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**Governance and Community Participation in the Nigerian Tourism Sector:
A Stakeholder Analysis.**

By

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**Thesis submitted
for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy**

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Abstract

The efficacy of the governance processes by which tourism policies and plans are made is vital to tourism development. Tourism governance has, for some time now, been conceptualised as a participatory process that should involve a meaningful dialogue amongst a diverse group of stakeholders. However, empirical research that investigates the institutional contexts within which community participation and empowerment practices play out in tourism development is limited. This thesis set out to examine the process of tourism governance, and consequently local community participation and empowerment, in tourism planning. It examines how stakeholders in the tourism governance process communicate and interact. The research adopts a mixed methods approach. It first established a general picture of the current situation in tourism policy and planning through an extensive Importance-Performance Analysis (IPA). After that, interviews were conducted to explore stakeholders' perceptions of the extent to which tourism governance processes allow local community participation and empowerment. From this, key constraints were identified.

The results from the IPA revealed that the problem in tourism policy and planning in Nigeria is pervasive and relates to governance in general rather than to specific features or policies only. It was found that the decision-making is driven mainly by the federal and state governments. The communication and interaction among stakeholders at all levels was limited. The local level institutions are not empowered to function as participating partners in any meaningful sense. As a result, limited empowerment (political, economic, psychological and social) was experienced by community members. This thesis reveals that certain principles of governance – trust, awareness, transparency and accountability - related to political culture, are critical to the question at hand. Based on these findings, the research made some broad and provisional strategic recommendations related to: creating awareness amongst the local community of the industry and its possibilities; and empowering the Local Government Tourism institutions to play a proactive, and substantial role in tourism governance. The thesis, therefore, seeks to contribute towards the discussion on tourism governance, community participation and empowerment. It makes conceptual, methodological and policy related contributions.

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List of Abbreviations

ADB	African Development Bank
FESTAC	Second World Black and African Festival of Arts and Culture
CAC	Colonial Antiquities Commission
CBT	Community-Based Tourism
CDA	Community Development Association
FMCT	Federal Ministry of Culture and Tourism
FMIC	Federal Ministry of Information and Culture
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
IPA	Importance-Performance Analysis
IUOTO	International Union of Official Travel Organisation
LGA	Local Government Areas
LGTC	Local Government Tourism Committees
PLA	Participatory Learning Action
PRA	Participatory Rural Appraisal
RRA	Rapid Rural Appraisal
NCMM	National Commission for Museums and Monuments
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
NICO	National Institute for Cultural Orientation
NIHOTOUR	National Institute for Hospitality and Tourism
NTA	Nigerian Tourists Association
NTB	Nigerian Tourist Board
NTB	National Travel Bureau
NTC	Nigerian Tourist Board Company
NTDC	Nigerian Tourism Development Corporation
NTDMP	Nigeria Tourism Development Master Plan
STM	State Tourism Ministries
STB	State Tourism Board
UK	United Kingdom
USA	United States of America
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation
UNWTO	United Nation World Tourism Organization
WTTC	World Travel and Tourism Council

CHAPTER 1

Defining the rationale and purpose of the research

Nigeria is a country rich in oil resources (Dickson Dillimono and Dickinson, 2015; Esu, 2015), as well as abundant tourism resources that can be used to attract economic, social, cultural and environmental benefits (Mustapha, 2001; Esu, 2015). The Nigerian Government has prioritised tourism development on two separate occasions in 1999 and 2006 in order to diversify the economy, which is largely dependent on the exportation of petroleum. This led to the formulation of tourism plans and the establishment of public institutions to coordinate the industry (see Chapter 3). Even though the tourism sector attracts much attention in many countries in Africa as way of generating economic and social development, this took the Nigerian government some time to realise. Having identified the tourism sector as a priority with potential for economic development as late as 1999, it was at this time that the government began to pay attention to tourism development, tourism policy and planning (Adeleke, 2008; Nwanne, 2016).

The reality is that tourism development still encounters many challenges in the localities where it takes place. Some of the issues confronting the industry have been identified: the poor state of infrastructure (Esu, 2015), security such as terrorism and kidnappings (Adeleke, 2008), poor administration and management at the national level (Honey and Gilpin, 2009), and policy formulation and the non-implementation of policies (Agbebi, 2014). However, for a developing country like Nigeria to benefit from and maximise tourism potential, it is imperative that the government coordinate the other stakeholders such as the private sector, local communities and academics to guide tourism development and ensure sound policy development and implementation.

The reasoning behind this is that policy serves as a framework that guides tourism development actions (Jenkins, 2000). Tourism development in Africa requires not only the formation of sound policies, but also a decision-making mechanism (Jenkins, 2000), moreover, a unified institutional structure that works in practice needs to be developed (Dieke, 2000b). Attempts have been made at the national, and in some cases, regional and state levels, to guide tourism

development in Nigeria. Yet if such policies are not developed in conjunction with stakeholders, they are unlikely to be optimal.

Jenkins (2015) identifies that tourism policies and plans are made for two reasons: to evaluate the scarce resources available to support development initiatives and to efficiently allocate those resources. Further in this context, Hall (2008) notes that planning is necessary because of the paradoxes and problems inherent in tourism. Some of these problems in tourism, like in any other industry, are as a result of market failures, analysis, coordination, monitoring, policy-making and the subsequent responses from the government (Hall, 2008).

Government orientations are changing, and now necessitate that tourism policy and planning activities are carried out in collaborations with other stakeholders, private and community groups (Cooper, 2016). The importance of tourism governance is evident in the growing interest of global organisations such as United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) and United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) in the concept. Some of the problems highlighted above are common to tourism development in many developing countries. They may suggest that research on governance that encompasses tourism policy and planning process is crucial, since it can help to shape the decision-making that affects tourism development. Tourism governance concerns the operation of institutions responsible for making decisions on tourism, that is: government, tourism organisations, the private sector and the residents or local community (Hall, 2003; Church, 2004), This explanation captures the stakeholders that can be involved in tourism development.

Ibru (2002) suggests that in the development of a sustainable tourism industry, partnership between the governments, the private sector, funding agencies, and non-governmental organisations is essential. Despite concerns about the need to develop tourism policy that works in practice, however, little is known about the process through which tourism planning is done, who is involved in the formulation and implementation of policies and the relationship between the various institutions within the tourism sector in Nigeria. There is, therefore, a need to examine the governance processes, and to evaluate how well these arrangements that govern the industry can coordinate the wide range of stakeholders such as the private sector, local communities and academics involved in tourism development to ensure that the voice(s) of those who are often marginalised are heard in the process.

From around the time of the Brundtland Report of 1987, local community participation has been an important concept key to tourism development, and much of the theoretical literature now advocates a participatory planning approach in tourism (WCED, 1987). Participatory planning approaches is an important development concept, and a vehicle for stakeholders at different levels to guide development interventions or strategies (Mikkelsen, 2005).

The long-term success of tourism development largely depends on the host community's support (Mair, 2015). There is an agreement in much of the literature that indicates community participation is crucial in tourism development and asserts the right of the local community to participate in tourism planning (Murphy, 1985; Agrusa and Albieri, 2011; Ognonna and Igbojekwe, 2013). Community participation is a situation whereby the community members who live in a particular area or locality directly participate in tourism decision-making, and as a result benefit from such interaction.

According to Mustapha (2001), while tourism development takes place mostly at the local level in Nigeria, there is the issue of over-bureaucratisation of tourism policy and planning by governmental organisations. In this regard, local participation is often ignored (Mustapha, 2001). This prompted Mustapha (2001) to stress the need for research to investigate the level of local community participation in tourism development in the country.

Further, as Jenkins (2015) suggests, the involvement of government and the private sector in decision-making is important for proper policy formulation. One of the key strategies for successful tourism development in Africa is local community involvement and control, coupled with its corollary: the creation and promotion of awareness about tourism among community members (Dieke, 2000b). In this regard, Cole (2006) notes that empowerment, as an important aspect of participation, helps local people to have a sense of control over the factors that affect their lives. Empowerment entails providing stakeholder groups with adequate information about tourism impacts, so as to build trust and enable them to make informed suggestions (Murphy and Murphy, 2004). Participation in a true sense can facilitate empowerment, when the local community are involved in their own development, lives and environmental issues. It equates to the neo-populist conception of development, that development is about what people do for themselves rather than what is done to them (Butcher, 2007; Willis, 2011).

Against this background, this research investigates the processes of tourism governance, and the role of local community participation in tourism planning and development in Nigeria. This is based on the premise that for tourism development to be successful, it is necessary that tourism governance be conceptualised in a contemporary way to involve and empower local community members. This may facilitate building a relationship based on trust among the government officials and other stakeholders involved in the process that can be beneficial for tourism development. Essentially, trust is the actor's belief that, others will not knowingly or willingly do him harm, but act in his interests (Newton, 2001).

The rationale for this study is to address the gap in the literature by critically assessing tourism governance in Nigeria, specifically focusing on community participation and empowerment. It does so by analysing the process of tourism governance, communication and interactions among stakeholders and how these processes involve or fail to involve the local communities. In the spirit of community participation, the research examines the ways in which local community members themselves make sense of their role and contribution within the process as a whole.

Some scholars comment on these issues in the Nigerian context. For example, Agbebi (2014) examines the effect of poor tourism policy, planning and governance on tourism development. He seeks to highlight the implication of poor funding, poor policy implementation, lack of commitment and dedication of tourism personnel, the incompetence of personnel and the corrupt tendencies of tourism officials that have affected the development of tourism sector in Nigeria (Agbebi, 2014). However, he does not detail the processes of governance in the Nigerian tourism industry, the institutional arrangement and the extent to which structures act as a mechanism for local communities to participate and be empowered in the process. The current research attempts to do this.

Adeyemo and Bada (2016) assess the views of Erin-Ijesha community members on community participation in tourism development planning. Although the research focused on knowing the views of the local communities regarding whether or not they wished to participate in tourism planning, it did not investigate the extent to which they participated and whether such participation led to their empowerment. Also, the broader political environment within the tourism sector, which to a large extent determines how the decision-making process is shaped, was not explored.

Likewise, Ognonna and Igbojekwe (2013) examine local government's involvement in Nigerian tourism development with a focus on assessing the potential role they can play in promoting sustainable tourism development in Imo state. Both studies did not focus on examining the level at which the local community participated or were being empowered. This may suggest that in Nigeria generally, the empowerment of local communities has not been seen as important to tourism development. Empowerment refers to the involvement of the state in setting conditions that will provide for assigning real power to communities (Sofield, 2003). It is essential that the community not only have the formal capacity to set the agenda for consideration of tourism development but also access to appropriate resources and a connected ability to implement decisions (ibid). This research thus investigates this dimension, drawing upon the views and perceptions of stakeholders within the tourism sector.

1.1 Research aim and objectives

Following the above, the present research aims to analyse tourism governance, community participation and empowerment in the decision-making process in Nigeria. The analysis will enable the researcher to provide information that can influence innovative tourism policy and planning, as well as practical recommendation for long-term sustainable tourism development in Nigeria. The research objectives are summarised as follows, in two phases:

Phase 1

1. To examine the current situation in tourism policy and planning from the stakeholders' perspective, using Importance-Performance Analysis (see Chapter 4, section 4.4.1).

Phase 2

2. To explore stakeholders' perception of the extent to which tourism governance processes allow local community participation and empowerment.
3. To investigate key constraints on local community participation and empowerment, and to consider how these can be mitigated to assist tourism policy and planning.

1.2 Structure of the thesis

This introductory chapter begins to set the scene by defining the research purpose and rationale. It states the aims and objectives that guided the research. Finally, it summarises the overview of the chapters that follow. The thesis consists of nine chapters.

Chapter Two further reviews relevant literature by evaluating the pertinent contributions of other studies around the research questions to gain a good understanding of the research's conceptual framework within which it is positioned. It considers the concept of governance and its relationship to participation in tourism policy and planning. The chapter emphasises the role that tourism governance arrangements and processes play in enabling local community participation and empowerment in tourism development. It underscores the informal aspects of governance such as trust, transparency and accountability. These themes are considered later in the analysis as integral to the entire process of tourism governance and community empowerment.

Chapter Three presents the review, description and assessment of the historical background of tourism development in Nigeria to set the context of the research, and highlight longstanding issues in the Nigeria tourism sector.

Chapter Four discusses the research methodology and outlines the methods that were adopted for the research. It starts with the philosophical consideration of the study. It also presents a detailed discussion of the research approach that was applied in the gathering and analyses of empirical data for both phases of the research.

Chapter Five presents the empirical analysis arising from the Importance-Performance Analysis. This first phase logically enables an overview of the stakeholders' views on the current situation regarding tourism policy and planning, before the qualitative data analysis that will follow in the next three chapters.

Chapter Six is the first of the qualitative data analysis chapters from the second phase of the field research. It discusses the tourism decision-making processes and institutional arrangement which substantially constitute tourism governance in Nigeria. Specifically, it

considers the stakeholders' views on the formal institutional arrangements in tourism and the processes of communication and interaction between the structures in practice.

Chapter Seven gauges community participation and empowerment in tourism governance. The analysis in this chapter focuses on the stakeholders' opinions of the four dimensions of Scheyvens' (1999, 2002) framework on community empowerment, set out in the literature review in Chapter 2. It explores the different levels of empowerment experienced by local communities in tourism development.

Chapter Eight considers some key issues that could be described as part of the political culture in Nigeria, these include: awareness, trust, transparency and accountability. These abstract and intangible features of political culture lie at the heart of issues related to governance.

Chapter Nine concludes the thesis by suggesting the strategies for improving community participation and empowerment in tourism governance. This is based on the findings from the previous three chapters as recommended by stakeholders themselves. Reflecting on the analysis and the findings from phases 1 and 2, chapter 9 highlights the main research findings and how they provide answers to the research objectives set out in Chapter 1. It recounts the thesis' original contribution to knowledge and discusses the research implications for both theory and practice. Finally, the chapter closes by suggesting areas for future research.

CHAPTER 2

Governance, community participation and empowerment in tourism policy and planning

This review of the literature comprises four sections. The chapter starts by exploring governance as a characteristic of the policy process that brings together various actors for the purpose of decision-making. This is because one way to understand tourism policy and planning is by examining the governance process. This is followed by a discussion of tourism policy and planning in the second section. Section three considers the participatory planning approach which emphasises local community participation and empowerment. Finally, the summary of the main topics discussed in this chapter is represented in Figure 1, which details the conceptual framework for the study.

2.1 Governance in tourism policy and planning

Governance is a highly contested concept in the social science literature, and no definition has been agreed upon. The term is often used differently, and its usage can be contradictory or even misunderstood (Peters and Pierre, 2016). Despite this, governance is regarded as crucial to managing a country's affairs at all levels: national, regional, state and local (UNDP, 1997; De Bruyn and Alonso, 2012). Governance is an essential concept in tourism policy and planning process (Dredge, 2006; Hall, 2008; Beaumont and Dredge, 2010; Hall, 2011a).

Governance is "bringing together a multitude of actors of different types toward some collective goal" (Peters and Pierre, 2016:3). It also refers to the way policies tie together the different tiers of the state at different spatial levels (Bramwell, 2006). More recently, there have been changes in the way the government perform their role and activities to begin to involve non-governmental organisations, hence the shift towards governance (Dredge, 2006; Bramwell, 2011). Non-state actors that may be involved in the governance process include the community, businesses and voluntary sectors (Bramwell and Lane, 2011; Dredge, Jenkins and Whitford, 2011). These definitions suggest that governance involves a collection of different actors who come together to achieve a specific purpose.

De Bruyn and Alonso (2012) indicate that the reason actors come together is to serve the following functions. First, policy-making, which entails establishing specific strategies and objectives, prioritising them and setting out mechanisms through the formation of tourism regulations and laws, strategizing how to implement them, and identifying the functions that different institutions will serve within the process, as well as how they will go about performing these functions. Second, collectively planning for development and competitiveness by defining guidelines for the development of destinations' products, governing institutions, planning facilities, infrastructures and services within a region or country and improving its competitiveness (De Bruyn and Alonso, 2012).

The explanations of UNDP (1997), De Bruyn and Alonso (2012) and Bramwell (2011) are useful since they outline the principles within which governance operates. UNDP (1997) describes nine characteristics of good governance, which include: participation, transparency, the rule of law, responsiveness, consensus orientation, equity, effectiveness and efficiency, accountability and strategic vision. Recently, De Bruyn and Alonso (2012) added to the list openness, dialogue, consultation, strong leadership, coordination and innovation (De Bruyn and Alonso, 2012). Bramwell (2011) summarises the key features of tourism governance in developing policies as thought, knowledge, application of power, resources, rules and the extent of cooperation and coordination among stakeholders.

Further, there has been a steady focus on governance in tourism planning and policy since the late 1990s (Hall, 2011a). Researchers have heeded to this call by studying governance at different scales. For example, Sofield and Li's (2011) study of national tourism governance in China, Zahra (2011) and Berger (2003) highlight the importance of tourism governance at the regional level. Beaumont and Dredge (2010) assess tourism governance operations at the local level.

A major theme in the governance literature focuses on the participation of various stakeholders in tourism policy and planning. The multiple definitions of governance reveal the need for participation as a critical characteristic (see UNDP (1997) and De Bruyn and Alonso (2012) discussed earlier) that differentiates participation or governance from the government. The UNDP emphasise that governance processes involve the degree of participation required to ensure there is agreement as to what economic, social and political priorities are, without

excluding the poor and the vulnerable in decision-making (UNDP, 2005 cited in UNDP, 2014). Moreover, Berger (2003) explains that the governance approach to tourism decision-making should take into account the different stakeholders and institutions. Essential to governance are the coordination and sustained interaction process that takes place among different structures (Berger, 2003; Bramwell, 2011), and the relationships between the stakeholders that seek to influence the process of governance (Beaumont and Dredge, 2010; Bramwell and Lane, 2011).

Governance in tourism refers to the operation of institutions responsible for making decisions, that is: government, tourism organisations, the private sector and the residents or local community (Hall, 2003; Church, 2004; Bramwell, 2011). It involves citizens' participation in the control of their own affairs (Dwivedi, Khator and Nef, 2007). There are, however, arguments in the literature of governance and tourism planning to suggest that local community members are usually excluded from participating in the decision-making process (Moscardo, 2011; Dela Santa and Saporsantos, 2016).

In the same way, in the Nigerian context, some concerns in tourism planning relate to the local community who are often excluded from tourism governance (see: Mustapha, 2001; Ogonna and Igbojekwe, 2013; Adeyemo and Bada, 2016). Burns (2004), drawing on Giddens' (1998) idea of a third-way, indicates that an active civil society that acknowledges an emerging relationship connecting individuals and the state is essential in tourism planning.

Hall (2011a) and Hsu, Inbakaran and George (2013) in an attempt to simplify the concept of governance in tourism policy and planning, develop a governance framework which recognised the different forms of governance such as hierarchies (first-way), and markets and networks (second-way). However, Hall (2011a), drawing upon Giddens (1998), also includes the community (third-way), which demands more direct citizen involvement in policy-making as a fourth governance mode not covered by Hsu, Inbakaran and George (2013). While the first-way places emphasis on the government, the second and the third-way advocates participation; however, it is only the third way that gives priority to the local communities.

The involvement of the government in governance is essential for several reasons. The government is usually the central influence on governance in practice to coordinate the other stakeholders (Bramwell, 2011; Hill, 2013). They serve the role of reducing the negative impact of tourism development and ensuring that the tourism sector is well planned and regulated

(Cooper, 2016). In fact, a premise that differentiates governance from the government is that the former seeks to coordinate and involve a diverse range of actors (De Bruyn and Alonso, 2012), rather than the government acting alone.

The tourism sector may not function without the government's input (Kerr, 2003). It is essential that the government provide an enabling environment for tourism operations through their support and regulations (Sofield, 2003). Such support can be provided by ensuring security, political stability, social infrastructure, a legal and financial framework for tourism development (Kerr, 2003). Similarly, Krutwayshe and Bramwell (2010) note the functions of the state are to provide social order and security, which are both needed for peaceful economic activity.

For Hall and Jenkins (1995), public policy is whatever government choose to do or not to do with respect to tourism. A critical role of the government in the past was to determine tourism policy to guide the industry. However, government orientations are changing to adapt to new approaches to governance by involving all the levels of government and other stakeholders in the industry. Tourism development planning has evolved to become a product of cooperation and interaction rather than prescription or receiving direction from the government, it is now more one requiring a significant change in the policy formulation approach (Jenkins, 2000). This is the reason scholars in the tourism policy literature have noted there is an evident shift in the government's role towards governance (Dredge, 2006; Beaumont and Dredge, 2010; Cooper, 2016).

According to Cooper (2016), there are two critical features of the contemporary approaches to integrated tourism governance: first, the decentralisation of government power and responsibility away from the national level to the regional and local – in other words, closer to where the tourism product is being delivered; second, the development of policy and governance networks that manage the relationship between the public sector and destination stakeholders at the local and regional level.

Since the government alone has served the different purposes in tourism development in Nigeria in the past and has not achieved the desired outcome, they seek greater participation from the private sector (Adeleke, 2008). It can be said that, to an extent, private sector involvement has been adopted as highlighted in Chapters 2. However, this should also involve

the local communities. So for Dieke (2003), successful tourism development in Africa needs to pay attention to local involvement and control. The active involvement of local communities is essential to tourism planning and the implementation of legislation (Festus and Omoboye, 2015). Even though the public sector is expected to provide specific functions such as marketing and promotion, strategy, destination management and coordination for the industry, they have grappled with doing so alone and now seek participation from the industry and communities to deliver these functions (Cooper, 2016).

This section has reviewed the literature on governance and as it relates to tourism policy and planning. Governance encourages participation that engage stakeholders at different levels in decision-making. It highlights that the decision-making process is changing to involve not just the government; thus, the term *governance* has been formed. The thesis draws on an element of governance as an essential aspect of policy decision-making in the tourism sector. As De Bruyn and Alonso (2012) highlight, the role of governance is vital in tourism management to give a destination a competitive edge over other competitors. Governance also ensures that the positive economic, socio-cultural, and environmental impacts of tourism development are sustained for the future generation, it is imperative that there is cooperation and coordination within the governance system. Tourism development strategy should allow the input of stakeholders at the national, state and local community level and involve the private sector as well. It could be that, if all these stakeholders are represented adequately in decision-making, such cooperation may facilitate the implementation of policies.

2.2 Tourism policy and planning

As outlined in the previous section, governance encompasses the coordination of all stakeholders in the tourism policy and planning process. The decisions made to regulate the industry are in the form of policies and plans. Thus, this section focuses on discussing the importance of tourism policy and planning. It highlights the significance of existing institutions in facilitating the planning process.

Often, tourism policy and planning are discussed together. According to Hall (2000), one cannot truly separate tourism planning and policy-making. Hall (2008) also identifies that planning involves decision-making and policy-making. It encompasses a set of interdependent

and systematically linked decisions rather than individual ones; therefore policy is a part of an overall 'planning decision action' process (Hall, 2008).

Tourism policy and planning analysis became popular in the late 1980 and early 1990s as a result of the growth of the tourism industry (Hall and Jenkins, 2004). For example, it could also address the problems facing the tourism industry (Hall, 2008), and meet the variety of industry-driven needs such as the need to increase professionalism; improve economic and employment benefits; improve operational efficiencies, marketing and product development (Dredge, Jenkins and Whitford, 2011). Hall (2000) and Reid, Mair and Taylor (2000) pointed out that the demands for tourism planning, as well as government intervention in development processes, are a response to the negative effects of tourism development, mostly at the local level.

However, to restrict the necessity of planning to times when tourism is experiencing problems could lead to inconsistencies in deciding what is accepted as tourism planning. For example, if everything is going well in the tourism industry in a country, there is still need for a plan to ensure proper future development and to pre-empt problems. This could be regarded as a sustainable approach to planning.

Godfrey and Clarke (2000) highlight that tourism policy or plans should determine the development goals and objectives, alongside providing general guidelines for tourism actions and activities. Tourism policy and planning can be achieved by setting clear objectives for the tourism sector in terms of time horizon, i.e. short, medium or long-term goals (Dieke, 2000a). However, when tourism objectives and goals are poorly specified, it could contribute to policy failures (Page, 2007). Besides, when a policy is weak, it is not likely to deal with the issues it was initially intended to address (Page, 2007).

Tourism policy is important and should be different from other general policies (Hall, 1994; Kerr, 2003). However, the past practice in Africa was that there were no clear strategies or policies for tourism development; instead, it was integrated with other sectors of the economy (Dieke, 2003). It is worth mentioning that, after Dieke's study in 2003, some African countries including Nigeria now have a tourism policy which is separate from that of other sectors, though they lack implementation strategy as a result of low political will (Ognonna and Igbojekwe, 2013; Esu, 2015), (see Chapter 3, section 3.1). Particularly, since policies are meant

to provide parameters to direct the affairs of an industry, and tourism qualifies as an industry even with its connection to other sectors, it is therefore imperative that it have its own policies. This is despite other public policies in the different domains potentially affecting or touching on the tourism industry.

A central theme in the literature on tourism policy and planning is sustainability. Tourism development often has negative impacts on the local community and their environment, hence the need to ensure sustainability in tourism planning. Tourism policy and planning should be considered as a significant element to ensure long-term sustainable development (Hall, 2000; Dredge and Jenkins, 2007). This suggests that destinations which desire the long-term sustainability of their tourism industry will see the process of tourism policy and planning as a vital aspect of their management efforts, to mitigate not only current problem but also potential future threats.

Sustainable development supports stakeholders' participation as a principle in tourism planning (Simpson, 2001; Ruhanen, 2004). For tourism planning and development to be sustainable, it must allow host community resident input, and improve their life (Jordan et al., 2013; Mowforth and Munt, 2016). Hence, community participation in tourism decision-making may help facilitate sustainable development.

Jenkins (2015) identifies critical issues that are of global significance to tourism development since they are likely to affect the tourism sector's sustainability in developing countries. These include: first, the question of who should be involved to formulate policy and plans for tourism. The government usually play this role in developing countries with limited private sector involvement. Second, the scale, type, and where to locate tourism developments. Third, the growth of the tourism industry depends on the availability of the basic infrastructures and embarking on such projects can be costly such that private investors often look up to the government to provide this. Fourth, the question of who benefits from tourism development. No nation of the world distributes tourism benefits equitably. However, fair distribution of benefits can be achieved through fiscal measures, taxation, providing opportunities for training, employment regulations to favour local people and monitoring outcomes against targets. Fifth, should there be limits to tourism growth? The idea of carrying capacity is central here, i.e. the maximum number of tourists that any given attraction can support without causing deterioration or damage to the environment. Sixth, it is vital to have measures in place to

monitor and evaluate tourism impacts. For example, economic impacts from tourism have been said to be immediate, while other effects manifest over a more extended period. Consequently, these are fundamental issues in policy and planning are associated with a sustainable tourism sector.

According to Telfer and Sharpley (2008), in the context of developing countries, responses are needed to some politically oriented questions of form and function in tourism development. These include: first, what are the political realities and institutional arrangement in a given destination? Second, what are the values of key institutions involved in tourism development and their actors? Third, who is in control of the decision-making process and who benefits from tourism development?

Thus, Jenkins (2015), seven years after Telfer and Sharpley's (2008) book, noted that there was still a conceptual gap in research in tourism planning and development processes in developing countries. Many of these issues are beyond the scope of this research. However, this study attempts to answer Telfer and Sharpley's (2008) question, which also reflects Jenkins' (2015) first question of who is involved in tourism policy formulation and the fourth of who benefits from tourism development. These questions make both political and economic forms of empowerment of local communities by Scheyvens (1999, 2002) as will be discussed later in this literature review chapter (section 2.3.2.1) critical to this research. For the local people to have a fair share of political and economic opportunities, community participation is inevitable (Saufi, O'Brien and Wilkins, 2014).

2.2.1 Tourism policy: a function of diverse stakeholders

A common theme in the literature on tourism governance is that all stakeholders should be given a voice in the policy formulation process, especially those who tourism development impacts on but who do not benefit from the process. Pastras and Bramwell (2013) emphasise that tourism policy study advocates partnership that brings together the public, private sectors, NGOs and community groups. Ensuring cooperation and integration among diverse stakeholders is vital in developing tourism policy (Edgell and Swanson, 2013). In tourism planning, the public sector is involved by leading, organising, planning and controlling tourism development, setting policies in the destination area which often requires the coordination of the interest of various stakeholders of the private sector businesses, public sector agencies,

residents and visitors (Page, 2007; Scheyvens, 2011). However, for Inskeep (1991) and Tosun and Timothy (2001), in many developing countries tourism planning decisions are made through governments, and as such do not always reflect the views of the other stakeholders.

Including diverse stakeholders in the process of policy formulation for tourism development can be challenging because some issues in tourism policy are a result of stakeholders that are ill-defined (Dieke, 2000a; Scott, 2011). They may include government bodies, tourism operators, the community, corporative organisations, non-government organisation, networks of people and organisations (Scott, 2011). This makes the task of tourism policy complex, since it could involve regular simultaneous cooperation between both stakeholders within a destination as well as those across the globe (Scott, 2011). It also depends on trust, an issue broached in this study section 2.2.2.4.1.

Festus and Omoboye (2015), in their study of local government activities in tourism development, conclude that cooperation between the government, private organisations, local community members, non-governmental organisations, and other stakeholders for the achievement of sustainable tourism are essential. However, Ognonna and Igbojekwe (2013) find in their study of local government areas in Imo State that cooperation between the local government and other stakeholders in tourism planning does not exist. This case could be an example of what is prevalent in other states in Nigeria, and if so, a problem exists.

This section has discussed tourism policy and planning and its importance in ensuring that tourism development succeeds. The review covered the government's role in coordinating tourism policy and the need to involve the private sector and the community. The different needs of the tourism sector make tourism policy necessary as it states the goals and objectives of the industry.

2.2.2 Institutional approach: a public policy theory

Institutions and government structures characterise the tourism policy arena. This section begins by outlining the framing theory, which in this case is institutional theory. It examines the primary role of institutions within the tourism policy formulation process. In particular, it emphasises that institutions are a formal arrangement and that they influence informal individual choices and capacity to take action. It then focuses on the way institutions embrace

both cultural and ideological perspectives of any given destination. Finally, other informal norms, patterns that influence the behaviour of policy participants, are explored.

2.2.2.1 Institutional theory: An overview

Institutional theory is a theoretical approach to understanding the policy process (Hill and Varone, 2017). Douglass North defined institutions as "the rules of the game in a society or, more formally, are the humanly devised constraints that shape human interaction" (1990:3). The institutional theory recognises that policymaking takes place within an institutional context, which tends to structure choices made (Hill and Varone, 2017). For North (1990), without the capacity to enforce those rules by the government actors and the market, governance systems cannot function. This suggests that individuals shape institutions, and they have the capacity to enforce the rules. Further, institutions can be formal (rules) or informal (conventions and codes of behaviour). These informal constraints comprise customs, traditions and code of conducts which have a substantial degree of independence from policy (North, 1990).

To understand institutions, North (1990) used the analogy of sport which is framed around certain rules (formal and informal) that guide the game and which the players must adhere to. Without these rules of the game, the sports will not happen. North's work from economics is relevant to explain the importance of institutional arrangement in decision-making. Tourism development is an economic activity that requires decision-making to direct such development. As such, institutional structures, rules (formal), conventions and codes of behaviour (informal) are essential in tourism development, to shape the tourism governance system. To understand the tourism governance process, it is important to understand both the formal and informal aspects of the institutional context within which such processes takes place.

"Institutional theory faces a problem that confronts all theories that emphasise structure: as they are better at explaining stability than change" (Hill and Varone, 2017:99). Yet institutional theory is not suggesting that change is impossible, nor is it merely taking us back to the sorts of functionalist theories that saw social changes as going down some predetermined pathways. Instead, it is emphasizing constraints on change and pathways that change follows (Hill and Varone, 2017).

Institutions have been categorised as old and new institutionalism. Older traditions of institutionalism are about exogenous patterns (cultures) in which persons, groups, and societies are embedded (Meyer, 2010). The structure is of great importance here and in fact, it determines the behaviour of the actors (Peters, 2012). The newer institutionalism is more about patterns that constrain and empower autonomous, bounded, and purposive actors (Meyer, 2010). Hence the new institutionalism considers the tension between actors and institutions, often discussed as an opposition between agency and structure (Sewell 1992 cited in Meyer, 2010). In the new institutionalism, it is assumed that individuals gain political values as a result of their membership in institutions, whether formal or informal (Peters, 2012). The new institutionalism is less concerned with policy, and it explains patterns of governance (Peters, 2016).

Meyer and Rowan (1977) in their publication *Institutionalised organizations: Formal structure as myth and ceremony* argue that first, institutions are structured by their social and political environments, and that these institutions tend to become isomorphic with them. Formal organisations become matched with their environments. Again, institutional structures reflect a socially constructed reality. In other words, tourism institutions are confronted with the pressures emanating from their environment, i.e. arenas outside of tourism. Institutional structures use strategies and practices that are socially expected of them. For example, institutions established for tourism development are based on the structures and practices in the broader institutional environment, in this case, the Nigerian governance as discussed in Chapter 3.

Second, the likely inconsistency in the institutional expectations and its efficiency sometimes drives the institutions to use 'decoupling' of the formal institutional structures from actual work practices. Decoupling means that organisations for the purpose of efficiency, select structures and practices to align with the prescriptions of institutions. However, this may be different from how the actual work is performed in practice. Hence, conformity becomes 'ceremonial' rather than anything substantive. For example, in tourism governance, decision-makers may agree on a strategy for tourism development that is documented in tourism policy without necessarily translating this rhetoric into action in practice. Although institutions serve as pathways to decisions making, actors may diverge from them when they think they are taking them the wrong way (Hill and Varone, 2017).

2.2.2.2 Conceptualisations of institutionalism

Institutions or institutional theory has opened up to research contributions from other social science disciplines such as political science, history and sociology. Peters (2012) shows an overview of the various conceptualisations of institutions and how they are analysed in political science. He argues that they sometimes overlap, and in some cases, they are in sharp disagreement. These include 1) historical institutionalism, 2) sociological institutionalism, 3) discursive institutionalism, 4) normative institutionalism, 5) international institutionalism and 6) Empirical institutionalism (Peters, 2012).

First, *historical institutionalism* holds that the outcomes of public policies reflect the interests or preferences of powerful social forces. They are directed by both the existing and past institutional arrangements. In other words, the policy choices made in the past profoundly shape decisions made today (Thoenig, 2011). Historical approaches emphasise that politics and policies shape institutions (Thoenig, 2011).

Historical institutionalism is concerned with how contemporary political systems are embedded in their historical development as well as their socioeconomic and cultural present (Peters, 2012). In this way, to fully understand tourism development in Nigeria, it is essential to understand the development patterns that have produced the system. Hence individual behaviour is a function of their collective history and understanding of politics, which has been influenced by their history (Peters, 2012).

Second, *sociological institutionalism* views that public administration or management is concerned not only with designing formal structures but also with the way that participants are influenced, transformed and completed by informal structures (Thoenig, 2011). For Thoenig (2011) what happens at the bottom of the management hierarchy at the grass root-level or units matters and in some cases, even more than what happens at the top. It is essential that public administration copes with the pressures and constraints from the external political context in which it operates (Thoenig, 2011). Here either the society or culture defines the actions and in-actions, the structures and the values of the public sector. (Thoenig, 2011). In that way, public institutions function like political arenas whose functioning is shaped by issues of power.

Third, the *constructivist and discursive institutionalism* in institutional theory is concerned with the role that ideas play in shaping institutions and individual behaviour within those institutions (Peters, 2012). The key thing in discursive institutionalism is the idea, how this is shared or communicated within the structure and how it defines decision-making (Peters, 2012). Discursive institutionalism is less of a structural approach to institutions. While the term ‘institutions’ appears to imply structure, in this case, the structure is more implicit, suggesting common understanding and perhaps beliefs rather than hierarchies or formal structures (Peters, 2012). As such this approach emphasise informal aspects of institutions which are mostly implicit. It is useful in the formulation and evaluation of policies and programs (Peters, 2016).

It considers the formal structures to be secondary to the ideas that members of the institutions hold and the communication that occurs within the structures (Peters, 2012). When institutions are viewed from this perspective, they may represent relatively stable ‘fora’ whereby continuing discussion and redefinition is occurring (Peters, 2012). Actors are involved in institutions primarily because of the values and ideas that the institution represents and not based on any formal structures or rules (Peters, 2012). This approach places much emphasis on the agency of the actors in institutional dialogue and interaction (Peters, 2012).

Fourth, *normative institutionalism* this is a critical approach in the new institutionalism. It places norms and values in a central position. Here, institutions are defined through ideas and norms (Peters, 2012). Ideas in this approach overlap with that of discursive institutionalism. In normative institutional theory, individual preferences are shaped by their involvement with institutions to a large extent (Peters, 2012), for example through training to perform a specific task for institutions like military or fire service. For others, through institutional socialisation, it may occur through more natural processes (Peters, 2012). Norms and values are the key constraints here; hence, it depends on human agency.

Fifth, *international institutionalism*, emphasises the importance of international organisations such as the WTO in economic development, and that international frameworks or institutions are essential for governance (Peters, 2012). International institutions such as UNESCO and UNWTO are also relevant international institutions in tourism governance that can influence tourism development in any nation.

Sixth, *empirical institutionalism* emphasises structures which analyse governance at the macro-level. Here institutional systems such as parliamentary and presidential forms of government have influences over how governance is administered and influences the micro-level. The empirical approach is relevant to describing how governance is created instead of providing explanations for how choices are made by actors (Peters, 2016).

All the conceptualisations of institutionalism point to the fact that structure plays a crucial role in determining behaviour, and that it is essential in determining the outcomes of political processes. They, however, differ in the role that they allow human agency. For some of the approaches, the role of institutions depends heavily on the actions of the members of the institution, and their perceptions of the rules of their institutions (Peters, 2012:117). This is the case for discursive and normative approaches, while the historical, sociological, international and empirical approaches recognise formal structure (ibid.). As such, they emphasise the formal and informal aspects of governance.

Institutional arrangements are important to understand the process of tourism policy formulation; any study on public policy would be incomplete without an understanding of the policy-making institutions (Cairney, 2012). Within the context of tourism, Hall (2011a) highlights the importance of understanding the conceptualisations of institutional arrangements in governance to determine the ways the state acts in the tourism policy arena and how they select instruments and indicators to achieve policy goals. Understanding institutional or regulatory framework is important to situation analysis of the contexts in which tourism takes place in developing countries (Dieke, 1991; 2000a).

Cairney (2012) conceptualises institutions as the arena within which policies are made and the rules of behaviour that influence the way those policies are made. Institutions can also be non-statutory and informal rules or norms that focus on regular patterns of behaviour, the relationships that exist between policy participants and how to behave (Cairney, 2012). Institutional arrangements are formal or informal frameworks in any given organisation that shape the authority, autonomy, internal coherence and regulation of an organisation (Beaumont and Dredge, 2010). These institutions to a large extent determine the direction and content of policy processes (Bekkers, Fenger and Scholten, 2017).

Institutions embrace both elements of structures and agency: where structures relate to the patterned arrangement which influence or limit individuals choices and opportunities, agency refers to individuals capacity to act independently and make choices (Bekkers, Fenger and Scholten, 2017). Hence, agency deals with how the formal structures operate or functions in practice. Here, the themes of trust, awareness, accountability and transparency broached in Chapter 8 are essential.

According to Hall and Jenkins (2004), despite there being substantial growth in descriptive tourism policy studies, only a few policy studies have linked accounts of tourism policy-making to theories of public policy explicitly. Notwithstanding the practical importance of tourism policy, yet compared to other areas of tourism research this aspect is still comparatively poorly developed regarding empirical understandings, theoretical development and the amount of works published in the area (Hall and Jenkins, 2004). Kerr (2003) records that a solution to the problem lies in using other theories relevant to tourism policy.

This research following Kerr's (2003) recommendation links the institutional theory approach from the field of public policy to tourism policy. Hall and Jenkins (2004) also argue that only a few tourism researchers have a background in politics, political science and public policy, consequently, critical engagement with public policy theory is lacking. The understanding of the process of public tourism policy depends upon the theoretical/conceptual framework that can explain the policy process, identify links between policies, people and activities (Bramwell, 2006). The institutional theory is therefore useful in understanding the public policy process (Hill, 2013).

The institutional approach specifies the role that the institutions have in shaping policies. According to Hall and Jenkins (1995), it reveals the way in which politicians, government, departments and authorities, bureaucrats, interest groups, media and others perceive, understand and act out their roles. Therefore, institutional arrangements help shape and structure what people will consider doing. However, these arrangements do not necessarily determine or control actions on their own because of personal values, interest and in the case of bureaucrats, their ability to exercise discretion in the implementation of policy (Hall and Jenkins, 1995).

An institutional approach to tourism public policy arrangements asserts that the role of the state is significant for any tourism industry (Hall and Jenkins, 1995). In particular, the "[...] institutional approach has been developed from the perception that public policy is made within political and public institutions" (Stevenson, Airey and Miller, 2008:733). Hence, tourism is influenced strongly by or reliant on government and therefore highly institutionalised (Scott, 2011).

However, studies on public policy have shown that institutions and actors beyond and within the government are involved in policy formulation and implementation processes (Bramwell, 2006). This is because the government is not the only actor that seeks to influence societal problems (Bekkers, Fenger and Scholten, 2017). Some scholars in tourism, such as Bramwell and Lane (2011) and Hall (2011a), have begun promoting institutional structures that allow the participation of diverse stakeholders rather than government alone in decision-making processes. Besides, institutions are also vital to structuring stakeholders interaction, and it influences policy directions (Hall, 2007; Hudson and Lowe, 2009).

Having examined tourism policy and planning and the usefulness of the institutional theory in understanding tourism policy and planning process, the next section turns to how institutions are influenced by the cultural and ideological perspectives in a country.

2.2.2.3 Influences of political culture and ideology on tourism policy and planning

Tourism policy-making is a political activity rooted in the social, economic, cultural characteristics of particular society, the formal structures of government as well as the general political system in the locality (Dieke, 2000a; Hall, 2000; Bramwell, 2006). In this present research context, too, it is possible that the political culture that characterises Nigeria influences tourism decision-making. This study draws on Almond's (1956) definition of political culture as "the particular pattern of orientations to political action in which every political system is embedded" (cited in Welch, 1993:3-4). The political culture in Nigeria is the ways by which the people perceive, think and feel about politics, their attitudes to government and social relations shared by the majority of the Nigerian population (Gberevbie and Lafenwa, 2007). Dwelling on the significance of political culture in tourism policy and planning, Elliott (1997:17) submits that "the way tourism is managed will depend on the political culture of the country and the ideology of the government".

According to Elliott (1997), a government's ideologies influence the formulation of policies; moreover, "Critical to the analysis of tourism, public policy is the explicit study of the linkage between power, ideology, values and institutions" (Hall and Jenkins, 2004:532). Also, a fundamental point in policy formulation discussion is that individuals are responsible for making policies and since individuals possess certain values and ideologies, all these shapes the way they make policy decisions (George, Mair and Reid, 2009). This suggests that whoever is involved in the policy formulations process is likely to establish policies that address the issues that are fundamental to them, which may not necessarily reflect the interests of the other actors who are not represented in the process.

Individuals have subjective orientations towards Nigerian politics (Gberevbie and Lafenwa, 2007), which are influenced by the political culture and government ideologies in the nation (Welch, 1993; Elliott, 1997). It is important to examine ideologies and the political culture because they can influence how transparent or accountable the government will be to their citizens; it can also affect how trustworthy the citizens will perceive the government to be (Sutawa, 2012). These issues are considered next.

2.2.2.4 Trust, transparency and accountability in governance

Governance, at one end of the spectrum, can be formal and focuses on policies and structures/institutions. At the other end is the content of governance, the informal/intangible aspects with categories such as trust, accountability and transparency. These informal features are essential to how people relate to the formal structures. Put simply, there is no point in having government structures if citizens do not engage with them.

This section establishes the significance of the informal dimensions within the political culture, mainly because these concepts are crucial to any social relationship such as tourism governance. Much of the research on governance in tourism studies (Ruhanen *et al.*, 2010; Hall, 2011b; De Bruyn and Alonso, 2012; Amore and Hall, 2016) has focused more on the formal aspects of policies, it is yet to fully integrate the informal elements which form the content of the structures. Such research, however, identifies transparency and accountability as dimensions of governance.

2.2.2.4.1 Trust

The underlying factor for the functioning of both formal and less formal institutions and channels, their decision-making processes, political, social and community relations is trust (Edwards and Nunkoo, 2015; Nunkoo, 2017). Trust makes it possible to maintain peaceful and stable social relations that are the basis for collective behaviour and productive cooperation (Newton, 2001). Hence, the issue of trust is vital to tourism policy and planning processes for enhanced understandings of how policy emerges (Dredge, 2006), and the interactions between the diverse stakeholders (Dredge, 2006; Panyik, 2015).

Research on tourism governance has not clarified the importance of trust in policy-making processes and has always focused more on other issues, such as power, which is vital to gain the support of the local community in tourism development planning (Nunkoo and Ramkissoon, 2012; Nunkoo, 2017). This suggests that when local community members do not trust the government, they may not want to be involved in tourism development planning. Also, when community members participate in the decision-making processes, it increases the local people's trust and confidence in the tourism industry (Ognonna and Igbojekwe, 2013; Adeyemo and Bada, 2016). The decline in trust that local communities have in government and their institutions poses a significant challenge to tourism governance in destinations (Nunkoo, 2017).

When communities participate in policy development, designing development interventions, it can enhance trust between those who decide, those who implement the decisions, and the population at large (UNDP, 2014). Active trust is necessary for public participation processes, policy, planning and in community engagement since it enhances collaboration in such processes (Edwards and Nunkoo, 2015). Active trust can be built up by stakeholders as they communicate regularly and reflect on their interactions (Edwards and Nunkoo, 2015).

It is necessary to overcome significant barriers to trust to establish any meaningful stakeholder participation (Holden and Novelli, 2011). Further, a community-based approach in tourism planning that puts the needs of community members ahead of tourist needs can help build the foundation for community trust and support (Mair and Reid, 2007). Building public trust can promote transparency, accountability and participation (UNDESA, UNDP and UNESCO, 2012). In order to build trust and avoid suspicion in any local tourism initiatives, it is crucial

that benefits should spread throughout the community rather than to only a few individuals who realise the benefits (Hamilton and Alexander, 2013).

Local level governance can facilitate an inclusive and participatory approach to tourism governance to bring about benefits such as trust, ownership, a sense of shared interest and enhanced information sharing (Beaumont and Dredge, 2010). Inequalities in development and the marginalisation of local communities produce distrust between residents and tourism planners (Edwards and Nunkoo, 2015). In Nigeria, developing trust in institutions, at the Federal, States and Local Governments levels, depends a lot on who is holding power (Daloz, 2005). This largely explains why the population excluded and, frustrated, are eager to have some control (Daloz, 2005).

The trust that citizens have for institutions is dependent on the government's performance: when they perform well, they earn the public's trust; when they perform poorly, they build distrust and uncertainty (Nunkoo, Ramkissoon and Gursoy, 2012). Moreover, when the government does not explicitly give information concerning their political agenda to the public (Nyaupane and Timothy, 2010), it leaves them uncertain about the future and causes community members to have distrust in government representatives. Studies (see Scheyvens, 1999, 2002; Timothy, 1999; Tosun, 1999, 2005; Sofield, 2003; Bello, Carr and Lovelock, 2016) on community participation and empowerment tend to underestimate trust in socio-political processes which this research identifies as crucial in such endeavour.

2.2.2.4.2 Transparency and accountability

The all too common characteristics of African countries such as corruption and unaccountable governance are central to limiting the functioning of institutions (Nelson, 2012). Good governance supports transparency and accountability to the people (Ogundiya, 2010; Odo, 2015), these may facilitate active local community participation in tourism planning (Garrod, 2003), thereby reducing possible suspicions about the motives of planning authorities or other stakeholders (Bello, Carr and Lovelock, 2016). To earn community trust, there must be accountability (Sutawa, 2012). Odo (2015) recommends the enlightenment and empowerment of citizens so that they demand accountability from their elected representatives in Nigeria.

Local community members who live in localities where tourism development takes place will tend to trust government officials if they are transparent and accountable to them (Nunkoo, Ramkissoon and Gursoy, 2012). While it is essential to look at the formal structures when studying tourism governance processes, it is also pertinent to examine the informal dimensions within such a political process to enrich these descriptions (North, 1990; Cairney, 2012). Hence, these more subjective aspects of governance will feature in the analysis chapters.

Having examined tourism policy and planning, the following section explores in detail the participatory planning approach, community participation and empowerment which can reveal who is involved and who benefits from tourism development.

2.3 Participatory approaches to development

This section starts by tracing the historical development of participatory approaches to development, which came about as a result of the need for alternative forms of tourism development, such as community-oriented approaches rather than government-centric forms. Participatory approaches function to involve the local people, who are often marginalised, to find out about their local context and life (Chambers, 2008). Next, the section considers community participation in tourism development planning. It then focuses on empowerment as a deeper form of community participation (Novelli, 2015). Finally, the chapter outlines some of the criticisms of participatory approaches to development.

Chambers (1994b) advocates participation, which developed and became popular through the Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) in the 1990s. It was first used to investigate at the village level in Kenya and India in 1988; however, there was an explosion of PRA innovation and its applications in Nepal and other parts of the world by the 1990s. Indeed, the 1990s were the decade of participatory planning and development (Mowforth and Munt, 2016). This represented a paradigm shift from the Rapid Rural Appraisal (RRA), an innovation of the 1980s.

For Chambers (1994a), in PRA information is generated, owned, analysed, and shared by the local people as part of their empowerment (see section 2.3.2 for a discussion of empowerment), whereas in RRA information is elicited by outsiders as part of the data-gathering process.

Hence, PRA began promoting community participation and empowerment in projects in developing countries. By 1995, the Participatory Learning Action (PLA) was also introduced as a similar approach to PRA (Chambers, 2008). Both PRA and PLA seek participatory ways to empower local people so that they can express their knowledge and take action for themselves (Chambers, 2008).

PRA is based on three central characteristics: first, behaviour and attitudes that the local people can participate in planning by encouraging them to take responsibility for themselves and be confident. Second, sharing, which offers local people the opportunity to share their knowledge, ideas and insights with organisations such as the government and NGOs. Sharing can also evolve into building a relationship with the local people. A third distinctive feature of PRA is that it uses visual and tangible methods that can involve small groups of people in the village who gather to draw maps and diagrams to show the characteristics and resources they possess (Chambers, 2008). The relationship built during this process between the planners and local community members may lead to building trust.

The participatory planning approach places emphasis on involving the local community in tourism development. According to Willis (2011), the development that takes place in the grassroots and that involves local people is frequently called *participatory*. This approach advocates that there is a need for a higher level of control by the community over their own destiny, as opposed to control coming from outside the community (Butcher, 2007). By following this approach, local people may have the opportunity to participate in planning any development project in their community. Participation is not only useful in community project development, it is now being associated with policy and governance *per se* (Mikkelsen, 2005).

Various forms of planning approaches have been discussed in the literature to support community involvement. For example, participatory planning (Timothy, 1999; Tosun, 2000, 2006; Mair and Reid, 2007; Bello, Carr and Lovelock, 2016), that advocates a bottom-up approach (Garrod, 2003; Nyaupane and Timothy, 2010; Dela Santa, 2015) and community-based approaches to planning (Mair and Reid, 2007; Okazaki, 2008; Jamal and Stronza, 2009; Novelli, 2015) and finally, collaborative tourism planning (Jamal and Getz, 1995; Bramwell and Sharman, 1999; Ladkin and Bertramini, 2002; Bramwell, 2004; Healy, Rau and McDonagh, 2012).

Though decision-making on tourism development and policy formulation is addressed at the national and state level in Nigeria, tourism development mostly occurs at the local community level (Mustapha, 2001; Esu, 2013, 2015), and little is known about the extent to which tourism governance involves community groups in the policy formulation process and whether they benefit from tourism development. As emphasised by UNDP in Section 2.1, governance processes should include the participation of the poor and the vulnerable in decision-making (UNDP, 2005 cited in UNDP, 2014).

Tourism planning has evolved into participatory planning because of the goal of tourism to bring about both economic and socio-cultural development (Tosun, 2006). As such, participation has become an important development concept and a vehicle for stakeholders at different levels to guide planning and strategy formulation (Mikkelsen, 2005). The participatory planning approach acknowledges that diverse stakeholder groups including public, private, the host community and business representatives are interdependent actors that should work together to resolve strategic tourism issues in a complex tourism domain (Timothy and Tosun, 2003).

Decentralisation in tourism governance may facilitate the participatory approach to tourism planning and development. Tosun (2006) highlights that without a meaningful decentralisation in public administration, it might not be possible to achieve community participation as a citizen right. Likewise, Strzelecka and Wicks (2010) stress the value of all-inclusive decision-making and decentralisation in ensuring that quality decisions are made. The devolution of government activities is adopted for both economic and political reasons; economically, it could lead to cost effectiveness and efficiency while politically, it enables local people to have a say in decisions about their services (Willis, 2011).

Decentralisation and local governance are essential to strengthening local participation in political action as well as providing a platform for sharing information, discussion, negotiation and learning in managing tourism development (Benedetto, Carboni and Corinto, 2016). Community mobilisation at the local government level could be a possible way to address the issue of bad governance due to its smallness at a micro level (Dwivedi, Khator and Nef, 2007). The local government areas are the third tier of government in Nigeria and are the closest to the people in the local community (Ognonna and Igbojekwe, 2013). They can mobilise locals towards tourism development in their community (Ognonna and Igbojekwe, 2013).

Indeed, the Nigerian Tourism Development Master Plan highlights decentralisation: that the state and local government be empowered to coordinate the activities of tourism agencies in their area through community partnerships, ownership and management of tourism development (NTDMP, 2006). The master plan also sets out the importance of decentralisation, local control and community participation.

The recognition of participatory approaches to planning is also linked to getting local knowledge and perspective in tourism development. Such knowledge signifies the power that the local community has, which may not be shared by other stakeholders in tourism development. It is believed that community involvement is necessary because they have the local knowledge needed to support tourism development in any given destination (Tosun and Jenkins, 1998; Garrod, 2003; Bramwell, 2004; Sebele, 2010; Sutawa, 2012). Through collaborative processes, valuable information about local people's practical awareness and local knowledge could be drawn from, which will align tourism development with local community priorities and aspirations (Bramwell, 2004; Sutawa, 2012).

It is unlikely that tourism development without a considerable involvement of the local government and community members will be successful, since tourism planning needs local support (Timothy, 1999; Ognonna and Igbojekwe, 2013) due to the local knowledge they possess (Timothy, 1999). Also, they are more likely to know what will work and what will not in local conditions (Timothy and Tosun, 2003). Local knowledge is essential to economic development because it gives certain advantages to indigenous people in projects that require specialised knowledge (Berkes, 2012). This is also reflected in a wider recognition of the importance of local knowledge in development generally.

For Akama and Kieti (2007), the success of tourism should be measured by how the industry contributes to the overall development of local people at the grassroots level. Participatory tourism planning should be centred on deliberations on community development since they are central to tourism development (Mair and Reid, 2007). This is because a critical concern in the participatory planning approach is whether tourism planners restrict development goals to tourism businesses only or whether they include the broader objectives of community development (Mair, 2015).

2.3.1 Community participation in tourism planning and development

Community participation is considered to be a situation whereby the community members who live in a particular area or locality directly participate in tourism decision-making and as a result benefit from such interaction. Research in tourism planning has highlighted the need to involve the local community in the planning process (Murphy, 1985; Scheyvens, 1999; Tosun, 1999, 2000). This section focuses on the typologies of community participation in development in general and more specifically on those of tourism development. It also examines some of the challenges that face community participation and the strategies that can be employed for improving them.

A seminal work on community participation in tourism planning by Murphy (1985) popularised local community participation in tourism development. In his work, Murphy (1985) cited that the inadequate consultation with the people at the local community level in tourism planning has undoubtedly contributed to the delay and demise of tourism projects and policies proposed by the central planning authorities. Often, it is the local people who are often being left out of decision-making relating to tourism planning (Mowforth and Munt, 2016), hence the term *local or community participation*. By developing a process that allows the local community to participate in every aspect of tourism planning is a step towards creating a mechanism to mitigate negative impacts and to develop an approach to tourism that can satisfy at least some of the needs of the community (Reid, Mair and Taylor, 2000).

From the review of the literature on participation in development practice, two scholars Arnstein (1969) and Pretty (1995) are significant for categorising participation through their typologies. Here, some forms of participation are passive rather than active with control over development; moreover, not all forms of community participation can lead to realising the expected benefits from tourism (Tosun, 2006).

An early work by Arnstein (1969) classifies citizen participation into three categories and eight sub-categories using a ladder to illustrate and clarify the term *participation*. At the lower end is non-participation, which is often used as a substitution for real participation, a degree of citizen tokenism where citizens can say their views, but often lack the power to ensure they are used in decision-making. This is still prevalent in developing countries, since participation is

merely used to comply with international standards (Tosun, 2000; Timothy and Tosun, 2003; Timothy, 2007). At the higher end of the ladder is a degree of citizen control, where local communities are actively involved in the decision-making.

In a later publication, Pretty (1995) categorises the levels of participation into seven scales, from manipulative or passive forms of participation, where those who plan for development tell the community representatives what will or has happened and they lack the power to change things, to consultation with the local people, where planners do not have to accept the views expressed by the local people. Community members can also participate through contributing resources, such as labour, to get cash in return for services rendered. Furthermore, functional participation involves community members when significant decisions have already been taken, and they participate by forming groups within the community to meet the already predetermined objectives. In interactive forms of participation, the local people have a stake in maintaining structures and practices. They participate in planning, and they have a say over how their resources are used. Finally, self-mobilisation describes when people are allowed to take initiatives independently of external institutions. While the community have control over their resources in self-mobilisation, they can also get resources and advice from external institutions. It is at the two final levels of interactive and self-mobilisation that the local people can participate actively in decision-making processes.

In the same way, some models have been developed in tourism planning and development practice which can be operationalised, from Tosun's (1999) typology of community participation to Scheyvens' (1999) empowerment framework. The former is considered in this section and the later in Section 2.3.2

Tosun (1999) proposes a framework on the different forms of community participation in tourism development, which he summarised under three categories: spontaneous, induced and coercive community participation. First, spontaneous community participation allows the community members to handle the development project without external control over the decision-making through to implementation and in sharing the benefits. It further comprises direct, active and authentic forms of community participation. In direct host community participation, the community has the opportunity to convey their opinions and feelings on tourism development directly to decision-makers, which could be a step to achieving active community participation. Active community participation happens when the host community

participates in the tourism development process by making their desires and goals for tourism development known, determined by them without external influence. For this form of participation to be efficient and effective depends mainly on the availability of resources at the local community level, i.e. finance and the quality of human resources who possess entrepreneurial skills. Lastly, authentic host community participation reinforces the awareness of host communities on their capabilities to make choices that will influence the content and outcomes of tourism development. This is not common in practice, particularly in developing countries.

Second, induced community participation is a top-down form of participation which does not require all members of a host community in a tourist destination to participate. It is mostly achieved by training local leaders to participate in the implementation of tourism development plans and the sharing of benefits. It can represent a degree of tokenism.

Third, in the coercive form the host community participate in the endorsement and implementation of decisions taken by external bodies, but not necessarily in the sharing of benefits. This represents a higher degree of tokenism, manipulation and non-participation (Tosun, 1999). This typology is useful for classification purposes, even though Tosun (1999) himself warns that it should be regarded as a preliminary stage in developing a typology of community participation. This could be because it is possible for these categories to overlap and can sometimes fall within each other.

Tosun (2006) in a later publication, puts together a diagram which synthesised all these typologies (Arnstein, 1969; Pretty, 1995; Tosun, 1999). Table 1 presents the typologies of community participation that can be possible in development generally and tourism in particular.

Table 1 Typologies of community participation

7. Self-mobilization	←	8. Citizen control	Degrees of Citizen Power	→	Spontaneous Participation Bottom-up; active par.; direct participation; par. in decision making, authentic participation; self planning;
6. Interactive participation		7. Delegated power 6. Partnership			
5. Functional participation	←	5. Placation	Degrees of Citizen Tokenism	→	Induced Participation Top-down; passive; formal; mostly indirect; degree of tokenism, manipulation; pseudo-participation; participation in implementation and sharing benefits; choice between proposed alternatives and feedback.
4. Participation for material incentives		4. Consultation			
3. Participation by consultation		3. Informing			
2. Passive participation	←	2. Therapy	Non-participation	→	Coercive Participation Top-down, passive; mostly indirect, formal; participation in implementation, but not necessarily sharing benefits; choice between proposed limited alternatives or no choice; paternalism, non-participation, high degree of tokenism and manipulation.
1. Manipulative participation		1. Manipulation			
Pretty's (1995) typology of community participation	Arnstein's (1971) typology of community participation		Tosun's (1999a) typology of community participation		

Keys: Corresponding categories in each typology → ←

Source: Tosun (2006:494).

Using the typologies of community participation as a guide, the form of participation intended for local communities as stated in the Nigerian Tourism Development Master Plan represents partnership, and delegated power (levels 6 and 7) from Arnstein's (1969) eight levels of the typology of citizen participation. It represents self-mobilization, which is the highest level in Pretty's (1995) typology of community participation; and these all fall within the third level in Tosun's (1999) typology, which is spontaneous participation, yet this is not evident in practice. For example, Adeyemo and Bada (2016) conclude that tourism decision-making in Nigeria is top-down and the form of participation often experienced by local communities is passive.

Telfer and Sharpley (2008) argue that tourism planning and development occurs through a top-down approach in developing countries. Tourism planning in Africa must not be top-down, and local community involvement should not be optional (Dei, 2000), as it is a component of sustainable tourism development (Tosun, 2000; Scheyvens, 2002; Strzelecka and Wicks, 2010). It is also claimed that local community involvement is fundamental to creating an understanding between the government and the community on how to use local resources sustainably and appropriately (Jamal and Stronza, 2009). However, Reid, Mair and Taylor (2000) suggests that tourism is being developed in many communities without the participation of residents.

A community approach to tourism planning is a bottom-up type of planning, and it highlights development in the community instead of development of the community (Hall, 2008). The bottom-up approach contrasts top-down development approaches, where policies are imposed upon people who do not participate in the processes (Henkel and Stirrat, 2004). According to Agrusa and Albieri (2011:119):

[The] bottom-up approach allows the local population to be heard, gives them the opportunity to decide what, where, when, how and to whom their culture will be exposed, and not for decisions to be made for them. The local population become active players in deciding their future, and not mere spectators of external abuse and opportunism.

Agrusa and Albieri (2011), in their study of Prainha, Portugal, find that the implementation of a bottom-up approach to tourism resulted in positive social, eco-cultural and environmental impact for the village. For example, it created opportunities for the community to generate income, encouraged the participation of local stakeholders in the process of decision-making, and reinforced the local culture by preserving and strengthening community values, environmental awareness, conservation and empowering minorities.

In a study in Nigeria, Adeyemo and Bada (2016) find that local community members want to be actively involved in decisions on tourism development so that their needs and concerns can be incorporated into such plans, as well as to protect their values, norms, and interests, increase equity and transparency regardless of their level of illiteracy (Adeyemo and Bada, 2016).

The phrase *local participation* is often repeated and for some has become a meaningless mantra. For Butcher (2010:204), "what the mantra of local participation does is to portray political agency as a local phenomenon affecting local people, premised upon their local environment". Here, Butcher claims that rather than being empowering, local participation can limit community agency. Also, Henkel and Stirrat (2004: 168) point out that "it is now difficult to find a project that does not claim to adopt a 'participatory' approach involving 'bottom-up' planning, acknowledging the importance of 'indigenous' knowledge and claiming to 'empower' local people".

Scheyvens' (2002) neo-populist view advocates that the voices of the people who are most affected by tourism should be heard and that local communities ought to be central to any tourism planning and management. The neo-populist idea on community participation stresses

community control, i.e. the community agency is seen to be at the forefront of development formulation, and not 'big' government or 'big' business (Butcher, 2007).

George, Mair and Reid (2009) highlight that the local people who are close to where tourism development take place should be part of tourism policy formulation and development since it affects their lives, and that such policies should not be made from afar. It is essential that the local people be consulted from the point of vision creation and not by merely asking them to react to policy drafts that they were not involved in planning. This Tosun (1999) refers to as non-participation, representing a higher degree of tokenism and manipulation.

Participation enables local community members to have a voice and profit from tourism development. Community-Based Tourism (CBT) has been used to involve local community members in tourism planning and development. It offers enormous opportunities for marginalised communities to be able to participate in tourism development (Bramwell, 2010; Spenceley and Meyer, 2012), generates income for the local community, preserves local culture provide educational opportunities and reduce the negative impact that characterises tourism development (Hamzah and Khalifah, 2009). CBT can help to avoid the economic and psychological anxiety that local communities often feel over tourism development (Reid, 2003).

According to Novelli (2015), CBT departs from mere 'community involvement' to more profound claims of local 'community engagement'. CBT aims to unlock opportunities for the broader local community, and to not exclude the less privileged at the many levels and scales of tourism operations. Such engagement allows the community to benefit from alternative livelihoods, economic gains and participation in decision-making.

As noted by Mowforth and Munt (2016), although it is essential that tourism development ideas or control come from the community, equally important is the fact that local communities can benefit from or need the assistance of national government to get the resources to coordinate and establish their ideas. Local communities may lack the resources, skills, finances and educational resources required and they often depend on the central government for assistance (Reid, 2003; Sofield, 2003; Bello, Carr and Lovelock, 2016; Mowforth and Munt, 2016). In developing countries, public sector and professional organisations need to support and work

with the local people to allow them to interact with the other stakeholders on a more equitable basis to negotiate on issues that affect their lives (Akama and Kieti, 2007).

Thus, a partnership between the community and other stakeholders can be helpful to assist both the community and also the government to achieve their aims (Eagles, 2009; Holden and Novelli, 2011; Mowforth and Munt, 2016). These can include government, tourism organisations, the private sector and the residents or local community members. For example, the government or international bodies can help tourism development financially; the academic world can help with research if needed, and the industry can be useful concerning offering training to local community members on how to operate small businesses in tourism, tour operators can also help gain access to tourists. Such an act can make CBT projects successful.

Notwithstanding the potential of CBT as a form of development for poverty reduction, there are limitations that are not often being considered in the discussion (Gascón, 2013). In fact, in the case of Khama Rhino Sanctuary Trust (KRST) Botswana, rather than CBT resulting in benefits for the community members it was found that the community members felt that the costs far outweigh the benefits. For example, CBT led to the loss of access to natural resources by the community members, and it only benefitted a few members of the community (Sebele, 2010). Other challenges are that CBT can stimulate conflicts if local community members are not willing to work together as a group, the issue of lack of knowledge and resources at the community level (Tosun, 2000), and low level of economic viability (Sebele, 2010).

Also, in the case of Serengeti ecosystem in Tanzania, there was restricted access to land and increase in the costs of living as a result of the rise in the tourists' numbers visiting Western Serengeti and Ngorongoro areas. Again, the private sector investors, the government and the protected area agencies benefit more from tourism in the area, and little profit gets to the community (Novelli, 2015).

Further, in CBT, over-reliance on external donors can be problematic, making the economic viability of the project questionable as such CBT projects may not survive without the intervention of donor agencies. Often projects that are heavily reliant on foreign aid may collapse when aid agencies withdraw their support or assistance from such projects (Sebele, 2010).

Collaboration among stakeholders in tourism planning and development can help bring about widely accepted solutions to tourism problems; however, when one stakeholder acts alone in solving problems it can frustrate others from pursuing their own goals (Okazaki, 2008). Community participation allows for cooperation and collaboration and encourages principles such as efficiency, equity, integration, harmony, balances and ecological and cultural integrity (Tosun and Timothy, 2003). However, ensuring that all stakeholders' views are heeded to and given equal consideration is difficult since the perspectives and the primary concern of the powerful groups often prevails (Bramwell, 2004).

2.3.1.1 Challenges in community participation/strategies for improvement

As promising as community participation may appear, however, it is often confronted with particular challenges. Timothy (1999) identifies that in trying to involve community members in the tourism planning process in developing countries, difficulties exist since government officials, private groups, or community members have little experience in the tourism industry. Tosun (2005) admits that it is not an easy task due to the complexities in developing nations such as political instability, lack of transparency, lack of data and information on developmental issues, and other undemocratic circumstances that make it difficult to highlight tourism and local participation concurrently.

Tosun (2000) recognises three challenges that may hinder community participation in tourism planning processes: they include operational, structural and cultural limits. While operational limits include poor communication and information sharing among stakeholders; inadequate coordination between the different policy actors involved in the planning process; and the centralised nature of public administration in developing countries. Structural and cultural limits are shaped by power structures and power relations which influence the planning process, as well as lack of capacity for the poor.

First, operational limitations:

1) lack of information- it is often difficult for the host community to participate in the process of tourism development because of the information and knowledge gaps that exist between the central authorities and local communities (Tosun, 2000; Sofield, 2003; Cole, 2006). Another operational barrier to participatory tourism development is the limited expertise of citizens in tourism (Tosun, 2000; Murphy and Murphy, 2004). This is because communities often lack

the understanding of what they should be making decisions on (Sofield, 2003). As Timothy (1999) finds in the case of Yogyakarta in Indonesia, because residents lacked the understanding of tourism, they acknowledged that they should not be involved in planning and government officials used some of these residents' inadequacies as excuses for not engaging them in the planning process. Further, there may be a plan from the 'expert' to encourage participatory development, but the local people may have a different approach (Mowforth and Munt, 2016).

2) Inadequate coordination between the different policy actors involved in the planning process due to the highly fragmented nature of the tourism industry, as such tourism development may not benefit from the coordination of the central and local planning authorities.

3) Centralisation of public administration in the tourism industry. Decentralisation of political structures to the local level is key to encouraging community participation. Hence when power is centralised to the central government, it becomes challenging to operationalise community participation.

Second, structural and cultural limits, in certain developing countries, mean that community groups are discouraged from being involved in tourism planning because of the culture, the acceptance that policy decisions are made by some groups of people, or due to their history of being excluded from decision-making (Bramwell, 2004). In some cases, the explanations given by the government for minimising public participation in deciding on community tourism development issues are concerns over its effectiveness and the associated costs (Murphy and Murphy, 2004; Lindström and Larson, 2016). For Lindström and Larson (2016), what is rather lacking is experience or education among planners and other industry stakeholders on how to involve local communities in tourism.

Strategies for improving these situations could be to provide information and create awareness about tourism to local community members (Dieke, 2000b; Timothy and Tosun, 2003; Murphy and Murphy, 2004). This can be achieved by selecting representatives who have an interest in such development and then educating them (Mair, 2015) to better qualify them to make knowledgeable decisions about tourism in their communities (Timothy, 1999). This is because knowledge about tourism is a necessary precursor for local people to participate in the decision process in tourism planning and management (Cole, 2006). In this way, they can be seen as equal partners by other stakeholders (Reid, 2003).

This section has shown that community participation in tourism governance can be beneficial and at the same time could be challenging to implement. Some of these challenges are caused by the lack of awareness among community members and the availability of resources at the community level.

Empowering local community groups to participate actively in policy formulation and implementation is vital to contributing positively towards tourism development, especially given the history of governmental control in policy formulation in developing countries (Inskeep, 1991; Tosun and Timothy, 2001), and given that it is the government that often coordinates the other stakeholders in such processes. Having relevant legal frameworks that empower local communities is crucial to any participatory tourism development approach (Sofield, 2003; Tosun, 2005), which can give them both the right and the means to participate (Timothy, 2007; Okazaki, 2008). Empowerment in community participation is now being turned to in the next section.

2.3.2 Empowerment through community participation

A major theme in the literature on community participation focuses on empowerment as an important concept in tourism development at the local community level. Empowerment has been used in many fields such as community development, tourism, human resources and psychology. Nowadays it is also found in other disciplines, such as business and politics (Calvès, 2009), anthropology, criminology and nursing (Sofield, 2003). The feminist movement in international development in the developing countries is being credited for the formal appearance of the term *empowerment* (Calvès, 2009). Empowerment rejects the unbalanced top-down decision-making and planning approach and recommends the bottom-up approaches where the poor are active participants in development (Calvès, 2009). Community participation is explicitly expressed through the empowerment of communities to have control over tourism development rather than the government and the private sector alone (Sofield, 2003; Mikkelsen, 2005; Tosun, 2005; Butcher, 2007; Willis, 2011).

Participation can take the form of allowing locals to benefit from tourism economically (Timothy, 1999; Dieke, 2000b; Timothy and Tosun, 2003; Bello, Carr and Lovelock, 2016), socially (Timothy and Tosun, 2003), building awareness and educating residents (Timothy,

1999, 2007; Dieke, 2000b; Timothy and Tosun, 2003), engaging women to play a role in the tourism sector and allowing the masses access to entrepreneurial tourism opportunities (Dieke, 2000b). A goal of community participation in tourism planning is to empower the people so that they can effectively participate in both decision-making and the sharing of tourism benefits (Bello, Carr and Lovelock, 2016). Tosun (2005) points out that for a participatory development strategy to be sustained, local people must be empowered by the government.

Even when local communities are empowered in tourism development, they still need the assistance of the government. In empowerment discussion, the degree to which the local communities should be self-reliant for it to be said that empowerment has occurred is uncertain, or whether the community should be in total control, or allow minimal outside involvement (Sofield, 2003). Sofield (2003) stresses that, because of the lack of capacity for the 'poor' to help themselves, even when local communities are empowered, in developing countries they will still need some assistance from the government regarding skills and resources in community tourism development program so that it does not fail. Also, given the prevailing cultural, political and socio-economic conditions in developing countries (Tosun, 2005), the government's role as an initiator is important in community participation and in developing tourism projects (Tosun, 2005; Novelli, 2015). This is because, the government sets the regulations or ground rules within which tourism operates (Scheyvens, 2011).

2.3.2.1 Scheyvens' framework for empowerment

Scheyvens (1999, 2002) develops a framework on local community participation and empowerment to analyse the impacts of the diverse forms of tourism on local communities. The four dimensions of empowerment according to the framework are: the political, economic, psychological and social, these are used to explain examples of signs of empowerment and lack of empowerment for local communities in tourism development. This is shown in Table 2.

Table 2 Framework for assessing local community empowerment in tourism

	Signs of empowerment	Signs of lack of empowerment
Political empowerment	Agencies initiating or implementing the tourism decision-making seek the opinions of community groups (women, youths and other socially disadvantaged groups) and provide opportunities for them to be represented on decision-making bodies. A community's political structure, to represents the needs and interests of all community groups.	The community has self-interested leaders Agencies initiating or implementing the tourism venture fail to involve them in decision-making. Many community members feel they have little or no say over whether the tourism initiative should operate or the way it should operates.
Economic empowerment	Tourism brings lasting economic gains to the community and cash earned is shared between many households in the community. Visible improvements from the cash earned (improved water systems; and houses construction; more children attending school).	Tourism results in small/ irregular cash gains for the community. Most profits go to local elites, government agencies. Only a few individuals gain financially.
Psychological empowerment	Enhanced self-esteem of community members because of outside recognition of their unique culture, natural resources and their traditional knowledge. Increased confidence of community members leads them to seek further education and training opportunities. Access to employment and cash leads to an increase in status for women, youths and the poor.	Having inferiority complex about their culture and way of life due to their interaction with tourists. Being frustrated, uninterested with tourism initiatives as they do not share in the benefits of tourism.
Social empowerment	Tourism maintains or enhances the local community's equilibrium and cohesion when individuals or families work together to build a successful tourism venture. Money raised are used for community development purposes (e.g. build schools or improve water supplies).	Disharmony and social decay. When community imbibe outside values and lose respect for traditional culture and their elders. Rather than cooperating, individuals, families, socio-economic groups compete with each other for the tourism benefit. Leading to Resentment and jealousy.

Source: Scheyvens (1999:247; 2002:60)

1. Political empowerment is concerned with the community management of the process of tourism development (Scheyvens, 2003). It happens when the voices and concerns of the community people guide the development of tourism projects from the feasibility phase to its implementation. This further includes representing various interest groups in the community (women and youths, domestic institutions, local church groups, grassroots organisations and bodies like regional tourism associations or national parks boards) in decision-making (Scheyvens, 1999). The local tourism board and village development committee could be a pathway for local interest to be represented (Scheyvens, 2003). The destination community needs to have a forum where they can

participate in decision-making or raise concerns over tourism development as it affects them most (Dei, 2000; Timothy, 2007). However, real empowerment happens when they initiate tourism development programmes (Timothy, 1999, 2007), and when the marginalised interest groups such as the poor and young people are allowed to contribute efficiently to the planning processes (Garrod, 2003). This empowerment form can be possible with decentralisation of power from the national government to the local government (Garrod, 2003).

2. Economic empowerment or benefit is evident through formal or informal employment (Scheyvens, 1999), and business opportunities in the local community through tourism (Scheyvens, 1999, 2003; Dei, 2000; Novelli and Gebhardt, 2007). This empowerment form advocates that economic benefits should be regular, be a reliable source of income (Scheyvens, 1999), and should spread evenly within the community (Scheyvens, 1999; Timothy, 1999). This suggests that economic empowerment is evident when the entire community benefits from tourism development and not just a few individuals. In developing countries such as Nigeria with young growing populations, the effect of tourism employment is key in creating the needed job opportunities (Jenkins, 2015). Further, when natural resources have become a tourist attraction, the rights of the indigenous people to such resources are undermined, and when they do not get significant economic benefits from tourism, it could be said that they lack empowerment (Scheyvens, 2003). Given the research aim and objectives, both this and the political dimensions of empowerment is featured prominently in the analysis chapter. For Nelson (2012) the struggles experienced by tourism development in sub-Saharan Africa countries, are a function of the broader contests of economic and political empowerment.
3. According to Scheyvens (1999), psychological empowerment occurs when the local community believes in their abilities, and are hopeful about the future of tourism development; also, when they exhibit pride in their local traditions, culture and are self-reliant, they can be said to be psychologically empowered. Besides, when the confidence of the community members to participate effectively and equitably in tourism planning and development is maximised, they are psychologically empowered (Scheyvens, 1999). Further, when aspects of the local community traditions are preserved, it helps maintain their well-being and self-esteem (Scheyvens, 2003). This

form of empowerment can be preserved when local communities are encouraged to develop crafting skills (Timothy, 2007).

Research has shown that higher levels of community participation increase psychological empowerment (Christens, 2012). Psychological empowerment indicates positive and protective developmental processes that benefit individuals and their community, and it often suggests that individuals can take collective action to create social and political change (Christens, 2012).

4. Social empowerment occurs when a community's sense of integrity and unity is strengthened through tourism. It also happens when profits from tourism activities are utilised for developing social projects, such as health clinics, water supply facilities or in the local community (Scheyvens, 1999). Conversely, when tourism development leads to begging, crime, perception of crowding, prostitution, loss of authenticity (Scheyvens, 2003), displacement and conflicts over lands (Scheyvens, 2002, 2003; Nelson, 2012) then it can be said that the community lack social empowerment.

Scheyvens' (1999) model remains a significant contribution to the empowerment discussion in tourism development. It was developed in the context of the western world and largely theoretical without empirical evidence; it is, however, useful in analysing empowerment in tourism. It provides the dimensions that can be used to analyse other forms of empowerment in community participation (political, social and psychological) apart from economic empowerment. However, Scheyvens' (1999, 2002) framework was recently criticised as it ran out in the area of planning processes involved in local community empowerment, and in the area of assessing the effectiveness of community participation in tourism planning (Bello, Carr and Lovelock, 2016). The limitations spotted in Scheyvens' framework are true. Furthermore, the use of the word *disempowerment* by Scheyvens (1999, 2002) may lead to a misunderstanding regarding whether the local communities have been empowered in time past and the government has withdrawn such power, and this may not be so in all cases. Therefore, this research refers to *disempowerment* as instead a *lack of empowerment*. Though this framework is not without its critics and was developed for ecotourism, it can be applied to other forms of tourism development and will be drawn upon in the analysis and discussion in Chapter 7.

2.3.3 Critiquing participatory approaches to development

While participatory planning approaches to development may represent a strategy to mitigate the shortcomings of the conventional top-down approaches, there are, however, strong arguments in the literature that critique this approach. Critics have questioned the effectiveness of community participation on three main points: 1) the institutional context in which the participatory approach takes place; 2) the idea that even when the participatory planning approach is used, it is no more than tokenism; and 3) the projects claimed to be participatory must have been predetermined by the practitioners facilitating such processes.

2.3.3.1 *The institutional context*

The main critique of participatory approaches suggests that traces from the broader institutional context, which is external to local communities in any given country, continue to be prominent in participatory development practice. This is evident when higher-level authorities' ideas prevail in project developments. Thus, power can influence such processes negatively since participation may not be able to challenge top-down approaches to development.

In their book *Participation: The new tyranny?* Cooke and Kothari (2004) question participatory development approaches, arguing that politics influence their discourse. They used the term 'tyranny' in their title to mean unjust uses of power, and say that it often facilitates participatory development. According to Cooke and Kothari (2004:14), "the proponents of participatory development were naïve about the complexities of power and power relations between those who facilitate and those that participate; also between those who participate and more widely between donors and beneficiaries [...]".

Cooke and Kothari (2004) recognise that participatory development does not have a reified existence but is constructed by development professionals such as policymakers, who possess the power to create and sustain such discourse. Also, understanding the concept of empowerment is based on special recognition of its root concept, power, and this has been simplified both in the theory and practice of participation. Participatory approaches envisage that those who hold power will relinquish their usual top-down mechanisms for a bottom-up approach to embrace the principles of participation and PRA on the grounds that it will ensure efficiency in development (Parfitt, 2004), which may be difficult. Bottom-up approaches

should recognise that the centre holds the power to distribute resources and shape institutions (Rodríguez, Williams and Hall, 2014).

Further, participatory planning approaches may face problems when confronted with the realities and internal dynamics of the institutional structure that operates in a given destination (Hatipoglu, Alvarez and Ertuna, 2016). While participation is central to the involvement of local communities in decision-making and tourism development, it is not a cure that can lead to change automatically, as it may not be able to overcome specific power structures (Mowforth and Munt, 2016).

2.3.3.2 *Tokenism*

Some critics indicate that another manifestation of community participation's rhetoric or language is that often local communities are consulted; however, they do not have any influence over development or the decisions made. Arnstein (1969) provides three examples of citizen participation that can involve tokenism. These are represented in three of his five categories or rungs: information, consultation and placation.

With regard to information, communication is one-way and usually conducted at the later stages of development planning, where citizens cannot respond to or influence the already designed programmes. Second, consultation takes place through public hearings, meetings and attitude surveys, yet it is not certain that people's ideas will be taken on board. Hence, participation remains merely a *window-dressing ritual* (Arnstein, 1969: 219 italics in original). Finally, placation, which is a higher level of tokenism, means that at that level the have-nots are allowed to advise, however, the powerholders have the right to make the final decision (Arnstein, 1969).

Further, even when efforts are made to involve local people and use their knowledge in planning, because of institutional realities, the final choices made may not take into consideration the plans or ideas generated (Mosse, 2004). Also, PRA has faced criticisms in that it gives development agencies the opportunity to avoid taking responsibility for development outcomes since they can blame the failure of projects on those who have participated (Henkel and Stirrat, 2004). In this way, when things go wrong in development

projects in which local communities are involved, the development agencies attribute such problems to the community's involvement.

Drawing on a survey of three hundred and sixty Tai O, Hong Kong, residents' actual participation level in tourism development, Mak, Cheung and Hui (2017) find that the form of participation experienced by the community was consultation, which falls within Arnstein's (1969) fourth rung and signifies tokenism. A low level of citizen participation was achieved in the case of the Tai O development project, even though the government claim that they gathered the opinions of the community members before making decisions (Mak, Cheung and Hui, 2017). Such tokenism highlights the top-down form of participation (Tosun, 1999). Hence, real community participation may be difficult to implement in practice.

Jenkins (2015:152) argues international agencies who fund development plans usually require project developers to consult local communities to get their proposals accepted; however, it is often difficult to identify suitable representatives in community participation, hence "giving rise to a consultative process which may at best be a form of tokenism and with limited influence on how development takes place". As such, participation is only a symbolic effort by development agencies to avoid criticism of excluding local communities from development projects.

2.3.3.3 Participation in pre-determined projects

Another criticism of participatory approaches is that such processes are usually determined beforehand; thus, it is the ideas of practitioners and not those of the participants that are implemented. In many community participation projects, local community members are generally being helped by experts from the government or international organisations who provide them with funding. Kothari (2004) argues that in PRA, the initiating practitioner asks the participants to play a role using techniques or tools provided by them and eventually are unable to communicate local knowledge, but justify what has already been predetermined by the project agenda. Thus, projects are more beneficial to the practitioner than to the participants. Community-based tourism initiatives are often the recipient of external financial and in-kind support; as a result, such projects are entrenched within the 'donorcycle' (Novelli, 2015).

Reed (2008) argues that most of the constraints of participatory development processes is that they have their roots in the political cultures of those who sponsor or participate in them. For

example, some of the practitioners' non-negotiable positions are often a result of regulatory constraints. Hence, participatory processes may merely be the result of pre-determined positions decided at higher level institutions, that participants do not feel able to negotiate. Butcher (2007:174-175), building on Midgeley (1986) suggests that community participation is "deeply ideological" and could be a cover for western style "modernisation", arguing that participatory processes are funded and developed from a particular milieu in the developed world (Butcher, 2007).

This section examined the history of the participatory planning approach, and it emphasised the importance of decentralisation in governance structure in supporting the approach. It also highlighted the benefits of such methods as instrumental in tapping into local knowledge for tourism development. Participatory approaches are instrumental in facilitating community participation and empowerment in tourism development. The section presented some of the criticism of the participatory approaches.

2.4 Conceptual framework

The concept of tourism governance and the participatory planning approach as conceptualised in this research is developed here (see Figure 1). Tourism governance, which wraps round in the framework, is central since it comprises of institutions that should be responsible for decision-making, for example, the government, NGOs, the private sector, academics and local communities. Governance allows the various institutions in tourism to come together to participate in formulating policies and plans. It provides a platform for participatory planning approach to be adopted, which may allow the local communities to participate and be empowered.

Given that tourism development mostly takes place in the local community, this makes it imperative for governance processes to be participatory and continue to adapt to involving the communities. Intersecting this framework are tourism policy and planning, the participatory planning approach and community participation and empowerment. It is a participatory planning approach to tourism governance that will allow community members to participate and be empowered in tourism policy and planning processes.

Community participation provides an opportunity for community empowerment (Scheyvens, 1999), which engages the local community in tourism governance, so they can be able to state

their views in decision-making on tourism development. Trust, transparency and accountability, placed at the centre of the framework, are critical to the interactions that take place among stakeholders. This is because the research recognises that they are the informal aspects of governance and that they are essential to the functioning of the formal structures of governance. In fact, it can be said that these three (trust, transparency and accountability) aspects of governance are in a symbiotic relationship and are mutually supportive of each other because, where one is lacking the others are likely to be affected. The thesis recognises the importance of building trust within the overall context of governance: it can determine the responses that stakeholders will give to tourism policy and planning. Community participation and empowerment can enhance trust in governmental institutions as the process by which tourism development decisions are made will be transparent to the community members. It is possible that if the stakeholders do not trust one another, interaction and cooperation among them in tourism governance may be difficult.

Given that most tourist destinations in Nigeria are in the local communities, this study assesses these issues using Scheyvens' (1999, 2002) framework on community participation and empowerment. This is based on the importance of embracing active community participation (Tosun, 1999; Cole, 2006), which is founded on empowering local communities (Scheyvens, 1999), at the grassroots level in tourism governance.

Figure 1 Conceptual framework of this study



Source: Author (2017)

Emerging issues and need for empirical research

Scholars have also identified issues common in tourism policies (Hall and Jenkins, 1995; Scott, 2011), such as the government influencing the process and not involving the diverse stakeholders in policy-making, the formation of tourism policies on questionable assumptions and a lack of implementation. With the emphasis on greater participation and involvement of all stakeholders in tourism planning by some other scholars (Godfrey and Clarke, 2000; Dredge, 2006; Beaumont and Dredge, 2010; De Bruyn and Alonso, 2012; Cooper, 2016), these issues might be resolved. The change in the role of government in policy formulation, and the need for the public sector to get the input of their private counterpart as investors in tourism, NGOs and local community has led to the term *governance*.

Also, the review of the literature has underlined the need for local people to be part of tourism decision-making (Butcher, 2007; Nunkoo, Ramkissoon and Gursoy, 2012; Kimbu and Ngoasong, 2013). Further, the review stressed that when the local community is empowered in tourism governance, it can lead to better policy implementation (Cole, 2006; Agrusa and Albieri, 2011). It also highlighted an essential ingredient required in the participatory process, namely trust (Nunkoo and Ramkissoon, 2012; Nunkoo, 2017). Unfortunately, empirical research on tourism governance involving the local community in Nigeria are few and not appearing frequently in the literature; for instance, Agbebi's 2014 study was not focused on community participation, and his methodology was improved upon in this research; Adeyemo and Bada's (2016) study focusing on community participation did not consider issues of empowerment and trust.

The next chapter presents the historical background of tourism development in Nigeria to set the context of the research and highlight longstanding issues in the Nigeria tourism sector.

CHAPTER 3

Historical perspective of tourism development in Nigeria

This chapter takes a historical approach to explain the history of tourism in Nigeria in order to situate or give context to this research. The chapter comprises two sections. First, a discussion of the development of tourism institutions and policy in Nigeria. The chapter turns to the economic importance of tourism to the Nigeria economy in section two. Finally, it summarises the chapter and highlights the need for the research.

3.1 Development of tourism institutions and policies in Nigeria from 1950 to the present

Nigeria is endowed with both unique cultural and natural tourist attractions. For example, ‘about 29 national parks and game reserves, 60 museums, 25 scheduled sites recognised for their archaeological or historical importance, and 13 tourists’ villages, centres and complexes in the country, about 1500 annual festivals, rock paintings, geological formations and bird sanctuaries’ (Mustapha, 2001: 173-174). The tourist attractions in Nigeria spread across the six geopolitical zones including but not limited to plateaus, rocks, springs, hills, waterfalls, lakes, beaches, shrines, gardens and zoos (Bankole, 2002).

To consider first the origins of tourism in Nigeria, Okpoko and Okpoko (2002) state that cultural tourism of sorts started in historic times, prior to British colonisation in Nigeria. Nigerians have engaged in both cultural and natural tourism for many centuries whereby Nigerians in the Diaspora travel to their hometown for annual cultural festivals along with Nigerians who live in other parts of the country (Fagbile, 2006). Fagbile (2006) points out that tourism was seen as a moment of reunion among relatives, which also translated into increased economic activities.

Before independence, the first attempt to manage tourism resources in Nigeria was in 1953 when the Colonial Antiquities Commission (CAC) was set up by the British (Modupe, 1980 cited in Okpoko and Okpoko, 2002). Olokesusi (1987) observes that CAC was established to identify and preserve monuments and antiquities in Nigeria (cited in Okpoko and Okpoko, 2002).

After Nigeria's independence in 1960, the Nigerian government was presented with the challenge of economic independence. The federal government set up an *ad hoc* committee to look into the viability of promoting tourism in the country (Mustapha, 2001; Okpoko and Okpoko, 2002; Eusola, 2009). It was not until 1962 that some individuals who had an interest in tourism development established the Nigerian Tourists Association (NTA), a non-profit organisation (Mustapha, 2001; Fagbile, 2006; Omeje, 2006). NTA received grants from the Nigerian government and became a member of the International Union of Official Travel Organisation (IUOTO), now the United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO), in 1964 (Ukpanah, 1991 cited in Fagbile, 2006). This was a significant step in tourism development. The achievements of these private tourism practitioners are commendable, most especially gaining full membership status to the UNWTO. This suggests that private organisations were at the forefront of tourism development within the Nigeria tourism sector at this time.

In 1964, the need for more focused and direct involvement of government in the tourism sector was evident, and the Nigerian Tourism Company (NTC) was registered (Mustapha, 2001) as a governmental institution. Both the NTA and the NTC were in an uneasy coexistence from the 1960s to 1970s (Okorafor, 1995 cited in Mustapha, 2001). There was a lack of proper coordination between the government and private stakeholders.

During the 1970s, government attitudes in Africa concerning tourism as an economic activity and an integral part of economic reconstruction after independence evolved (Page, 2007). To enhance the economy and tourism development in Nigeria in the 1970s, enormous resources were spent on developing infrastructure nationally through the construction of roads, hotels, and telecommunications development (Mustapha, 2001). At that time there was also the oil boom in Nigeria, which meant that middle class Nigerians had more money to travel both within the country and abroad (Mustapha, 2001).

It is worth mentioning that the 1970s were a decade in which many postcolonial African states began to look to tourism, both as an essential growing industry in itself, and also as a way of diversifying and earning foreign exchange to offset the damaging impacts of a slowdown in the world economy, exacerbated by the oil crisis in the mid-1970s (Ivars Baidal, 2003).

In 1971, the Federal Government of Nigeria gave the African Development Bank (ADB) the responsibility of carrying out a feasibility study on tourism development (Fagbile, 2006). The positive outcome of the study changed the Nigerian Tourists Association (NTA) into the Nigerian Tourist Board (NTB), which was established by Decree No 54 of 1976 to carry on the functions served by the NTA such as providing facilities to ensure a good tourist experience and promoting tourism activities for Nigerians to spend their holiday domestically, and to attract foreign tourists (Mustapha, 2001; Fagbile, 2006). Thus, there was a shift in performing these functions from the private sector to the government. The Nigerian Tourist Board was also empowered to establish the National Travel Bureau (NTB), responsible for organising packaged tours in the country (Mustapha, 2001). Notably, the function of organising tours has mostly been taken over by the private sector more recently. Further, the decree of 1976 authorised the states in Nigeria to institute tourism committees to assist the Tourism Board in implementing the Decree in their states (Fagbile, 2006; Omeje, 2006; Nwankwo and Uche, 2014). The decree became active from 1978 (Fagbile, 2006).

The Nigerian government started investing in tourism in the hope it would be a good development option for the country (Mustapha, 2001; Fagbile, 2006). They allocated the sum of NGN120 million budget to tourism in the 1975 third National Development Plan for the first time (Mustapha, 2001; Okpoko and Okpoko, 2002; Fagbile, 2006). Similarly, NGN1million was allocated to the then 19 states in Nigeria in 1978 to develop tourism infrastructure at the state level (Mustapha, 2001). This revealed that tourism development needed to be conceptualised within the national development plan to get the level of support and recognition required for tourism growth at the state and local levels. It also exemplifies what Dieke (2000a) reports, that in developing countries, the government in power has the discretionary power to reallocate any budget to the sectors of their economy, including tourism. He adds, however, that it is one thing for a budget to be allocated and another for the budget to be utilised appropriately (Dieke, 2000a).

A significant watershed event happened in 1977: the Second World Black and African Festival of Arts and Culture (FESTAC 77), held in Lagos (FESTAC 77, 2007). It recorded about 17,000 attendees from over 50 countries (FESTAC 77, 2007). The event was staged between January and February 1977, and it was a catalyst for increased tourism activity in the nation (Mustapha, 2001). It was co-organized by the Government of Nigeria and UNESCO, and it represented a

moment of different cultural expressions (UNESCO, 1977). The festival featured dance, theatre and debates (FESTAC 77, 2007).

According to Brown (2000), prior to 1980, only a few countries in Sub-Saharan Africa had substantially developed their tourism economies. It was not until the 1980s that the governments in Africa began to fully recognise the link between economic development and tourism, as a process in which they possessed the power to direct and control (cited in Page, 2007). Subsequently, following this trend, by 1980 tourism was already established as a sector of the national economy in Nigeria and a part of economic planning and policy (Mustapha, 2001).

According to Mustapha (2001), some adverse incidents also occurred in the 1980s when adverse economic conditions impaired tourism development. This was followed by a sustained economic and political crisis that led to insecurity, violence and social tension, making Nigeria as a destination unattractive to tourists. These issues are still relevant and affect the sector until the present time. To some extent there was a reversal of the trends noticed in the 1960s and 1970s, where both domestic and international tourism were being promoted. Additionally, the proceeds from crude oil export that became increasingly noticeable from 1970 led to a shift in government attention from the traditional sector of agriculture and tourism to that of oil export. The subsequent lack of commitment to tourism policy and development planning was a major factor that inhibited the growth of the industry (Mustapha, 2001).

Following a period when the tourism sector was not receiving much support from the national government, in 1987 the Tourism Expo event was held to encourage local businesses to invest in tourism-related ventures and to create an awareness in the public of domestic tourism opportunities in Nigeria (Mustapha, 2001). Following this, the sector witnessed a new era with the Federal Government showing renewed interest, establishing the Ministry of Trade and Tourism Department in 1989, a restructuring of the former Ministry of Trade. The department consisted of two subdivisions:

- a) Tourism Promotion and Development
- b) International Corporation

(Ukpanah, 1991 cited in Fagbile, 2006:45).

In order to ensure proper implementation of tourism policies, the Nigerian Tourist Board was also restructured for operations efficiency and better productivity. The sub-departments were:

- a) Administration
- b) Planning and Development
- c) Finance
- d) Marketing Promotion
- e) Travel Bureau
- f) Hospitality Travel and Trade

(Ukpanah, 1991 cited in Fagbile, 2006:45).

These are in addition to the Legal and Internal Audit Units (Fagbile, 2006). Specifically, this shows that the government was monitoring the activities of these organisations, and where they noticed shortcomings in the institutions or policy gaps they intervened by incorporating more departments and principles in the policy. This act could be described as proactive.

Moreover, in 1990 tourism became a preferred sector in the Nigerian economy (Fagbile, 2006; Nwankwo and Uche, 2014). The need for tourism policy presented itself, and a strategic tourism plan was produced for Nigeria by TLP Associate Limited (London) (Ukpanah, 1991 cited in Fagbile, 2006). The plan gave recommendations on how the sector could be organised and how tourism products should be developed, promoted and marketed (Ukpanah, 1991 cited in Fagbile, 2006). It further highlighted the transformation that would come with the development initiatives, as well as the social and economic impacts of the proposed development (Ukpanah, 1991 cited in Fagbile, 2006). The strategic tourism plan facilitated the National Tourism Policy document in 1990 (Fagbile, 2006), the tourism policy document was produced by the Nigerian Tourist Board and the Ministry of Trade and Tourism (Omeje, 2006). This was the first attempt made by government officials to spell out the country's tourism objectives. Also, the consultation with foreign experts gave a sense of direction in helping to map out a plan for tourism development.

The national tourism policy objectives were as follows:

- Generate foreign exchange
- Encourage even development

- Promote tourism based rural enterprises
- Generate employment
- Accelerate rural-urban integration and cultural exchange

(NTDC, 1992 cited in Fagbile, 2006:46).

The policy was to be implemented through:

- Identification and designation of tourists' attractions
- Encouraging domestic and private sector investment in tourism development
- Establishing effective organs for planning, development, promotion and marketing of tourism within and outside Nigeria.
- Promoting a favourable environment for foreigners

(NTDC, 1992 cited in Fagbile, 2006:46).

Other government strategies include:

- Provision of basic facilities such as good roads, water, electricity,
- State government providing land for tourism development at a reduced rate
- Tourism was given the status of a preferred sector of the economy

(NTDC, 1992 cited in Fagbile, 2006:46).

The National Tourism Policy interventions were good in principle but lacked sufficient concrete measures of achieving their aims (Mustapha, 2001), (see also, Ogonna and Igbojekwe, 2013; Esu, 2015). The main outcome of the policy was increased bureaucratisation with no improvement in management efficiency in the coordination of government institutions (Mustapha, 2001).

The government clearly believed that tourism had great potential and generated set objectives for the sector. However, it has been noted that African countries like Nigeria, Angola, Cameroon, Zambia, Eritrea and Sierra Leone all have considerable tourism potential but yet have limited tourism development due to governance-related reasons (Dieke, 2000a). In a same

vein, Nigeria has various tourist attractions, yet the country has not fully developed its tourism potential (Mustapha, 2001; Daniel and Ibok, 2013).

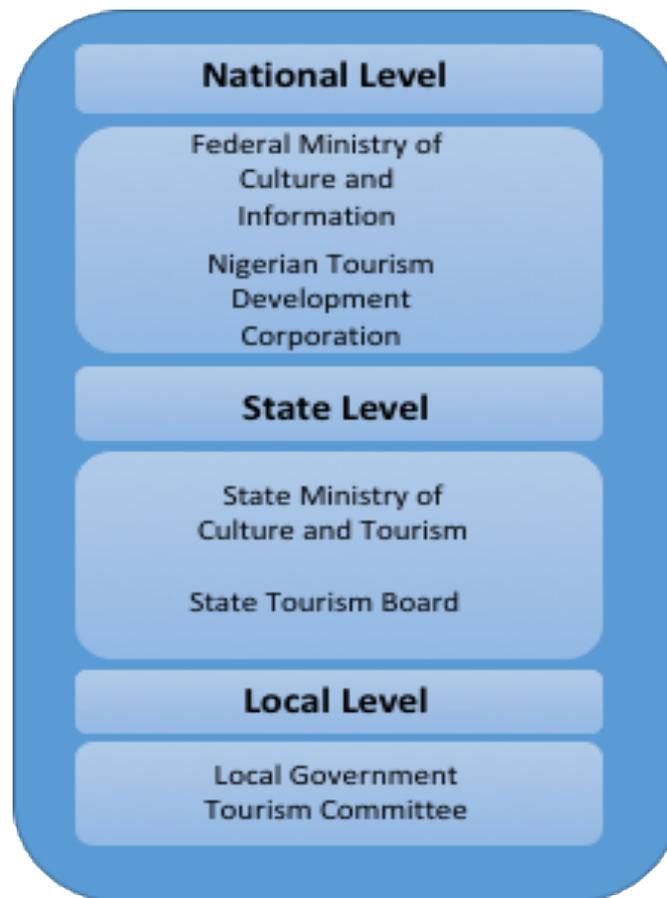
In 1992, the Nigerian Tourism Development Corporation (NTDC) was established under Decree 81 of 1992 to boost the activities of the Nigeria Tourist Board and to oversee tourism development (Fagbile, 2006; Nwankwo and Uche, 2014). NTDC was regulated by the Ministry of Trade and Tourism, later called the Federal Ministry of Culture and Tourism (FMCT) since 2000 (Fagbile, 2006). NTDC is the highest tourism agency of the Federal Government (Fagbile, 2006; Nwankwo and Uche, 2014). They are responsible for implementing tourism policies, marketing and promoting tourism and developing tourism products for Nigeria (Fagbile, 2006). Equally, FMCT was given the responsibility to promote culture and tourism as a foreign exchange earner, income distributor, major employer of labour, a catalyst for rural development/poverty reduction and a means of fostering peace (FMCT, 2013). Recently in 2015, the Federal Ministry of Culture and Tourism was merged with the Ministry of Information to form the Federal Ministry of Information and Culture, thereby moving tourism from a ministry to a department.

These governmental institutions, responsible for formulating and implementing tourism policies in the country, are both top level government organisations as they operate at the national and zonal levels which may not filter down to the local government areas at the bottom level. This poses the question of involving the states and local government in carrying out these functions.

As stated in the Nigeria Tourism Development Master Plan (NTDMP), FMCT is to be responsible for tourism policy and planning at the national level. The NTDC is the operational arm of the Federal Government for tourism, and responsible for implementing policies, marketing and promotion, registration and maintaining standards in the industry. In addition, several federal parastatal bodies have been set up to manage specific responsibilities or activities. Individual states have responsibility for the development of tourism within their own states, and most states have State Ministries of Culture and Tourism, and often a State Tourism Board. These state organisations, though autonomous, are required to carry out functions on behalf of the NTDC, or follow guidelines laid down by the FMCT. At the third level in Local Government areas, some tourism agencies or committees have been established. As proposed in the policy document, it will constantly examine this framework and propose any necessary

restructuring to make it functional and more effective (NTDMP, 2006). See Figure 2 for the institutional arrangement in the tourism sector. To understand a political system, it is important to consider the degree to which the different parts contribute to the functioning of the system as a whole (Peters and Pierre, 2016).

Figure 2 Institutional arrangement in tourism development in Nigeria



Source: Author (2017)

Federalism is practised in Nigeria now. However, these arrangements represent political evolution from the parliamentary systems practised before. In the same way, tourism governance has been structured to reflect the broader national structure. Federal systems are designed to provide greater autonomy and flexibility in policy, and therefore, should create room for better opportunities and innovation (Peters, 2012). This should also result in opportunities for public participation and enhance capacity to solve problems closer to the local community, which can lead to greater trust and political efficacy (Peters, 2012).

The situation of the tourism sector was summarised by Mustapha in 2001 and is worth quoting at length:

One reason why the translation of policy into reality has proved very difficult is the division of powers under the Nigerian federal constitution and the practical consequences for tourism management deriving therefrom. Right from 1960, tourism has always been on the exclusive legislative list reserved for the central government. This has meant the pre-eminence of the Federal Ministry of Commerce [Trade] and Tourism and its parastatals in all tourism matters. Yet the majority of tourists' sites are located in rural areas in the states, removed from the immediate reach of federal bureaucrats as a result, a series of 'trusteeship' arrangements have been developed between the three tiers of government – federal, state and local government with respect to the management of tourism.

As revealed in the quote, from 1960, tourism management has been placed under the exclusive list administered by the Federal government, while the state and local government has limited capacity to act. However, because tourism development takes place mostly at the two later levels (state and local government) tourism governance has been decentralised in the Tourism Master Plan.

In theory, the federal ministry coordinates the activities of the state ministries. These state ministries implement policies and directives from the federal ministry [...] Local governments are expected to establish tourism committees to statutory boards that will, among other things, maintain museums and monuments under their jurisdiction. However, in practice inefficient management and ambiguities characterise the relationship between the three tiers of tourism management. Museums and monuments are managed by the Federal Commission for museums and monuments.

The decision to divide the political system and functions in the tourism sector in the Nigerian Tourism Development Master Plan into institutions among different levels is simply to achieve efficiency in the development and management of the activities within the sector. Tourism development in Nigeria, as stated in the Master Plan involves the three tiers of government on the formal arrangements. However, as shown in the quotes above, these arrangements have drifted in practice. Indeed, as North (1990) puts it, institutions can help establish stability, but not necessarily efficiency. For efficiency in governance operations, it is essential that "the institutional approach must handle the relationship between structure and actions" (Hill and Varone, 2017: 97). Where structure is formal and actions are informal, these relationships should be handled in such a way that continually builds trust among stakeholders.

Further, given the fragmented nature of the Nigerian tourism sector and the fact that the responsibility of tourism management was shared among the different levels in the policy document, it is essential that the stakeholders work together to ensure effectiveness in tourism governance.

The way the goals of the sector are coordinated and how the resources are mobilised across the institutional levels is fundamental to the political system, coherence and the capacity to provide governance (Peters and Pierre, 2016).

Yet local government are expected to fund and maintain the museums run ostensibly by federal level officers. Predictably the cash-strapped local governments do not pay serious attention to this important duty" Similarly the NTDC is weakly linked to state tourism boards, leading to serious problems of lack of coordination. (Mustapha, 2001:181-182).

This quote reveals that the local level where tourism development takes place does not have the power to influence policy because decision-making takes a top-down approach. Also, the decisions made at the federal level do not trickle down to the local communities that host tourist attractions. As revealed in the quote, the local government are not empowered but are being sidelined from their responsibilities and, worse still, are not being funded or supported to carry out their duties regarding managing tourism resources for development. It suggests a general lack of coordination in the tourism sector, which this research attempts to analyse critically. This research suggests these issues continue to define tourism governance in Nigeria, as seen in the analysis in Chapters 6 to 9. Figure 2 and Table 3 also shows that there is no significant involvement of the non-governmental stakeholders. For the institutional approach to be effective there must be some cultural underpinning of trust, both among individuals and between individuals and institutions (Peters, 2012).

The Presidential Council on Tourism was established in 2005 to support the coordination of tourism governance. The Council was chaired by the then President Chief Olusegun Obasanjo (NTDMP, 2006; WTO, 2013). This committee met a number of times a year and involved various Federal Ministries whose activities affect tourism, Federal Agencies, State Governors and private sector representatives (NTDMP, 2006; WTO, 2013), to address policy and other major tourism issues in the sector (NTDMP, 2006; WTO, 2013). This Council has subsequently dwindled, and the President is no longer involved (WTO, 2013) since his

administrative tenure has ended. All the institutions established for Tourism Development in Nigeria and their functions are outlined in Table 3.

Table 3 Institutions in tourism development in Nigeria

Institution	Functions
The Presidential Council on Tourism	Considers policy and the progress of high-level tourism initiatives.
Federal Ministry of Culture and Tourism (FMCT)	Sets target for tourism growth and long-term policy and planning for the sector. Monitors the performance of the National Tourist Organisation (NTO) and the achievement of defined targets.
The Nigerian Tourism Development Corporation (NTDC)	A parastatal of the Federal Ministry of Culture and Tourism, charged with the responsibility of coordinating, developing, regulating, marketing and promoting tourism in Nigeria, at international as well as domestic level.
State Ministries	Have the responsibility for tourism, have been established mirroring the Federal Ministry responsible for tourism at the state level. The National Tourism Development Corporation Act provides for the establishment of State Tourist Boards with the following functions: To assist the NTDC to implement the NTDC Act. To recommend to the NTDC measures that enable it to give full effect to the provisions of the Act. To encourage Nigerians to visit the states in Nigeria. To coordinate the activities of tourism agencies.
Local Government Tourism Committees	Local Government Tourism Committees have the following responsibilities subject to the control of the State Tourism Boards and the NTDC. Recommending projects for development to the Tourism Boards. Advising on tourism matters within their areas. Preserving monuments and museums in their areas. Promoting and sustaining communal interest in tourism.

Source: adapted from the Nigeria Tourism Development Plan (NTDMP, 2006: 7-10).

Another notable event in the development of policymaking was the release of the Nigeria Tourism Development Master Plan (NTDMP) in 2006. This was done in collaboration with the United Nation World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) and Tourism Development International (Esu, 2015). Despite all the efforts at establishing institutions or formulating policies highlighted above, however, the tourism sector in Nigeria since independence in 1960 has had a pattern of rising and falling.

After a review of tourism development in Nigeria in Mustapha's (2001) book chapter: *The survival ethics and the development of tourism in Nigeria*, he concluded by recommending that further research is needed to investigate the attitude of the local community to tourism since the level of local community participation is crucial in tourism development. It could be said

that this is still relevant today, since it has been a neglected area of research. Dieke (2000a) notes that creating awareness about tourism at the community level, local involvement and control over tourism development and ensuring equity in the sharing of tourism benefits are a necessary measure in African tourism development.

Despite these challenges, some states in Nigeria have recorded sporadic tourism developments, these include Akwa Ibom State, Cross River State, Kebbi State, Abuja, Osun State and Lagos State (Esu, 2015). This suggests that the national level governance might not contribute much to tourism development when compared to the state level, so it could be taken one level downward to allow the local government to be able to manage tourism at the grassroots level. This is because most of the state governments in these states mentioned above have developed an interest in state-led tourism development, which explains the importance of moving power closer to where development is taking place.

A remarkable event that favoured the state occurred in 2013 when the Lagos state government won a case against the federal agency (NTDC) over who had the power to coordinate tourism and hospitality activities in the state (Abdulah, 2013). Since then, the Ministry of Tourism for Lagos State is able to undertake the functions previously performed at the national level in their state, the court judgement asserted that the constitution required that federal activity should be confined to international marketing of Nigeria tourism (World Tourism Organization, 2013). Other states are now replicating this within their states, since the incident authorised the states to manage tourism development activities at their own level. As a result, the tourism industry is becoming more decentralised which may require that the stakeholders at the different levels of government become more coordinated in tourism planning and development for effectiveness.

This further buttress the point that the tourism governance system in Nigeria is becoming more fragmented, and it is becoming more evident that the states are now allowed to perform some of the functions that the federal performed in the past. As Ruhanen *et al.* (2010) notes, the tourism sector provides a good context for the study of governance. This is because stakeholders like the public sector, private, community and civil society interact within the system.

Dredge and Jenkins (2007) note that local governments play a vital role in local tourism planning and policy development. Local community involvement could help to improve the issues of trust, accountability and transparency. A trend in Nigerian politics is that the state sets priorities for the local government areas, and the Local Government Area chairmen were selected by the state governor rather than the people (Ognonna and Igbojekwe, 2013). Thus, the chairmen are subjected to the state government, and such an institutional arrangement is not appropriate for tourism development (Ognonna and Igbojekwe, 2013). Invariably, it is the states that coordinate the local governments; such circumstances do not suggest there is democracy or transparency and leaders elected this way may not be entirely objective in carrying out their functions. This is because they would still be accountable to the state and not to the local communities; thus, the result may be that they would not be trusted by the local people who may see them as government officials. A good organisational arrangement is needed in governance to aid the struggle for government transparency, accountability and democracy (Dwivedi, Khator and Nef, 2007).

Another move in the sector relates to the public-private partnership. It has been argued that the private sector should be more involved in tourism planning in Nigeria (Babatunde, 2016a), and the government now seek the participation of the private sector as investors in the industry to help tourism development (Adeleke, 2008). The private sector's function, as stated in the National Tourism Policy, is that they will be involved in providing services and facilities for tourists such as tour packages, accommodation, restaurants, amusement parks and conferences and events venues (FRN, 2005). They will also collaborate with the national and state tourism organisations and the non-governmental institutions in organising national events. They will also be involved in creating awareness on eco-tourism, national parks and in maintaining hygiene in urban and rural tourist centres (FRN, 2005).

From the analysis in this chapter, the issue of lack of continuity in government also impacts on tourism development. For example, as the military Head of State between 1976 and 1979, Chief Olusegun Obasanjo allocated NGN1million to each state for tourism development (Fagbile, 2006). It was not until 1999 that tourism issues started to spring up again when the democratic government came into power during Chief Olusegun Obasanjo's regime as President (Fagbile, 2006). Likewise, during his second regime as President in the year 2006, the government authority identified tourism as a priority industry capable of earning foreign exchange and bringing economic development (NTDMP, 2006). This indicates that the attitude of the

government in power to tourism goes a long way in determining the support the sector receives. These are remarkable efforts that remain a landmark in the history of the Nigerian tourism sector.

It could be said that the issue of tourism development in Nigeria is not regarded as a national concern but rather is based on what development the ruling party choose to support. This seems to be a pattern that has affected the tourism sector. For example, the president of Nigeria in 1999, Olusegun Obasanjo, started to spread the word about tourism development when it was almost forgotten; he was also the same person who constituted a Presidential Council on Tourism Development in 2005, a committee of which he was a part (WTO, 2013). It is worth noting that this committee is reported to have dwindled (WTO, 2013). This could be because the president who instituted it is no longer in power. Finally, he also initiated the idea of publishing the Tourism Master Plan in 2006 during his second tenure as the Nigerian president between 2003 and 2007. It should be of great interest to the government to carry on with the development of tourism irrespective of who is ruling since the sector has been identified as an area of priority. In a recent publication in the Nigerian press, it was reported that the new Minister for the Federal Ministry of Information and Culture wants to resuscitate the presidential council of tourism and that the review of the national tourism master plan has commenced (Babatunde, 2016a; Ojo, 2016).

A relevant point to note is the considerable potential role of community participation in providing a degree of continuity and consistency in policy and governance. Government politicians and civil servants may change and sometimes rapidly so due to democratic processes, but local community members do not get voted in or out and therefore promise more continuity. If the bottom-up approach is employed, tourism development may not suffer discontinuity because the tenure of one president expires or someone is no longer in power because it will be paramount to the local people as it affects their lives. When community participation is ensured in tourism planning and development, the locals will be the primary drivers of change and promoters of the destination as they are members of the community themselves (Adeyemo and Bada, 2016). The high level of interference politically in the way things are done in Nigeria has stifled developmental initiatives of which tourism is part (Dwivedi, Khator and Nef, 2007). One solution adopted in western countries is to use local elites (Dwivedi, Khator and Nef, 2007). In this way, local elites who may have the knowledge

of tourism can be used in the Nigeria context to help create awareness to the other local community members such as women and youth.

3.1.1 Problems of tourism development

Despite the tourism potentials in Nigeria, tourism development in the country has been affected by several challenges in the country. For example, the Nigeria Presidential Council on Tourism Development in 2005 identified some problems that militate against tourism development in Nigeria, including inadequate funding, the absence of a tourism master plan, the poor state of infrastructure, internal security, the lack of a tourism development fund and policy discontinuity (Okpanku, 2015). Also, Ajayi (2012) recorded a lack of facilities and infrastructure, the non-existence of a national carrier, poor management and lastly the insurgency which has virtually crippled other sectors of the country's economy. Correspondingly, Agbebi (2014) still echoed some of these concerns that confront the industry (such as funding, corruption, lack of strong commitment and dedication, the ineptitude of personnel, policy flip-flop and bad implementation). From these scholars' comments, after eight years of identifying tourism as a viable sector in 2006 and the formulation of the Nigerian Tourism Development Master Plan, there is still evidence to suggest that little has been achieved over the twelve years since.

Explicitly, Agbebi (2014) concludes that tourism policy, planning and governance in Nigeria until now has not achieved the desired development and growth of the tourism sector. Further in this context and in agreement with Agbebi, Esu (2015) has discovered that Nigeria's tourism legal environment is weak and has minimal tourism legislation. He also stated that for the Nigerian Government to benefit from the massive tourism potential, there is a need to establish an institutional and regulatory framework to enable tourism entrepreneurs to succeed (Esu, 2015). Further, another issue is the absence of an institutional or organisational capacity to control tourism at the national level (Honey and Gilpin, 2009). Moreover, the overlaps among government departments at both national and regional levels pose difficulty in working out a coordinated plan (Honey and Gilpin, 2009).

Further, there have been problems with implementing tourism policies, and local communities can frustrate tourism policy implementation effort if such policies were formulated without their input in the first instance or if they are unhappy with tourism development. Generally, in

Nigeria policy formulation and decision-making is passive and top-down, and there have been issues in tourism development in some communities, for example, Erin-Ijesha in Osun State (Adeyemo and Bada, 2016). It could be said that since the top-down approach has not recorded much success in time past, there should be greater emphasis on changing this standpoint. Other issues are the lack of reliable data on the numbers of international arrivals and departures from Nigeria (NTDMP, 2006; Adeleke, 2008).

Tourism is considered to hold the potential for economic development in Nigeria if there is political stability (Dickson Dillimono and Dickinson, 2015). In this context, Adeleke (2008) states that for Nigeria to be able to develop tourism, the government need to ensure peace and stability. This is because images perceived by tourists about Nigeria include those of crime, corruption and terrorism: Boko Haram insurgencies in Northern Nigeria, political violence, militancy and kidnapping in the Niger-Delta area of Nigeria. A prominent case is the terrorist attack on the Government Secondary School Chibok, Borno State in April 2014 when the Boko Haram sect abducted over 200 young school teenagers which attracted global attention, the "Bring back our girls" BBOG campaign all over the world. Also, recently in March 2018 saw the abduction of 110 Secondary School girls in Dapchi, Yobe State. The Boko Haram attacks have escalated the security crisis in Nigeria since 2010 (Hoffmann, 2013).

3.1.2 Policy review

The first tourism policy was published in Nigeria in 1990, but it was ineffectual as a document since no one cared to mention it in public discourse and neither was there any governance direction or a plan of how to use the policy (Fagbile, 2006). Recently, according to Esu (2015), the 2006-2015 Tourism Master Plan aimed at strengthening Nigeria's tourism sector has achieved little since its formulation. Scholars Ognonna and Igbojekwe (2013) and Esu (2015) attribute this slow implementation to the low political will of political officials and a deficiency of human capital in public agencies responsible for tourism planning. This could be the reason why Dwivedi, Khator and Nef (2007) conclude that in developing nations, there is a very strong desire for good governance; however, the means and political will are often in short supply. Further, stakeholders in Nigeria have reported that the formulation of the Nigeria Tourism Development Master Plan did not include local experts from Nigeria and this has led to its failure (Nwanne, 2016). Also, the policy review during the compilation of the Tourism Master Plan in 2006 indicated that over a fourteen-year period (1992-2006) NTDC had not achieved

significant progress due to issues such as the weakness of tourism institutions and budgetary inadequacies in implementing policies (NTDMP, 2006).

Only recently did the United Nation World Tourism Organisation, UNWTO, agree to support the Nigerian government to review the 2006 Nigeria Tourism Development Master Plan for proper implementation (Babatunde, 2016b). It has been decided by the Nigerian government and UNWTO that to aid tourism policy implementation, the agreed programmes to be executed were classified under five broad clusters: policy, governance issues, activities and events, bilateral relations, technical assistance and capacity building (Nwanne, 2016). The research outcomes from this thesis can contribute to the policy, governance and capacity building clusters both in theory and practice.

3.2 Importance of tourism to the Nigerian economy

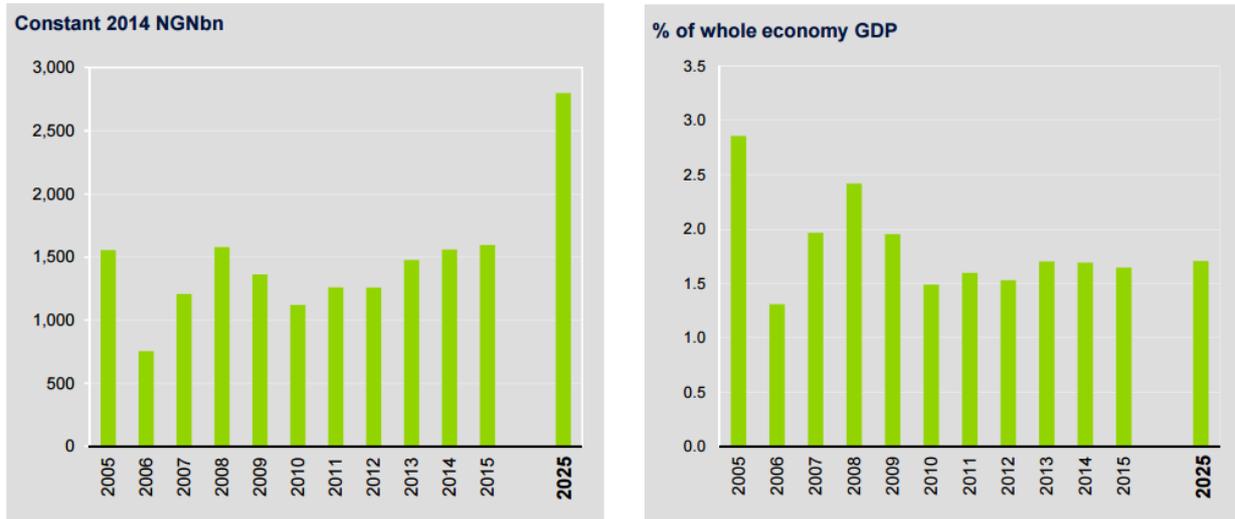
Scholars have highlighted the significance of tourism to the Nigerian economy (Bankole, 2002; Daniel and Ibok, 2013; Esu, 2015). For instance, Bankole (2002) highlights the potential of the tourism sector in contributing to foreign exchange. Others mention the importance of developing tourism to bring about diversity in the national economy by supplementing earnings from oil extraction, which has remained the dominant sector for earning foreign exchange for a long time (Daniel and Ibok, 2013; Esu, 2015).

The tourism sector is seen to be important, since it has the ability to generate foreign exchange. About 329,000 tourists arrived in Nigeria in 1987 and the receipts earned were NGN1.1 billion. Estimated earnings were expected to reach some NGN53 billion by the end of year 2000, and much higher by 2005, particularly given the increased stability in the country (National Bureau of Statistics, 2014).

Furthermore, the updates from the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC), as illustrated by Figure 3 below, reveal the tourism sector's performance in Nigeria. Directly, tourism contributed NGN1,560.2bn (1.7% of GDP) to GDP in 2014 (WTTC, 2015). This is forecast to rise by 2.4% to NGN1,597.1bn in 2015. This primarily reflects the economic activity generated by industries such as hotels, travel agents, airlines and other passenger transportation services (excluding commuter services). But it also includes, for example, the activities of the restaurant

and leisure industries directly supported by tourists. The direct contribution of Tourism to GDP is expected to grow by 5.8% pa to NGN2, 797.3bn (1.7% of GDP) by 2025 (WTTC, 2015).

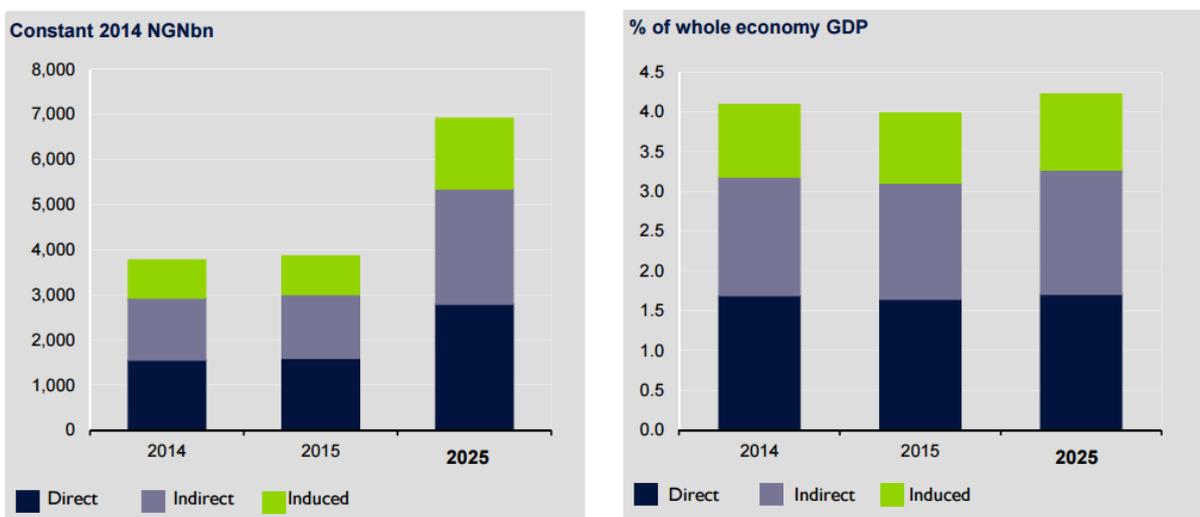
Figure 3 Direct contribution of travel and tourism to GDP



Source: WTTC (2015)

In Figure 4 below, the total contribution of tourism to GDP (including wider effects from investment, the supply chain and induced income impacts) was NGN3,766.1bn in 2014 (4.1% of GDP). This is expected to grow by 2.5% to NGN3, 859.3bn (4.0% of GDP) in 2015. It is forecast to rise by 6.0% pa to NGN6, 908.8bn by 2025 (4.2% of GDP) (WTTC, 2015).

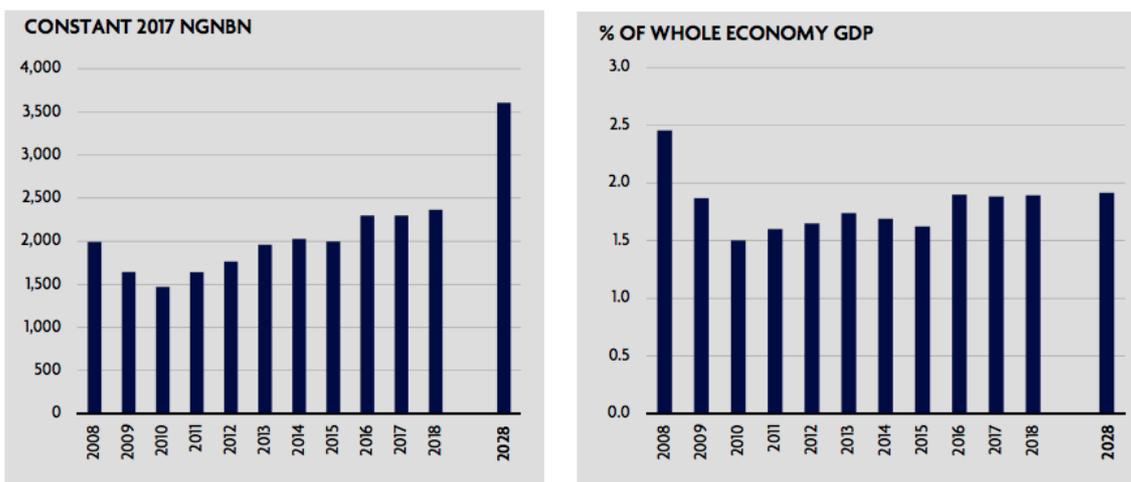
Figure 4 Total contribution of travel and tourism to GDP



Source: WTTC (2015)

In a follow up after three years in 2018, these figures had risen, and the direct contribution of tourism to GDP in 2017 was NGN2,298.0bn (1.9% of GDP) (WTTC, 2018). It is forecast to increase by 2.9% to NGN2,364.9bn in 2018 (WTTC, 2018), see Figure 5.

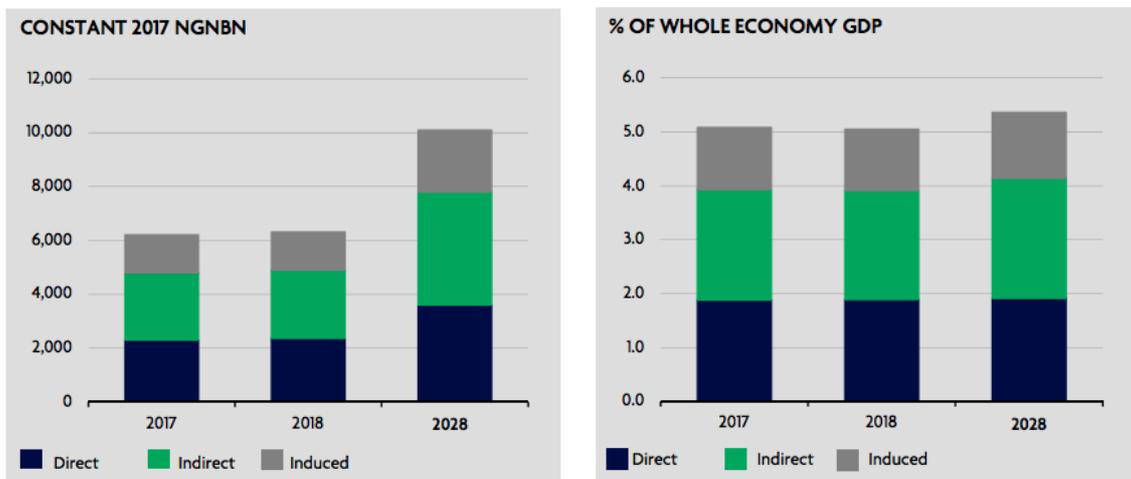
Figure 5 Direct contribution of travel and tourism to GDP



Source: WTTC (2018)

Figure 6 shows that the total contribution of tourism to GDP in 2017 was NGN6,205.8bn (5.1% of GDP) and is expected to grow by 1.6% to NGN6,307.5bn (5.0% of GDP) in 2018, which is forecast to rise by 4.8% pa to NGN10,094.5bn by 2028 (5.4% of GDP) (WTTC, 2018).

Figure 6 Total contribution of travel and tourism to GDP



Source: WTTC (2018)

Conclusions

This chapter has explored the historical development of tourism institutions and policies in Nigeria. It has shown that tourism development in the country has led to the attempts of the Federal Government of Nigeria to formulate the National Tourism Policy in 1990, the latest 2006-2015 Nigeria Tourism Development Master Plan and the subsequent establishment of tourism bodies such as the NTDC and FMCT. The establishment of the presidential council on tourism was also significant.

This chapter has indicated that tourism policy and planning has been a tricky subject in Nigeria, characterised by the tension between the federal and the state levels on the one hand and that between the public and private sector on the other hand. This is due to the many challenges confronting the industry regarding the absence of an institutional capacity to govern tourism, political instability, security issues and lack of human resource. Compounding the problem is a recent change experienced in the governance structure which moved tourism from a ministry to a department.

The importance of tourism to the Nigerian economy has also been noted (Daniel and Ibok, 2013; Esu, 2015). The indicators from WTTC evidence this and reveal the direct and total contribution of tourism to GDP, which has been on the increase, and it is forecasted to continue to increase until 2028.

The tourism sector is still struggling to make Nigeria a recognised tourist destination in Africa and authors have highlighted that the policies developed lack implementation (Ognonna and Igbojekwe, 2013; Esu, 2015; Nwanne, 2016). Finally, the need for further research on local community participation in tourism has been highlighted (Mustapha, 2001; Ognonna and Igbojekwe, 2013; Adeyemo and Bada, 2016).

It was necessary to look at the past to understand the current trajectory, and to assess the aspect that has been trivialised which was found to be that of local community participation which is essential in any development discussion as discussed in Chapter 2.

Considering the low-quality evidence available in the research context, and that research problems remain unanswered, to gain a deeper understanding of how to improve tourism governance, empirical research is needed. First, to examine the current situation in tourism policy and planning from the stakeholders' perspective using Importance-Performance Analysis in Nigeria. Second, to explore stakeholders' perception of the extent to which tourism governance processes allow local community participation and empowerment; and to investigate whether there are any constraints to local community participation and empowerment and if so how these can be improved to assist future tourism policy and planning. The next chapter provides the details of the research methodology used to gather the empirical data.

CHAPTER 4

Research Methodology

This chapter aims to discuss the methodological components used to examine the research issues posed by this study on tourism governance and community participation in the Nigerian tourism sector. This chapter starts with a discussion of the choice of the research philosophy that underpins the study, which relies on pragmatism and allows the researcher to integrate findings from both the quantitative and qualitative phases (Robson, 2011; Creswell, 2014). This is then followed by a review of the mixed methods design, which also allows the combination of both quantitative and qualitative approaches in data collection and analysis (Creswell, 2009). It also justifies the choice of mixed method, and how this fit with the pragmatic epistemology in the second section. The third section focuses on the research design, the method of data collection and analysis employed in the two phases. Section four outlines the research's validity and reliability. Finally, a description of the sampling techniques and justification, for the process of data collection for the two phases, is examined.

4.1 Philosophical /epistemological foundations: the pragmatic approach

The pragmatic paradigm originated in the late nineteenth century to the early twentieth century through the work of the philosophers Charles Pierce, William James and John Dewey (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2016). The approach encourages the use of a methodology derived from the research question itself (Morgan, 2007; Robson, 2011). Pragmatism provides a theoretical underpinning for mixing both the quantitative and qualitative methods in the same project (Morgan, 2007; Robson, 2011). In pragmatism, multiple realities exist, and there is no single way of interpreting the world (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2016). It is based on abductive reasoning, and it involves a back and forth movement between inductive and deductive reasoning (Morgan, 2007).

Morgan (2007) advocates that instead of qualitative and quantitative researchers rejecting each other's work and assuming they are incompatible, researchers can look for a valuable point of connection, an opportunity that only the pragmatic approach offers. Pragmatism emphasises practical concern for practical matters, being guided by practical experience rather than a

theory *per se* (Robson, 2011). In pragmatism, a philosophy is accurate only when it works (specifically in promoting freedom, equity, and justice) and produces practical results for the society (Gray, 2014). For Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2016), in pragmatism, the research problem and questions determine the research design. For a pragmatic researcher, the emphasis is placed on the research problem and how to resolve it. This form of research often begins with a problem, with the objective of providing solutions to inform practice (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2016). In this present research, the problem is on tourism development in Nigeria and the objective to be able to provide information that can influence innovative tourism policy and planning to inform practice.

The justification for adopting this paradigm in this research is that pragmatism allows the researcher to use the concept of inter-subjectivity to capture the duality of the subjective and objective stance of a phenomenon being researched to represent it as a social reality (Morgan, 2007). The rationale for adopting the pragmatic paradigm is because of the purpose of the research and the nature of the research problem posed in this thesis, as recommended by Creswell (2014). This is evident in the 'data collection method' and the 'data narrative', it also justifies the reason for the choice of pragmatism. Hence the data collection methods adopted (questionnaires and interview), narratives (quantitative and qualitative), and the analysis (IPA and thematic) were deemed to be capable of providing a deep insight into the research problem (Mackenzie and Knipe, 2006; Creswell, 2014).

4.2 Research approach: mixed method research

In keeping with the pragmatic approach, this research adopts a mixed method design. The use of mixed method research design in conducting social research has become increasingly common (Bryman, 2012). Researchers use the mixed method to exploit the strengths of qualitative and quantitative approaches and to balance the weaknesses of each approach (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011). In fact, the weaknesses and bias of all the methods make researchers collect both quantitative and qualitative data (Bryman, 2012; Creswell, 2014). Both quantitative and qualitative research approaches are essential, useful and both can be rigorous (Myers, 2013). Qualitative data tends to be open-ended without predetermined responses, while quantitative data usually includes closed-end responses (Creswell, 2014:14). Mixed method design may facilitate answering research questions properly (Robson, 2011). In qualitative

research, the researcher studies individuals by exploring their perceptions in depth, while in quantitative the researcher examines a more significant number of people by assessing responses to some variables (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011). Mixed method is useful when the researcher needs to explain initial quantitative results to know what they mean, so qualitative understanding is sought to better understand (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011) tourism policy and planning and how community participation and empowerment is encouraged in tourism governance processes.

There are three different types of mixed method design identified by Creswell (2014) and Creswell and Plano Clark (2011). They include the explanatory sequential mixed method, exploratory sequential mixed method and convergent parallel mixed method.

1. The current research adopts the explanatory sequential mixed method, a two-phase research process in which the researcher starts with the quantitative method and then uses the qualitative approach to get a detailed description of participants' view (Creswell, 2014). As the name implies, the results of the first phase of quantitative data should explain the situation, which was further explored by the qualitative data in the second exploratory phase. After the first phase, the researcher develops the qualitative research questions, used purposive sample procedures (drawn from the participants in the first phase) to collect qualitative data, analyse and interprets the data. The researcher tries to see how the qualitative results explain and add insights into the quantitative results, and the overall response learned about the research purpose (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011). The first phase involved quantitative data collection where stakeholders in three out of six geopolitical zones¹ in Nigeria were examined to determine their expectations about specific tourism policy and planning variables, how important they perceived the variables to be, and how the Nigerian tourism industry was performing. Again, because the research is on tourism governance in Nigeria, a topic which has not been the focus of previous researchers and requires additional description, qualitative data from a subset of participants in one geopolitical zone was gathered. This is used to examine stakeholders' experiences about the critical aspects of some themes (tourism

¹ Nigeria comprises 36 states which are further grouped into six geopolitical zones, the North-Central, North-East, North-West, South-East, South-South, South-West.

governance and participation).

The explanatory sequential mixed method contrasts with the exploratory sequential and the convergent parallel mixed methods explained below.

2. The exploratory sequential mixed method allows the researcher to start to explore by collecting qualitative data and analysing it; the researcher uses the findings from this phase for the quantitative phase. In the sequential approach, the researcher uses one method to build on the other (Bryman, 2012; Creswell, 2014).
3. The convergent parallel mixed method involves the collection of both quantitative and qualitative data by the researcher, analysing the data separately and then comparing the results to check whether findings confirm or disconfirm one another (Creswell, 2014).

The researcher established the study on the assumption that different kinds of data collection can provide a comprehensive understanding of the research problem rather than relying on either qualitative or quantitative method alone. To overcome the weakness of each method, researchers propose combining both (Bryman, 2012). The research commences with conducting a quantitative survey in the first phase, while the second phase is centred on open-ended qualitative interviews aimed at collecting detailed views of the participants to assist with explanation of the initial quantitative results (Creswell, 2014). To examine the situation and to understand the processes of tourism governance and how the local communities are involved, the qualitative approach was used to elicit more nuanced experiences from the stakeholders.

Therefore, the research design employed in each phase is based on the purpose that phase is meant to achieve, i.e. to examine the current situation in tourism policy and planning from the stakeholders' perspective, using Importance-Performance Analysis. When one source of data is not sufficient, there is a need to combine both quantitative and qualitative data (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011). Quantitative data offers a broader understanding of a research problem, whereas qualitative data allows getting a detailed understanding (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011).

4.2.1 Types of research

Various types of research have been discussed in the literature, such as descriptive research that aims to find out, discover or describe behaviour patterns of a research field that have not been studied previously (Veal, 2017; Wilson, 2014). Other types include explanatory research and exploratory research, which are considered next in more depth because of their relevance to this research.

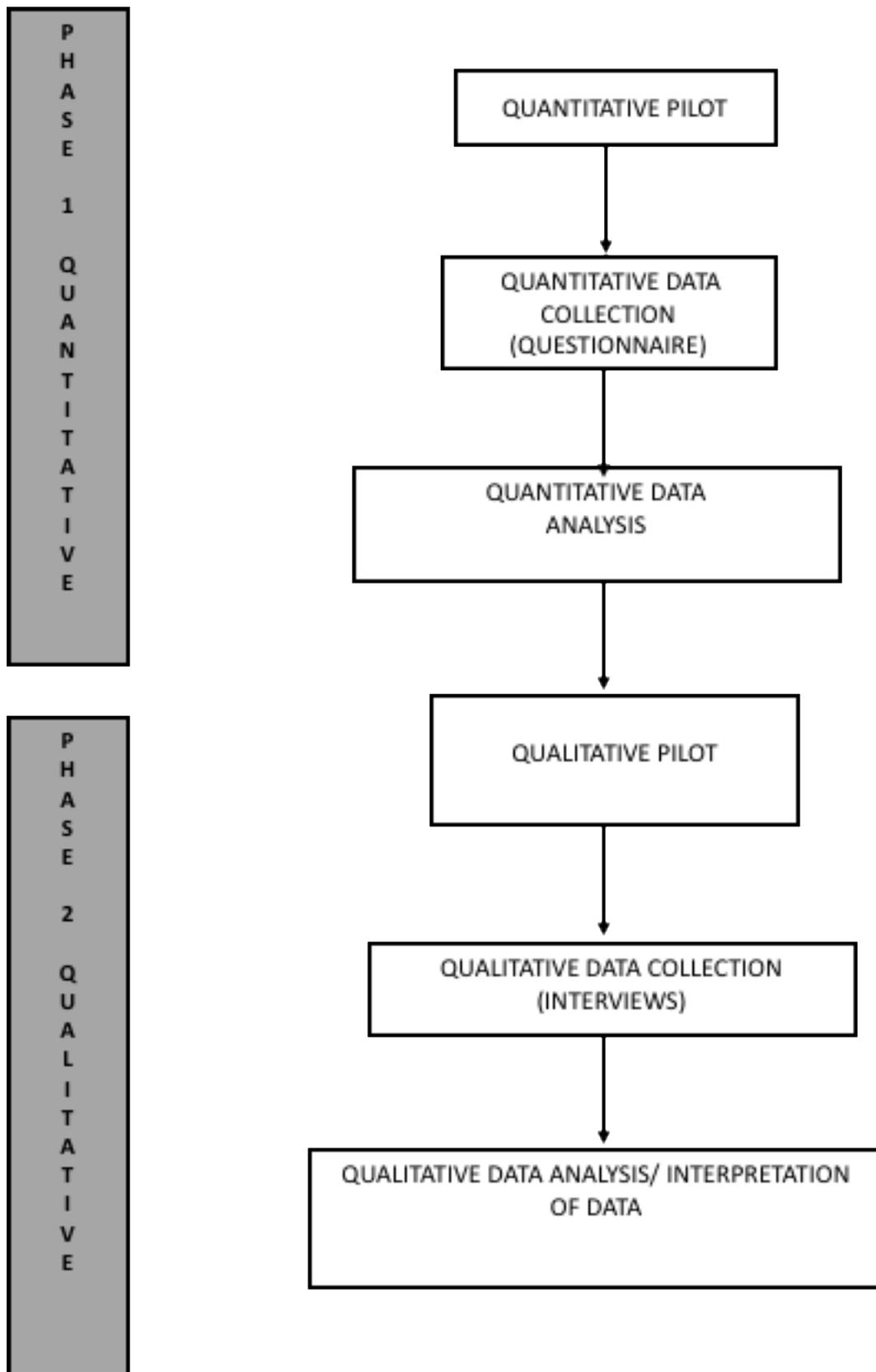
Explanatory research: this type of research explains the patterns of the trends observed, it is mainly used to ascertain causality, and it also requires that the researcher be rigorous in collecting, analysing and interpreting data (Veal, 2017). It usually involves a kind of theoretical framework to connect the phenomenon being researched to broader political, economic, social practices (Veal, 2017). For this research, the phase 1 sought to examine tourism policy and planning from stakeholder's perspective in Nigeria, and this research form was used to explain the situation.

Exploratory research is inductive in nature (Wilson, 2014), it is useful when research is being conducted in an area where there is little or no previous published work (Wilson, 2014; Bougie and Sekaran, 2016), or when the research that exists in the area has limitations or is unclear (Bougie and Sekaran, 2016). It is used to get a better insight into the topic that is researched (Wilson, 2014). It utilises qualitative approaches such as interviews, observation, historical analysis, focus group (Wilson, 2014), or case studies (Bougie and Sekaran, 2016). The second phase of the research is exploratory as little information is known about tourism governance in Nigeria. The researcher's curiosity was met through exploratory research that involves interviewing stakeholders in the Nigerian tourism industry. This enabled the researcher to have a good understanding of the research objectives.

4.3 Research design

To achieve the research aims and objectives highlighted in Chapter 1, which is to analyse tourism governance, community participation and empowerment in the decision-making process in Nigeria, the following research design, illustrated by Figure 7, was employed.

Figure 7 Research design for this study



Source: Author (2017)

4.4 Data collection and analysis

4.4.1 Phase 1: quantitative data collection and analysis

In assessing tourism policy and planning, it was necessary to identify the variables that can be used in analysing the concept of tourism policy, since little research has been done on assessing these issues in the literature. This is followed by the selection of the most appropriate method for evaluating tourism policy and planning, the Importance-Performance Analysis framework. This was utilised to obtain a clear, objective, reliable and valid assessment of the current views of stakeholders on these issues.

4.4.1.1 The Importance-Performance Analysis (IPA)

The Importance-Performance Analysis (IPA) framework is designed to assess the importance and performance of many variables simultaneously. IPA has been used to evaluate in different field such as the banking industry (Matzler, Sauerwein and Heischmidt, 2003), education (Silva and Fernandes, 2011), destination marketing and tourism management (Griffin and Edwards, 2012). It can guide organisations in identifying the most appropriate strategic options to enhance competitiveness (Lai and Hitchcock, 2015). Using the IPA technique, results can be presented in a two-dimensional grid to show the strengths and weaknesses of the tourism variables being studied (Evans and Chon, 1989). With a visual analysis of the data, policymakers or managers can identify the areas where the resources and programs need to be concentrated and where they might be misdirected according to the respondent feedback (Evans and Chon, 1989). This research expands on the work of Evans and Chon (1989), which adopted the IPA matrix to solve tourism problems and resolve policy issues in two tourists' destinations in the United States of America. Put simply, variables deemed 'very important' and to be performing 'very poorly' will be those of greatest concern to policymakers and stakeholders.

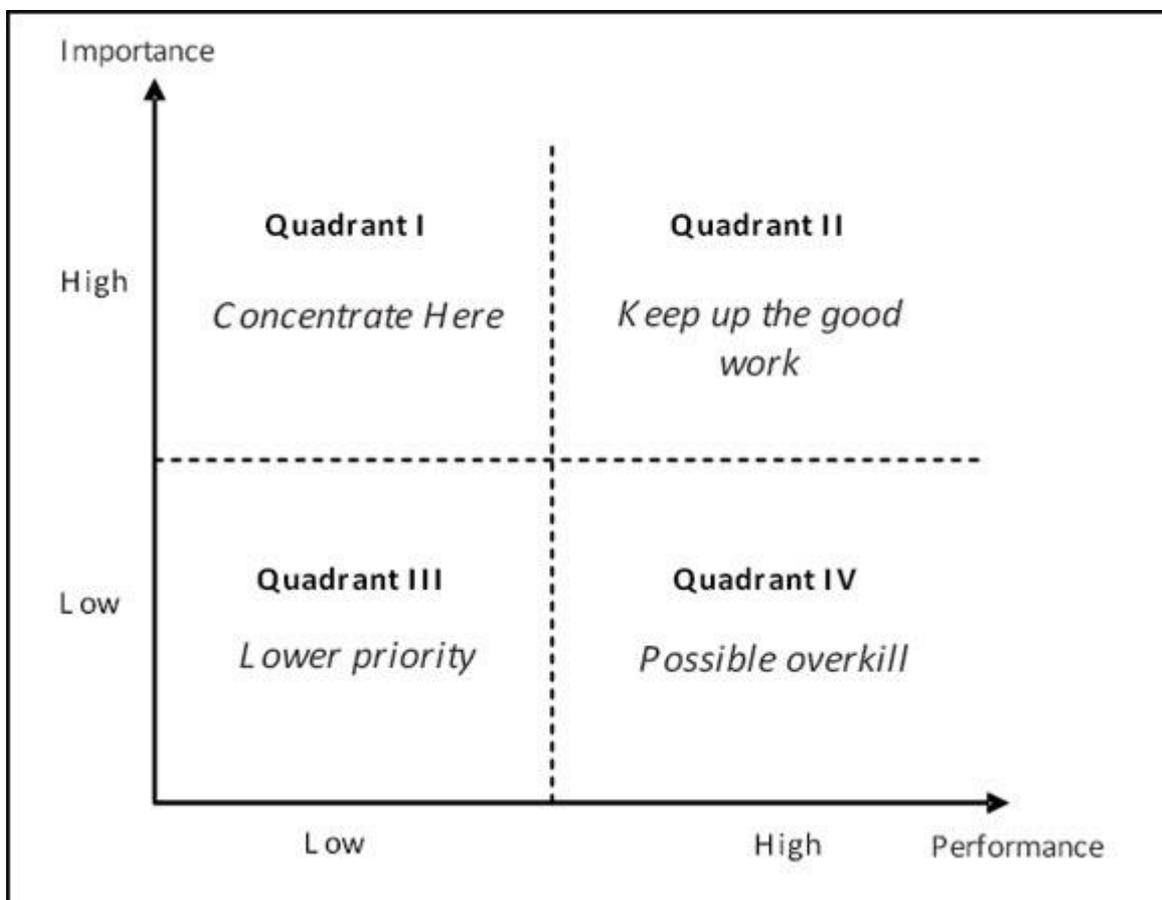
According to Evans and Chon (1989) and Lai and Hitchcock (2015), the importance-performance analysis follows three simple steps which include:

1. The development of a list of variables to be used in the study. The variable list is the foundation upon which one builds, and it is essential to develop a list which accurately

reflects the relevant issues. Again, Lopes and Maia (2012) emphasise that determining the variables to measure is a crucial factor in the success of IPA.

2. The determination of a sample frame to conduct the survey research.
3. The calculation of the perceived Importance-Performance Analysis of each variable studied. The matrix, made up of four quadrants, allows each variable to be plotted according to its perceived importance and performance. The IPA is presented using a two-dimensional matrix where the x-axis depicts 'performance' and the y-axis depicts 'importance' (Prajogo and McDermott, 2011), this is illustrated in Figure 8.

Figure 8 The importance–performance analysis



Source: Tzeng and Chang (2011)

Quadrant I: variables that fall into this cell reflect that they are very important to the respondents, whereas the performance levels are relatively low. This communicates a direct message that improvement efforts should 'concentrate here' (Evans and Chon, 1989). It is of high importance and low performance that is, the destination needs to 'concentrate here' as

consumers take note of the attributes/variables here. There is need for immediate attention as the organisation has a significant weakness in this area (Deng, 2007).

Quadrant II: represents variables described as being very important to the respondents and, at the same time, the destination seems to have high levels of performance on these activities. The message here is to 'keep up the good work'. It is of high importance, and high-performance value needs to be maintained here (Evans and Chon, 1989). The organisation possesses major strengths and have opportunities to achieve a competitive advantage (Deng, 2007).

Quadrant III: is characterised by variables with low importance and performance ratings. Even if the level of performance is low in this cell, managers should not be excessively concerned since the variables are perceived to be of 'low priority'. Limited resources should be expended on these low priority variables (Evans and Chon, 1989).

Quadrant IV: the last cell represents variables of low importance, but relatively high performance. Respondents are satisfied with the organisation/destination's performance but fail to match a great deal of importance to it, meaning 'possible overkill' (Evans and Chon, 1989). This implies that the resources managers commit to these variables could be used elsewhere, i.e. in Quadrants I or II (Prajogo and McDermott, 2011).

The IPA model is useful as a diagnostic tool used to examine the level of importance that people associate with a variable and the level of its performance as perceived by them (Griffin and Edwards, 2012). Further, the analysis of representation from IPA can help formulate an action plan to improve on the variables that have been identified not to be doing well (ibid.). When plotting the IPA matrix, the scaling of the axes and the location of variables into the four quadrants is critical since this determines the results and their interpretation (Matzler, Sauerwein and Heischmidt, 2003). The strategies implemented from the results derived can address the crucial issues (Lopes and Maia, 2012).

According to Lai and Hitchcock (2015), a comprehensive review of the literature is essential to justify the values of the new attributes set. Hence, the review of the literature was done to derive the list of issues/questions addressed by the IPA in this research.

4.4.1.2 Designing of questionnaire

The questionnaire was designed using Qualtrics online survey software. Following the recommendations by Martilla and James (1977), the variables included in the questionnaire were selected through the review of existing literature (see list of variables used in designing the questionnaire in Table 4 see also Appendix A for a complete version). These variables were used to create the sections in the tourism policy and planning importance-performance questionnaire. The importance measures were placed on one side, and the performance measures beside it, to allow the respondents progress naturally from one question to the other. This has been adopted in other importance-performance analysis studies for example Frauman and Banks (2012) and Griffin and Edwards (2012).

Table 4 Variables selected from the literature for IPA the questionnaire

THEMES	VARIABLES
SITUATION ANALYSIS – ENVIRONMENTAL SITUATION ANALYSIS (MICRO AND MACRO)	Theft/ attack (Wade and Eagles, 2003; Mansfeld and Jonas, 2006; Mair and Reid, 2007; Pearsall and Pierce, 2010). Crime rate (McCool, Moisey and Nickerson, 2001; Choi and Sirakaya, 2006; Sharma et al., 2008; Blancas <i>et al.</i> , 2010; Frauman and Banks, 2011; Wan, 2012; Nunkoo, 2015).
	Incorporation and implementation of local ideas in community/ site management (Choi and Sirakaya, 2006).
	Tourism related master plan (Choi and Sirakaya, 2006; Dodds, 2007; Sofield and Li, 2011).
	Availability of development control policy (Choi and Sirakaya, 2006).
	Local resident participation in planning process (Choi and Sirakaya, 2006; Landorf, 2009).
	Stakeholder collaboration (Choi and Sirakaya, 2006; Landorf, 2009; Ezeuduji, 2015; Bello, Carr and Lovelock, 2016).
	Level of cooperation among stakeholder groups (Choi and Sirakaya, 2006).
	Regional development, economic restructuring (Dredge and Jenkins, 2003; Baidal, 2004; Mair, 2006).
	Employment in tourism (Choi and Sirakaya, 2006; Simão and Partidário, 2012).
	The planning document quantifies the economic benefit of tourism to the area.
	The planning document quantifies the employment creation ability of local tourism activity
	The planning document identifies the major economic activities in the local area
	The planning document establishes the relative importance of tourism, compared with other industries, to the economic development of the local area
	The planning document evaluates the adequacy of business skills possessed by local tourism industry operators
	The planning document includes quantitative analysis of current visitor numbers, length of stay and spending
The planning document includes broadly based goals related to the economic benefits of future tourism development	
Specific objectives target the equitable distribution of tourism’s economic benefits throughout the local area (Simpson, 2001; Ruhanen, 2004).	
Indigenous product development opportunities;	
Marketing of indigenous product;	
Indigenous employment opportunities;	
Indigenous business development opportunities; (Whitford and Ruhanen, 2010).	
Availability of local credit to local business (Choi and Sirakaya, 2006).	
Percent of income leakage out of local community (Choi and Sirakaya, 2006).	
Seasonality of tourism/tourist visitation (Choi and Sirakaya, 2006).	
Conservation and environmental protection (Cao, 2015) flora and fauna (Simão and Partidário, 2012).	
Future development goals (Ruhanen, 2004).	
Restoration of attractions (Zhang, Chong and Ap, 1999)	
Use of low-impact technology (Choi and Sirakaya, 2006).	
Incorporation of environmental criteria in tourism planning (Torres- Delgado and Palomeque, 2014).	
The planning document describes the area’s principal geographic features	

	<p>The planning document describes the main characteristics of the local climate</p> <p>The planning document identifies flora and fauna which are unique to the area</p> <p>The planning document assesses the resilience and/or fragility of the physical environment</p> <p>The planning document describes the principal tourism sites in the area</p> <p>The planning document evaluates the current capacity of tourism plant and infrastructure</p> <p>The planning document includes broadly based goals related to environmental protection (Simpson, 2001; Ruhanen, 2004).</p>
	<p>Distribution of land uses for tourism (Whitford and Ruhanen, 2010; Torres- Delgado and Palomeque, 2014).</p> <p>Environmental protection of indigenous land (Whitford and Ruhanen, 2010).</p> <p>The planning document identifies current land use and ownership patterns in the area (Simpson, 2001; Ruhanen, 2004).</p>
	<p>Air quality index</p> <p>Amount of erosion on the natural sites,</p> <p>Frequency of environmental accidents related to tourism (Choi and Sirakaya, 2006).</p>
	<p>Degradation/erosion of natural and cultural resource (Choi and Sirakaya, 2006).</p>
	<p>Availability of funds for maintaining cultural sites (Choi and Sirakaya, 2006; Whitford and Ruhanen, 2010).</p>
	<p>Retention of local customs and language,</p> <p>Loss of authenticity and becoming impersonal (Choi and Sirakaya, 2006; Cao, 2015).</p> <p>Indigenous product/cultural authenticity ; Quality of life improvements (Landorf, 2009; Whitford and Ruhanen, 2010).</p>
	<p>Host community satisfaction and attitude toward tourism development (Choi and Sirakaya, 2006).</p> <p>Continuance of traditional activities by local residents (Choi and Sirakaya, 2006).</p> <p>Resident involvement in tourism industry (Choi and Sirakaya, 2006).</p>
	<p>The planning document identifies current population levels and demographics</p> <p>The planning document acknowledges a need to integrate local tourism strategies with national policies for tourism development (Simpson, 2001; Ruhanen, 2004).</p>
	<p>Accurate data collection and tourism information change (Choi and Sirakaya, 2006).</p>
	<p>Trustworthiness, usefulness and enjoyment on intentions (Ayeh, Au and Law, 2013).</p>
	<p>GIS for tourism planning and marketing (Van Der Merwe and Van Niekerk, 2013; Supak <i>et al.</i>, 2014).</p>
	<p>Training/ educating/ mentoring (Choi and Sirakaya, 2006; Whitford and Ruhanen, 2010).</p>
	<p>Historical buildings (Frauman and Banks, 2011).</p>
	<p>Number of expert consultation in tourism development (Park and Yoon, 2011).</p>
STAKEHOLDER PARTICIPATION	<p>The planning document identifies locally important community values.</p> <p>The planning document identifies locally important lifestyle features.</p> <p>The planning document identifies current issues which are critical to residents.</p> <p>The planning document assesses community attitudes to tourism.</p> <p>The planning document assesses the overall quality of life in the area.</p> <p>The planning document includes a vision for the future which aligns with local community values, attitudes and lifestyles.</p> <p>The planning document includes broadly based goals related to community values and lifestyle protection.</p> <p>The planning document includes broadly based goals which emphasise the local benefits of tourism development (Simpson, 2001; Ruhanen, 2004).</p>

	Economic benefit (Simão and Partidário, 2012).
	Level of tourism development, tourist/resident ratio, type of tourist (Panyik, 2012 cited in Panyik, 2015). Seasonality of tourism offer (Torres- Delgado and Palomeque, 2014). Interactions and community legitimacy (Krutwaysho and Bramwell, 2010).
	Length of residence, Level of knowledge about the industry (Panyik, 2012 cited in Panyik, 2015). Percentage of guides at site that are locals (Larson and Poudyal, 2012).
	Operate the destinations welcome centre. Develop and promote special events. Development through media promotion and advantage. Communication of promotional plans to local business. Develop linkages with regional tourism organisations to promote entire region. Spokesperson with government agencies. Assist and support private sector product development. Develop sales staff to solicit group business. Attend consumer and trade travel shows (Evans and Chon, 1989).
	Public-private sector partnership (Dredge, 2006; Ahebwa, 2013).
	Central government agency(ies) took part in the planning process Relevant regional and/or territorial council(s) took part in the planning process Governmental (national OR regional OR local) opinion influenced the final strategic direction selected. The relevant regional tourism organisation(s) took part in the planning process. The local tourism industry took part in the planning process. Regional/district tourism organisation OR local tourism industry opinion influenced the final strategic direction selected. Representatives of existing visitor groups took part in the planning process. Existing visitor group opinion influenced the final strategic direction selected. Other local organisations (non-tourism) took part in the planning process. Local community took part in the planning process (Simpson, 2001; Ruhanen, 2004). Indigenous participation (Dredge and Jenkins, 2012). Ordinary local residents took part in the planning process. Secondary stakeholder (other local organisations OR local residents) opinion influenced the final strategic direction selected (Simpson, 2001; Ruhanen, 2004).
	Aviation reform, develop infrastructure (Zhang, Chong and Ap, 1999).
	Tourism promotion, tourism education/training, development of tourists attractions (Zhang, Chong and Ap, 1999)
	Centralisation or decentralisation, foreign investment (Zhang, Chong and Ap, 1999).
	Tourism receipt (Zhang, Chong and Ap, 1999).
IMPLEMENTATION AND REVIEW /	Tourist /attitude toward tourism development(McCool, Moisey and Nickerson, 2001; Choi and Sirakaya, 2006).
	Education and training programs for visitors (Choi and Sirakaya, 2006).

<p>IMPLEMENTATION/ MONITORING AND EVALUATION</p>	<p>Golf and tennis opportunities. Historical and cultural. Scenic attractions. Hospitality of local people. Rest/relaxation opportunities. Shopping opportunities. Suitable restaurants. Entertainment. Suitable accommodations (Evans and Chon, 1989).</p> <p>Specific objectives are prioritised in terms of implementation urgency. The planning document clearly assigns responsibility for key task implementation. The planning document contains a clearly articulated review and evaluation mechanism. The planning document estimates the resource costs of the recommended development strategy The planning document indicates specific methods by which the identified resource costs are to be allocated to development participants (Simpson, 2001). The time dimension of the planning process reflects a long-term orientation (Simpson, 2001; Ruhanen, 2004).</p>
<p>STRATEGIC INDICATOR OF DESTINATION PLANNING/ ENDORSEMENT OF A STRATEGIC APPROACH TO DESTINATION PLANNING</p>	<p>Management/operation (Xiao, 2006).</p> <p>Public access to sites, accommodation, transport (Martin and Assenov, 2014a, 2014b).</p> <p>Policy decision-making, clear boundaries between government and private interest (Dredge and Jenkins, 2012).</p> <p>The planning document includes broadly based goals related to the nature and scale of future tourism development. The planning document includes broadly based goals related to community values and lifestyle protection. The planning document includes broadly based goals which emphasise the local benefits of tourism development. The planning document identifies a range of alternative strategies by which broadly based goals may be achieved. The planning document evaluates each strategy option prior to determining a range of specific objectives. Specific objectives support previously established broad goals. Specific objectives selected are based on supply capability as opposed to market demand. Specific objectives selected are realistically achievable in the context of the current situation analysis. Specific objectives for future tourism activity are quantified and readily measurable (Simpson, 2001; Ruhanen, 2004; Landorf, 2009).</p> <p>Occupancy rate for official accommodations (Blancas <i>et al.</i>, 2010). Accommodation development (Kosmaczewska, Thomas and Dias, 2016).</p> <p>Quality of public transport (Blancas <i>et al.</i>, 2010; Frauman and Banks, 2011). Variety of shopping facilities (Simão and Partidário, 2012).</p> <p>Policy take into account the relationship between transport and tourism (Weston and Davies, 2007). Tourism marketing strategies and preferences (Van Der Merwe and Van Niekerk, 2013). Strategy and planning for indigenous tourism sector. Involvement and participation in industry Market research (Whitford and Ruhanen, 2010).</p> <p>Tourism promotion budget (McCool, Moisey and Nickerson, 2001). Existence of sustainable tourism development plan (McCool, Moisey and Nickerson, 2001; Choi and Sirakaya, 2006).</p>

The variables were grouped under four major themes: 1) environmental situation analysis (micro and macro), 2) stakeholder participation, 3) endorsement of a strategic approach to destination planning and 4) implementation/monitoring and evaluation. These broad themes were further divided into twelve sub-themes to form the questionnaire. This asked the stakeholders how important each variable was to tourism policy and planning, and how they would rate the performance of the same variables in the Nigerian tourism industry using a six-point Likert scale, ranging from very important (5) to very unimportant (1) and don't know/ N/A (6). Correspondingly, the performance scale sought to know the performance of each attribute on a six-point Likert-scale, ranging from very high (5) to very low (1) and Don't know/ N/A (6). See Appendix B for a copy of the questionnaire used for data collection.

4.4.1.3 Questionnaire piloting

After designing the questionnaire on Qualtrics, a copy was sent via email in PDF format to people for piloting. In total it was piloted by nine academics in the UK and Nigeria. They were selected purposefully based on either their knowledge in tourism studies or because they have an awareness of the social, economic and political situation in Nigeria. Also, since the IPA variables were drawn from the literature, academics were considered to be the experts. Some of these academics are within the researchers' department at Canterbury Christ Church University, and others were identified through a profile search of academics in Universities in the UK who are from Nigeria as it was assumed that they would be aware of the situation in Nigeria, and two others who are resident in Nigeria. After reviewing all the comments from them, the questionnaire was redesigned, and a total of seventy-five out of ninety-four variables were selected and included in the final survey. The pilot helped to reduce unnecessary repetition in the questionnaire and improved the clarity of the division of the questions in the questionnaire.

The pilot was done for two main reasons, as advised by Bryman (2012): first, to ensure that the questions and the instructions for completing the questionnaire were clear; second, to ensure that the layout and formatting are clear enough. This was also to guarantee that respondents would understand the questions and respond accordingly.

4.4.1.4 Administering survey and analysing quantitative data

A questionnaire-based survey is common in leisure and tourism research; it is used when quantified information is needed (Veal, 2017). This type of survey is of two formats: face-to-face or telephone interview design, and the respondent-completion design. In the face-to-face or telephone interview design, the interviewer will read the questions out from the questionnaire and document the answers (Veal, 2017). In the respondent-completion format, the presence of an interviewer is not necessary, it requires the respondent to read the questions and write down their answers on the screen if it is online or on the questionnaire for a paper copy (Veal, 2017).

Some advantages of personally administered questionnaires according to Bougie and Sekaran (2016) are that the researcher can collect the completed questionnaire immediately after the respondent has completed it. Also, it offers the opportunity for the researcher to introduce the topic of research to the respondents and it can motivate them to respond frankly.

However, a disadvantage is that the researcher may be biased by explaining the questions differently to respondents (Bougie and Sekaran, 2016). To overcome this disadvantage, the researcher only read out the question to the respondents and avoided giving any further explanation, as the information on the research background in the consent form already provided them with all they needed to know about the research. Face-to-face interview format was adopted for this research, and respondent interview arrangement was made between May 2016 and July 2016. Interviews were scheduled from early July to ending of August 2016 with twenty-six (26) stakeholders within the Nigerian tourism industry (see Table 5).

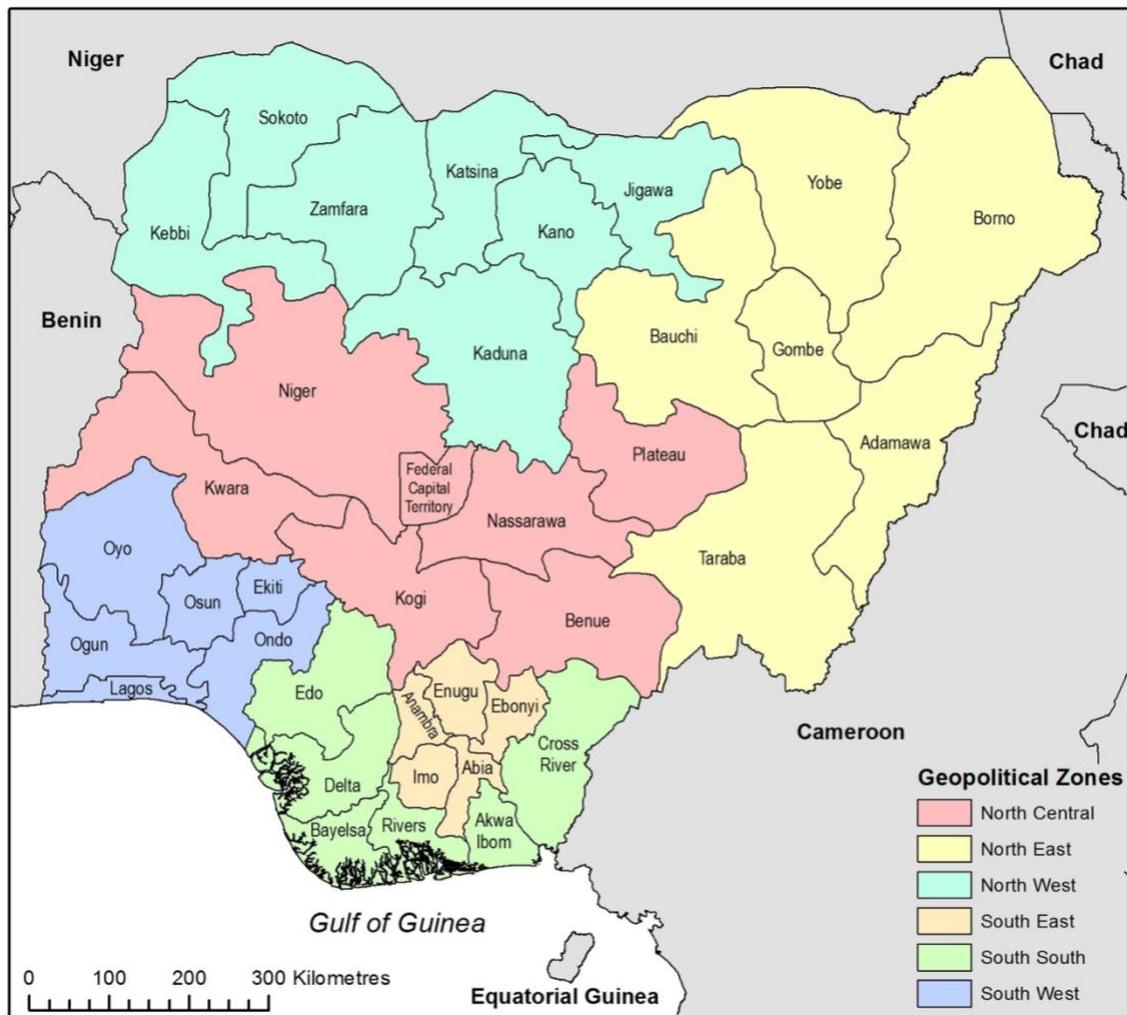
The researcher created an email address database of contacts of stakeholders within the tourism industry, gathered during her time in Nigeria as a Lecturer, and updated the list at the early stages of her PhD. This was used to contact some respondents for the survey beforehand to schedule an interview at a convenient place and time.

Table 5 Questionnaire survey respondents

Respondents	Number	Stakeholder Group
The Federal Ministry of Information and Culture (FMIC)	1	Federal
National Institute for Cultural Orientation (NICO)	1	Federal
Nigerian Tourism Development Corporation (NTDC)	1	Federal
Tourism directors	4	State
Assistant tourism directors/ employees	2	State
Attraction managers	3	State
Hoteliers/ Events manager	3	Private
Tour operators	3	Private
Airlines managers	2	Private
Academics	3	Academics
Community representative	3	Community
Total	26	

A questionnaire survey was conducted in three out of six geopolitical zones in Nigeria, which included North-Central (Kwara and Federal Capital Territory); South-South (Delta State) and South-West (Oyo, Ogun, Lagos, Ondo, Ekiti and Osun State) (see Figure 9).

Figure 9 Map of Nigeria showing the six geo-political zones



Source: Author (2018)

The data collection was conducted to determine the expectations of stakeholders in tourism concerning how important they perceived the tourism policy and planning variables to be, and how the Nigerian tourism industry was performing in relation to these variables.

The questionnaire should have been completed online, as usually the case. However, due to the problem of internet connection in some areas in Nigeria, which is a characteristic of a developing country, the survey was administered personally face-to-face by the researcher in the form of an interview. Also, it was discovered from the piloting stage that because of the length and style of the questionnaire, respondents might lose focus or misinterpret the questionnaire (i.e. assessing the two parts of importance and performance). For each interview session, the researcher gave the respondent a consent form and the participant information sheet after agreeing to participate; the consent form was signed and handed back to the researcher.

After this, the questions were read out, and the researcher ticked the questionnaire following their responses to the importance and performance categories.

Respondents were required to rate the variables in each section on a 6-point Likert scale, with a higher number representing a higher rating. They were able to state if they didn't have an experience of a variable, which represents 'don't know' (N/A), this was excluded for the purpose of analysis. This explanatory phase of the research was used to identify the current situation in tourism policy and planning and to clarify the areas where performance is low.

For the data analysis, the responses were entered into Qualtrics where the questions were designed, and after that, the results were imported into Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), version 23 for analysis. The importance and performance mean scores of all the variables were analysed using SPSS and was also used to plot the responses into the importance-performance analysis matrix.

4.4.2 Phase 2: qualitative data collection and analysis

Before the primary data collection, a pilot study was conducted to test the interview questions with four stakeholders in Nigeria before the main interview. This comprised one staff from the State Ministry of Culture and Tourism, one Hotel Manager and two Academics. The sample provided an appropriate representation of key stakeholders explored within the research. No changes were made since the participants understood what was being asked of them.

Gaining access to collect data was not an issue, having contacted participants previously to arrange interviews through a telephone conversation. However, two interview appointments had to be rescheduled following requests from the interviewees who were unavailable to honour the initial appointment. These were later conducted over Skype. Interviews were scheduled from early August to October, ending 2017.

Qualitative interviews are a valuable means of illuminating results found by other studies such as quantitative study or vice versa (Weiss, 1994). Interviews were conducted with various stakeholders from the tourism industry across the South-West geopolitical zone of Nigeria (see Figure 9). The interviews were conducted in various locations, such as participants' offices, and local community settings.

In a semi-structured interview, the issues the researcher asks the interviewee about have already been predetermined since some questions are formulated before the interview meeting, but the researcher is not mandated to adhere strictly to the questions (Crowder and Lancaster, 2008; Myers, 2013). See Appendix C, D and E for the interview guides used for data collection. The people to interview are also determined in advance (Crowder and Lancaster, 2008). The interviewer starts typically with some set of questions across all interviews, but allows for improvisation as new questions may emerge during the interview conversations and they are acceptable because new data are being derived from the participants (Myers, 2013). This allows the interviewee to be open and say all that they know or consider essential on a topic about which they are asked (Myers, 2013).

Interviews can allow the interviewer to engage with key stakeholders' views and give a nuanced understanding of the issues explored; as a result, they can lead to generating innovative policy ideas (Majchrzak and Markus, 2014). It is important to understand stakeholders' perspective as they can help/hinder policy research (Majchrzak and Markus, 2014).

At the point of the interview, the researcher provided the participants with an information sheet that stated the research purpose and what the researcher intends to achieve with the conversations. Participants were assured of confidentiality and anonymity, the right to withdraw at any point from the interview without being questioned. If the potential participant agreed to the content, they were asked to sign the consent form to confirm their agreement, and seek permission to be recorded with an audio recorder. To ensure that the conversations can be transcribed accurately for analysis, the interviews were recorded (Merriam, 2009). In addition to recording voices, the researcher used memos and research diaries to record information during and after the interview process.

Interviews were conducted in various settings such as participant offices at ministries of tourism, private organisations or establishments, universities and local community settings. They lasted between 25 minutes to 1 hour 40 minutes. The short interviews were mostly from the local community representatives.

Majchrzak and Markus (2014) defined stakeholders as individuals, groups, or organisations that are affected by, affect or have an interest in the policy problem or solution. They include

those people who suffer from the problem or those who possess the needed resources to address it, those who can make decisions about the problem and those who will be affected by the interventions to the problem (Majchrzak and Markus, 2014). Stakeholders could also be persons or institutions who have a vested interest in an intervention (Woodford-Berger and Nilsson, 2000). Stakeholders in a tourism destination can comprise: the government (national, regional and local); other government agencies with a link to tourism; tourism organisations; tourism entrepreneurs and developers, industry operators; non-tourism practitioners, and the community both local community groups and residents (Saito and Ruhanen, 2017).

It was evident that the research needed to represent five types of stakeholders in both phases of the study. This is because they possess different forms of power (Saito and Ruhanen, 2017), are knowledgeable in distinctive ways and could contribute to the research differently. The diagram in Figure 10 summarises the five categories of stakeholders in the Nigerian tourism and hospitality sector. The inner circle consists of the stakeholders, and the outer layer comprises the category of the stakeholder group that they belong. They constitute:

1. The public sector- federal (Federal Ministry of Information and Culture, Nigerian Tourism Development Corporation, and other ministries and parastatals).
2. The public sector- state (Ministries of Tourism, State Tourism Board, and Attractions).
3. The private sector or businesses (Owners/managers of tourism, events and hospitality establishments, employees in hotels, tour operators, travel agents, airlines, private sector association).
4. Academics in higher institutions of learning (Universities and Polytechnics).
5. The community (Local Governments Tourism Committees and the local communities).

Various stakeholder groups are considered because the research aims to provide some recommendations for the practice of governance. These same stakeholders who will be involved in implementing the change intervention need to be included in the research. Also, participatory research is often used to refer to community members, i.e. local people. Research aimed at development is to involve those who can support such participation or help find a solution to the problem, for example, governmental organisations, professionals in the private and academic sector, local people and non-governmental organisations (NGOs).

Figure 10 Stakeholder groups in the Nigerian tourism and hospitality sector



Source: Author (2017)

4.4.2.1 Profile of the interviewees and analysis of the interview data

A total of twenty-three (23) face-to-face semi-structured interviews were conducted with stakeholders within the tourism sector in Nigeria. Two of the interviews were conducted over a Skype video call, as those participants were abroad as at the time of data collection when the researcher was in Nigeria. Table 6 presents each of the participant's information, consisting of Five (5) females and eighteen (18) males. Most of the participants had been working in the industry for over three years, and their age ranged from 28 years to over 60 years.

Table 6 List of interviewees

Code	Gender	Age	Stakeholder Group
A1	M	30-39	Academics
A2	M	40-49	Academics
A3	F	50-59	Academics
A4	F	30-39	Academics
A5	F	30-39	Academics
C1	M	60+	Community
C2	M	40-49	Community
C3	M	50-59	Community
C4	M	40-49	Community
C5	M	60+	Community
F1	F	20-29	Federal
F2	M	40-49	Federal
F3	M	40-49	Federal
F4	M	50-59	Federal
P1	M	30-39	Private
P2	M	60+	Private
P3	M	40-49	Private
S1	M	40-49	State
S2	M	40-49	State
S3	M	30-39	State
S4	M	50-59	State
S5	F	40-49	State
S6	M	40-49	State
Female (F) = 5	Age		
Male (M) = 18	20-29 = 1		
	30-39 = 5		
	40-49 = 10		
	50-59 = 4		
	60+ = 3		

Figure 10 is closely linked with Table 6, which represents the participants in the phase 2 data collection. The five key stakeholders in the Nigerian tourism and hospitality sector are represented. For example, A-Academics, C-Community, F-Federal, P-Private and S-State.

4.4.2.2 Data analysis and writing up themes

Analysing qualitative data is exploratory in nature, and it follows the following steps: transcribing data; reading to generate categories; patterns and themes; interpreting the findings and writing up the report (Wilson, 2014). The thematic analysis was used in analysing the interviews, audio-recorded interviews were transcribed accurately and verbatim to provide a database for the analysis following Merriam's (2009) recommendation. This was achieved by typing the audio into words using Microsoft Office Word, which produce about 100, 000 words of data corpus in text format. The transcript was cross-checked by reading through it while listening to the audio, to ensure that the interview has been transcribed correctly.

The dataset was then inputted into NVIVO 11.3, a qualitative data analysis software, to help organise the data for easy coding, sorting, synthesising and theorising as suggested by Saldana (2016). NVivo was used to organise and store data and aid data analysis for the research. The use of NVivo provided a platform to manage my data which would have been unmanageable to the same level using manual methods. NVivo software allowed for full exposure of all stages of coding and categorisation of the interview data to obtain the final themes for the findings of this thesis. Data analysis focused on building up broad themes.

By reading and rereading the transcribed data the researcher identifies patterns or themes in the data (Wilson, 2014); to see what relevant information based on the research objectives are there, interview extracts were coded and given a name and description. This process allowed the researcher to keep a memo of personal reflection on the information that is being coded. Purposive sampling was used to code by choosing extracts samples that are in line with the overarching themes for the analysis. The choices were based on the research objectives as suggested by Wilson (2014) and Saldana (2016).

The codes were further reviewed and organised into categories, and major themes were identified by using a thematic analysis approach (Braun and Clarke, 2006). Using three levels of coding, the first level helped to identify the themes, the second was used to determine the sub-themes, and in the third level, the patterns were interpreted by drawing upon the literature (Watts, 2014). The themes and subthemes generated were supported with extracts from the coded data, and the meaning of the quotes was determined (Braun and Clarke, 2006). Interpretation of findings involves the researcher searching for points of connections amongst the categories identified from the transcript (Wilson, 2014), these summarise the stages followed for the data analysis.

The researcher tried to transcribe what was said verbatim as closely as possible. However, because the participants are talking and therefore some of the things they said is not necessarily in full sentences, there are some repetitions, and people drift off at times; also most of them were speaking using more natural Nigerian rhythms or terms. In order for the researcher to make the presentation as clear as possible, an ellipsis ([...]) was used where appropriate.

The research findings were presented by discussing what they mean and at the same time, making references to the literature. The analysis process was done by using both inductive and deductive reasoning, which is supported by the pragmatic approach (Morgan, 2007). For example, in some cases, the codes were generated from participants' own words and in other cases, data were coded in relation to theory, i.e. using Scheyvens (1999, 2002) categories.

4.5 Validity and reliability

Validity explains the extent to which the information collected by the researcher truly reflect the phenomenon that is being studied (Veal, 2017). Validity requires that the researcher's approach is consistent across the study conducted (Creswell, 2009), while, reliability is the extent to which research findings would be the same if the research were repeated in future or at a later time or with a different sample or subjects (Veal, 2017). Reliability means addressing the question of whether there is transparency in how the researcher made sense of the raw data (Easterby Smith, Thorpe and Jackson, 2012).

The responses received from the participants are meaningful indicators of the importance and performance variables, thus ensured quantitative validity (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2018). The researcher used the Importance-Performance Analysis framework, as an instrument to design the questionnaire and analyse the data to ensure reliability (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2018).

The quantitative method used in phase 1 of the research prevented researcher bias. Also, the results from the quantitative research are similar to the qualitative and thus improved the validity and reliability of the study. Therefore, the mixed methods adopted strengthened the validity of this research.

Lincoln and Guba (1985) suggest that the trustworthiness of qualitative research methods can be assessed based on 1) credibility, 2) transferability, 3) dependability and 4) confirmability. Accordingly, these criteria were used to ensure trustworthiness and rigour in the second phase of the research. Hence, a reflective description of how the research met these criteria is provided here.

First, credibility refers to how truthful the findings of the research are. For the current study as advised by Decrop (2004), there was prolonged engagement through examining the research setting in two sequential phases of data collection. The researcher also delineated the research process and methods of data collection for the two phases in this chapter. Also, during the write-up and analysis process, the researcher used theory and contextual information to support data analysis and interpretation of the participants' views.

Second, transferability refers to the extent to which the research findings can apply to another setting. Following Decrop's (2004) recommendation, the research provided an extensive description of the context of the study in chapter two and in the analysis chapters by using academic literature and news articles that relates to Nigeria to ensure transferability of findings to another setting within the context of the research. This was also guaranteed by using purposive sampling and representing various stakeholder groups to have the broadest range of information.

Third, dependability refers to whether the findings would be consistent and reproducible. The researcher reflected on the data collected from the qualitative (Phase 2) of the research and these corresponds with the findings from the first stage and the reality in the research context, hence revealing consistency.

Four, confirmability the degree of neutrality or the extent to which the respondents shape the findings of a study and not researcher bias or interest. The researcher ensured that the analysis of data presented nuanced views from participants comments as suggested by Decrop (2004).

4.6 Research sample selection

Two types of sampling are evident from the literature, the probability and non-probability sampling techniques (Cooper and Schindler, 2014; Wilson, 2014; Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2016). Purposive sampling is a non-probability sample (Cooper and Schindler, 2014). In this sampling method, the researcher uses his or her judgement in the selection of cases that can best meet their research objectives or answer their research questions (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2016). The researcher initially contacted some of the stakeholders who can help meet the purpose of the research through the telephone to arrange a meeting at a

convenient place and time for them. Upon meeting with the respondents/participants they were asked to recommend other people they feel might be useful to the research for data collection, hence, snowballing sampling was adopted. In this type of sampling, respondents are attained through referral networks (Cooper and Schindler, 2014). Snowball sampling technique allows the researcher to overcome the problems of accessing potential respondents or participants by using those you already know to gain access to others within their network (Wilson, 2014). The researcher is being referred to others who possess similar characteristics as the person who is referring to them and they, in turn, direct the researchers to others (Cooper and Schindler, 2014). This snowballing sampling method helped the researcher to access some government/public sector officials and stakeholders in the private sector.

The researcher is aware that tourism development is relatively new in Nigeria and educational institutions were beginning to see the need for tourism education. Few employees in the industry have any qualification in tourism. Therefore, stakeholders may give their views on tourism governance based on their experiences in the industry and not necessarily because they have a background in tourism. As Babalola and Oluwatoyin (2014) acknowledge, most of the federal and state-owned Universities in Nigeria do not award a degree in tourism, thus tourism and hospitality education is not meeting the industry's expectations leading to inadequacy in the number of trained personnel required in the industry. Similarly, another challenge is the inadequate number of qualified lecturers in tourism and hospitality in Nigeria (Abomeh, 2012). Thus, having a tourism degree was not a criterion used in the selection, but current employees within the industry were considered and the community representatives in tourism.

For the first phase of the research (quantitative interviews) purposive sampling was used for the first 14 respondents that have been contacted before the data collection commenced, and the other 12 were recruited through recommendations from their colleagues, i.e. snowball sampling. Both sampling methods are non-probability sampling techniques, which are selected based on the research focus or purpose (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2016). The second phase mainly used purposive sampling to recruit participants for the semi-structured interviews mostly from the pool of those who participated in the first phase as they reflect the necessary stakeholders in the tourism industry, and the researcher also involved some new participants in this phase.

The first phase of the research commenced with a list of potential participants, who were contacted beforehand. They include stakeholders in the tourism industry representing the government, private, academic, and community members. After meeting with some participants, they directed the researcher to other people who also participated in the research. The researchers' plan was to involve at least three or four participants from each of the stakeholder groups in the research.

4.7 A reflection on the data collection/analysis process and ethical consideration

The researcher initially planned to cover the six zones in the first phase of data collection; however, it was difficult to cover all the zones adequately and more time-consuming. The researcher gathered some data from other zones later decided to focus on one zone in more depth. It was also noticed that extensively there might not be any significant difference between the zones given the data gathered from those areas.

Focusing on one zone made it easier to assess the stakeholders and facilitated the use of snowballing sampling, as it was easier for the participant to give the contact of people within their zone. Once the researcher crossed over to another zone, the snowballing approach could not be used effectively because most participants had the contact of the stakeholders within their zone. This also signifies a lack of coordination among stakeholders in the tourism industry generally. It then required the researcher to first identify one principal actor who could then provide a connection to other stakeholders within the zone, which was more time-consuming. Also, concentrating on a zone made it easier to link the views coming from the state participants with those of the community representatives.

Throughout the data collection period, the researcher positioned myself as a researcher from the United Kingdom (UK) and remained in control of myself and conduct. This enabled the participants to provide context to their responses, mainly in the second phase, which utilised semi-structured interview as a technique for data collection. In some cases, participants would say you are in the UK and don't know what is happening in Nigeria.

Reflecting on my fieldwork experience, being a Nigerian and a female researcher played a huge part in gaining access for data collection as participants were receptive and willing to talk to

me because of the respect people generally have for females in the research context. Fieldwork for me was exciting, except for the challenge of timing, given that Nigeria is a 'clock-less' nation where people do not often keep to time but use 'Nigerian-time'. Most of the interview appointments did not precisely hold at the specified times and thus the researcher had to wait longer to get the interviews done.

The researcher followed the necessary procedures required before the data collection process. The first, ethical, consideration was to get an ethical compliance approval from the Canterbury Christ Church University, Research and Enterprise Development Centre (see Appendix F and G). This was followed throughout the research. The researcher at the point of data collection also sought the consent of the participants. The participants were presented with a consent form which they read before making a decision to either participate or not. Having signed the document which assured them that they are free to withdraw from the research at any point without being questioned, none of the participants chose to withdraw from the interview process.

Interviews were conducted in English Language as the official language used in Nigeria. Participants from the local community were given the option to speak in their local language if they wanted to but they all preferred to speak in English.

Further, anonymity was ensured all through the data analysis and write up process. the researcher made a deliberate effort at maintaining a separation between mine and participants views. Hence, the researcher was conscious in my role as a researcher and who needed to only interact with the view of others rather than the researcher's. The analysis provided a nuanced narrative of the findings and I focused on selecting quotes that adequately represented what the participants said about the themes.

4.8 Limitations of the study

This research is the first attempt at grouping tourism policy and planning variables based on their importance and performance to assess Nigerian tourism policy and planning. Although the result of the study provided some insight into issues in tourism policy and planning, the researcher noticed some limitations. First, the list of variables assessed was constrained to the literature review carried out by the researcher. While this is a good representation of the academic literature, exploring stakeholders' opinions in the collation of variables to be used could bring up other themes that could be included in the assessment. For example, tourism industry stakeholders in Nigeria believe that the government's attitude toward tourism is critical in tourism policy and planning, but this was not included in the variables used in the study.

Second, given the time and resources to carry out this research, all the thirty-six states in Nigeria could not be visited. The first phase gathered data from three out of the six geopolitical zones, and the second phase only focused on one zone in-depth. Further research can explore other zones and another context to assess whether the findings in this research resonates with happenings in different zones and other backgrounds.

4.9 Positionality

This section uses the first person tense to enable a clear discussion of my positionality. I am a Nigerian who has lived in Nigeria all my life. Researching about tourism governance in Nigeria is not unusual, given my familiarity with the research context. When the researcher is familiar with the research context, it can enhance the research process. For example, (Coteerill and Letherby, 1994) note that when the research participants see the researcher as an insider that they share similar experiences with, it reduces suspicions about the researchers' intentions or the research purpose.

Before commencing my PhD study, I worked as a lecturer for two years in a Nigerian University. My experiences of visiting some of the attractions in the country when we take students on field trips, and I see the potentials that have not been leveraged upon. This

ultimately led to my interest in researching tourism development planning to learn more about how things are done with regards to tourism policy and planning.

When I commenced my research, I started reading about tourism development in Nigeria; the outcome is presented in Chapter 3. This exercise still left me with some assumptions about the way tourism development policies and plans are made. In order not to base the research on assumptions, I started to look at the extensive literature on tourism development planning to see what is done in another context. Through that, I came up with some variables which I wanted to use to get the objective input of stakeholders in the Nigeria tourism industry on, how they handle tourism planning in practice. Then I researched how variables can be assessed in tourism, then I found the Importance-Performance Analysis framework, which I used for the data collection in phase 1. After that, I sought to understand the problem of tourism governance through the stakeholders' experience to allow them to respond in more depth in Phase 2.

According to Bourke (2014), the identities of both the researcher and participants have the potential to impact the research process. During the data collection process in Nigeria, some of the participants regarded me to be an insider, in terms of my nationality, occupation, and familiarity with the research context. For example, when I approach academics, they considered me as a PhD researcher to be an insider.

On the other hand, some others viewed me as an outsider, for example, stakeholders like the public sector and private sector participants even though they co-operated and were willing to share their experiences with me in-depth. However, some of the federal government participants who I see myself as an outsider to, in some cases saw me as an insider. For example, participant F1 who said that it would not be written in the tourism policy document that the government decides, but, that is what happens in practice. Also, F2 who said he would not lie to me that the stakeholder meeting has been stopped for some time now. For the community representatives, they saw the process as an opportunity for their voices to be heard.

Given this mixed insider-outsider position, before I commenced the data collection for the two phases of the research, I explained the purpose of the study to all participants to gain their trust and willingness to share their experiences.

Given that the research context is a familiar one to the researcher, I have some emotional attachment regarding the research work. As a Nigerian, I wish that tourism develops in Nigeria and improves the immediate environment where such development is taking place. But this attachment was not to the extent that it would jeopardise the research process or the accuracy of the research findings. Throughout the process of conducting this research, I was consistently reflecting on my position as a researcher and as a Nigerian, but I had to focus more on my PhD researcher status. Issues such as my history regarding being an academic who had previously worked in Nigeria and having the aspirations for tourism development in my country had to be consistently dealt with also.

CHAPTER 5

Tourism policy and planning in the Nigerian tourism sector: Importance-Performance Analysis

This chapter presents the results from Phase 1 of this study. This is linked to objective 1 'to examine the current situation in tourism policy and planning from the stakeholders' perspective using Importance-Performance Analysis'. This step was necessary to establish a broad understanding of stakeholders' views before the qualitative analysis that will follow in Chapters 6 to 9. This is so that the researcher does not simply assume the parameters of people's opinions on the topic.

This chapter used the Importance-Performance Analysis framework to diagnose the current situation in tourism policy and planning in Nigeria. The analysis gives an initial summary of the stakeholders' views. The findings presented in this chapter mainly revealed that almost all of the tourism planning variables assessed were perceived to be important to tourism development. However, regarding performance, the tourism sector is not doing so well in virtually all the areas which warrant that tourism planners need to concentrate on most of the variables in future tourism planning activities. This chapter has clear implications for the Nigerian tourism sector and requires that urgent actions be taken to improve on most of the variables that are performing poorly to ensure that the industry develops into a tourist destination in Africa, as it aspires to be.

After this introduction, the first section reports the results of the variables on tourism policy and planning. Section two presents the Importance-Performance Analysis (IPA) responses representation on the IPA grid/matrix. The third section focuses on the discussion of key findings.

5.1 Results of the variables

The data was entered into the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) for analysis. The analysis excluded missing cases and six which represent 'don't know' (N/A). The

overall results are presented in Tables 7 to 10, which indicates the mean score and standard deviation for all the variables for both the importance and performance questions. Based on the analysis, there is not much difference between the variables since the respondents feel they are all important, whereas in terms of their expectation the industry is generally not performing well in any area.

Table 7 Means/standard deviations scores

A. ENVIRONMENTAL SITUATION ANALYSIS (MICRO AND MACRO)	Importance Dimension		Performance Dimension	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
i. Political				
1. Addressing safety and security issues at visitor sites and destinations	4.92	.272	2.96	1.148
2. Ensuring public and visitor confidence against crime at public places	4.73	.452	2.77	1.177
3. Policies for reducing crime rate at tourism sites	4.81	.402	2.80	1.080
4. Public image management of Nigeria as a destination that suffers from safety and security issues	4.72	.678	2.79	1.073
5. Tourism policy acknowledges the need to integrate local tourism strategies with national policies for tourism	4.77	.514	2.60	1.225
ii. Economic				
6. Employment creation ability of the tourism industry	4.76	.452	2.96	1.148
7. The contribution of tourism as a pillar of economic development compared to other sectors of the economy has been made explicit to all stakeholder groups by government authorities	4.60	.500	3.04	1.183
8. Adequacy of business skills possessed by local tourism industry operators	4.54	.706	2.35	1.018
9. Specification of goals for future tourism development in Nigeria	4.73	.452	2.81	1.059
10. Distribution of tourism's economic benefits throughout the local area	4.31	.838	2.27	1.079
11. Provision of opportunities and incentives for Indigenous crafts	4.54	.508	2.19	1.021
12. Provision of incentives to locals for business development opportunities	4.40	.707	1.92	.776
13. Government policies and plans to reduce the effects of seasonality	4.42	.902	2.12	1.166
14. Level of foreign investment in tourism	4.68	.690	1.80	.816
iii. Environmental/ Physical				
15. Effective policies for conservation and environmental protection	4.81	.402	2.26	1.023
16. Restoration and maintenance of attractions and cultural/heritage sites	4.69	.471	2.54	1.272
17. Incorporation of environmental criteria in tourism planning	4.46	.508	2.65	1.129

18. The authorities have measured the current environmental carrying capacity of tourism sites	4.32	.802	2.32	.945
19. The resilience and/or fragility of the physical environmental biodiversity have been estimated and are being considered by government authorities	4.21	.658	2.04	.976
20. Land use and ownership patterns are considered by government authorities when planning for tourism	4.46	.582	2.68	1.069
21. Policies for the protection of renewable resource such as solar energy, timber	4.48	.586	2.24	.831
iv. Social				
22. Availability of funds for maintaining cultural sites and other attractions	4.69	.549	2.12	1.275
23. Loss of product/cultural authenticity through tourism commodification	4.16	.800	2.65	1.093
24. Improvement in quality of life through tourism	4.73	.533	2.77	1.107
25. Tourism development does not hinder continuance of traditional activities by local residents	4.50	.510	3.04	1.216
26. Tourism policy takes into consideration current population level and demographics for future planning	4.58	.578	2.69	1.192
v. Technology				
27. Utilisation of Geographical Information System (GIS) technology in tourism planning and marketing	4.73	.452	2.38	1.061
28. The use of social media in promoting Nigeria as a tourism destination	4.85	.368	3.27	1.218
29. The use of social media in promoting local tourism business in Nigeria	4.73	.452	2.77	1.210
vi. Culture and Heritage				
30. Policies for the protection of natural and heritage sites from erosion	4.73	.452	2.42	1.172
31. Avoiding degradation of cultural/heritage resources in tourism development	4.58	.504	2.73	1.185

Note: Scale range: 1-5 for each item. Higher scores indicate higher ratings for each variable.

Table 8 Means/standard deviations scores

B. STAKEHOLDER PARTICIPATION i. Local Community	Importance Dimension		Performance Dimension	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
32. Assessment of the overall quality of life in the area	4.54	.508	2.31	.788
33. A vision for the future which aligns with local community values, attitudes and lifestyles	4.46	.508	2.58	1.018
34. Level of local resident's knowledge about the contribution of tourism to regional and national economy	4.73	.452	2.12	.864
35. Number of local tour guides employed on site	4.64	.700	2.62	1.169
36. Involving non-tourism organisations in the planning process	4.24	.831	2.28	1.370
37. Involving of the LOCAL tourism organisations in the planning process	4.58	.929	2.23	1.070
38. Giving local communities' ideas priority over other stakeholders	4.08	.929	2.39	.941
ii. Public-Private Collaboration				
39. Promoting public-private sector partnership	4.77	.430	2.62	1.169
40. Incorporation of (national, regional and local) governments suggestions/ideas/views in decision-making about tourism development strategy	4.54	.508	2.88	1.243
41. Involving of the relevant regional tourism organisation(s) in the planning process	4.50	.510	2.80	1.155
42. Involving of representatives from existing visitor groups in the planning process	4.04	.999	2.17	1.114
43. Development of tourist attractions as part of tourism integrated planning	4.62	.496	2.62	1.329
44. Promotion of cooperation and collaboration among stakeholder groups	4.58	.504	2.73	1.373

Note: Scale range: 1-5 for each item. Higher scores indicate higher ratings for each variable.

Table 9 Means/standard deviations scores

C. ENDORSEMENT OF A STRATEGIC APPROACH TO DESTINATION PLANNING	Importance Dimension		Performance Dimension	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
i. Tourism Policy/ Governance				
45. Management function of government in tourism operations	4.35	.689	2.92	1.093
46. The planning process has a long-term orientation	4.35	.892	2.92	1.077
47. Public access to attraction sites, accommodation, transport	4.65	.629	2.92	1.354
48. Specific tourism objectives selected are achievable in the context of the current situation analysis	4.40	.707	2.58	1.060
49. Specific objectives selected are based on supply capability as opposed to market demand	4.40	.707	2.83	1.007
50. Evaluating each strategy option prior to determining a range of specific objectives	4.44	.507	2.79	1.021
51. Specific objectives for future tourism activity have been quantified and readily measurable	4.52	.510	2.56	1.158
52. Maintaining databanks of tourism accounts for the Nigerian tourism industry	4.68	.476	2.32	1.406
53. Adoption of policies by the Nigerian government for promoting entrepreneurship in the tourism industry	4.65	.485	2.58	1.206
54. Availability of training/ educating/ mentoring programmes for tourism employees	4.81	.402	2.38	1.359
55. Experts' consultation involved in tourism development planning	4.64	.496	2.54	1.303
56. Degree of decentralisation of the tourism industry	4.32	.748	2.68	1.282
ii. Strategic Approach				
57. Existence of a segmentation strategy for the Nigerian inbound market	4.32	.476	2.56	1.003
58. Existence of integrated marketing strategy for tourism development	4.50	.510	2.85	.967
59. Policy take into account the relationship between transport and tourism	4.65	.485	2.85	1.190
60. Existence of strategy and planning for domestic tourism sector	4.54	.706	2.69	1.225
61. Existence of communications strategy using traditional mass media such as TV, radio, brochures, newspaper and magazines	4.62	.571	3.04	1.341
62. Existence of an issues/crisis management, public relations strategy (spokesperson, emergency plans)	4.52	.653	2.42	1.060
63. Coordinated and planned development of infrastructure and superstructure for aiding tourism development	4.62	.697	2.35	1.294

Note: Scale range: 1-5 for each item. Higher scores indicate higher ratings for each variable.

Table 10 Means/standard deviations scores

D. IMPLEMENTATION/MONITORING AND EVALUATION i. Visitor Attitude	Importance Dimension		Performance Dimension	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
64. Availability of education and training programmes for visitors on environmental protection, respect for local customs and traditions	4.62	.496	2.54	1.303
65. Visitor's opinion of destination features such as historical and cultural, scenic attractions hospitality of local people, rest/relaxation opportunities, shopping opportunities, suitable restaurants, entertainment, suitable accommodation	4.65	.485	3.04	1.306
ii. Sustainability				
66. Prioritising specific objectives in terms of implementation urgency (economic, environment, cultural)	4.54	.508	2.68	1.249
67. Tourism policy clearly assigns responsibility for key task implementation	4.65	.485	2.46	.989
68. Development and promotion of special and mega events	4.58	.703	2.85	1.120
69. Policy estimates the resource costs of the recommended development strategy	4.28	.678	2.42	1.060
70. Policy indicates specific methods by which the identified resource costs are to be allocated to development participants	4.44	.507	2.33	1.167
71. Monitoring occupancy rate for accommodation establishments	4.42	.504	2.24	1.052
72. Provision of quality public transport	4.81	.402	2.27	1.079
73. Policy contains a clearly articulated review and evaluation mechanism	4.46	.508	2.23	1.177
74. Participation in international tourism and travel fairs and exhibitions for the promotion of Nigerian tourism industry	4.58	.504	2.20	1.118
75. Assessment and evaluation of host community attitudes and satisfactions towards tourism	4.73	.452	2.24	1.091

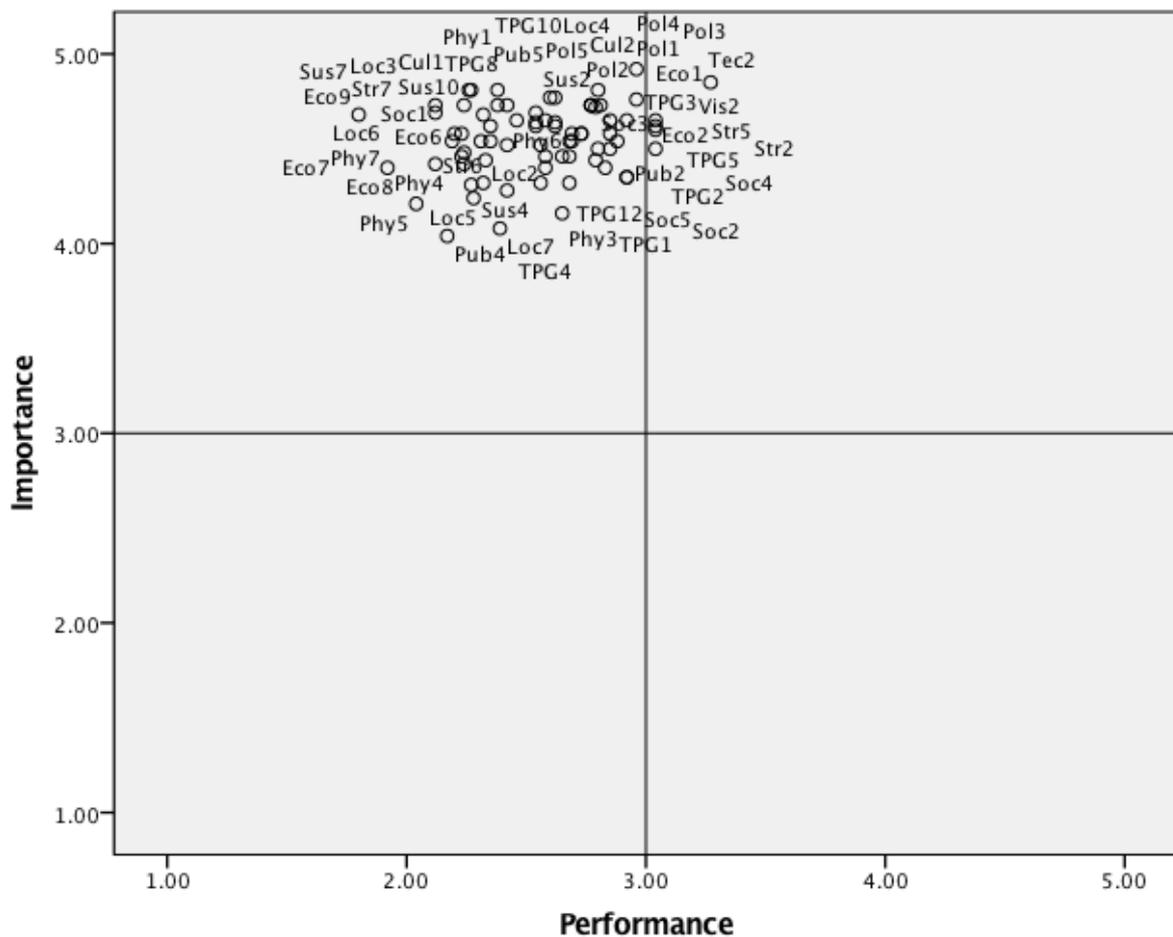
Note: Scale range: 1-5 for each item. Higher scores indicate higher ratings for each variable.

5.2 Representation of the variables on IPA matrix

This section presents the results of the variables and their representation on the importance-performance analysis (IPA) matrix. The mean scores for the importance and performance of the variables from Tables 6 to 9 were used to position the grid lines on the IPA matrix. The purpose of plotting the variables on the importance (y-axis) and performance (x-axis) is to establish a broad view of stakeholders across a range of issues examined. In plotting IPA matrix, the scaling of the axes and the location of variables into the four quadrants is critical as this is what determines the results and its interpretation (Matzler, Sauerwein and Heischmidt, 2003). Following Martilla and James (1977) the reference lines on the IPA grid is a point that divides the data into half, and this was added using three as the midpoint of the scale used.

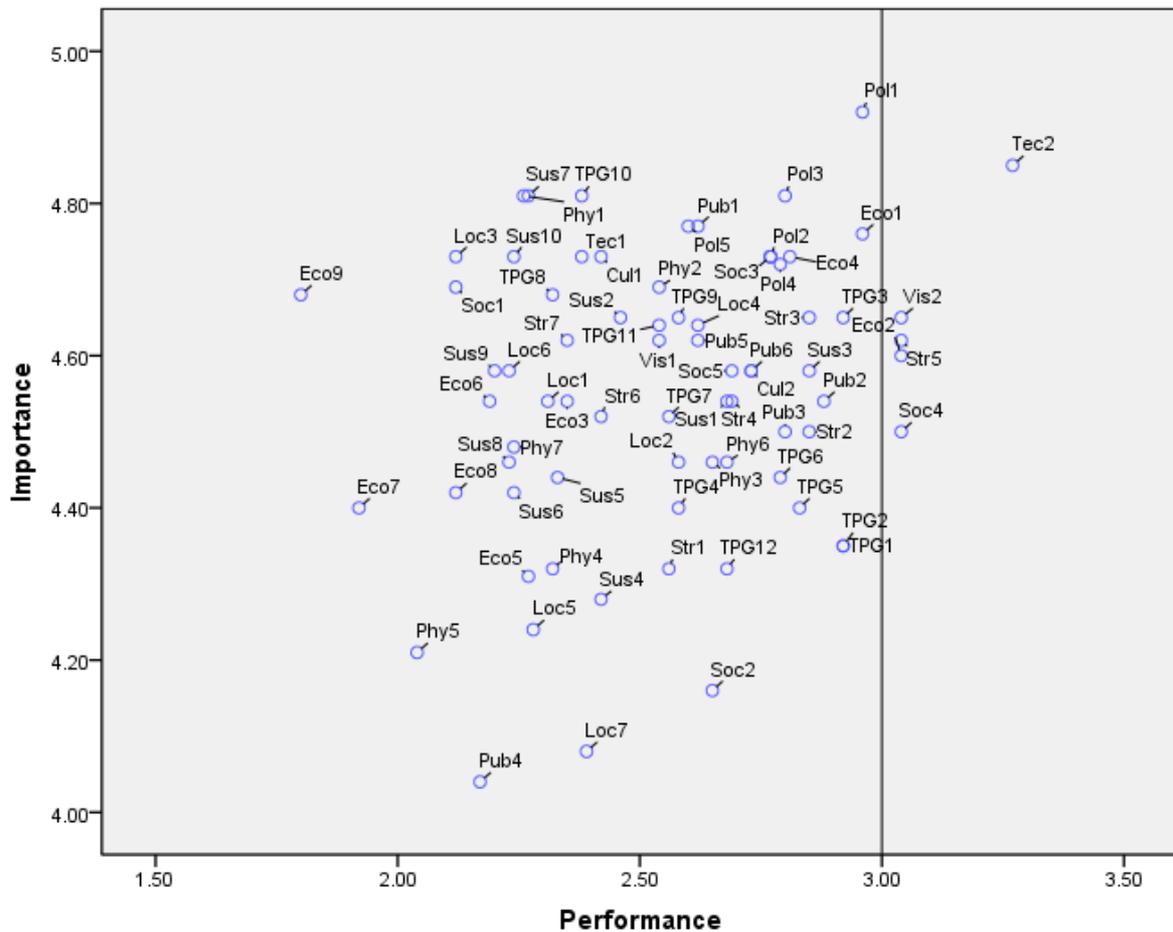
From the diagram, the relevant industry stakeholders and tourism policy makers in Nigeria can be able to identify quickly areas in which they need to focus or improve on for better tourism governance in the future. The IPA grid in Figure 11 represents that the perception across the board among the stakeholders is that there is a defect in most of the variables, except for a few that are doing relatively well.

Figure 11 Tourism policy and planning in Nigeria IPA matrix



Given the clustering of the variable in Figure 11, another zoomed-in matrix is produced in Figure 12, which enables the researcher to see visibly the distributions of these variables within the 'concentrate here' and 'keep up the good work' quadrants.

Figure 12 Tourism policy and planning in Nigeria zoomed-in IPA matrix



5.3 Discussion

To begin, the results from the IPA give an initial overview of stakeholders' perspectives on tourism policy and planning in Nigeria. One main finding is that almost all the variables assessed were deemed to be important and almost all the areas were deemed to be performing poorly. This is indicated by the mean scores for the importance variables, which are above 4, and those of performances, which are all below 4. In most cases, the importance variables are tending towards the end of the scale range, which means that they are all of high importance but are low in terms of performance both in absolute and relative terms. The standard deviation on the tables also showed that there is more consensus among the stakeholders over what is important and slightly less over the performance.

The results of the variables assessed suggest that there is a need for greater organisation in tourism policy and planning for the industry to succeed in the long-term – although, some of the variables were more important to the stakeholders than others and the same applies for the variables in terms of performance. The result suggests that governance need to address these issues generally.

Most of the variables that fall under the 'concentrate here' quadrants are not being adequately considered right now, as shown in the importance and performance results. These will need to be well thought out when formulating and implementing future tourism policies and plans. Indeed, the analysis does indicate that currently, tourism governance is of concern to the participants in the study, as indicated by their responses to the variables in the questionnaire which consisted of the six sub-categories below:

- a) Environmental (land use and ownership patterns are considered by government authorities when planning for tourism; incorporation of environmental criteria in tourism planning).
- b) Social (loss of product/cultural authenticity through tourism commodification; tourism development does not hinder continuance of traditional activities by local residents, tourism policy takes into consideration current population level and demographics for future planning).
- c) Public-private collaboration (incorporation of national, regional and local government's suggestions/ideas/views in decision-making about tourism development strategy; involving of the relevant regional tourism organisation(s) in the planning process).
- d) Tourism policy/governance (management function of government in tourism operations; the planning process has a long-term orientation; specific objectives selected are based on supply capability as opposed to market demand; evaluating each strategy option prior to determining a range of specific objectives; the degree of decentralisation of the tourism industry).
- e) Strategic approach (existence of integrated marketing strategy for tourism development; the existence of strategy and planning for domestic tourism sector).

- f) Sustainability (prioritising specific objectives regarding implementation urgency, i.e. economic, environment and cultural; development and promotion of special and mega-events).

Generally, for a country like Nigeria that has embarked on tourism development since the 1960s, and prioritised the sector in both 1999 and 2006 (see Chapter 3), the absolute and relative level of 'performance' is generally low compared to the level of 'importance' that stakeholders attributed to the tourism policy and planning variables. The results from the tables show that the mean and standard deviation scores for the importance are similar, hence, there is no notable difference in the distribution of the respective scores. Where the standard deviation for the 'importance' level was lower, this means that the stakeholders had a more consistent reaction in relation to the importance variables. Where the standard deviation was higher in the 'performance' category, this means that the stakeholders had a greater variation of reactions to the variables in terms of performance.

Broadly, for most of the categories, important management implications arise as respondents indicated that the tourism sector in Nigeria has performed low on highly important variables, which come under the 'concentrate here' on quadrant I of the IPA grid, representing 93.4% of the variables. As advised by Deng (2007), there is need for immediate attention as the organisation has a significant weakness in these areas. This is evident through the clustering of the variables on the grid, and those aspects need to be modified in the current and future practices within the industry. The general implication is that there is a need for urgent improvement on most of the variables.

These results confirmed a sense that most Nigeria citizens have, given the nature of governance generally in Nigeria, where the people have a belief that Nigeria as a nation has not got its politics right since attaining independence status in 1960 and that *nothing works in Nigeria* (Rilwan, 2013). It is surprising that even the current President Muhammadu Buhari also stated in one of the National Newspapers that nothing is working normally in the country as a result of the total breakdown of Nigeria's core values over the years (Group, 2016).

However, there is a positive side where the tourism sector is doing relatively well, representing 6.6% of the variables, and the advice here is that they should continue to 'keep up the good

work' in those areas. Since they are of importance, and correspondingly there is a relatively high performance, they need to maintain the present value (Evans and Chon, 1989). They are where an organisation possesses major strengths and have opportunities to achieve a competitive advantage (Deng, 2007), these variables are above 3 and are situated in quadrant II. For example, it was notable that five out of the seventy-five variables were reported to be performing relatively well.

These include:

Eco2: The contribution of tourism as a pillar of economic development compared to other sectors of the economy has been made explicit to all stakeholder groups by government authorities

Soc4: Tourism development does not hinder continuance of traditional activities by local residents

Tec2: The use of social media in promoting Nigeria as a tourism destination

Str5: Existence of communications strategy using traditional mass media such as TV, radio, brochures, newspaper and magazines

Vis2: Visitors' opinions of destination features such as historical and cultural, scenic attractions hospitality of local people, rest/relaxation opportunities, shopping opportunities, suitable restaurants, entertainment, suitable accommodation.

These suggest that the tourism sector has done the right thing in terms of creating awareness amongst the stakeholders on the importance of tourism contribution to the Nigeria economy. This is because it has been acknowledged that tourism can contribute to the economic development of nations (see Dredge, 2010; McDowall and Choi, 2010). Consequently, the sector is being marketed by using traditional mass mediums and technology-social media platforms are also being used. Technology is important to marketing tourism development (Koutra and Edwards, 2012), and the sector has adopted this medium in addition to other traditional mediums. Further, the stakeholders believed that tourism development does not in any way hinder the continuance of traditional activities by local residents. Finally, visitors to tourist attractions in Nigeria are aware of the tourist facilities available to them and that they have an opinion that the facilities are good.

No variables are considered to be of 'low priority', i.e. low importance and low-performance quadrant III. Likewise, none of the variables is positioned in the 'possible overkill' quadrant IV of the IPA matrix. Therefore, quadrant I is the area that needs to be improved upon. Overall, it is believed that the industry is doing the right things in quadrants II and III (Prajogo and McDermott, 2011).

Almost all categories fall within the 'concentrate here' quadrant. These findings are a cause for concern as all the categories in the 'concentrate here' quadrant are politically significant and warrant that tourism planners take action. The distribution of the circles that represent the variables on the grid in the zoomed-in version reveal a somewhat uniform distribution of the variables.

The results do not explicitly enable the researcher to prioritise critical categories of issues to examine further as they reveal that the problem is pervasive, not focused on either political, economic, environment, socio-cultural, technology, culture and heritage, community, public-private collaboration, tourism policy/governance, strategic approach, visitor attitudes, and sustainability. Put simply, there is a lack of pattern that might suggest any of the categories are regarded as either more important or performing better than any other.

Hence, a way to look further at these issues, in general, is to examine the broader question of governance of the tourism sector and participation as a key characteristic. For that reason, it is essential to focus on fundamental underlying factors that shape governance in general terms and therefore shape these negative results *as a whole*. These then inform the approach in Chapters 6 to 9.

Therefore, governance (C) and participation (B), which encompass structures and processes, will be focused on in the second phase of the research, as it is at these levels that problems can be addressed and potential solutions found. Focusing on these aspects means stepping back from the manifestations of these problems to look at how they are confronted in the Nigerian tourism sector. Hence, the focus is on those categories that relate not to the expression of issues and not policies *per se* but more to governance structures and processes. This links to what Telfer and Sharpley (2008) highlight, that responses are needed to some politically oriented questions of form (structures) and function (processes by which governance actors perform

their activity) in tourism development in developing countries. Also, contemporary approaches to tourism governance encompass the need for stakeholder participation (Cooper, 2016). Hence, the need for government agencies to coordinate tourism activities and involve other stakeholders in the process.

From the literature, for tourism development or any development practice to be sustainable the community must be involved and thus should be taken seriously (Murphy, 1985; Mair, 2015). This may be possible through local community involvement and participation in tourism governance. Also, if the local community are actively involved in tourism planning, they are more likely to be satisfied with tourism, and that may facilitate reducing the conflicts with local community member over tourism development in their localities.

Notably, this initial finding and the issues chosen to be focused on aligns with some of the clusters that have been recently identified by The United Nation World Tourism Organisation and the Nigerian government, as the keys that will guide every implementation programme for the Nigerian Tourism Development Master Plan. The broad clusters include policy, governance issues, activities and events, bilateral relations, technical assistance and capacity building (Nwanne, 2016).

CHAPTER 6

Tourism governance structure and interaction among stakeholders in Nigeria

This second analysis chapter examines the national decision-making structure that shapes the tourism governance process. The first section highlights the broader national governance issues, which in turn influence tourism governance. This is important because tourism does not operate in a vacuum, but is a part of the broader political structure in any nation (see Chapter 2). The second section examines the interview findings relating to the formal institutional arrangements that shape tourism governance and begins to look at how these work in practice. Section three considers the communication and interaction that takes place among tourism stakeholders, in a sense the dialogic content of these formal arrangements of governance. The dialogic public policy promotes participatory democracy in which citizens are active partners with the government throughout the policy process (Banyan, 2007). The final section considers the participants' views on whether stakeholders' opinions matter.

As background for this chapter, there follows a brief exposition of the broad *governance* referred to by the interviewees.

The key government structures in Nigeria are:

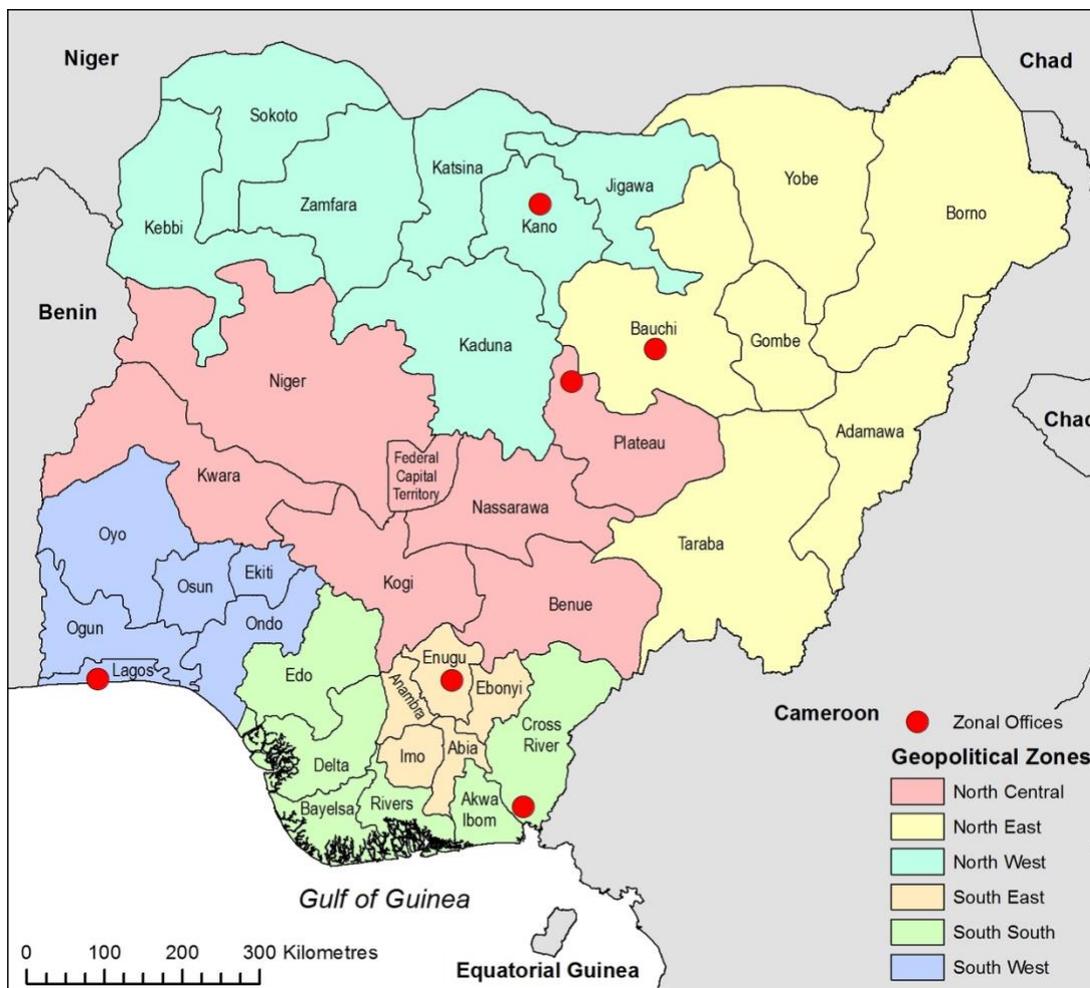
- 1) Federal government based in Abuja, the Federal capital of Nigeria (first level).
- 2) State governments in each of the 36 states in Nigeria (second level).
- 3) Local governments: each state is further divided into 774 Local Government Areas (third level).
- 4) There are also zones which are a collection of states, and altogether there are six zones in Nigeria. These are represented in the different colours on the map.

For a better and easy access to the states, the Nigerian Tourism Development Corporation based in Abuja the Federal Capital has six zonal offices, located in six states within the zones,

each headed by a zonal Coordinator. The zonal offices are listed below and they are represented on the Map in Figure 13 with red dots.

- a. (North West) Kano Zonal Office
- b. (North Central) Plateau, Jos Zonal Office
- c. (South West) Lagos Zonal Office
- d. (North East) Bauchi Zonal Office
- e. (South East) Enugu Zonal Office
- f. (South-South) Cross River Zonal Office.

Figure 13 Map of Nigeria showing the six geo-political zones and the tourism zonal offices



Source: Author (2018)

6.1 General governance in Nigeria and its influence on tourism governance in particular

Governance can take place at different scales: national, state and local. This section looks at the national governance system of Nigeria as a whole, which principally relates to tourism

governance at the federal and state levels. In Nigeria, as in many African countries, the predominance of the central government in development planning is common (Jenkins, 2000; Nelson, 2012). This can often reflect the weaknesses of the private sectors (Page, 2007) and local communities (Jamal and Getz, 1999; Nelson, 2012) in developing countries.

First, it was clear from the interviews that the participants believe the centralised nature of the general governance in Nigeria affects tourism governance profoundly. This is captured by Participant A1, a Lecturer with two years' experience in the Academy and several within the tourism sector, who indicated that:

"Everything in Nigeria is centralised. Really it goes back to the constitution of the country itself. It is a federal republic, but in reality, when you look at the details, it is actually a unitary-style state. The centre is empowered in a destructive relationship to the units: the state and the local government [...]."

We have been through this for so many years and it has become the system, the tradition, and it is becoming very difficult to change and in fact so many people have adapted it to their own selfish interest in that they don't want it to change [...]."

[...] The main issue has to do with the overall policy. Every other thing that comes out of that constitution does not fit the realities of the country in a fair way and an equitable way for everybody. Then, whatever they attach to it, like tourism policies, will always not work and will always be problematic." (A1, Academic)

The extract suggests that the challenge in tourism governance is not related to tourism specifically, but emanates from the broader governance structure in Nigeria. This issue dates back to the constitutional framework that guides Nigeria, where power is centralised in the federal (national) government. It is notable that participant A1 constructs the subject matter as a "unitary-style state" instead of the federal system that it is supposed to be. In saying this, the participant implies that it is the national government that has the supreme power, and every other unit can only exercise authority in the areas delegated to them or where they have autonomy. In opposition to this, some have called for a genuine federal system of government to improve matters (Ogundiya, 2010; Odo, 2015). Hence, the extract, which is indicative of other participants in the research, demonstrates the widely held view that Nigerian governance is overly centralised, and the national government want the states to be effectively under their control.

There is also clear implication in the quote that the constitution that has guided Nigeria from 1960 until now entrenches a top-down approach, which has become *"the system, the tradition"* and underpins inertia or resistance to change. This is important context for any discussion of tourism governance.

Participant A1 further states that a situation where power is centralised with the federal level makes the centre strong and every other unit weak: *"the centre is empowered in a destructive relationship to the units: the state and the local governments."* For this reason, the latter levels cannot innovate or act independently of the federal government in the development of every sector of the Nigeria economy, including tourism.

Participant F1, a Tourism Officer at the Federal Ministry with three years' experience added that:

"Normally, it's supposed to be from the bottom to the top, but because of the way Nigeria is, everybody is after his/her own personal interest, it's now top to bottom, which affects so many things [...], it's just government decides and then that's it [...]."

The organogram [a diagram that shows the institutional structure] will not say government is the one determining it, of course no, they will probably give you something different, but what happens is that it's just government that does everything [...]. Whatever is in the book is just print and that is it." (F1, Federal)

This quote implies that the governance process in Nigeria is such that the government see themselves as the ones at the helm of affairs and their decisions are final. The role of stakeholders in enacting decisions is reduced. She argues that the formal institutional structure masks this reality. In other words, the formal structure veils the heavily 'top-down' ethos. She added that the people in government are 'after [their] own interest'. This affirms Daloz's (2005) view that in the Nigerian bureaucracy those in power are very rarely neutral actors and often only have either their own interests or patrons/clients and co-ethnic friends in mind.

This view was shared by other private and academic participants, who also expressed concern about the centralised nature of governance. Some exemplary quotes are discussed below:

"It is centralised, just like Nigeria, too, is centralised. And that is why there are situations today. Devolve power, give state-owned power [to people other] than the centre. The centre will not agree. If you are talking about devolution of power, let the centre be weak, let the states be strong." (P2, Private)

"It is centralised because you only have those in the helm of affairs making decisions."
(A4, Academic)

The issues highlighted above in relation to general governance were also viewed as all too evident in tourism governance by the participants. The national 2006 Nigerian Tourism Development Master Plan states that the process of decision-making in tourism should be decentralised (NTDMP, 2006). However, many of the responses from the stakeholders seem to imply this is empty rhetoric. Sampson (1996) argues that, generally, the rhetoric of development could lead to international organisations entering into a linguistic game with those they advise. On this thinking, the use of terms such as 'decentralisation' becomes instrumental rather than a substantial commitment to devolution.

So it could be the case that it has been stated explicitly in the master plan because some international bodies in tourism have specified the importance of decentralisation. For example, UNEP and WTO (2005) highlight the importance of decentralising administrative and political structures in tourism for efficiency in governance. Moreover, officials from one of the international bodies, UNWTO assisted with the drafting of the initial master plan before its release in 2006 and, recently, they were invited to help with the review of the policy in the year 2016 (Babatunde, 2016b). This shows the way the Nigeria nation relates to the international organisations in tourism development, its governance and the sustainability of the industry. Although this is outside the scope of this research, the adoption of the 'development speak' of decentralisation, as well as community participation and sustainability etc., is an important issue worthy of further study.

Second, participants emphasised that tourism governance follows the over-centralised pattern they felt characterises Nigeria's governance as a whole. This was supported by some state government officials (S1; S2; S3). They alluded to the fact that they are the ones who make decisions in tourism development at the state level. For example, Participant S2, a Chief Tourism Officer in a state Ministry of Tourism, with over seventeen years' experience stated that: "[We are] *centralised. We have management staff when a decision is to be taken the management meets. When the decision is taken, it is rectified [finalised] by the honourable commissioner.*" (S2, State).

The quote suggests not only the over-centralised character of decision-making but also its technocratic character. The (unelected) management staff at the Ministry are central to decision-making, with decisions passed to the (elected) commissioner for tourism.

The community and private sector participants (C1; C4; C5; P2; P3), concur:

"It's the government! The government is making the decisions." (C1, Community)

"Well, it's a government affair, the community doesn't have anything to do with it [...]." (C5, Community)

"[...] It's centralized, [...] the decisions are taken by them [the government] [...]. No one is involved except them, the elites, the people on top." (P3, Private)

However, four participants, from both public and private sectors (F2; F4; S6; P1), expressed some disagreement, claiming that the process of policy formulation in tourism is more decentralised. For example, participant F2 who works as the Planning Research Statistics Officer for a federal parastatal with over 11 years' experience, expressed the opinion: *"I would say it is decentralised because we have the state and local government [involved]"* (F2, Federal).

This view could be a result of a notable lawsuit of July 19, 2013, between the parastatal, that the participant F2 represents (NTDC) at the federal level, and the Lagos state government. This concerned who had the right to coordinate the tourism and hospitality activities within the state. The federal government had previously performed this function, yet the state felt that they needed to be in charge of these activities for greater effectiveness and control within their state. It was held that the Nigerian Tourism Development Corporation (NTDC) at the federal level can only legislate over tourism traffic, immigration and Visa issues and that Lagos state should regulate the registration of tourism and hospitality establishments in their state (Abdulah, 2013). Three participants out of the six state government representatives interviewed also implied that all the states in Nigeria benefited from the ruling of the Supreme Court on this issue, as they can now register and coordinate tourism businesses within their states without any interference from the federal level.

Notably, the case shows the legal challenges that are inherent in tourism governance, and that there are power struggles within the public sector in coordinating the industry. This further explains the tensions that exist between the federal and the state ministries. Indeed Mustapha

(2001) states that inefficient management and ambiguities characterise the relationship between the three tiers of government that manage tourism.

The incident brought about some degree of decentralisation of power to the state government, which the national government was forced into as a result of the court ruling. At the same time, it also indicates a problem. If the decentralisation of power within the tourism sector is to take place, it is the governmental institutions at the federal level that should initiate it. However, they only did so when they were forced to do so by the Supreme Court judgement.

In agreement with F2 above, participant P1, who is a private sector practitioner as a Tourism Consultant with seven years' experience, noted that the process had become more decentralised because of the Supreme Court judgement discussed above: *"At the moment, it's decentralised. Some time ago the NTDC controlled every state tourism board, but at the moment it's no more [...]"* (P1, Private).

It is clear that in development planning in Nigeria, there are deficiencies and inadequacies in governance, and also specifically in tourism (Mustapha, 2001). Nigeria's Nobel prize laureate Professor Wole Soyinka stated in one of the National newspapers in Nigeria that the over-centralisation of power to the federal government in Nigeria is the key problem of development (Ajeluorou, 2017). The issue goes back further to 1960, when Nigeria gained independence from British rule. Mustapha (2001) notes that the division of powers under the Nigerian federal constitution since 1960 is the origin of the problem experienced in tourism, and the reason the federal and its parastatals dominate tourism policy formulation. The evidence affirms Nelson's view that the struggles experienced by tourism development in sub-Saharan African countries are a function of the broader contexts of economic and political empowerment (Nelson, 2012).

Notwithstanding the challenges posed by the broader centralised governance, stakeholders in the tourism sector are formally expected to carry out their function in a decentralised way, as stated in the national tourism plan. However, in practice, governance is centralised at either the federal or state government level. The decentralisation, in so far as it exists, is very limited. It involves the federal and the state government levels, but little or nothing outside of that, since most of the time the community level, private businesses, and academics do not feature in the decision-making process.

This section considered Nigerian governance in general, and tourism in particular, next, it would be interesting to explore the institutional mechanism in tourism and this now being turned to.

6.2 Existing institutional arrangements, processes of tourism governance and how it works.

This section focuses on describing what the formal institutional arrangements in the tourism sector are, and then explores stakeholders' perceptions of how these arrangements work.

Institutional arrangements are formal or informal frameworks of an organisation that shape its authority, autonomy, internal coherence and regulation (Beaumont and Dredge, 2010). The literature on tourism governance, policy and planning has established that the success of tourism development, to a significant extent, depends on institutional arrangements that function well (Ogundiya, 2010; Pastras and Bramwell, 2013; Wang and Ap, 2013). An understanding of this is essential, especially given the multiplicity of stakeholders that can be involved in tourism. Such mechanisms usually include public-private partnership and also the local government as active participants in decision-making (Dieke, 1991, 2000a; Beaumont and Dredge, 2010).

The formal institutional arrangement in tourism governance established in Nigeria operates between the three tiers of government; federal, state and local (Mustapha, 2001; NTDMP, 2006). In the arrangement, the federal ministry coordinates the activities of the state ministries, who should implement policies from the federal level and make adjustments if need be (Mustapha, 2001). Then, tourism committees should be established at the local government level (Mustapha, 2001). While it is essential for the tourism sector to have a formal institutional arrangement, it is also imperative for such arrangement in tourism to include a diverse range of actors in the process of tourism governance.

On the institutional arrangements, at the first level is the Federal Ministry of Tourism and Culture (FMCT), a body that should set the target for tourism growth and long-term policy and planning for the sector, and monitor the performance of the sector to see if tourism objectives are achieved. Only recently in 2015 was the Federal Ministry of Culture and Tourism merged

with the Ministry of Information and Culture to form the Federal Ministry of Information and Culture (FMIC).

Some participants criticised this development as diminishing the priority given to tourism. As one participant S3, states, "[A]lthough tourism is silent, that is where tourism still belongs". (S3, State). Hence, in the current nomenclature, "tourism is silent" because it has now been merged with the new ministry, FMIC.

‘Silencing tourism’ in the arrangement at the federal level suggests that the voices of tourism stakeholders at the federal level are less likely to be heard, since the framework that can facilitate this has been taken away. As is shown later in this section given that there is a general perception that the sector was not reaching its full potential when it was a full-fledged ministry of tourism, it seems perverse to expect this to change now that the ministry has been effectively downgraded to a department.

Nigerian Tourism Development Corporation (NTDC) is a parastatal of the Federal Ministry of Culture and Tourism, charged with the responsibility for coordinating, developing, regulating, marketing and promoting tourism in Nigeria, at international as well as domestic level. The NTDC head office is situated in Abuja, and it has six zonal offices, each one covering at least three states. NTDC is referred to as the apex tourism body.

At the second or state level, every state should have a ministry of tourism and culture, and their responsibility is to mirror the Federal Ministry responsible for tourism at the state level. The Nigerian Tourism Development Corporation Act also provides for the establishment of State Tourist Boards with the functions to assist the NTDC in implementing the NTDC Act; recommend to the NTDC measures that enable it to give full effect to the provisions of the Act; encourage Nigerians to visit their state, and coordinate the activities of tourism agencies.

At the third level, there should be Local Government Tourism Committees subject to the control of the State Tourism Boards and the NTDC. These committees should recommend projects for development to the Tourism Boards; advice on tourism matters within their areas; preserving monuments and museums in their areas; promote and sustain communal interest in tourism. (See also Figure 2 Institutional arrangement in tourism development in Nigeria, Chapter 3).

Another, significant development in the tourism sector, as highlighted in section 6.1, was when the Lagos State won the case against the federal government (NTDC) in 2013 over who had the authority to coordinate tourism activities in the state. In the past, tourism policy was made by the federal government as discussed in Chapter 3, section 3.1. Some stakeholders noted that recently there has been an improvement and things are beginning to change following the case. The legal victory for Lagos State has allowed the individual states studied in this research in the South-west region of Nigeria to be able to formulate policies at their level to some degree. However, two distinct claims were evident from the participants' comments. First, it is interesting to note that Lagos state who instituted the lawsuit now operate independently of the federal government. Second, some other states indicated that while they still retain some of the policies of the federal government, they adapt them to suit their own immediate environment. Participants in the following quotes express these opinions:

"We [Lagos State Ministry] are working with the Lagos State master plan because Lagos state tourism is independent." (S2, State)

"Whatever the plan or policy the federal government gives us, we have to see it, and look at it. Does it comply with our environment? So we have the federal policy and at the same time we adapt [it to] the state policy." (S5, State)

Some states do not operate entirely independently of the federal level, which signifies that the states are decentralised to some extent. For example, most of the state's participants talked about adjusting the national policy to suit their state's environment. An exception was participant S2, who said they operate independently following the Supreme Court judgement. Though this development is welcomed since it allowed the states some autonomy: moving one level down to the local governments may enable local communities to be represented in tourism governance.

However, it was notable that, unlike the federal Nigeria Tourism Development Master Plan that is publicly available, when the researcher asked to see the state policy documents the prevailing response was that it was not a public document that would be handed over to people. This issue was expressed by some participants (A5; P3) who emphasised the need for the policy to be available to stakeholders in the industry so that they can work with it. This relates to the issue of transparency raised by the local community representatives in Chapter 8, section 8.3, where the state government employees at the attraction level do not reveal information about tourism development to the community members, even when the latter request it.

Second, it was clear that the stakeholders who participated in this research held a variety of views on the way the structures operate. Participants noted that despite the changes that allow the states to make decisions to suit their environments, the problem of tourism governance still prevails. From the stakeholders' perspective in practice, the public institutions are ineffective, and the relationship between them is uncertain and uncoordinated. For example, participant A1 expressed that the institutional structure in tourism does not appear to be working: *"these structures have been in place for decades now, and we can all see the results. I think the result can speak for itself. It doesn't seem like it is working that well, it doesn't seem so"* (A1, Academic).

Participant S3 echoed a similar sentiment that the structures designed for tourism to achieve economic growth are not in line to attain the target. The interviewee used the idiomatic expression of *"just like putting a square peg in a round hole"*, implying that such a structure does not fit with the aim to achieve the desired target: *"We want to use tourism to change the economy of a state but the structure on ground to execute those things are not in line with [...], just like putting a square peg in a round hole"* (S3, State).

One central problem of tourism governance deduced from the participants' comments was that formal structures exist within the industry but are devoid of content, since they do not function well, and this hinders tourism development:

"Well, in most cases, the kind of government structure we operate in this country one can say does not really encourage the growth and the development of tourism, because [...] we have federal, state and local government. There are situations where the federal government will give directives, [and] the state might not follow, might not implement it. [Also] there are some situations where states will give directives and the local government might not implement it." (F4, Federal)

In agreement, participant A2 also argued that the institutional structure currently in place is not the best for formulating tourism policy, as there was no cooperation between the federal and state government in the coordination of tourism policy to achieve the desired goals:

"The way the structure is at the moment, the state government and federal government are not in most cases working together. The federal government is doing its own thing in terms of tourism policy, the state government is doing its own thing. [...] so, the structure at the moment is not the best to achieve the optimum." (A2, Academic)

The interdependent nature of stakeholders in tourism development has been emphasised, and any attempt to act alone in solving tourism development problems can frustrate others from pursuing their own goals (Okazaki, 2008). The next extract specified that the government dominates the institutional arrangement and hence it does not represent the other non-governmental organisations in the industry. Invariably it is a "governmental arrangement":

"I think it's a governmental arrangement, not institutional, because tourism policies are made by the government, not by institutions. I told you there was a workshop many years back, I can't remember, and the 2020 vision is here, and I don't see any of it realised yet, the policies are made by governmental agencies [...] that's what we are saying, it's not good enough, every stakeholder should be involved. Presently, not all stakeholders are involved, that's why we have all these problems." (A3, Academic)

This participant cited an example of a seminar where participants were discussing Vision 2020², yet as at September 2017, none of the visions have been realised yet. She argues that the government alone are not capable of deciding on tourism policy issues. The extract advocates the involvement of all stakeholders in such processes to address the governance deficit.

Further, local community members and the other stakeholders commented about local community involvement in tourism governance processes. For example, most of the community representatives (C1; C2; C4; C5) argued that they were not represented in the decision-making process. Participant C2, who is a local community representative with four years' experience, representing a community where one of the significant tourist attraction in Nigeria is located and who has served as a community representative between his community and the government revealed that: "[...] *we are not so much involved, because we are not seen as an institution in whatever way.*" (C2, Community). This extract suggests that institutions rather than individual community members or representatives are factored into governance. If individual voices are deprioritised, this may suggest bureaucracies that operate to stifle, or at best ignore, the individual insights and initiatives from those most directly connected to tourism sites.

² Vision 2020 was a workshop discussion involving academics and some other stakeholders in the tourism and hospitality sector.

Participant F4, who is a Director of one of the federal government parastatals in tourism, also confirmed that in many instances the local communities were not involved by the federal government: *"in most cases, federal government don't carry the community along, that is why you see some of our tourist destinations are not developed."* (F4, Federal). This suggests direct negative implications for development, arising from the lack of community involvement.

Participant S3 concurs with the opinion that the communities are supposed to be a significant institution that participates in decision-making, but this does not happen in practice:

"You know that is why we are talking about community stakeholders; we have local government. All of them are supposed to sit down and plan tourism for the whole state but at most times that's not the case, they are informed about what they want to do in their various local governments. That means the decision must have been taken from somewhere else. The major part of the decision, they are not involved in it. It is only maybe at the point of execution that is when they are involved in such a thing." (S3, State)

The community involvement is *"at the point of execution"*, implying they are involved in questions of how a project operates rather than any strategy or say in what initiatives are followed. This relates directly to Pretty's (1995) typology of community participation and represents 'passive participation'. In this form of participation, project managers decide on the plans without listening to the people's responses, but they are merely being told what will happen. It also reflects Butcher's (2007) criticism of community participation as mostly restricted to the implementation of projects shaped elsewhere rather than anything more substantial.

The empirical findings show that the institutional framework is majorly governmental agencies based and, in most cases, does not involve the local communities as stakeholders. Most of the stakeholders believe that this institutional arrangement has not been successful given the state of tourism development in the country. Additionally, a weakness in the governance arrangement is noticed concerning the non-existence of a clear structure for stakeholder involvement as emphasised by many of the stakeholders. The existing institutional structure in tourism is not only crucial to tourism policy formulation but is also central to the implementation of such policies. However, it is often being ignored in most African countries (Jenkins, 2000).

In summary, a view widely held by the participants in this study is that the institutional arrangement for the industry does not work in practice given that the federal and the state government agencies do not work together, which participants also believed accounts for the lack of growth in the sector. The institutional arrangements that emerged in the 1990s (See Chapter 3) are top-down from the federal to the state and the local government. Even when the established organisations reflect the community, this is not evident in practice. Since institutional arrangements are critical to understanding the process of tourism development planning, it is imperative for such arrangements to accommodate all the relevant stakeholders in decision-making. For example, the governmental institutions at the national, state and local government level, private sector, local communities, NGOs and academic institutions and each of these institutions should have a role to play in the process.

When the federal and state government work together, their collective efforts could lead to more productive and successful tourism development. The importance of having synergy in the way the institutions in the structures in place work together can foster a functional relationship among the stakeholders. Tourism development involves establishing relationships, which can only be strengthened through a clear channel of communication both between and within institutions as a mechanism to help the stakeholders work together. These issues are examined in the next section.

6.3 Communication and interaction among stakeholders in tourism governance

The previous section focused on institutional structures and noted the general perception of a gap between the formal arrangements and how they operate in practice. This section considers the communicative content of tourism structures to see how participation (communication and interaction) operates among stakeholders. In other words, it focuses less on form but more on the dialogic content of governance structures. It emphasises first how the actors in the institutional arrangement interact among themselves (governmental institutions), and second how the governmental institutions communicate with the other stakeholders in tourism development (governmental and other institutions). For the diverse stakeholders to participate efficiently in tourism governance, communication and cooperation can play a crucial role.

There are numerous benefits of stakeholder interaction in planning. They include extending tourism to the broader community, enriched planning process with distinctive perspectives,

opinions and diverse ideas (Ladkin and Bertramini, 2002). This can also enhance the sustainability of tourism resource (Ladkin and Bertramini, 2002). Cooperation helps bring about widely accepted solutions to the problems in tourism (Okazaki, 2008). The relationships among the stakeholders involved in tourism are vital to effective tourism policy and planning (Beaumont and Dredge, 2010), and communication is a necessary ingredient to building relationships. Formal structures may exist, but the question is what does the communicative content of those structures look like in practice? Proper communication and interaction, can cultivate trust amongst tourism stakeholders, and the public and private sector will not see themselves as competitors but as a team, working together to develop the industry.

The first forms of communication and interaction to be discussed are those that exist between governmental agencies (inter-governmental) and within a specific governmental agency (intra-governmental). Taking the former first, a prominent issue expressed by participants (S2; F1; F3) is that there is a lack of communication and interaction even amongst public sector agencies themselves. The first extract below infers that the state ministry where participant S2 works do their things independently of the federal ministry and NTDC. He reviews that:

"As far as we are concerned, we do our things independently. In the past, when we are doing hotel matters, we were running it with NTDC until we went to court and won the case that we can run the hotel matters on our own." (S2, State)

The extract indicated that previously the state ministries and NTDC both had control over the registration of tourism and hospitality businesses in the states. It was not until the Lagos state government won the case against the federal government in July 2013 that the states had the right to coordinate the tourism activities within the state, and since then they have been operating independently. The court case has been raised a number of times and is indicative of the potential role of law in pushing for greater participation.

Participant F1 concurs that her agency do not either interact with other government agencies nor do they have any partnership with them, as she briefly summarises the conflict of interest that exist amongst the federal stakeholders: *"to be sincere there is actually no interaction, I think the problem started with the political issues [...] there's no partnership that exists between probably NTDC and FMCT."* (F1, Federal). From the institutional arrangement discussed in section 6.2 (see also Figure 2), the Federal Ministry is first in the arrangement, whereas in practice NTDC is seen as the apex body in tourism in Nigeria; as a result, they do not co-exist

well. The political tension between these federal government institutions calls for concern because these agencies are the first two organisations at the federal level as far as tourism governance is concerned, and it is possible that what transpires between them may also affect the other institutions under them.

Participant F3 adds to this that every federal parastatal only focuses on their businesses and they do not tend to collaborate:

"For collaborations, we have not had much of collaborations, we face our training and they face their promotional responsibilities. I actually don't see any coordination in tourism planning between those organisations, each parastatal in the federal ministry of tourism do their own plans separately." (F3, Federal)

The extract shows that even at the national level, the stakeholders found it challenging to interact despite the proximity, let alone having any interaction with the states that are far away location-wise, or the other stakeholder groups. This can lead to inefficiency in the way that the governmental agencies operate. The parastatals referred to are other federal government agencies with a stake in the tourism sector in Nigeria. This finding strongly suggests that the interaction between three prominent parastatals (the NTDC, Federal Ministry and National Institute for Hospitality and Tourism (NIHOTOUR) was weak.

It is these parastatals that can play a key role in the functioning of the communication and interaction that can be linked to the states, as they should be responsible for establishing and maintaining the channels of communication in the zones and states. For effective communication and interaction to happen in the tourism sector, the various stakeholders need to be open to one another, and hence the issue of the trust vital for good governance also has a critical role to play.

Having considered communication and interaction issues between governmental agencies, it is useful also to consider communication within agencies. The case as revealed by one zonal officer provides background information that reflects the extent to which the communication that takes place even within the same governmental agency (NTDC) at a specific spatial level was inadequate. This is because even within the same parastatal, there was no evidence of communication between the national and the zonal office. The participant implied that: *"You know I am talking from Lagos now, I wouldn't know if they participated from Abuja. It is a*

possibility you know it's an international event, and there is no how [way] NTDC will not be there." (F2, Federal). This participant was not sure if anyone represented their institution from the national headquarters in an international event, which ordinarily should be attended by a representative from the zonal office, given that the event took place within their zone.

Clearly, this suggests that despite having zonal tourism offices in the different geopolitical zones (these should be an interface between the federal and state institutions), the federal level does not leave them to do the job that they are supposed to be doing. It also raises the issues of trust within the governmental institutions in the tourism sector, because if a function has been delegated to the zones, the federal level ought to trust them to be able to deliver their duties at the zonal level and not interfere.

In agreement, another participant commented that the stakeholders hear about the finalised government decisions on tourism policy through the media. He stated that: "*[The] majority of things that are happening that we hear, you will just hear when they are done. Either you hear it on the radio or see it, watch it on television so you might not know when those policies are even formulated.*" (F4, Federal). It is surprising how this participant F4, who is a Director of one of the federal government parastatal, who ordinarily, one would expect would be involved in such decision-making processes. That the release of tourism policies and plans also come to this participant as a surprise is indicative of a lack of meaningful communication.

The discussion above reveals that the federal government agencies have not been effective in nurturing communication and cooperation among the governmental institutions. This can make it even more challenging for them to coordinate the activities of all of the diverse stakeholders in the industry. Specifically, it also shows that even though there are zonal tourism offices in the regions, they are being sidelined to some extent by the federal level institutions due to a lack of a culture of open communication.

However, a contrary view was expressed from the perspective of five (S1; S3; S4; S5; S6) state public sector participants who disagreed and stated that they communicate and interact actively with the other stakeholders in the sector. For example, Participant S5 who is the Head of Department in a State Tourism Ministry with over 25 years' experience, indicated that their state ministry cooperates with other government agencies and that they were organising a

conference in conjunction with a federal parastatal the National Institute for Hospitality and Tourism (NIHOTOUR):

"We are [...] working together [with] the National Institute for Hospitality and Tourism, [...] a training institute in hospitality and tourism. For example, this [...] September [2017], we have a conference that we will [host together, both] the National Institute and our agency, so to a large extent we are working together." (S5, State)

Participant S1 concurs that:

"The coordination is to a large extent because for us to take any decision at the state, we have to invite or inform those at the federal level so that they will have information on plans that we have at the state level. [...] There is synergy between the state and the federal level in the area of policy formulation and implementation." (S1, State)

This participant agrees that they interact with the federal level:

"We work hand-in-hand with the Nigerian Tourism Development Corporation." (S3, State)

Cooperation between institutions is beneficial and desirable to move the industry forward. The interaction described by participant S5 was possible because the state is lucky to have the zonal office of NIHOTOUR located in their state. They have understandably tapped into such a rare opportunity. Most states in any given geopolitical zone do not have a zonal office within their states, so this opportunity is not available to them.

In response to the opinion of participant S5 above, participant F1 commented that there was no clear line of communication and most of the interaction that took place within the sector had not been laid out in any formal sense:

"The time where you see coordination between these levels, [...] is when we have, like, all these carnivals and festivals, I think that's when you see them coming together to work together. [...] Every other thing they don't do it together, and that's because they know the amount of money they make from those carnivals and events, that's why you see them coming together, and then you see them doing adverts on TV and saying from NTDC in partnership with something something government." (F1, Federal)

The extract implies that the communication and cooperation effort usually happens in an *ad hoc* manner, and also that this is not long-term – it is only evident when an event is to be executed and immediately ceases to exist after the event. So, there is evidence of a lack of consistent and systematic communication, even where it does take place.

The second form of communication and interaction is that which exist between governmental agencies and the private stakeholders in the tourism sector. Two private sector participants expressed that the interaction they have with the public sector is not adequate. For example, participant P1, specified that:

"My relationship with the community [...] is better than [that of] the public-sector. [In] my experience, the public sector see us as a competitor, and they tend to be more reserved whenever we are with them, they conserved one or two pieces of information from [us]. But the host community of any resource, touristic site or tourism potential [...] tends to open up more because most of them want development in their environment because once they understand what we are doing or what we are trying to do, they tend to open up more than the public sector." (P1, Private)

This extract intimates that in the participant's experience of interacting with stakeholders in the governmental institutions, they regularly conceal some information from the private sector as the government sees them as competitors in the industry. When stakeholders in tourism compete, their goals may be incompatible, and only one of those goals can prevail (Okazaki, 2008). Therefore, trust in each other is essential and may facilitate communication and interaction in tourism governance.

On the other hand, the participant has enjoyed a better relationship with the local communities. This participant's view suggests that when the local communities know what the public and private sector wants to do regarding developing tourism in their communities, they are open to giving the institutions useful information and support to encourage the development of their tourism resources.

In agreement, participant P3 indicated that the interaction between the private sector and the ministries responsible for coordinating the tourism sector in Nigeria was regarded to be "very very poor":

"To me, I don't think we have any good relationship. We are supposed to have a cordial relationship because they are the ministries or agents in charge of tourism and hospitality in Nigeria. As far as am concerned, they are far away from us. It is only when they want to collect their annual subscription fee that we normally see them around. As far as relationship is concerned, the relationship is very, very poor." (P3, Private)

This participant emphasised a common perception of the very poor relationship that the private stakeholders have with their public counterparts. He uses the metaphor of distance stating that the government were "*far away*" from them to emphasise the problem as he sees it. Notably, he recalled that the only instances when the government officials communicate with them were to remind them to pay their annual subscription fees.

The master plan states that: "*the planning and the protection of cultural assets and heritage sites require the coordination of the three tiers of government and particularly local governments.*" (NTDMP, 2006:12). It is expected that there should be a high level of coordination and communication among the institutions that govern tourism development. This was, however, found not to be so in reality. Only a few instances, mostly expressed by the state participants, suggest cooperation and coordination among stakeholders.

The evidence in this section has shown that there was limited communication and interaction among stakeholders in the tourism sector in Nigeria, both between and within the institutions that govern tourism development. Though some level of communication and cooperation were evident, the intensity of it was low and *ad hoc* based on the operation of special events such as annual carnivals, festivals and conferences rather than on any broader policy or strategic questions. Such a circumstance can impair the management of the sector and how policy decisions are reached and implemented. Successful tourism development depends in no small extent on the level of communication among the institutions concerned. More optimistically, it is pertinent to note that the participants showed an awareness of the need for the various institutions to interact and that such communication and interactions should span across the public and private sector, local communities and educational institutions.

Given the communication gap between the governmental agencies and the private sector, as revealed by the private stakeholders above, it is not clear whether the contributions of the other stakeholders are sought and adopted. This is explored in the next section.

6.4 Governing tourism: whose opinion matters?

This section explores the views held by stakeholders on whether or not the government institutions seek to know the opinions of the relevant stakeholders (private, local communities

and academics) in the decision-making process, and if such opinions are used in tourism planning and development. Second, the analysis focuses in particular on stakeholders' meetings and their role in allowing the stakeholders to state their views on tourism planning and development to get a sense of this.

A substantial issue noted from the data among twelve stakeholders (private, academic, community and federal), other than the state public sector participants, is that the process of tourism governance in Nigeria is government driven, that there was little cooperation in the tourism policy formulation process, and that the governmental agencies make decisions on behalf of the other stakeholder groups in the industry. Unlike in most developed countries where tourism development is driven by the private sector's initiatives, in many developing countries, tourism planning is a central function of the government, with the expectation that the private sector will provide support (Jenkins, 2000).

The first quote by one federal government stakeholder provides contextual data reflecting the extent to which the government takes decisions in isolation. For example, from the interview with participant F1, it became evident that:

"[...]The government feels they are the ones at the helm of affairs, they are the ones controlling everything, so they just do things the way they want to do it, they don't believe they need anybody down to make their decisions, they don't even look at those who are down." (F1, Federal).

The perception is that individuals in government believe they can control everything, including decision-making, and they do not see the need to involve the people that they govern in the process, nor do they consider how it affects their subordinates.

The private stakeholders view that the government dominates is evidence of a government failure to take along other institutions in tourism governance actions. This is captured succinctly in this excerpt in an interview with participant P3, a General Manager in a 5-star Hotel, with over 20 years' experience of working in the industry in Nigeria:

"There are no stakeholders when it comes to policy formulation, no stakeholder in that regard at all in Nigeria.

When it comes to the area of making policy, we are the stakeholders. We are supposed to be carried along with the policy-makers like NTDC and even the state as a whole.

We are not carried along because any time they want to do anything that has to do with their [government] policy, they just unilaterally take decisions and then it is binded on the entire tourism and hospitality industry as a whole, so either you like it or not, you have to accept whatever comes out as their policy." (P3, Private)

Notably, in this quote (and others), policy is constructed as "*their policy*", that of the government. This reveals a widespread sense of alienation from the decision-making process of many stakeholders outside of government. However, through dialogue, stakeholders can move towards reaching a substantive agreement in policy-making (Banyan, 2007). Then policies will not be seen as governments' policy.

Participant P2, who is a Chief Executive Officer of an event organisation with seven years' experience within the industry, concurs: "*whatever policy government put together, we implement it when we are not part of the policy.*" (P2, Private).

Academic stakeholders hold the same views as the private sector interviewees. Participant A3, who is a Reader with over twelve years' experience in a University noted that: "*the government makes tourism policies, [and] not institutions [...]. We are in a country where academic institutions are not made stakeholders when they make tourism policy.*" (A3, Academic). Another participant, A1, concurs: "*I am not involved as such in policy-making other than just recommendations like we conclude our research work with*" (A1, Academic). These extracts indicate that the government do not consult academics as stakeholders who can assist the policy formulation process through their research and expertise.

The same picture emerges from the community representatives. Four out of the five community representatives raised a concern which clearly indicates that the government does not involve them as stakeholders in the decision-making process: "*well, our community is not involved, the government just come and say that they want to develop, and nothing has happened since*" (C1, Community). Also, participant C2 asserts that: "*nothing, life goes on, the government takes over, they direct the affairs.*" (C2, Community). Another community representative affirms that: "*well it's a government affair, the community doesn't have anything to do with it.*" (C5, Community). These community representatives see tourism governance to be the "*affair*" of

the government, which means it is their business and they direct the process of tourism development.

However, one community representative contends that the government do call the influential people in their community to participate: *"when they want to do anything, they call who is who to come and sit together with the government [...]"* (C3, Community). Again, this hints at the widely held perception that communication (while positive here) is *ad hoc* and focused on 'important people in the community', as well as on the implementation of specific projects rather than the questions of strategy.

Participant A2, an Academic with five years' experience, makes a slightly different point along the same lines that: *"the formulation of tourism policies is still driven majorly by the public sector. Although, they do create a platform where all the stakeholders can come to interact and make contributions."* (A2, Academic). This extract expressed that although tourism policy formulation in the industry was being propelled in a specified direction by the public sector, nonetheless, the participant added that the government had created a platform that brings some of the other stakeholders together occasionally, to interact and give their suggestions.

Further, most of the state public-sector officials (S1; S2; S3; S4; S6), were of the opinion that all the necessary stakeholders are involved in policy formulation through stakeholder meetings. This sentiment was evident in quotes such as these:

"What we do is that we invite stakeholders within the community, that we know are relevant to the policy that we want to come up with, to the stakeholders meeting, we tell them the plan of the government in terms of the sector." (S1, State)

"Definitely, operators of the system, those people who are experts in tourism; academics in tourism and the people on the field. The people at the grassroots level, the community, the related government agencies who are related to culture and tourism, e.g. Ministry of Environment, [the] Ministry of Health, Ministry of Lands and the other stakeholders that have direct contacts with tourism." (S4, State)

"We have a management meeting in which all stakeholders will be involved." (S6, State)

These state officials referred to the stakeholders' meetings as an avenue used by the government to involve other stakeholders (private and local communities) in the industry.

Tourism policies are still primarily dominated by the national governments in developing countries (Church, 2004). For a developing country like Nigeria, government involvement is essential to tourism planning and development. However, to ensure that they make optimal decisions, the relevant stakeholders such as academics, the private sector and local communities where attractions are located must be adequately represented in the process to ensure that the policies reflect their aspirations and benefit them as well. The private sector, local communities and academic institutions should be consulted as they can contribute useful ideas to the tourism policy formulation process.

Overall, most of the participants believed that the decisions in the tourism sector were taken by the government, whereas some other state and federal government officials were of the opinion that they involved other stakeholders to either voice their opposition or support on decision-making through stakeholders' meetings. This leads to another question: whether the opinions given at such meetings are seen as influencing the final decisions taken, which is examined in the next subsection.

6.4.1 Stakeholders' meetings and outcomes

As highlighted in the previous section, stakeholders' meetings are held to get their views on tourism governance. The role of these meetings in governance to encourage participation is analysed here. This subsection examines whether such meetings were a guarantee that the stakeholders have a voice in the decision for tourism development or not. This is because opinions expressed by them could be valuable in formulating policies and plans for tourism development.

Part of the enabling environment which government needs to create for tourism development is ensuring that the needs and the wants of the private sector are considered as part of the policy formulation process (Jenkins, 2000). In particular, local communities having a forum where their views on tourism development can be heard is deemed necessary as it affects them the most (Timothy, 2007).

Seven out of the ten public-sector stakeholders interviewed explained that they usually have stakeholders' meetings as an avenue for stakeholders in the industry to participate in decision-making so their concerns can be incorporated into the policy formulation:

"In most cases, we call them together, they table their view, we table our own view. Then we now look at the centre, we make the recommendation to the government." (S6, State)

"[...] There is always a seminar, stakeholders' meeting and workshop, to proffer suggestions and articulate intentions. From there, policies will be made." (F2, Federal)

"It is only by attending town hall meetings and stakeholders' meetings that they can participate in decision-making. They air their opinion, by looking into what they have said, whether it will affect them positively or negatively and we balance it out by agreeing." (S2, State)

From the extracts above, some of the participants referred to the point that at the meetings, the stakeholders discuss their views on any decision that is about to be taken. After such meetings, the civil servants (government officials) who convene and coordinate the meetings, report to the government, i.e. those at the management level, and the commissioner for tourism who will then take the final decision.

The assessment so far raises the questions of the role that the stakeholders' meetings have in tourism policy formulation at both the federal and the state level. Often the decisions reached are subverted after such meetings, which renders the process inconsequential. This issue was commented on by one participant, S1, who represents the state government stakeholder as a Director of one of the State Tourism Ministries with 16 years' experience. He stated what usually happens regarding the outcome of stakeholders' meetings, which is worth quoting in some detail:

"[...] We brought in other relevant stakeholders within the sector, at that point the final decision now lies with the government. Ours is to suggest the policy to the government, and it is now left for the government to sit down and look at it, do we really want to accept this policy? Do we think this policy will be convenient for us because each government have their own policy plan in terms of what they want to do?"

Sometimes when you bring in private people to work with government officers in making policies, they will come with their ideas that the government will feel they are not comfortable with it, so at the end of the day, we find out that some section of the policies will not be implemented [adopted]. So, the final decision on it rests within the government." (S1, State)

This quote confirms that on some occasions the government has invited other stakeholders to give recommendations on policy formulation. However, after holding such meetings, those in the management level within the governmental agencies will then go through them to see whether it goes down well with them or is in line with their plans (i.e. the intentions of the ruling government in power) before they decide whether to accept it or reject it.

There have been instances where the suggestions given by the stakeholders to the government were simply not taken into consideration for the policy formulation. For example, two private sector participants narrated an instance where they participated in a stakeholder meeting that they were invited to by the federal ministry. These interviewees who have witnessed such an event intimated that:

"If they call for a paper, of course people will give them a paper; whether those papers will be used is another matter [...]. That was why all of us converged last year in April in Abuja, to rub minds together to fashion out a new policy for the sector. But then we went there, we discussed, we left, and that was all. What has become of the decisions we took we don't know." (P2, Private)

"We intend to have the result [feedback] of the [2016 National] summit [also referred to as the stakeholders' meeting] on policymaking this year [2017]." (P1, Private)

These extracts revealed that the participants were invited to contribute to the discussion about formulating a new policy for the tourism sector during a meeting that was held in April 2016, the National Summit on Tourism and Culture. Over two years after the meeting convened, they do not know what has been done with the information they provided for the federal government, and they have not heard from them as regards the outcome from the stakeholder meeting.

It was reported in a publication in one of the national newspapers in Nigeria in August 2016 that the current Minister of Information and Culture, Alhaji Lai Mohammed, disclosed to the Federation of Tourism Associations of Nigeria (FTAN), that the federal ministry based upon the recommendation proffered at the April 2016 National Summit on Tourism and Culture, wanted to resuscitate the Presidential Council on Tourism as a strategy to make tourism a feasible sector of the Nigerian economy (Babatunde, 2016a). However, this has not been done. This revealed that the federal ministry set out to make use of a recommendation from the

stakeholders meeting (National Summit on Tourism and Culture) four months after it was held but did not implement it to the letter.

Indeed, it is worthy of mention that these stakeholders meetings are far from being held regularly: *"I won't tell you lies, for some time [now] they haven't been doing it, but they want to re-activate it."* (F2, Federal). Even when they were held at all, what counts is the outcome of such meetings and seeing that it has reflected the opinion of the stakeholders represented. Unless the policy outcome is known and the private sector stakeholders can confirm that it has taken due account of their views only then can we say the policy formulation process is decentralised to any substantial degree.

However, the National Summit/stakeholders' meetings did not include the local community members – they were not represented at all. Private sector practitioners raised some issues on their behalf by pointing out the concerns of the communities, but they were not taken seriously. Participant P1 noted that: *"I can't say or point out [a specific] touristic site host community; [or] anybody representing a particular community. [Some] people pointed out some of the concerns of the communities. But believe me; much emphasis was not laid on it."* (P1, Private). Likewise, participant P2 highlighted that *"they [local communities] are not recognised."* (P2, Private). This finding represents a contrast with research from some other developing countries where marginalised community members were at least invited to attend meetings, even though they still felt that their attendance was a little more than tokenism (Holden, Sonne and Novelli, 2011).

So, in the Nigerian tourism sector, the government creates a platform whereby the private sector gives policy recommendations on how to improve the existing policy, but without a sense of ownership. This contrasts to what (Jenkins, 2000) found in the Southern African region context: that private sector representatives are actively involved in the process of tourism policy formulation to empower and give them a sense of ownership when the policy has been finalised. These reasons for including them in the Southern African case are critical to the success of policy formulation and tourism development and help to ensure that the private sector stakeholders support it. Another relevant stakeholder group whose support for tourism development is also essential is the local communities, who should also be involved in planning processes, and who were not represented as stakeholders at the National Summit on Tourism and Culture at all.

Ezeuduji (2015) points out in the context of sub-Saharan Africa that power dynamics which sets the tone of decision-making very often involve an overbearing authority from the central government, with little if any real power devoted below this level. This general point is certainly echoed, with a few minor caveats, in Nigeria.

Conclusions

This chapter explored the tourism governance approach in Nigeria, and the formal institutional arrangements and processes in place for the formulation of tourism policies and plans. Hence, it has provided a part of the answer to the second research objective set out in Chapter 1 concerning the stakeholders' perception of tourism governance. The chapter analysed both the formal structures that exist in the industry as well as their substance regarding how they operate in practice.

One key theme that arose was that the tourism governance approach is centralised and dominated by the public sector, with little or no participation from the private sector, local communities and academics in tourism development. It highlighted the challenge that confronts the tourism sector, which comes from the broader national governance in Nigeria. The Federal Ministry and the Nigerian Tourism Development Corporation, governmental agencies which are the principal actors in managing tourism governance processes with a lot of responsibilities placed on them, are too far from the localities where key tourism activities take place in the country.

However, state ministries are now able to coordinate and manage tourism activities in their respective states due to the recently passed Supreme Court judgment July 19, 2013. Yet the research has revealed that while states now have the power to adjust the policies set by the national government to suit their localities, or in some cases put in place independent policies, such state decisions are still mostly top-down, mirroring the very federal level style that has been found to be unproductive. Although there has been an improvement and a progressive step to achieve decentralisation, decisions are still mainly carried out by governmental agencies at the federal and state level, which may not trickle down well to the local communities where attractions are located.

The analysis showed that the involvement of both federal and state government's institutions in tourism development is required in the sector in Nigeria. However, since the outcomes of the stakeholders meeting were not known, and they have not influenced any policy and planning decisions, this then suggests that the tourism governance process is still essentially centralised with the governmental agencies who drive policy decision-making either at the federal or state level.

The analysis presented in this chapter draws upon a nuanced response from the stakeholders. It further questions the decentralisation practised in the Nigerian tourism sector because the decentralisation claimed was not visible in some aspect of tourism governance in practice. An excellent example of this was the case of the way the zonal office operates. Also, given the diverse nature of institutions that are involved in the tourism sector, it is possible that the current structure for decision-making – which is a mostly government-based – may not be the best to achieve the optimum. The institutional arrangement should accommodate all stakeholders including the private, local communities, academics and the government.

The analysis has shown that the structure in place is not enabling all the necessary actors in tourism development come together to formulate a framework that can guide the industry to achieve the desired outcome. What worsened the issue of the structure was the change in government, and the shift in focus of national policy, which resulted in a fully-fledged tourism ministry that has existed since the year 2000 (see Chapter 3, section 3.1 and this Chapter section 6.2) to be merged with another ministry in 2015, thereby deprioritising tourism in the broader national arrangement.

Another critical issue in the tourism sector was the inadequate communication and interaction that took place among the stakeholders. For the industry to develop a policy framework that works in practice to a large extent will depend on improved communication and cooperation both between governmental agencies and between the other stakeholders in the industry. This, in turn, relies on a higher level of trust between government agencies and other stakeholders.

It was notable that most of the public sector participants stated that the stakeholders meeting was a platform used to involve other stakeholders in decision-making. However, the findings that in most cases the outcomes of such meetings are not known could suggest that the public sector still has a significant influence over the process. Even the July 2013 case that brought

about some forms of decentralisation to the industry which enabled the state to be able to formulate policies at their level has not helped much in that regard.

The following provisional recommendations can be made. First, given that stakeholders frowned at the way policy documents were not available for them to work with, these documents should be made public by both the state and federal institutions to allow stakeholders to work with them. Second, all the necessary stakeholders such as the private sector, local communities and academics should be able to participate in the process of decision-making so that they can inform it. Moreover, there should not be any need to hide such policies from the public. Importantly, the decisions reached at stakeholders' meetings should be followed up with an action plan so that people can see the outcome of their input and contributions to decisions made. Finally, for effective communication and interaction to happen in the tourism sector, the various stakeholders need to be open to one another; this can enhance trust in the way the institutions relate with one another. Principally it is the government's role to cultivate openness and trust through such measures as those tentatively proposed here.

There are two sides to tourism governance. The first part considered in this chapter is concerned with policies and institutional structures. The second aspect is focused on community participation and empowerment of local communities. This aspect is much more a question of political culture: how the structures work, how stakeholders relate to them, and how people feel about it. The following chapter turns to address this.

It was essential to lay a foundation by understanding whether the governance structures in place enable or restrain community participation and the potential for empowerment that will be focused on in Chapter 7. Telfer and Sharpley (2008) have stressed the importance of considering the political structure that exists in a given destination to determine how open it is to allow community participation.

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CHAPTER 7

Participation and local community empowerment in tourism governance in Nigeria

Community participation can empower local people and help tourism development. Communities can make known their needs on how they want tourism to develop. However, this can be realised only when the tourism governance system supports this. A thread in the literature on community participation proposes that participation in development goes further than *involvement*, towards *empowerment*. Where participation can mean mere involvement – often passive, as outsiders may control the process – empowerment is deeper and allows for active engagement of local communities, the latter having the power to take initiative themselves. The highest levels of Arnstein's (1969), Pretty's (1995) and Tosun's (1999) community participation frameworks give room for such empowerment.

Empowerment is germane to tourism development, especially in Africa, as most tourist attractions are located in the local communities, and empowerment as a concept is most often invoked at this level where the people are usually marginalised. Empowering local communities may facilitate active participation that can mitigate the tensions that often exist between tourism planners and local community members over tourism development and improve the support that community members give it. Involving local communities in the planning process is also crucial to tourism development itself (Bramwell and Sharman, 2000; Tosun, 2000; Scheyvens, 2002; Strzelecka and Wicks, 2010). This is especially the case if one takes a holistic conception of 'development' to include the role of culture and democratic agency in quality of life (Marcus, 2003).

This chapter focuses on local community empowerment. It comprises an analysis of the four dimensions of Scheyvens' (1999, 2002) framework on empowerment, as it relates to Nigeria. The four dimensions are political, economic, psychological and social empowerment. These dimensions explain how communities may be empowered and disempowered in tourism development (see Chapter 2, section 2.3.2.1). The chapter analyses in-depth the perceptions of

stakeholders, including the local community members themselves, in localities with tourism resources on how they participate and are empowered in tourism development.

7.1 Local community empowerment

One principal argument for formulating the 2006 Nigeria Tourism Development Master Plan (NTDMP) was to encourage local community participation and to allow them to take ownership of the management of attraction sites in their localities. This was summarised in the introductory message by Francesco Frangialli, the Secretary-General of the World Tourism Organisation, in the 2006 NTDMP and worth quoting here:

"[...] UNWTO, at the request of the Government of Nigeria, and through the support of the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), executed this project for the formulation of a National Tourism Master Plan for Nigeria, which focuses on institutional and capacity strengthening support to the tourism sector. The objective of this project is to [...] provide capacity building at the local/state level in promoting tourism development at the community level by encouraging local community participation, ownership and management of the tourism sector." (NTDMP, 2006)

Thus, the strategy document was designed to achieve the claim stated in the quote above. It was also to build the capacity of the local community members, and emphasised that they must be directly involved through the local government as the third tier of government at the local level, and charged with the following responsibilities:

"The basic role of the Local Government Tourism Committees is to foster and sustain communal interest in and support for tourism. Identify potentials for tourism development [...] by: preserving and maintaining historical monuments and museums in their areas; generating positive attitudes to tourism, promulgating the benefits of well managed tourism activities, promoting involvement; making recommendations to and advising the State Tourism Boards on tourism matters within their areas." (NTDMP, 2006: 171-172)

These quotes comprise a strong endorsement of community empowerment. This would also demand that the higher levels of government federal and state give support to the local governance structure to be able to perform their roles. These arguments constitute the crux of this chapter, which focuses specifically on community participation and empowerment, to explore how this has developed in practice.

An important role of government has been acknowledged as being developing a legal and institutional framework to empower local communities in tourism development (Hall and Jenkins, 1995; Sofield, 2003). While the national tourism plan is explicit on the need for local community empowerment, participant P3 in the next extract indicated that the local communities were not often empowered by the Nigeria national constitution because the government aim to have the capacity to do things in their own way without any influence from the local communities: *"the reason is because of selfish ambition, they [government] don't always want the community to be constitutionally empowered, because if they do, things will not be as easy as they are."* (P3, Private). The participant spoke at quite some length about the way that every platform for community empowerment is not usually allowed to survive for these *"selfish"* reasons so that the government can have their own way. An issue which was also touched on in Chapter 6, section 6.1. The Nigeria system, therefore, makes it difficult to operationalise the advice that international organisations give in relation to development. Even when international bodies advice, as stated in the tourism plan, 'wooden language' such as capacity building and empowerment are used as a form of propaganda (Sampson, 1996; Cooke and Kothari, 2004).

It should be remembered that the literature on community participation in tourism development has established that, to a large extent, its success depends on community empowerment (Mikkelsen, 2005; Butcher, 2007). The importance of empowerment of local communities in tourism development was emphasised by participant A3, who aptly expressed that:

"Empowerment is important in tourism because if you don't empower the local community, you are creating social problems. OK, you can imagine the festival that is just concluded in Osogbo, people from Abuja, from Lagos, from Kaduna came, and you know they spent their money. These local people, what did they do, they were just looking like this and nothing gets to them. It can create social problems, they will not even want to support the vision of the local heritage, when they talk about it, they say what are they doing there, they are not interested." (A3, Academic)

The extract shows that without empowerment, local community members may be resentful and engage in all sort of activities that may not support tourism development. The example of the Osun-Osogbo festival further illustrates that the local people were not involved, and they do not benefit from the cultural heritage in their community, an event which should ordinarily be an avenue for the local people to be empowered. The participant believes that such an incident

can result in the danger of making the local community members feel uninterested in tourism development.

Despite the importance of empowerment stressed above, many of the community representatives interviewed were in agreement about community members not being adequately empowered. This section comprises four sub-sections that examined, in turn, the dimensions of community participation and empowerment that include 1) political, 2) economic, 3) psychological and 4) social empowerment after Scheyvens (1999, 2002). It is worthy to mention that the dimensions overlap and may sometimes fall into each other as they cannot be differentiated easily in some cases.

7.1.1 Political empowerment

Political empowerment is concerned with community management of the process of tourism development (Scheyvens, 1999). This is important in tourism management from the formulation to the implementation stage (Scheyvens, 2003). Does tourism development in local communities guarantee them a voice in tourism development planning? Without this, 'power' as in any substantial influence over development that shape people's lives, resides elsewhere in its entirety.

Political empowerment occurs when local community members are enabled to determine their own development goals and concerns for tourism development (Timothy, 1999; Scheyvens, 2002). In the communities studied in Nigeria, political structures for tourism development do not exist. This is unlike in the cultural Manyattas in Kenya and Cultural Tourism Projects in Tanzania, where political structures were introduced both within and between the communities to manage tourism development projects (van der Duim, Peters and Akama, 2006). This finding represents a clear contrast with previous findings in the literature.

However, as will be discussed later in Chapter 9, section 9.1.2 some participants note the importance of governance at the local community level as a pathway to ensure local communities have the opportunity to participate and be empowered. Although the government consult with the Kings and Chiefs of the communities to tell them their plans on tourism

development projects on which they want to embark, they do not necessarily involve them in the decision-making process. An instance which participant A2 described is that:

"[...] In most cases, that decision would have been taken without really carrying the local communities inhabiting such places along [...]. Government would have decided before now meeting the local people to tell them that this is what we want to do, these are the plans we have for you and so on. I feel it would have been better even at the early stage if government decides that this is what we need to do, they should involve the local communities at that stage, and get their contributions, get their ideas." (A2, Academics)

This quote revealed that it is only pre-determined decisions that the government take to the local communities, in order to seek their permission. The latter part of the extract suggests that a good way of doing this would be to get the contributions of the communities before the government officials finalise the decisions. This is because dialogic communication between the stakeholders in tourism governance can enhance the opportunity for local community empowerment.

This view, therefore, echoes the point made by Tosun (1999) that in developing countries tourism development is often driven by the central government's priorities, instead of being driven by the needs of the local people, who are left with no choice but to live with the conditions determined for them. Also, this form of participation experienced is top-down and passive, where the community leaders only endorse the decisions taken by external bodies and participate in its implementation but not necessarily in the sharing of benefits (Tosun, 1999). It represents a higher degree of tokenism and potentially manipulation (Tosun, 1999). Real community participation and empowerment encourages participatory decision-making that is *active* and allow the community to have *power* rather than being characterised by tokenism or manipulation.

Given that little or no participation exists in the process of tourism decision-making by the local communities, as seen in Chapter 6 section 6.4, and because empowerment can only be achieved through involvement (Garrod, 2003; Willis, 2011), it is not surprising, that this research affirmed that members of the local communities are not meaningfully empowered. As one participant stated, this is because the government find it easier to sit down in the comfort of their office to decide on tourism development without consulting with the necessary stakeholders: *"they just sit down in the cosy of their offices and do policy formulation."* (P2,

Private). Also, in most cases, the state ministries located in the state capitals are not particularly geographically close to the communities. Community participation and empowerment requires that government officials will leave their comfort zones (offices) to start participatory processes in local communities.

As discussed earlier on in this chapter, section 7.1, the tourism committee ought to be established at the local government level to serve as an institutional structure that will ensure that local communities can participate and be empowered. However, a sentiment that was universal among the participants is that this is far from being in existence, as succinctly summarised in this comment:

"There is a Ministry of Culture and Tourism in every state and according to the Nigerian Tourism Development Corporation (NTDC) law, there is supposed to be Local Government Tourism Committees, and I have not come across any local government that really effectively has that [...]." (A1, Academic)

The extract revealed that, despite the fact the law of the Nigerian Tourism Development Corporation (NTDC) and the Nigerian Tourism Development Master Plan has made provision for State Tourism Ministries and Local Government Tourism Committees (LGTC) to be established at the level of the local community, as a platform for them to be able to participate in tourism governance, in reality, this local institution does not function. That means the intended outcome of the policy in empowering the local communities politically through such a committee has not been achieved.

One participant raised an instance where the local tourism committee existed but was then eliminated when another government came into power. This quote from participant C5 provides rich contextual information that reveals such committees do not exist within the local community set up:

"I remember once they set up a committee because of my insistence that we have to have a committee at a local level. The local government came for a fun fair to set up the committee, but it died a natural death because of lack of continuity. [...] Never, no empowerment! Because if the government has accepted the idea of the committee [...] the empowerment will come from training local tourist guides, employing people and training them to standardise the kind of tourism service within the community. But no empowerment of sort." (C5, Community)

As expressed by the participant, the community is not politically empowered, for example, because the state government cancelled the LGTC which did exist in the past, and it has not been restored until the time of the interview in October 2017. It also affects every other form of empowerment, such as training the community members to be able to function in the industry. One way to distribute tourism benefits equitably is by providing opportunities for training local people (Jenkins, 2015).

With regard to another local community, the participant stated that the government invite them to make contributions to decision-making, but they are limited as they can only contribute along the line of the area that they want their input on: "*whenever they call us, we can only contribute to whatever they want our contributions on*" (C3, Community). Despite this community representative believing they at least have a voice in some aspects of decision-making, this is not enough political empowerment as Timothy (2007) suggests because they cannot influence initiatives beyond those the government determines they can. However, in any case, this community is closer to development in terms of its location when compared to the other tourist attractions examined in this thesis, which could partly explain why they may have a different experience.

But as expressed by this community representative, who makes a slightly different point along the same lines, on the instances when they are involved, which shows that the government also appreciate the fact that the community can save them from troubles that result from tourism development: "*[...] that's part of what brought me in, for example if the resort is facing any problem they contact us, or any indigenous decision that has to do with traditional they contact the community*" (C2, Community).

As indicated in the extract, the community is being called upon by the government only when the development of the tourism resource is confronted with a problem, either caused by the community or other issues relating to tradition, and the government feels they are the only people who can help resolve it.

A good thing noticed from the community representative's point of view, as well as others, which can support community participation is that the community members are keen to participate in tourism development. Also positive politically is that the government officials have also realised the local community members can assist with resolving the challenges that

confront tourism development in their community. Building on these limited positives would be a good basis to cultivate greater political empowerment.

For example, this participant commented on the need for them to be involved more in tourism development and how this can be done:

"If they want to involve us, they will involve us from the planning stage, to the execution stage, to the development stage. Then we want to be an insider and know what is coming in and what is going out. For example, if they are appointing their committee or something. If there are seven members, if they give us two or three as a member, then it means we are involved in the plan. We will plan, we will show them the way." (C1, Community)

From the extract, the participant demanded that the community be "*an insider*" and be involved from the beginning as an insider in the tourism planning process. He also confidently assert that if they are involved, "*we will plan, we will show them the way*". This participant's comments imply that they know more about their community than the other stakeholders and that when they are involved, the community can show the government the correct direction based on the knowledge they have about their community and its environment, and the exclusive information that only they can provide. This quote reflects a strong neo-populist desire for a bottom-up form of community development. More local input and involvement at the planning stage will give destinations communities a greater stake in the industry and create a more active partnership (Murphy, 1985).

Remarkably, there is broad agreement amongst other stakeholders on the need for local community members to participate in tourism decision-making process. As explained by participant A4, who is an academic with five years' experience: "*It is essential that you have the community dwellers participate in decision-making especially in tourism development because they are the ones that are at the receiving end of whatever happens in tourism, especially when tourists visit*" (A4, Academic). This quote specified that community participation in decision-making in tourism development is crucial and more so in an industry such as tourism as they are the people who bear the impacts of such development the more.

Participant P1 concurred and indicated that community participation and empowerment appears to be the only way to deal with the problems experienced in tourism development:

"Believe me, it's the way out, during policy making, I think community should be among the key people that will be on sit [should be involved or be in attendance] when making the policy of any particular site because the development is coming to them. They know the community better than anybody, the state and the federal government [...]." (P1, Private)

As revealed in this extract, because the community members know their environment more than the state or federal government, and can offer information that will help the development of the tourism resources in their community, thus they should be adequately involved in the decision-making.

Notably, participant S3 adds to this discussion and dwells on the point that only the local community members have the information about their heritage which is used as an attraction. This is what Berkes (2012:9) calls 'local knowledge' - a form of knowledge that is *"unique to a given culture or society"* (italics in original). The importance of empowerment to harnessing local knowledge held by the local community alone was succinctly captured in this comment that:

"No matter how educated you are, if they don't tell you about their heritage you will not be able to communicate to any other person. So, the information we pass on to the outside world is gotten from them. The security of tourists who visit such communities is still in their hands. So, they are just like the image builder of the state, they are the ones who promote the state through those attractions, that is why I said it is something that we cannot do without, we cannot push them aside and say we want to promote tourism, it's not possible. They must be actively involved for you to bring out the best in tourism." (S3, State)

The extract indicated that the communities must be actively involved and through their participation, they can assist in representing local knowledge, itself something that attracts tourists. Moreover, they can also contribute to creating a conducive and secure environment for the tourist by not exhibiting violent behaviour, since the development of tourism can only thrive in a peaceful setting. Thus, local knowledge is good both for tourism development and tourists' experiences.

Local knowledge has become a way for indigenous people to retain control or ownership over their own cultural information (Berkes, 2012). However, is this true for tourism development in Nigeria? Local knowledge is key to the development of the grassroots and enhances better participation. It is an important aspect of culture in rural communities in the developing world that have not experienced the social change that comes with modern development (Butcher,

2007). Debates about the role of local knowledge are key in the development and community participation thinking. Local knowledge is not only conceived as an essential aspect of culture but can also benefit tourists who travel to experience those aspects of culture.

Further, enabling the community to harness their local knowledge in pursuit of development in which they have a stake, empowers it, recognises and promote the agency of the community in their own development – a neo-populist idea (Marcus, 2003).

It is only through collaborative processes that local knowledge could be drawn from and essential information retrieved from the community (Garrod, 2003; Bramwell, 2004; Jamal and Stronza, 2009; Sebele, 2010). In agreement with Participant S3 above, the local people are more knowledgeable about their resources because they know their history well: "[...] *the people they brought from the state [government] are people who don't even know anything about the community. They will take my booklet for example and read it, they believe they know everything about the place and they can't explain anything*" (C5, Community).

This quote shows that the lack of involvement of the community limits the kind of information that the state government employees at the attraction have about the site and community. This also exhibits a lack of recognition of the importance of local knowledge in the tourism product itself.

The current practice of not involving the communities in decision-making was questioned and illustrated by one community representative, C4, who feels that what is happening now does not paint an ideal picture in tourism development:

"[...] I cannot just go to your house now and start to decide for you. I have to involve you if there is something to be done. So, the government should take the stakeholders along before they can decide on anything [tourism development]. You cannot just come to my house and tell me this is what I want to do in your house, except you tell me first, [then] the thing will move [work]." (C4, Community)

The extract stated that the government should not just decide for them; instead, they should be involved. The participant used the metaphor of locality as "*home*" and objects to others dictating what he should do in his own home to him. He further added that if they are involved, that way the development can progress smoothly, and policies will be implemented, a process viewed as good practice (Sofield, 2003).

Sustainability is an essential dimension in considering political empowerment because political structures, government institutions and people who act within those institutions can be changed, but the community remains. Hence, community empowerment may facilitate sustainability, continuity and consistency in policy and governance. For tourism planning and development to be sustainable, it must allow host community resident input, and improve their life (Jordan et al., 2013; Mowforth and Munt, 2016).

When local community members are empowered to play an active role in tourism development, this could encourage sustainability of tourism projects. Participant C5 expressed that they should be involved: *"starting from the policy aspect, when they want to make policy about it the community should be involved. When they want to manage it, they should involve the community also in the management to make it sustainable"* (C5, Community). As indicated in the extract, the community members ought to be involved from the beginning of the tourism planning stage, in the implementation and management, for it to be sustainable.

To further this point on sustainability, another academic participant commented on this that through community participation and empowerment:

"We are trying to ensure sustainability because once they [community members] can lay ownership to something then it becomes a communal property that I have a stake in [...]. The way it is now, I don't think anybody cares what happens there because they are not benefitting anything from it. But the moment there are series [some] of benefit derived from that thing increasing or being exposed, then it becomes something they all strive to protect in order to ensure that they continue to receive that benefit. So, I think in a way it's one of the mechanisms of sustainability." (A5, Academic)

This quote revealed that the participation of local communities is ideal because when the community members are actively involved, empowered and they benefit from tourism, they will endeavour to protect and maintain the tourism resources which will enhance sustainable tourism development. This is a vital point initially made by Budowski (1976) and developed by Goodwin (2000) in the literature.

For tourism development to be sustainable, the local community whose lives are affected the most must be empowered and their interests be represented (Reid, 2003; Cole, 2006). Due to the importance of community participation on sustainability, international organisations have

also commented that an important feature of sustainable development is decision-making at the local level (UNEP and WTO, 2005; WTO, 2013).

Political empowerment suggests the community should be able to communicate their needs and desires through active engagement with decision-making. Empowerment is suggestive of democracy rather than technocratic governance: i.e. that communities have a genuine stake and role in decision-making.

A critical area stressed by stakeholders is that it is through community participation by their representatives that they can say what their aspirations are: *"I think community participation goes a long way in the sense that if anything wants to happen, they should have representatives in each community, [...] they can say what their community needs are, their desires and their wants."* (F1, Federal)

Likewise, as suggested by another participant, it is through active community participation that they are able to benefit from tourism development through their involvement in tourism activities, as participant F3 noted: *"Participation means involvement in decision-making and then actively [...] generating benefits for the community through their own activities"* (F3, Federal).

As Tosun (2006) argued, without meaningful decentralisation in public administration, it may not be possible to achieve community participation as a citizen right. Notwithstanding, the importance of community participation, such as sustainable development and accruing of benefits to communities as highlighted above, a perception that is evident in practice is that there is little or no participation by the local community in tourism policy formulation and development planning. This is because decision-making is mostly centralised with the government in charge and that the community is not even aware they have a right to participate in tourism development. These issues are revealed in the following extracts below by some Academics:

"What I see is very little and any participation really on the side of the local people [...]. There are so many issues. Even first of all, even the local people most times are not even aware. They are not even enlightened and informed enough to even take decisions [...] so effectively, you see situations where if a policy is being enacted on behalf of local communities or supposedly in collaboration with local communities, it is likely the local communities are not carried along. It will be documented that they

were, and somebody might actually represent them in the documentation. But it is very unlikely that you actually have a representative sample of the local communities." (A1, Academic)

This quote illustrates that the government form policy on behalf of the communities, or worse still, it is documented in the plan that they were part of the policy formulation or they get someone to witness such an agreement, which does not give a representative sample of the communities or even represent their voices.

Another participant makes a slightly different point along the same lines that:

"If you don't call them, they won't come, they won't even know they have a right. You know the first thing is that you have to change the mentality of the people, let them know they have a stake in this business, they have a right in this business. That's why it's easy for consultants to be called from Abuja for Osun-Osogbo because the people, the residents, they don't know they have a right." (A3, Academic)

The communities can only participate if they know they have a right and that it is because the community members are not aware of the right they have to be involved in the decision-making on tourism development in their communities. That is why outsiders such as consultants take the responsibility of planning tourism activities for them.

Democracy allows individuals to exercise their rights and it supports equity and empowerment (Cole, 2006). Even though Nigeria is a democratic nation, which should enable freedom, empowerment and equality between people, the government has not upheld this principle. The democracy evident in practice does not encourage the equity and empowerment of the local community in tourism policy formulation. By promoting empowerment, democracy can be deepened as the active participation of the local people in tourism development can be enhanced.

Conversely, two communities have experienced some forms of political empowerment to influence decisions in tourism development. For the first community this is as a result of having members of the community as management staff within the attraction. Also, for the second community through the Community Development Association (CDA). These sentiments are expressed in these quotes:

"Some of us are in the management level, so whatever that has to do with the community they do bring it in, and they do accept it [...]" (C2, Community)

"They will call them to the meeting and tell them whatever necessary thing they want to do over there. They will make their own contributions and by the grace of almighty Allah our governments have always attended to and make use of our contributions." (C3, Community)

The political empowerment received by these communities is notable, i.e. local communities being appointed to a managerial role, which Tosun (2006) referred to as an ideal form of community participation. However, participant C2's community had to fight to get such power or to be involved, he stated that:

" [...] At a time when they [community members] feel [they were] being cheated, [when] the indigenes were only employed as labourers, so when they [community members] were very furious they came [the government, and] agreed, so until it was changed so some of them [the community members] were later committed to the management level of the resort [...]" (C2, Community)

This instance has mostly been the case in this thesis, for example, as discussed in Chapter 6 section 6.1 in the case of the Lagos state and the federal government. A similar incident will also be addressed later, on participant C1's community in Chapter 8, section 8.3. This case shows that what is prevalent is that the national level have a way of influencing the local communities as well.

Overall, from the findings above, it has been indicated that for tourism development projects to be successful, the local community must be involved with an adequate representation that can reflect the broader interest of all the community members. By doing this, it can be said that the local communities have a voice in tourism development and are empowered.

Though the Nigerian Tourism Development Master Plan specified that tourism governance should be decentralised, the local governments are not given the adequate capacity to operate. This is indicative of the national situation, characterised by the centralisation of power. The Local Government Tourism Committees are not functional; hence, local communities are cut adrift from decisions. There is a clear contrast with Mustapha's view that says tourism committees should be established at the local government level (Mustapha, 2001), and the Nigeria Tourism Development Master Plan which claims that such institutions do exist at the local level (NTDMP, 2006).

Scheyvens' (1999, 2002) analysis interprets political empowerment as letting the community have a voice in tourism planning and development. The analysis has shown that it is not all the communities that have the opportunity to be represented in the decision-making process. Two cases were an exception; first, participant C3's community where the community leaders were invited to give their contributions, and second, participant C2's community where those in the managerial position at the attraction level could contribute to decision-making at the attraction level. The findings here suggest that local communities are not sufficiently empowered politically, although this varied from community to community. This resonates with the analysis in Chapter 6, section 6.4 which revealed that the local communities were not represented at stakeholders' meetings at the national level.

7.1.2 Economic empowerment

Economic empowerment or benefit is evident through formal or informal employment and business opportunities in the local community through tourism (Scheyvens, 1999). Tourism development is based on resources in the local communities and as a result may limit their access to such resources (Scheyvens, 2003). Where this occurs, and the local people do not get significant benefit through such development, they can be said to have been economically disempowered (Scheyvens, 2003). Tourism resources in Nigeria are located in local communities (Mustapha, 2001), often tourism development limits the access of local communities to their resources. However, do they benefit from such resources economically?

The economic empowerment of local communities that host tourism resources is vital for a developing nation like Nigeria so that they can get significant benefit from the development project in their community. This form of empowerment, according to Scheyvens (1999, 2002), involves bringing economic benefits to the communities. The community representatives interviewed indicated a high level of dissatisfaction concerning the local community economic empowerment experienced by their communities. Such sentiment found expression in extracts such as these from the community representatives interviewed:

"Nothing! Only two or three people they employed, some of our youths, as security guards, ticket officers and gate controllers." (C1, Community)

"No, they don't, even though the community has been agitating for that nothing has been forthcoming [...] apart from employments opportunities given to some indigenes I don't think there is other empowerment involved." (C2, Community)

"The youths of the community benefit there because some of them are working there." (C3, Community)

"Those people who are selling over there, like those students when they come in here, they buy food in large numbers [...]." (C4, Community)

"There is no empowerment except those people who are selling pure water [commercially packaged water in plastic bags] and the hawkers, who are hawking biscuits at the front of the hill. We don't even have craft people selling there. For example, if everything is in place where we want to develop the way we thought of it, it should be a place where we have craft men selling their wears and clothes batiks and so on but there is nothing like that. Because the place was made that way; it was not made in a way that people should be able to sell their things. There is nothing there really for the community so far." (C5, Community)

The trend noticed from all the communities is that a few of the local community members are employed to work in the attraction, mostly youths, or some others who sell snacks and drinks to tourists, which does not necessarily reflect all the interest groups in the community. Also, such businesses are marginal, very small in absolute and relative terms. These employment opportunities did not spread across all interest groups in the communities. Invariably, only a few individuals who participate through work and those who sell are empowered, and the rest of the community members are not.

It is worthy of mention that in the case of participant C5's community, where they had an idea of how their community members could be empowered, they did not get the necessary support from the government. As a result, the idea could not be implemented. Mowforth and Munt (2016) explain that as vital as it is for the local community to have ideas for tourism development, it is equally imperative that the community gets the assistance of the national government concerning acquiring skills and resources to coordinate their plans.

One participant questioned the economic empowerment experienced by local communities in practice as she considered it not to be sufficient. She expressed dissatisfaction in the level of economic empowerment that merely allow local community members to sell things at the attraction sites or give them menial jobs to do. She argues that the government feels they are doing the community members favours, whereas they have not done enough. She expressed that community empowerment should be deeper than that:

"Some believe [...] getting some host community jobs is part of community participation [...] and they won't even get them jobs that are of importance, probably maybe a porter, which they think is doing them a favour. [...] That is their [government's] own belief that they [community members] are at least participating, and are getting paid for what they are doing, which I even think is much more than that." (F1, Federal)

This quote revealed a sort of patronage in *"doing them a favour"*, where the government give menial jobs that yield little money to the local communities as a reward for allowing the government to develop their resources for tourism. Indeed, Mbaiwa (2005) has criticised the practice of employing local communities in low-level jobs to this end. As van der Duim, Peters and Akama (2006) note, local community participation does not always lead to the empowerment of the community members.

In most of the local communities examined, the community representatives were of the opinion that there was no real economic gain in the community as a result of tourism development. There are some people who are employed in the attraction and mostly in low-level jobs such as labourers, security guards, and for some others who sell things like drinks and snacks to tourist at the attractions. These do not spread to every household within the community. According to Scheyvens (1999, 2002), signs of a lack of economic empowerment are evident when only a few individuals benefit financially from tourism, and most profits go to the government.

However, an opportunity for local community economic empowerment was observed by the researcher in all the communities, for example, providing them with skills that are needed to be able to produce goods and souvenirs that tourists can buy. Consequently, they can earn income for themselves through tourism, and in the long-term this can lead to economic empowerment because with such skills they can develop small-scale business ventures within the community, which is essential to a sustainable rural community economy. This indicates the lack of resources for local communities to help themselves, an area where both the governmental agencies, NGOs and the private sector need to come to their aid.

Scheyvens' (1999, 2002) analysis of economic empowerment construes it as a benefit spreading to the entire community and not to specific individuals. Also, given that there are no well-established small-scale business ventures through tourism development in the local

communities, except for the few who sell snacks, economic benefits and the possibility of a substantial multiplier effect is very limited.

7.1.3 Psychological empowerment

The psychological aspect of empowerment has become a considerable area of debate for over two decades. For example, local community wellbeing, self-esteem, self-confidence and happiness are all now routine part of regular discussions of development (Christens, 2012). Hence, psychological empowerment should be a part of discussions of tourism development in local communities.

According to Scheyvens (2003), psychological empowerment occurs when local communities receive outside recognition for the unique cultural resources and values that they have in their community; thereby enhancing their self-esteem. The importance of recognition in identity has been emphasised by Sociologist Axel Honneth (2001). Honneth (1995: xvii- xviii) considers "struggles for recognition in which the dimension of esteem is central as attempts to end social patterns of denigration in order to make possible new forms of distinctive identity. [...] Esteem is accorded on the basis of individual's contribution to a shared project." Tourism development could prospectively be such a shared project.

Psychological empowerment happens when the local community members believe in their own agency, and are hopeful about the future of tourism development (Scheyvens, 1999). Community agency entails building relationships that enhance the capacity of local people to act *for themselves* (Matarrita-Cascante, Brennan and Luloff, 2010). Agency supports practices aimed at improving widespread interaction and participation in the decision-making and management of local resources (Matarrita-Cascante, Brennan and Luloff, 2010).

Community members may experience psychological empowerment if they wake up every morning and see that they can earn a living through tourism, and therefore feel optimistic about tourism development. This form of empowerment could also translate into other tangible forms of empowerment, or lead them to take actions such as seeking education or training in tourism and seeing outcomes in the form of earnings from tourism (Scheyvens, 1999, 2002). When the community members in localities where tourism development takes place have a feeling of

disillusionment, dissatisfaction and confusion, they are not psychologically empowered (Scheyvens, 2003). All three are consistent features across the interviews conducted with non-government stakeholders.

Though it is difficult to gauge something that is as subjective as psychological empowerment, which cannot be easily quantified, one can get an indication of this form of empowerment by looking at references to the category of feelings. These could indicate either a positive or negative orientation towards the structures of tourism governance. Exemplary quotes of this form of empowerment are discussed below.

Participant C2 discussed that, through tourism development, the members of their community feel positive because they are recognised in their state, and they feel powerful among the other neighbouring communities:

"Well, what I feel is on the positive side, because probably as I told you the last time you came, the community people are familiar with nearly all the currencies of the world because people come from all over the world and in terms of Ghana Cedis, Gambian Dalasi, dollars, pounds [...] among the neighbouring town [my community] is the most social in terms of [...] having inflows of people. It is the most visited town in [our] State."
(C2, Community)

From this quote, the community representative expressed that the positive feeling they have towards tourism development is because tourists visit their community more frequently than other neighbouring communities, and that they are exposed to the different currencies that tourists spend when they visit.

On the other hand, one community had a different opinion even though their town is known as well because of the tourism resource that they have, which also attracts tourists to their locality. However, they are unhappy with the development, thus leaving the community members to feel sad and uninterested in the tourism development project. As articulated by their representative: *"We feel bad! Because they don't involve us. If we were involved, it would have been developed"* (C1, Community). The case of the Erin-Ijesha community presented excellent evidence and was drawn upon by other stakeholders. These are discussed next.

In agreement, in another statement by an academic stakeholder about the community of participant C1, she expressed that in her experience, the community members feel uninterested

and alienated from tourism development in their community because they do not think it is beneficial to them: *"the first point of annoyance or grievance that people have is that this thing has not contributed anything to them, they've not benefited anything from it. So, once they don't see it as a positive factor or force in their life, they don't want to be associated with it"* (A5, Academic). In this case, it emerged that the community had a grievance about the fact that they were not benefiting from tourism development, this made them believe that the government was not fair to them. To the community, it is imperative that they benefit psychologically from tourism, waking up and seeing that they have a life to live through tourism development.

Likewise, in the same community, participant F1 feels that the community should benefit from tourism development and that tourism benefit should be reciprocal between the government and the community. Otherwise, there may be dissatisfaction or even violence from the community members: *"It just boils down to you giving to them, they give back to you, if you don't give them, you can't take from them. Because after a while, for somewhere like Erin-Ijsha, don't be surprised if you see the host community members becoming very violent"* (F1, Federal). The incident that happened in this community led to a violent anti-government demonstration by the community members, who felt that it was only the government that was benefiting from tourism in their community.

In another community, the government is entirely in charge, and the community is not involved at all. Community members feel alienated and unhappy. Participant C5 expressed this view: *"Of course they [the government] were doing it the way they wanted. And the society was totally cut off from the processes of [tourism] development because they made it totally a government affair, and they made the whole thing very difficult, and the people are not very happy about it."* (C5, Community).

As revealed by the participants, a significant source of grievance from the community is that they do not benefit from tourism development. This affirms and answers a critical question that the researcher's previous work identified on the reason why local communities do not support tourism development in their communities (Adebayo, 2017). Where the local communities are not equitably involved in the planning of tourism development, and they are uninterested in tourism development, these are clear signs of a lack of psychological empowerment (Scheyvens, 2002). When thoughts of being mistreated fill the minds of the local community

members, they may not support tourism development, and it will always lead to problems that can hinder the smooth growth of the sector.

From the analysis here, there were visible signs of psychological empowerment and other signs of a lack of empowerment among the communities. First, positive feelings as a result of the communities' exposure to different currencies spent by tourists and the outside recognition that comes to their community. Second, some instances revealed a situation where community members felt bad and unhappy because they were cut off from the process of tourism development. Overall, there was a strong emphasis on the lack of psychological empowerment in the cases examined.

Generally, tourism development has not increased the community members' confidence to a level where they feel they need to acquire new skills to enable them function in the industry, or to believe in themselves that they can improve their community through tourism. The general predisposition was alienation and a sense of a lack of psychological empowerment.

The cynical belief they have formed about the government and governance structures that they are being mistreated and excluded from tourism development worsens the psychological orientation they have against the government. This sense of alienation from the general governance structure and processes is also evident in tourism, as seen in Chapter 6, section 6.1. It could be said that the more local community members feel a sense of separation from governance processes the more their level of trust in such processes may be reduced. The lack of trust and attendant alienation becomes a self-reinforcing defence against reform towards greater empowerment.

7.1.4 Social empowerment

One of Scheyvens' (1999) forms of empowerment is social empowerment. This occurs when profits from tourism activities are utilised for developing social projects, such as health clinics and water supply facilities in the local community (Scheyvens, 1999).

Scheyvens also writes about land rights as an essential part of social empowerment. This becomes an issue when tourism development leads to displacement and conflicts over lands (Scheyvens, 2002, 2003). An excellent example of this is the disputes over land in Nigeria due

to the increasing control from the state government over land. To begin with, the section on land use act in the 2006 Nigeria Tourism Development Master Plan appendices is worth quoting in part. The argument states that:

" [...] All land comprised in the territory of each state in the federation is vested in the governor of that state in trust and to be administered for the use and common benefit of all Nigerians in accordance with the provision of the Act [...]" (NTDMP, 2006:32)

In line with this quote, *"the land use Decree of 1978 has conferred on the state government the ownership and trustee of the land"* (S6, State), also, resources in Nigeria: *"all the mineral resources belong to the federal government according to the law"* (A1, Academic). These quotes revealed that land and mineral resources in Nigeria belong to the government.

Based on this information, participant C1 illustrates that his land was taken over by the state government for tourism development without notifying him and he took the case to court and he was defended against the attempt by the government to alienate his land:

"Even I had to take them to the court when they wanted to take over my land there [close to the tourist attraction site] and I got judgement. So that was where we learnt that the government owns the land, but the land decree doesn't give power to them that they should just acquire a land without involving the land owner, and the court ruled that they have no right." (C1, Community)

Participant A5 adds to this by shedding more light on the issue. She describes the role that power plays using the instance of two conflicting laws, where of course the superior power prevails and the minor power bows:

"There is a conflict between customary law and the Land Use Act of 1978. Because customary law is saying that the land is an inheritance by paternal descent people would have acquired either by paternal decent or by communal agreement [...], but the Land Use Act is saying contrary, that the government can hold the land in trust for the common good of the people, so that is why the government can take over the management of the water fall even though those community will say it is their resource. So they said they took the case to court but of course the government is still prevailing, despite the fact that the ruling of the court said that the owner of the land is the rightful owner." (A5, Academic)

The argument here is that customary law gives the right of ownership of land to the community members by paternal descent. This restricts the government from acquiring lands for tourism development from the community members. Yet despite the ruling of the customary court, it

is the government that still dominates in term of claiming ownership over lands. This finding follows a pattern from other cases in the developing world where conflicts over land issues characterise tourism development (Nelson, 2012).

Furthermore, another sign of lack of social empowerment, as one community representative noted, is that they have some members of their community who behave in a way that is socially unacceptable: *"we have social miscreants, for example, many people are smoking Indian hemp, sitting there begging for money when the tourist come and so on [...]"* (C5, Community).

Some of the quotes allude to the extent to which economic empowerment from tourism feeds through the broader social benefits. For example, the economic benefits that the government generate from tourism are not being ploughed back into the development of the local communities socially, since most of the people who work at the tourist attractions are not indigenes, and so they do not live within the community. Instead, they stay in the more developed state capital towns, and that does not allow the local communities to grow as they should. Hence, a limited multiplier effect is a social, as well as economic, question. This instance is reviewed in the following quotes:

"Whenever the government earns from the community, they are paying the people who do not live or perform their other activities within that community. But if it is community-based, the government pays people's salary from the revenue they have generated from tourism and the host community actually live within that same community to run the economy, it will make a difference. More than for the staff or whoever it is that is managing to be living far off from the resource or asset that is being managed." (A5, Academic)

"They don't have government offices [in our community], they just come as a casual worker all of them stay in [the city] which is very bad, it doesn't allow the community to develop by itself. Because unless we have people like you for example and some people who are actually working who will be able to stay in the community like that it is very difficult to improve the lives of the local people there [...]" (C5, Community)

These quotes show how interwoven the forms of empowerment are, as the local communities do not develop because economic benefits from tourism do not get to the local people but instead go to the government and its officials, which does not allow social forms of empowerment to be evident in the local communities.

Nonetheless, other benefits in the form of infrastructures were expressed, such as the construction of roads by the government to allow access to the tourism resources: *"the road being constructed is because of the warm spring because people are coming from all over the world, so that it can make a good portrayal of [our] State"* (C2, Community). Another participant concurs that: *"now the construction of our road [project] is about to open."* (C3, Community). It is worthy of mention that the road constructions are part of the broader local community development projects financed by the government.

Scheyvens (1999, 2002) interprets social empowerment to be when the community has reached a state of stability; when their needs are met through tourism development, i.e. the balance between satisfying their desires and tourism development. The issues unpacked in social empowerment do not suggest that tourism development meets the needs and desires of the local communities except for the case of road construction in two communities. Other cases of a lack of social empowerment, for example, disputes over lands and other negative impacts of tourism development, were evident in the local communities.

Conclusions

One of the main reasons for analysing community participation and the empowerment of communities is that tourism development should promote local community development. This can be possible when the local communities participate in the tourism planning and development processes that allow them to say what their views and needs are concerning development projects. As discussed by Scheyvens (1999, 2002), the concept of empowerment is essential to examine the extent to which often marginalised local communities benefit from tourism. It is through community participation and empowerment that local communities can realise benefits from tourism resources in their community. This chapter has explored the latter part of the second research objective of this thesis. It looked at the extent to which tourism governance involved local communities and based on this examined the level of local community empowerment.

Despite the claim by some public sector participants that they involve local communities through stakeholders' meetings in Chapter 6, section 6.4 a significant proportion (over half) of the interviewees from the community, private and even some public-sector stakeholders

themselves seem to have a perception that mostly the communities that host attraction sites are being excluded from key decision-making processes. The local community members clearly desire to be involved and to be empowered through tourism. The institutional structure at the local level that should enable their opinions or voices to influence tourism development has not been established in the communities, irrespective of formal, written policy.

One key finding was that the different local communities had different experiences of community empowerment/participation to influence decisions in tourism development. For example, for one community, this is as a result of having members of the community as management staff within the attraction. Also, for the second community, they were involved and able to contribute through the Community Development Association (CDA). In some communities, participation was limited to endorsing decisions made by outsiders.

The analysis highlighted that the community members possess the local knowledge that can help tourists and tourism development which makes it imperative for them to be involved in such processes. This is a further reason for greater participation, one that benefits both the community members and the tourism product itself.

Another finding was that some small signs of economic empowerment were noticeable, mainly among the youths who were given menial jobs to do. As a result, the level of economic empowerment experienced was low, limited to individuals, and did not spread throughout the community.

Third, psychologically, some signs of empowerment were evident as one community member stated that they were happy with the tourism development of their community because of the outside recognition that they had experienced. However, the vast majority of the other community participants expressed a sense of disillusionment and detachment towards tourism development projects going on in their communities. Also, given that the other different forms of empowerment were low, this had a negative psychological impact on the community members.

Finally, there were more prominent signs of the lack of social empowerment arising from the fact that the government have power over lands and resources in Nigeria. That could account for the reason why they do not see the need for the local communities to be involved or given

ownership over tourism development taking place in their communities, as seen in the issue over displacement from lands. Community land can be acquired for tourism development even without their consent, compounding the sense of a lack of empowerment.

Just as tourism has been deprioritised at the national level following the merging of the ministry, in the same way, communities are not given priority within the decision-making process in the industry. Those voices that have been silenced or excluded in time past should be allowed to say their view in the planning process, and equally ensure that their voice can influence the outcome of policies and plans. The limitations relate to broader considerations of influence and power, i.e. who has authority to influence decisions and in whose interest? (Bello, Carr and Lovelock, 2016). An action point is that local communities need to be adequately empowered through all the dimensions to enhance sustainable tourism development.

The level of community participation and empowerment received by the local communities is low; this is due to many factors that constrain their involvement in the decision-making process. It is when there is a split in the responsibilities between the different institutions that govern tourism, and the local tourism committee is allowed to function or any other institution with interest in tourism at the local level that can involve them, then they can be empowered through the development projects going on in their communities. It is these factors that are responsible for the low level of local community participation and empowerment that are unpacked in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 8

Constraints on community participation and empowerment in tourism planning and development in Nigeria

This chapter focuses on analysing the underlying factors that constrain community participation and empowerment in decision-making, as set out in the Nigerian Tourism Development Master Plan (see Chapter 7, section 7.1). This analysis presents the constraints, as stakeholders currently view them, as hindrances to local community participation and empowerment. It does so in three sections: 1) community awareness and education, 2) issues of trust, 3) transparency and accountability. These issues are mainly intangible, and they relate to the political culture in Nigeria. Political culture refers to ways in which people perceive, think and feel about politics, their attitudes toward government and the social relations shared by the majority of the population (Gberevbie and Lafenwa, 2007).

8.1 Community awareness and education

For many of the participants interviewed, a central underlying influence or obstacle to community participation and empowerment is ignorance, the lack of awareness and education on the part of the local community members regarding tourism, the manner of operations of the industry and the benefits of tourism development. Since tourism development is relatively new in some developing countries like Nigeria, when compared to other traditional sectors like agriculture, local communities do not often exhibit awareness of what the tourism sector is all about. The knowledge of the community members in tourism is capable of affecting their participation (van der Duim, Peters and Akama, 2006).

The responses from the public-sector officials suggest that the local community cannot participate in the tourism development and decision-making process because of ignorance, lack of education and awareness. Exemplary quotes from the interviewees are cited below:

"Awareness and education are barriers because most of them are not educated, most of them believe that some of those things are from their forefathers and you should not come near them." (S2, State)

"Ignorance, some are ignorant, they don't even know what you mean by tourism. Some see some tourist sites as their shrine, releasing it is like they have released the shrine of their ancestors. Some do not see any importance in tourism." (S6, State)

What these quotes from the state government stakeholders reveal is that the local community members lack education and awareness of the usefulness of their resources for tourism development. This is because community members see most of their cultural and natural resources developed into tourist attractions as their "shrine" or inherited from "their forefathers". As a result, they attach a lot of importance to the resources and are usually concerned about maintaining the legacy of such heritage.

The private sector and academic participants also alluded to the fact that the level of local community awareness about tourism was low, and this affected their subsequent participation in tourism:

"The awareness of the usefulness of the existence of those tourist sites is like zero, it is not there." (P2, Private)

"The participation is poor because there is no enlightenment, no proper education about tourism at the local community as a whole." (P3, Private)

Participant A1, an Academic, concurs that local communities do not know about tourism and the resources they have: *"Ignorance to start with, people don't even know what they have got and what potentials they have at the community level [...] and this is where education comes in, training people [...] and basic awareness to start with." (A1, Academics)*

In agreement, another Academic added that the community members do not understand that they have a stake in tourism development in their community, which has always impeded their participation: *"the first thing is to create awareness, this thing is your own, this tourism venture is our own, and we [local communities] have a stake in it." (A3, Academics)*

All the quotes above pointed to the fact that knowledge of tourism is a fundamental requirement for community participation and empowerment. The communities are a significant stakeholder that have a direct stake in tourism, and as a result, it is imperative that they have an awareness of the development taking place around them, which is currently lacking and has constrained their participation.

In agreement with the other stakeholders, evidence from the community representatives' perspectives disclosed that generally there is a lack of knowledge about tourism within communities. An exception is the elites or the educated members of the community. Typical views are expressed in the following statements from the community representatives:

"We are not given adequate knowledge about it" (C1, Community)

"Not everyone [has knowledge]. But the elites know, I mean the educated ones." (C2, Community)

"They don't even know when you talk to them about tourism [...] because the publicity is not enough [...] the only thing they understand in tourism is just where people come here and go up the hills and come back." (C5, Community)

From the above extracts from the communities' perspective, the education and awareness about tourism development is low, and thus affects participation. This affirms a view commonly argued in the literature (Reid, Mair and George, 2004; Tosun, 2006; Holden, Sonne and Novelli, 2011).

Further, human capital constraints in the industry also affect creating awareness in the local community. When personnel who work in tourism are not trained, they find it challenging to direct joint decision-making (Ladkin and Bertramini, 2002). Instead of scholars criticising community participation for the high operation costs involved, what is lacking is instead experience or education among planners on how to engage local communities in tourism development (Lindström and Larson, 2016).

Participant F1 makes a slightly different point along the same lines, stating that it is not only the local people who are not knowledgeable in tourism, but some employees in tourism also lack important knowledge. The latter makes it difficult for them to pass the knowledge unto the local community members who are often illiterate, or to lead participatory decision-making process that involve the local community. In other words, the government officials themselves who are not trained in tourism and lack the understanding of the tourism sector and therefore tend to exclude the local communities from tourism development:

"Inadequate education, because, it has to do with knowledge, the person coming to talk about tourism to the community doesn't even know what tourism is about, so how do

you want to teach somebody what you don't know [...], how will you teach the community what to do, when you don't even know yourself [...]. Knowledge of tourism planning, policy, knowledge of tourism itself, knowledge of community engagement or participation. You can't give what you don't have, you don't know it, and how will you pass it unto somebody that doesn't even know at all?

Because in most of the tourism attractions in Nigeria, or some of them, the host community are always illiterate. So, you not knowing what to say, how do you explain to the person in their own language" (F1, Federal)

Participant S3 concurred and was of the opinion that this issue is a result of professionals not employed in the tourism sector:

"[...] Just like the popular saying that the blind cannot lead a blind man.

The people who do not have the information on tourism, who do not know what tourism entails, some of them do not even know how to define tourism. They are the ones heading tourism [...], the man or the person at the top who is trying to do the business does not even understand the business.

So, since he does not understand the business, he doesn't know how to go about it, and that is why I tell you, there is no equity in the formulation and implementation because the wrong people are put at the affairs." (S3, State)

This quote is part of a broader set of opinions held amongst most of the participants, including the public sector themselves other than the community representatives (A3; A4; A5; F1; F3; F4; P1; S3; S4). It reveals that the employees in the public sector are not knowledgeable in tourism or community participation, and do not know how to go about implementing participatory planning approaches. As the extracts disclose that "*the blind cannot lead a blind man*"- employees in tourism who do not know what they are doing cannot lead the community as well.

Indeed, Babalola and Oluwatoyin (2014) argue that there is a lack of trained personnel much needed in the Nigerian tourism industry. This raises the issue of human capital development throughout the industry. Human capital is an orientation towards receiving training or education to develop knowledge or skills (Wright and McMahan, 2011). The tourism sector should determine the areas where there are skills gaps among employees, then NIHOTOUR can design and organise training to address the deficient skill area.

In keeping with this, recently, the Director General of the National Institute for Hospitality and Tourism (NIHOTOUR)³ Mrs Chika Balogun identified the issue of human resource as key to the sustainability of the hospitality and tourism industry in Nigeria. She highlighted that for the sector to grow, the workforce need to be knowledgeable. She added that the mandate for establishing the institute was to train employees in the sector and that stakeholders should take advantage of the platform to get the education in tourism (Nwanne, 2018).

It is pertinent to note that though the community members do not have the knowledge of tourism (expert knowledge) as expressed by participants (C1; C2; C5 and S3), they however, have knowledge of their local environment (local knowledge) that can assist tourism development. Such local knowledge is based on their past/history and current practices that can support tourism development as articulated earlier in Chapter 7, section 7.1.1, which are essential to tourism planning and development.

Some participants (state, private and academic) raised the issue that the community members do not know that developing the resources in their community can yield benefits to them. It is because they have not seen the result or evidence, as benefits from such development do not get to them. Participant S3 captured this view and noted that when the local communities are involved they will see the evidence from tourism development in the form of benefits in their communities: *"it's not going to be something written on paper that tourism can give you, if they are involved they will know."* (S3, State). In this sense, lack of awareness is self-reinforcing over time.

A significant objective of the 2006 Nigeria Tourism Development Master Plan was to provide education and training programmes to the local communities to allow them to participate in tourism (see Chapter 7, section 7.1). This also shows a gap in policy implementation and reveals that it is not enough for policies to be formulated, having an implementation strategy is also critical to the process. Essential to governance, aside from creating awareness, is for formal governmental institutions to build a relationship with the local community to foster trust in participatory processes; this is considered next.

³ NIHOTOUR is a federal government parastatal with offices in the zones, an institution established to organise training for tourism stakeholders.

8.2 Trust

A further important factor is that of trust. This emerged from the opinions of some participants across all stakeholder groups, who saw lack of trust as a barrier to community participation and empowerment in tourism governance. Also, for the government institutions to engage with community members and empower them, the government need to build a relationship with the communities. Trust can play a significant role in ensuring cooperation and interaction among stakeholders in the industry as discussed in Chapter 6, section 6.3. As authors rightly put it, citizens trust governments institutions that perform well, and the opposite happens when they do not (Nunkoo, Ramkissoon and Gursoy, 2012). Also, because the intentions of the government for developing tourism are not often stated explicitly (Nyaupane and Timothy, 2010), but rather are hidden from the local community members, this leads to distrust in the government. If the key stakeholders are involved and empowered in the process of tourism governance in a meaningful way, it may help to build their trust in the public sectors institutions. Local community members' experiences and thoughts are shaped by the (in)actions of the governmental agencies in tourism development, which can lead to trust or distrust in those institutions.

From the perspective of a community representative,⁴ they believe the community members do not trust the government because what usually happens is that the government will go to community leaders (Kings and Chiefs) to let them know they have found a significant tourism resource which they want to develop. The government will then make promises to the community. Such an instance is best quoted in this statement:

"Then another set came again [another government representative], he too said he wants to do these that he wants to do that, nothing has happened since they left. Then another group took it over again, they promised they want to do park, chalets and they want to make the place a tourist attraction that people will be visiting, and they will do cable cars, they said they have planned it, they showed us; nothing happened." (C1, Community)

As the extract uncovers, different government have been coming and going, and they have all made promises to communities regarding tourism development and building infrastructures. In the case above, the government showed the community various video clips of the proposed

⁴ The King appoints community representatives on tourism, and the latter in most cases are members of the King's cabinet

development that would come to their community as a result of tourism development. All these turned out to be unkept promises which are far from being materialised. Even though the place is a prominent attraction today, all the development facilities promised have not been undertaken.

A state government official participant S2 confirmed this perspective:

"They [local communities] don't really believe the government when you tell them they are going to do a particular thing in the community, because of the process of a lot of people coming to check or assess their resources and going in the past. The bureaucracy involved in coming and going, so they don't believe that the government is going to do anything for them sometimes, so they become very passive.

He further stated also that:

[...] They believe that the government is taking over that thing from them, and they will not benefit from it again, so they will want to resist. Until you promise them that as we are coming here, we want to develop this place for you, 40% of their people will be employed, and the others will be employed by the government that is the only time that they will consider you. Initially, they would, most times they will resist you." (S2, State)

As the latter part of the extract revealed, the communities sometimes do not trust the government, and they have already formed the opinion or attitude that the government will not do anything for them. The participant used the word "*resist*", which is often the case when the communities do not trust the government. Consequently, they may not want to release their tourism resources to them to develop because of their past experiences, and because of the overall opinions held about governmental institutions in Nigeria. The participant stated, however, that there may be exceptions where the community has signed legal agreements with the government.

Yet, signing formal agreements is no guarantee of government action, as one community representative explains:

"Initially they were very happy when we started it, they believe that it will help them because of the way we told them, and that is what tourism should be, that it will bring some benefits for them, do this, do that, they were very happy.

But see what is happening now that the community has not benefitted from it, they are getting disillusioned, which has become very difficult for them to understand why we have tourism in the first place. [...]

When the MOU [Memorandum of Understanding] was about to be signed, it was signed with the Idanre community as the primary owner of the place, and the MOU stipulated that we should be the primary beneficiary of the place, then the state and the federal government.

But meanwhile, it has not been materialised the way we have planned it, but we only have it on paper and people are getting very wary about that kind of agreement and people were telling me why did we sign that type of thing." (C5, Community)

This community above signed an agreement with the government for their heritage to be developed as a tourist attraction. At the time their representatives signed the deal, the condition was that they would be the primary beneficiary of the tourism development. However, the opposite is being experienced currently, and that has led the community members to question their representative on why they signed such an agreement that has not yielded the expected impact. So, the community has not seen the benefit of tourism development to them as the extract revealed, some are unhappy about the fact that the agreement has not yielded the expected results and trust has been betrayed.

In fact, trust has been undermined in another way. Prominent members who were involved in signing an agreement with the government in the case of participants C1's community are seen by other community members to have benefitted, while the majority of the community have not:

"Members of the community felt that even their Chiefs, who were representing them, with the state board were selling them short. That they would have gotten the gains or they would have negotiated in their own favour with the government. Then they will come back to the community to give a different report." (A5, Academic)

In agreement with the public sector participant S2 and the community representative's C1, C5 opinion above, participant P1 expounding on the issue commented on the way that things work in practice within the tourism sector even after an agreement must have been reached:

"So, the host community do open their hand at the beginning of everything, they always tend to hope for the betterment of whatever is being thrown to them. But the public sector most of the time don't fulfil their own part of the agreement." (P1, Private)

As indicated in the quote, it is the public sector that does not keep to their part of the agreement. Such cases make other communities feel reluctant to freely release their tourism resources for the public sector to develop.

The reason for such disappointments experienced by the communities from the government is summarised in this quote by participant F3:

"A lot of people see themselves as opportunists. They say okay I am in a position now, it is time for me to take care of myself and my family. So, it becomes difficult even for the local people to trust them [...] because the last person they trusted have betrayed them, so they say it is government, they can do what they like at any time." (F3, Federal)

This extract suggests that those in power are acting in their own self-interest, not the broader interest of those they represent. Therefore, individual benefit takes precedence over the collective interest of the community, leading to a growing distrust of the community members towards the government.

These research findings revealed there are issues of trust in tourism development planning. The community members lack confidence that tourism development through the government can meet their needs. With trust in community participation and the decision-making process, it can help reduce the tensions between local communities and government institutions in tourism governance.

8.3 Transparency and accountability

Another factor that stakeholders believe is a constraint to community participation and empowerment is the lack of transparency and accountability in the tourism sector. These issues are central to the debate of governance; they are considered here in the context of their role as obstacles to community participation. Many of the participants in the category of both community and private stakeholders were of the opinion that the government is neither as transparent nor as accountable to the local communities as they should be. Corruption and unaccountable governance characterise African countries at all levels, and these are central to the way things work (Nelson, 2012). Scholars have argued that in a democratic government there should be transparency and accountability to the people, and this supports the principle of good governance (Beaumont and Dredge, 2010; Ogundiya, 2010; Odo, 2015). Besides, to earn the trust of the community members (see section 8.2) there must be accountability (Sutawa, 2012).

As discussed in section 8.1, it is difficult for a host community to participate in the process of tourism development because of the information and knowledge gaps that exist between the central authorities and local communities (Tosun, 2000; Sofield, 2003; Cole, 2006; Telfer and Sharpley, 2008). A crucial point emphasised was the issue of transparency – an orientation towards openness, and a sharing of knowledge and information in the governance process. For instance, two local community representatives noted that they did not know anything about the tourism development going on in their community which makes it difficult for them to participate:

"The fact that they are hiding it from people, including the statistics, shows that it is not transparent. So, they hide everything. You ask them sometimes, they don't tell you, they say it is classified, something you have to ask from the government including how many people have visited the place.

They don't want you to know, how much are they collecting for a year, and if you want to collect it, they won't tell you.

So, it's not transparent really, we don't know how much they are making, we don't know how many people are visiting the place. Statistically we are empty." (C5, Community)

As shown in the quote, the government officials at the local community level managing the attractions believe that information such as the amount of money made from tourism development and the number of tourists visiting the attractions should be kept confidential. The participant regarded information as being "*classified*". The quote further revealed that the community deal with civil servants who are not helpful; in terms of revealing information, the latter advised the community "*to ask from the government*". Since they are representatives of the government, they should be able to provide the information. It then means that the community do not have access to such information because of the communication gap that exists between the government and the ordinary citizens. The finding here confirms the analysis in Chapter 6, section 6.2 where the state government policies are regarded not to be a public document, which suggests a lack of transparency in the tourism governance system.

Another participant concurs and adds more to this as it relates to his local community:

"There is no transparency, when they said they want to give the community some money from the proceeds they get from the waterfall, they will just send the money [...].

I learnt that they now agreed to give 12% of the proceeds to the community. If they are transparent, they are supposed to put the proceeds on the table. This is the amount collected, this is the labour cost [...] this is the remaining proceed to be shared; then we share it. Okay! You are going to get 50%; someone who is to take 10%, 12% we work out what the amount will be, then we share it.

But for this, they are not transparent. They just send it to the bank and say this is the amount." (C1, Community)

This quote comes from a community that gets a percentage of the money derived from tourism development. Yet, they are not sure the government is giving them enough, since they do not know how much the government is making in total or the amount that makes up the 12% given to them. As the extract indicates, the community representative believe that the government should be open to them, by telling them the amount made and then they can calculate together the proportion that should rightly come to the community. This is a typical example of a lack of transparency.

However, another community representative referring to a different community's case expressed that the government is transparent to them: *"they are doing open policy there, they are not hiding anything from us"* (C3, Community).

Four of the academics interviewed (A2; A3; A4; A5), in agreement with some of the community representatives' views, also noted the lack of transparency in tourism planning and development. The participants discussed how the government conceal specific information from the community members:

"Government being who they are, there are some sensitive issues that they might not really want to reveal." (A2, Academic)

"When you have decisions solely made by those in the helm of affairs and then it's not that transparent enough you understand they wouldn't want to bring the community dwellers into such." (A4, Academic)

These quotes reveal that the government keep specific information from the communities, so they do not know what the real situation is as regards tourism planning and development projects in their communities. When tourism planning process is transparent, it reduces possible suspicions about the intentions of the planning authorities as well as other stakeholders (Bello, Carr and Lovelock, 2016), and it can lead to trust among stakeholders.

Closely linked to transparency is the issue of accountability, which is discussed here. From the private sector's perspective, the public sector pursues national macroeconomic goals of earning foreign exchange through tourism at the expense of the local people, culture and resources, which demands that the community need to speak for itself (Reid, 2003). Participant P1, referring to a case in Erin-Ijesha as an example of communities speaking for themselves:

"Erin-Ijesa, at the beginning I think when the state government intended to develop Erin-Ijesa, a lot of propaganda was going on and the community were hoping. For a particular period of time, the propaganda was not coming forth, so the community put it on them that this is our community, we own this environment, that we will decide what we want to do with these particular tourism resources. So, they end up chasing the government staff on the site [...] there is no accountability for it, there is no proper documentation." (P1, Private)

As the extract shows, the state government made promises to the local community on tourism development in order to influence them to allow the government to develop tourism. They did not fulfil them, and they were not also accountable to the community in the management processes. As a result, the community members got provoked into forcefully taking over the management of the place by chasing away the government staff at the attraction site.

This community was bold to confront the state government to take over control of managing the attraction themselves until a resolution was reached. This resulted in the government promising to give them 12% of the economic benefit from tourism development in their community. As expressed by participant C1 earlier, even though the community does not regard this to be enough, it is at least a better experience than what the case was before and compared to what is happening in some other communities referred to by the participants.

The case resonates with a statement made by participant P3 that: *"the destiny of a man is in the hands of a man and until a man discovers that his destiny is in his hand, every community member should take their destinies in their hands. They [local communities] can do that by telling the people [government] that this thing belongs to me and I will participate in it"* (P3, Private).

The above instances express a strong neo-populist sentiment to be part of the processes that impact the community.

In a similar incident where tourism resulted in conflict in Maasai Mara Kenya, the local people threatened to kill the animals used for tourism unless officials resolved the issues by agreeing to include the local community in tourism planning and enterprise, so that the community could realise more benefits and encourage their participation in the development (Reid, 2003). Unlike the case of the local Maasai in Kenya, the conflicts in participant C1's community were resolved to give them some percentage as a benefit. The resolution only partly addressed one aspect of empowerment, as it did not include involving them in the decision-making process, the latter is key in relation to, for example, psychologically and social forms of empowerment as discussed in Chapter 7.

Conversely, the state government stakeholders argue that they do not have to account to the communities, but should only be accountable to the government who they represent and who employ them. So accountability is seen as important between employer and employee, government and civil servants, but not between governmental structures and communities:

"Accountable? We are only accountable to the government. However, we always consider them because it is top to bottom, we are accountable to the governor." (S2, State)

"But in terms of accountability, the civil servant is accountable to the government that employs him/her. But mind you, civil servants should protect the image of the government as good before the community members. If not, such a civil servant wants the fall of the government." (S6, State)

Here the participants expressed surprise about the issue of downward accountability to the community because this is not common in tourism development given the culture of the way things are done in Nigeria. Remarkably, the extract from participant S6, who is a Deputy Director of one of the state Ministries of Culture and Tourism, expressed that the interest or identity of the government needs to be protected by them as civil servants. Indeed as Daloz (2005) highlighted that in Nigeria's politics civil servants' loyalty is seldom pledged to their administration.

Participant P2 disagreed with this practice and noted that the government regard themselves to be the utmost and they don't believe they should render account to the communities because they have the power: *"no, government is all in all, then people that run government also believe*

they are all in all too. So, they don't have anything to do with anybody because they have the powers, so there's no accountability anywhere to the locals" (P2, Private).

Peculiarly, the participants from the federal agency expressed that the public sector, which they also represent, ought to be accountable to communities but this is not so in practice and thus results in problems in tourism development:

"They [the government] are supposed to be accountable to them [the community] but are they really accountable to them? I don't think so, because of course the state of things will not be bad as it is now if they are really accountable to them. So that is the issue, everybody in a position see himself as an opportunist in this country very little people are really there to serve the people." (F3, Federal)

"One cannot really say that they [the government] are accountable, because if they are accountable the community residents are supposed to feel the impact of tourism activities in their domains." (F4, Federal)

Though Nigeria is a democratic country, there is a lack of transparency and accountability to the people at the local community level on tourism development. Commonly, as noticed from the cases of two communities, government officials avoid providing answers to the local community members' demand for accountability, which is a crucial characteristic of good governance. Odo (2015) recommends that citizens of Nigeria should be enlightened and empowered to demand report of accountability from their elected representatives.

Throughout the interview process, it was perceived from the angle of the state government stakeholders that their responses were influenced by a slight bias in favour of the government as most views expressed by them are in most cases contradicted in the local community interviews. Participant S6 cited above even stated explicitly that they have to "*protect the image of the government*", this is a bias which in most cases they were unconscious of, but which influenced their perspectives greatly. This differing view could be seen as a way of defending themselves against criticism from the public. One could infer that the community representatives' perspectives may be right as their views are similar to those held by most of the other stakeholders in the industry.

It appears that accountability operates in terms of employer/employee and government/civil servant. But without accountability to the communities, this remains technocratic accountability rather than democratic accountability; for example, accountability between

policy-making machinery, that excludes democratic aspirations and the local knowledge of communities.

It is worth mentioning that for community participation and empowerment to be successful, and to allow local communities to be involved in tourism governance, these issues need to be addressed. The planning agencies should be transparent and accountable to stakeholders that have a stake in the process and provide them with the vital information about the planning and development process, which can also build trust in tourism planning and development.

Conclusions

There are several reasons why local community participation and empowerment in tourism development is essential for local communities in Nigeria. First, tourism attractions are located in their communities, and they need to benefit from such development taking place in their localities. Second, local communities with tourism attractions in Nigeria sometimes cause problems for those who manage attractions in their communities as noted by the stakeholders. This is because they feel they are denied ownership and do not benefit from tourism development, and that they are not given the opportunity to participate in making decisions that affect them most. This chapter explored the constraining factors of community participation and empowerment. It has also provided an answer to a part of the third research objective as set out in Chapter 1 of the thesis which is to investigate key constraints on local community participation and empowerment in tourism policy and planning.

The chapter has shown that the low level of education which characterise local communities and their lack of awareness of tourism constrained their participation in tourism governance. One key finding was that local community members lacked the knowledge and awareness of tourism which constrained their participation. This has been affirmed in other studies on community participation (see: Tosun, 2000; Cole, 2006). Notwithstanding, another related key finding as seen in Chapter 7, section 7.1.1 was that the community members possess the local knowledge that could be used for tourism development when they are involved, but when they are not, they may keep such vital information from those who manage the development project.

Also, on awareness, another key finding revealed in this chapter relates to issues of human resources. The chapter showed that some of the employees in tourism who should lead a

participatory planning approach and educate the local community members on tourism do not have such knowledge themselves.

Further, certain principles of governance were introduced as influential in enabling community participation to happen in practice: trust, transparency and accountability. Tourism governance can benefit from trust (Nunkoo, 2017), transparency and accountability as dimensions of good governance (Beaumont and Dredge, 2010; Ogundiya, 2010; Odo, 2015). This chapter has established that the variables above are not only important to governance but pertinent to viable community participation in tourism planning and development.

The concept of trust remains essential in the discussion on tourism governance and even crucial to community participation. There is a need to build the confidence of the stakeholders in the Nigerian tourism sector. Also, there is a need for local communities to be empowered so that they can have trust in the governmental agencies. The analysis has shown that the government do not keep to the agreement that they have signed with the community members. Tourism development planning processes are not transparent, and there is no downward accountability to the local communities regarding tourism development.

The issues discussed in this chapter are mainly a function of the political culture in Nigeria. First, local people are not regarded as able, or not trusted to participate in decision-making. They in turn experience alienation from the decision-making processes. Second, communication and cooperation among stakeholders in the way they relate to each other is low even at the national level as seen in Chapter 6 and that affects the local level. As a result, the government do not provide the community members with enough information on tourism development in their community, and that can affect the level of trust in the tourism governance system. Finally, the governance system in the country is not regarded as being transparent and accountable to the people that they govern.

CHAPTER 9

The way forward: rethinking governance, community participation and empowerment in tourism planning and development in Nigeria

This thesis set out to examine and analyse the processes of tourism governance, community participation and empowerment in the Nigerian tourism industry. The chapter addresses some of the issues that have been raised in this thesis generally, and those from Chapter 8 in particular. The chapter discusses some of the strategic options that could mitigate the issues as determined by the stakeholders in the first section. Thus, it seeks to provide an answer to the latter part of the third research objective, which is to consider how the critical constraints on local community participation and empowerment can be mitigated to assist tourism policy and planning.

Section two of this chapter reviews the key research findings and shows how they have addressed the objectives set out in this thesis. Section three presents the research original contribution to knowledge and demonstrates the broader implications of the research to both theory and practice. Finally, the chapter closes with the recommendations for further research.

9.1 Recommendations

The section derives from participants' recommendations. Within their comments, two key themes were discovered that can aid community participation and empowerment in tourism planning and development: 1) education and creating awareness and 2) establishing a local tourism governance institution. These themes pay tribute to the seminal contribution of Murphy 1985 'Tourism: A Community Approach'. In his words, for tourism development to be successful, "*it needs to be planned and managed based on local capabilities and community decision-making*" (p. 153, italics in original). Local capabilities can be enhanced through education in tourism, and a local tourism institution may facilitate decision-making in tourism at the community level. These two strategies for mitigating the constraining factors to community participation and empowerment set out in Chapter 8, can enhance both political and psychological forms of empowerment, and these may, in turn, improve the levels of economic and social empowerment discussed in Chapter 7.

It is worthy of mention that the proposals discussed in section 9.1 are strategic approaches that would be logically useful to address governance issues, before policymaking. This is because the research does not intend to formulate policy but set out to provide information which could influence innovative processes to formulate tourism policy and plans, as such the study is not deliberately suggesting specific policies.

9.1.1 Education and creating awareness

Lack of community awareness and education in tourism was discussed as a barrier to community participation and empowerment in decision-making in Chapter 8. It was also discovered that this issue was not limited to the local communities but permeates the government employees (civil servants), who are also not knowledgeable in tourism.

One way to address this issue would be to invest in human capital by training employees in tourism, who may, in turn, facilitate the training and awareness creation required at the local community level. The National Institute for Hospitality and Tourism (NIHOTOUR) is an institution that has been set up to meet this need. Employees in the tourism sector and community members alike can benefit from the training offered by the institutions.

Investing in programmes that can create awareness among members of the local communities would enable them to have knowledge of tourism and to be able to contribute to tourism development discussion. When the local community members have the knowledge of tourism and how the industry operates, they can also input their local knowledge which can be beneficial to tourism development. This proposal can also help in addressing the issue of psychological empowerment discussed in Chapter 7, section 7.1.3. If the local communities get access to training on tourism development, it may enhance their participation, and as a result, they may also feel psychologically empowered.

Education and awareness creation were proposed as a remedy by stakeholders for improving the chances of local community members' participation and empowerment. This simple and straightforward point is affirmed in the literature (Dieke, 2000b; Murphy and Murphy, 2004). Cole (2006) noted that a significant precursor to participating in decision-making for tourism,

or in planning and management, is knowledge of tourism and tourists. That is a first step to empowering local communities to make appropriate decisions about tourism development. If education and awareness is a precursor to participating in decision-making processes, it may well mean that this proposal could assist in mitigating some of the hindrances to political empowerment Chapter 7, section 7.1.1.

Typical views on this from the participants are expressed below. Taking the public-sector perspective first, all the federal participants referred to creating awareness and educating the local community members on tourism as being critical. This sentiment found expression in quotes such as these:

"So that's the first thing, take tourism to the grassroots, that is how to improve the participation. When you take the tourism activities to the grassroots, educate them, let them be aware of the significance of tourism with reference to the Nigerian economy, with reference to environmental impact with reference to regional and state development so when you educate them on all these things, I think local participation will surely improve." (F4, Federal)

Participant F4 from the above quote expressed the need for the people at the local community level to be educated on the importance of tourism to their community, state, region and the nation at large in order to improve their participation.

Participant F1 agreed by advocating that the local community members need to be educated on the importance of their involvement as they are the owner of the resources: "[...], *educate them more and make them see reasons why they should be involved in their community. It's their own, you need their involvement and participation.*" (F1, Federal)

Participant F3 concurs, and supported the point by concluding that community members, both children and adults, need to be educated on conservation, the responsibility to improve their wellbeing, and live a comfortable life as well as on other aspects of tourism: "*we are talking about teaching their wards or their children in secondary school about conservation, for instance, teaching them about quality of life, what it means to have a better quality of life, how they [can] interact with visitors. Adult education is also part of it*" (F3, Federal)

This quote noted the importance of educating the local communities on the nitty-gritty of tourism: the potential impact that it can have on their environment, conservation which is key

to retaining the resources upon which tourism is based in the first instance, in addition to creating a hospitable environment for host-tourist interaction. Educating them on these sorts of things may facilitate and enable them to participate meaningfully in tourism development planning.

Academic stakeholders concurred on the importance of promoting tourism knowledge amongst community members. For example, participant A1 indicated the need to provide the community members with knowledge of tourism potentials in their community: *"creating awareness, sensitising the community to understand the potentials that they have around them"* (A1, Academics). This view reflects that of Reid, Mair and George (2004) in the academic literature.

The next extract from a community representative on educating community members on the benefits of tourism, and at the same time providing avenues for them to see the evidence of tourism development, adds to this. Such proof of community empowerment and benefits through tourism will encourage more people to participate:

"Awareness! [Provide] continuous awareness on the gain they [the community] will gain from it [tourism]. You give them awareness, and they are able to see practically that they are being empowered as we have said, the whole thing links together. If they are being empowered so the story will go a long way to tell other people that ok this is benefiting our state and then they will equally participate." (C5, Community)

Participant P1 made a related point and expressed the opinion that education is part of the broader development functions, by stressing the need for education through other forms of development from tourism. For example, providing amenities such as building schools for the children in the community with the proceeds from tourism, this can also encourage the process of educating them: *"it can be improved upon when we give education to those in the community, create awareness, give some amenities create school for their kids, let them feel that the government have them in plan."* (P1, Private). This can ultimately lead to community empowerment, on a social and psychological level.

From the state government's perspective, participants (S1; S2; S5; S6), in agreement with the other stakeholders' views, also added that as part of awareness creation the government

officials need to teach the community members on the roles that they must play as the host of tourist attractions. This sentiment found expression in extracts such as these:

"The meeting will be like a sensitisation meeting, where we are going to enlighten them [the community members] on the need for them to protect the site and also give them the assurance that site belongs to them." (S1, State)

"They need awareness, they need to be put in the known, [...] there should be a seminar where we explain to them, these are what and what are being expected of them [and] what they should be putting in place as the host community." (S5, State)

Hence, what needs addressing is for tourism planners and governmental agencies to recognise the local communities as key stakeholders that should be involved in tourism development and the sharing of benefits. This is because they expressed the willingness to participate if the government involve them. To ensure that they are equipped with the knowledge they need to participate, programmes should be organised and designed to increase the awareness of tourism among the community members on the development taking place around them. This is to ensure that they do not only hear about tourism development in their community, but that they also have basic knowledge of the tourism industry to be able to participate in the development planning.

9.1.2 Local governance

As discussed in Chapter 6, section 6.2 there should be Local Government Tourism Committees (LGTC) at the third level of governance in the existing institutional arrangement, subject to the control of the State Tourism Boards and the NTDC. This local government tourism institution as noted in Chapter 7, section 7.1 has the responsibility 'to cultivate and sustain public interest and support for tourism'; 'promote community involvement'; 'preserve and maintain historical monuments and museums in their areas' (NTDMP, 2006: 171-172). However, some participants comments implied that this only exists in theory and not in practice.

Further as discussed in Chapter 7, section 7.1.1, the LGTC would have the potential to address governance issues. For example, political empowerment of communities can enhance the continuity and sustainability of tourism projects. Aside from the opportunity for continuity, if the local community institutions are politically empowered they will have a sense of ownership for the resources used for tourism development and will want to protect the resources.

Empowering the LGTC may facilitate dialogic communication that would lead to generating local knowledge from the community members for the benefit of tourism development. When citizens have control over policy, they can input their local knowledge through their active involvement (Banyan, 2007). Such participation is essential to local community empowerment not only to share their local knowledge but also to promote transparency and accountability in such processes.

It is vital that the institutional arrangement at the national and state government levels support decentralisation that will allow the local governance institution to operate at the grassroots, both at the local government and local community level. This is because tourism itself is a local phenomenon. Tosun (2000) pointed out the relevance of having a governance institution at the local level to help tourism development. This is also given that local communities desire to govern itself without having to share power and institutions because they can trust their own people who are closer to them (Daloz, 2005).

This proposal may also address the issue of trust as it will create a platform for community members to engage in dialogue with the other stakeholders in the policy processes. As discussed in Chapter 8, section 8.2, local community members do not always trust both the federal and state government, because the government usually make promises to them but do not undertake them, even when they sign a formal agreement. Besides the local community members equally showed the desire to participate in tourism development and be an insider as seen in the case of Participant C1 Chapter 7, section 7.1.1.

The resources used to fund the Nigerian Tourism Development Corporation (NTDC) zonal offices can be used to support the LGTC. This is because effectively NTDC offices in the zones have been relieved of most of the functions they initially performed, these are now handled by the states, as a result of July 19, 2013, court case won that empowered the state to coordinate their own activities.

The national and the state government are usually far from the local community members, which may make communicating with the people at the latter level difficult. As participant P3 stated, the government institutions are far away from the local people; as shown in this extract, there is a separation between the government and the communities:

"There is already a demarcation between the policymakers and the community and that barrier, nobody can bridge it. So, the only person that can bridge it is the policy maker that will come down to the people and say let's do this together, once that is not possible automatically, the community cannot be involved in the policy of tourism." (P3, Private)

The extract reveals that the issue of local community empowerment can only be addressed by the government who need to act by asking the local community to be part of the decision-making process only then can it be possible for the local communities to participate.

Having such an institution at the local level can serve to build their capacity, encourage local participation and empowerment by involving them in tourism planning that takes into account their local priorities. It can also be an institution that will coordinate the involvement of the local people to ensure they are adequately represented in decision-making for tourism. This is in marked contrast to the national and state government that is currently in charge of tourism development at the local level. Empowering local institutions can help improve trust in both the state and federal government institutions.

As seen in the analysis in Chapters 6 and 7, the federal and state government have been involved in tourism development without much involvement of the local communities. One option that was discussed by participants to address this was the need to have local community governance. This was expressed extensively by two participants even though some other participants' comments implicitly implied so as well. Also, because of the uniqueness of each local community and the type of tourism resource that they have, a national or state plan alone may not be enough. Therefore, specific policies are needed to manage resources at the local destination level, which necessitates the need for local governance that will encourage the development of specific strategies for tourist attractions as well as the implementation of such policies. Having an active local governance can strengthen local participation, the sense of involvement in political actions and provide a platform for sharing information, discussion, negotiation and learning in the management of a destination (Benedetto, Carboni and Corinto, 2016).

As a result of the ineffectiveness of governmental agencies in coordinating tourism planning and development that takes place in the local communities, the participants suggested another level of governance:

"We see even the state itself is not really effective in running, [...] implementing tourism policies and so on because of the same unitary style that Nigeria is running in the name of Federal Republic. And at the same time, even the federal itself obviously is not effective because [...] they are trying to coordinate from the centre activities that are actually dispersed in so many local governments. They have not empowered the state and the local government properly the way they should empower them to take action at the grassroots so effectively nobody is effective." (A1, Academic)

This quote shows that the ineffectiveness of the federal and state government in coordinating tourism development at the local community level is due to them being too far away from the resources they manage, and thus there is a need for local governance that will empower the local governments for effective coordination of tourism development more than ever before. The latter part of the extract emphasises the need for the federal government to empower the state government properly for more effective decision-making.

Since the local tourism committees do not exist as well as specific destination plans, there are no long-term plans for managing tourist attractions; instead, things are done haphazardly in tourism development, which could be problematic and unsustainable. Indeed, as the literature on developing countries noted, tourism development is often undertaken in an *ad hoc* manner (Gunn, 1994; Naguran, 1999; Church, 2004; C. Michael Hall, 2008), where things are done without plans, or where they exist at all, they are only made for a short period to achieve a particular purpose, and once that is done, the plan ceases to exist.

International bodies such as UNESCO have an interest in long-term planning and community involvement in managing heritage sites. Participant C5 discussed a tourist attraction that is currently on UNESCO's World Heritage tentative list, which is being controlled by both the state government and the National Commission for Museums and Monuments a federal government parastatal. The heritage attraction was rejected from being a World Heritage Site because the governmental institutions that are in control of the attraction do not have a long-term plan for the management of the heritage site:

"In fact, let me even say that UNESCO rejected Idanre Hills as a World Heritage because of lack of proper management setup. That was the main reason for it because there was nobody who can tell them what we are going to have for the next 10, 20 years of that place [...]. [...] for the management of the place they should have this committee in place which UNESCO was very very unhappy about. There's no community-based management committee together with the state government." (C5, Community)

As a result of some of the issues highlighted above, participants further stressed the need for the local governance system in the institutional structure to be strengthened, to enable community participation to be possible. This sentiment found expression in extracts such as these that are worth quoting in some detail as they relate to local governance in coordinating tourism:

"There should always be a local organizing committee, a local community development association at the very very local level of that actual community. And traditional leaders I think should always be involved in these kinds of things, because our people are still largely connected with traditional leaders even more than the elected democratic leaders at the local grass root level, especially at the rural places." (A1, Academic)

Within [our community], for example, the local government should be the focal point where we can coordinate, and of course, we should have a local government tourism committee to act as a counterpart of the Ministry of Culture and Tourism in the state. I remember once they set up a committee because of my insistence that we have to have a committee at a local level. The local government came for the funfair to set up the committee, but it died a natural death because of lack of continuity. (C5, Community)

The assumption in these quotes is that, in tourism development, the central point of attention where the local community can turn is a local institution at their level. This is purely a result of the connection and respect they have for their local authorities, who are even more recognised by them than the politically elected leaders who are far from them and may not know what their concerns and aspirations are. As the latter part of the extract by participant C5 reveals, there was an instance when the community insisted on having a local tourism committee. This was set up but has been discontinued now because of a change in government.

As highlighted in Chapter 3, section 3.1, due to democratic processes, government politicians' tenure expires and results in lack of continuity in policy and governance, whereas with community participation there will be some degree of consistency in tourism development since communities do not change as government changes.

With local governance, the bottom-up planning approach can be employed in tourism development. The approaches that may help build trust in tourism development is considered next.

9.1.2.1 Bottom-up approach to tourism planning and development

A bottom-up approach to tourism planning highlights development in the community instead of the development of the community (Hall, 2008). It encourages community members to take ownership of the development process and act for themselves.

In the existing institutional arrangement, the Local Government Tourism Committees have been assigned the responsibility of: *'Identifying potentials for tourism development as well as making recommendations to and advising the State Tourism Boards on tourism matters within their localities'* (NTDMP, 2006: 171-172) (see also Chapter 7, section 7.1). This statement supports and may facilitate the bottom-up approaches to tourism planning and development in Nigeria.

The bottom-up approach was used by some participants to express their aspirations for greater community engagement in tourism development. Insights from the literature on tourism policy note the relevance of a bottom-up approach, in encouraging community participation and policy implementation (Zahra, 2010; Rodríguez, Williams and Hall, 2014; Ezeuduji, 2015b). For example, Hall also emphasised the need to examine the broader contribution of bottom-up implementation as an intervention in tourism planning and policy (Hall, 2011a). The following quotes illustrate the benefits that are attached to a bottom-up approach:

"It [bottom-up approach] will give us the right policy. We will get the best policy so far; the environment will be so conducive for the community and the policy maker. There will be equity and justice because the policy was formulated by everybody. I am talking about the community and the people representing the government, it is done by the two parties; then the policy will also be very popular because everybody was involved in making the policy." (P3, Private)

The extract expressed that the bottom-up approach will guarantee that local communities participate in the decision-making process and also ensure that the right policies are formulated and based on fairness that will represent the interest of the community and that of the government. This will make such a plan formulated by the principal actors to be acceptable to every party as they would have been involved in the formulation process. Strzelecka and Wicks (2010) stress the value of an all-inclusive decision-making and decentralisation is that it can ensure that quality decisions are made.

Six participants (A2; A3; A4; F1; F3; F4) stated that policy formulation should begin from the local communities as the host of tourist attractions, to address their needs and concerns. When their needs are known, policies can be formulated that will address such needs, and not for planners to just assume that this is what they need and formulate policies from afar off. Typical views of the bottom-up approach as a way out are expressed in the following statements:

"I believe the bottom-up approach is whatever decision has to be made in terms of policies and all, there should be a consideration of what is happening at the bottom because they are the ones that the policies will affect more. There should be a relationship with the community dwellers first to find out more about their communities what they want, how they want it to go before they come to a final decision or a policy to bind tourism in that area." (A4, Academic)

Participant F3, with 17 years' experience, in training stakeholders within the industry indicated that:

"You cannot help people unless you know what they actually need, so when you get their views on particular issues, it becomes easier for you to help them. So, when changes come that is what development is. So when you get their opinion on critical issues that affects their livelihood, those issues from the household level, family level, it becomes better to bring up policies that will target those challenges directly, and then you find out that after a while it becomes part and parcel when those things are implemented and they are part of the implementation of those policies that you have formulated from getting information from them." (F3, Federal)

"It is important that they, the government or private sector, involve the local communities right from the planning stage. I believe their contributions should be taken into consideration when policies are being formulated." (A2, Academic)

A participant that represents the state government believes that using the bottom-up approach in tourism policy formulation will be beneficial in resolving the issues that are faced in managing destinations: *"So, it will go a long way in solving the problem that we are having in tourism destinations or in tourism as a whole" (S5, State)*

It appears that if tourism planning is allowed to develop from the bottom-up, it is more likely to lead to the growth of development and facilitate implementation of projects within the local communities.

Two participants (A1; C5) illustrates the way bottom-up approach can work in practice. They used the word ‘believe’, which is a word of assurance or trust on what they expect that the process should rightly be in their expressions:

"So, if in a local government we have ten of such communities that are doing these kinds of things around their different destinations, then the local government tourism committee can aggregate all of these and have a framework and policies that harness all of these things and at the state level the Ministry of Tourism and Culture can take a look at all the local government's frameworks and policies and also harness and then it goes like that to the federal. So, this is a bottom-up situation. So, I believe that if we do it the right way, we will, I mean that is like the only way Nigeria can become a mini paradise." (A1, Academic)

"I believe that the thing should come from the community and then they send it to the government as well, that is community participation." (C5, Community)

According to the quotes, community participation and empowerment can start from the Local Government Tourism Committees. This is because at that level, such a committee will be aware of the socio-economic and political conditions in the local communities, they can hence develop a framework for their destinations that will then go to the state and federal ministries. Participant A1 suggest that this is the only route by which Nigeria can become a ‘mini paradise’ through tourism development. This is the opposite of what is currently in place in the industry.

Participant A5, who is an academic with four years’ experience, makes a different point along the same lines:

"So, the approach has to change from top-down to one where it is more inclusive, where members of the community have an equal chance of being heard in the process. And really, the local community have that structure because they have [...] organisations, various societies that reflect their age groups, thinking and maturity in the local setting so that from age 0 to 11 belong to a particular group these are their objectives. So, if the government uses that age group division to say [ask] what do these people want and they have a representative that can relate exactly what those things are, that level of bottom-up approach can make a difference as opposed to what is in operation now." (A5, Academic)

The quote shows the need for a change from a top-down approach where the government is in charge, to one that is all-encompassing and allows the local community members to have a voice in the process of tourism development planning. As the extract indicates, the local community already provides a structure of “age groups” which the government can use to involve them.

A community representative concurs and noted another form of structure that can be used to involve them: *"we have groups now, we have cocoa buyers, timber sellers all those things, they have to be involved"* (C4, Community)

The local communities have structures which are usually leveraged upon to meet their needs; these groups typically range from the women folk, market people (traders), youths, elders' and chiefs which may slightly vary from one community to another community. Such groups can determine what their views are and relate them through a representative to ensure that their voice counts in tourism decision-making.

One example of the bottom-up planning approach to tourism development, referred to by some participants, is the community-based tourism (CBT). CBT is a broad term that refers to initiatives that emerge from local community members themselves, often emphasising local knowledge and their natural and cultural resources. CBT departs from mere 'community involvement', to more profound claims of local 'community engagement' to unlock opportunities for the broader community (Novelli, 2015).

CBT allows the community to be at the centre of tourism planning and development. It can be a form of empowerment and a way to ensure that local communities benefit from tourism by providing avenues for the equitable distribution of benefits to the entire community. Community participation can be improved through CBT when the local community members are allowed to be in control of tourism development in their community, that way, they are more likely to give such development their full support. CBT offers enormous opportunities for marginalised communities to be able to participate in tourism development (Bramwell, 2010; Spenceley and Meyer, 2012; Novelli, 2015). In CBT most of the tourism activities are developed and operated by the local community members (Telfer and Sharpley, 2008). Views on this approach are illustrated below in the following extracts:

"So, what would have enabled the issue would have been community-based tourism. Let the community take ownership of the development, in that way once they see it as their own they are bound to support it more. Community-based management would have also made provision for key economic roles to be taken by members of the community so, in that way, the economic leakage that would have occurred will be reduced." (A5, Academic)

This quote reviews that, through CBT the community members will support tourism development because this approach allows them to take ownership of the development process. Also, the participant stated that this form of management would enable benefits from tourism to remain within the community, since community members will be the key people managing the process.

Participant C5, adds to this:

"But for the management of the place, they should have this committee in place which UNESCO was very very unhappy about that there's no community-based management committee together with the state government. Because unless you have one that is going to transform the place, whether one government comes or the other comes that could not be removed. Because when you base it on which government comes, on their whims and caprices, you definitely cannot have a stable tourism project in place in a place like that. So, we need a permanent body that is going to stand there with the state government representative, community representative, the federal government representative, and outsider business people who will be able to invest their money and so on. If we have a permanent committee like that, I think the place can be sustainable."
(C5, Community)

This extract also highlights the need for community-based management, governed by a local level committee that is responsible for managing the tourist attraction. A critical criterion that UNESCO looks out for to enlist an attraction as a World Heritage Site is community-based management. Such local committees will be stable and will not change as government changes. Hence, it can promote continuity in the development of tourists' attraction sites irrespective of the government in power, and whether they support tourism development projects in the community or not as discussed in Chapter 7, section 7.1.1. The committee can then be supported by the representatives of the federal, state government and the private sector interest. Hence, supporting the bottom-up initiative.

However, some critical voices came through, suggesting that with community-based management, uneven development may take place as some communities are at more of an advantage with the tourism resources they possess. Two academics expressed typical views of what may happen with this management approach in the following statements:

"Some places may move faster because now they have resources closely at their disposal for their own growth. So, some places may embrace it quickly and move and

develop faster, or maybe because they have natural resources, so they may move faster in development and growth than some other places." (A1, Academic)

Participant A5 adds to this that communities will develop based on the distinctiveness of their resources and specifics of their individual location:

"And then it cannot be a one size fit all, each community will have to develop based on its uniqueness. So, it's not because it worked for Olumirin Waterfalls we have to import that method and impose it on Olumo Rock because in any case, they are different. Olumo Rock is closer to urbanisation or development than Olumirin Waterfall, so the expressions would be different." (A5, Academic)

The argument made by participants A1 and A5 that community-based tourism development may not take the same pace among the local communities is right, but the main point is for those communities that have the tourism resources to be involved in the management and have control in determining the objectives for tourism development. If the government is managing the resources, those communities without tourism resource(s) will not get the attention from the government in the first place, since only communities with resources to develop for tourism receive the attention of the government. However, when communities have control over tourism development that is planned carefully, this can be an avenue for empowerment (Mair and Reid, 2007).

This section provides an answer to the latter part of the third research objective, which is to consider how the critical constraints on local community participation and empowerment can be mitigated to assist tourism policy and planning. The section has shown that one way to improve the low level of community participation and empowerment is to embark on awareness creation and education programmes on tourism and on how the industry operates in local communities where tourism development takes place. Such awareness creation has been said to be a criterion for the local community members to participate in tourism development planning.

A central point made was that the federal government need to respond to the issues the communities face by legalising the empowerment of local community governance institutions through the Local Government Tourism Committees. This is as stated in the Nigerian Tourism Development Master Plan, but it is not the case in practice. This institution should be given a political mandate and resources to develop tourism. Such an institution can be a viable mechanism for community participation that can facilitate the community members to develop

the various dimensions of empowerment. Moreover, it will promote other forms of tourism development such as bottom-up and community-based tourism approaches.

In the spirit of neo-populism, after Tosun's (1999) 'spontaneous participation', in order to get things done at the community level, it may be necessary for communities to take the initiative themselves. An interim solution is for local communities to set up a local tourism association at their level. However, they will need to seek assistance for capacity development, skill acquisition and other relevant training in the tourism industry. The local governance advocated is one that operates at the individual communities where attractions are located to empower their community members through programmes and other empowerment activities. Then, every other institution that wants to support such local governance needs to consider the community members' needs as the priority in any form of planning. As such, to get the best out of local governance, it should operate both at the level of the local government as well as at the level of individual communities that host attractions.

9.2 The research objectives addressed

This research was guided by three main objectives that provided direction for the research process, these are as follows:

1. To examine the current issues in tourism policy and planning from the stakeholders' perspective using Importance-Performance Analysis (IPA).
2. To explore stakeholders' perception of the extent to which tourism governance processes allow local community participation and empowerment.
3. To investigate constraints to local community participation and empowerment and how these can be mitigated to assist tourism policy and planning.

This section shows how these questions are answered with the key findings from the analysis chapters, and these are now addressed one after the other.

- 1. To examine the current issues in tourism policy and planning from the stakeholders' perspective using Importance-Performance Analysis (IPA).*

The result from phase 1 of the research shows that all tourism, policy and planning variables assessed using the Importance-Performance Analysis were important and performing at a low level. For most of the variables, respondents indicated that the tourism sector was performing low on highly important variables, which represent 93.4% of the variables and fall within the ‘concentrate here’ quadrant. This implies that there are many issues in tourism, policy and planning and that there is a need for urgent improvement in those areas in both current and future practices within the industry. This is evident through the clustering of the variables on the IPA grid (see Chapter 5, Figure 11); these aspects need to be modified.

However, there is a positive side where the tourism sector is doing relatively well representing only 6.6% of the variables, and the advice here is to ‘keep up the good work’. Since the categories are all politically significant and warrant necessary management implications, then tourism governance action needs to be taken in most of the areas where performance is low, and the recommendation is that timely policy and governance action needs to concentrate on these issues.

2. *To explore stakeholders’ perception of the extent to which tourism governance processes allow local community participation and empowerment.*

Overall, this research has shown that the deficiencies with tourism governance are general and lie in the realm of Nigerian governance. The formal institutional arrangement that exist reflect the three tiers of government at the national, state and local levels. One key finding was that even though tourism governance structures exist formally, they lack substance in practice. This is because what is prevalent in practice reflects that tourism governance is driven mainly by the federal and state government, who take most of the decisions in and for the sector. Worthy of mention in the existing institutional arrangement is that in 2015, tourism was deprioritised at the national level when the Federal Ministry of Culture and Tourism was merged with the Ministry of Information and Culture. This deprioritised tourism at the federal level.

The research findings revealed that as a result of the case won by the Lagos state government against the federal (NTDC) in July 2013, state ministries are now able to decide on strategies that suit their immediate environment because policies formulated at the national level are not implementable and does not trickle down to the state and local communities. While this development still mainly reflects a top-down approach to decision-making, directed by the state government, it represents an improvement since the states are closer to the local governments

and communities where tourism development happens. Moving one level downward would be useful to empower the local communities.

Challenges still occur in tourism governance since the relationship between public institutions is undefined and uncoordinated. This is because of the low level of communication and interaction among the diverse stakeholders within the Nigerian tourism sector, both within and between the formal governmental institutions as well as those with other non-governmental institutions. An example is the political tension that exists between the federal government institutions (the Federal Ministry of Tourism and Culture (FMCT) now Federal Ministry of Information and Culture (FMIC) and the Nigerian Tourism Development Corporation (NTDC)) which are the first two organisations as far as tourism governance is concerned. It is possible that what transpires between them may also affect the other institutions under them.

Also, the research revealed that the stakeholders' meetings held at the national level, which are meetings dedicated to involving stakeholders in tourism planning, allowed only the private sector stakeholders to participate and be represented at that level even though these private practitioners felt the government did not use their opinions. These private individuals further expressed that at such meetings, the local community members were not represented at all, and when the private sector stakeholders raised some local community members' concern, such opinions were neither recognised nor taken seriously. In the interviews with academics, they believe that tourism governance is fraught with obstacles as all the stakeholders that should be represented such as academics and the communities are not.

Adopting a participatory approach to tourism governance that will allow all stakeholders to participate is important. This study further showed that the Local Government Tourism Committee that could allow the local communities to participate does not function at the local level. This, in turn, affects local community participation and empowerment. There is a gap between tourism policies and what happens in practice. Based on this, the research established that the local institutions need to be strengthened and given the capacity to function to allow the local communities to participate and be empowered in tourism decision-making and to benefit from tourism development. The existing literature has acknowledged that for participatory development strategy to be sustained, local people must be empowered (Tosun, 2005; Bello, Carr and Lovelock, 2016). This is because local views provide the practicalities

and detail which can make a policy successful, given that each community and the resources they possess is unique.

Though the local institutions in tourism governance are not functioning, the research findings suggest that the local communities have experienced a varying degree of participation. For example, in terms of political empowerment, some have been privileged to have members of their communities as part of the management team for managing attraction. As a result, they can give opinions at the attraction level. Others have been called upon to either offer their suggestions or to provide consent to plans that have already been finalised without their involvement – and mostly at the implementation stage, which does not amount to empowerment. Overall, the level of political empowerment experienced by the community affects every other form of participation and empowerment (economic, psychological and social).

3. *To investigate constraints to local community participation and empowerment and how these can be mitigated to assist tourism policy and planning.*

Overall, three key points were seen in Chapter 8 as constraints to community participation. First, the lack of local communities' awareness of tourism. Second, the lack of trust in relationships and interactions between tourism stakeholders, especially with the local community level given the history of distrust in tourism planners, who make promises to the community on what will be done for the community and do not fulfil them. Third, lack of transparency and accountability to the local communities in managing tourism development in their communities.

For community participation in tourism governance to be successful and meaningful, specific issues that constrain local community participation and empowerment need to be addressed. These strategies were discussed in Chapter 9. First, organising awareness and education programmes for the local communities in tourism to be capable of making informed decisions, and to improve the level of community participation and empowerment in the tourism governance process. If such education and awareness are created at the local community level, they can be both politically and psychologically empowered.

Second, while the level of participation and empowerment in practice is currently low, the stakeholders were in consensus that community participation and empowerment in tourism planning and development in Nigeria has a potential to enhance tourism development in local communities and the nation at large if such values are upheld in the tourism sector. This opinion, widely held, also led some of the stakeholders to suggest that the local governance institutions should be strengthened as a platform that can facilitate community participation and empowerment.

This research examined the question of governance as seen through the eyes of a range of stakeholders developed some provisional recommendations for governance rather than policy that may cultivate greater participation and dialogues, leading to better outcomes for local communities, states and Nigerian national development as a whole.

9.3 Research contributions to knowledge

This thesis has made some original contributions to knowledge. These contributions are threefold: methodological, conceptual and policy related.

These are: first, the design and application of the Importance-Performance Analysis (IPA) framework to assess tourism policy and planning from the perspectives of stakeholders in the Nigerian tourism sector, and; the idea of using quantitative and qualitative data in relation to exploring a broad issue of governance is original.

To design the IPA questionnaire, the researcher identified a new set of variables based on different literature sources in the related areas of tourism policy and planning, governance and tourism development. This provided original data based on bespoke variables (see Chapter 4, Table 4). The thesis is not unique in utilising Importance-Performance Analysis framework as a useful tool in analysing tourism policy. For example, Evans and Chon's (1989) work recognises the value of assessing tourism policy in their US study, which evaluates the perspective of visitors to two tourist destinations. However, what is novel in this research is the use of the IPA framework to analyse tourism policy and planning from the perspectives of stakeholders, and in this case, using specially developed variables/questions.

The current literature on tourism policy and planning is informative as it reveals some of the dimensions that can be used for the IPA (notably Simpson, 2001; Ruhanen, 2004; Choi and Sirakaya, 2006). There is, however, limited empirical research using the IPA framework to analyse practical aspects of tourism policy and planning. This is a gap that the current research fills by bringing together these variables identified from the literature on tourism policy and planning, governance and tourism development, thereby providing conceptual and empirical data on the broader category of tourism governance. The IPA contributes uniquely and offers new insights into the experiences of stakeholders in tourism development in a developing country.

Second, conceptual, research that clarifies the relationship between tourism governance process and local community empowerment in tourism decision-making are few. This thesis forms an addition to the existing ones.

Also, little is known about how trust shapes tourism governance processes, policies and the relationships among formal government institutions and local communities, which this thesis identified as a conceptual gap in the literature regarding tourism governance and community empowerment in development planning. This research is not the first to identify ‘trust’ within governance discussion (Nunkoo and Ramkissoon, 2012; Nunkoo, Ramkissoon and Gursoy, 2012; Edwards and Nunkoo, 2015; Nunkoo, 2015; Nunkoo and Gursoy, 2017), and therefore, the findings presented lend support to this growing body of literature. Hence, in an effort to extend this scholarship, the research found trust to be essential in governance processes and the relationship between the strong (government officials) and weak (local communities) in tourism governance and participatory planning. The research drew upon participants' comments on trust, which affects interactions between tourism planners and the local community.

Therefore, this research has advanced the discussion on trust. It shows that community members' trust in government and their institutions can facilitate the sharing of local knowledge with the government officials and other stakeholders involved. In doing so, the research makes a novel contribution to the literature on local community participation and empowerment in tourism governance. It also indicates how trust is in a close, or even symbiotic, relationship with transparency and accountability.

Further, the thesis treats tourism governance not just as a set of formal relationships between institutions represented in a diagram, but also as *informal*, involving a continuous dialogic process among stakeholders. Such processes are underpinned by trust, transparency, and accountability, as represented in the research' conceptual framework in Chapter 2, Figure 1.

Particularly, trust, transparency and accountability extends the work of other researchers in the field of tourism governance, community participation and empowerment in tourism planning and development (Tosun, 1999, 2000; Scheyvens, 1999, 2002, 2003; Sofield, 2003; Timothy and Tosun, 2003; Tosun and Timothy, 2003; Timothy, 2007; Hall, 2011a; Nunkoo and Ramkissoon, 2012; Hsu, Inbakaran and George, 2013; Mair, 2015; Nunkoo, 2015, 2017; Bello, Carr and Lovelock, 2016).

Third, policy contribution, given the results from the phase 1 Importance-Performance Analysis, tourism governance in Nigeria needs to be taken seriously. From the policy point of view, the results are significant since the tourism sector is performing low in relation to variables regarded as very important, except for a few that are performing relatively well. There is an urgent call for tourism planners to improve the variables with low performance in the current and future tourism planning and development activities. The importance-performance results can be a benchmark for stakeholders in the governance process to work with, in other to improve the performance of those variables within the tourism sector.

Also, from the findings in the second phase, an area of concern is that tourism policy, planning and development may continue to suffer from the deficiencies in broader national governance in Nigeria, as a result of the political culture in Nigeria. The change of government in power politically also affects the industry as seen in the case of deprioritising tourism at the national level by downgrading it from a ministry to a department. The Local Government Tourism Committee that should be set up at the local community level are not in existence, because of government (in)actions. All these indicate a fragile hope in the future of tourism development in Nigeria.

It could be that the success of tourism development is dependent upon the adoption of participatory governance approaches that will involve all actors who can dialogue to coordinate tourism development planning in Nigeria. If stakeholders are actively engaged, one implication

for development is that it may ensure sustainability as innovation could come from the 'bottom-up' or communities that may support tourism development.

Further, if the federal and state governments continue to take the fundamental decisions regarding tourism development, and the communities have minimal opportunity to participate or influence decision-making, a significant consequence could be that it is only the intentions of those who participate that will be achieved. As a result, most of the benefits will go to those who participate, and community members may not get substantial benefit from tourism.

The participants in this research indicated that local communities are not sufficiently carried along in the tourism decision-making process because it is a government affair without much involvement of local communities in tourism development. For real community participation and empowerment to happen, the problems in the institutional structures must be addressed for the community members to be involved. One recommendation was that Local Government Tourism Committees and other local community associations should be established with a clear role that they need to perform within the tourism governance process. These local institutions should be supported regarding capacity building and empowerment. It is worthy of mention, that to increase the chances of community participation and empowerment, these issues need to be seen as significant both in the broader governance in Nigeria and tourism governance in particular.

Also, because some of the employees in tourism lacked the knowledge and expertise to coordinate community participation activities, awareness needs to be created for officials in tourism planning and development. This would be so that government officials themselves can know the importance of participatory approaches to planning and development, and thus be able to direct such approaches. Such process as identified in this thesis needs to be built on trust, transparency and accountability to sustain the relationship between the government officials and local communities. If such awareness is not created among tourism officials, the chances for participatory governance in tourism may be slim.

9.4 Conclusion and recommendations for further research

This research process has involved an extensive consideration of the various aspects and elements that make up the tourism governance process in Nigeria. In the first phase that required participants to complete a questionnaire, most of the participants answered these questions in relation to the specific state they worked in at the time of data collection with the national picture in mind, by positioning the Nigerian tourism industry into the bigger picture. Even then, the responses were similar. Most of the answers were rated as ‘important’; this could be because these variables, in theory, are essential in any tourism policy and planning, and are equally important to practice, whereas they were not performing well. After completing the questionnaire, the researcher sought to know what the participants felt were the most important issues in case they had not been covered in the questionnaire, and most of the responses emphasised the poor government attitude towards tourism and the challenge of implementation of plans. These responses can be summarised to be issues that are pertinent to governance. Also, through the process of carrying out the first phase of the research, the researcher became aware that the state ministries are now able to formulate policies to coordinate tourism activities within their states. For these reasons, the second phase of data collection focused on specific states which were studied in depth.

Writing this thesis has made the researcher to reflect on the political culture in Nigeria continually. The constant change in government, policies, institutions and structures of governance at the national level which also affects the state and local levels. All these governance issues impact on each other, where a change in government results in a shift in policies and institutional structures, what is supported and what is not. Participatory governance can pave the way for voices to be heard that have hitherto been marginalised, and involve them in tourism planning and development with other planners. Sound policies and structures may exist, their content may result in consequences that are contrary to the plan. Formal structures and policy are made by people who possess power. How these formal structures filter down to local communities to influence participation and empowerment of community members represents the content of how things work in tourism development. It has been shown in this research that unequal power relations exist in tourism governance in Nigeria, where policy makers and planners at the federal and state levels possess more power to influence tourism compared to those at the local level.

Tourism development in Nigeria, as shown in the two phases of this research, has been below the stakeholders' expectations. One key issue has been the failure on the part of the government institutions to facilitate participatory governance processes that can engage other stakeholders meaningfully for developing and implementing policies for tourism development. The importance of encouraging decentralisation in governance, by empowering local institutions, has been highlighted to achieve tourism policy goals. This research confirms one topic of discourse in the Nigerian media, for example, about the devolution of power to other levels rather than power being centralised at the federal level which has less impact on the general development in the country. This study rounded up by making some strategic recommendations. It is, however, worrisome that it is the same government institutions that can implement the changes that were also found to be behind most of the critical issues raised in this research which is deep-seated at the level of governance and political culture.

The research findings and implications of this thesis open up some possible areas for further research. First, issues of community participation are sometimes better studied using other approaches such as ethnography research to allow the researcher to spend more time in such communities. This was not the case in this research, given that the research covered the macro-level from the national to the local level. This is a limitation in this study. Future research can, therefore, explore experiences at the micro-level in more depth using ethnography which may reveal more on how the communities can be assisted to become active participants in tourism governance processes.

Second, drawing on some of the conclusions of this thesis, the debate on tourism governance should consider how specific governance themes such as trust, transparency and accountability can be supported and upheld within the process. This is because it is possible that without these such processes may not be successful.

Trust, as alluded to in this research is a question of political culture as opposed to formal governance *per se*. This is an area of research that needs to be pursued further in relation to tourism governance and community participation as part of the broader political culture.

Finally, this research underscored the role of the state (government) in tourism development (Peters and Pierre, 2016) in providing capacity for the local community to function (Reid, 2003; Mowforth and Munt, 2016). Also, community agency entails building relationships that

enhance the capacity of local people to act for themselves (Matarrita-Cascante, Brennan and Luloff, 2010). Further research can look at the value of community agency and how it can be enhanced in tourism governance processes.

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Appendix A: Variables for assessing tourism policy and planning

THEMES/THEMATIC	DIMENSIONS/ CATEGORIES	SUB DIMENSIONS	VARIABLES
SITUATION ANALYSIS – ENVIRONMENTAL SITUATION ANALYSIS (MICRO AND MACRO)	1. Political	a. Security/safety	Theft/ attack (Wade and Eagles, 2003; Mansfeld and Jonas, 2006; Mair and Reid, 2007; Pearsall and Pierce, 2010). Crime rate (McCool, Moisey and Nickerson, 2001; Choi and Sirakaya, 2006; Sharma et al., 2008; Blancas <i>et al.</i> , 2010; Frauman and Banks, 2011; Wan, 2012; Nunkoo, 2015).
		b. Political supports at all level of governments	Incorporation and implementation of local ideas in community/ site management (Choi and Sirakaya, 2006).
		c. Local planning policy	Tourism related master plan (Choi and Sirakaya, 2006; Dodds, 2007; Sofield and Li, 2011).
		d. Local oriented control policy	Availability of development control policy (Choi and Sirakaya, 2006).
		e. Political participation	Local resident participation in planning process (Choi and Sirakaya, 2006; Landorf, 2009). Stakeholder collaboration (Choi and Sirakaya, 2006; Landorf, 2009; Ezeuduji, 2015a; Bello, Carr and Lovelock, 2016). Level of cooperation among stakeholder groups (Choi and Sirakaya, 2006).
	2. Economic	a. Growth	Regional development, economic restructuring (Dredge and Jenkins, 2003; Baidal, 2004; Mair, 2006).
		b. Employment/ economic benefits	Employment in tourism (Choi and Sirakaya, 2006; Simão and Partidário, 2012).

			<p>The planning document quantifies the economic benefit of tourism to the area.</p> <p>The planning document quantifies the employment creation ability of local tourism activity</p> <p>The planning document identifies the major economic activities in the local area</p> <p>The planning document establishes the relative importance of tourism, compared with other industries, to the economic development of the local area</p> <p>The planning document evaluates the adequacy of business skills possessed by local tourism industry operators</p> <p>The planning document includes quantitative analysis of current visitor numbers, length of stay and spending</p> <p>The planning document includes broadly based goals related to the economic benefits of future tourism development</p> <p>Specific objectives target the equitable distribution of tourism's economic benefits throughout the local area (Simpson, 2001; Ruhanen, 2004).</p> <p>Indigenous product development opportunities; Marketing of indigenous product; Indigenous employment opportunities; Indigenous business development opportunities; (Whitford and Ruhanen, 2010).</p>
		c. Capital formation in the community/investment	Availability of local credit to local business (Choi and Sirakaya, 2006).
		d. Income distribution/capital leakage and linkage	Percent of income leakage out of local community (Choi and Sirakaya, 2006).
		e. Nature of demand	Seasonality of tourism/tourist visitation (Choi and Sirakaya, 2006).
	3. Environmental/ Physical	a. Preservation of the natural/ cultural resources	Conservation and environmental protection (Cao, 2015) flora and fauna (Simão and Partidário, 2012). Future development goals (Ruhanen, 2004).

			Restoration of attractions (Zhang, Chong and Ap, 1999)
		b. Health of human population (residents/visitors)	Use of low-impact technology (Choi and Sirakaya, 2006).
		c. Town-planning	Incorporation of environmental criteria in tourism planning (Torres- Delgado and Palomeque, 2014). The planning document describes the area's principal geographic features The planning document describes the main characteristics of the local climate The planning document identifies flora and fauna which are unique to the area The planning document assesses the resilience and/or fragility of the physical environment The planning document describes the principal tourism sites in the area The planning document evaluates the current capacity of tourism plant and infrastructure The planning document includes broadly based goals related to environmental protection (Simpson, 2001; Ruhanen, 2004).
		d. Land use	Distribution of land uses for tourism (Whitford and Ruhanen, 2010; Torres- Delgado and Palomeque, 2014). Environmental protection of indigenous land (Whitford and Ruhanen, 2010). The planning document identifies current land use and ownership patterns in the area (Simpson, 2001; Ruhanen, 2004).
		e. Loss of renewable resources	Air quality index Amount of erosion on the natural sites, Frequency of environmental accidents related to tourism (Choi and Sirakaya, 2006).
	4. Social	a. Community resource	Degradation/erosion of natural and cultural resource (Choi and Sirakaya, 2006).

		b. Cultural (site) management	Availability of funds for maintaining cultural sites (Choi and Sirakaya, 2006; Whitford and Ruhanen, 2010).
		c. Socio-cultural fabric	Retention of local customs and language, Loss of authenticity and becoming impersonal (Choi and Sirakaya, 2006; Cao, 2015). Indigenous product/cultural authenticity ; Quality of life improvements (Landorf, 2009; Whitford and Ruhanen, 2010).
		d. Host community/residents and stakeholders	Host community satisfaction and attitude toward tourism development (Choi and Sirakaya, 2006). Continuance of traditional activities by local residents (Choi and Sirakaya, 2006). Resident involvement in tourism industry (Choi and Sirakaya, 2006).
			The planning document identifies current population levels and demographics The planning document acknowledges a need to integrate local tourism strategies with national policies for tourism development (Simpson, 2001; Ruhanen, 2004).
	5. Technology	a. Data collection	Accurate data collection and tourism information change (Choi and Sirakaya, 2006).
		b. Social media	Trustworthiness, usefulness and enjoyment on intentions (Ayeh, Au and Law, 2013).
		c. Geographic Information System (GIS)	GIS for tourism planning and marketing (Van Der Merwe and Van Niekerk, 2013; Supak <i>et al.</i> , 2014).
	6. Human Resources	a. Capacity development	Training/ educating/ mentoring (Choi and Sirakaya, 2006; Whitford and Ruhanen, 2010).
		b. Management system	Number of expert consultation in tourism development (Park and Yoon, 2011).
	7. Regulatory/Legal Environment	a. Land-use regulations	
		b. Travel agency, hotel regulation	
		c. Institutional arrangement	

		d. Supportive implementation instrument	
		e. Encouragement of tourism NGO's	
	8. Culture and Heritage	a. Historical Culture	Historical buildings (Frauman and Banks, 2011).
STAKEHOLDER PARTICIPATION	9. Local Community Issues	a. Community values	<p>The planning document identifies locally important community values.</p> <p>The planning document identifies locally important lifestyle features.</p> <p>The planning document identifies current issues which are critical to residents.</p> <p>The planning document assesses community attitudes to tourism.</p> <p>The planning document assesses the overall quality of life in the area.</p> <p>The planning document includes a vision for the future which aligns with local community values, attitudes and lifestyles.</p> <p>The planning document includes broadly based goals related to community values and lifestyle protection.</p> <p>The planning document includes broadly based goals which emphasise the local benefits of tourism development (Simpson, 2001; Ruhanen, 2004).</p>
		b. Residents benefit	Economic benefit (Simão and Partidário, 2012).
		c. Destination characteristics	<p>Level of tourism development, tourist/resident ratio, type of tourist (Panyik, 2012 cited in Panyik, 2015).</p> <p>Seasonality of tourism offer (Torres- Delgado and Palomeque, 2014).</p> <p>Interactions and community legitimacy (Krutwayshe and Bramwell, 2010).</p>
		d. Friendly and helpful local community	

		e. Increase local involvement in tourism industry	Length of residence, Level of knowledge about the industry (Panyik, 2012 cited in Panyik, 2015). Percentage of guides at site that are locals (Larson and Poudyal, 2012).
		f. Community attitude towards local tourism organisation activities and programs in resort destination	Operate the destinations welcome centre. Develop and promote special events. Development through media promotion and advantage. Communication of promotional plans to local business. Develop linkages with regional tourism organisations to promote entire region. Spokesperson with government agencies. Assist and support private sector product development. Develop sales staff to solicit group business. Attend consumer and trade travel shows (Evans and Chon, 1989).
	10. Public Private Collaboration	a. Extent of information sharing	
		b. Evidence of network/alliances to achieve specific objectives (Dredge and Jenkins, 2012)	
		Political participation	Public-private sector partnership (Dredge, 2006; Ahebwa, 2013).

	11. Third Way Politics	Democracy/ Inclusion/ Participation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Central government agency(ies) took part in the planning process b. Relevant regional and/or territorial council(s) took part in the planning process c. Governmental (national OR regional OR local) opinion influenced the final strategic direction selected. d. The relevant regional tourism organisation(s) took part in the planning process. e. The local tourism industry took part in the planning process. f. Regional/district tourism organisation OR local tourism industry opinion influenced the final strategic direction selected. g. Representatives of existing visitor groups took part in the planning process. h. Existing visitor group opinion influenced the final strategic direction selected. i. Other local organisations (non-tourism) took part in the planning process. j. Local community took part in the planning process (Simpson, 2001; Ruhanen, 2004). Indigenous participation (Dredge and Jenkins, 2012). k. Same as J Ordinary local residents took part in the planning process. l. Same as I Secondary stakeholder (other local organisations OR local residents) opinion influenced the final strategic direction selected (Simpson, 2001; Ruhanen, 2004).
	12. Government Role	a. Policy demands from inside and outside the political system	Aviation reform, develop infrastructure (Zhang, Chong and Ap, 1999).

		b. Policy decisions by the political authority	Tourism promotion, tourism education/training, development of tourists attractions (Zhang, Chong and Ap, 1999)
		c. Policy outputs	Centralisation or decentralisation, foreign investment (Zhang, Chong and Ap, 1999).
		d. Policy impacts (intended and unintended)	Tourism receipt (Zhang, Chong and Ap, 1999).
IMPLEMENTATION AND REVIEW / IMPLEMENTATION/MONITORING AND EVALUATION	13. Visitor Attitudes	a. Tourist satisfaction	Tourist /attitude toward tourism development(McCool, Moisey and Nickerson, 2001; Choi and Sirakaya, 2006).
		b. Training	Education and training programs for visitors (Choi and Sirakaya, 2006).
		c. Visitor's attitude towards destination attributes such as historical and cultural, scenic attractions hospitality of local people, rest/relaxation opportunities, shopping opportunities, suitable restaurants, entertainment, suitable accommodations	Golf and tennis opportunities. Historical and cultural. Scenic attractions. Hospitality of local people. Rest/relaxation opportunities. Shopping opportunities. Suitable restaurants. Entertainment. Suitable accommodations (Evans and Chon, 1989).
	14. Sustainability	sustainable tourism planning and management (Taplin, et al. 2014)	Specific objectives are prioritised in terms of implementation urgency. The planning document clearly assigns responsibility for key task implementation. The planning document contains a clearly articulated review and evaluation mechanism. The planning document estimates the resource costs of the recommended development strategy The planning document indicates specific methods by which the identified resource costs are to be allocated to development participants (Simpson, 2001).

			The time dimension of the planning process reflects a long-term orientation (Simpson, 2001; Ruhanen, 2004).
STRATEGIC INDICATOR OF DESTINATION PLANNING/ ENDORSEMENT OF A STRATEGIC APPROACH TO DESTINATION PLANNING	15. Tourism Policy Issues/Governance	a. Management	Management/operation (Xiao, 2006).
		b. Policy/planning/administration	Public access to sites, accommodation, transport (Martin and Assenov, 2014a, 2014b).
		c. Institutional arrangement	Policy decision-making, clear boundaries between government and private interest (Dredge and Jenkins, 2012).
		d. Analysis of the strategy	<p>The planning document includes broadly based goals related to the nature and scale of future tourism development.</p> <p>The planning document includes broadly based goals related to community values and lifestyle protection.</p> <p>The planning document includes broadly based goals which emphasise the local benefits of tourism development.</p> <p>The planning document identifies a range of alternative strategies by which broadly based goals may be achieved.</p> <p>The planning document evaluates each strategy option prior to determining a range of specific objectives.</p> <p>Specific objectives support previously established broad goals.</p> <p>Specific objectives selected are based on supply capability as opposed to market demand.</p> <p>Specific objectives selected are realistically achievable in the context of the current situation analysis.</p>

			Specific objectives for future tourism activity are quantified and readily measurable (Simpson, 2001; Ruhanen, 2004; Landorf, 2009).
	16. Tourism Infrastructure and Facilities	a. Accommodation (Griffin and Edwards, 2012)	Occupancy rate for official accommodations (Blancas <i>et al.</i> , 2010). Accommodation development (Kosmaczewska, Thomas and Dias, 2016).
		b. Transport	Quality of public transport (Blancas <i>et al.</i> , 2010; Frauman and Banks, 2011).
		c. Infrastructure	Variety of shopping facilities (Simão and Partidário, 2012).
			Policy take into account the relationship between transport and tourism (Weston and Davies, 2007).
	17. Strategic Approach	a. Competitiveness of destinations (Baidal, 2004)	
		b. Marketing	Tourism marketing strategies and preferences (Van Der Merwe and Van Niekerk, 2013). Strategy and planning for indigenous tourism sector. Involvement and participation in industry Market research (Whitford and Ruhanen, 2010).
		c. Destination planning	Tourism promotion budget (McCool, Moisey and Nickerson, 2001). Existence of sustainable tourism development plan (McCool, Moisey and Nickerson, 2001; Choi and Sirakaya, 2006).

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Appendix B: Questionnaire used for data collection Phase 1

Default Question Block

Assessment of Tourism Policy and Planning in Nigeria: A DELPHI Approach



This survey aims to assess the tourism policy and planning in Nigeria. The process requires the utilisation of experts' opinions (DELPHI) which have a sound understanding and planning process within the context of the tourism industry of Nigeria.

Please rate the following questions regarding their importance on a scale where 1 = Very Important and 5 = Very Unimportant. In addition the second section of the questionnaire asks for the performance of Nigeria's policy and planning strategy based on a scale where 1=Very High Performance and 5 = Very Low Performance. It will take about 1 hour to complete the questionnaire.

This survey is completely anonymous and your response will help in developing the contextual foundation on which a new strategy for the Nigerian Tourism Industry will be based.

A. ENVIRONMENTAL SITUATION ANALYSIS (MICRO AND MACRO)

i. Political

	IMPORTANCE						PERFORMANCE					
	Very Important	Important	Neither	Unimportant	Very Unimportant	Don't Know / NA	Very High	High	Neither	Low	Very Low	Don't Know / NA
1. Addressing safety and security issues at visitor sites and destinations	<input type="radio"/>											
2. Ensuring public and visitor confidence against crime at public places	<input type="radio"/>											
3. Policies for reducing crime rate at tourism sites	<input type="radio"/>											
4. Public image management of Nigeria as a destination that suffers from safety and security issues	<input type="radio"/>											
5. Tourism policy acknowledges the need to integrate local tourism strategies with national policies for tourism	<input type="radio"/>											

ii. Economic

	IMPORTANCE						PERFORMANCE					
	Very Important	Important	Neither	Unimportant	Very Unimportant	Don't Know / NA	Very High	High	Neither	Low	Very Low	Don't Know / NA
6. Employment creation ability of the tourism industry	<input type="radio"/>											
7. The contribution of tourism as a pillar of economic development compared to other sectors of the economy has been made explicit to all stakeholder groups by government authorities	<input type="radio"/>											
8. Adequacy of business skills possessed by local tourism industry operators	<input type="radio"/>											
9. Specification of goals for future tourism development in Nigeria	<input type="radio"/>											
10. Distribution of tourism's economic benefits throughout the local area	<input type="radio"/>											
11. Provision of opportunities and incentives for Indigenous crafts	<input type="radio"/>											
12. Provision of incentives to locals for business development opportunities	<input type="radio"/>											
13. Government policies and plans to reduce the effects of seasonality	<input type="radio"/>											
14. Level of foreign investment in tourism	<input type="radio"/>											

iii. Environmental/ Physical

	IMPORTANCE						PERFORMANCE					
	Very Important	Important	Neither	Unimportant	Very Unimportant	Don't Know / NA	Very High	High	Neither	Low	Very Low	Don't Know / NA
15. Effective policies for conservation and environmental protection	<input type="radio"/>											
16. Restoration and maintenance of attractions and cultural/heritage sites	<input type="radio"/>											
17. Incorporation of environmental criteria in tourism planning	<input type="radio"/>											
18. The authorities have measured the current environmental carrying capacity of tourism sites	<input type="radio"/>											
19. The resilience and/or fragility of the physical environmental biodiversity have been estimated and are being considered by government authorities	<input type="radio"/>											
20. Land use and ownership patterns are considered by government authorities when planning for tourism	<input type="radio"/>											

	IMPORTANCE						PERFORMANCE					Don't Know / NA
	Very Important	Important	Neither	Unimportant	Very Unimportant	Don't Know / NA	Very High	High	Neither	Low	Very Low	
21. Policies for the protection of renewable resource such as solar energy, timber	<input type="radio"/>											

i. Social

	IMPORTANCE						PERFORMANCE					Don't Know / NA
	Very Important	Important	Neither	Unimportant	Very Unimportant	Don't Know / NA	Very High	High	Neither	Low	Very Low	
22. Availability of funds for maintaining cultural sites and other attractions	<input type="radio"/>											
23. Loss of product/cultural authenticity through tourism comodification	<input type="radio"/>											
24. Improvement in quality of life through tourism	<input type="radio"/>											
25. Tourism development does not hinder continuance of traditional activities by local residents	<input type="radio"/>											
26. Tourism policy takes into consideration current population level and demographics for future planning	<input type="radio"/>											

ii. Technology

	IMPORTANCE						PERFORMANCE					Don't Know / NA
	Very Important	Important	Neither	Unimportant	Very Unimportant	Don't Know / NA	Very High	High	Neither	Low	Very Low	
27. Utilisation of Geographical Information System (GIS) technology in tourism planning and marketing	<input type="radio"/>											
28. The use of social media in promoting Nigeria as a tourism destination	<input type="radio"/>											
29. The use of social media in promoting local tourism business in Nigeria	<input type="radio"/>											

iii. Culture and Heritage

	IMPORTANCE						PERFORMANCE					Don't Know / NA
	Very Important	Important	Neither	Unimportant	Very Unimportant	Don't Know / NA	Very High	High	Neither	Low	Very Low	
30. Policies for the protection of natural and heritage sites from erosion	<input type="radio"/>											
31. Avoiding degradation of cultural/heritage resources in tourism development	<input type="radio"/>											

A. STAKEHOLDER PARTICIPATION

i. Local Community

	IMPORTANCE						PERFORMANCE					Don't Know / NA
	Very Important	Important	Neither	Unimportant	Very Unimportant	Don't Know / NA	Very High	High	Neither	Low	Very Low	
32. Assessment of the overall quality of life in the area	<input type="radio"/>											
33. A vision for the future which aligns with local community values, attitudes and lifestyles	<input type="radio"/>											
34. Level of local residents knowledge about the contribution of tourism to regional and national economy	<input type="radio"/>											
35. Number of local tour guides employed on site	<input type="radio"/>											
36. Involving non-tourism organisations in the planning process	<input type="radio"/>											
37. Involving of the LOCAL tourism organisations in the planning process	<input type="radio"/>											
38. Giving local communities' ideas priority over other stakeholders	<input type="radio"/>											

ii. Public-Private Collaboration

	IMPORTANCE						PERFORMANCE					Don't Know / NA
	Very Important	Important	Neither	Unimportant	Very Unimportant	Don't Know / NA	Very High	High	Neither	Low	Very Low	
39. Promoting public-private sector partnership	<input type="radio"/>											
40. Incorporation of (national, regional and local) governments suggestions/ideas/views in decision-making about tourism development strategy	<input type="radio"/>											
41. Involving of the relevant regional tourism organisation(s) in the planning process	<input type="radio"/>											
42. Involving of representatives from existing visitor groups in the planning process	<input type="radio"/>											
43. Development of tourist attractions as part of tourism integrated planning	<input type="radio"/>											
44. Promotion of cooperation and collaboration among stakeholder groups	<input type="radio"/>											

B. ENDORSEMENT OF A STRATEGIC APPROACH TO DESTINATION PLANNING

i. Tourism Policy/ Governance

	IMPORTANCE						PERFORMANCE					Don't Know / NA
	Very Important	Important	Neither	Unimportant	Very Unimportant	Don't Know / NA	Very High	High	Neither	Low	Very Low	

45. Management function of government in tourism operations	<input type="radio"/>											
46. The planning process has a long-term orientation	<input type="radio"/>											
47. Public access to attraction sites, accommodation, transport	<input type="radio"/>											
48. Specific tourism objectives selected are achievable in the context of the current situation analysis	<input type="radio"/>											
49. Specific objectives selected are based on supply capability as opposed to market demand	<input type="radio"/>											
50. Evaluating each strategy option prior to determining a range of specific objectives	<input type="radio"/>											
51. Specific objectives for future tourism activity have been quantified and readily measurable	<input type="radio"/>											
52. Maintaining databanks of tourism accounts for the Nigerian tourism industry	<input type="radio"/>											
53. Adoption of policies by the Nigerian government for promoting entrepreneurship in the tourism industry	<input type="radio"/>											
54. Availability of training/ educating/ mentoring programmes for tourism employees	<input type="radio"/>											
55. Experts' consultation involved in tourism development planning	<input type="radio"/>											
56. Degree of decentralisation of the tourism industry	<input type="radio"/>											

i. Strategic Approach

	IMPORTANCE						PERFORMANCE					
	Very Important	Important	Neither	Unimportant	Very Unimportant	Don't Know / NA	Very High	High	Neither	Low	Very Low	Do
57. Existence of a segmentation strategy for the Nigerian inbound market	<input type="radio"/>											
58. Existence of integrated marketing strategy for tourism development	<input type="radio"/>											
59. Policy take into account the relationship between transport and tourism	<input type="radio"/>											
60. Existence of strategy and planning for domestic tourism sector	<input type="radio"/>											
61. Existence of communications strategy using traditional mass media such as TV, radio, brochures, newspaper and magazines	<input type="radio"/>											
62. Existence of an issues/crisis management, public relations strategy (spokesperson, emergency plans)	<input type="radio"/>											
63. Coordinated and planned development of infrastructure and superstructure for aiding tourism development	<input type="radio"/>											

B. IMPLEMENTATION/MONITORING AND EVALUATION

i. Visitor Attitude

	IMPORTANCE						PERFORMANCE					
	Very Important	Important	Neither	Unimportant	Very Unimportant	Don't Know / NA	Very High	High	Neither	Low	Very Low	Do
64. Availability of education and training programmes for visitors on environmental protection, respect for local customs and traditions	<input type="radio"/>											
65. Visitor's opinion of destination features such as historical and cultural, scenic attractions hospitality of local people, rest/relaxation opportunities, shopping opportunities, suitable restaurants, entertainment, suitable accommodation	<input type="radio"/>											

ii. Sustainability

	IMPORTANCE						PERFORMANCE					
	Very Important	Important	Neither	Unimportant	Very Unimportant	Don't Know / NA	Very High	High	Neither	Low	Very Low	Do
66. Prioritising specific objectives in terms of implementation urgency (economic, environment, cultural)	<input type="radio"/>											
67. Tourism policy clearly assigns responsibility for key task implementation	<input type="radio"/>											
68. Development and promotion of special and mega events	<input type="radio"/>											
69. Policy estimates the resource costs of the recommended development strategy	<input type="radio"/>											
70. Policy indicates specific methods by which the identified resource costs are to be allocated to development participants	<input type="radio"/>											
71. Monitoring occupancy rate for accommodation establishments	<input type="radio"/>											
72. Provision of quality public transport	<input type="radio"/>											
73. Policy contains a clearly articulated review and evaluation mechanism	<input type="radio"/>											
74. Participation in international tourism and travel fairs and exhibitions for the promotion of Nigerian tourism industry	<input type="radio"/>											
75. Assessment and evaluation of host community attitudes and satisfactions towards tourism	<input type="radio"/>											

Appendix C: Exploratory local government/community interviews

Study Frame – The extent to which tourism policy and planning are organised around the local community concerns/participation

Date of interview:
Name:
Resident in Erin Ijesha/ Idanre/ Ikogosi
Age Group: 18-29; 30-39; 40-49; 50-59; 60+
Community representative and position held
Brief summary of your experience in tourism policy development, your responsibilities and experience of participation in tourism

Local governments role/ involvement in the institutional arrangement

1.
 - a) How are you or your LGA involved in the tourism institutional arrangement? Why? Role?
 - b) Does the institutional structure support community participation in tourism planning?
 - c) How is the tourism policy formulated at the national level being implemented at your level? Are they being implemented? If NO--- Where are the blockage?

Local community participation/empowerment

2.
 - d) Are the local communities central or peripheral (marginal) in the tourism policy and planning?
 - e) Is the community supported with material assistance to participate i.e. resources/skills given?
 - f) How do you feel about the tourism development in your community/ LGA in general?
3.
 - g) How did/have you been involved in tourism planning or development project? Why? How?
 - h) Do you feel you are empowered in tourism development (Social? Economic? and Politically?)
 - i) How has tourism improved things for your community? Who benefits from tourism development: Tell me an incident when you think your community benefited from tourism? Is this regular/continuous?
4.
 - j) How is your community represented/being consulted in tourism policy decision-making processes?

Are the relevant community groups involved?

- k) *Level of involvement of local community participation experienced/ wanted by them/ Are you encouraged by the government and private institutions? Where is, by whom and how are decisions actually made? How transparent do you think the decision-making processes are?*

Views on opportunities created for the community to participate in governance

5.

- a) **Who is** involved in such participation?
- b) **Methods of** participation?
- c) **Reasons/ objectives** for participation?
- d) *How do you think community participation could be better accomplished/improved than at present?
What strategies are needed?*
- e) *What do you understand by the notion of community participation in tourism?
Respondent's interpretation of 'community participation'?*

6.

- f) *Views on institutions: Does your opinion matter in tourism planning and development?
How is community involvement encouraged? Which institutions are involved?*
- g) *What hinders/ enables community members from participating in tourism planning?*

Close

1. *Equity: Are the decisions being reached balanced – does it consider the opinion of people at every level?*
2. *What are the difficulties/ hindrances in participating in tourism development/ planning? Way out to overcome/ What opportunities exists? How can opportunities be enhanced?*
3. *Are the local communities capable of participating?*
4. *Local people's perceptions over a variety of ways of involving the local community in tourism, and indicate the ways that local people consider to be suitable for involving them in tourism development. (Links to Chambers points)*
5. *Transparency: Do you think the process transparent*

Close

Appendix D: Exploratory private stakeholders' interviews (Commercial representative)

Study Frame – Governance (tourism policy and plan)- Participation in decision-making

Date of interview:
Name:
Education: Employment background:
Managers, Employees, Airlines, Academics, Attractions, Hotels, Tour operators, FTAN
Age Group: 18-29; 30-39; 40-49; 50-59; 60+

Views on opportunities created for the the private sector and community to participate in governance

1.
 - a) Could you walk me through what your relationship with the public sector is like (NTDC, Fed. Min)? Community?
 - b) Equity: How is equity ensured in tourism policy formulation. i.e. balancing the differences of all stakeholders in decision-making? Is tourism governance centralised or decentralised?
2.
 - a) What is your view on **community participation** in tourism governance?
 - b) What could be an enabler or perceived barriers to participation?
How can community participation be accomplished/ improved upon?
 - c) Are the concerns of the private sector being represented in the formulation of tourism policy and planning?
Community?
 - d) How does the private sector interact with other stakeholder public and community in tourism governance?
3.
 - e) Are the structures of policy making conducive to good policy/community participation?
 - f) What can make tourism policy planning and implementation work?
4.
 - g) Could you describe the institutional arrangement in tourism planning?
 - h) How can the bottom-up/ grassroot approach contribute to tourism planning/policy formulation and implementation?
Close

Appendix E: Exploratory public stakeholders' interviews (Government representative)

Study Frame – Governance (tourism policy and plan)- Participation in decision-making

Date of interview:
Name:
Education: Employment background: .
Institutions: State Ministries/ NTDC/ FMCT
Age Group: 18-29; 30-39; 40-49; 50-59; 60+
Interrogate what exactly they do in tourism governance and why?
Give a summary of your experience in tourism governance- involvement with other institutions Aim and brief history of your institution

1. a. What's your institutional structure like – Linkage between the federal, state, NTDC -political context how do you interact?
b. Is it centralised/decentralised? Bottom-up/ Top-down? Evidence-Booklet/Diagram of structure/IA?
2. a. Can you take me through what you do as a body in coordinating tourism governance in your state/region? In NTDC? In FMCT?
b. Are you walking with the Nigeria Tourism Plan?
c. If No, where is the blockage?
d. What can make tourism policy implementation work better? What role can Bottom-up or community participation play?
3. a. How are tourism policy decisions being made? what is happening with the current NTDMMP
b. As an institution, what does community participation mean for you? Your objectives (Vision/ policy example of copies?)- Do you target the local community or LGAs in decision-making?
c. To what extent is there coordination in tourism policy formulation between the different levels and institutions i.e. local, state, region, federal NTDC, FMCT? Private institutions? Community?
d. Participation- What partnerships/linkage exists between you and other institutions? Who are they? (Community/ Private?)
4. a. Do you involve the local community in your plans –Example of community participation you've engaged with–key events; rationale; context?
b. To achieve community participation in governance who do you liaise with? why and how?
c. How do you get local community members to get involved (Is this usually active or passive?)
5. a. As a stakeholder in the industry what are your specific needs/concern? How is your organisation being supported?
b. How is equity/balance being achieved in tourism governance?
c. What challenges do you encounter as an institution in participatory planning processes that requires community engagement?
d. How can they be improved in your view? What actions are needed?
5. a. How can the challenges be improved? What are the actions needed?
b. In your opinion how does governance structure impact on the mechanism by which tourism policy is implemented
6. a. Does the institutional structure support community participation in tourism development?
b. How can the bottom-up approach contribute to tourism planning and policy formulation and implementation?
7. a. In your opinion how can tourism governance be improved?
b. Do you have support from the local communities? Do you think the decision makers have legitimacy in the eyes of the community?

Close

Appendix F: Ethical compliance approval Phase 1



21 June 2016

Ref: 16/SAS/290C

Ms Adenike Adebayo
c/o School of Human and Life Sciences
Faculty of Social and Applied Sciences

Dear Adenike

Confirmation of ethics compliance for your study “A smart approach to tourism planning and governance: a case study of the Nigerian tourism industry.”

I have received your Ethics Review Checklist and appropriate supporting documentation for proportionate review of the above project. Your application complies fully with the requirements for proportionate ethical review as set out in this University’s Research Ethics and Governance Procedures.

In confirming compliance for your study, I must remind you that it is your responsibility to follow, as appropriate, the policies and procedures set out in the *Research Governance Handbook* (<http://www.canterbury.ac.uk/centres/red/ethics-governance/governance-and-ethics.asp>) and any relevant academic or professional guidelines. This includes providing, if appropriate, information sheets and consent forms, and ensuring confidentiality in the storage and use of data. Any significant change in the question, design or conduct of the study over its course should be notified to the **Research Office**, and may require a new application for ethics approval. It is a condition of compliance that you **must** inform me once your research has been completed.

Wishing you every success with your research.

Yours sincerely

A handwritten signature in black ink that reads "Roger Bone".

Roger Bone
Research Governance Manager
Tel: +44 (0)1227 782940 ext 3272 (enter at prompt)
Email: roger.bone@canterbury.ac.uk

cc: Dr Jim Butcher

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Professor Rama Thirunamachandran, Vice Chancellor and Principa

Appendix G: Ethical compliance approval Phase 2



8th August 2017

Ref: 16/SAS/396C

Adenike Dorcas Adebayo
c/o School of Human and Life Sciences
Faculty of Social & Applied Sciences

Dear Adenike

Confirmation of ethics compliance for your study “*Tourism Governance and community participation: A Case Study of the Nigerian Tourism Industry*”

I have received your Ethics Review Checklist and appropriate supporting documentation for proportionate review of the above project. Your application complies fully with the requirements for proportionate ethical review as set out in this University’s Research Ethics and Governance Procedures.

In confirming compliance for your study, I must remind you that it is your responsibility to follow, as appropriate, the policies and procedures set out in the *Research Governance Framework* (<http://www.canterbury.ac.uk/research-and-consultancy/governance-and-ethics/governance-and-ethics.aspx>) and any relevant academic or professional guidelines. This includes providing, if appropriate, information sheets and consent forms, and ensuring confidentiality in the storage and use of data. Any significant change in the question, design or conduct of the study over its course should be notified via email to red.resgov@canterbury.ac.uk and may require a new application for ethics approval. It is a condition of compliance that you **must** inform me once your research has been completed.

Wishing you every success with your research.

Yours sincerely

Carol Clewlow

Carol Clewlow
RKE Co-Ordinator
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