc?

Do you have any formal professional training?

What type of training do you have, is it on-site or off-site? Tell me a bit more about this?

Tourism is relatively not very well developed in Cameroon; does this cause any problems with the availability of skilled staff (porters and guides)?

Who and under what conditions are guides and porters selected

Which services do they offer?

Who is responsible for work organization in your CIG?

Do you ever get complaints from customers?

How do you respond to customers complaints?

If customers make a complaint, what is the reaction time?

Are immediate explanations and alternatives proposed to customers in case of disruptions?

Are you empowered to solve the problems of guests without having to wait for decisions from the manager only (e.g. accommodation, illness, delays in the mountain)?

3. Tourism Infrastructure

- What is your impression of the present tourism infrastructure in the country?
Accommodation
Transport and communication
Security and health
- Is the present state of the tourism infrastructure a real concern?
- How does it affect your business?

Where do you accommodate your guests?

Are they lodged in privately managed or state owned hotels, inns and private accommodation?

How would you describe the state of the accommodation infrastructure (in the mountain for example) in the places where you take tourists to?

4. Challenges and prospects

Do you consider yourself as a successful tour guide?

Do you think the influx of tourists in the region has helped in economically revitalising the community?

Have there been any problems of interaction between the local communities and tourists?

If yes: How were these issues solved?

As a tour guide in Cameroon, what do you consider to be the principal challenges/problems faced by people operating in your line of business?

What do you think can be done to improve the situation of tour guides and communities?

From the perspective of:

- Tour operators
- Government
- Communities where tourism operations are undertaken

In your opinion what are the prospects of growth in your niche of operations?

The tourism season lasts for about 6 months. What do you do during the rest of the year?

Do you organise trips for local residents also? I mean domestic tourism.

What are your future plans? Do you think about expanding your operations or about ways of providing much better quality services?

5. Is there anything else you will like to add?

Thanks for your time.

Appendix 5.3a: Sample letter of recommendation from Nottingham Trent University



Appendix 5.3b: Research permit from the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Innovation in Cameroon

REPUBLIQUE DU CAMEROUN
 Pato-Touss-Pato
 MINISTERE DE LA RECHERCHE SCIENTIFIQUE
 DE L'INNOVATION
 SECRETARIAT GENERAL
 DIVISION DES POLITIQUES SCIENTIFIQUES ET DE
 LA PLANIFICATION
 CELLULE DE LA PROGRAMMATION ET DE LA
 PLANIFICATION
 B.P. 1427 Yaoundé - Cameroun
 Tél: (237) 22 22 13 34 ou 22 22 43 22

REPUBLIC OF CAMEROON
 Pato-Touss-Pato
 MINISTRY OF SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH
 AND INNOVATION
 GENERAL SECRETARIAT
 DIVISION OF SCIENTIFIC POLICY
 PROGRAMMING AND PLANNING
 PO Box 1427 Yaounde Cameroon
 Tel: (237) 22 22 13 34 or 22 22

Yaoundé, le
03 JUIN 2018

**AUTORISATION DE RECHERCHE
 RESEARCH PERMIT**

Vu le décret n°2004/222 du 10 Décembre 2004 portant organisation du Gouvernement /
 Arrêté of decree n°2004/222 of 8 December 2004 organizing the Government
 Vu le décret n°2004/123 du 08 Décembre 2004 portant formation du Gouvernement /
 Arrêté of decree n°2004/123 of 8 December 2004 appointing members of Government
 Vu la demande de l'intéressé
 Considérant l'Etat des capacités de l'auteur,

Nom et prénom Name: **ALBERT NIMBU NDOM**

Adresse (Address) / Permanent address: **NTU Graduate School, Douvrou, Law and Social Sciences, 76 MINOU
 Yaoundé, Cameroun, BP 1427, Tél: (237) 22 22 44 8818, Email: albert.ndombu@ntu.ac.cm**

Adresse (Address) / Temporary address: **Ministère de l'Enseignement Supérieur, Université de Yaoundé I, Avenue de l'Indépendance, BP 14749 Yaoundé, Cameroun, Tél: (237) 77
 71 22 21 41 67, Email: albert.ndombu@univ-yaounde1.ac.cm / albert.ndombu@univ-yaounde1.ac.cm**

Nationalité (Nationality): **CAMEROONIAN**

Autorisation (I) à effectuer des travaux de recherche en République du Cameroun dans la Région de l'Adamaoua,
 Nord, Est, Extrême-Nord, Nord, Nord-Ouest, Ouest, Sud-Ouest, Sud

Durée (I) de validité de (For a period of): **3 months, (depuis / since) 15/06/2018 (à/ to) 15/09/2018**

En collaboration avec / In collaboration with: **MINISTRE, MINICULT, MINEP**

Objet de la Recherche/Sujet de la recherche: **Sustainable Tourism Development and Management in Central Africa: A Case Study of the Tourism Industry in Cameroon**

Cette autorisation de recherche n'est valable que pendant la période indiquée ci-dessus et pour les régions citées.
 (This authorization is valid only for the research period indicated above and for the regions mentioned)

Dr. Albert N. Ndombu
Dr. Modeste Tchoua

22 OCT. 2018

Appendix 5.3c: Research permit from the Ministry of Tourism in Cameroon



LE MINISTRE

A

Monsieur KIMBU NSOM Albert
B.P. 76 Milton Street
E-mail: Albert.Kimbu@ntu.ac.cm
-NOTTINGHAM-

Objet : *Autorisation de recherche doctorale*

Monsieur,

Suite à votre correspondance de référence et d'objet susmentionnés,

J'ai l'honneur de vous autoriser à effectuer votre travail de recherche académique au sein de mon Département Ministériel.

Vous voudrez bien en conséquence prendre l'attache de la Cellule de Suivi de la Formation Touristique et Hôtelière porte 228 de mon Département Ministériel, dès réception de la présente correspondance pour les modalités pratiques.

Veuillez agréer, Monsieur, l'expression de ma parfaite considération.

**Pour le Ministre du Tourisme
et par Délégation
Le Secrétaire Général**



Angèle Rose Ngou

Appendix 6: Cross-tabulation tables respondents' attitudes towards different variables

Types of holidays undertaken

6.1a: Photographic nature based safari

| | | Frequency | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|-------|-----------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | Yes | 215 | 54.6 | 54.6 |
| | No | 179 | 45.4 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 394 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | 9 | 1 | | |
| Total | | 395 | | |

6.1b: Trophy/wild game hunting

| | | Frequency | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|-------|-----------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | Yes | 4 | 1.0 | 1.0 |
| | No | 389 | 99.0 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 393 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | 9 | 1 | | |
| | Syste | 1 | | |
| Total | | 2 | | |
| Total | | 395 | | |

6.1c: Cultural tour

| | | Frequency | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|-------|-----------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | Yes | 341 | 86.5 | 86.5 |
| | No | 53 | 13.5 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 394 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | 9 | 1 | | |
| Total | | 395 | | |

6.1d: Beach holiday

| | | Frequency | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|-------|-----------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | Yes | 381 | 96.7 | 96.7 |
| | No | 13 | 3.3 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 394 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | 9 | 1 | | |
| Total | | 395 | | |

6.1e: Sports holiday/ mountaineering

| | | Frequency | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|-------|-----------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | Yes | 40 | 10.2 | 10.2 |
| | No | 354 | 89.8 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 394 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | 9 | 1 | | |
| Total | | 395 | | |

Types of accommodation used during holidays

6.2a: 5 - 4 star hotel

| | | Frequency | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|--------|-----------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | yes | 25 | 6.3 | 6.3 |
| | no | 369 | 93.7 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 394 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | System | 1 | | |
| Total | | 395 | | |

6.2b: 3 - 2 star hotel

| | | Frequency | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|--------|-----------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | yes | 371 | 94.2 | 94.2 |
| | no | 23 | 5.8 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 394 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | System | 1 | | |
| Total | | 395 | | |

6.2c: 1 star hotel

| | | Frequency | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|--------|-----------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | yes | 27 | 6.9 | 6.9 |
| | no | 367 | 93.1 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 394 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | System | 1 | | |
| Total | | 395 | | |

6.2d: Guest house or hostel

| | | Frequency | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|--------|-----------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | yes | 73 | 18.5 | 18.5 |
| | no | 321 | 81.5 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 394 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | System | 1 | | |
| Total | | 395 | | |

6.2e: campsite

| | | Frequency | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|--------|-----------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | yes | 157 | 39.8 | 39.8 |
| | no | 237 | 60.2 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 394 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | System | 1 | | |
| Total | | 395 | | |

6.2f: friends and relatives

| | | Frequency | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|--------|-----------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | yes | 78 | 19.8 | 19.8 |
| | no | 316 | 80.2 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 394 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | System | 1 | | |
| Total | | 395 | | |

Mode of transport within Cameroon

6.3a: Airline

| | | Frequency | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|--------|-----------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | Yes | 91 | 23.1 | 23.1 |
| | No | 303 | 76.9 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 394 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | System | 1 | | |
| Total | | 395 | | |

6.3b: Train

| | Frequency | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-----------|-----------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid Yes | 5 | 1.3 | 1.3 |
| No | 390 | 98.7 | 100.0 |
| Total | 395 | 100.0 | |

6.3c: Motor coach tour

| | Frequency | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-----------|-----------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid Yes | 187 | 47.3 | 47.3 |
| No | 208 | 52.7 | 100.0 |
| Total | 395 | 100.0 | |

6.3d: Rented car

| | Frequency | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-----------|-----------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid Yes | 215 | 54.4 | 54.4 |
| No | 180 | 45.6 | 100.0 |
| Total | 395 | 100.0 | |

6.3e: Private car

| | Frequency | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-----------|-----------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid Yes | 79 | 20.0 | 20.0 |
| No | 316 | 80.0 | 100.0 |
| Total | 395 | 100.0 | |

6.3f: Pick-up/Van

| | Frequency | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-----------|-----------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid Yes | 8 | 2.0 | 2.0 |
| No | 387 | 98.0 | 100.0 |
| Total | 395 | 100.0 | |

Travelling arrangements

6.4a: Packaged tour services - car rental

| | | Frequency | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|--------|-----------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | Yes | 20 | 37.0 | 37.0 |
| | No | 34 | 63.0 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 54 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | System | 341 | | |
| Total | | 395 | | |

6.4b: Packaged tour services - return ticket

| | | Frequency | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|--------|-----------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | Yes | 50 | 92.6 | 92.6 |
| | No | 4 | 7.4 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 54 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | System | 341 | | |
| Total | | 395 | | |

6.4c: Packaged tour services - restaurant meals

| | | Frequency | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|--------|-----------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | Yes | 8 | 14.8 | 14.8 |
| | No | 46 | 85.2 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 54 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | System | 341 | | |
| Total | | 395 | | |

6.4d: Packaged tour services - entry tickets to museums and other attractions

| | | Frequency | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|--------|-----------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | Yes | 1 | 1.9 | 1.9 |
| | No | 53 | 98.1 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 54 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | System | 341 | | |
| Total | | 395 | | |

6.4e: Packaged tour services - Local transportation

| | | Frequency | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|--------|-----------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | Yes | 38 | 70.4 | 70.4 |
| | No | 16 | 29.6 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 54 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | System | 341 | | |
| Total | | 395 | | |

Transport infrastructure and services

6.5a: Transportation infrastructure and services * Age of respondent Crosstabulation

| | | | Age of respondent | | | | | Total | |
|--|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------------|
| | | | 18-29 | 30-39 | 40-49 | 50-59 | 60-69 | | 70 and above |
| trans infrastructure - Transportation infrastructure and services | Good | Count | 0 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 3 |
| | | % within Age of respondent | .0% | 2.9% | .0% | .0% | .0% | .0% | .8% |
| | Neutral | Count | 9 | 12 | 5 | 5 | 0 | 0 | 31 |
| | | % within Age of respondent | 14.1% | 11.8% | 3.9% | 6.5% | .0% | .0% | 7.9% |
| | Poor | Count | 36 | 40 | 73 | 45 | 11 | 1 | 206 |
| | | % within Age of respondent | 56.3% | 39.2% | 56.6% | 58.4% | 61.1% | 100.0% | 52.7% |
| | Very poor | Count | 19 | 47 | 51 | 27 | 7 | 0 | 151 |
| | | % within Age of respondent | 29.7% | 46.1% | 39.5% | 35.1% | 38.9% | .0% | 38.6% |
| Total | Count | 64 | 102 | 129 | 77 | 18 | 1 | 391 | |
| | % within Age of respondent | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | |

6.5b: Chi-Square Tests

| | Value | df | Asymp. Sig. (2-sided) |
|---------------------------------|---------------------|----|--------------------------|
| Pearson Chi-Square | 26.459 ^a | 15 | .033 |
| Likelihood Ratio | 27.983 | 15 | .022 |
| Linear-by-Linear Association | 2.058 | 1 | .151 |
| N of Valid Cases | 391 | | |

a. 10 cells (41.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .01.

Table 6.5c: Chi-Square Tests

| | Value | df | Asymp. Sig. (2-sided) |
|---------------------------------|---------------------|----|--------------------------|
| Pearson Chi-Square | 24.929 ^a | 9 | .003 |
| Likelihood Ratio | 24.757 | 9 | .003 |
| Linear-by-Linear Association | 2.162 | 1 | .141 |
| N of Valid Cases | 391 | | |

a. 4 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .49.

6.6a: Transportation infrastructure and services * Marital status Crosstabulation

| | | | Marital status | | | | | Total |
|--|-------------------------|-------------------------|----------------|-----------------------|--------|----------------------------------|---------|-------|
| | | | Married | living with a partner | single | divorced/separated after wedding | widowed | |
| Transportation infrastructure and services | Good | Count | 0 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 3 |
| | | % within Marital status | .0% | .7% | 2.8% | .0% | .0% | .8% |
| | Neutral | Count | 7 | 14 | 9 | 1 | 0 | 31 |
| | | % within Marital status | 4.4% | 10.2% | 12.7% | 4.8% | .0% | 7.9% |
| | Poor | Count | 86 | 71 | 34 | 13 | 2 | 206 |
| | | % within Marital status | 53.8% | 51.8% | 47.9% | 61.9% | 100.0% | 52.7% |
| | Very poor | Count | 67 | 51 | 26 | 7 | 0 | 151 |
| | | % within Marital status | 41.9% | 37.2% | 36.6% | 33.3% | .0% | 38.6% |
| Total | Count | 160 | 137 | 71 | 21 | 2 | 391 | |
| | % within Marital status | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | |

6.6b: Transportation infrastructure and services * Nationality Crosstabulation

| | | | Nationality | | | | | Total | |
|--|----------------------|----------------------|--------------------|------------------------------|----------------|----------------|--------|--------|---------------|
| | | | Sub-Saharan Africa | North Africa and Middle east | Western Europe | Eastern Europe | Asia | | North America |
| Transportation infrastructure and services | Good | Count | 0 | 0 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 3 |
| | | % within Nationality | .0% | .0% | .8% | 3.3% | .0% | .0% | .8% |
| | Neutral | Count | 0 | 0 | 20 | 6 | 1 | 4 | 31 |
| | | % within Nationality | .0% | .0% | 7.6% | 20.0% | 16.7% | 4.5% | 7.9% |
| | Poor | Count | 0 | 1 | 135 | 15 | 3 | 52 | 206 |
| | | % within Nationality | .0% | 50.0% | 51.5% | 50.0% | 50.0% | 58.4% | 52.7% |
| | Very poor | Count | 2 | 1 | 105 | 8 | 2 | 33 | 151 |
| | | % within Nationality | 100.0% | 50.0% | 40.1% | 26.7% | 33.3% | 37.1% | 38.6% |
| Total | Count | 2 | 2 | 262 | 30 | 6 | 89 | 391 | |
| | % within Nationality | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | |

Tourism industry service personnel

6.7a: Controls by immigration and police officials * Age of respondent Crosstabulation

| | | | Age of respondent | | | | | | Total |
|---|----------------------------|----------------------------|-------------------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------------|-------|
| | | | 18-29 | 30-39 | 40-49 | 50-59 | 60-69 | 70 and above | |
| Immig controls - Controls by immigration and police officials | Good | Count | 4 | 3 | 4 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 12 |
| | | % within Age of respondent | 6.1% | 2.9% | 3.1% | .0% | .0% | 100.0% | 3.0% |
| | Neutral | Count | 15 | 15 | 13 | 9 | 2 | 0 | 54 |
| | | % within Age of respondent | 22.7% | 14.7% | 10.0% | 11.7% | 11.1% | .0% | 13.7% |
| | Poor | Count | 33 | 55 | 66 | 33 | 9 | 0 | 196 |
| | | % within Age of respondent | 50.0% | 53.9% | 50.8% | 42.9% | 50.0% | .0% | 49.7% |
| | Very poor | Count | 14 | 29 | 47 | 35 | 7 | 0 | 132 |
| | | % within Age of respondent | 21.2% | 28.4% | 36.2% | 45.5% | 38.9% | .0% | 33.5% |
| Total | Count | 66 | 102 | 130 | 77 | 18 | 1 | 394 | |
| | % within Age of respondent | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | |

6.7b: Chi-Square Tests

| | Value | df | Asymp. Sig. (2-sided) |
|------------------------------|---------------------|----|-----------------------|
| Pearson Chi-Square | 50.905 ^a | 15 | .000 |
| Likelihood Ratio | 28.173 | 15 | .021 |
| Linear-by-Linear Association | 11.199 | 1 | .001 |
| N of Valid Cases | 394 | | |

a. 10 cells (41.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .03.

6.8a: Reception/treatment of guests * age Crosstabulation

| | | | age | | | | Total |
|---|--------------|--------------|--------|--------|--------|--------------|-------|
| | | | 18-29 | 30-39 | 40-49 | 50 and above | |
| Reception - Reception/treatment of guests | Excellent | Count | 3 | 2 | 3 | 3 | 11 |
| | | % within age | 4.7% | 2.0% | 2.3% | 3.1% | 2.8% |
| | Good | Count | 21 | 34 | 48 | 36 | 139 |
| | | % within age | 32.8% | 33.7% | 37.2% | 37.5% | 35.6% |
| | Neutral | Count | 30 | 42 | 59 | 36 | 167 |
| | | % within age | 46.9% | 41.6% | 45.7% | 37.5% | 42.8% |
| | Poor | Count | 9 | 22 | 19 | 19 | 69 |
| | | % within age | 14.1% | 21.8% | 14.7% | 19.8% | 17.7% |
| | Very poor | Count | 1 | 1 | 0 | 2 | 4 |
| | | % within age | 1.6% | 1.0% | .0% | 2.1% | 1.0% |
| Total | Count | 64 | 101 | 129 | 96 | 390 | |
| | % within age | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | |

6.8b: Chi-Square Tests

| | Value | df | Asymp. Sig. (2-sided) |
|------------------------------|--------------------|----|-----------------------|
| Pearson Chi-Square | 7.659 ^a | 12 | .811 |
| Likelihood Ratio | 8.636 | 12 | .734 |
| Linear-by-Linear Association | .010 | 1 | .919 |
| N of Valid Cases | 390 | | |

a. 8 cells (40.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .66.

6.8c: Chi-Square Tests

| | Value | df | Asymp. Sig. (2-sided) |
|------------------------------|---------------------|----|-----------------------|
| Pearson Chi-Square | 49.549 ^a | 20 | .000 |
| Likelihood Ratio | 22.650 | 20 | .306 |
| Linear-by-Linear Association | .092 | 1 | .762 |
| N of Valid Cases | 390 | | |

a. 16 cells (53.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .01.

Level of satisfaction

6.9a: How would you describe the organisation of your trip?

| | | Frequency | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|-----------|-----------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | Excellent | 113 | 29.2 | 29.2 |
| | Good | 216 | 55.8 | 85.0 |
| | Neutral | 55 | 14.2 | 99.2 |
| | Poor | 3 | .8 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 387 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | 9 | 4 | | |
| | System | 4 | | |
| Total | | 8 | | |
| Total | | 395 | | |

6.9b: Quality of accommodation infrastructure

| | | Frequency | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|-------------------|-----------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | Excellent | 20 | 5.1 | 5.1 |
| | Good | 148 | 37.6 | 42.6 |
| | Neutral | 134 | 34.0 | 76.6 |
| | Poor | 77 | 19.5 | 96.2 |
| | Very poor | 14 | 3.6 | 99.7 |
| | Not used/relevant | 1 | .3 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 394 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | System | 1 | | |
| Total | | 395 | | |

6.9c: Cost of food

| | | Frequency | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|-------------------|-----------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | Excellent | 50 | 12.7 | 12.7 |
| | Good | 225 | 57.1 | 69.8 |
| | Neutral | 113 | 28.7 | 98.5 |
| | Poor | 5 | 1.3 | 99.7 |
| | Not used/relevant | 1 | .3 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 394 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | System | 1 | | |
| Total | | 395 | | |

6.9d: Cultural attractions

| | | Frequency | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|-----------|-----------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | Excellent | 119 | 30.3 | 30.3 |
| | Good | 197 | 50.1 | 80.4 |
| | Neutral | 65 | 16.5 | 96.9 |
| | Poor | 9 | 2.3 | 99.2 |
| | Very poor | 3 | .8 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 393 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | 9 | 1 | | |
| | System | 1 | | |
| | Total | 2 | | |
| Total | | 395 | | |

6.9e: Natural attractions

| | | Frequency | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|-----------|-----------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | Excellent | 99 | 25.6 | 25.6 |
| | Good | 210 | 54.3 | 79.8 |
| | neutral | 75 | 19.4 | 99.2 |
| | Poor | 3 | .8 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 387 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | System | 8 | | |
| Total | | 395 | | |

6.10a: Hustling from beggars

| | | Frequency | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|---------------------|-----------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | Excellent | 3 | .8 | .8 |
| | Good | 44 | 11.2 | 11.9 |
| | Neutral | 139 | 35.3 | 47.2 |
| | Poor | 36 | 9.1 | 56.3 |
| | Very poor | 8 | 2.0 | 58.4 |
| | not used/irrelevant | 164 | 41.6 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 394 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | System | 1 | | |
| Total | | 395 | | |

6.10b: Hustling from goods sellers

| | | Frequency | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|-----------|-----------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | Excellent | 2 | .5 | .5 |
| | Good | 50 | 12.7 | 13.2 |
| | Neutral | 196 | 49.7 | 62.9 |
| | Poor | 72 | 18.3 | 81.2 |
| | Very poor | 16 | 4.1 | 85.3 |
| | 6 | 58 | 14.7 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 394 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | System | 1 | | |
| Total | | 395 | | |

6.10c: Hustling from thieves and cheats

| | | Frequency | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|-----------|-----------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | Excellent | 2 | .5 | .5 |
| | Good | 37 | 9.4 | 9.9 |
| | Neutral | 155 | 39.4 | 49.4 |
| | Poor | 99 | 25.2 | 74.6 |
| | Very poor | 23 | 5.9 | 80.4 |
| | Not used | 77 | 19.6 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 393 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | System | 2 | | |
| Total | | 395 | | |

6.10d: Service personnel in accommodation

| | | Frequency | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|-----------|-----------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | Excellent | 12 | 3.1 | 3.1 |
| | Good | 177 | 45.0 | 48.1 |
| | Neutral | 141 | 35.9 | 84.0 |
| | Poor | 57 | 14.5 | 98.5 |
| | Very poor | 5 | 1.3 | 99.7 |
| | Not used | 1 | .3 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 393 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | 9 | 1 | | |
| | System | 1 | | |
| | Total | 2 | | |
| Total | | 395 | | |

6.10e: Food quality

| | | Frequency | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|-----------|-----------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | Excellent | 25 | 6.4 | 6.4 |
| | Good | 213 | 54.3 | 60.7 |
| | Neutral | 128 | 32.7 | 93.4 |
| | Poor | 26 | 6.6 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 392 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | 9 | 1 | | |
| | System | 2 | | |
| | Total | 3 | | |
| Total | | 395 | | |

6.10h: Health services

| | | Frequency | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|-----------|-----------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | Excellent | 1 | .3 | .3 |
| | Good | 5 | 1.3 | 1.5 |
| | Neutral | 65 | 16.5 | 18.1 |
| | Poor | 17 | 4.3 | 22.4 |
| | Very poor | 7 | 1.8 | 24.2 |
| | Not used | 298 | 75.8 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 393 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | System | 2 | | |
| Total | | 395 | | |

6.10i: Interpretation services/ tour guard

| | | Frequency | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|-----------|-----------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | Excellent | 55 | 14.1 | 14.1 |
| | Good | 206 | 52.7 | 66.8 |
| | Neutral | 89 | 22.8 | 89.5 |
| | Poor | 38 | 9.7 | 99.2 |
| | Very poor | 3 | .8 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 391 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | System | 1 | | |
| | System | 3 | | |
| | Total | 4 | | |
| Total | | 395 | | |

6.10j: Quality of attractions

| | | Frequency | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|-----------|-----------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | excellent | 8 | 2.0 | 2.0 |
| | Good | 185 | 47.0 | 49.0 |
| | Neutral | 131 | 33.2 | 82.2 |
| | Poor | 62 | 15.7 | 98.0 |
| | Very poor | 5 | 1.3 | 99.2 |
| | not used | 3 | .8 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 394 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | System | 1 | | |
| Total | | 395 | | |

6.11a: Cultural attractions * age Crosstabulation

| | | | age | | | | Total |
|----------------------|--------------|--------------|--------|--------|--------|--------------|-------|
| | | | 18-29 | 30-39 | 40-49 | 50 and above | |
| Cultural attractions | Excellent | Count | 19 | 34 | 34 | 32 | 119 |
| | | % within age | 28.4% | 33.7% | 26.2% | 33.7% | 30.3% |
| | Good | Count | 32 | 51 | 71 | 43 | 197 |
| | | % within age | 47.8% | 50.5% | 54.6% | 45.3% | 50.1% |
| | Neutral | Count | 15 | 12 | 24 | 14 | 65 |
| | | % within age | 22.4% | 11.9% | 18.5% | 14.7% | 16.5% |
| | Poor | Count | 1 | 3 | 1 | 4 | 9 |
| | | % within age | 1.5% | 3.0% | .8% | 4.2% | 2.3% |
| | Very poor | Count | 0 | 1 | 0 | 2 | 3 |
| | | % within age | .0% | 1.0% | .0% | 2.1% | .8% |
| Total | Count | 67 | 101 | 130 | 95 | 393 | |
| | % within age | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | |

6.11b: Chi-Square Tests

| | Value | df | Asymp. Sig. (2-sided) |
|------------------------------|---------------------|----|-----------------------|
| Pearson Chi-Square | 12.840 ^a | 12 | .381 |
| Likelihood Ratio | 13.782 | 12 | .315 |
| Linear-by-Linear Association | .044 | 1 | .834 |
| N of Valid Cases | 393 | | |

a. 8 cells (40.0%) have expected count less than 5.

6.11c: Quality of attractions * maritalstatus3 Crosstabulation

| | | | maritalstatus3 | | | Total |
|------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|------------------------------|--------|-------------------|-------|
| | | | married, living with partner | single | divorced, widowed | |
| Quality of attractions | excellent | Count | 7 | 0 | 1 | 8 |
| | | Expected Count | 6.0 | 1.5 | .5 | 8.0 |
| | | % within maritalstatus3 | 2.4% | .0% | 4.3% | 2.0% |
| | Good | Count | 140 | 35 | 10 | 185 |
| | | Expected Count | 139.5 | 34.7 | 10.8 | 185.0 |
| | | % within maritalstatus3 | 47.1% | 47.3% | 43.5% | 47.0% |
| | Neutral | Count | 99 | 24 | 8 | 131 |
| | | Expected Count | 98.7 | 24.6 | 7.6 | 131.0 |
| | | % within maritalstatus3 | 33.3% | 32.4% | 34.8% | 33.2% |
| | Poor | Count | 46 | 13 | 3 | 62 |
| | | Expected Count | 46.7 | 11.6 | 3.6 | 62.0 |
| | | % within maritalstatus3 | 15.5% | 17.6% | 13.0% | 15.7% |
| Very poor | Count | 4 | 0 | 1 | 5 | |
| | Expected Count | 3.8 | .9 | .3 | 5.0 | |
| | % within maritalstatus3 | 1.3% | .0% | 4.3% | 1.3% | |
| not used | Count | 1 | 2 | 0 | 3 | |
| | Expected Count | 2.3 | .6 | .2 | 3.0 | |
| | % within maritalstatus3 | .3% | 2.7% | .0% | .8% | |
| Total | Count | 297 | 74 | 23 | 394 | |
| | Expected Count | 297.0 | 74.0 | 23.0 | 394.0 | |
| | % within maritalstatus3 | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | |

6.11d: Chi-Square Tests

| | Value | df | Asymp. Sig. (2-sided) |
|------------------------------|--------------------|----|-----------------------|
| Pearson Chi-Square | 9.849 ^a | 10 | .454 |
| Likelihood Ratio | 10.356 | 10 | .410 |
| Linear-by-Linear Association | .450 | 1 | .502 |
| N of Valid Cases | 394 | | |

a. 9 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .18.

6.12a: General impressions 2 * Profession Crosstabulation

| | | | Profession | | | Total |
|--------------|--------------------------------|---------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------|-------|
| | | | Managerial and professional | Intermediate non-manual | Junior non-manual | |
| impressions2 | very friendly and hospitable | Count | 84 | 33 | 6 | 123 |
| | | Expected Count | 76.7 | 40.1 | 6.2 | 123.0 |
| | | % within Profession | 35.7% | 26.8% | 31.6% | 32.6% |
| | friendly and hospitable | Count | 133 | 79 | 7 | 219 |
| | | Expected Count | 136.5 | 71.5 | 11.0 | 219.0 |
| | | % within Profession | 56.6% | 64.2% | 36.8% | 58.1% |
| | neutral | Count | 16 | 10 | 6 | 32 |
| | | Expected Count | 19.9 | 10.4 | 1.6 | 32.0 |
| | | % within Profession | 6.8% | 8.1% | 31.6% | 8.5% |
| | not so friendly and hospitable | Count | 2 | 1 | 0 | 3 |
| | | Expected Count | 1.9 | 1.0 | .2 | 3.0 |
| | | % within Profession | .9% | .8% | .0% | .8% |
| Total | Count | 235 | 123 | 19 | 377 | |
| | Expected Count | 235.0 | 123.0 | 19.0 | 377.0 | |
| | % within Profession | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | |

6.12b: Chi-Square Tests

| | Value | df | Asymp. Sig. (2-sided) |
|------------------------------|---------------------|----|-----------------------|
| Pearson Chi-Square | 17.234 ^a | 6 | .008 |
| Likelihood Ratio | 12.757 | 6 | .047 |
| Linear-by-Linear Association | 4.571 | 1 | .033 |
| N of Valid Cases | 377 | | |

a. 4 cells (33.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .15.

Publicity and marketing

6.13a: Information source - internet

| | | Frequency | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|--------|-----------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | Yes | 234 | 60.2 | 60.2 |
| | No | 155 | 39.8 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 389 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | 9 | 3 | | |
| | System | 3 | | |
| | Total | 6 | | |
| Total | | 395 | | |

6.13b: Information source - travel shop

| | | Frequency | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|--------|-----------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | yes | 7 | 1.8 | 1.8 |
| | no | 381 | 98.2 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 388 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | 9 | 3 | | |
| | System | 4 | | |
| | Total | 7 | | |
| Total | | 395 | | |

6.13c: Information source - travel marketing journal / vacation guide

| | | Frequency | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|--------|-----------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | yes | 48 | 12.4 | 12.4 |
| | no | 340 | 87.6 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 388 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | 9 | 3 | | |
| | System | 4 | | |
| | Total | 7 | | |
| Total | | 395 | | |

6.13d: Information source - Cameroonian embassy

| | | Frequency | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|--------|-----------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | Yes | 3 | .8 | .8 |
| | No | 385 | 99.2 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 388 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | 9 | 3 | | |
| | System | 4 | | |
| | Total | 7 | | |
| Total | | 395 | | |

6.13e: Information source - Friend/acquaintance

| | | Frequency | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|--------|-----------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | Yes | 303 | 77.7 | 77.7 |
| | No | 87 | 22.3 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 390 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | 9 | 3 | | |
| | System | 2 | | |
| | Total | 5 | | |
| Total | | 395 | | |

6.14a: User friendly - easy to use

| | | Frequency | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|-----------|-----------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | Excellent | 46 | 11.8 | 11.8 |
| | Good | 240 | 61.7 | 73.5 |
| | Neutral | 96 | 24.7 | 98.2 |
| | Poor | 6 | 1.5 | 99.7 |
| | Very poor | 1 | .3 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 389 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | 9 | 3 | | |
| | System | 3 | | |
| | Total | 6 | | |
| Total | | 395 | | |

6.14b: Interesting and educative

| | | Frequency | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|-----------|-----------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | Excellent | 15 | 3.9 | 3.9 |
| | Good | 155 | 39.8 | 43.7 |
| | Neutral | 145 | 37.3 | 81.0 |
| | Poor | 67 | 17.2 | 98.2 |
| | Very poor | 7 | 1.8 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 389 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | 9 | 3 | | |
| | System | 3 | | |
| | Total | 6 | | |
| Total | | 395 | | |

6.14c: formatted and colourfully presented

| | | Frequency | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|-----------|-----------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | Excellent | 9 | 2.3 | 2.3 |
| | Good | 51 | 13.3 | 15.6 |
| | Neutral | 125 | 32.6 | 48.2 |
| | Poor | 157 | 40.9 | 89.1 |
| | Very poor | 27 | 7.0 | 96.1 |
| | 6 | 15 | 3.9 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 384 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | 9 | 4 | | |
| | System | 7 | | |
| | Total | 11 | | |
| Total | | 395 | | |

6.14d: Was any information lacking in the source you used?

| | | Frequency | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|-------|-----------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | Yes | 254 | 64.5 | 64.5 |
| | No | 140 | 35.5 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 394 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | 9 | 1 | | |
| Total | | 395 | | |

6.14e: Chi-Square Tests

| | Value | df | Asymp. Sig. (2-sided) |
|------------------------------|--------------------|----|-----------------------|
| Pearson Chi-Square | 7.634 ^a | 6 | .266 |
| Likelihood Ratio | 6.939 | 6 | .327 |
| Linear-by-Linear Association | .688 | 1 | .407 |
| N of Valid Cases | 389 | | |

a. 5 cells (41.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .14.

6.15a: Publicity and international marketing * marital status Crosstabulation

| | | | marital status | | Total |
|---|-------------------------|-------------------------|------------------------------|---------------------------|-------|
| | | | married, living with partner | single, divorced, widowed | |
| Publicity - Publicity and international marketing | Good | Count | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| | | % within marital status | .3% | 2.1% | .8% |
| | Neutral | Count | 50 | 13 | 63 |
| | | % within marital status | 16.8% | 13.5% | 16.0% |
| | Poor | Count | 181 | 61 | 242 |
| | | % within marital status | 60.7% | 63.5% | 61.4% |
| | Very poor | Count | 66 | 20 | 86 |
| | | % within marital status | 22.1% | 20.8% | 21.8% |
| Total | Count | 298 | 96 | 394 | |
| | % within marital status | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | |

6.15b: Chi-Square Tests

| | Value | df | Asymp. Sig. (2-sided) |
|------------------------------|--------------------|----|-----------------------|
| Pearson Chi-Square | 3.534 ^a | 3 | .316 |
| Likelihood Ratio | 3.032 | 3 | .387 |
| Linear-by-Linear Association | .044 | 1 | .834 |
| N of Valid Cases | 394 | | |

a. 2 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .73.

6.15c: Chi-Square Tests

| | Value | df | Asymp. Sig. (2-sided) |
|------------------------------|---------------------|----|-----------------------|
| Pearson Chi-Square | 25.227 ^a | 12 | .014 |
| Likelihood Ratio | 23.331 | 12 | .025 |
| Linear-by-Linear Association | .004 | 1 | .950 |
| N of Valid Cases | 394 | | |

a. 10 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .02.

6.16: Chi-Square Tests

| | Value | df | Asymp. Sig. (2-sided) |
|------------------------------|---------------------|----|-----------------------|
| Pearson Chi-Square | 30.012 ^a | 20 | .070 |
| Likelihood Ratio | 36.857 | 20 | .012 |
| Linear-by-Linear Association | .069 | 1 | .793 |
| N of Valid Cases | 390 | | |

a. 13 cells (43.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .03.

6. 17a: Contain the information you wanted * Profession Crosstabulation

| | | | Profession | | | Total |
|--|---------------------|---------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------|-------|
| | | | Managerial and professional | Intermediate non-manual | Junior non-manual | |
| Info content - Contain the information you wanted | Excellent | Count | 15 | 5 | 2 | 22 |
| | | % within Profession | 6.3% | 3.9% | 10.5% | 5.7% |
| | Good | Count | 69 | 46 | 5 | 120 |
| | | % within Profession | 29.0% | 35.9% | 26.3% | 31.2% |
| | Neutral | Count | 71 | 41 | 6 | 118 |
| | | % within Profession | 29.8% | 32.0% | 31.6% | 30.6% |
| | Poor | Count | 74 | 34 | 5 | 113 |
| | | % within Profession | 31.1% | 26.6% | 26.3% | 29.4% |
| | Very poor | Count | 9 | 2 | 1 | 12 |
| | | % within Profession | 3.8% | 1.6% | 5.3% | 3.1% |
| Total | Count | 238 | 128 | 19 | 385 | |
| | % within Profession | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | |

6.17b: Chi-Square Tests

| | Value | df | Asymp. Sig. (2-sided) |
|------------------------------|--------------------|----|-----------------------|
| Pearson Chi-Square | 5.478 ^a | 8 | .706 |
| Likelihood Ratio | 5.546 | 8 | .698 |
| Linear-by-Linear Association | .848 | 1 | .357 |
| N of Valid Cases | 385 | | |

a. 3 cells (20.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .59.

6.18a: Contain the information you wanted * Marital status Crosstabulation

| | | | Marital status | | | | | Total |
|--|-------------------------|-------------------------|----------------|-----------------------|--------|-----------------------------------|---------|-------|
| | | | Married | living with a partner | single | divorced/ separated after wedding | widowed | |
| Info content - Contain the information you wanted | Excellent | Count | 10 | 4 | 8 | 1 | 0 | 23 |
| | | % within Marital status | 6.3% | 2.9% | 11.0% | 4.8% | .0% | 5.9% |
| | Good | Count | 51 | 41 | 19 | 11 | 1 | 123 |
| | | % within Marital status | 32.1% | 30.1% | 26.0% | 52.4% | 100.0% | 31.5% |
| | Neutral | Count | 45 | 43 | 28 | 3 | 0 | 119 |
| | | % within Marital status | 28.3% | 31.6% | 38.4% | 14.3% | .0% | 30.5% |
| | Poor | Count | 48 | 43 | 16 | 6 | 0 | 113 |
| | | % within Marital status | 30.2% | 31.6% | 21.9% | 28.6% | .0% | 29.0% |
| | Very poor | Count | 5 | 5 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 12 |
| | | % within Marital status | 3.1% | 3.7% | 2.7% | .0% | .0% | 3.1% |
| Total | Count | 159 | 136 | 73 | 21 | 1 | 390 | |
| | % within Marital status | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | |

6.18b: Chi-Square Tests

| | Value | df | Asymp. Sig. (2-sided) |
|------------------------------|---------------------|----|-----------------------|
| Pearson Chi-Square | 17.230 ^a | 16 | .371 |
| Likelihood Ratio | 17.831 | 16 | .334 |
| Linear-by-Linear Association | 1.625 | 1 | .202 |
| N of Valid Cases | 390 | | |

a. 11 cells (44.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .03.

Environmental conservation and sustainable tourism

6.19a: Are you willing to pay a green tax for conservation 2 * age Crosstabulation

| | | | age | | | | Total |
|-----------|-----------------------------------|----------------|--------|--------|--------|--------------|-------|
| | | | 18-29 | 30-39 | 40-49 | 50 and above | |
| greentax2 | yes | Count | 4 | 1 | 0 | 2 | 7 |
| | | Expected Count | 1.2 | 1.8 | 2.3 | 1.8 | 7.0 |
| | | % within age | 6.3% | 1.0% | .0% | 2.1% | 1.8% |
| | yes, depending on howmuch | Count | 8 | 9 | 16 | 3 | 36 |
| | | Expected Count | 6.0 | 9.1 | 11.9 | 9.0 | 36.0 |
| | | % within age | 12.7% | 9.4% | 12.8% | 3.2% | 9.5% |
| | yes if i can be sure of its usage | Count | 46 | 73 | 99 | 74 | 292 |
| | | Expected Count | 48.5 | 74.0 | 96.3 | 73.2 | 292.0 |
| | | % within age | 73.0% | 76.0% | 79.2% | 77.9% | 77.0% |
| no | Count | 5 | 13 | 10 | 16 | 44 | |
| | Expected Count | 7.3 | 11.1 | 14.5 | 11.0 | 44.0 | |
| | % within age | 7.9% | 13.5% | 8.0% | 16.8% | 11.6% | |
| Total | Count | 63 | 96 | 125 | 95 | 379 | |
| | Expected Count | 63.0 | 96.0 | 125.0 | 95.0 | 379.0 | |
| | % within age | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | |

6.19b: Chi-Square Tests

| | Value | df | Asymp. Sig. (2-sided) |
|------------------------------|---------------------|----|-----------------------|
| Pearson Chi-Square | 20.644 ^a | 9 | .014 |
| Likelihood Ratio | 21.492 | 9 | .011 |
| Linear-by-Linear Association | 6.372 | 1 | .012 |
| N of Valid Cases | 379 | | |

a. 4 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.16.

6.19c: Chi-Square Tests

| | Value | df | Asymp. Sig. (2-sided) |
|------------------------------|---------------------|----|-----------------------|
| Pearson Chi-Square | 59.868 ^a | 20 | .000 |
| Likelihood Ratio | 38.977 | 20 | .007 |
| Linear-by-Linear Association | 3.859 | 1 | .049 |
| N of Valid Cases | 391 | | |

a. 17 cells (56.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .02.

6.20a: Are you willing to pay a green tax for conservation 2 * Profession Crosstabulation

| | | Profession | | | Total | |
|-----------|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------|--------|-------|
| | | Managerial and professional | Intermediate non-manual | Junior non-manual | | |
| greentax2 | yes | Count | 4 | 0 | 2 | 6 |
| | | Expected Count | 3.8 | 2.0 | .3 | 6.0 |
| | | % within Profession | 1.7% | .0% | 11.8% | 1.6% |
| | yes, depending on how much | Count | 19 | 15 | 2 | 36 |
| | | Expected Count | 22.7 | 11.7 | 1.6 | 36.0 |
| | | % within Profession | 8.1% | 12.3% | 11.8% | 9.6% |
| | yes if i can be sure of its usage | Count | 185 | 93 | 11 | 289 |
| | | Expected Count | 181.9 | 94.0 | 13.1 | 289.0 |
| | | % within Profession | 78.4% | 76.2% | 64.7% | 77.1% |
| no | Count | 28 | 14 | 2 | 44 | |
| | Expected Count | 27.7 | 14.3 | 2.0 | 44.0 | |
| | % within Profession | 11.9% | 11.5% | 11.8% | 11.7% | |
| Total | Count | 236 | 122 | 17 | 375 | |
| | Expected Count | 236.0 | 122.0 | 17.0 | 375.0 | |
| | % within Profession | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | |

6.20b: Chi-Square Tests

| | Value | df | Asymp. Sig. (2-sided) |
|------------------------------|---------------------|----|-----------------------|
| Pearson Chi-Square | 14.951 ^a | 6 | .021 |
| Likelihood Ratio | 10.422 | 6 | .108 |
| Linear-by-Linear Association | 1.548 | 1 | .213 |
| N of Valid Cases | 375 | | |

a. 5 cells (41.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .27.

6.20c: Chi-Square Tests

| | Value | df | Asymp. Sig. (2-sided) |
|------------------------------|---------------------|----|-----------------------|
| Pearson Chi-Square | 24.596 ^a | 8 | .002 |
| Likelihood Ratio | 20.086 | 8 | .010 |
| Linear-by-Linear Association | .535 | 1 | .464 |
| N of Valid Cases | 386 | | |

a. 7 cells (46.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .30.

6.21a: Are you willing to pay a green tax for conservation* marital status 3 Crosstabulation

| | | | maritalstatus3 | | | Total |
|-----------|-----------------------------------|-------------------------|------------------------------|--------|-------------------|-------|
| | | | married, living with partner | single | divorced, widowed | |
| greentax2 | yes | Count | 3 | 3 | 1 | 7 |
| | | Expected Count | 5.3 | 1.3 | .4 | 7.0 |
| | | % within maritalstatus3 | 1.0% | 4.4% | 4.5% | 1.8% |
| | yes, depending on howmuch | Count | 28 | 7 | 1 | 36 |
| | | Expected Count | 27.5 | 6.5 | 2.1 | 36.0 |
| | | % within maritalstatus3 | 9.7% | 10.3% | 4.5% | 9.5% |
| | yes if i can be sure of its usage | Count | 224 | 50 | 18 | 292 |
| | | Expected Count | 222.7 | 52.4 | 16.9 | 292.0 |
| | | % within maritalstatus3 | 77.5% | 73.5% | 81.8% | 77.0% |
| no | Count | 34 | 8 | 2 | 44 | |
| | Expected Count | 33.6 | 7.9 | 2.6 | 44.0 | |
| | % within maritalstatus3 | 11.8% | 11.8% | 9.1% | 11.6% | |
| Total | Count | 289 | 68 | 22 | 379 | |
| | Expected Count | 289.0 | 68.0 | 22.0 | 379.0 | |
| | % within maritalstatus3 | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | |

6.21b: Chi-Square Tests

| | Value | df | Asymp. Sig. (2-sided) |
|---------------------------------|--------------------|----|--------------------------|
| Pearson Chi-Square | 5.247 ^a | 6 | .512 |
| Likelihood Ratio | 4.649 | 6 | .590 |
| Linear-by-Linear Association | .779 | 1 | .378 |
| N of Valid Cases | 379 | | |

a. 4 cells (33.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .41.

Appendix 7: Profile of interviewees

| Public Sector | Number of interviewees | Persons interviewed |
|---|-------------------------------|--|
| Ministry of Tourism | 3 | -Inspector General II of MINTOUR -Director of tourism marketing and promotion at MINTOUR -Head of service for technical studies at MINTOUR |
| Ministry of Forestry and Fauna (National Park conservators), | 3 + 3 collaborators | -Conservator Campo-Ma'an National Park -Conservator Korup National Park -Conservator Limbe Botanic Gardens -Tourism Officer Korup NP -WWF Socio-economic Adviser Campo-Ma'an NP -Project Officer Campo Ma'an NP |
| Ministry of Culture | 1 | -Director of cultural heritage protection and promotion at MINCULT |
| Private Sector | Number of interviewees | Persons interviewed |
| Tour and travel operators | 7 | Managing Directors of Central African Tours and Safaris, Cameroon Tours and Safaris, Equatorial Tours, Trans African Tours, FIFA Voyages. Marketing Directors of Aigles Voyages and African Travel Management |
| NGOs dealing with sustainable tourism initiatives | 4 + 1 collaborator | -Technical Adviser to Mount Cameroon Ecotourism Organisation, -Managing Directors of Belo Rural Development Project (BERUDEP) and Fako Tourism Board, -WWF Technical Adviser Campo-Ma'an NP -Tourism Officer BERUDEP |
| Common Initiative Group (CIG) community representatives (tour guides) | 2 | 1 representative each from CIG of villages around Mount Cameroon and villages around the Lobe Falls |
| Cultural (festival) affairs managers | 3 | -Director of cultural affairs at the Fouban Sultanate -Promotion and marketing director of the Bali-Nyongha Lela Festival -Cultural affairs manager of the Bafut palace |