

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

This chapter deals with the background of the study, statement of the problem, research questions, objectives of the study, justification of the study, delimitation and scope of the study, clarification of terms, limitations of the study, method of research, population of the study, sampling technique, instrument for data collection, validity test of the instrument, reliability test of the instrument and data analysis technique.

1.1 Background of the Study

Tourism has become one of the most striking growth industries of our time. It has been defined by different people in different ways before the World Tourism Organization (WTO) in 1991 came up with a definition adopted by the United Nations Statistical Commission (UNSTAT) that was generally accepted as “activities of persons travelling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes” (WTO, 1995).

Tourism is universally acknowledged as a veritable foreign exchange earner and saver, a catalyst for distribution of wealth and development and virile labour intensive industry (Sheriff, 2005). Tourism as a sector has supported significantly the economic and social development of countries where people are more inclined to travel. Sheriff (2005) stated that tourism provides unequalled chances of self-fulfilment and improvement in the standard of living of not only those directly involved, but also of the population in general through its multiplier effect. The sector is credited for being a viable tool for socio-political, integration, educational

enhancement, cultural preservation and environmental protection. The channels through which tourism stimulate the world economy are numerous, such as employment generation, foreign exchange earnings, stimulation of infrastructural investment, contributions to local economies, contribution to government revenues etc. As a labour intensive industry, its employment generating capacity is second to none. Travel and Tourism has been seen as the world's largest industry and a major contributor to global economic development

The economic benefits of tourism, however real and significant they may be, do not constitute the only criteria for a state to encourage tourism. The opportunity for a citizen to know his own environment, a deeper awareness of national identity, and a sense of belonging to a culture, are all major reasons for stimulating domestic and international tourism (Holloway, 2006). Despite the cost implications of providing tourism, the benefits derivable cannot be overemphasized both at the national and global levels. According to World Tourism Organization (1997), tourism is the world's largest creator of jobs in most countries providing employment for over one hundred million people world-wide. WTO sees tourism as a significant economic contributor to a nation's Gross National Product (GNP) since international visitors are available source of tourism and its contributions to a nation's and world's economy has made it to have wide range of product markets available in the future. Cooper et al, (2005) designed such tourism product markets to be available with the future as culinary and wine tourism, education tourism, health and spa tourism (preventive health and beauty treatments), dark tourism (such as battle grounds, scenes of horrific crimes or acts of genocide etc), space tourism etc. These future tourism product markets in addition to existing product markets such as coastal tourism, rural tourism, eco-tourism and cultural heritage tourism have diversified the global tourism market.

Despite the diversification of the global tourism market and the growing importance of special interest forms of tourism, coastal tourism is still a dormant segment in terms of number of tourists. Coastal areas are transitional areas between the land and the sea characterized by a very high biodiversity and they include some of the richest and most fragile ecosystems on earth, like mangroves and coral reefs. Among all the different parts of the planet, coastal areas are those which are most visited by tourists and in many coastal areas, tourism presents the most important economic activity (“sustainable tourism”, n.d). Coastal and island destinations experience an increasing pressure on their natural and cultural resources due to the increasing demands of tourist activities that are highly concentrated in time and space (seasonality, infrastructure and tourism operations in a narrow coastal zone) (UNWTO, 2008). Coastal areas are often the environments to experience the detrimental impact of tourism.

The natural beauty of the African coastal landscape, and the rich flora and fauna they support, in combination with the favourable climatic conditions, has increased the province of coastal tourism in the region. Coastal tourism is often considered as an environmentally friendly alternative to more exploitative and diverse livelihood option with the added potential to benefit environmental protection, (“sustainable coastal tourism in Africa” n.d). A wider beach can reduce storm damage to coastal structures by dissipating energy across the surf zone protecting unplanned structures and infrastructures from some surges, tsunamis and usually high tides (“problems of sustainable coastal tourism”, n.d).

The main tourism related environmental threats to the resources of the beach and the sea come from congestion, pollution and forces resulting in beach loss. Beaches have different qualities at different times of the year depending on the exposure to waves,

coastal type, littoral drift and human interference. Land development adjacent to the beach is the largest threat to beach stability as beaches need room to move. If beaches are not given adequate room to move, erosion and property damage occur. Beaches protected by coral reefs are usually the best place for development in the tropics as reefs produce sand buffer against waves, making the beach more stable (“coral reefs”, n.d). Coral reefs are valuable tourism assets. They produce millions of dollars of foreign currency annually and is a popular attraction to many when choosing a vacation destination. Healthy coral reefs provide habitat and feeding areas for many finfish and shellfish species, provide protection against wave action and storms and supply nutrients to nearby economically important fish stocks. In Britain it has been estimated that waterways receive over 10 million visitors a year, spending £1.5 billion and supporting 54,000 jobs. Visitors include 2 million power boats, 1.5 billion unpowered boats and 2.6 million anglers.

Nigeria has been described as a country richly endowed with natural resources of enormous tourism potential which if fully harnessed are capable of becoming the country’s major alternative revenue source. Among the attractions are physical environment, climate, vegetation zones, ecological habitats, wide range of cultural and historical resources - National Parks and Games reserves such as Cross River National Park, *Kainji* National Park, *Yankari* Games reserve, *Jos* Wildlife Park; *Obudu* Cattle Ranch, *Tinapa* project, popular *Wikki* Warm Spring National Museums, National Arts Theatre, Iganmu, Argungu Fishing and cultural Festival in Kebbi State, *Oshobo* festivals, boat Regattas in Niger State, Palm Beach Tourist Village, *Awomama*, *Azumiri-Akwete* Blue River, hotels, beaches and holiday resorts which include the Bar Beach, *Lekki* beach, *Eleko* beach, *Tarkway* Bay beach, *Kuramo* beach, *Akodo* beach, Coconut beach, Lagos, biodiversity, flora and fauna etc. These

diverse attractions have placed Nigeria as one of the richest nations on earth in terms of tourism potential. These have made Nigeria a viable place for the development of tourism locally and internationally. Meanwhile, most of Nigeria's beautiful beaches locations are still largely without accommodation facilities which are targets for investors in most tourism destinations across the globe. Nigerian has over 700km of unpolluted sandy beaches ("Beach and Coastal Resort Development", n.d).

Rivers State, which is the focus of the study, is endowed with abundant tourism potentials particularly coastal resources that need to be harnessed. It has a diverse and rich culture with a landscape defined by interconnecting creeks and rivers, rich gas and natural resources, and therefore a destination for all visiting Nigeria. Rivers State is one of the 36 states of Nigeria, and it is located in the Niger Delta area of the South-South geopolitical zone. Mangroves are abundant in the state. Rivers State has intrinsic attractions of coastal areas for growing populations, rich biodiversity and marine fisheries and extensive coastal and off-shore oil and gas fields as key assets with potential for boosting economic development and alleviating poverty.

Rivers State is a home to a variety of ethnic groups and cultures including *Abua, Andoni, Ekpeye, Engenni, Etche, Ikwere, Kalabari, Ijaw Ogba/Egbema/Ndoni, Okirika, Ogun* and *Ihari*. The inland part of Rivers State consists of tropical rainforest; towards the coast the typical Niger Delta environment features with many mangrove swamps. Rivers State, named after the many rivers that border its territory, has its capital in Port Harcourt which is the nerve centre of the famous Nigeria oil industry with over ninety industrial concerns, including the Shell Petroleum Development Company of Nigeria Limited, AGIP, Texaco, Elf, NNPC, Michelin, West African Glass Industry, Alcan, Aluminium, Metaloplastica, *Risonpalm*, NAFCON, *Pabod*, Breweries etc.

Due to its beautiful layout and peculiar topography, Port Harcourt, is called the Garden City, accessible by road, rail, air, and sea. Apart from being a railway terminus and having one of the busiest airports in Nigeria, Port Harcourt has a unique natural advantage of being the nation's second largest sea port with another sea port, the ocean Terminal at *Onne*. Other unique attractions which can be the basis of a flourishing tourism industry include Isaac *Boro* Park Port Harcourt, monument of King Jaja of *Opobo*, *Okirika* Aquatic Stadium, *Ifoko* beach, *Ifoko*, Port Harcourt tourist beach, State Museum and State cultural centre.

As tourism industry is known to make most glaring impact on the world economy by supporting significantly the development of many countries through income and employment generation, improvement of infrastructure, development of rural areas, encouragement of entrepreneurial activities, building bridges between social and cultural groups, promoting understanding and healthy relationship between the tourists and the locals, serious attention should be paid to its development. Positive contribution must be made by both the private sectors and the governments to exploit the tourism potentials of Rivers State. The state can be a tourist destination of international standard that will command tourist magnates in the world if concerted and frantic efforts are made to exploit wisely these potentials for tourism development. The state will become a centre of attraction for tourists. Rural-urban migration will be a thing of the past, employment opportunities will be generated for the locals who are jobless and there will be no more over dependence on petroleum industry while restiveness and militancy due to unemployment will be a history in the state. It is against this background, that this study investigates the challenges and prospects of coastal tourism development in Rivers State. The aim is to examine the challenges, prospects and ways of developing tourism resources around coastal areas

of Rivers State in order to derive tourism benefits while preserving and conserving fragile tourism resources for both the present and future generations.

1.2 Statement of Problem

Coastal tourism and recreation are important parts of the largest and most rapidly growing activity in the world. According to the United Nations (UN) 60% of the world's population live within 60km of the coast and 80% of all tourism takes place in coastal areas. Incidentally, Rivers State has a landscape defined by interconnecting coastal Creeks, lagoon zones and rivers. The name "Rivers State" was derived from the many rivers that border its territory. Some of the rivers include; Inter-woba river, Gokana river, Onne river, Kwa Ibo river, *Urashi* river, *Aba* River, Bonny river, Imo river, Old *Calabar* river etc. It is bordered by the Atlantic Ocean at the South.

Despite the tourism potentials that abound in the state, due attention has not been given to tourism development when compared with Asia, North America, Central Africa, East Africa, North Africa and other parts of the world where coastal tourism has flourished. Forests around the coasts in Rivers State have been cleared for fire wood, building materials, construction and export. Coasts and waters are polluted due to oil spills resulting from burst oil pipelines operational discharges, vandalism as well as pesticides, and fertilizers for agriculture. Air pollution due to gas flaring and fumes from automobile, ship, and flying boats, industries etc. are serious threat in the state.

There is also noise pollution from cars, buses, air planes, boats, power generating plants and motor bikes in *Onne*, Port Harcourt etc. Waste water and exhausts from some of these sources have polluted seas, rivers and lakes damaging flora and fauna. Sewage runoff has caused serious damage to coral reefs at sea shore in *Andoni*,

Gokana, etc., thereby stimulating the growth of algae causing hypoxia (low oxygen). People living around the river banks and passengers travelling by sea have degraded the physical appearance of the water and shoreline with solid wastes, littering and human excreta in places like *Inter-woba*, Port Harcourt water side around Creek Road, *Borokiri*, *Khana/Kono*, *Gokana*, etc. There is deposit of sediments caused by absence of strong currents because of the small differential between high and low tides. Sand mining at the beaches in *Agbonichia-Eleme*, *Khana*, *Andoni*, *Gokana*, Port Harcourt, etc., in the state has led to coastal erosion. Local people have been disturbed and the landscape of *Okrika*, *Diobu*, *Olobiri*, *Rumomasi*, etc., has changed due to construction of buildings, infrastructure and facilities. Diverse animal, fish and plant species which are native to the area are now threatened with extinction due to very serious ecological degradation and pollution caused by over forty-five years crude oil exploration in the state.

More so, dry land is created in fresh water and brackish water eco-zones due to reclamation for urban expansion in *Eleme*, Port Harcourt, and *Ikwere*. The presence of brackish water eco-zones are impossible to live in while the level of biodiversity is reduced due to loss of mangrove habitat as a result of reclamation. The state is also vulnerable to terrorism because of militancy and restiveness by the youths against the expatriates. For this reason, militancy in the state has placed the safety and security of tourists in doubt for fear of being killed or abducted.

It is the recognition of the contribution of tourism to the national economy and the problems challenging the development and efficient use of tourism resources around coastal areas despite the prospects of coastal tourism globally that aroused the researcher's interest to delve into researching on coastal tourism and development in Rivers State. Hence, the question is, 'How can coastal tourism potentials in Rivers

State be harnessed to develop the state into tourist destination magnet of international standard?

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The general objective is to examine the challenges and prospects of harnessing coastal tourism potentials in Rivers State in order to develop the State into Tourist destination magnet. The specific objectives were to;

1. examine various tourism resources (natural, cultural, man-made) in the coastal areas of Rivers State.
2. explore the measures taken so far towards the protection, preservation and development of the tourism attractions in the state.
3. examine the challenges of coastal tourism development in the state.
4. evaluate the prospects of coastal tourism development in Rivers State and make recommendations based on the findings of the study.

1.4 Justification of the Study

There are wide ranges of benefits derivable from the study. However, for the purpose of this study, the benefit shall be divided into theoretical significance and practical significance.

- **Theoretical significance:** The study will be making vital contribution to broaden knowledge on coastal tourism. It will provide foundation and avenue to create theoretical base and right focus for other researchers who will work on the same or similar subject matter.

The study will be a source of information for other researchers. As future researchers review this work, it will arm them with appropriate tools to

develop and sharpen their hypotheses and research questions in course of their study.

In addition to that, the study will make contribution to knowledge advancement by bridging a knowledge gap between the past and future. Since we live in an age of rapid knowledge advancement, the study will do much to advance our understanding of coastal tourism.

- Practical significance: The findings of the study will equip the government in policy formulation in the areas of environmental protection and conservation, tourism planning and development, land use planning and development, environmental degradation, etc.

The natural beauty of coastal landscapes of Rivers State has been characterized by high biodiversity, rich in fauna and flora. These include some of the richest and most fragile ecosystems like mangrove and coral reefs, favourable climatic conditions and other potentials for eco-tourism, cultural and historical tourism attractions, which if properly harnessed will attract both local and international tourists to the state. The host communities will benefit from the study if the coastal areas of the state are developed for tourism. The development of coastal areas for tourism will add vitality to the communities by refreshing, resuscitating and developing events, festivals, culture and traditional arts and crafts of the communities in response to tourist interests. It will not only preserve events, culture and tradition, but also natural resources within the communities. The development of the coastal areas for tourism will also create job within the host communities, and this will subsequently reduce emigration from rural areas.

The business community and expatriates within Port Harcourt and its environs like Owerri, Uyo, Calabar, Umuahia, Aba, Enugu, Warri, Onitsha, Benin, Lagos, etc will find the coastal areas of Rivers State suitable for relaxation if developed for tourism.

Tourists will indirectly derive many benefits from the study through the implementation of the research recommendations. Hence, the development of coastal areas for tourism will offer tourists the opportunity to enjoy unspoiled nature and landscapes, environmental quality of goods or services (i.e. clean air and water), a healthy community with low crime rate, thriving and authentic local culture and tradition.

Coastal areas of Rivers State if developed for tourism sequel to recommendations of the study will bring immense contributions to the government revenue. The contributions are generated directly by taxes on incomes from tourism employment, tourism business and by direct charges on tourists. There will also be indirect contributions derivable by government from taxes and duties on goods and services supplied to tourists such as taxes on souvenirs, alcohol, restaurants, etc. Also, it will be a source of foreign exchange earnings for the country since coastal areas are those which are most visited by tourists and in many coastal areas tourism presents the most important economic activity. In the Mediterranean region, for example, tourism is the first economic activity for Islands like Cyprus, Malta, the Balearic Island and Sicily (“sustainable tourism”, n.d).

The general public will indirectly benefit from the study if the resources around the coastal areas of Rivers State are well harnessed, as it will become a force for peace. Travelling brings people into contact with each other and provides cultural exchange between guests and hosts. This will increase the chances of local people and visitors

to develop mutual sympathy, tolerance and understanding and to reduce prejudices and promote the sense of global brotherhood thereby bringing lasting solution to militancy in Rivers State.

The study will be beneficial to investors on business organizations such as resorts, hotels, transport companies, tour operators and other agencies relevant in boosting tourism by creating business opportunities for them to earn return on their investments while providing employment opportunities for job seekers.

1.5 Scope of the Study

The content coverage of the study includes conceptual literature, the theories and models relevant to the study and the review of related empirical studies. The study will also cover challenges of coastal tourism development, namely; environmental, socio-cultural, climate change, and biodiversity; tourism stakeholder (actors) participation in tourism and development planning, tourism development planning process, ethical issues in tourism development, and planning and development policy. Other aspects to be covered are strategies for developing and managing coastal tourism, as well as prospects in Nigeria.

The geographical areas to cover in the study include; Bonny, Port Harcourt, and Opobo. The three sites to cover are the three Local Government Areas which were randomly selected from the twelve Local Government Areas that have similar ecological characteristics within the coast and occupy the land close to the sea within 60km radius from the coast. These three sites were purposively selected to accomplish the aim of the study.

1.6 Clarification of Terms

Hypoxia: A concentration of less than 2 -3 milligrams of oxygen per litre of water (mg/l). i.e. low oxygen. This happens when waste water has polluted the seas and lakes surrounding tourist attractions, damaging flora and fauna thereby stimulating the growth of algae.

Dune: A hill of sand built by wind. Dune is a habitat for highly specialized plants and animals including numerous rare species and some endangered species.

Coastal area: The land and sea areas bordering the shoreline. Coastal areas are the transitional areas between the land and sea characterized by a very high biodiversity and they include some of the richest and most fragile ecosystems on earth; like mangrove and coral reefs.

Homestay: A suitable small-scale tourist accommodation form for the local community to participate in tourism. Home stays are locally owned and operated by the local residents. Home stays are popular in China, Indonesia, India, etc.

Estuaries: These are partially enclosed bodies of water directly connected to the ocean. Within an estuary, salt water mixes with fresh water from runoff or from rivers. Estuaries are rich in nutrients due to mixing of fresh and salt waters. The nutrients attract fish and other organisms, making estuaries highly productive.

Mangroves: These are communities of salt-tolerant woody plants that occur primarily along more sheltered coastal areas, especially along embayment or within estuaries or lagoons. Mangroves trap and retain sediment, absorb coastal storm and wave energy, provide shelter for juvenile fish and invertebrates and assimilate nutrients to convert to plant tissue, which is broken down and circulated into coastal

waters. Removal of mangroves will result in decreased water quality and species diversity and thus decreased wildlife for nature viewing and educational activities of tourism.

Tides: These are constant force in coastal waters and must be considered when planning a coastal development. Tides vary according to geographical location and may occur twice daily or once daily. The difference between high and low tides along with slope of the beach will determine the amount of beach that is available for sunbathing.

Condo/condominium: An apartment building in which each flat/apartment is owned by the person living in it but the building and shared areas are owned together.

Lagoon: A shallow body of water separated permanently from a larger body of water (ocean) or separated during part of the year by barrier Island or reefs. Lagoons are common coastal features around the world. While estuary receives regular flow of fresh water; lagoon receives little or no fresh water and little or no tidal flow.

Biodiversity: This refers to all the different species of plant and animal found in an environment. Each plant or animal specie is an important component of the diverse body, making up the renewable resources, such as land, soil, water, forests, grass and other vegetation, fish and wildlife, rock and mineral, solar and other forms of energy.

1.7 Limitations of the Study

In course of the study, the researcher has been faced with many challenges which have affected the progress of the study. Among the problems encountered include:

- **Access to information:** The researcher did not find it easy to lay hands on the related and relevant materials due to the fact that the area of study is relatively

new in Nigeria. The researcher used more of internet materials than books and journals. The reason for over use of internet materials is because many studies have not been done in this area of study especially in Nigeria.

Some of the respondents did not give full co-operation to enable the researcher collect all the data needed. For instance, the researcher was not allowed to take the photograph of Port-Harcourt Tourist Beach, sacred places (*Amadioha*, *Shimingi* and *Mkpa*) and the informants.

The researcher also encountered little in communication. Few of the respondents could not communicate effectively with English Language or 'Pidgin English' in some rural areas such as *Epelema* and *Akiama* communities in Bonny study area and *Kalasanji* and *Kalibiama* in *Opobo* study area. However, the researcher overcame this by hiring the services of interpreters who helped the researcher in translation.

- **Time:** Time factor was another constraint that confronted this study. It was not easy for the researcher to combine the study with office work, family responsibility, church work and other social engagement.
- **Distance:** It was a serious challenge for the researcher to move from his place of work (*Abia* State) to his study area (*Rivers* State) and to the University of Nigeria, *Nsukka* (*Enugu* State). This required ample time to cover all these distances several times to make study a success.
- **Finance:** The researcher faced financial constraints in course of the study. A study of this nature requires much fund to cover so many activities in order to accomplish it. These costs incurred include; school fees, transportation, accommodation, internet materials, journals, books, typing, photocopying, gift items, to some of the respondents, telephone charges, laptop, fees for

laboratory analysis, research assistant fees, entertainment, etc. Though, the researcher received grant through ETF, but this was not enough to take care of the financial involvement in the study because the study was cost-intensive. In spite of these challenges encountered, the researcher through the grace of God was able to overcome to bring the study to a successful completion.

1.8 Method of Research

For the purpose of the study, both qualitative and quantitative techniques of research were employed. The researcher started by explaining the design, the population and the sample size, sampling techniques, instruments, validity and reliability of the instruments, and method of data analysis.

1.8.1 Population of the Study

The population consisted of the sum of the population estimates of the local residents of the three selected sites hosting coastal tourism potentials. The selected sites comprised the following Local Government Areas; Bonny, Port Harcourt and *Opobo*. These three Local Government Areas were purposively selected from the 12 Local Government Areas of Rivers State located within 60km radius of the coast which include *Asari-Toru*, *Akuku-Toru*, *Opobo*, *Khana*, Port Harcourt, *Eleme*, *Degema*, *Gokana*, *Abua/Odoua*, *Okrika*, Bonny and *Andoni*. The estimated total population of the Local Government Areas under study is 1,067,481. This figure was arrived at using 2006 population census figure and extrapolating it up to 2013 using the estimate growth rate of 2.5%.

Therefore, the sample size of the population was 400 statistically determined using Taro Yamane formula as shown below. The choice of these selected areas was due to their homogenous ecological characteristics. The communities occupy the land close

to the Atlantic Ocean. The sample size of the local residents of the host communities was statistically determined using Taro Yamane formula thus;

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + N(e)^2}$$

Where,

n = The sample size

N = The finite population

e = Level of significance (i.e. limits of tolerable error)

1 = Unity (a constant)

1.8.2 Sampling Technique

In the quantitative technique of data collection, the researcher employed interviewer-completed questionnaire approach. The essence is to ensure a more accurate and complete response. Two research assistants were trained, used and monitored to achieve the research purpose. The 400 copies of the questionnaire were distributed as follows; 67 (17%) copies were administered in *Opobo*; 238 (59%) copies were distributed in Port Harcourt and 95 (24%) copies were administered in Bonny. The table 1.1 below shows the questionnaire distribution.

Table 1.1: Questionnaire Distribution

Local Government Area	Population	Sample Size	Percentage (%) Distribution
Opobo	178,025	67	17
Port Harcourt	635,810	238	59
Bonny	253,046	95	24
Total	1,066,881	400	100

In the communities hosting coastal tourism potentials in the selected sites, sampling for household survey approach was adopted. Purposive and random sampling technique was equally employed to select the sample size of the local residents of the host communities, and only adults (18 years and above) who were residents in the communities for at least one year were selected to complete the questionnaire. However, not all the adults were given the opportunity to complete the questionnaire. Only one adult resident in every fifth house passed by the interviewer in each street of the host communities of the selected sites were asked to complete the questionnaire to determine their perception towards development of sites.

Criterion sampling technique was employed to select the respondents to be interviewed from the three selected sites under study on the potentials, prospects, challenges, protection, and development of potentials. For the local respondents that will be interviewed to qualify for selection, he or she must be a community leader, head, titled fellow or office holder.

Again, the researcher collected three water samples and three soil samples with separate containers from the three study sites (locations) for laboratory analysis. In addition to that, a control soil sample was collected with a sterilized plastic container. The control sample was used for comparison with the result of the other three soil samples to find out if there was any significant difference in quality between the control soil sample and each of the three soil samples from the selected sites under study. The control sample was collected by the researcher from any area of his choice from outside the study area. This was used to determine if the quality of the soil was good enough to build tourism facilities, plant flowers for beauty, grass for soil cover and trees for wind-break and shade. The three soil samples were collected with three sterilized plastic containers with covers and sterilized trowel. Similarly, three water

samples were collected with three empty Eva water plastic containers with a capacity of 25cl from the rivers where the residents of the communities fetch water.

1.8.3 Instrument for Data Collection

The study employed both qualitative and quantitative techniques of data collection. The instruments used in the study include; structured questionnaire, interview checklist/schedule and digital camera.

Questionnaire: A well structured questionnaire that was pre- tested for face validity, content validity and reliability was used to execute the study. The instrument was used to elicit information from the respondents to determine their perception towards development of sites for tourism in Rivers State.

In-depth interview:

In-depth interview was equally used to collect data in this study. The in-depth interview was aimed at identifying the coastal tourism potentials in Rivers State and to ascertain actions taken so far to protect, preserve and develop coastal tourism in the state. The in-depth interview was guided by interview guide/ schedules. The researcher extracted information from key office holders, community leaders, heads or titled fellows in the communities hosting coastal tourism potentials with the aid of research assistant.

Digital camera for visual field observation: This is another instrument employed in the study. Field observation was embarked upon in the study to carry out physical assessment of the environmental features of the sites to identify tourism potentials that can be harnessed for coastal tourism development. The researcher employed the

services of a research assistant. Photographs of tourism potentials were taken with digital camera as an adjunct to direct observation.

Documentary Technique/Strategy: This is a very useful data collection method that was incorporated in the study by the researcher. The study reviewed and analyzed all documentary materials found in text form, both finished and on-going documents regarding tourism and coastal areas of Rivers State, such as brochures, maps, population, environmental policy, land related legislation, etc.

Equipment/Tools for Collection of Samples:

The tools used include a sterilized trowel, three sterilized empty Eva water plastic containers and four sterilized plastic containers with covers for soil samples. One of the four plastic containers for soil samples was used for control sample.

1.8.4 Validity Test of the Instrument

The researcher sent the questionnaire and the interview guide to three experts in tourism to judge at the face value the appropriateness of the measuring instruments (interview guide and questionnaire) – face validity. These three experts were sourced from Archaeology and Tourism Department, University of Nigeria *Nsukka*, and Hotel Management and Tourism Department, Michael *Okpara* University of Agriculture, *Umudike*. This enabled the researcher to ascertain if the measuring instruments were suitable for measuring the features or qualities to be measured.

Also, the researcher tested the instruments for content validity. To do this, the researcher sent the instruments to five experts in tourism to validate the instrument. These five experts were drawn two from the University of Nigeria, *Nsukka*; two from Michael *Okpara* University of Agriculture, *Umudike*; and one from Imo State

University, *Owerri*. The researcher made available the research questions for them. The researcher asked them to check if the instruments (interview- guide, and questionnaire) contained all the aspects of the subject that should be included in them.

Pilot Test of the Questionnaire:

After this, the researcher carried a pilot test at the study area by selecting sample group of 15 persons. Thereafter, he administered 15 copies of the questionnaire to them; and then collected, evaluated and compared if their responses corresponded with the ideal responses expected. It was found to be 98 % corresponding with the ideal responses expected.

1.8.5 Reliability Test of the Instrument:

For the reliability test, the researcher and the research assistant administered ten copies of the validated questionnaire to a group of five interviewees. Here, the researcher distributed five of the ten copies to the group at one time and his research assistant administered the second five copies of the questionnaire to the same group at another time after one day interval. Thereafter, the researcher collected and compared the individual scores of the first test (first five copies) with the scores of the second test (second five copies) to measure if there would be no variation (repeat the same answers) in the responses of these people to the instrument in order to ascertain the reliability of the instrument. It was discovered to be 100% reliable as the same answers were repeated without variation.

1.8.6 Data analysis technique:

In order to answer research questions, data from questionnaire surveys were analyzed using frequencies and percentages. The frequencies involved the use of counts and

percentages for individual's variables. The answer to the relevant questions was expressed as a percentage of the total number of respondents in it, while the total number of respondents to the question represented by 100%. The data collected through qualitative research method were analyzed using ethnographic description method of analysis to answer research questions. This method of analysis was employed in the study to interpret and describe data generated through in-depth interviews, observation and documentary sources.

There was equally comparative analysis of the result of the three soil samples under study with the control sample from outside the study area of the researcher's choice. This was used to determine the level of contaminants in the soil in the study area. The parameters used include; soil pH level, Total Petroleum Hydrocarbons, OC, Ca, EC, N, Mg, K, Na, N, and Pb. Also, there was comparative analysis of the existence of those hazardous substances in the soil samples of the sites under study with the soil sample of the control site.

Also, water samples from three different sites of the study area were subjected to laboratory tests to know their constituents. The parameters tested were appearance, temperature, colour, turbidity, conductivity, pH, alkalinity, Pb, Chromium (Cr), Cadmium (Cd), Ammonia, BODs and Dissolved Oxygen. The World Health Organization (WHO) water quality standard and the national water quality standard were used to compare the results. The result of the three water samples from the sites were compared with WHO and National water quality standards. The critical examination of the results with WHO water quality standard and national water quality standard enabled the researcher to determine if the water in the study area would be safe or hazardous to tourists and tourism staff for drinking, swimming and bathing should the area be developed for tourism.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

Chapter two is separated into three parts. The first part discussed the conceptual literature, the second part dealt with the various theories necessary for the study while the third part described the related empirical study reviewed which covers, coastal resources/attractions, protection, conservation and development of coastal areas, impacts and challenges of coastal tourism, environmental impact and challenges, economic impacts and challenges, socio-cultural impact, prospects of coastal tourism development, theoretical orientation, and summary

2.1 Conceptual Literature

2.1.1 Concepts

The concept of tourism has been defined by different people in different contexts at different times. Individuals, organizations and institutions have divergent understanding and views of what tourism means. Okoli (2001 and Cooper *et al*, 2005) see tourism as a multidimensional, multifaceted activity which touches many lives and many different economic activities. This multi-disciplinary and commercial outlook subjects tourism to plethora of definitions. Each tourism experts defines the term from his perspective (Okoli, 2001). Tourism is very difficult to define in absolute terms. Tourism experts have not been very precise or totally consistent in the usage of the concept. Tourism is thus a complex and pervasive phenomenon. It touched all aspects of man and society-be they social, political, economic, cultural, historical or physical environment (Omeje, 2006). Institute of Tourism in Britain which later became Tourism Society attempted to define tourism in 1976 as a temporary short-term movement of people to destinations outside the places where

they normally live and work and activities during their stay at these destinations; it includes movement for all purposes as well as day visits or excursions (Holloway, 2006). However, the above definition was simplified and reformulated by the international conference on leisure-Recreation-Tourism and Tourism society in Cardiff in 1981 as activities selected by choice and undertaken outside the home environment. Tourism may or may not involve overnight stay away from home (Holloway, 2006). According to international Association of Scientific Experts, tourism is defined as the sum of phenomena and relationships arising from the travel and stay of non-residents in so far as they do not lead to permanent residence and are not connected with any earning activity to meet their bill. Tourism can be regarded as any temporary movement of people either individually or in groups from one place to another with the aim of achieving some desired objectives (Okpoko and Okpoko, 2002 in Omeje, 2006). Tourism is the activity of man or human beings. Man is the essential subject of tourism (Cooper and Stephen, 1998). From the academic point of view, tourism is a subject of study concerned with the motives, expectations and experiences of the tourists and with the economics, socio-cultural and environmental impacts of tourism in the host country; (Holloway, 1992). In their own contribution, Wall and Mathieson (2006) see tourism as the study of people away from their usual habitat of the establishment which responds to the requirement of travellers and of the impacts that they have on the economic, physical and social well being of their host. Holden (2008) viewed tourism from the perspective of resource usage as the human activity which encompasses human behaviour, use of resources and interaction with other people, economies and environments. It is also seen as attitude to the world or a way of seeing the world which involves the totality of the tourist's experience from the moment he plans the trip to the time he returns to his home as

well as the memories of the trip (Franklin, 2003). Walker (2007) described tourism as a dynamic, evolving, consumer driven force and is the world's largest industry if all of its interrelated components are placed under one umbrella. These components include; accommodation, conventions, expositions, meeting, events, restaurants, managed services and recreation. Tourism when properly planned and developed can help stimulate economic growth, and job creation, provide incentives for protecting the environment and cultural heritage, promoting peace, prosperity and respect for human right despite the fact that the concept of tourism has been viewed and given in different perspectives. In 1991, the World Tourism Organization (WTO) and in conjunction with the government of Canada organized an International Conference on Travel Tourism statistics in Ottawa, Canada. In this conference, they adopted a set of resolutions and recommendations relating to tourism concepts, definitions and classification. According to their resolutions, tourism has been defined as 'activities of persons travelling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure business and other purpose'. This definition having covered the essential nature of tourism was later adopted in 1994 by the United Nations Statistical Commission (UNSTAT) (Obinwanne, 2005, Okoli, 2001, Cooper *et al*, 2005, and Holloway, 2006).

However, for a better understanding of the concept of tourism, it is important to examine who tourist is. A tourist is described from freedom point of view as being free from family or professional duties that can travel in any direction.

Coastal Tourism: Coastal tourism is tourism around the coastal areas. Coasts are popular destinations because of recreational activities such as swimming, fishing, boating and sunbathing. Coastal tourism is based on a unique resource combination at the interface of land and sea offering amenities such as water, beaches, scenic beauty,

rich terrestrial and marine biodiversity, diversified cultural and historic heritage, a diversity of activity's that take place in both coastal zone and coastal waters which involves the development of tourism capacities (hotels, resorts, second homes, restaurants etc) and support, infrastructure (ports, marines, fishing and diving shops and other facilities) (Markovic, Satta, Skaricic, and Trumbic, 2009). Coastal tourism deals with two complex systems tourism system and the coastal system. The former is primarily a human system and the later, an environmental one. Naturally, there are close interactions between these two systems. Coastal tourism development has the potential for long term benefits to coastal communities and national economies.

Coastal areas are transitional areas between the land and the sea characterized by a very high biodiversity and they include some of the richest and the most fragile ecosystems on earth, like mangroves and coral reefs. Coastal areas are those which are most visited by tourists and in many coastal areas tourism presents the most important economic activity ("Impact of coastal tourism", n.d). Coastal recreation activities, which have been increasing both in volume and in number during the last decade, occupy a unique place in coastal tourism. They take in two main types of recreational use of coastal zones; consumptive and non-consumptive ones. Activities such as fishing, shell fishing and shell collection, etc belong in the first category while activities in the second include swimming, diving, boating, sporting, wind-surfing, bird watching, etc (Markovic et al, 2009) coastal tourism is a key component of coastal and marine economies. Coastal tourism is in many countries the fastest growing area of contemporary tourism which has placed increased pressure. It is an area in which uses may already be highly concentrated in the form of agriculture, human settlements, fishing, industry, etc (Markovic et al, 2009). Coastal tourism is that tourism that depends on the quality and diversity of the coastal environment. The

infrastructure supporting coastal development includes retail businesses, marinas, fishing, shops, fishing piers, recreational boating harbours, beaches, recreational fishing and the like. Also, included is ecotourism and recreational activities such as recreational boating, cruises, swimming, snorkeling of all the activities that take place in coastal zones and the near-shore coastal ocean, none is increasing in both volume and diversity more than coastal tourism and recreational activities (Houston, 1996). Coastal tourism is a key component of coastal and marine economies. In many countries, coastal tourism is the fastest growing area of contemporary tourism which has increased pressure on the coast, i.e. an area in which uses may already be highly concentrated in the form of agriculture, human settlements, fishing industry etc (Markovic *et al*, 2009). Therefore, coastal tourism can be defined from the context of the definition of tourism as given by WTO and adopted by United Nations Statistical Commission (UNSTA) as activities of persons travelling out of their usual environment to a coastal zone and staying within coastal setting for not more than one consecutive year (temporarily) for leisure, business and other purposes.

Tourism Development: The concept of tourism development will not be understood without understanding first the concept of development. Development does not have a universally acceptable definition. Many of the definitions of development have ideological undertones. As various disciplines have their own conception of development such as economic development, political development, technological development, historical development, social and cultural development, tourism development etc (Agbolahor and Ukhurebor, 2006). According to Oxford Advanced Learners Dictionary, development is concerned with the gradual growth of something so that it becomes more advanced and stronger, etc. However, growth is not synonymous to

development as some people misuse it. While growth deals with increase in economic activities, development is concerned with the totality of growth in a more advanced and complicated perspective.

According to Conyers and Hills (1984) in Okpoko (2006);

“Development was seen in terms of structure and growth of the national economy and degree of development (or underdevelopment) were most often measured in terms of national income. The two most common indicators of development were per capital income ... and the average annual rate of growth in national income”.

However, the concept of development has been viewed by Ehizuelem, (1966) as;

material advancement, modernization, industrialization, scientific and technological advancement, the emergence of nuclear energy the electronic and biological revolution and new knowledge about man and the universe amongst others.

Furthermore, as development has been confused with the concept of growth, so also sustainable development has become a misnomer and has led to much confusion of the concept of development. (Cooper et al, 2005). It is really this misunderstanding between growth and development that caused the increase in the volume of literatures by experts in various field in their publications calling for sustainable development. Cooper *et al* (2005) rightly observed that development has to be sustainable to be classified as development at all; otherwise it is a short-term growth. In other words, development should be seen as self sustained growth. However, this work focuses on development (i.e. self-sustained, long-term and advanced growth) instead of ‘sustainable development’.

Tourism development has been described by Dieke (2005) as an incremental, long term process used in the comprehensive sense to include economic, socio-cultural and environmental process and issues related to tourism. Markovic *et al* (2009) disclosed that tourism development in coastal areas shows a very high dependence on the physical, environmental, cultural and socio-economic features of the receiving coastal environment. A clear differentiation should be made between the simple tourism growth that many countries experience in their coastal zones, and a planned and responsible tourism development which can significantly contribute to the reduction of the ever-growing negative impacts of this industry on the coastal environment and society.

Tourism development explains how tourism takes place, identifies genetic problems as reflected in the regulatory frameworks' response to the problem focusing on policy formulating, tourism planning and implementation of plans. Tourism development is concerned with provision of tourism infrastructure and superstructure (Okoli, 2001). Infrastructure is concerned with all forms of construction required by an inhabited area in communication with the outside world which support and make economic development possible. It includes road and railways, harbours and airports as well as public utility services of water supply, drainage and sewage disposal, power supply and communications (Okoli, 2005).

Superstructure refers to physical facilities and service, specific to particular type of development. It includes hotels, motels, restaurants, airports, harbour, railway coaches and station aircrafts, automobiles etc. Conceptually a three stage model of tourism development as involving discovery, local response and initiatives and institutionalization. This model assumes that tourism is a relatively new place which derives its initial development stimulus from local initiatives based on spontaneous

consideration of factors. (Franklin, 2003). Tourism development in Nigeria is under the regulatory authority of Nigerian Tourism development corporations (NTDC) (Aremu, 2001). However, there are some preconditions that should be met for tourism to be used as a tool or vehicle for national development. Some of these preconditions include; legal, logistics, organizational, formation of the country's image and action priorities. It is a fact that through tourism development, government of the countries of the world would be able to generate huge capital for development.

2.1.2 Theories

Several theories have been developed and seem to be significant in tourism planning and development and to achieve suitable coastal tourism development. There are general theories of economic development which tourism fits in. Tourism developers' have found these theories relevant as they are useful instruments for collection and interpretation of data. Igbo and Okpoko (2006) stated that tourism has a number of development theories ranging from classical econometric models through environmental theories to sustainability models. Some of the development theories which are relevant for harnessing tourism resources within the coastal areas of Rivers State to make the state a tourist destination will be examined.

Marx's Historical Approach to Development

Marx's historical approach to development is based within a dynamic world rather than on the static scenario used by the classical economists (Cooper, Fletcher, Fayal, Gilbert, and Wanhill, 2008). Within this dynamic view of development, changing technology, enhanced organization of production and the development of human skills all work together to provide lubricant for the engine of change. The world as seen by Marx and Engels moved naturally from feudalism to capitalism, to socialism

and then to communism as a vehicle or catalyst of Marx's theory of development. Tourism can speed up the process because it has product characteristics that enable it develop quickly and helps to translate the process perhaps from capitalism through to socialism and eventual communism. Tourism can be seen as an excellent driving force for economic, social and political change.

Rostow's Theory of Growth and Development:

Rostow (1990) in WTO (1997) recognized that there are five distinct stages through which economy passes as they develop. They are:

- The (pre-industrial) traditional society
- The pre-conditions for economic take-off
- Economic take-off
- Self-sustained drive towards maturity
- The age of mass consumption

Rostow's work was more of a collection of identified sequential trends rather than a theory. The tenet of Rostow's paper is that there is a natural inertia that needs to be overcome before self-sustained development takes place (Cooper *et al*, 2005). This inertia is overcome by a build up of transport investment; enhanced organization and production in agriculture; increased imports – particularly capital. Rostow refers these three factors as the pre-conditions for take-off. The pre-conditions are deemed to have been met when countries experience a rapid increase in investment, have a major leading economic sector with strong linkages to other sectors and have in place the necessary infrastructure to support the development of modern industries.

Once the pre-conditions for take-off have been met and take-off started, the economy is deemed to be on a route of self-sustained consistent growth. This stage is associated with migration from rural to urban areas, a developed labour force and a state system that provides stability. This process of self-sustained growth will continue until it matures into a stage of mass consumption where the ownership of durable goods such as automobiles, white goods and other equipment are considered to be the norm.

Rostow's view of economic development was influential within government circles where it presumably struck some familiar chords in US government offices, than it did within academic circles. Rostow's academic peers received his theory with mixed views and it was severely criticized by some as being too vague, overly, simple and impossible to test. His theory was also criticized on the basis that it lumped together a wide range of countries under the category of traditional economies irrespective of their resources, history or structure. The theory relating to the role played by net investment in breaking down the natural inertia of economies is supported by empirical evidence and there is no demonstrable reason as to why the components of each stage should not occur at any time in the development process rather than only in the stage to which Rostow refers. A fundamental criticism of Rostow's theory is that it implicitly assumes that development today will mirror the development process that was experienced by today's developed countries. This ignores the effects of international linkages and trade as well as assuming that today's developing countries all have the same objective for development that were pursued by the industrialized countries of today.

If the role of tourism is examined with respect to Rostow's stage of economic development there is clearly a strong role that can be played by tourism. The

development of the transport and infrastructure, together with the import of capital that is seen as a pre-condition for economic take-off is a fundamental part of most tourism development. This tourism can be used as a catalyst to overcome the inertia of developing countries.

Vicious Circles of Demand/Supply and Investment

The theoretical approach suggests that countries are poor because they always have been. The poverty leading to poverty premise can be examined from either the demand side or the supply side in order to arrive at the same conclusion. From the demand side it suggests that if a country is poor then the levels of income will be low (Cooper et al; 2005). This means that the level of demand for goods and services will also be low and therefore there is no incentive for entrepreneurs to invest in additional productive capacity. This means that the amount of capital per worker remains low, productivity remains low and this sustains the link between low income and low demand. From a supply side there is a suggestion that low in-come levels present few opportunities for saving and this means that there is little in the way of capital availability to invest in productive capacity. With low investment there is low capital per worker and this maintains the low productivity which leads to low income and savings.

These mechanisms are appealing from the point of view of simplicity but it is their simplicity that gives most cause for concern. The link between income levels and savings at national level is not as obvious as this theory suggests. Corporate saving is an important element of total savings and in many cases the marginal propensity to consume may not be significantly higher than in industrialized countries. There are constant forces trying to induce consumers to spend more. For instance, a small

injection of additional demand would lead to the opportunity to invest in additional capital per worker, leading to additional productivity, higher income levels and higher demand. This would expand the economy out of its poverty trap.

Tourism would play a significant role within the vicious circle theory of development simply by either injecting additional demand into an economy or by providing a stimulus to investment. The introduction of tourism under this theory of development would result in an expanding economy when viewed from a demand or a supply side.

Environmental Theories

Lesser, Dodds, and Zerba, (1997 in Igbo and Okpoko, 2006) stated that environmental economic theorists see the environmental systems as public goods which can be enjoyed or used freely by many individuals. According to them these environmental systems include clean air, clean water, diverse species or healthy forests. A public good is either pure or impure. According to Hankey, Shogren, and White (2001 in Igbo and Okpoko, 2006) a pure public good is a good whose consumption by one individual does not reduce the amount of it available for other consumers and no one is excluded from its provision. Air quality and biodiversity are examples of pure public goods. Common property and community goods like rivers, groves local parks and beaches are impure public goods because non-members can be excluded from the benefits enjoyed by the groups that own them (Mihalic in Igbo and Okpoko, 2006). Tourism destinations provide natural goods like nature reserves, nice climate, clean and spring water, among others. These resources can be supplied by private or governmental bodies and open to use by all interested tourism users (Igbo and Okpoko, 2006). These natural goods refer to the local public good which benefits

more or less all the parties of a given area – developers, tourists and the host community (Mihanlic in Igbo and Okpoko, 2006).

These local public goods need to be protected and preserved by the beneficiaries. If for whatever reasons the beneficiaries fail to maintain or contribute towards the preservation of these natural goods, the quality of the environment gets worse. This results in low returns and loss in long term economic benefits. It should be noted that tourism industry is not only an indirect seller of public goods; it also depends on a quality natural environment for continued survival. Some of the proceeds from nature should be injected into environmental preservation and protection to ensure its sustainability (Igbo and Okpoko, 2006). Igbo and Okpoko (2006) noted that some of the environmental public goods mentioned above may lose their public character as a result of private ownership and exclusion. For instance, private beaches or parks can be restrictive in addition to being attached some prices. Another important environmental policy problem arises if too many visitors are allowed in a destination say, beaches or parks and if they crowded the street or highways. The activities of such visitors may bring undue pressure on both the destination and the municipal services (Mihalic, n.d in Igbo and Okpoko, 2006)

In handling environmental problems and tourism, certain techniques and concepts are considered, important. For instance, the concept of carrying capacity is used in tourism planning to determine the upper limits of development and visit or use and the optimum utilization of tourism resources (Inskip, 1991 in Igbo and Okpoko, 2006). These limits include physical capacity, environmental capacity, economic capacity, social capacity, cultural capacity etc. Similarly, the environmental impact assessment technique (EIA) which assesses the likely effects of proposed development projects on the society, economy, and natural environment is applicable. This is useful for

ensuring that the environmental impacts of proposed projects are taken into consideration and preventive actions taken (Inskeep, 1991 in Igbo and Okpoko, 2006).

The law of diminishing destination yield is another technique used in setting development limits. The law of diminishing destination yields is vital in two major respects. First it provides the enabling instruments for calculating and reducing congestion in destination areas. Second, it helps to prolong the tourism season by encouraging more regular and constant distribution of tourism demand throughout the whole year (Igbo and Okpoko, 2006).

Theory of property rights is another theory used to explain environmental problems and tourism. Proponents of property rights theory believe that property rights are invaluable where environmental goods appear to be relatively scarce and that well defined property rights are a pre-condition for a market-oriented solution to environmental problems (Hanley *et al*; 1991 in Igbo and Okpoko, 2006). The theory of property rights has been distinguished into two:

- (a) The polluter having a right to pollute where the costs of pollution are a burden on the affected party.
- (b) The affected party having the right to non-pollution where the costs of pollution are covered by polluters (Mahalic n.d. in Okpoko, 2006).

It has been recommended by Mahalic, n.d in Igbo and Okpoko (2006) that levies in the forms of 'over-night tax' 'package tax' and taxes on disposable packaging and on hotel cutlery thrown away after use etc are valuable in handling production factory or harmful emissions or wastes on tourism products. It is necessary to formulate tax rates for package tours on the basis of the environmental damage caused by each

package. It is believed that taxes on disposable packing and on hotel cutlery thrown away after use would force catering managers to cut the production of waste.

The Growth Theory

Growth theories, according to Mahalic, n.d (in Igbo and Okpoko, 2006) state that constant economic and population growth are the most concrete and obvious reasons for a conflict arising between people's economic and natural environment and the indirect cause of bad living conditions on earth. Environmental damage is equally caused by quantitative growth in tourism. Seasonal concentrations of tourism can make the environmental problem more pressing and serious (Mahalic, n.d in Igbo and Okpoko, 2006). The WTO (2000) declared that the right to enjoy the planet's resources is open to the entire world's inhabitants. As the world's population increases, the damage done to the environment increases. It is argued that birth limitations will reduce undue pressures on many natural reserves that constitute tourism attractions (WTO, 2000 in Igbo and Okpoko, 2006). The concentration of visitors to a given destination may lead to congestion per unit space. Over time, the visitors may overstretch the tourism capacities of the destination thereby resulting in its depletion. A continued increase in the number of visitors to that given space will result in a saturated destination, bringing about low returns on investment (Igbo and Okpoko, 2006). The destination has to cut the prices and re-orient itself to market a lower quality environment at a lower price through the filtration process if it is to continue business. Mihalic, n.d in Igbo and Okpoko (2006) recommended some administrative instruments that should be used for reducing or regulating tourism growth. The instruments include pollution certificates; certificates for use of the environment for tourism purposes and tourist certificates. These instruments are

quality-based and give the owner of certificate a right to a certain quantity of pollution and or use of the environment.

Behavioural Theories

According to Rue and Ryars (1986 in Igbo and Okpoko, 2006), the approach is anchored on behavioural ethics; and sees the absence of environmental social ethics as the main reason for environmental damage. The other reasons are human ignorance and the absence of social/tourism environmental ethics. Generally, ethics deals with the issues of right and wrong and moral obligations. On the other hand, environmental ethics focuses on the standards and principles regulating the behavior of individuals or groups of individuals in relation to their environment.

Miller and Flugel (1999 in Igbo and Okpoko, 2006) stated that tourism ethics has both the demand and supply dimensions. The demand side of the tourism ethics determines environmental principles regulating the behaviour of tourists. On the supply side, the ethical principles regulate the attitude of the state and developers to the environment. Miller and Flugel argued that human beings possess the will to react in an environmentally friendly manner if appropriate environmental information and know-how are available.

Also, environmental behavior theory explains that environmental disaster occurs if there is a lack of understanding and information. Frey (1985 in Igbo and Okpoko, 2006) has criticized this theory on the grounds that information on environmental damage and knowledge about environment are not the only conditions needed to prevent damage. Prevention depends on factors similar to the environmental ethics (Mihalic in Igbo and Okpoko 2006).

Residential Tourism Model

This is the newest trend in coastal tourism development. Residential tourism model combined beach resorts with vacation homes and condominium (Honey and Krantz, 2007). This lucrative development model is spreading quickly as it makes for easier financing and faster return on investment. The decision making processes for these development choices are complex and involve a wide number of actors, each with varied interests. These include development companies, banks and other types of lenders, hotel chains, independent entrepreneurs, governments, development agencies and local communities (Honey and Krantz, 2007). This is a model that brings development to the destinations unlike the 'all-inclusive' model which tends to leave relatively little money in the destinations themselves. Residential tourism model is a very useful development tool to be adopted in coastal areas for development. Typically, the components of these residential developments include:

- Vacation homes: This ranges from high rise apartment condominium to town houses to individual homes within gated communities.
- Spas: Places where people can relax and improve their health through exercise, stress reduction, yoga, organics and fine wines.
- Golf courses: These remain important component of resort development
- Marinas: Area of clean water built on the coast and protected from the open sea by strong walls where small boats and yachts can shelter (lay at anchor in the harbour) (Honey and Krantz, 2007).

Residential Tourism Model focuses on development of coastal tourism. Employing this approach to develop coastal areas of Rivers State makes it easier for financing and faster return on investment because the model allows for equitable participation

of stakeholders in decision making process for development alternatives. In developing Rivers State for tourism, it is imperative to involve a wide number of actors with varied interests such as development companies, banks, hotel chains, independent entrepreneurs, governments, local communities and development agencies. This model being a useful development tool to be adopted in coastal areas for development described various components of development process that must be followed strictly. The model is quite useful in this because it has the capacity to bring development to the destination. This theory and model are significantly useful in order to guarantee sustainable development in the area.

2.2 Review of Related Empirical Study

Coastal Tourism Development in Selected Areas: Challenges and Prospects

Basiron (1997) studied on the development of Marine tourism industry in Malaysia, South East Malasia. The objectives of the study were to examine the trends and prospects of Marine tourism industry in Malaysia. The study lacked statistical information on the Marine tourism industry. However, the study focused on three (3) components of growth areas of marine tourism in Malaysia viz. hotels and supplementary accommodations; mass or common tourism activities which comprised daily visits to the sea, sea shore, or islands; and special interest tourism activities such as water sports or nature tourism.

It was found that the hotel and tourism projects increased by up to 24.8% from 1992 (US\$432 million) to 1993 (US\$539 million). Also, the study showed that 60 to 70 percent of tourists in Malaysia visited coastal areas. Majority of these tourists are day-trippers who visited coastal areas, Islands or beaches for picnics and basic recreational activity such as swimming. Individuals, families and groups make up

around 60% of visitors to coastal areas. However, day-trippers were seen to be probably the easiest of all tourists to cater for, requiring only basic amenities such as rubbish bins, public toilets or changing rooms and stalls to be provided near beaches. There was also need to upgrade day-trippers to overnighters to meet the needs of identified number of target groups for longer stays. Further studies indicated that there was an increase in sales of water sports equipment such as leisure crafts scuba diving and sports fishing equipment from US\$6.7 million in 1992 to US\$10 million in 1993; interest shown on the construction of marinas, 38 marine parks and other boating facilities. A large sum was invested in the facilities such as marinas, and harbours to support the growing number of yachts and boats.

Furthermore, Gu and Wong (2004) researched on development of coastal tourism and home-stays on *Yangjia* beach on *Dachangshan* Dao, Liaoning province, North East China. The purpose of the study was to: (1) examine the evolution of home-stays and the transformation of local fishers to home-stays operators; (2) assess the accommodation carrying capacity and facility capacity after the morphological changes from huts with mud walls and thatch roofs to the house structures; (3) examine the nature of empowerment, conflicts or harmony among the different stakeholders and their poor and (4) inspect closely local government's responses in terms of policy planning relating to home-stays and their future. In the study, a participant observation was adopted by the author as a key data-gathering technique. Both authors first visited the Island and the beach in February, 2003. One stayed for one month in a home stay on the Yangjia beach in July, 2004 to conduct a questionnaire survey and the other went for a week to evaluate the coastal environment and observe home-stay operation. The questionnaire survey covers all licensed home-stays which were located in the Northern side of the coastal road and

one of several unlicensed home-stays located in the villages. In both visits, discussions and interviews were held by the authors with some officers in the local governments (village, town and country) on tourism planning of Yangjia beach and the future of the home-stays. The study showed that tourism really brought development in the place (fishing community) as the local fishers were transformed into home-stay operators who initially lived in huts with mud walls and thatch roofs where early tourists were accommodated. These huts had been converted into house structure with two principal rooms and four additional rooms and stores to accommodate more tourists.

Meanwhile, a new kind of home-stays with two storey building had recently emerged in the village. There was rapid tourism development in the place with little considerations by the operators and the local government to sustain it. While the maximum extent to which a particular location can accommodate tourists with high satisfaction without detriment to the physical environment and to the local community was ignored (i.e. carrying capacity). The survey showed that home-stay operators have an average of 5.8 rooms for rent and each room can accommodate five tourists. During the peak season, it was too crowded for 30 persons to stay in one home-stay with each bed (a mattress) having 3m² of space which is far less than the standard of 15m². Large numbers of tourists put a strain on resources and amenities due to problem of space.

Furthermore, the study showed that there were serious conflicts among the stakeholders with contrary interests in the coastal area due to hotel developers from the city coming to the beach and challenging the existing power balances. The unequal power relations among the stakeholders were found to be the cause of the conflicts as against the principles of tourism sustainability. The study further revealed

that the home-stay operators had not been involved in the planning and management of tourism, although 75% of them have attended discussions organized by Tourism Association. The town government has not consulted the local people on tourism development as it considers itself powerful, wise and farsighted. Finally, the study indicated that first the town government acts as a regulator to control the direction of home-stay development and to also decide the future of home-stays. From 1995 to 2002, the local governments supported home-stays and enhanced their regulation. For instance, the county governments issued the “Registration Management for home-stays” in 1999. The town government issued the “service standard of home-stays” which normalized the standard of facility, sanitation and environment in 2000. Licensed home-stays pay taxes and other fees every year. In 2002, the village government built one road in front of the home-stays and renovated all the houses. In 2003, the county government completed planning for a large scale resort on Yangjia beach to upgrade the tourism development. Among the 24 investigated home-stay operators, 23 agreed to continue to operate home-stays which can improve their quality of life and one disagreed to expand because of the government’s ambiguous attitudes.

Another study was conducted by Priority Action Programme/Regional Activities Centre (PAP-RAC, 1999) on carrying capacity assessment for tourism development Fuka-matrough coastal zone, Egypt. The objectives of the study according to PAP-RAC (1999) were to (1) offer a concept of a well balanced tourism development by identifying environmental and socio-economic issues and problems and by assessing the resources and their interactions in the study area so that at the same time the needs of the population in the area will be fulfilled, (2) present and promote this concept to local and regional authorities, entrepreneurs, planners and local population, (3) prove

the applicability of the priority actions programme (PAP) methodology for carrying capacity assessment for this area as a representative for less developed Mediterranean countries facing challenges of fast and sometimes uncontrolled development and (4) serve as a model to other areas in Egypt as well as in some other Mediterranean countries or even countries outside the Mediterranean, as a pilot document for carrying capacity assessment. The methodology adopted by this team of experts was in phases, namely: documentation and mapping phase, analysis and synthesis phase; tourism development options and carrying capacity assessment formulation phases, including the proposal of physical distribution and mapping phase involved the review of all available documents and materials' as well as field work (PAP-RAC, 1999). The documents included various statistical materials, already finished and on-going documents regarding the areas, brochures, etc. The field work included several trips made by the team of experts including the questionnaire distributed to local population and three missions by the priority actions programme staff in July 1993, May 1996 and May 1997. The data analysis included a review of all collected materials in four steps organized as follows. First, a brief review of existing literature on carrying capacity assessment for tourist development, second, a study of the physical characteristics of the area including the geomorphology, the climate, the soil, the natural water resources and the fauna and flora, third, a survey of the infrastructure provision in the area including water and power supply, sewage collection and treatment of solid waste disposal and transportation. Fourth, an investigation of educational, health services, human resources as well as the economic activities undertaken in the area and the reaction of local people to the tourism industry (through a field survey and interviews) (PAP-RAC, 1999). The data synthesis dealt with the key problems deriving from the analysis including issues of

management and protection, tourism demand and development (choices relative to domestic Arab and Western markets); possible alternative approaches to tourism development; and land-use planning policy and development implications.

However, the tourism development option or phase was concerned with the preparation of several possible tourism development scenarios which were analyzed in order to achieve the most realistic option as a basis for assessing carrying capacity.

The four possible scenarios were defined as; tourism development without restrictions and control based on domestic large and small scale investment, the option of free transfer to commercial interests for overall development predominantly by foreign entrepreneurs; alternative tourism option (strict conservation) and sustainable tourism development option (PAP-RAC, 1999). Finally, the fourth phase in the methodological approach employed by these experts in their study was carrying capacity assessment formulation phase. This phase was based on the sustainable development scenario as a result of a compromise between the need for protection of tourist resources and reality in the area. The proposed spatial structure and physical distribution of tourism development in the study area was based on a model of spatial clustering (PAP-RAC, 1999). The study according to PAP-RAC(1999) revealed that the natural potentials for tourism development in the study area depended on its shoreline configuration and moderate weather. There were many beaches of fine white sand, and very clear water with a lovely turquoise colour. The water was not deep with a gradual slope which allowed for safe bathing. The weather was moderate reaching its highest temperature of 28.5°C during August and its lowest 10.2°C during December and January. The average rainfall was one of the highest in Egypt at 147.1mm/year. The area was enriched with historic sites and monuments such as a Rommel's Hide out (cave), ruined temple fort built by Ramsis II, early Coptic chapel,

a shipwreck of the old Egyptian cemeteries of the World War II soldiers, etc. By 1993, it was estimated that 72 hotels with a total number of 3,140 rooms, and 15 tourist resorts as well as 29 youth hostels with a total number of 1,317 rooms were all located in the study area. About 75% of the sample accepted the possibilities of working in the tourist activities while the remaining 25% of the case, rejected this idea. Those rejecting the idea were found to be mainly over 50 years of age. The jobs the local residents were willing to participate in include drivers, local guides, guards, sailors, and services, accounting for 57, 46, 34, 54, and 13%, respectively. The most attractive tourist activities for the locals were found to be trips (vacation) and hunting representing 74% and 70% of the cases. The main goods they were willing to trade include foods, cheep and carpets accounting for 88%, 86%, and 24%, respectively. Concerning working in the tourist establishments only 7% rejected the idea, while 93% accepted it.

As for the establishment of tourist premises within the local areas of those interviews, only 13% rejected the idea. Considering such results in comparison with actual policy of Egypt regarding colonization of the area from the overpopulated areas in the Delta, it can be concluded that there are no constraints for tourism development.

2.3 Coastal Resources

There are numerous resources around the coastal areas that make them centres of attractions for tourists. From the mid-18th century onwards, coastal tourism was generally related to the therapeutic properties of sea and sun. Sun, sea and sand have continued to provide the main ingredients for coastal tourism until today, especially in the second half of the development of mass tourism (Markovic, *et al*, 2009). Coastal tourism is based on a unique resource combination at the interface of land and sea offering amenities such as water, beaches, scenic beauty, rich terrestrial and marine

biodiversity, diversified cultural and historic heritage, healthy food and good infrastructure. Markovic *et al* (2009) stated that coastal tourism is strongly dependent upon natural (climate, landscape, ecosystems) and cultural (historic and cultural heritage, arts and crafts, traditions etc) resources. This encompasses activities that can only be carried out in particular areas and in specific conditions.

Therefore, it means that certain areas are considered to be particularly suited to specific types of tourism activities, for which they became known on a global scale. Examples include sailing in the Gulf of Mexico, surfing on the beaches of Australia and Hawaii or scuba diving in the Red Sea. The Great Barrier Reef is one of Australia's tourism icons and is worth over three-quarters of a billion US dollars to the economy through tourism and fishing activity (Cooper *et al*, 2005). Coral reefs are a valuable tourism asset. Reef tourism produces millions of dollars of foreign currency annually and is a popular attraction to many when choosing a vacation designation. Ecologically, coral reefs provide habitat and feeding areas for many finfish and shell fish species. They are one of the most biologically productive ecosystems on earth and storms and supply nutrients to economic fish stocks. Coral reefs need clean and clear water with low sedimentation to sustain their growth and thereby support the greater reef community. Coral reefs occur along exposed coasts, away from rivers, estuaries and silt, sediment rich shores. Coastal wetlands are important to tourism in their ability to remove pollutants water flow before they enter the main water bodies. This function protects beaches and coral reefs and coastal water quality – the most important coastal tourism assets (Sullivan, *et al*, 1995).

The Asian region is endowed with extensive coastal resources such as sandy beaches, clear water, exotic landscape, coral reefs, coral fish and other wildlife which attract tourists particularly interested in beach holiday (Smith, 1994). According to (CRMP,

2994), the marine sanctuary which is endowed with beautiful coral reefs and marine life is the focal point of the tourist attraction of *Hikkaduwa*, Sri Lanka. There are a variety of other attractions to supplement the marine sanctuary in *Hikkaduwa*. These include warm sunny climate, clear blue sea, sand beaches, shopping local handcrafts, opportunities for diving, surfing and snorkelling, interaction with friendly and helpful people, indigenous cultural performances, restaurant, accommodation, recreation facilities, shops, sports etc (Tantrigama, 1994). Clean water, healthy coastal habitats, and a safe secure and enjoyable environment are clearly fundamental to successful coastal tourism. Similarly, bountiful living marine resources such as fish, shell fish, wetlands, coral reef etc are of critical importance to most recreational experiences.

Also, in Sri Lanka there is a diverse coastal environment with a variety of ecosystems. These include sandy beaches, coral reefs, estuaries, lagoons, and sea grasses (Sullivan, De Silva, White and Wyeratne, 1995). Each ecosystem plays a critical role in maintaining the health of the coastal zones of each other. One of the primary reasons why Sri Lanka is a popular tourist destination is its abundance of sandy beaches, clean tropical waters, abundant sea life and lush vegetation. If these are taken away, tourism will decline drastically. If coastal resources are used unwisely in Sri Lanka, tourism will decline as tourists seek other areas in tropical Asia (Sullivan *et al*, 1995). Tourism is a renewable industry as long as it takes care of the coastal systems which attract tourists. Sand beaches which occur about 70% along shoreline are the focal point of coastal tourism in Sri Lanka. Sunbathing, swimming, Frisbee tossing and walking are just a few of the recreational activities common on beaches (Sullivan *et al*, 1995).

Africa's coastal and marine areas have important non-living resources. There are off-shore commercial oil and natural gas reserves in some 20 countries and many of these

are being developed to supply the global energy market as well as domestic needs (Energy Information Administration-EIA, 2005). Africa's coastal environment is becoming an increasingly attractive destination for global tourism. In the small Island developing states (SIDS), tourism and its related services is a main contributor to national economies (World Travel and Tourism Commission, 2005). Africa's main land and Island states have rich and varied coastal and marine resources both living and non-living. The coasts range from deserts to fertile plains to rain forest, from coral reefs to lagoons and from high relief, rocky shores to deeply indented estuaries and deltas. Their marine environments include the open Atlantic and Indian Oceans and the almost landlocked Mediterranean and Red Seas. Continental shelves where waters are less than 200m deep, in some places extend more than 200km offshore. The biodiversity of the coastal zone is an important resource and there are many designated protected areas, both wetland and marine.

The coral reefs, sea grass beds, sand dunes, estuaries, mangrove forests and other wetlands that occur on many shores provide valuable services for humanity as well as crucial nursery habitats for marine, animal and sanctuaries and endangered species (Groombridge and Jenkins, 2002). Though, much unpleasant things have been said about mangroves as "smelly, swampy, mosquito-ridden places", the true beauty and value of mangroves should not be overlooked. Mangroves forest play a vital role in trapping sediments, thereby stabilizing coastal lines and protecting coral reefs and sea grass Meadows (World Wildlife Fund-WWF, 2011).

The resources around the coastal areas of Fuka-Matrouh Egypt include natural water resources (surface water flow and the underground water), flora with 1000 plants species, sand dunes which are very rich in fauna, salty marsh depressions and inland non-saline depressions; soil beaches composed of well polished, white and loose

carbonate sand, limestone; the summer season characterized by clear sunny sky and no rain and the winter season that is mainly windy with certain periods of heavy rains, cultural attractions such as historic sites and monuments, etc (PAP-RAC, et al, 1999).

In Kenya, coastal tourism is a major foreign exchange earner with its beach and coral reef resources, coastal heritage sites and forest reserves being major assets (Kotb, Abdulaziz, Al-Agwan, Ashaikh, Al-yami, Banajah, Devantier, Eisinger, Eltayeh, Hassan, Heiss, Howe, Kemp, Klaus, Krup, Mohammed, Roupael, Turner and Zajonz, 2004). Mangroves are abundant in Niger delta, covering many thousand square kilometers and also in Guinea Bissau (2366km²) and Senegal (1690km²) (UNEP-WCMC, 2000). The natural coastal assets have supported a growth in tourism with substantial economic benefits including the creation of many jobs for men and women. Tourism has become a big employer and source of income, notably in Morocco, Tunisia, Egypt, Mauritius and South Africa. Many countries are set to further develop their coastal tourism and coral reefs are a major attraction (WTTC, 2005).

In Tanzania, attractive beaches are found along the Tanzanian coast and serve as one of the primary coastal tourism attractions. A number of beaches have already attracted tourism investment and are home to numerous human activities, including tourism, fishing, marine-culture, etc. There are also numerous forest reserves along the coast, including mangrove and coastal forest. These coastal reserves could be developed into tourist attractions if managed and promoted properly. Other unique attractions along the Tanzanian coastline are the *Saadani* game reserve where big animals can be seen along the beach or bathing in the Indian Ocean; and the nesting beach for green turtles. This attraction would need to be developed and managed very carefully as nesting turtles are easily disturbed by unfamiliar light and sounds.

Tanzania also has two marine parks and several Marine reserves which are tourist attractions with high potential. Another unique natural attraction is natural sulphur spring. Sport fishing is another activity that could attract tourists within their coastal zones. The Swahili coast of Tanzania could be developed into stand-alone tourist attractions,. The ruins at *Kilwa Kisiwani* and *Sango Mnara*, designated as UNESCO World heritage sites, have unlimited potential to attract tourists. Other cultural attractions include local *taraab* music performances, artisan, fishing and agriculture and traditional handicraft production (“Assessment for sustainable tourism”, n.d).

Okoli (2001) identified some attractions in Rivers State as boat regatta, scenic beauties and resorts, extensive coast line and beaches which provide places for relaxation. Coastal wet lands include sea grass beds, lagoons, estuaries, mangroves, and salt marshes, each of which plays an important role in the coastal environment and economy. Mangroves, lagoons and salt marshes are ideal settings for activities such as bird watching or nature photography. Estuaries are ideal locations for canoeing and other water sports and activities which need more protected waters than those afforded by the Indian Ocean. Estuaries are rich in nutrients due to mixing of fresh and salt waters. The nutrients attract fish and other organisms, making estuaries highly productive. Sea grass beds are composed of salt tolerant plants and occur in shallow near shore waters, estuaries, and lagoons are adjacent to coral reefs. Lagoons are brackish water bodies as they are either permanently separated from the ocean or are separated only during part of the year, resulting in lowered salinity. Mangroves are communities of salt-tolerant woody plants that occur primarily along more sheltered coastal areas especially along embayment or within estuaries or lagoons. Mangroves trap and retain sediment, absorb coastal storm and wave energy, provide shelter for juvenile fish and invertebrates and assimilate nutrients to convert to plant

tissue which is broken down and circulated into coastal waters. Removal of mangroves will result in decreased water quality and species diversity and thus decreased wildlife for nature viewing and educational activities of tourism (Sullivan et al, 1995). Aesthetically pleasing coastal features such as coral reefs, vegetation, clean beaches and water attract tourists while disturbed and polluted systems repel them. Coastal tourism is based on unique resources offering amenities such as water, beaches, scenic beauty, rich terrestrial and marine biodiversity, diversified cultural and historic heritage, healthy food and good infrastructure. It includes a diversity of activities that take place in both coastal zone and coastal waters which involves the development of tourism capacities (hotels, resorts, second homes, restaurants etc) and support infrastructure (Ports, marinas, fishing and diving shops and other facilities) (Markovic et al, 2009).

The Nigerian mangrove ecosystem in the Niger Delta region consists of utilizable resources especially mangrove trees. The mangrove forest is a fragile ecosystem which is evergreen. They occur in areas where strong waves are absent. The most extensive growth of mangroves in the Niger Delta can be seen in estuaries of rivers and protected lagoons and lakes. Niger Delta is characterized by high rainfall, minimum temperature and seasonal variations in temperature which are very important for the growth of mangroves. Apart from its potential for tourism development, mangrove forest in Nigeria is useful for producing tannins from the bark, methanol, rayon pulp, charcoal, transmission poles, fuel wood, timber, animal skins especially crocodiles for the leather if it is effectively managed (FAO,1994 in Koyejo, Adebayo and Aluko,2005).

2.4 Protection, Conservation and Development of Coastal Areas

Conservation is defined as an intelligent use and protection of natural resources (Arthur, 1993 and Yunus, 2002). Conservation of natural resources is the management of human environment in such a way as to sustain for foreseeable future, a high quality environment for all men. High quality of life for man and his future generation can only be guaranteed if the environmental resources are managed on sustainable basis and in perpetuity (Afolayan, 1987). Okoli (2001) in Obinwanne (2005) described conservation as management of human use of the biosphere and more precisely of the environment so that it may yield the greatest sustainable benefit to present generation while maintaining its potentials to meet the needs and aspiration of future generation. Honey and Kratz (2007) suggested that these principles and good practices useful for ecotourism and sustainable tourism should be used for coastal and marine tourism.

In 1980, the International Union for the Conservation of Nature (IUCN) issued the World conservation strategy which reflected the views of a growing number of organizations in stressing that protected area management must be linked with the economic activities of local communities. In 1982 conservationists at the IUCN's world congress on National parks in Balo endorsed this concept, arguing that conservation needs to be community-friendly and promote economic development (Honey and Kratz, 2007). In 1996, the Ecotourism Consultancy Program was expanded into the task force on tourism protected areas, with a broader mandate to collect data on tourism protected areas and provide advice to the World Commission On Protected Areas (WCPA), A global network of more than 1,000 protected area managers and specialists that is supported by the IUCN (EAGLES, 1996 in Honey and Krants, 2007). At the 2003 World Parks Congress held in Durban, South Africa,

tourism was not on official stream, or theme but an impressive number of sessions, side events, speakers, beginning with former South Africa President Nelson Mandela's opening speech described ecotourism as part of protected areas and poverty reduction for surrounding rural communities (Honey and Kratz, 2007). The Nature Conservancy (TNC) works with governments protected areas and local conservation organizations to promote tourism as a tool for conservation. TNC supports efforts at the national policy level to generate tourism income and investment for conservation and reduce threats posed to natural areas by visitation. For example, TNC worked with the Bolivian Park system to establish for the first time park entrance fees at the *Eduardo Avaroa* Reserve, the country's most visited park. By 2006, park entrance fees were bringing in about U.S \$200,000 per year to hard-pressed protected area system. TNC has also conducted studies in Ecuador and Peru to measure the value of protected area tourism and proposed policies to increase the flow of tourists spending into conservation efforts and local communities (TNC, 2006).

United States Agency for International Development (USAID) in 1985 began providing assistance to World Wild life Fund (WWF) which included some twenty pilot projects in developing countries aimed at combining conservation and development. One of the initial successes was the Annapurna Conservation Areas Project in Nepal, which began to curb the adverse environmental effects of trekkers and to increase local income from ecotourism. By the mid-1990's the Annapurna project trained 700 local people to work in lodges used by eco-tourists, built a visitors' education centre and instituted a conservation fee of \$12 per person, which was generating more than one million dollars annually for local conservation and development activities including tree planting and trail maintenance (Adams, 1995 in

Honey and Krantz, 2007). In 2002, WWF and seven other international and local NGO's helped to establish eleven new marine protected areas along the Belizean coast; and in 2003, WWF began working with the central American Organization of the fisheries and Aquaculture sector, in an effort to improve the management of the protected areas. Together with the Coral Reef Alliance (CRA, 2003), WWF has worked to establish marine recreation standards and improve tourism planning in the coral zones of Belize, and the government local communities and the industry including the hotel owners, cruise ship lines and tour operators (WWF, 2006 in Honey and Krantz, 2007). WWF has been involved in ecotourism projects in Africa and Asia as well as Europe. WWF has partnered with a Dutch leisure company *Molecaten*, to found Protected Area Network (PAN) parks. PAN parks is a certification programme designed to promote conservation management and sustainable development of Europe's protected areas and their neighbouring communities through ecotourism and other sustainable economic activities.

According to Honey and Krantz, (2007), almost all the major international conservation organizations, including the World Wildlife Fund (WWF), IUCN, National Geographic (NG), World resources Institute (WRI), The Nature Conservancy (TNC), Conservation International (CI), African Wildlife Foundation (AWF), environmental defence (ED), Audubon Society and Rainforest Alliance, among others are involved in sustainable tourism and ecotourism at some levels. Their involvement ranges from issuing sets of principles and policy statements to establishing department and providing technical assistance and public education; as well as incorporating tourism into their projects in developing countries, to creating and conducting travel programs. They have received hundreds of millions of dollars of funding from the USAID, Inter-American Development Bank (IDB), World Bank

and United Nations (UN) agencies, among others as well as from Ford Packard, Moore, Rockefeller and other philanthropic foundations to implement scores of programs, projects, and studies in Africa, Latin America, Caribbean and Asia aimed at protecting threatened ecosystems and conserving biodiversity.

More so, in Sri Lanka, the Coast Conservation Department (CCD) was established and charged with the preservation of important archaeological, historical and cultural sites as well as the coastal zones' scenic beauty and important recreational areas (CCD, 1990). The CCD was given the authority to prohibit development within 200 meters of designated sites or prohibited development within the coastal zone if it is believed that this development threatens to destroy or decrease the qualities of the site which make it unique and important. Also, the environmental issues and threats relating to the realization of development opportunities are addressed within the framework of the Nairobi convention by three countries- Tanzania, Mozambique and South Africa; and the Abidjan convention by three countries- Angola, Namibia and South Africa. These focused on coordinated protection and enhancement of the marine environment and coastal zones (WIO-LAB, 2005).

Non-governmental organizations (NGOs) being critical of environmental and social impacts of tourism, act as representatives of civil society and should be able to participate in decision-making processes related to tourism sector. NGOs world-wide have been promoting sustainable tourism in recent years. They have been active in raising awareness and providing educational programmes for tourists, local investors, and administrators. They have been producing guidelines and different promotional materials related to sustainable tourism and developing different pilot projects that tend to demonstrate good practice, in sustainable tourism (WWF, 2000) World

Wildlife fund has been active in coral reef conservation since the early 1970s. The fund has successfully combined fieldwork and advocacy to deliver impressive results.

Most coastal countries are signatories to one or more multilateral environmental agreement (MEA) that deals with the marine and coastal management issues. These MEAs include the Barcelona convention, the Jeddah convention, the Nairobi convention and the Abidjan convention, as well as the International Convention for the prevention of pollution from ships (MARPOL) relating to the control of pollution from ships and the United Nations convention, on the law of the sea (UNCLOS). These conventions lay the foundations for coastal states to develop legislation and management plans relating to their coastal areas and environments, integrating the various sectors' policies and, increasingly, taking account of river catchment that discharges to those environments (UNEP/MAP/PAP, 1999).

2.5 Impacts and Challenges of Coastal Tourism

The coastal zone is a dynamic area of natural change and of increasing human use. It also has a huge influence on people. According to the UN around 3.6 billion people or 60% of the world's population live within 60km of the coast. And 80% of all tourism takes place in coastal areas ("Blue planet: coasts", n.d). The coastal zone occupies less than 15% of the Earth's land surface; yet accommodate more than 50% of the world population. It is estimated that 3.1 billion people live within 200 kilometres from the sea. Because development of tourism is a catalyst that brings development of other sectors and people tend to move from less developed area to more developed area. With three-quarters of the world population expected to reside in the coastal zone by 2025, human activities originating from this small land will impose an inordinate amount of pressures on the global system a result of population explosion due to tourism development ("coastal management", n.d). As coastal

populations continue to grow globally and pressures on the environment from land based and marine; human activities increase coastal and marine living and fragile resources and their habitats are being lost or damaged in ways that are diminishing biodiversity and thus creating livelihood opportunities and aggravating poverty. Tourism, no doubt is faced with problems and challenges, particularly now that 80% of all tourism takes place in coastal areas.

The challenge faced by tourism developers, managers, planners, researchers and other stakeholders is to find ways to develop tourism as an industry which provide travel experiences that are rewarding and sustainable for all the stakeholders. The problems and challenges, facing tourism development are usually caused by the human activities and pressures on the coastal zone and have made impacts on tourism development. These impacts vary from environmental, economic, social and cultural and carrying capacity.

2.5.1 Environmental Impact and Challenges

The environment whether natural or artificial is the most fundamental ingredients of the tourism product. Cooper *et al* (2008) noted that as soon as tourism activity takes place, the environment is inevitably changed or modified either to facilitate tourism or through tourism production process. These changes take place in the environment as a result of tourism activities. The change may either affect tourism negatively or influence tourism positively by boosting it. Tourism can create great pressure on local resources such as energy, food, land and water that may already be in short supply (“coastal pollution and impacts”, n.d). According to the Third Assessment of Europe’s environment (EEA, 2003), the direct local impacts of tourism on people and the environment at destinations are strongly affected by concentration in space and time. They result from:

- The intensive use of water and land by tourism and leisure facilities.
- The delivery and use of energy
- Changes in the landscape coming from the construction of infrastructure, buildings and facilities.
- Air pollution and waste
- The compaction of soils (damage and destruction of vegetation) and
- The disturbance of fauna and local people (for example, by noise).

Tourism, probably more than any other industry is dependent on a healthy environment. Yet because tourists naturally seek out beautiful places to spend their holidays, many of the world's most precious landscapes have been or are being targeted for tourism development and use. This can be especially damaging for coastal tourism because visitors come in search of the same conditions which tend to support high levels of biodiversity – warm weather, sunshine, pristine nature, clear air and clean water. The huge tourism infrastructure developments have dramatically altered the natural dynamics of Mediterranean coastal ecosystems. For example, more than half of the 46,000km coastline is now urbanized, mainly along the European shores. This infrastructure is a major cause of habitat loss in the region, and some locations are now beyond repair (WWF, 2011a). There are a number of environmental impacts and challenges facing coastal tourism. They include; deforestation, agricultural practices, environmental pollution, destructive fishing practices, climatic change, and inappropriate development pattern.

Deforestation: The mangroves are threatened in their existence by several causes. The main sources of these threats are induced by humans. The clear cutting of the mangrove trees (deforestation) for their hardwood and for building dikes. The wood is an important export product for building constructions. The wood can also be used

as charcoal and fuel wood. The cutting of the tree forms ponds with anoxic water as well as causes unstable condition (UNEP, 2004).

Deforestation is one of the causes of biodiversity depletion in the ecosystem in tropical rain forest zone, particularly, Nigeria and Africa in general. Though, Rivers State is among the states within the Niger Delta zone that is well endowed with the highest concentration of biodiversity, much of this biodiversity has been depleted due to human activities on them.

Because local people within this area depend on mangrove forest as their major source of firewood, they cut mangrove tree almost on daily basis for firewood. In Southern part of Nigeria, it is equally a common practice to burn bush for hunting and farming. This seasonal bush fires for farming and incessant bush burning for hunting have done serious damage to vegetation. This practice reduces the vegetative cover for wild animals thereby exposing them to danger of being killed by hunters or predators. It is also common in southern Nigeria to see local people cut forest trees to build houses or to sell the timber for money, and occasionally, the woods are used for building bridges in small rivers. Other places, the trees are cut for use as a electrical poles after treatment for high tension cables. The clearing of forest land for agricultural usage is another cause of deforestation in southern Nigeria. According to Daniel and Edward, 1990, land clearing for agriculture is one of the principal causes of biodiversity depletion in Nigeria. Gabriel and Ayuba (2006) added that much forest land is being cleared without replacement due to overgrowing industrialization in Nigeria and Africa. It has been observed that the worst case scenario is not the depletion of forest in southern Nigeria but it is the fear that deforestation is still going on in areas where forests are left, without effective efforts on the part of governments and other stakeholders to control this menace. This means that in the near future, so

many species of plant trees will go extinct, and it will not be pleasant to the environment.

Gabriel and Ayuba (2006) asserted that deforestation is severe in the tropics due to high human population growth, especially in Nigeria. Daniel and Edward (1998) expressed their fear that the major effect of this loss is that the cutting of forest in one country affects other countries because forests are global resources, and if the trend continues, little or no forest land will remain in the country.

Agricultural Practices: Agriculture is another human practice that has become a threat to the environment. Increased erosion which has been associated with human land use for agriculture has led to increases in sediment delivery (“Coastal pollution and impacts”, n.d). Fertilizers runoff from farms and lawns is a huge problem for coastal areas. The extra nutrients cause eutrophication-flourishing of algal blooms that deplete the water’s dissolved oxygen and suffocate other marine life. Eutrophication has created enormous dead zones in several parts of the world including the Gulf of Mexico and the Baltic Sea (WWF, 2011b). Another negative impact is the use of pesticides. This product that is used in the upstream agriculture ends up in the water around the mangroves. This also causes an increase in nutrient concentration, oxygen depletion and promotes the growth of algae like that of the use of fertilizers for agriculture. As a result the ecosystem will no longer be in equilibrium. A similar effect as with the added fertilizers and pesticides is the use of mangroves in wastewater treatment. Nutrients are added into the water and the equilibrium in the food web is disturbed. Mangroves no longer can survive in this environment and die off. The organic matter normally stored in the mangroves will be transported to open water and increases the aquatic primary production (“Coastal pollution and impacts”, n.d). Coral and sea grasses are influenced negatively by those processes and will be

deteriorated. Soil reclamation for agriculture and aquaculture reduce the regional levels of biodiversity due to loss of mangrove habitats. Apart from loss of mangrove habitats, coastal wet lands reclamation for agriculture causes changes in sedimentations pattern, changes in water circulation and increases water-borne diseases. The effects of these environmental changes due to land reclamation include killing of fish, reduction of fish yield, increasing of storm damage and coastal erosion, etc.

The use of pesticides and fertilizers for agriculture has become absolutely essential as several other agricultural inputs. In fact, experts from Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) have observed that in order to postpone an impending world famine, increased food production will necessarily require pesticides and fertilizers among other inputs (Ekpe, 2003). Though, pesticides and fertilizers play important role in increasing crop yields, some serious questions have been raised concerning their negative effects on human health and environment. Pesticides and fertilizers are the most highly published environmental pollutants. They spread to every part of the environment, they are found in soil, sediments, rivers, streams, lakes, ponds, beaches, groundwater, ocean and even the air.

Besides, the destruction of mangrove forests, the use of agricultural pesticides and fertilizers on the coastal wet lands results in killing of fish as well as reducing fish yields due to toxic pollution of water and estuaries. Even the potential human consumption of such toxic fish has health implication.

Another aspect of agricultural practices that have negative impact on the coastal watershed are grazing and over cropping. These usually cover beaches and corals with sediments and cause obstruction of navigation channels with sediments.

Intensive agricultural activities may result in water pollution through run off of agricultural chemicals. The closer the use of agro-chemicals to the coastal area, the higher the risk of it having a negative impact on coastal ecosystems (FAO, 2012) . Therefore, it is imperative to make laws that will prohibit agricultural activities around the coastal wetlands to conserve coastal resources in order to ensure sustainability of the fragile resources.

Environmental Pollution: Coastal pollution and its impacts have resulted in a number of environmental issues including the enrichment of enclosed waters with organic matter leading to eutrophication, pollution by chemicals such as oil and sedimentation due to land based activities or sea level rise due to the global change. Over 80% of all marine pollution originated from land-based sources which are primarily industrial, agricultural and urban. Pollution accompanies most kinds of human activities, including offshore oil and gas production and marine oil transportation (“Coastal pollution and impacts”, n.d).

Water pollution: Environment can be polluted when the pollutants present in the environment are in such a quantity that the environment is offensive to live in. In other words, when the water environment is un-conducive to aquatic lives, the water is said to be polluted. Okafor (1985 in Ekpo 2010) stated that aquatic pollution can occur when the self-purifying powers of water are unable to remove the materials added to it. According to Ekpo (2010), problems of water pollution range from biological, physical to geological effects. The problems include public health hazards caused by pathogenic organism and toxic chemicals (Ekpo, 2010). Also, amenities like beaches and harbours become polluted with solid waste, oil and other chemical (Anon, 1990 in Ekpo, 2010). Meanwhile, oil spills in water bodies get the water bodies polluted thereby reducing its agricultural, industrial, domestic, and recreational

and leisure uses. The major concern of aquatic oil spillage is the effect on fish and fisheries, abandonment of fishing grounds and associated livelihood pursuits (Powell, 1986). The pouring of oil into the environment is the greatest single environmental problems associated with on-shore and off-shore exploration of petroleum in Nigeria. Awobajo (1981) listed oil spillage sources as rupture of oil pipelines corrosion, hose failures, oil well blow-out and sabotage. The department of petroleum resources estimated that 1.89 million barrels of petroleum were spilled into the Niger Delta between 1976 and 1996, out of a total of 2.4 million barrels spilled in 4,835 incidents (“Niger_Delta Environment”, n.d). A UNDP report states that there have been a total of 6,817 oil spills between 1976 and 2001. The Nigerian National Petroleum Corporation (NNPC) places the quantity of petroleum jettisoned into the environment yearly at 2,300 cubic metres with an average of 300 individual spills annually (“Niger_Delta Environment”, n.d) (Accessed on: 14/02/13). Oil spillage has a major impact on the ecosystem in the Niger Delta. Much of mangrove forests in the area which are sensitive to oil have been destroyed. This slow and continual poisoning of the water and destruction of the vegetation in the Niger Delta since exploration of oil began is not a good development for the nation. Unfortunately, since the production of oil in Nigeria, there has never been an effective effort on the part of the government, let alone the oil operator to control environmental problems associated with the oil industry.

Water pollution tends to result from poor waste water treatment, solid waste disposal, toxic chemical management, discharge of industrial effluents and sewage, Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC, 2001). The risk of offshore oil spills from wells terminal and tankers is a serious threat (UNEP, 1999; UNEP, 2002). WWF believes that the threat posed by oil development – the oil and gas industry’s

track record is often failing to protect the environment adequately – makes such development too big a risk to be allowed near or in MPAs (WWF, 2011c). Sub-standard ships and poor shipping practices are leading to massive marine pollution and damage. This damage is caused by;

- Release of oil and chemical through accidental spills and operational discharges
- Transfer of invasive alien species; through ballast water and on ship hull.
- Release of biocides from toxic chemicals used in antifouling paints.
- Dumping of waste such as garbage and sewage.
- Physical and other damage through dropping of anchors, noise and wave disturbances and striking of whales and other marine mammals (WWF, 2011d).

Solid garbage also makes its way to the ocean. Plastic bags, balloons, glass bottles shoes, packaging materials, if not disposed of correctly, almost can reach the sea. Plastic garbage which decomposes very slowly is often mistaken for food by marine animals. High concentration of plastic materials, particularly plastic bags, have been found blocking the breathing passages and stomachs of many marine species, including whales, dolphins, seals, puffins and turtles. Plastic pack rings used for packing bottled drinks can also choke marine animals. This garbage can also come back to shore, where it pollutes beaches and other coastal habitats, (WWF, 2011b). Construction of hotels, recreation and other facilities often leads to increased pressure on sewage disposal facilities in particular because many destinations have several times more inhabitants in the high season than in the low season. Waste water facilities are often not built to cope with the dramatic rise in the volume of waste water. Waste water has polluted seas and lakes surrounding tourist attractions

damaging flora and fauna. Sewage run-off causes serious damage to coral reefs because it stimulates the growth of alga (bloom algal) and causing hypoxia (means low oxygen) (“problems of sustainable coastal tourism”, n.d).

Air pollution is another environmental challenge against coastal tourism. Transport by air, road and rail is continuously increasing along with the rising number of tourists and their greater mobility. Air pollution through emission of sulphur dioxide, nitrogen oxides and carbon dioxide from ships, boats, emissions from energy production use are linked to acid rain, global warming and severe local air pollution (“problems of sustainable coastal tourism”, n.d).

Gas flaring is another serious environmental challenge in Nigeria, particularly, in the Niger Delta. Gas flaring has environmental impact such as atmosphere pollution, human illness and production of acid rain (NEST, 1991, OMPADEC, 1993). Release of methane which has global warming potential and green house effect is noted with gas flaring. Tell News (2008 in Ekpo, 2010) revealed that gas flaring is known for its particulate matter emissions which led to premature deaths, respiratory illness, asthma attacks, and cancer. OMPADEC, (1993) also reported the case of deterioration of buildings in Iko and Oil producing town in Akwa Ibom State. Recently, they have been a public outcry on the harm of acid rain to houses and vegetation due to gas flaring in Niger Delta of Nigeria.

Apart from gas flaring, it has been observed that the use of traditional method of waste management through incineration have become one of the major causes of air pollution in Nigeria. It is common to find people burn waste from their homes or offices. This waste management practice is not environmental friendly but has a serious environmental impact in the atmosphere.

Another source of air and noise pollution in Nigeria is the use of fireworks during Christmas and New Year Eve. This practice is common among youths who are in an exuberant mood to celebrate Christmas and New Year. The use of cannons (large guns) planted on the ground during ceremonies such as burials, coronations, festivals and other special events in the Eastern parts of Nigeria is a source of environmental challenge. All these practices that emit gas, smell and noise within the environment have greenhouse effect and health hazards

Noise pollution from airplanes, cars, motorbikes, boats, buses as well as recreational vehicles such as snowmobiles and jet skies is an ever growing problem of tourism, causing annoyance, stress and even hearing loss.

All motorized forms of road, sea and air transport can intrude on the calm of a resort by raising noise levels, whether in rural surroundings or in residential rural area. For instance, air craft taking off and landing at busy airports severely disturb local residents and tourists alike (Holloway, 2006). Noise from water borne vessels in most notable port along coast and in a tranquil rural area where boats are used can disturb the peace of the night when travelling along rivers and canals. New water-borne vehicles like jet bikes and water bikes that are often used off-shore at popular beach resorts are noisy (Holloway, 2006).

In Nigeria, it is not unusual to hear in the air from neighbourhood the sound of music played by marketers of musical records. These marketers with their electronic gadgets, loudspeakers and horn speakers mounted outside usually blare out music thereby disturb the peace and calmness of the residents living in the immediate environs. It is equally difficult to believe that even local authorities have not made

concerted and effective efforts to control their noise. This uncontrollable noise from them has caused serious public nuisance.

The use of generators which is now rampant due to unsteady electric power supply has become a major source of noise in Nigeria. These generators popularly called in the local parlance, “I rich pass my neighbour” which are competitively used both in the cities and in rural areas have been an issue of serious concern in our environment. Because of erratic supply of electricity in Nigeria, almost every household in Nigeria uses generator as a more reliable source of power to their homes and offices both in the urban and rural areas. For example, you will discover that in a building of four flats, occupied by four families (households), four separate generators are used in that house. The noise produced by using generators in such a house will surely have multiplied by four – multiplier effects. This does not cause only noise pollution but also causes air pollution.

Aesthetic pollution is another environmental problem facing coastal tourism. In some locations, conventional tourism has been accused of failing to integrate its structures with the natural features and indigenous architecture of the destination. Large dominating resorts can look out of place in any natural environment and may clash with the indigenous structural design. Also, in areas with high concentrations of tourist activities and appealing natural attractions, waste disposal is a serious problem; improper disposal can be a major despoiler of the natural environment. Solid waste and littering can degrade the physical appearance of the water and shoreline (“problems of sustainable coastal tourism”, n.d).

Lack of planning control is often the cause of aesthetic pollution. Most times, developers prefer to build cheaply, resulting in high-rise concrete hotels, lacking

character and out of keeping with the surrounding architecture. It was observed British towns were losing their local character, as builders chose to build in ubiquitous (but cheap) London brick rather than the materials available locally. As a result, planning authorities took stricter measures against this practice (Holloway, 2006). In seaside resorts around the world, the concrete skyscraper hotels have become the norm and from Waikiki in Hawaii to Benidorm in Spain, the tourist is confronted with conformity of architecture which owes nothing to the culture and traditions of the country in which it is built (Holloway, 2006).

It is not different in Nigeria from what is in vogue in many parts of the world. The architecture of seaside resorts and hotels found in Nigeria do not depict the culture and tradition of the people, it has become a fashion for buildings of luxury hotels and resorts in Nigeria to be found tall. For example, a trip to Sheraton or Nicon Hilton Abuja or to any five star hotels in cities like Lagos, *Owerri*, Port Harcourt, Enugu etc will reveal to you that hotel buildings do not conform to the local designs. Holloway (2006) has revealed that some far-seeing authorities have recognized the potential damage done by this practice and brought in controls to limit it. He reported that some have insisted that hotels must be built in local materials or conform to “vernacular” architecture (i.e. styles indigenous to the region). Others require that buildings should not exceed certain heights. For example, Tunisia requires that new hotel developments in tourism resorts should be no higher than the palm trees which will surround them. Mauritius has imposed constraints on both the architectural style and the materials employed in hotel building. Such legislation clearly must apply to all buildings, not just those for tourism (Holloway, 2006).

Another aspect of aesthetic pollution is that which resulted from improper disposing of solid wastes which usually deface the environment. Many streets, roads and

drainage systems are found blocked by solid wastes. Lawal, Aniab, Uche and Animashaun (1995) have defined solid wastes as unwanted or discarded materials from houses, streets, commercial, industrial and agricultural operations. These solid wastes which are found to deface the environment can be in various forms such as pieces of wood, plastics, empty cans, metals, food wastes, broken glasses, papers, leaves, clothing materials (discarded), mattresses, etc.

Pollution Control:

Pollution poses a serious problem to life in any environment which makes water and air potent agents of diseases. Because of the potential risks of pollution to both human and animal lives, it has become necessary to put in place an effective system to control pollution.

There are many approaches that can be employed to effectively control and manage pollution to avoid its negative effects. Pollution control means to control the emissions and effluents in the air, water, land, or soil. Without pollution control, the waste products from consumptions, heating, agriculture, mining, manufacturing, transportation and human activities, whether they disperse accumulate will degrade the environment (Owa, 2013).

However, pollution prevention and waste minimisation are more desirable than pollution control. Pollution could be minimized through (i) recycling (ii) re-using (iii)waste minimisation (iv) mitigating (v) preventing (vi) composting (Owa, 2013).

There are two major approaches – regulatory and non-regulatory approaches to pollution control. The regulatory approach uses government policy and implementation to address environmental pollution (“Guidelines for preparing

economic analysis”, 2010). Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) has pursued on a number of non-regulatory approaches that rely on voluntary initiatives to complement the existing regulation in order to improve environmental quality in areas that policy makers are not currently regulating. The voluntary initiatives rests on the concepts underlying “pollution prevention” approach to environmental management choices, (“Guidelines for preparing economic analysis”, 2010).

In the United States pollution prevention Act of 1990, Congress established a national policy that:

- Pollution should be prevented or reduced at the source whenever feasible.
- Pollution that cannot be prevented should be recycled in an environmentally safe manner whenever feasible.
- Pollution that cannot be prevented or recycled should be treated in an environmentally safe manner whenever feasible.
- Disposal or other release into the environmental should be conducted in an environmentally safe manner.

Destructive Fishing Practices: Aquaculture has impacts on the environmental and wild marine species. Overexploitation of fisheries is another key factor determining the health of the marine ecosystem (Alno, 2002). In other words, people are taking far more fish out of the ocean than those remaining. As a result, 53% of the world’s fisheries are fully exploited and 32% are overexploited, depleted or recovering from depletion (FAO, 2010). Most of the top ten marine fisheries, accounting for about 30% of all capture fisheries production are fully exploited or overexploited (Food and Agriculture Organization, 2010). Most of the top ten marine fisheries,

accounting for about 30% of all capture fisheries production are fully exploited or over exploited, (FAO, 2010). As many as 90% of all the ocean's large fish have been fished (Myers, and Worm, 2003). Each year billions of unwanted fish and other animal-like dolphins, marine turtles, seabirds, sharks, sea foods, corals etc die due to inefficiency, illegal and destructive and fishing practices (WWF, 2011e) and Alder and Sumaila (2004).

Climatic Change: Climate change is contributing to ocean, and coastal disasters are affecting tourist destinations globally. For instance, the hurricane Katrina on New Orleans and the US Gulf coast in 2005, and the disasters of tsunami at far East at the end of 2014 (Holloway, 2006) and DG Environment News Alert Service (ENAS,2010).

The 2004 tsunami has led to the death of over 270,000 people and injured half a million others with as many as five millions affected in some way. Also great physical devastation occurred that was concentrated in Indonesia. Coastal resorts in India and Malaysia were hit but the most severely damaged tourism infrastructure was in Thailand, Sri Lanka and the Maldives. In January, 2005, there was 85% decline in international tourists. Hotel occupancy rates fell to 10%. Overseas arrival into *Phuket* dropped by 67.2% in the first half of 2005 and approximately 500 tourism enterprises (employing over 3000 people) collapsed in 2005 (Henderson, 2007).

Changes in climate can manifest themselves as changes in temperature, precipitation, sea level, inundation , flooding, erosion, salt water intrusion, loss of biodiversity, etc. (Ehler, Cicin-Sani, Knecht, Sault, and Weiher, (1997) and DG Environment News Alert Service (2010). Coastal areas are particularly vulnerable to altered climate conditions, low-lying delta and barrier coasts, low-elevation reef islands and coral

atolls are especially sensitive to sea level rise as well as changes in rainfall storm frequency and intensity. All these changes can have negative impacts on fisheries, agriculture, human settlements, financial services and human health but they can also largely affect tourists' decisions on destination selection and eventually tourists flow in general (Markovic, 2009). United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO, 2008) reported that changes in climate conditions call for the adaptive management of the tourism sector in order to sustain socio-economic benefits for the local communities while ensuring quality experience for tourists. The intergovernmental panel on climate change (IPG, 2007) declared that it is very likely that hot extremes heat waves and heavy precipitation will become more frequent and give a probable projected range in temperature increase of 1.8-4°C and in sea level rise of 0.28-0.48 meters. According to UNWTO, UNEP and WMO (2008), emissions from tourism (including transports, accommodation and activities) account for about 5% of global CO₂ emissions (but may reach up to 14% if measured as radiative forcing, i.e. the warming caused by CO₂ and other green house emissions. More so, there is great variation in emissions across tourism sectors and within different types of transportation. For instance, trips by coach and rail account for 34% of all trips, but for only 13% of all CO₂ emissions. At the same time long haul travel accounts for 2.7% of all tourist trips but contributes 17% to global tourist emissions. In 2005 tourism's contribution to global warming was estimated to contribute between 5% and 14% to the overall warming caused by human emissions of green house gases (Simpson, Gossling, Scott, Hall, and Gladin, 2008).

The tourism sector has a duty to ensure the responsible use of natural resources, reducing harmful gas emissions to the atmosphere and supporting the protection of biodiversity. Minimizing tourism impacts on the natural environment can sustain

important natural barriers to climate impacts (such as reefs and Mangroves) and therefore contribute to the natural resilience of ecosystems (UNWTO, 2008). Simpson et al (2008) gave probable projections of tourism contribution to climate change. 'By 2035, tourism's contribution to climate change may have grown considerably. Publications indicate that in terms of the number of trips made, global tourism will grow by 179% while guest nights will grow by 156%, passengers kilometers travelled will rise by 222%, while CO₂ emissions will increase at somewhat lower levels 152% due to efficiency improvements. The share of aviation-related emissions will grow from 40% in 2005 to 52% by 2035. Tourism contribution to global warming including all greenhouse gases will be even larger, with an expected increase in radiative forces up to 188%, most of this caused by aviation. The development of emissions from tourism and their contribution to global warming is thus in contrast to the international community's climate change mitigation goals for the coming decades (UNWTO, NEP and UMO (2008) in Markovic *et al* (2009). Also, medical professionals' have been giving warning about the dangers of skin cancer due to the threat of global warming.

Holloway (2008) noted that most tourists are tending to ignore for the present the warnings they are receiving from the medical profession about the dangers from skin cancer, but over time these warnings and the escalating figures for melanoma operations and fatalities must start to influence demand for tourism. Severe sunburn is among the most common of the ailments afflicting tourists from the generating countries, the result of a desire to maximize exposure to the sun during the brief period spent abroad on holiday. While sunburn is by no means uncommon among tourists visiting the seaside in northern communities, the increased intensity of the sun's rays nearer the equator, coupled with higher consumption of alcohol abroad

leading to carelessness in taking measures to protect against burns on fair skin, has resulted in rather more than the pain and nausea that accompany a bad case of sunburn (Holloway, 2006). The propensity to skin cancer is enhanced as the world's protective ozone layer is reduced by atmosphere pollution. The long term effect of such exposure to the sun is a substantial rise in skin cancers, anything up to 20 years or more after the sunburn. Although the danger has now been recognized for some years and governments have mounted campaigns to draw attention to the problem, many tourists either remain ignored of the problem or choose to ignore it in their desire to cultivate an attractive tan (research indicates that over 70% of young people between the ages of 16 and 24 in Britain still want to tan while on holiday). The United States experiences over a million new incidences of skin cancer annually, and the problem has also been well publicized in Britain, where some 40,000 cases occur each year (Holloway, 2006). The problem with solar rays is that tourists going on holiday, whether to beaches at home or abroad, remain largely unaware of their danger. Holloway (2006) disclosed two forms of ultra-violet light rays responsible for skin cancer known as UVA and UVB. UVA light rays are those to which people are exposed in the use of sun beds and that have longer wave lengths and affect the skin throughout the day when exposed to light, even during cold periods. These rays have long term effects on the skin, creating wrinkles and liver spots and can also lead to carcinomas. There is doubt whether most SPF (sun protection factor) creams offer adequate protection against these rays. The UVB rays are shorter in wave-lengths but stronger, far more damaging than UVA rays and most dangerous when the sun is at its height between the hours of 11 am and 3 pm. While SPF creams prevent burning from these rays, it is now believed to have little effect in reducing the incidence of long term skin cancer (unless sun-blocked creams are used (Holloway, 2006).

Activities towards sun-tanning are expected to change gradually over the next few years with many tourists still choosing to visit seaside resorts for their perceived health and relaxation benefits (Holloway, 2006). Tourists are encouraged to change their behaviour patterns while at seaside by applying high factor sun-creams – or better sun-blocks while sunbathing ensuring young children are well covered, and generally reducing outdoor activities when the sun is at its most intense.

Considering the impact of climate change in our environment, Nigeria is not left out of it. Changes in climate have manifested in Nigeria in form of rise in temperature and sea level, flooding and erosion. In recent times, some places in Nigeria that have obviously witnessed the menace of flood include Lagos, Oyo, Bayelsa, Rivers, Anambra, Imo, among others. In addition to flood, erosion has caused serious damage in places like Imo, Enugu, Akwa Ibom, Anambra, Abia, Ebonyi etc.

Inappropriate Development Pattern: Over development for tourism has the same problems as other coastal tourism development problems, but often has a greater impact on the tourism developments that are located at or near fragile marine ecosystems. For example;

- Mangrove forests and sea grass have been removed to create open beaches
- Tourist developments such as piers and other structures have been built directly on top of coral reefs.

Nesting sites for endangered marine turtles have been destroyed and disturbed by large number of tourists on beaches (“Impacts of coastal tourism”, n.d) . Land development adjacent to the beach is the largest threat to the beach stability as beaches need room to move. If beaches are not given adequate room to move, erosion and property damage occur (Sullivan *et al* 1995) and Clark (1992).

Industrial development has altered, disturbed and destroyed coastal ecosystems, including sensitive habitats. Many important industrial centres are situated on estuaries and in the vicinity of urban activities affecting coastal areas include smelting and processing, chemical, petrochemical (oil and gas storage and refining), paper mills, vehicles, factories, ship building, power plants (coal, oil gas, nuclear energy), and food processing (including fish). The threat from industry and tourism infrastructure on the ecosystem around the coastal areas is acute (Cook, 1996).

On the other hand dredging causes physical disturbance and may result in the redistribution of contamination through release from the sediment. The contaminants might be re-suspended and remobilized from sediments and create new entries in food webs (Cook, 1996). It is well known that changes in substrate quality are synonymous to changes in the structure of benthic communities. The bulk of material eligible for dumping at sea comes from dredging operations from navigation channels, materials removed in coastal engineering projects, beach nourishment, and reclamation and coastal marsh preservation. Sewage sludge dumping increases the fallout of organic materials and associated contaminants to seafloor. It can contribute to eutrophication in naturally nutrient rich coastal waters (Cook, 1996).

Moreover, much of African's coastal zone is vulnerable to physical shoreline change, in some places from accretion and mostly from erosion. Most of the change is due to or exacerbated by human activities. Locally, it is caused by coastal engineering such as Port development interrupting the alongshore transport or protective beach sediment. It is also due to the retention (by damming) of river borne sediments, formerly discharged at the coast (World Commission on Dams-WCD, 2000), Crossland, Kremer, Lindeboom, Marshal, Crossland, and LeTissier (2005) and

Hamerlynck, (1999). Coastal erosion by wave action has long been an important issue on the high-energy coasts of Western Africa (UNEP, 1999).

Biodiversity is an important value and not always sufficiently considered, given its vital role in the provision of ecosystem goods and services. There could be greater recognition of biodiversity impacts and the use of vulnerable coastal and marine ecosystems to monitor, understand and respond to those impacts. The most pronounced threat to biodiversity posed by tourism is land clearance and degradation resulting from tourism development (Kramer and Kramer, 2002). Developers in the hot sports and high-biodiversity, wilderness areas are clearing out littoral forest, ripping up mangrove stands, dredging through sea grass beds and filling in wetlands for tourism infrastructure and developments (Honey & Krats, 2007). One of the basic requirements of tourism development is land exploitation. Coastal areas have been overused and heavily urbanized. For instance, WWF (2000) showed that out of 8,000 km of Italian coastline, 43% is completely urbanized, 28% is partly urbanized and only 29% of coastline is free of construction. As a result of such exploitation, many areas have undergone dramatic change leading to habitat loss. The loss of habitat is directly affecting rare and endangered species leading to biodiversity loss. Also, Conservation International (CI, 2003) reported that about 24% (1,130) mammals and 12% (1,183) of bird species are currently regarded as globally threatened but there is no precise information on how many species have become extinct in the past three decades. Such losses of biodiversity, no doubt is the result of number of different factors such as urbanization, pollution, land reclamation, climate change, international conflict, waste generation increase, dredging, clear cutting of mangrove etc.

Carrying Capacity: The concept of tourism carrying capacity arises from a perception that tourism cannot grow forever in a place without causing irreversible

damage to the local system (Coccoassis and Mexa, 2004). Carrying capacity analysis is a basic technique used in tourism to determine the upper limits of development and visitor use and optimum exploitation of tourism resources. Within a particular country, carrying capacities need to be established generally for the planning area and calculated more precisely for each development site at the community planning level. (Inskip, 1991). According to UNWTO (1981), the carrying capacity of a tourist resort may be defined as the maximum number of people that may visit a tourist destination at the same time without causing destruction of the physical, economic and socio-cultural environment and an unacceptable decrease in the quality of the visitors' satisfaction.

The concept of carrying capacity derives from wildlife ecology where it has been used to define the maximum population size of certain species that an area can support without reducing its ability to support the same species in the future. This definition of carrying capacity has been enlarged by planners according to Hall and Lew (1998). Carrying Capacity Assessment (CCA) as a precise technique was first introduced in the 1960s as a method of prescribing land-use limits and development control (Clark, 1992).

Tourist attractions are assets which cannot be reproduced. They are treated as a public good where market mechanisms do not show their normal functions. A maximum number of users visiting tourist attractions lead to their saturation, and in turn, results in a poorer quality of tourist experience. The negative effects of saturation can also be felt in the neighbouring, unsaturated areas, by diminishing their attractions due to unattractive environment and the associated lower quality of tourist demand in the immediate vicinity (Markovic *et al*, 2009). Hence, the greater the intensity of tourist use of an attraction, the more limited the appeal of the tourist

attraction becomes. Setting a carrying capacity for a tourist destination will not only help in the comprehensive planning and sustainable development of tourism, but will also secure a positive feedback effect on the tourist market.

Massive influxes of tourists often to a relatively small area have a huge impact. They add to the pollution, waste and water needs of the local population, putting local infrastructure and habitats under pressure. For example, 85% of the 1.8 million people who visit Australia's Great Barrier Reefs are concentrated in two small areas - Cairns and Whitsunday island which together have a human population of 130,000 ("sustainable tourism", n.d).

2.5.2 Economic Impacts and Challenges

Travel and tourism is the world's largest industry. Statistics provided by the World Tourism Organization (WTO) emphasize the economic significance of tourism, at the global level. The economic impacts and challenges will be discussed under the following sub-heads: Tourist arrivals, tourism contribution (income and employment) and negative economic impacts/challenges.

Tourist Arrivals: WTO (1996 in WTO 1997) disclosed that the international tourist arrivals in 1995 were estimated at 567 Million tourists world-wide. The events of September 11, 2001 and the subsequent conflicts in the Middle East have brought a significant change to the nature of tourism flow. Although the global figures for international tourist arrivals and spending indicate a recovery path from the crises period of 2001, the anatomy of that recovery portrays a different picture. For instance, within Europe, international tourist arrivals to Spain increased by 4.6% in 2001 even though international tourist arrivals to Europe as a whole fell by 0.5%. The destinations such as UK (-9.4%), France (-2.6%), Germany (-5.9%) and Italy (-3.9%),

have recorded decline in the number of tourist arrivals for that period (Cooper *et al*, 2005). The year 2001/2 showed a growth in international tourist arrivals to Europe as a whole of 2.3% with all countries except Switzerland, Poland, and Portugal showing a positive growth over the previous year. Between 2000 and 2010, the World Tourism Organization (WTO) forecasts that the number of international visitor arrivals will grow five times more rapidly in developing countries than in more established destination markets such as Europe and North America (WTO, 2004).

The volume of Travel and Tourism (TAT) movements has been positive so far in 2012 and has exceeded expectations from the beginning of the year. International tourist arrivals have grown to 4.9% in 2012 from January to June. Air line passenger's traffic was up to 6.8% and hotel occupancy rates rose in many markets apart from southern Europe, (WTTC, 2012a).

The best performing countries for international tourist arrivals are those rebounding from difficult times in 2010 and 2011. The president and chief executive officer (CEO) of WTTC said "2012 demonstrated again how resilient the travel and tourism is. Despite many economic difficulties, last year, for the first time, we saw more than one billion international travellers cross an internal border (WTTC, 2012b)".

In the period from January to June, 2012, Japan's arrivals figure was up 44.4%, Tunisia was up 41.7% and Egypt was up 23.4%. South Korea where visitors from its main markets of Japan stayed home after the Tsunami was incredibly strong in 2012 with arrival's figure increased to 21.8%. In the Middle East, particularly Lebanon, international tourist arrivals showed -12.4%. The growth has been depressed by the conflict in the neighbouring Syria. Greece experienced a 9% decline in visitor's arrivals in the first half of the year 2012 (WTTC, 2012b).

Tourism Contributions (income and employment): The total receipts from international tourism amounted to US \$ 372 million. International tourism receipts grew faster than world trade in the 1980s and now constitute a higher proportion of the value of world exports than all sectors other than crude petroleum and petroleum products and motor vehicles/parts (WTO, 1995) in (WTO, 1997). Travel and tourism is also the world's largest creator of jobs in most countries, providing employment for over 100 million people worldwide. International travel and tourism contributes about US\$166 billion of tax revenue (WTO, 1993 in WTO, 1997). According to WTO, more than a billion people will travel in 2010 (Okoli, 2001). Estimate for 2004 indicate that the travel and tourism sector will generate a combined gross domestic product (GDP) of about US\$ 1,542 billion and 74 million jobs directly while the broader travel and tourism economy (which includes indirect impacts) is expected to total US\$ 4,218 billion – equivalent to more than 10% of the world's GDP and account for 215 million jobs or 8% of the world's employment. Also, an annual growth rate of 6% in total demand is forecast for 2014 (World Travel and Tourism Council, 2004).

The growth of the international tourism industry has been particularly important to poorer countries. Between 1990 and 2000, international tourism receipts increased to 49% in European countries and 64% in countries within the organization for Economic co-operation and Development, as compared with 133% in developing countries and 154% in the smaller subset of least developed countries.

Also, tourist spending over these two years was more volatile than arrivals with Europe showing an overall decline of 1.7% in 2000/1 and a growth of 6.5% in 2001/2. In 1986 the USA was responsible for 14.8% of the World total tourism receipts; in 1996 this figure had risen to 15.3%. China ranked as the 22nd destination by tourism

receipts in 1986 and the rapid growth of tourism activity over the following 16 years has seen it rise to be fifth in the world ranking (Cooper *et al*, 2005). The division between the performance of developed and developing countries is of additional significance when it is considered that on average the industrialized countries are responsible for 70% of total world exports and yet receive over 70% of all tourism receipts which contrasts with developing countries that are responsible for less than 30% of all tourist receipts (Cooper *et al*, 2005).

Tourism is generally seen as a significant economic contributor to a nation's gross national product (GND) since international visitors are a valuable source of foreign currency. Kenya is an example of a country where net foreign exchange earnings from tourism are a significant percentage of gross receipts (90% in 1989), indicating that from a balance of payment perspective, Kenya's tourism industry is very important to the country. Other examples of tourism's contribution to GNP in the early 1990s include six percent in Tunisia, 18% in the Maldives and 32% in Barbados (Cooper *et al*, 2005). The economic impacts of coastal tourism are contributions to government revenues, foreign exchange earnings, generation of employment and business opportunities. The cruise line international association (CLIA) claims that purchases by the cruise lines and their passengers totalled US\$ 17.6 billion in 2006 and that this spending resulted in US \$ 35.7 billion in total impact and generated 348,000 jobs paying US\$14.7 billion in wages to US workers (CLIA, 2006). In Central America and parts of the Caribbean cruise tourism is going simultaneously with "Stay-over" ecotourism. In the Caribbean, the total number of cruise ship passenger and "stay-over" arrival is currently about equal-some 15 million each and the markets for both are dynamic and growing (Honey and Kratz, 2007). In addition to the growing numbers of visitors, the permanent population of U.S., coastal region

is also increasing at a faster rate than the population as a whole. The population of coastal countries has increased by approximately 25% since 1970 (Cunningham and Walker, 1996; Houston, 1996).

In California, for example, Wilson and Wheeler (1997) stated that study has shown that coastal tourism is the largest contributor at US \$9.9 billion, with the next largest contributor being ports at US\$6.0 billion. Offshore oil accounted for US\$860 million and fisheries and marine-culture combined contributed US\$550 million. Between June, 1995 and May, 1996, 2.5 million visitors to Monroe county, Florida spent about US \$1.2 billion. Coast tourism and recreation accounted for over 60% of output/sales, 45% of income and over 46% of all employment (Wilson and Wheeler, 1997). Environmental Protection Agency (EPA, 1996) in a study conducted on the benefits of water quality improvement, disclosed valuable information on the importance of coastal tourism and recreation;

- Saltwater fishing generates expenditures of over US\$5 billion annually, a total economic output of US\$15 billion, total earnings (wages) of over US\$4 billion and over 200,000 jobs.
- Over 77 million Americans participate in recreational boating (NMMA, 1996). The number of recreation boats in the United States almost doubled from 1970 to 1990 (16.2 million) and is expected to increase by a further four million by the year 2000 (EPA, 1996). In 1996, Americans spent approximately US \$17.7 billion on boats and directly related items (NMMA, 1996).
- Over 80 million Americans participate in outdoor (non-pool) swimming with visitors to beaches and lakes increasing from 18 million in 1981 to 23 million in 1989. In seven states beach goers spent US\$74 billion with the most sunbathing and walking in coastal areas (EPA, 1996).

- Bird watching is estimated by the US Fish and Wildlife service to generate spending of about US\$18 billion per year by over 24 million ‘birders’ and other wildlife watchers, a generous proportion of which occurs in coastal regions (EPA, 1996). Furthermore, another study by EPA (1997) on the economic activity generated by the coastal and estuaries resources, some of the findings as related to coastal tourism and recreation are given below;
- Corpus Christi, Texas: Nature tourism in Corpus Christi is the fastest growing component of tourism sector that generates US\$23 billion annually. Recreational fishing provides aggregates net benefits to the area of US\$83 million, including US \$37 million per year in state and local taxes and US\$340 million regional economic impact.
- Long Island Sound, New York: The economic impact of water quality dependent uses in Long Island Sound, including boating, commercial and sport fishing contributed more than US\$ 1.2 billion while beach going has a direct benefit of more than US\$800 million annually.
- Santa Monica Bay, California: Tourism is the Los Angeles region’s second largest industry with 392,000 full and part time jobs contributing US\$3.6 billion annually to the region’s payroll. With nearly four million tourists annually and over 45 million beach visits per year, Santa Monica Bay contributes significantly to the regional economy.
- Indian River Lagoon, Florida: The Indian River Lagoon region is a popular resort and a vacation destination which received over six million visitors in 1995 and provided economic benefits of approximately US \$730 million.
- San Francisco Bay, California: The economy of the 12 countries bordering this estuary exceeds US\$ 175 billion and supports more than four million jobs.

Many of these jobs are dependent on the estuary's natural resource or are water related. Revenues from maritime activities exceed US\$5.4 billion each year and marinas annually generate some US\$167 million. Tourism which generates over US\$4 billion annually is likewise strongly tied to the aesthetic values of the estuary.

According to EPA (1997), estimates indicated that coastal and marine waters support 28.3 million jobs, generates US\$54 billion in goods and services, contributes US\$30 billion to the US economy through recreational fishing and provides a destination for 180 million Americans to recreate each year.

In Eastern Africa, macro economic growth in recent years has been high with Kenya, Tanzania and Mozambique all registering estimated GDP growth rates in excess of 6% for 2007. In Tanzania and Mozambique GDP growth of 5-7% annually has been sustained since around 2000, but in Kenya the economy was in recession from the late 1990's until 2003, but has recovered strongly since 2003 (Fred Nelson, 2007). The tourism industry in the region reflects these patterns of increased growth and investment and tourism is a significant driver of macro economic growth in all the three countries and thus of a major strategic national importance in terms of generating foreign exchange and attracting capital flows. Overall, Africa's share of global tourism is growing; increasing from 1.5% of total international arrivals in 1970 to 4.5% in 2003, and it is projected to continue to increase (Fred Nelson, 2007).

Tourism represents about 17% of GDP in Tanzania and around 10% in Kenya. Growth has been more sustained in Tanzania since 1990's, while Kenya industry again reflecting the broader economic and political climate declined from 1997-2003 but recovered with annual surges in growth of 20-30% in 2004-2006. Tanzania

earned an estimated US\$850 million in 2006 while Kenya is forecast to exceed US\$ 1 billion in total tourism revenues for the first time in 2007. In Mozambique, the tourism industry is much smaller at about 2.5% of GDP and 12% of exports, although has grown rapidly in recent years as well (13% per annum from 1999 to 2003) (International Finance Corporation, 2006 in Fred Nelson, 2007).

Contributions

Despite progressive downgrades to growth forecasts through 2011, the industry grew by 3% over the course of the year in terms of travel and tourism contribution to GDP. Tourism's direct contribution to GDP in 2011 was US\$ 2 trillion and the industry generated 98 million jobs (WTTC, 2012d). Taking account of its direct, indirect and induced impacts, travel and tourism's total contribution in 2011 was US\$743 billion in investment and US\$1.2 trillion in exports. These contributions represented 9% of GDP, 1 in 12 jobs, 5% of investment and 5% exports (WTTC, 2012d).

Growth forecasts for 2012, although lower than anticipated a year ago, are still positive at 2.8% in terms of the industry's contribution to GDP. Longer term prospects were even more positive with annual growth forecast to be 4.2% over the ten years to 2022 (WTTC, 2012d).

The World Travel and Tourism Council's latest Economic Impacts Research shows that growth in the World Travel and Tourism (WTT) was robust in 2012 despite many economic challenges. The total contribution from Travel and Tourism to the world GDP grew by 3.0% in 2012. This was faster than growth of the world economy as a whole (2.3%) and also faster than growth of a number of broad industries including manufacturing, financial and business services and retail (WTTC, 2012a).

Meanwhile, the direct, indirect and induced impacts of Travel and Tourism's total contribution in 2012 was US\$ 6.6 trillion in GDP (a rise of US\$ 500 billion), 260 million jobs, US\$ 765 billion investments, US\$1.2 trillion in exports. This contribution represented 9.3% of global GDP, 1 in 11 jobs, 5% of investment and 5% of exports. The global Travel and Tourism contribution to direct GDP in 2013 is forecast to grow by 3.2% and is again forecast to out-space growth of the total global economy (2.4%) in 2013. Longer-term prospects are more positive with annual growth forecast to be 4.4% per year over the ten years to 2022 (WTTC, 2012a). While the global economic growth was predicted to be 2.4% in 2013, the forecast contribution to GDP of Travel and Tourism will be 3.2% faster than the 2.4% global economic growth. The industry is expected to support nearly 266 million jobs in 2013 and again perform many other industries.

Among the 20 largest global economies (the G20), South Korea, China, South Africa and Indonesia performed best. Growth of less than 1% in Europe and 2% in United States was counter-balanced by 10% in South Korea, 7% in China and South Africa, and 6% in Indonesia, (WTTC, 2012c). The South Korea's annual Travel and Tourism GDP growth is the highest among G20 countries. It has been observed that South Korea's booming Travel and Tourism growth was induced by favourable exchange rates and a number of cultural, sporting and economic events, and strong international demand from its main markets (Japan and China).

In addition, among the 20 regional grouping released in mid-year updated October 2012, the top 11 regions' contribution to World Travel and Tourism total GDP for the year 2012, Europe is leading in contribution to global GDP with 26%, in spite of the fact that the region has a negative Travel and Tourism GDP growth as expected. Europe appeared to be the only region that has a negative downward GDP growth

from -0.2% to -0.6% at the beginning of the year. Still in regional contribution, North America was second in contribution to GDP by 24% and with upward growth from 0.4% to 1.5%. North East Asia has 20% contribution to World Travel and Tourism GDP, 6% in Latin America, 4% in South East Asia, 3% in Middle East, 3% in Oceania and 2% in South Asia. The least among the top 11 regions are North Africa, Caribbean and sub-Saharan Africa with 1% each, while the remaining nine regions' total contribution to GDP was only 9% (WTTC, 2012c).

In the Middle East, Travel and Tourism GDP growth showed a downward revision from 3.1% to 1.8% in January 2012 due to negative perception of safety and security by tourists in the region. Report shows that sub-Saharan Africa Caribbean and Latin America witnessed slight downward revisions (WTTC, 2012c).

Negative Economic Impacts / Challenges: An increase in employment opportunities can be an economic benefit borne out of coastal tourism development, even attracting job seekers from outside the community; but non-peak seasons and other tourism crisis can see mass scale unemployment leading to social consequences in communities with an undiversified economy (UNEP Division of Technology, Industry and Economics, 2006) in Kainji (2006).

An increase in the cost of living for resident can also follow tourism development as the supply and demand concept will force the cost of basic products and services and real estate to increase rendering them inaccessible to the local population (UNEP, 2006) in Kainji (2006). It has been reported that the New Jersey lost US\$800 million in tourism revenues following reports that medical wastes had washed up on some of its beaches (Bookman, 1997).

Tourism is highly competitive in nature and volatile in both domestic and international markets (Okoli, 2005). It is a fact that the production of tourist goods and services leads to repatriated income and commitment of resources that could otherwise be used for alternative purposes (Cooper *et al*, 2005). FAO (1994) enumerated the potentials of mangrove utilization in Nigeria to include tannins from the bark, rayon pulp, methanol, paper pulp, charcoal, transmission poles, fuel wood, timber and animal skins like crocodiles for the leather. This utilization of mangrove forests for other purposes has made them to be in competition with tourism, thereby reducing tourism contribution to the national and global economies.

In addition to that, the development of tourism in a particular area leads to shortage of labour force in some other areas or industry and over concentration of labour force in the area where tourism is developed. This eventually has tendency to aggravate unemployment in tourism developed area. The reason is because some of those people who left rural areas to look for job in tourism developed areas may end up remaining idle for quite a long time due to labour supply being more than labour demand.

Another economic challenge that confronts tourism development is leakages of expenditure out of the local economy. When tourists make expenditures within an economy, the amount of money that stays within the economy depends on the extent of leakages that occur. According to Cooper *et al* (2005) if a tourist purchases a carved wooden souvenir from a gift shop in Beijing, the extent of leakages will depend upon whether the carving was imported or made locally. If the carving was imported, the tourist is really only buying the value added that was created within the local economy (i.e. the value of local transport, import, government taxes and duties etc.). The extent of leakages can result from supply-side factors, particularly in

developing economies where the local capacity to supply the needs of tourist may be small and there is consequently a high proportion of demand met through imported goods and services (Cooper *et al*, 2005).

More so, where tourism attracts workers from the traditional sectors, there could be a growing inequality in the wealth of the local residents as some of them enjoy higher wages of the tourism sectors. In addition tax burden on the local residents may be increased in order to meet the growing demand for better infrastructure (roads, water supply, sewage treatment etc) because of tourism development (Cooper *et al*, 2005). Also, there are many cases where the workers conditions of employment in tourism industry are found to be less than desirable, despite the higher wages and salaries associated with the industry. It is common to find child labour, casual contracts, and part time jobs within the industry. The International Labour Organization (ILO) estimated that some 10-15% of all employees in the tourism are below the age of 18years. Children under the ages of 12years are usually often employed in developed and developing countries to work in tourism- related business (Cooper *et al*, 2005)

As was the case of western Malaysia at Taman national park and resort, privately owned where local staff employed in the area earned in 1999 US \$120 per month, while Malaysians living off the land at that time earned on average about US \$40 per month. The difference in income between the two local groups has led to social tourism conflicts and driven up boat fares and the cost of goods, despite the effect of increased park employment.

2.5.3 Socio-cultural impact

Socio-cultural impact refers to changes to residents' everyday experiences as well as to their values, way of life and intellectual and artistic product (WTO, 1996) and Wall

and Matheson (2006). According to Cooper *et al* (2005) socio-cultural impact of tourism is manifested through an enormous range of aspects from the art and craft through to the fundamental behaviour of individuals and collective groups. The impact can be positive such as the case where tourism preserve or even resurrects the craft skills of the population or the enhancement of cultural exchange between two distinct populations. The impact can also be negative such as the commercialization and bastardization of art and ceremonies\rituals of the host population. The socio-cultural impact may range from the cloth we wear, the food we eat and our general life styles and attitude which can all be influenced by place we visit (Cooper *et al*, 2005). Interactions between residents and tourists can impact creative expression by providing new opportunities or by stifling individuality with new restrictions (Kreag, 2001). For the purpose of the study, the social impact will be distinguished from the cultural impact.

Social impact

In studying the social effect of tourism development in any giving destination, two main factors need to be taken into consideration. The first relates to the tourists themselves and their activities while the second focuses on the host destination and population (Okpoko and Okpoko 2002). Walls and Mathieson (2006) described social impact of tourism as change in quality of life of resident of tourism destinations that are a consequence of tourism of any kind. The social impact categories include demographic structure, social amenities, institutional membership, personal safety and privacy, psychological features, host attitudes/perceptions, health and inter-ethnic relationship. The impact indicators include age, sex structure, migrations, resident displacement, transportation, education facilities, crime rates, disease transmission, work satisfaction, and communication (Nwafor, 2006, Cooper *et al*, 2005). The initial

stages of tourism development are normally accompanied by enthusiastic response on the part of the host community within the host population as they perceive the potential benefit that investors and visitors bring to the area. For example, tourism development has often received support from government and local residents in developing areas who recognize the economic benefit that may be earned but the initial euphoria and enthusiasm which are associated with the preliminary phase of tourism begins to expand as tourism members increase (Ramchander, 2004).

One of the most significant and less desirable aspect of tourism is its effect on the moral standard of the host population, the growth of prostitution, crime and gambling has been frequently identified among the negative effects of tourism development (Wall and Mathieson, 2006). Tourism is vulnerable to terrorism activities as evident in hijackings, kidnapping, attacks on tourism and tourist facilities. For instance, Nigeria has been enlisted among the terrorist countries by the United States of America. Wall and Mathieson (2006) has also seen religion as powerful force which has long caused people to travel to religious centres in many parts of the world. Travel to the ancient cities of Palestine, Jerusalem among Christians and Mecca and Medina among the Muslims is not new (Cook, Yale and Marque, 2006). Relationship between tourism and religions has changed from their traditional form and has become tourist destination for tourist lacking spiritual motivation (Wall and Mathieson, 2006). Tourism leads to language change through direct social impact. Language is an important factor in analyzing social and cultural change and would be useful indicators of the social impact of international tourism. Changes in the use of host language and its preservation are related to the nature of tourist-host relationship and the social and economic characteristics of the interacting groups (Colien and Cooper, 1986). It is also an established fact that the betterment of health is a common

motive for travel. Tourism plays a double role in the effect on the health of host populations. On one hand, it can improve and provide a better access to health facilities for members of the host community while on the other hand; it can simultaneously be the driving force for the spread of and re-emergence of infectious disease. The provision of health facilities utilizing the natural resources of the country's mineral water and climate is for personal regeneration through an active physical life together with mental relaxation (Wall and Matieson, 2006). The proliferation of AIDS on the other hand has done much to dampen the rapid growth of tourism industry and it is still a significant part of the market (Cooper *et al*, 2005).

Stakeholder's involvement:

Stakeholder's involvement is a critical factor in tourism development. During the last seventeen years, there has been growing concern about how more tourism can be developed and sustained. In this context, community participation and stakeholder's engagement have become critical in tourism planning. The true success of any planning lies in effective participation of the stakeholders in the decision making process. The participative exercises lead to people getting increasingly involved in their own society and influencing decisions that affect their lives (Hughes, 1995; Markovic, *et al*, 2009). The stakeholders of tourism development include the government, tourism business owners, employees of the business, taxpayers, local community's donor agencies, tourism planners/developers/environmentalists and the tourists (Holden, 2008). Informing and involving people can be challenging and time consuming but can make a big difference for successful projects, plans and tourism products (Markovic *et al*, 2009). Stakeholder's involvement demands that stakeholders have a broader view and understanding of the positive and negative effects of tourism on the community and the environment at large. A proper

understanding of these impacts puts them in a good stead to take proactive decisions that will enhance the positive impacts and downplay the negative impacts.

Erick and David (2005) suggested that for stakeholders to be involved, researchers and planners must first identify and understand what elements comprise stakeholder's knowledge of the concept of tourism development. Markovic *et al* (2009) stated that the main aim of stakeholder's engagement in the strategic planning process for tourism development is to systematically and strategically identify and involve those with a stake in the destination. The aims of stakeholder's involvement includes;

- Ensuring that right people are involved in planning and implementation of future activities
- Making sure all the important issues are considered.
- deciding what future actions are realistic and will best meet everyone's needs
- building support for regional plans, management plans and development proposals.

In addition to the above aims, the stakeholder's involvement should be aimed at bridging the gap between the management and the stakeholders to prevent opposition, tension and destruction of attractions. Stakeholders should be actively involved both in decision-making process and taking advantage of the benefits derivable from tourism. In other words, the involvement should begin from the inception of planning process, design and development, implementation, monitoring and evaluation to appropriation of profits so that differences in aspirations and expectations can be resolved at the right time.

Government Involvement

Governments are the key players managing tourism development. They play regulatory role in transport planning, land use planning, financing and destination management/marketing. In other words, governments have clear responsibilities for decision relating to tourism development. Like other forms of economic activity, tourism takes place in an environment that is shaped by many different forces. One of the most important of these forces according to WTO (1996) is exerted by web policies, law regulations and other actions of governments. WTO (1996) stated that the actions or inactions of governments can have a great impact upon nearly every aspect of tourism. There are number of concrete measures that national and local government can implement in order to ensure tourism development (Markovic, *et al*, 2009). One of the key measures relates to creating a legal framework that can provide tools for implementing tourism activities. UNEP and UNWTO (2005) described number of actions concerning the legislation that could be undertaken in support of tourism development below.

- A revision of existing legislation in order to ensure that it promotes and supports sustainable tourism.
- Enacting a national tourism law, that provides a constitutional basis for tourism policy in the long term.
- Identifying links between tourism law and other relevant laws such as those pertaining to environmental management or employment legislation. More so, special attention should be paid to the registration and enforcement of land-use plans (WWF, 2000). The land-use plans should be developed in such a way that the land and resources are used in ways conducive to tourism development, in terms of spatial location and impact on ecosystems. Building regulations should

be applied on an effective manner so that they can minimize the impact of construction on the natural environment. Also, governments should promote the introduction of new technologies for minimizing pollution and for water-saving (Markovic, *et al*, 2009).

Another aspect of government regulatory role that is of fundamental importance to the successful functioning of the tourism sector is in the availability of transportation, water, energy, sewage and waste disposal, telecommunication and basic health and security services (Markovic, *et al*, 2009). Economic instruments such as taxes and charges as well as financial incentives and agreements are equally used by governments as important tools to regulate tourism activities before tourism development can be achieved. For instance taxes and charges can be constructed to penalize unsustainable practices with negative impacts such as pollution (Markovic *et al*, 2009).

Governments can also adopt instrument to enable appropriate visitor management and determine levels of tourism impact. There are other number of instruments through which governments can directly or indirectly influence and support enterprise and tourists in making their activities and operations more sustainable. These include capacity building, carrying capacity and promoting local education etc. Capacity building is important as it develops potentials and ability of stakeholders to make and implement decision that will lead to more sustainable tourism by increasing their understanding, knowledge, confidence and skills (Markovic *et al*, 2009). Some of the advantages of using capacity building to strengthen the development of tourism are that;

- It is direct and precise
- It can secure long-term benefits
- It is flexible and can be altered at any time.
- It strengthens the effectiveness of other tourism development tools (Markovic, *et al*, 2009).

Additionally, stable socio-political climate is necessary if tourists are to be attracted to a given destination (Okpoko and Okpoko, 2002). The slightest inconvenience suffices to divert this type of trade in other directions (Tilburg, 1978 in Okpoko and Okpoko, 2002). For instance, Greek figures for tourism traffic with respect to U.S visitors to Greece showed a decrease of about 30% during the first four months of 1968 due to a coup d'état. Athens Hilton Hotel received some 14,000 cancellations during the period. Similarly, in 1969, Greece registered 101,500 arrivals of foreign visitors. This figure decreased to 90,800 in 1969 because of the riots of May 30 (Tilburg, 1978).

The process of tourism planning involves in part an analysis of the political significance of tourism (Acerenza, 1985; Pearce, 1989 in Okpoko and Okpoko, 2002). A significant impediment to international tourism is the unstable political climate within any country. The frequent political cum administrative changes through military and rising crime waves reduce the demand by foreign and local tourists (Olokesusi, 1982 in Okpoko and Okpoko, 2002).

The fundamental and necessary elements of international travel are largely determined by actions and policies of governments (WTO, 1996). It is good to say that the most attractive destination will be of no consequence unless its host country can forge

agreements that will enable developers, airlines, banks, and immigration personnel, among others to provide the services that will bring tourists to the area.

Cultural Impacts

Cultural impacts refer to changes in the arts, artefacts, customs, rituals, and architecture of a people and are long-term changes which results more from tourism development (WTO, 1996). Because culture can play an important role in attracting tourists to destination, tourism offers both economic incentives and social support for the maintenance of the activities. Other elements of culture as identified by Cook, Yale, Marqua, (2006) are music, and drama, which includes theatres, concerts, films, folk, handicrafts, language, and literature, history, heritage, gastronomy, museums etc. Culture consists of patterns, explicit and implicit of and for behaviour, acquired and transmitted by symbols constituting the distinctive achievement of human groups including their embodiments in artefacts, ideals and their attached values (Wall and Mathieson, 2006). Culture in a deeper anthropological sense includes patterns, norms, rules, and standards which find expression in behaviour, social relations and artifacts. Cultural tourism should not be concerned only with the artistic and cultural heritage of a region but also with its contemporary creativity. Those who visit a place for mainly cultural purposes are more inclined to seek contact with the local population and to show a greater tolerance and understanding of local characteristics and custom (Okoli, 2001).

Tourism helps in the strengthening of artistic traditions and traditional activities such as festivals and processions as well as boosting sense of identity for the resident population in some societies. W.T.O (1996) summarized positive impacts of culture as an increased support for traditional culture and displays of ethnic identity; revitalization of traditional arts to suit production for tourism; disruption and

crowding of traditional activities, invasion of privacy; community tension and conflict and introduction of disease. Some negative effect of tourism towards culture according to Olokesusi (1987) in Okpoko and Okpoko (2002) include growth of prostitution, cultural pollution, homosexual, drug trafficking and crime in general. All these would be on the increase if the tourism facilities such as hotels and guest houses which harbour foreign visitors are located within or near the local population. The reason for this is that indigenes, particularly the youths have the tendency to develop new ideas about the world due to their frequent contacts with these foreigners. The effect of this interaction may lead to pollution of indigenous cultural values. Some tourists at times may collude with some of the indigenes to loot certain cultural objects and other valuable treasures according to Okpoko and Okpoko (2002). Some tourists may have the sole aim of looting valuable treasures of the host destination. They collude with recalcitrant nationals to lift and export valuable cultural objects and antiquities. A practical example of such collusion and looting of valuable treasures was a case of a young man who was arrested in 2001 for stealing and selling one particular idol (wooden statue) belonging to an African traditionalist. This young man sold the idol to a particular Nigerian business man who colluded with a tourist (a white man) whose business was to buy Nigerian cultural artefacts at a huge sum in dollars for exportation. It was reported then that the wooden idol was over 100 years; while the rule of the business is, “the older the object, the higher the price”. In other words, age factor determines the price. Also, production of traditional art and activities for tourist has resulted in changes in cultural product and festivals. For example, the demand for large quantities of art and craft at cheaper prices often leads to mass production of goods of inferior quality or encourages importation of poor copies of the artefact and craft represented to be authentic (WTO, 1996).

Changes can equally appear cultural such as festivals, ceremonies and dances through the addition of fees or charges, the use of timetables and modification in the features of activities to make them more palatable to visitors. Such changes for some are seen as destroying the authenticity and cultural meaning of the products or events (WTO 1996). In view of this the UNESCO issued recommendation of 1964 which prohibits the illegal export, import and transfer of ownership of cultural property and reminds member states about moral obligation to protect their cultural heritage (Okpoko and Okpoko, 2002). For example in changing the event from one held primarily for locals to the one staged for monetary gain, a major clash ensued with many residents withdrawing their support for *Alarde* festival in Spain and refusing to participate (Greenwood, 1998 in WTO, 1996). Tourists sometimes break cultural taboos and engage in behaviour which is seen by local as offensive. Such behaviours sometimes generate hostility which can be expressed in crimes against tourist. WTO (1996) suggested that negative stereotypes can arise even when visitors and hosts share a similar cultural background. For example, in Thailand, the Western practice of sunbathing on beaches is seen by that residents as both unwise (potential health risks) and immoral (because of traditional taboos against body exposure).

2.6 Prospects of Coastal Tourism Development

The coast will remain a key focus of tourism in the future as resorts and enterprises reformulate their beach products to “beach plus” while at the same time upgrading the quality of the infrastructure and superstructure (Cooper et al, 2005). The future of tourism globally is quite bright, particularly coastal tourism. For instance in UK there is an increased push to develop her coastal resorts as well as furthering tourism in the country side and improving domestic visitor attractions.

Several countries in Central America including Costa Rica, Panama, and Belize have special laws giving tax and import duty breaks to attract foreign retirees who chose to live there. Also, some four million (non-military) Americans are living overseas, and 442,000 of these are receiving the social security checks (Curt, 2005). China as a major actor in tourism and of the world's power house in tourism has no doubt pointing towards the bright prospects of tourism in the global market. The rapid development of China's domestic tourism can be attributed to an increase in four major factors;

- (1) Disposable income
- (2) Public holidays
- (3) Motivations for travel and
- (4) Travel products and services to facilitate domestic travel (Honey and Krants, 2007).

According to 2005 analysis, 12 international donor agencies including the World Bank, US Agency for International Development (USAID), UN Development Programme and Inter-American Development Bank were given almost US\$10 billion to some 370 tourism related projects (International Institute of Tourism Studies – IITS, 2005).

The future of tourism cannot be divorced from political events and trends. For instance at the international level, tourism in the future will be influenced by three key trend – the development of trade liberalization under the umbrella of the General Agreements on Trade in Services (GATS), globalization and the forging of international trading blocs (Cooper, *et al*, 2005). In line with the principle of trade liberalization under the GATS, 'business environment that is truly free of barriers is good thing for tourism'. WTO sees this as liberalization with human face', where

vulnerable workers, environment and communities are protected. According to Cooper *et al* (2005) the major implications of GATS for tourism sector include;

- Encouragement of open tourism markets to benefit economic development and poverty elimination in the developing world
- Elimination of barriers to tourism growth in the supply chain.
- Fair competition for all countries and safety nets for developing markets
- Identifying and eliminating anti-competitive practices in tourism such as cartels and monopolies and
- Equal access to transport and distribution.

Globalization of tourism business has been seen as underlying the changing world order having become a powerful force shaping national and regional economies. In the future the consequences of globalization for the tourism sector are;

- Increasingly standardized procedure and quality control
- Increased competition
- Head office decision on marketing and technology in the larger companies
- Increased concentration within the accommodation, transport and intermediaries sectors
- Adoption of new ways of doing business, such as use of e-mail and the internet
- Adoption of global distribution systems and yield management
- Changing human resource management practices
- More difficult trading conditions for small and medium-sized enterprises (SMES), etc (Cooper *et al*, 2005).

Also, encouraging the future growth of tourism is the formation of a number of trading blocs across the globe as country groupings come together in economic alliances. For instance, the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA), the creation and expansion of European Union (EU), the Association of South East Asian Nations (A SEAN) and the formation of African Union (AU). In the EU, the adoption of the euro as a common currency is demonstrating the power of these blocs, as the currency is encouraging tourism across Europe. (Cooper *et al*, 2005).

There is no doubt that one of the most significant environmental influences upon the future of tourism will be the global climate change. The seriousness of the problem has prompted policy and management intervention in order to boost tourism in the future. For instance, at the international level in 2003, the World Tourism Organization (WTO, 2003) issued the Djerbe Declaration on Tourism and climate change urging governments to;

- Adopt the Kyoto protocol on greenhouse gas emissions
- Research and collaboration on climate change;
- Move tourism up the agenda on climate change discussions
- Implement sustainable water use practices and the ecological management of sensitive areas and
- Raise consumer awareness of the issue.

Tourism in the past has been characterized by a lack of sophistication in human resource policies and practices due to unavailability of well-educated, well-trained, bright, energetic multilingual and entrepreneurial work force that understand the nature of tourism and have a professional training. According to Cooper *et al* (2005), this has made tourism vulnerable to ideas. However, the government recognition in the recent times of the values of tourism to their

economies and the introduction of tourism education courses in some of our institutions have really become the leeway to the growth of tourism and its prospects in the economies of nations (Cooper *et al*, 2005).

The World Travel and Tourism Council's (WTTC's, 2002) future agenda to address the inadequate capacity of transport infrastructure identified as real constraint upon tourism growth in the future in Europe and USA is a right step in the right direction.

The WTTC's agenda include;

- Expansion of existing infrastructure and diversion of air traffic to secondary airports,
- Development of alternative surface transport systems such as high-speed rail to take pressure from the air traffic systems.
- Planning legislation to protect land use and residents from the impacts of transport; and
- Improved air traffic control.

Partnerships with global actors are increasingly important in addressing coastal and marine management issues. Initiatives for improving resource management and related capacity building are in place through organizations such as the Intergovernmental Oceanographic Commission of UNESCO, the World Bank, the regional Organization for the Conservation of the Environment of the Red Sea and Gulf of Aden (PERSGA, Land Ocean Interactions in the Coastal Zone (LOICZ), WWF, IUCN and UNEP (WTTC,2002).

Most coastal countries are signatories to one or more Multilateral Environmental Agreement (MEA) that deals with marine and coastal management issues.

These include the Barcelona convention, the Jeddah convention for the prevention of pollution from ship. These conventions lay the foundation for coastal state to develop legislation and management plans relating to their coastal and marine environments integrating the various sectors' policies (ALM, 2002) and Hatzios, Lunden and ALM (1996).

Financial support to the tourism industry in the East Africa (particularly Kenya, Mozambique and Tanzania) from aid institutions such as World Bank is relatively limited and has been mainly ad-hoc (Fred Nelson, 2007 in world Bank/MIGA, n.d). International Finance Corporation (IFC) invested \$100 million in Africa's hotel sector in 2006, making it the most significant lender in the industry (Ward, 2007). Foreign donor agencies both bilateral and multilateral continue to play a major role in supporting national government in Eastern Africa. In Tanzania about 40% of the budget is funded through Overseas Development Assistance (ODA). Donors have also played a major role in Tanzania and Mozambique by favouring private sector investment and enterprises as the requisite drivers of economic growth and poverty reduction. However, African countries financing of infrastructure is becoming more diversified by the rapidly increasing investment, presence of China, Middle Eastern locals such as Dubai and Abu Dhabi and other Asian countries in the region. There is an increasing vitality of domestic financial service infrastructures and expanding debt and equity market in Africa. For instance, Tanzania's national electricity utility company recently secured a loan of US\$ 240 million from domestic commercial banks and pension funds to finance a major infrastructural overhaul (Mwamunyange, 2007)

On the 10th July, 1990, Nigeria government pronounced her national tourism policy in order to promote tourism, encourage even development, create jobs and accelerate cultural exchange (Ikpefan 2006). The provisions of the policy include:

- Basic infrastructural facilities such as good roads, water, electricity, communications, transport, etc to centre of attractions in order to accelerate development in the tourist centre and improve tourist values.
- Involvement of the three tiers of government namely, federal, state and local government in tourism development
- Active participation of the organized private sectors in tourism development
- Fiscal and other incentive to facilitate private, domestic and foreign capital investment in the tourist sectors
- Tourism manpower development and training
- Prompt assurance of visas to facilitate inflow of international tourists.
- Establishment of effective organs for the planning, development, promotion and marketing of tourism in and outside Nigeria
- Tourism development philosophy with emphasis on the demarcation of unnecessary duplication and rivalry among states in tourism development
- Appropriate institutional arrangement for the effective administration of tourism industry in the country and
- Funding through annual budgetary allocation and the establishment of a national tourist development fund to which all levels of authority in the industry as well as the private sector will contribute (Ikpefan 2006). Though, tourism development is faced with numerous challenges, with the interests and concerted efforts made by government at various levels, private individuals, non-governmental organizations and international communities through

funding policy formulations and implementation, the future of tourism in the near future is bright.

2.7 Theoretical Orientation

Igbo and Okpoko (2006) concluded that no research can be conducted without an underlying theory or model. For the purpose of this research report and to understand coastal tourism development in Rivers State, four of the theories are very important. The essential theories of the study include environmental theories, behavioural theories, Rostow's theory of growth and development and the vicious circles of demand/supply and investment.

Environmental theories will help us to know the value of our environment and to appreciate it. This theory enables us to acknowledge environment system as public goods that must be protected and preserved by the beneficiaries because they are vulnerable and expendable. Also, the theory provides us with a technique used in setting development limits during development process (carrying capacity) and reducing congestion in the coastal areas of Rivers State. Environmental theory, particularly property theory helps in managing environmental problems in tourism, especially pollution. Our knowledge of these theories will help us not only to know that tourism industry is an indirect seller of public goods but also to know that the continued survival of the industry depends on a quality natural environment.

Behavioural theory on the other hand is quite significant in this study. The theories will educate us on the issues of right and wrong and moral obligations in relation to the environment. Behavioural theories help to identify the reasons for environmental damage in Rivers State as an absence of environmental social ethics, human ignorance and absence of tourism environmental ethics. These theories have helped

us to understand that the only way to efficiently manage the environmental impact of tourism is to set standards and principles to regulate the behaviour of tourists and the attitude of the state and developers.

Both Rostow's theory of growth and development and the vicious circles of demand/supply and investment have similar views in their theories. The theories have educated us on the place of tourism in the development of the economies of nations. Tourism being a dominant sector in the economic activities which brings in a lot of benefits to many regions of the world, any investment on tourism by investors, government, individuals and organization is a right step in the right direction. Rostow's theory has made us to understand that any investment to develop coastal tourism in Rivers State is not a waste; rather it will speed up development (a catalyst) in other sectors of the economy of the State and Nigeria in general. The vicious circle theory enables us to see investment in tourism as a stimulus that will expand the economy of Rivers State out of poverty particularly in the rural areas. Hence, knowledge of these theories will give us a lee way to make necessary recommendations to properly harness coastal tourism potentials for development in Rivers State.

Considering all these theories, however the environmental theory appears essentially significantly in this study. Environmental theory is essential in this study because tourism takes place in an environment and environment is a public good. This theory reveals the need to protect and preserve the environment by the beneficiaries as well as various techniques of handling environmental problems and tourism such as carrying capacity, environmental impact assessment technique and the law of diminishing destination yield technique. The indication of the theory as revealed in the study is that it will help to determine the upper limits of development, number of

visitors permitted to use an attraction and utilization of tourism resources; and to take proactive action against environmental impacts of tourism development.

Summary

The successful achievement of any form of economic development requires careful planning. On this premise, the discussion in the review of the literature focused on the relevant areas in order to achieve both implicit and explicit objective that underlie any development. The review of the literature examined various economic development theories. The theoretical models include Marx's Historical Approach to Development, Rostow's Theory of Growth and Development, Vicious Circles of Demand/Supply and Investment, Environmental Theories, the Growth Theory, Behavioral Theories and Residential Tourism Model.

Marx's Theory sees tourism as a catalyst of change. Marx's theory suggests that tourism can speed up the process of developing excellent driving force for economic, social and political change. The Rostow's Theory of Growth and Development states that tourism will play a strong role in the economic development. The model identified five stages through which economies pass as they develop. The Theory also sees tourism as a catalyst to overcome the inertia of developing countries. For instance, the development of the transport and infrastructure is seen as a pre-condition for economic take off as well as a fundamental part of tourism development. Vicious Circle Theory states that tourism would play a significant role in development by injecting additional demand into an economy or providing a stimulus to investment thereby expanding the economy out of poverty. Environmental Theory looks at the environment systems as public goods which are used freely and enjoyed by many individuals. As tourism and environment are inseparable; the development of tourism

can only be achieved if the beneficiaries or stakeholders protect and preserve the environment they are enjoying. Growth theories state that environmental damage is equally caused by population growth in tourism. Seasonal concentrations of tourism can make the environmental problem more pressing and serious. Over time, the concentration of visitors to a destination may outstretch the tourism capacity of the destination thereby resulting in its depletion and low returns on investment. And it was recommended that certificates be issued for the use of environment for tourism purpose and for a right to a certain quantity of pollution in order to check environmental damage. The Behavioural Theories state that the cause of environmental damage was absence of environmental social ethics and human ignorance. Hence, the conditions needed to prevent damage depend on understanding information, and ethical principles regulating individuals, state, developers and management in relation to the environment.

Finally, The Residential Tourism Model is the newest trend in coastal tourism development. The model combines beach resorts with vacation homes and condominium (an apartment building in which each flat or apartment is owned by the person living in it but the building and the shared areas are owned by everyone together). This model makes for easier financing and faster return on investment; because the development process involve a wide number of actors or stakeholders which include development companies, bankers and other types of lenders, hotel chains, local communities, governments, development agencies etc.

The review of the empirical study by Basiron (1997) on the trends and prospects of marine tourism showed that greater number of tourists visited coastal areas making the coast a key focus of tourism in the future. In the study conducted by GU and Wong (2004) on development of coastal tourism and home-stays in Duchangstan, it

was discovered that tourism brought transformation and development in the place. The main negative impacts identified in the area where population concentration at the peak season and the conflicts among the stakeholders with clash of interests in the coastal area because of not involving all the stakeholders in planning and development. Finally, in the study by PAP – RAC (1999) on carrying capacity assessment for tourism development, the team of experts identified the natural potentials in the area for development as moderate weather, shoreline configuration, beaches with fine sand and clear water, historical sites and monuments. The most attractive tourist activities for the locals which were identified include hunting, fishing, etc. Meanwhile, discussed under the conceptual literature included various tourism resources that can be found around the coastal zone, prospects of tourism, and impacts and challenges such as environmental, economic, socio-cultural, government, etc.

CHAPTER THREE

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

3.1 Geographical Location

Rivers State is one of the 36 States of Nigeria. It is located at the Niger Delta area of the South-South geopolitical zone and lies at latitudes $4^{\circ}43'34''$ North, Longitude $6^{\circ}55'15''$ East on the map of Nigeria (fig. 1). Rivers State has its capital in Port Harcourt city, the nerve centre of the famous Nigeria oil industry and over ninety industrial concerns including the Shell Petroleum Development Company of Nigeria Ltd, AGIP, Texaco, ELF, Michelin, West Africa Glass Industry NAFCON, *Risonpalm*, etc.

Rivers State is bounded on the South by the Atlantic Ocean to the North by Imo, Abia and Anambra States. It also shares boundaries with Bayelsa and Akwa Ibom towards the West. The state is rich in culture, gas, oil and natural resource with a landscape defined by interconnecting creeks around tributaries of the River Niger such as Imo river, *Urashi* river, *Aba* river, Bonny river, *kwa* Ibo river, old Calabar river, Cross river, etc. Rivers State is a home to many ethnic groups including Andoni, Abua, Ekpeye, Engenni, Okirika, Etche, Ikwere, Kalabari, Ogoni, Ogba/Egbema/Ndoni, etc. Ijaw and Ikwere are the most spoken languages in addition to Pidgin English that is widely spoken and used in radio and television broadcasts. The state is a home to King Jaja of Opobo and Ken Sarowiwa, and has a total of 24 local Government areas.

3.2 Features of the landscape

The study area like most places in the Niger Delta wetland is formed primarily by sediment deposition. The environment is broken down into four ecological zones:

Coastal barrier islands, mangrove swamp forests, freshwater swamps and low-land rain forests. Two-thirds of the populations are in the Niger Delta geographical terrain. The Southern part of the area is occupied by a coastal plain which runs parallel to the sea.

The study area being a state in the Niger Delta has two types of forest. The forest closer to the sea is a belt of saline/brackish mangrove swamp separated from the sea by sand beach ridges within the mangrove swamp. Numerous sandy islands occur with fresh water vegetation. North of the mangrove forest is fresh water swamps which gradually supersede the mangrove on the landward side. The fresh water swamp contains different vegetation from the salt water mangrove swamps and north of that is the rain forest. These forests provide cover and shade to inhabitants making the atmosphere around the coastal area cool all through the seasons more than most other parts of the country. The state is well-endowed with ecosystem that contains one of the highest concentrations of biodiversity in Nigeria, in addition to supporting abundant flora and fauna, arable terrain that can sustain a wide variety of crops or agricultural trees and species of fresh water fish.

Due to its beautiful layout and peculiar topography, Port Harcourt which is the state, capital of Rivers State is christened the garden City. The mangrove forests remain very essential to the indigenous people of Rivers State as well as to the various organisms that inhabit these ecosystems. Human impact from poor land management upstream coupled with the coastal pollution of petroleum has been noted to have caused more than 5% of these mangrove forests to disappear. The future for mangrove forests and other floral communities is not all negative. Local and outside groups have provided funds and labour to remediate and restore the destroyed mangrove swamps. The Federal Government of Nigeria established the Niger Delta

Development Commission ((NDDC) in 2000 which aims to suppress the environmental and ecological impacts petroleum has made in the state and other states in the region. Government and non-governmental organizations have also utilized technology to identify the source and the movement of petroleum spills.

New Partnership for Africa’s Development (NEPAD) is a comprehensive integrated sustainable development initiative for the economic and social revival of Africa. NEPAD Rivers State has five green initiatives aimed at to ameliorate the impacts of climate change in Rivers State while providing avenues for the management of its natural resources.



Figure 3.1: Map of Nigeria indicating River State with arrow

Climate

The study area like most parts of Nigeria has two distinct seasons: the rainy season and dry season. The state experiences a double rainfall maxima characterized by two high rainfall peaks with a short dry season and a longer dry season falling between and after each peak. The first rainy season begins around March and lasts to the end of July with a peak in June. This break in August known as the August break which is a short dry season lasting for two to three weeks in August. This break is broken by the short rainy season starting around early September and lasting to mid October with a peak period at the end of September. The ending of the short rainy season in October is followed by long dry season.

The rainy season brings in cooler weather to the area as a result of an increased cloud cover that acts as a blockage to the intense sunshine of the tropics by blocking much of the sun rays in the rainy season. This in turn cools the land and the winds above the ground remains thereby making for cooler temperatures during the rainy season. But afternoon in the rainy season can be warm and humid, a feature of tropical climate. The amount of rainfall in the study area ranges between 2,400mm and 4,200mm per year.

The long season starts from late October and lasts till early March with peak dry conditions between early December and late February. The dry season in the study area characterized by clear sunny sky, warmth and the tropical continental (CT) air mass locally known as harmattan which dominates its climate during the dry season between ending of December and January ending. The coming of the harmattan brings relief to farmers in the area during dry season since the low humidity present in the air quickens the drying of their crops.

This dust wind, called harmattan blocks sun rays partially from shining and also creates haze (a thin mist) in the atmosphere. These activities of the wind lowers temperature considerably saving inhabitants of the state for some time from the scorching heat that would have occurred as a result of clearer skies during the dry season. But the withdrawal of the wind around March to April following the onset of rainy season increases the temperature.

Rivers State has an annual mean maximum temperature of 31.7°C and annual mean minimum temperature of 22.6°C. The relative humidity at 1500 GMT averages between 67% and 72% in the study area annually. The annual mean radiation of the study area is between 12.60mm and 16.50mm while the annual mean evaporation ranges between 2.30mm and 7.80mm.

The annual mean cloud coverage of the area is 7.0 OCATS and annual mean sunshine hours per day ranges from 4.3 hours to 5.1 hours. The wind (the tropical maritime airmass) which invades Nigeria from February in the Southern part is the prevailing wind in Rivers State. Its invasion is as a result of the northward retreat of the tropical continental airmass (CT) known as the harmattan. The northward retreat of the tropical continental airmas (CT) is caused by the sun's northward shift from the Tropic of Capricorn in the Southern hemisphere to the Tropic of Cancer in the northern hemisphere. The shift begins from February and ends in June when the sun is fully overhead, at the Tropic of Cancer in the northern hemisphere.

3.3 Historical background

History of Rivers State

Rivers State named after the many rivers that border its territory was part of the oil Rivers protectorate from 1885 till 1893, when it became part of the Niger Coast Protectorate. In 1900, the region was merged with the chartered territories of the Royal Niger Company to form the colony of Southern Nigeria. The state was formed in May 17, 1967 with the split of the Eastern Region of Nigeria by a Military Decree and by 1996; Bayelsa State was carved out of Rivers State. However, agitation for the creation of Rivers State predated Nigeria's Independence from Britain in 1960. During the Colonial period, Britain signed many treaties of protection with the chiefs of many coastal and autonomous communities.

Some of these chiefs had hoped that with Nigeria's independence, the treaties of protection they signed with Britain would also lapse and thus, they would become independent states. The 1958 constitutional conference which affirmed Nigerian nationhood dashed such hope, but agreed on some measures to allay the fears of the ethnic minorities in this area.

Between 1941 and 1952, an organization known as the Ijaw Rivers People's League had agitated for the creation of a distinct Rivers Province. In 1953, another body called the Council of Rivers Chiefs replaced the League and became the Rivers Chiefs and Peoples' Congress in 1954, and the Rivers Chiefs Peoples Conference in 1956. The leaders of this organization cooperated with the Calabar Ogoja Rivers (COR) State Movement formed in Uyo in December 1953, but later broke away to press their own case before the Willink Commission.

To allay the fears of the minorities under the dominant ethnic groups within the Nigerian nationhood, the British made one important concession by setting up a Commission headed by Sir Henry Willink to look into the misgivings of the ethnic minorities. The Willink Commission recommended the establishment of the Niger Delta Development Board (NDDDB) to address the problem of underdevelopment of the area.

Niger Delta Development Board did not meet the aspirations of the people and thus, some people attempted to take the extralegal route to achieve their goal. In February 1966, Isaac Boro, Sam Owonaro and Nottingham Dick with their supporters proclaimed a "Delta Peoples Republic." Federal and Eastern Nigeria Governments brought this rebellion to an abrupt end. On May 27, 1967, Rivers State was among the twelve States created by the Gowon Regime.

The cries of political marginalization, environmental degradation and economic pauperization continued among the Ijaws, such that the Old Ijaw province was carved out of Rivers State as a distinct *Bayelsa* State in 1996 by the *Abacha* led military government of Nigeria.

The capital of Rivers State is Port Harcourt which was renamed by Fredrick *Lugard* after Lewis Vernon Harcourt in 1913 who was the secretary of state for the colonies. The area that became Port Harcourt in 1913 was originally, the farmland of the *Diobu* village group of the *Ikwere*, an Igbo sub-group. The purpose of Port Harcourt then was to export the coal which geologist Albert Ernest *Kitson* had discovered in Enugu in 1909. The colonial Government caused the people of *Diobu* Rivers State to cede their land by 1913 for the building of Port Harcourt. During World War 1, Port

Harcourt, Rivers State was used as a point for military operations against the central powers in German *Kamerun*.

Administrative Areas

As at 1967 when Rivers State was created, there were fifteen Local Government Areas (LGAs) in the State and when *Bayelsa* State was carved out in 1996, additional LGAs were created such that the present Rivers State is made up of twenty four LGAs. The State has many communities that organize community development efforts aimed at mobilizing the local resources and assisting the State government in the maintenance of law and order.

Administrative Structure

There are three arms of government in Rivers State and these are: (1) The Executive Council; (2) The Legislature; and (3) The Judiciary.

The State Executive Council is made up of the Governor, the Deputy Governor, and several commissioners, special advisers and the Secretary to the State government. The commissioners are the overall heads of the ministries, while the permanent secretaries oversee the day-to-day activities of the same ministries.

The parastatals are organs of the government charged for the establishment and running of certain key economic areas of the State government. They are placed either under the supervision of the Governor or the Deputy Governor. The special advisers are assigned responsibilities in the following areas to enhance productivity and accountability: education, information, hotels and tourism et cetera.

The Rivers State House of Assembly is the legislative (lawmaking) arm of the government. The thirty two member House of Assembly was inaugurated in June

1999, with the Speaker of the House as chairman in all the proceedings. The judiciary is the body that interprets the law in the State. It is headed by the State Chief Justice. The second tier of government is the local government administration. This is the grassroots government that is closest to the people of the State. There are twenty-three local government councils and each is run by its executive council and legislature.

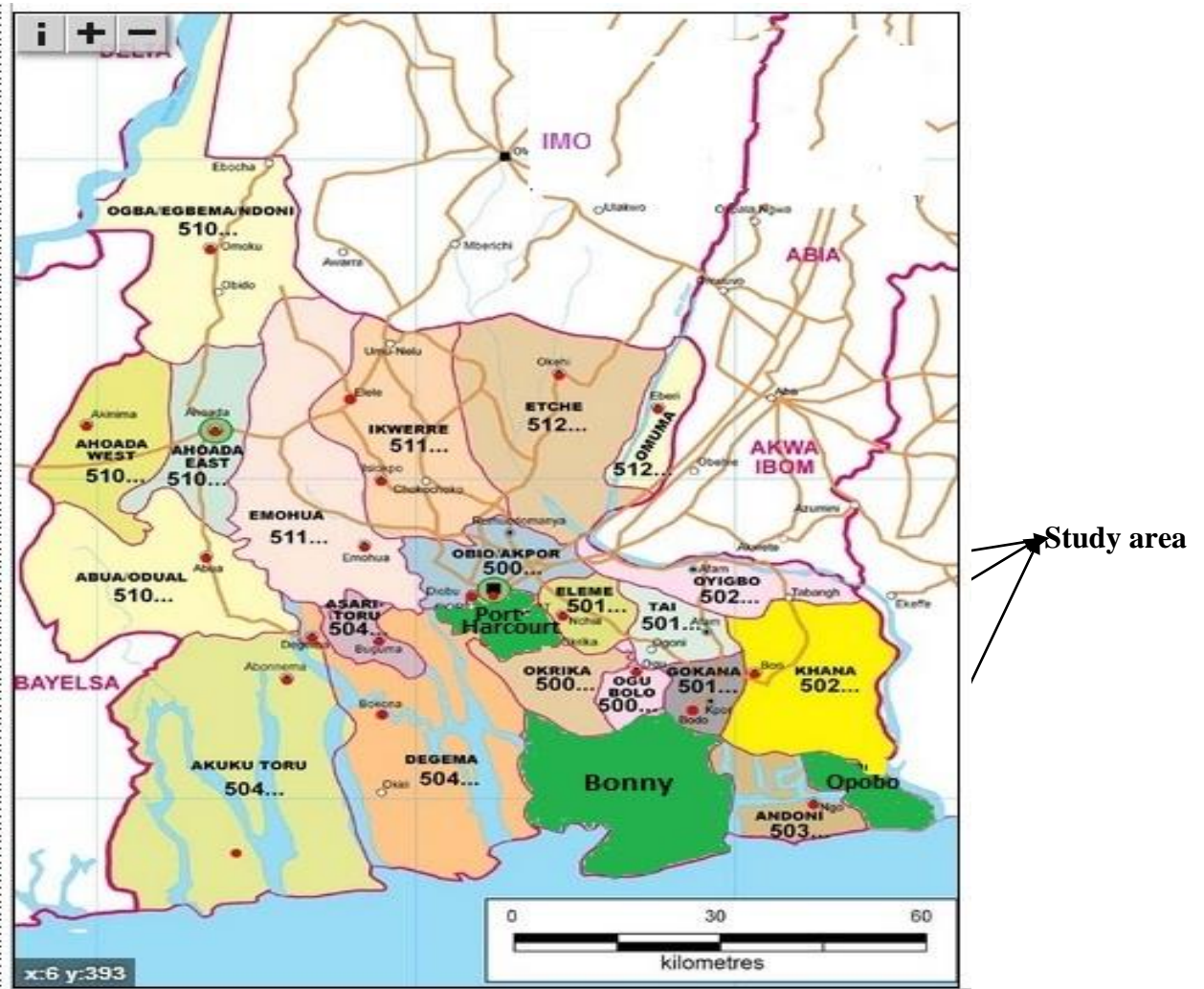


Figure 3.2: Map of Rivers State indicating the selected study areas with green background and arrow

HISTORY OF OPOBO:

Opobo is situated in *Khana*, Rivers State, Nigeria with geographical coordinates of 4° 31' 0" North and 7° 32' 0" East. The name “*Opobo*” was derived from the name of the

legendary king *Opubo*, a celebrated *Ibani* monarch who reigned between 1738- 1830. The establishment of *Opobo* kingdom was caused by the 1869 war which broke out in Bonny between *Fubara* Manila group of houses led by chief *Oko* Jumbo and the *Opubo Annie Pepple* group led by chief Jack Annie *Pepple* whose *Ibani* name of *Juwo Juwo* was rendered *JaJa* by the British. *Opobo* town is the head quarters *Opobo/Nkoro* local Government Area created in 1996. The kingdom is made up of satellite towns namely: Kalaibiana, Queens town, Minima, *Illoma/Epellema*, *Ekereborokiri*, Down-Bellow, *Abazibie* and *Opukalama*. *Opobo* kingdom has 67 war canoe houses or chieftaincy compounds. Each of which is headed by an Alabo (chief). The war canoe is the gun boat that represents political authority and power of the people. The war canoe is the instrument for maintaining territorial integrity and business interest. Also, there is regatta boat (“*Gigi*”). This is a long canoe fully decorated with flags and drummers to serve on relevant ceremonial occasions.

BONNY:

Bonny kingdom is one of the Local Government Area in Rivers State. The kingdom was founded between 1000- 1100 AD in Rivers State, Nigeria. The kingdom lies at geographical coordinates of 4° 26¹ N and 7⁰ 10¹ E with a geographical area of 645.6 km². The indigenous settlers of Bonny are known as the “*Ibani*” from which the name Bonny was derived. The island became an important slave trading port. The hereditary king who had the title, “*Amanyabo*”, which originated from the founding fathers and premier monarchs (kings) of Bonny kingdom. The kingdom became important in the 15th century with the arrival of the Portuguese and the growth of the Atlantic slave trade. In 1807, the British passed an act to abolish slave trade and the port turned to port for palm oil products export. This was the first port of call for Christian missionaries in West Africa. The people predominantly speak *Ibani*

language. The community is subdivided into two main segments- the main land and the hinterland. The main land comprises of the township, *Sandfield, Iwoama, Orosikiri, Aganya, Ayambo, Akiama, Finima*, etc. The hinterland includes all the villages that serve as home to indigenes of Bonny kingdom. The island hosts various oil companies including Royal Dutch Shell, Mobil, Chevron, Agip and Elf. Port Harcourt is the closest city to Bonny Island. Ferries are the main form of transport to and from the island.

PORT HARCOURT:

The city of Port Harcourt was founded by Fredrick Lord Lugard in 1912. Port Harcourt, also called in Igbo language as “*Ugwu ocha*”, is the capital of Rivers State, Nigeria. The Local Government covers a geographical area of 109 km² lies 4⁰ 49¹ 27¹¹ N and 7⁰ 2¹ 1¹¹ E. In 1912, the area was part of the farm lands of *Diobu* village group of the *Ikwerre*, an Igbo subgroup. The port was created by the Colonial masters to export coal from Enugu through railway lines before oil was discovered in large quantities in *Oloibiri* in 1958. The place was used as a point of military operations against the central power during the First World War. It is bounded to the south by *Okirika*, to east by *Eleme*, to the North by *Obi-Akpor* and to the west by *Degema*.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

The data were generated using structured questionnaire, in-depth interview and experimental observation and were presented in photographs forms, tables and charts. Both quantitative and qualitative analysis techniques were employed. Comparative analysis of three study sites used was carried out where it was deemed necessary.

4.1 Demographic and Social Characteristics of Respondents

Information on the demographic characteristics of respondents was analyzed with regard to gender, age, marital status, educational qualifications, occupation, employment status and daily expenditure (Table 4.1). The demographic and social characteristics of the respondents were used to determine the distribution of the local population who welcomed or rejected the idea of developing the state onto tourism destination. This would help to identify any group in the local population that would be in opposition and the reason for their opposition towards tourism development when the process begins and how to and manage such opposition. There is no sex discrimination in the expression of opinion, as both males (70.01%) and females (29.99%) expressed their views towards tourism development in their localities. The predominance of males was based on the general belief that men are the custodians of authority both in the homes and communities and therefore in better position to take vital decisions.

The table shows that majority of the respondents fall within the age brackets of 30-39 years (28.06%) and 19-29 years (26.33%). A total of 32.84% for Opobo; 19.75% for Port Harcourt and 31.58% for Bonny were within the age brackets of 30-39 years

while a total of 25.37% of the respondents in Opobo; 10.50% in Port Harcourt and 43.16% in Bonny fall within the age interval of 19-29 years. Then, following this were the respondents within the age group of 50-59 years (19.70%); where Opobo was 32.84% Port Harcourt was 21.01% and Bonny was 5.26%. The least respondents were received within the age groups of 70 years and above (1.4%) and 60-69 years (7.15%).

That the majority of the respondents fall within the age brackets of 19-29 years and 30-39 years means that the responses were from the leaders of tomorrow and the security of life and property depend on them. This also implies that getting the support of the young adults for tourism development is a right step towards the right direction.

The study also revealed that the majority of the respondents were married. The average responses from the three study sites was 102 (69.03%) where 39(58.21%) for Opobo, 209 (87.82%) for Port Harcourt and 58(61.05%) for Bonny. The average responses for singles and widowed were 27 (25.66%) and 2 (3.16%) respectively. The implication of the findings is that most of the respondents have family responsibilities and this suggests that they would be eager to have other sources of revenue generation and employment opportunities to increase their income earning capacity and improve the standard of living of their families.

Educational qualifications of the respondents showed that the majority of the average respondents were holders of HND/Degree with 59(37.39%) responses. This was followed by secondary (22.79%); OND/NCE (22.59%); primary (8.74%) and illiterate (8.49%). The predominance of the respondents being holders of HND/Degree indicate that majority of the respondents can reason critically and comparatively.

Table 4.1: Demographic characteristics of the respondents

Demographic Characteristics of the Local Residents	Study sites			
	Opobo F (%)	Port Harcourt F (%)	Bonny F (%)	Mean score F (%)
Gender: Male	50(74.63)	192(80.67)	52(54.74)	92(70.01)
Female	17(25.37)	46(19.33)	43(45.26)	35(29.99)
Age: 19-29 Yrs	17(25.37)	25(10.50)	41(43.16)	28(26.33)
30-39 Yrs	22(25.37)	47(19.75)	30(31.58)	33(28.06)
40-49 Yrs	6(8.96)	70(29.41)	13(13.68)	30(17.35)
50-59 Yrs	22(32.84)	50(21.01)	5(5.26)	26((19.70)
60-69 Yrs	0(0)	41(17.23)	4(421)	15(7.15)
70 and above	0(0)	5(2.10)	2(2.11)	2(1.40)
Marital status:				
Single	20(29.89)	24(9.24)	36(37.89)	27(25.66)
Married	39(58.21)	209(87.82)	58(61.055)	102(69.0)
Widowed	0(0)	5(2.10)	1(7.37)	2(3.16)
Educational Qualifications:				
Illiterate	11(16.42)	4(1.68)	7(7.37)	7(8.49)
Primary	7(10.45)	15(6.30)	9(9.47)	10(8.74)
Secondary	11(16.42)	66(27.73)	23(24.21)	33(22.79)
OND/NCE	22(32.84)	23(9.66)	24(25.26)	23(22.59)
HND/Degree	16(23.88)	130(54.62)	32(33.68)	59(37.39)
Occupation:				
Farming	2(2.99)	20(8.40)	8(8.42)	10(6.0)
Fishing	6(8.96)	3(1.26)	9(9.47)	6(6.56)
Trading	7(10.45)	71(29.83)	16(16.84)	31(19.04)
Driving	6(8.96)	10(4.20)	7(7.37)	8(6.84)
Industrial	0(0)	12(5.04)	6(6.32)	6(3.79)
Civil service	11(16.42)	26(10.92)	11(11.58)	16(12.79)
Oil exploration	0(0)	18(7.56)	1(1.05)	6(2.87)
Banking	0(0)	6(2.52)	2(2.11)	3(1.54)
Student	4(5.97)	23(9.66)	10(10.53)	12(8.72)
Others	32(47.76)	49(20.59)	25(26.32)	35(31.56)
Employment status:				
Employed	55(82.09)	192(80.67)	43(45.26)	97(69.34)
Unemployed	12(17.91)	46(19.33)	52(54.74)	37(30.66)
Daily expenditure:				
Below N210	6(8.96)	24(10.08)	26(27.37)	19(15.46)
Between N210-N500	11(16.42)	30(12.61)	45(47.37)	29(25.47)
Between N501-N1,000	39(58.21)	57(23.95)	10(10.53)	35(30.90)
Between N1001-N2,000	11(16.42)	22(9.24)	8(8.42)	14(11.36)
Above N2,000	0(0)	105(44.12)	6(6.32)	37(16.81)

The study showed that the major occupation of the respondents was trading (19.04%); followed by civil service (12.97%) students (8.72%); drivers (6.84%) and fishing

(6.56%). Also, it revealed that 2.87% were involved in oil exploration, 1.54% in banking and 31.56% were engaged in other activities. The occupation of the respondents for the study was quite reasonably distributed to obtain information. This indicates a good representation of different occupational groups for the study.

The employment state of the respondents revealed that 82.09% respondents from Opobo, 80.67% from Port Harcourt and 45.26% from Bonny were employed, and these gave an average of 69.34% for the three sites. This implies that any investment in tourism development in those areas will not be a waste of resources but a right step to the right direction. Such investment will reduce unemployment rate by providing job opportunities to the unemployed.

The daily expenditure of the respondents revealed that majority of the average respondents used to spend between ₦210 - ₦500 (25.47%) and between ₦501 - ₦1,000 (30.90%). A total of 39(58.21%) for Opobo; 57(23.95%) for Port Harcourt and 10(10.53%) for Bonny spend between ₦501 - ₦1,000. While a total of 11(16.42%) for Opobo, 30(12.61%) for Port Harcourt and 45(47.37%) for Bonny spend between ₦210 - ₦500. Then, following this were the respondents who spend above ₦210 - ₦2,000 (16.81%) daily, where Opobo was 0(0%), Port Harcourt was 105 (44.12%) and Bonny was 6(6.32%). The average least respondents used to spend between ₦1,001 - ₦2,000 ((11.36%) and below ₦210 (15.47%). The results indicated that the average respondents of 84.54% live above extreme poverty level since they spend above ₦210 (\$1.25) per person per day which was the bench mark given by the United Nations for the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) to measure poverty line. The result showed that 15.46% of average respondents live below extreme poverty level since they spend below ₦210 (\$1.25) per person per day. This measure used by the United Nations for the Millennium Development Goals

(MDGs). The applicable poverty line used has been updated to \$1.25 dollars per person per day converted into Nigeria Local currency (₦) from 2005 Purchasing Power Parity (PPP) exchange rate. The measurement is based on the value of average daily expenditure (USAID, 2014). Expenditures are used instead of income because of the difficulty in accurately measuring income and because expenditure data are less prone to, easier to recall and are more stable over time than income data. However, since the study revealed as shown in table 4.1 that only 28.17% of the respondents spend above N1000 daily, it then means that 71.83% of the respondents live within poverty line indicating the level of poverty in the communities. Therefore, harnessing tourism potentials in the state to develop tourism industry will offer the people an alternative source of income to improve their standard of living, alleviate poverty in the state as well as bridging the gap between the rich and the poor. Because tourism is a catalyst to development, developing tourism in those local communities will help to reduce rural-urban migration, particularly those who will desire to move to the city to better their lots.

4.2 TOURISM ATTRACTIONS

The study revealed that a number of attractions exist in the selected sites. These have been presented and analysed according to the different sites. Table 4.2 shows the various natural attractions found in Port Harcourt, Bonny and Opobo. The attractions identified in Port Harcourt include mangrove forest, sacred rivers, lakes, beaches, fishing rivers and natural sources of good drinking water. The natural attractions found in Bonny are mangrove forest, sacred rivers, sacred forest, beaches, fishing rivers, and sanctuary, while Opobo is endowed with mangrove forest, sacred forest, sacred rivers, beaches and fishing rivers.

Table 4.2: Natural Attractions identified at the study sites

S/no	Attractions	Study Sites		
		P/H	Bony	Opobo
1	Mangrove forest	√	√	√
2	Sacred rivers	√	√	√
3	Sacred forests	√	√	√
4	Lake	√	x	x
5	Beaches	√	√	√
6	Fishing rivers	√	√	√
7	Natural sources of good drinking	√	√	√
8	water	√	x	x
	Sanctuary	x	√	x
	Sub-total	7	6	5

Source: Field survey, 2013

Keys:

√ = Where a specific attraction was identified

X = Where a specific attraction was not identified

4.2.1 Natural attractions in Port Harcourt, Opobo and Bonny study sites

The study has revealed several natural attractions identified in Port Harcourt, Bonny and Opobo study sites.

Mangrove forest: The mangrove forest found in Port Harcourt is known and called by the residents of the host communities “*Oke-ohia Agala*”. According to researcher’s informants the grove covers large expanse of land which linked various communities within the study area. The communities that bordered the mangrove include *Nkpogu*, *Bundu Ama*, *Borokiri*, *Abonema* water side, Marine base, *Elekahia*, *Oroada*, *Orochiri*, *Eligigi Oroabali*, *Oromeruezimgbu*. The attractions which have potential tourism value as found in *Oke-ohia Agala* mangrove forest include; Crocodile, crabs, fish, rivers, periwinkles, snakes, trees, birds, monkeys, monitor lizard, etc. This mangrove

has also become a source of meat, fish, firewood, sand and wood for building by the local residents of the host communities.

The mangrove forest in Bonny Local Government Area is known and called *Ngala*. According to the researcher's observation, the mangrove forest links all the communities in Bonny area. The mangrove is very rich in oyster, periwinkle, fishes, crabs, crocodile, water snake, antelope, birds, monkey, monitor lizard, hippopotamus, etc. The fishing of aquatic lives like oyster, periwinkles, crabs and fishes; and the hunting of wildlife species provide recreational activities for tourists who engage in them. While the unique behavioural characteristics of the wildlife species in the mangrove such as crocodile, birds, monkeys and lizard can provide an exciting and captivating moment for tourists who visit the area and watch their behaviour of wildlife species. Also, hunting and fishing Locally, the traditional ruler after due consultation with elders and village heads usually passes a law thereafter makes a pronouncement against entering the forest once in a year. The ban is to place restriction on the use of the forest to enable it regenerate the sea foods in abundance. The pronouncement is made and sealed in their traditional way (Libation) to prohibit any body entering the mangrove until the stipulated time when the ban will be lifted. Since the people of Bonny depend so much on this mangrove for sea foods and fire woods, they usually have plenty harvest at the lifting of the ban. This ban is a very useful measure to preserve the mangrove. There is also a part of the forest that is used as a shrine. The shrine is not open to everybody. Only those who are worshippers of the shrine can enter it.

The mangrove forests found in all the Communities in Opoobo Local Government Area are popularly known and called *Ohia Uwajonjo*. The mangrove forest is a habitat for several wildlife species such as leopard, monkeys, coconut trees, palm

trees, oysters, periwinkles, crab, fishes, crocodile, chimpanzee, Elephant and several other species of birds, plants, and animals. Table 4.3 shows the botanical names, common names and local names of the common mangrove plant species identified at the three study sites.

Table: 4.3: Mangrove plant species Common in Port Harcourt, Opobo and Bonny study sites

Botanical Name	Common Name	Local Name
<i>Rhizophora racemosa</i>	White mangrove	Ngala
<i>Avicenniagerminans</i>	Black mangrove	Ngala
<i>Lagunculariaracemosa</i>	Red mangrove	Ngala
<i>Nypa fruticans</i>	Nypa palm	Ngala

Source: Rivers State Ministry of Environment

These mangrove plant species protect vulnerable coastline from wave action because they hold the soil together and prevent coastal erosion. For it has been observed that wave action tends to be more devastating in the coastal areas where there are no mangrove forests. These mangrove forests provide check against coastal erosion. For example, it was learnt from the 2005 tsunami in Asia that the areas which had no mangrove forests suffered massive casualties compared to those areas with mangrove forests where there was no record of death. Therefore, the availability of mangrove forest is very significant to sustainable tourism development in the study areas. The study equally revealed that those unique mangrove plant species that formed the mangrove forests provide homes for several species of plants and animals in the study area. Birds like white egrets, owl, vulture, wood peckers and several species of fish, monkeys, turtles, snakes, kiwi, hippopotamus, snakes, shrimps and crabs find refuge in the mangrove forests. Those various species of birds in the mangrove offer treat to bird watcher and can boost the exciting moment of tourists in the study area if developed into destinations.

Sacred Rivers: There was no sacred river in Bonny site. Sacred rivers were only found in Port Harcourt and Opobo sites. According to the interviewees, there were many sacred rivers in Port Harcourt in the past, but some of them are no longer in existence due to civilization and Christianity which have failed to recognize them as such. However, the few existing sacred rivers at present are called ‘*Ahia-Okpokoro*’ River, ‘*Ahia Kalagbo*’ River and ‘*Ohia Mkpa*’ River. These four rivers are located in *Nkpogu* community. Although fish is in abundance in these rivers but fishing is prohibited. For this reason, different species of fish abounds. The traditional religious worshippers usually offer sacrifices to the river goddess of the rivers four times in a year in which they go for the sacrifice in the day and come back at night.

The other rivers in the site which used to be sacred but today have lost their sacredness include;

1. ***Miniwachara* sacred River** where people were prohibited from letting their belonging to fall inside the river. If any item falls inside it, the person would not be allowed to pick it from the river to avoid the person destroying the sacredness of the river. Whoever that violates this will offer sacrifices for cleansing in order to appease the gods. Failure to fulfil this will attract punishment to the person by afflicting with sickness and eventually death.
2. ***Miniazuruhueli* and *Minijiri* sacred rivers** where it was forbidden for the water from the rivers to touch anybody while crossing the rivers and where only old men were allowed to tap the palm wine trees at the bank of the rivers.
3. ***Miniwokorah* sacred river:** This River used to be for washing women who gave birth to a baby newly.

In Opobo the name of the sacred rivers found were “*Tolofari*” and “*Epeleminakanja*” located in “*Kalibiama*” and “*Epelema*” respectively. It is believed that the river has the power to protect an indigene who is under attack from an enemy. The sacred rivers are seen by the people as a place of safety. Also, it is believed that evil people do not go to the river. If they do, they will suffer incurable diseases and eventually die if the gods are not appeased. In the case of “*Tolofari* creek” a woman that gave birth to twins cannot go to the river. Sacrifices are offered to the goddess of the river once in a year between the months of July and September.

Sacred forest: In Port Harcourt study site it was gathered through the *Elikwu* Samuel (2013: Personal interview) that the sacred forest was found in *Orochiri* community precisely in *Ogbum* na *Abali* and known as *Amadioha* forest. The site hosts different species of trees, animals, birds, snakes. There are deities and the sacrificial items used by devotees such as animal skulls, white clothes, bottles of hot drinks, clay pots, kola nuts. The kola nuts and hot drinks are used for libation and poured on a shrine to appease the gods of the land. Nobody is allowed to enter the forests with foot wears and only the chiefs wear their caps into the place. Men who slept with their wives a night before the day of the sacrifice are not permitted to enter the forests. Also women in their menstrual period do not go there. One must wash his or her face in the morning before going into the forests. Sacrifices or rituals are performed by the worshippers between August and September during the new yam festival and new year celebration. Sacrifices can be performed any time of the year as the need arises. The rituals are usually performed in the morning before 10.00am or in the evening between 4.00pm – 6.00pm in a particular day known traditionally as “*Riagbo*.”

Mkpa sacred forest is located in *Kalasanju* Opobo study site. The head of “*Nwotam*” masquerade is kept in this forest. *Nwotam* masquerade is played in the forest and only members of *Nwotam* masquerade cult participate in *Nwotam* festival and also allowed to enter the forest.

Shimingi is a sacred forest found in *Finima* Community of Bonny. *Shimingi* forest is a sacred forest established for traditional worship in *Finima*. The people of the *Finima* Community usually go into the forest at the end of every year to perform sacrifice. Only the people of *Finima* who worship the gods of the forest are qualified and permitted to enter the forest. Women are not allowed to wear trousers into the forest. Apart from the yearly sacrifices performed at the end of the year, rituals are performed inside the forest when the need arises, for instance during the coronation of the king of the community. This usually takes place at night.

Lake: The “*Ogodomini*” is the name of the lake found in Port Harcourt site and no lake was found in both Opobo and Bonny sites. The lake is a home to different species of fish, crab, duck and snake. According to respondents, there is a part of the lake at *Nkpogu* community where nobody is permitted to go in. This part of the lake is called “*IDU*”. It is called “*Idu*” because the lake is so deep that a storey building can completely be submerged inside it.

Beaches: Among the beaches found in Port Harcourt site were Port Harcourt Tourist beach, *Amadi* and sand beach and “*Elechi* beach”. Port Harcourt Tourist beach, though not fully developed was established in 1986. It was privately owned by Chief Mike *Amachree* from *Buguma* community in *Asari-Toru* Local Government Area and with staff strength of four people. The beach is a destination for tourists and people

who wish to go out for site-seeing. The basic attractions that are of value to visitors include fish pond, mini zoo, museum, restaurant and guest house, foot ball pitch, basket ball court, boat for cruising, clear water, clean sand, mangrove, fresh cool air, etc. The speed/cruise boats available in the beach are of different sizes and capacities. The sizes of boats with their capacities include; passport 19 carries 8 passengers, W21 carries 10 passengers, W23 carries 13 passenger and water bus with a capacity of 15 passengers. According to the researcher's respondent, the beach usually witnesses high tide and wave in the month of October.

A number of beaches were identified in Bonny study site. The list of the beaches mentioned by the researcher's respondents are NLNG/ *Finima* beach (plate 1), *Agaja* beach (plate 2), *Borokiri* beach, River seven beach and sand field beach.



Plate 1: NLNG & Finima Beach



Plate 2: Agaja Beach and River

The beaches are composed of shells, clear water, fishes, crabs, well polished white sand and water turtle. These beaches can be developed to attract tourists; and resorts

built for the comfort of the tourists. This attraction would need to be developed and managed very carefully as nesting turtles are easily disturbed by unfamiliar light and sound.

There are number of beaches in Opobo but only Opobo beach is clear with white polished clean sand (see plate 3). The names of the beaches found in Opobo study site include *Ntugbu* beach, *Jojo* beach, *Onu* mini beach (plate 4), Downbelow beach, *Abazibie*, Opobo beach and *Miningala* beach(plate 5).



Plate 3: Opobo Beach



Plate 4: Onumini Beach in Opobo



Plate 5: *Mini Ngala beach in Opobo*

Fishing Rivers: Port Harcourt is endowed with so many rivers. This is why fishing is a major activity among the local population of this study site. Sport fishing is in no doubt another activity that could attract tourists to the area. Excellent big game fishing can be found at various rivers within the study site. According to the researcher's respondents, among the rivers found within this site include; *Waja River* (creek), *Okpokatoru River*, *Ahiakalagbor (Ahiaogologo) River*, *Okpokoro River*, *Borokiri River*, *Mbuogba River*, *Ntawaogba River*, *Marine Base River*, *Onumiriedu River*, *Woduonunu River*, *Bundu River*, *Minijiri River*, *miniwachara River*, etc.

Some of the fishing rivers identified in Opobo study site are the cookey creeks, Main river, *Ehene river*, *Ebezi river*, *Imo river*, *Atlantic Ocean*, *Oil river*, *Byth of Bar*, *Nkoturo river*, *Kalabiama creek*, *Kalama creek*, *Queenstown creek*, *Ekere Borokiri creek*, *Kalasanji creek*, etc. Fishing in these rivers is prohibited between July and September every year to enable the fishes to regenerate for plenty catch. Other fishing rivers include *Adum River*, *Okolo creek*, *Mininnu River* and *Bonny river*.

The Bonny fishing rivers were the same rivers that formed the beaches in Bonny – *Finima River*, *Agaja River*, *river seven*, and *sand field river*. The combination of the beach attractions with the sport fishing activity is great resource that investors can take advantage of in order to attract tourists.

Natural sources of good drinking water: According to the researcher's respondents, the study sites generally have no natural sources of good drinking water. The only natural source of drinking water mentioned by one of the respondents in Port Harcourt was called *Wodu-Waja Onumini*. However, this source of water cannot be relied upon, as it dries up and comes up daily. The water is scooped from the source which indicates that the water may not be safe for drinking. Generally, the sources of drinking water for the people are borehole or well for those living in the rural areas and pipe-borne water for those in the cities.

Sanctuary: *Finima* forest has been set aside as sanctuary for animals, birds, fish and plant species of kinds (see plate 6). Both the Community and the government through its agency Nigeria Liquefied Natural Gas (NLNG) jointly established law to conserve the forest. Also found in this forest is the remains of whale which include eyes of the whale and ribs bone of the whale (see plates 7, 8, 9 and 10).



Plate 6: *Finima* Forest

This conservation law prohibits anybody entering the forest. The forest has been reserved by both the government and *Finima* Community and is out of bound for anybody. The forest is protected and so any bird, animal or fish that crosses the

boundary into the forest is safe and protected by the law even if the bird, animal or fish is from a neighbouring forest or river respectively.



Plate 7: Eyes of the Whale



Plate 8: Lower jaw of Whale

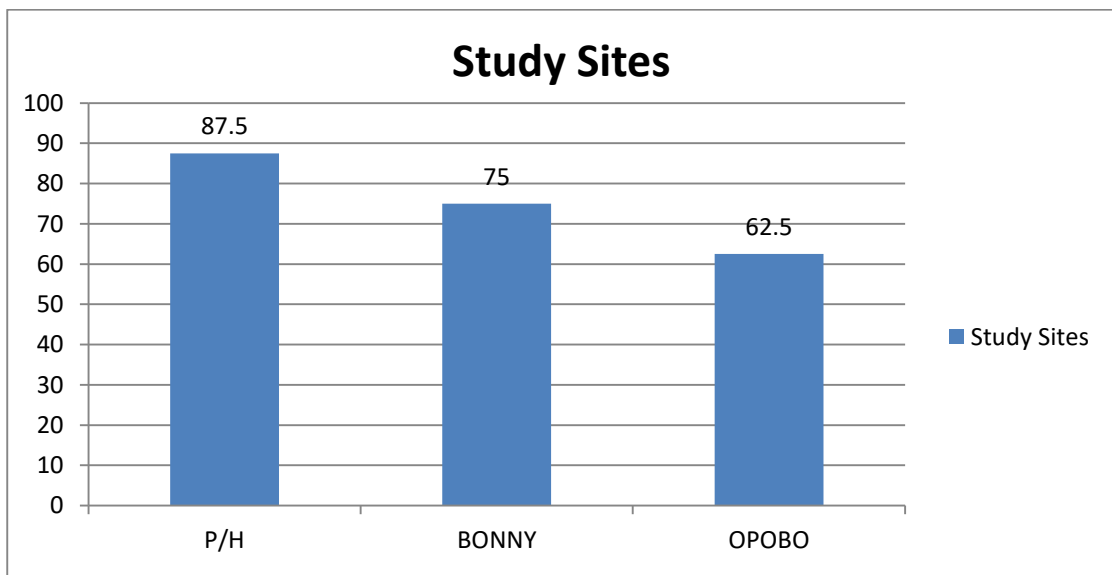


Plate 9: Remains of the Whale



Plate 10: Rib Bones

In figure 4.1 Port Harcourt study site appeared highest with 84.5% levels of attractions. This indicates that Port Harcourt is endowed with more natural attractions than Bonny and Opobo with the level of attractions of 75% and 62.5% respectively. In view of these findings, Port Harcourt with more tourism potentials has greater advantage towards tourism development in Rivers State more than Bonny Local Government Area, while Bonny Local Government Area has advantage over Opobo for tourism development in Rivers State.



Level of Natural Attractions

Figure 4.1: Natural Attraction discovered from the three study sites

4.2.2 Cultural Heritage Resources

Historical Monument

Isaac Boro Monument: A park was named after this famous nationalist of *Ijaw* extraction in Port Harcourt Rivers State. Major Isaac Jasper Adaka *Boro* was born in September 10 1938 and he died in May 16 1968 during the Nigerian civil War. He was born to a Kalama family in the present day *Bayelsa* State Nigeria. Shortly after the January 1966 coup, Isaac *Boro* declared the first republic within Nigeria known as Niger Delta Republic which lasted for 12 days.



Plate 11: *Ahiakalagbor* Monument:

***Ahiakalagbor* Monument:** According to the research's respondent Hon. *Ovunda* Igwe (2013: Personal Interview), *Ahiakalagbor* monument (plate 11) was over 100 years old in existence. This place was the final resting place of *Rebisi* and the four founders of *Rebisi* Kingdom known as *Nbokwu*, *Igwe*, *Dede* and *Agbagbuo*. The monument is located at *Nkpogu* Community.



Plate 12: Woluchem monument

Woluchem Monument: The final resting place of the Royal Majesty, Chief Woluchem of Orochiri Community. The monumental tomb was beautifully designed with Chief Woluchem sculpture (plate 12).

King Perekule the Great Monument: *Perekule* 1 known as Captain Pepple reigned from 1760-1830 (see plate 13). Chief *Edanye Pepple* monument and King *Asimiri Dappa Pepple* were other historical monuments found in Bonny Kingdom. These two Kings reigned at different times in Bonny kingdom and were all descendants of William *Dappa Pepple*. While the monument of King *Asimiri Dappa Pepple* was built in King *Asimiri's* compound in Bonny main town, Chief *Edanye Pepple* monument was raised at *Pepple's* Palace at *Otobie* Community. These are historical monuments of the descendants of King William *Dappa Pepple* of Bonny Kingdom who was deposed by the British government during colonial era and deported to Britain in 1854. The British brought King William *Dappa* back and restored him to the throne in August 1861 when there was serious tension for power struggles between *Manilla Pepple* faction led by Chief *Oko Jumbo* and *Annie Pepple* faction led by Chief *Jubo Jubogha* (known as *Jaja* to the British and popularly known today as King *Jaja* of *Opobo*). Being restored in 1861, King William *Dappa Pepple* reigned until his death in September, 1866.



Plate 13: King *Perekule* Monument



Plate 14: *Manila Pepple* Monument

Manila Pepple Monument: Chief *Manilla Pepple* (plate 14) was appointed with other three Chiefs (*Anne Pepple*, *Ada Allison* and *Captain Hart*) by the British Consul –*J.W.B. Lynslager* in the Bight of Biafra. The British Consul signed their appointment document on 11th September 1855, following the death of King *Dapu Fubara II Pepple* on 13th August 1855 as regency required.

King *Jaja*'s monument and his bell: King *Jaja* (plate 15) was a former Igbo slave called *Jubo Jubogha* (known by the Europeans as *Ja-ja*. Who led the faction of *Annie, Pepple* family of Bonny kingdom. In 1870, *Jaja* arrived Opobo from Bonny, moving due to power dispute with Chief *Oko Jumbo*, the leader of the rival faction *Manilla Pepple* family. *Jaja* was accommodated by the *Andoni* leader King *Kpokpo* and formed what is called kingdom of Opobo. Being a palm oil merchant, King *Jaja* involved in palm oil trading with Europeans. In 1887 he was deceived when he was told to go and negotiate with the Queen of England by the British and ended up

sending him on an exile in the West Indies. His exile was necessitated by the war (known as *Ikot Udo Obong* War) between him and the *Anang* and *Ibuno* people when he declared himself the middle man in palm oil trading with the Europeans, thus asking them (*Ngwa Ibos, Annang* and *Ibibios*) to stop trading directly with the Europeans. He reigned between 1870 and 1887.



Plate 15: King *Jaja* of Opobo's Monument

Shrines

In Port Harcourt study site the shrines identified were *Ruhueli-Rebisi*, *Ojukwu-Diobu*, *Ntawogba* and *Nwominirehu*.

Ruhueli Rebisi: This shrine is located at “*Orochiri*”. The “*offor*” holders of the Community at *Rebisi* clan are the judges of the shrine. The traditional sacrifice (pouring of libation) is done on a day called “*Riagbo*” in the morning hours. Women who appear before the shrine must cover their hair. Goats and cows are usually sacrificed once in 7 years to appease the gods for protection and prosperity which is usually done in the day time. Dumping of refuse, defecating and urinating are prohibited around the shrine. Women who are in their menstrual period cannot visit the shrine. It is usually used to settle or judge matters during disputes. Lying is forbidden before the shrine. Only those people wearing traditional dresses are

allowed to appear before the shrine. It is only the priest who can enter the shrine, while the king of the Community can enter the shrine in the company of the priest. Every other person stands outside before the shrine. The things used for sacrifices include, hot drink bottles, money, cup, cloths of all kinds, fowl, goat, ram, tortoise. Dog is a forbidden animal at the shrine.

Ojukwu Diobu and Nwominirenwu shrines: These two shrines are sited at *Nkpogu* and *Orochiri* Communities respectively. Evil men and women don't go to the shrine. Murderers, adulterers, and women that are in their menstrual period do not go to the shrine. People that go to the shrine only wear singlet and tie wrapper; and without any foot wears.

“*Nwominirehu* shrine has male and female goddess. The male is sited in *Orochiri* and the female is in *Abuloama*. “*Ojukwu* shrine” prohibits noise from people. If any person passes by the place with an animal, the fellow will leave the animal there and go away. It was the belief of the people that “*Ojukwu*” (the gods) protected them during the war. At the beginning of the year- January the elders of the Community led by the priest will offer sacrifices to the gods to invoke their yearly protection. The following materials are found – hot drink bottles (gins), palm fronds, red and white clothes, clay pots, cowries, tortoise, animals for sacrifice (cows, goats, rams, chickens), money (old and new denominations) and a big-age-long tree that provides shade for the shrine.

There were more number of shrines found in Bonny than found in Opobo and Port Harcourt study sites. Bonny kingdom shrine, *Manila Pepple* kingdom Shrine, *Shimingi* Shrine, *Nwotam* Shrine and *Igbanisi* Shrine were the identified shrines in Bonny.

Bonny kingdom shrine: The shrine is located at *Elesu* square at the centre of Bonny. Sacrifices are performed once in a year during December period. One can only enter the Bonny central shrine by backing the shrine. The common things that were found there are palm fronds, bottles of hot drinks, native eggs and chalks, cowries and items of red colour.

Manilla Pepple kingdom Shrine: This shrine is located at *Manilla Pepple's* palace. Rituals are performed at this shrine during coronation. Ladies must tie wrapper before entering the place, while ladies menstruating do not go there. One must knock before entering the place.

Shimingi Shrine: The chief priest usually performs sacrifices when necessary either by 4.00 am in the morning or mid-night. Necklaces are not worn into the place. People must be in their traditional attire without putting on shoes before entering the shrine. The shrine is located at *Tolofari* village. Any material decorated with beads should not be worn to the place.

Nwotam Shrine: Worshippers of this shrine wear black cloths and tie wrapper before entering the shrine.

Igbanisi Shrine: At this shrine, sacrifices must be performed once either at the beginning or at the end of the year and any other time in the night when the need arises. Men must wear George and “*etibo*” cloth or white singlet and without shoes. Women don't wear trousers and don't put on foot wears into the place. Strangers and ladies who are menstruating are permitted to go to the shrine. If there is any sacrifice to be performed, those concerned will abstain from sex for at least a week.

The major shrines in Opobo are *Tolofari* shrine and *Asimiri* shrine located at *Kalibiama* and Opobo main town respectively. Only the chief priest and community elders are allowed to enter the shrine. The two places are out of bound for women and evil men. Abstinence from sex on the day of sacrifice is among the taboos. Sacrifices are done in the day time in the month of December. The shrines do not condone people who hinder the progress of others. Some of the things found at the shrines are the old currency introduced by the Portuguese (called manila), sculptures of animals and birds, hot drink bottles (gins), and red and black cloth.

Museums: Rivers State museum at the state secretariat and University of Port Harcourt museums: Both museums are museums of arts and culture and are located in Port Harcourt. There is a museum along King *Dappa* William Road in main Bonny town. This equally is a museum of art and culture. This museum contains things that are associated with the culture and history of Bonny kingdom (plate 16).



Plate 16: Bonny Museum

Cultural festivals:

In Port Harcourt study site, cultural festivals were identified. These festivals include wrestling (July/September) (plate 18), *Eregbu* festival (January). New Yam Festival (July/August). Masquerade festival (any time of the year) (plate 19). *Ojiji* festival,

prengala festival, *Okolokwuru* festival (July or October); *Ogele* (music) festival, *Oriri* (feast) festival, age grade (monthly) etc.



Plate 17: Traditional Wrestling Contest



Plate 18: Masquerade Display in Port Harcourt

Some of these festivals are quite unique to some communities. For instance, “*Oriri*” (feast) festival is a festival that showcases the spices of different dishes that are prepared in *Orochiri* community. This usually takes place yearly on 26th December. In the case of “*Ojiji*” (marriage rite festival) the bride is set apart in a room where others bathe her, feed her and take care of her in a special way to prepare her to look good for her groom to take her. *Ojiji* festival takes place whenever a girl who has reached the age of marriage is getting married. It is important to note that these festivals serve as a means of recreation, as well serving as a symbol of peace and

unity amongst the people. It offers opportunity to meet with people of different walks of life, both home and abroad, local and non-locals.

The festivals common in Bonny include, *iriah* festival (Marriage), music festival (plate 20) & masquerade festival (plate 21), *Nwaotam* festival, *Gigi* festival (boat regatta in December time), match out festival (24th December), Beach party (26th December), Bonny carnival (20th December) and masquerade festivals (plate 22).



Plate 19: Bonny Woman in her music festival costume



Plate 20: Bonny Dance group during their music festival



Plate 21: Bonny Masquerade festival

Special emphasis was made by the respondents during the in-depth interview. According to Abbey, Itart, Pepper, Jumbo and Edwin (2013 personal interview), the person that wears the *Nwaotam* regalia sleeps in the cemetery for seven days before the day of the festival. The carrier of the *Nwaotam* must not be exposed. Before the festival begins, doves and fowls are sacrificed to the gods at the cemetery. The carrier of *Nwaotam* (plate 22) spends seven days in the cemetery to get himself purified. During this period, he will neither sleep with a woman nor eat anything prepared by a woman until the festival comes to an end. At the end of the festival, the person that wore the mask goes to the cemetery to take off the regalia during the display.



Plate 22: *Nwaotam* masquerade

In the case of *Iriah/Bibite* festival, because it is marriage ceremony, where women that are getting married will be confined for 14 days before the day of the festival. The person getting married will be relieved from any form of domestic activities. She will be well fed and bathed by others to enable her look good and robust before the husband. Then, the would-be-husband will pay her dowry before seeing her. This is a festival of lady moving from adolescence to womanhood.

The festivals that usually take place in Opobo are Opobo International Boat Regatta (first week of January), Opobo beach carnival, masquerade (*ekpe*) festival (plate 23), dancing festival, wrestling festival, *Mgbede* festival, *Nwaotam* festival, *Uke* festival and *Iriah* festival. It is important to note that “*Mgbede*” festival is used to showcase girls who are of the age of marriage (personal interview of one of the community heads in April, 2013).



Plate 23: Blacky masquerade during *ekpe* festival

Cultural materials:

Cultural materials of different kinds are found in Port Harcourt study site. Such materials include local mats and baskets, assorted beads, clay water pot, *ekere*, ‘*ngele*’

(wooden masks), usher; '*ajah*', '*ndudu*', '*nkparagbeke*', '*iwo-ogwe*' (masquerade attire), animal skin, local drum made of wood and animal skin and '*Ebele*'.

Bonny has a rich collection of cultural materials such as mats, baskets, assorted beads, *igbiri* (tied during cultural dances) '*urede*', (painting used in cultural performance) masks for masquerade, net, '*azuebule*' (hairy materials used by chiefs and masquerades), raffia, '*aluu*' (women wrapper with reddish background), george (native wrapper), '*popo*' (native wrapper) '*nnsó*' (native wrapper), *shakashaka*, (worn by women during *Iriah* festival) local dye, '*nkwa*' (local drums), '*ekere*' '*ikpatakpa*', '*etibo*', '*odudu*', platforms for fish drying, cap wearing, cowry etc.

The cultural materials identified in Opobo study site include local basket, brooms, beads, '*ngelenge*' (xylophone), '*nkwa*' (drum), '*Odudu*', '*nkpankpa*', '*ekere*', local dye, '*Igbiri*', '*Ishi-owu*', (mask), '*akisi*', '*ogene*', '*enwere*', '*ebesara*', '*ikitico*' (wooden gong), '*agwu*', '*akoro*', dye, native ceiling with raffia palm, native cloth known as '*popo*' weaved by the

locals, wooden guns, masquerade heads (wood works); local boats construction, local mortar and pestle (wood works), fish rackets and native *george* material (tie and dye).



Plate 24: Bead Maker

Slave ports:

There was a slave port known as an *Ahiammakara* near Waja River at the boundary between *Orogbum* and *Nkpogu* at Port Harcourt study site. At the slave port were trees where slaves were tied during slave trade is called “*edegelekoikoi*” (Elder *Dede*, 2013; Personal communication). It is now used as a market. The slave port has been there for more than a century. A slave port was found in Bonny. The place is now called “*Igonipolo*” (land of strangers). The place has been converted into a play ground. A royal house where the chiefs hold meetings has been built there.

The Opobo slave port which was called “*Igwenga*” is now known as *cookey* creek. The cultural heritage resources as discussed above were presented in table 4.4. The findings of the study from the data collected through observation and oral interview with the researcher’s respondents who were asked to identify the cultural heritage resources in their community. The study revealed a number of cultural heritage resources identified in the three study sites which can be offered to potential tourists if properly harnessed.

Table 4.4: Cultural Heritages Resources identified at the three study sites

S/No	Cultural Heritage Resources	P/H	Bonny	Opobo
1	Historical monument	√	√	√
2	Shrines	√	√	√
3	Museums	√	√	X
4	Cultural festivals	√	√	√
5	Cultural materials	√	√	√
6	Slave port	√	√	√
	Total	6	6	5

Source: Field survey, 2013

Keys:

√ = Where a specific attraction was identified

X = Where a specific attraction was not identified

P/H = Port Harcourt

The cultural heritage resources found in Port Harcourt and Bonny study sites were historical monuments, shrines, museums, different cultural festivals, and cultural materials, slave port. The cultural heritage resources found in Opobo were historical monuments, shrines, different cultural festivals, and cultural materials and slave port. However, the result showed that Port Harcourt and Bonny study sites have equal number of cultural heritage resources more than the number identified in Opobo. Because culture of people motivates the movement of tourists to visiting those places, developing these areas in Rivers State will attract both foreign and local visitors who have developed enthusiasms into culture thereby improving the economic benefits of the local communities and the government. World Tourism Organisation (WTO, 1995) asserts that cultural tourism has been assessed as a veritable means of boosting a nation's economy.

4.2.3 Man-made Attractions/ Built Attractions

Table 4.5 showed man-made attractions as discovered by the study. The man-made attractions the study revealed were recreational park, zoological garden and tourism village.

Table 4.5: Man-made/ Built attractions

S/NO	Man-made Resources	P/H	BONNY	OPOBO
1	Recreational park	√	X	X
2	Zoological park	√	X	X
3	Tourism village	x	√	X
	Total	2	1	0

Source: Field survey, 2013

Keys:

√ = Where a specific attraction was identified

X = Where a specific attraction was not identified

P/H = Port Harcourt

While recreational park and zoological garden were found in Port Harcourt, only tourism village was revealed in Bonny and no man-made or built attraction was found in Opobo. Therefore, it means that in view of the built attractions Port Harcourt has comparative advantage for tourism development over Bonny and Opobo while Bonny has advantage for tourism development over Opobo.

Recreation Park:

Isaac Boro Park is a beautiful park with serene environment covered with a green carpet grass. It is beautified with trees that provide shade and wind break. The park is a good place for relaxation and for social gathering and activities (see plate 25).



Plate 25: Isaac Boro Park

Zoological Park: The zoological garden in Port Harcourt is along Trans-amadi Road and contains some wild animals for tourists to see and admire. Table 4.6 showed the list of animals and birds found in Port Harcourt zoological park. A total number of nine animals and eleven birds are kept in this zoo. The availability of the zoo is of educational value to tourists, children and students. Most tourists, children and students are not very familiar with the animal kingdom and their unique behaviours.

They don't have the opportunity to look at the different types of birds abundant in nature.

The zoo offers them opportunity to increase their knowledge and inspire them to know about the animal kingdom. By visiting the zoo, the tourist as well as children and students are thrilled to notice different species of animals, watch their food habits and the way they live. Also, found in the park is a number of beautiful birds of different colours and habitats. The park is of importance as it provides protection and preservation to a number of endangered species of animals and birds to save them from illegal poaching.

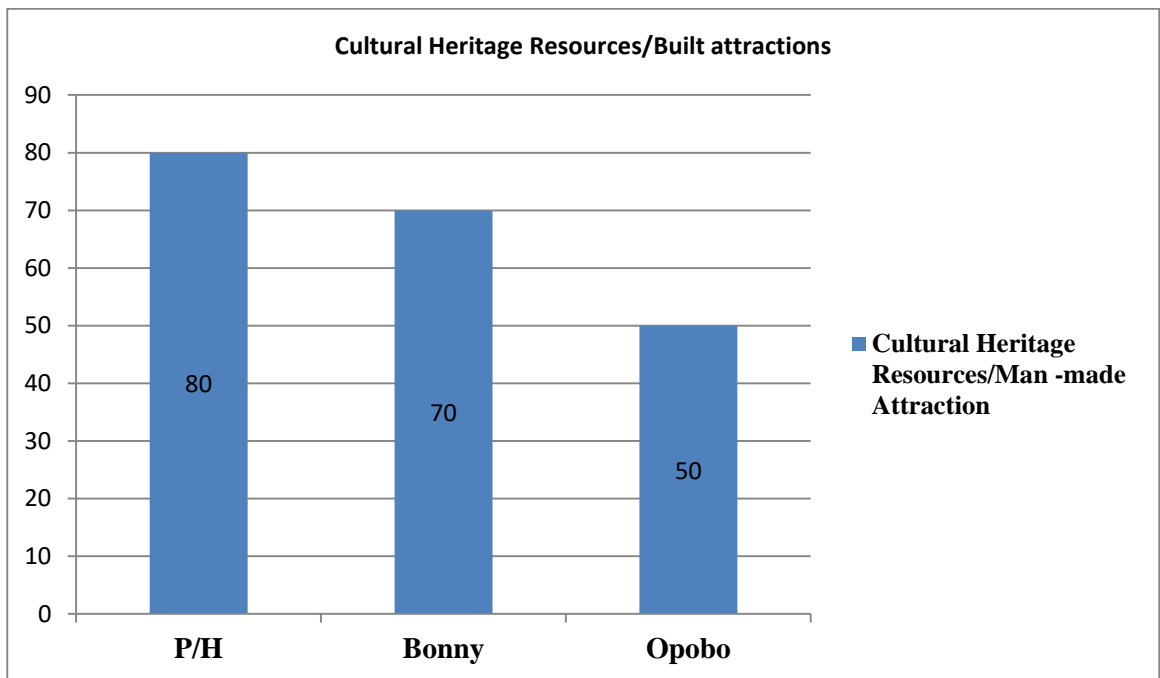
Table: 4.6 Animals and birds in Port Harcourt Zoo

S/N	Zoological Name	Common Name
1.	<i>Cephalophusmonticla</i>	Duiker
2.	<i>Pantheraleo</i>	Lion
3.	<i>Crocodylusniloticus</i>	Nile crocodile
4.	<i>Pavocristatus</i>	Peacock
5.	<i>Aquila chrysaetos</i>	Golden eagle
6.	<i>Milvusmigrans</i>	Black kite
7.	<i>Strutchiocamelus</i>	Ostrich
8.	<i>Papioanubis</i>	Baboon
9.	<i>Centrochelyssulcata</i>	African giant tortoise
10.	<i>Ansercygnoidesdomesticus</i>	Geese
11.	<i>Equuscaballus</i>	Horse
12.	<i>Columba livia</i>	Pigeon
13.	<i>Python regius</i>	Python
14.	<i>Varanusindicus</i>	Monitor Lizard
15.	<i>Chlorocebuspygerythrus</i>	Vervet monkey
16.	<i>Trionyxtriunguis</i>	Soft skin turtle
17.	<i>Anasplatyrhynchos</i>	Duck
18.	<i>Phoenicopterus minor</i>	Flamingo
19.	<i>Neophronpercnoterus</i>	Egyptian vulture
20.	<i>Balearicaregularum</i>	African crowned crane

Source: Port Harcourt Zoological Park

Tourism Village: The tourism village in Bonny is known as Bonny carnival village along hospital road opposite Government House. Bonny carnival village is the place

where different dance groups showcase different dances. The Bonny carnival is an annual festival which takes place every 20th December. Bonny has a very unique culture that is reflected in the people’s way of life. Hence, the village is a place where people display colourful dances, dressing, artefact and crafts. The village can be harnessed to attract both local and foreign tourists.



Level of Man-made Attractions and Cultural Heritage Resources

Figure 4.2: Man-made Attractions/Cultural Heritage Resources

Source: Field Survey, 2013

The cultural heritage resources were historical monument, shrines, museums, different cultural festivals, and cultural materials and slave port, while man-made attractions were recreational park, zoological park and tourism village. The result showed that out of nine different attractions both cultural heritage resources and man-made identified in the three study sites, 80 % representing eight of the nine attractions were found in Port Harcourt; 70% representing seven of both cultural and built/man-made attractions were discovered in Bonny and 50% which is equivalent to five

cultural resources were found in Opobo . This implies that there were more tourism resources in Port Harcourt study site thereby making it to have comparative advantage over Bonny and Opobo for tourism development. This was seconded by Bonny study site.

4.3 PROTECTED AND DEVELOPED RESOURCES FOR TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN RIVERS STATE

4.3.1 Protection and Preservation of Coastal Tourism potentials

In Port Harcourt study site, some forests have been preserved using local legislation. This was made possible because shrines and deities have always been associated with community owned forests. Those shrines and deities are usually kept in the forests and their worshippers believed that both the forests and shrines are sacred and have the power to kill or harm anybody who trespass the forest zone thereby conserving both plant and animal species in the forests. Among such forests are “*Ruhueli*” forest, *Amadioha* forest and *Nwominrehu* forest. These forests have now become a sanctuary for the threatened species. Also, some species of animal, birds and fish have been identified at the study site as being forbidden to be killed or eaten. So it is seen by people as taboo to kill or eat any of the identified species in their communities. Among those species are seasonal bird called ‘*Asiri*’ Owl, a bird called ‘*Nkelu*’, white egret and vulture. Other species include green snake, kiwi and rat. The aquatic lives include “*Wegbugbu*” and water horse. Some of the punishments given to offenders were the pacifying of the gods, death or mysterious diseases.

In Bonny study site, there are two forests where people have been prohibited from tampering with using their local legislation. The violation of this law attracts punishment from the gods of the land which included death, mysterious sickness or

appeasing of the gods. The researcher's respondent cited a popular case of violation at *Finima* forest recorded some years back when Chevron attempted to clear the forest and their tractor submerged and was covered with sand. Thunder forest is another forest identified in Bonny. It is the belief of the people that gods of thunder reside in the forest. So, the forest attracts a lot of fears in the locality. According to the researcher's respondents, there was a case of violation where somebody entered the forest to ease himself, and a bee stung him and he died the next day. This incident has put a lot of fears on people concerning the forest. All these served as good conservation measures. Thus, fears prevented villagers from having easy access to the forest. In addition, certain species of animals, birds and reptiles are prohibited from being killed in the community due to religious reasons. For instance, Egret bird which is locally known as '*Okoroma*' is not killed or eaten in Bonny because the people believed that Egret is a child of gods of the sea. *Colly* bird locally called '*Okolo*' cannot be killed in the community because it is seen as the symbol of Bonny. In the same manner, it is a taboo to kill vulture and a snake. Hippopotamus is forbidden to be killed. It is seen as a sacred being for the reason of being served by the traditional religious worshippers.

It is out of bounds for people to go into "*Tolofari*" Creek which is located at *Kalibiama* in Opobo. This river is a habitat for certain species of fish, hence fishing activities are not permitted in the river. The "*Tolofari*," creek becomes a sanctuary for threatened species of fish that will migrate from other rivers into it. This no doubt serves as a good conservation measure. Traditionally, some measures of protection is given to some wildlife species in Opobo study site. Such species include vulture, hippopotamus, pythons and Jelly fish, (locally known as *afalafa*). The offenders are punished according to the laws of the land. The punishment on the offenders includes

offering sacrifices to the gods to appease them. Others were death, diseases or mysterious circumstances.

Table 4.7 shows the list of protected areas identified through the study. This indicates that though local residents are dependent on local natural resources such as wildlife and land for agriculture, they still have some areas that have not been tampered with.

Table 4.7: List of Protected Areas in the Study Sites

S/No	Names of the protected areas	Study sites	Mode of legislation (Government or Local)
1	<i>Ruhueli</i> Forest	Port Harcourt	Local
2	<i>Finima</i> Forest	Bonny	Government
3	<i>Amadioha</i> Forest	Port Harcourt	Local
4	<i>Thunder</i> Forest	Bonny	Local
5	<i>Nwominrehu</i> Forest	Port Harcourt	Local
6	<i>Talofari</i> creek	Opobo	Local

Source: field survey, 2013

This is essential for the success of tourism development in those areas and an indirect way of getting community involved in wildlife tourism which is necessary to achieve sustainable eco-tourism development objectives. The findings also revealed that there are more protected areas in Port Harcourt study site than Bonny and Opobo study sites.

Results from table 4.8 have shown that certain wildlife species have received protection from the communities within a given study site through local norms and sanctions which include poaching sanctions, deforestation sanctions, bush-burning sanctions, and illegal grazing sanctions. It has been prohibited for anyone to kill those wildlife species. For Port Harcourt study area, these species include; Owl, ‘*Asiri*’, White Egret, ‘*Nkelu*’ Green snake, Vulture, Kiwi, ‘*Wegbugbu*’, Rat and water Horse. For Bonny, they include; White Egret, Vulture, ‘*Okolo*’, Hippopotamus and all

species of snakes. White vulture and hippopotamus cannot be killed in Opobo. Watching some of these wildlife species can provide a fascinating experience to tourists. These wildlife species are tourism potentials that need to be harnessed for human enjoyment. Ecotourism being a wildlife-based aspect of tourism focuses on protected natural zones that are untouched by human activities with the aim of enjoying the Fauna and flora resources of the area (Ijeomah, Alarape and Ogogo, 2007).

Table 4.8: Protected Wildlife Species In Various Sites

S/No	Name of the wildlife species	Study sites
1	<i>Asiri</i> (seasonal bird) *	P/H
2	Owl	P/H
3	<i>Nkelu</i> *	P/H
4	White egret	P/H, Bonny
5	Vulture	P/H
6	Green snake	P/H
7	Kiwi	P/H
8	Rat	P/H
9	<i>Wegbugbu</i> *	P/H
10	Water horse	P/H
11	<i>Okolo</i> *	Bonny
12	Snake (all species of snake)	Bonny
13	Hippopotamus	Bonny, Opobo
14	Pythons	Opobo
15	<i>Afalafa</i> (Jelly fish) *	Opobo

Source: Field survey, 2013

Key: Identified with their local names.

It was discovered that, though the local residents are dependent on the local natural resources, they still have protected forests which have not been tampered with through the communities' local legislations. Also the study showed certain wildlife species which have received protection from the communities concerned through their local legislation. The protected forests include *Rehueli* forest, *finima* forest, *amadioha* forest, *thunders* forest, *nwominirehu* forest, and *Tolofari* forest. While

some of the protected wildlife species are owl, white egret, hippopotamus, water horse, kiwi, 'nkelu', 'asiri' etc. The study revealed that Port Harcourt had more protected forest areas and wildlife species than Bonny and Opobo. The study revealed that the communities generally have local norms and sanctions that they apply to protect certain wildlife species and some habitat areas to avoid extinction of those protected species and destruction of the habitat. Those local sanctions include poaching sanctions, deforestation sanctions, bush burning sanctions and illegal grazing sanction. The punishment of violations of the local norms include, offering sacrifices to the gods to appease them. Others were death, diseases or mysterious circumstances.

4.3.2 Level of actions taken towards development of attractions for tourism in the selected study sites

In considering the level of actions taken so far towards development of attractions for tourism, the study revealed that a total number of 18 developmental actions on infrastructures were found to be on ground and unevenly distributed in the three study sites that are fundamental for tourism development to kick off. Table 4.9 showed the results as revealed by the study that out of this number, 26.67% level of actions taken towards development of attractions necessary for tourism to take off was high (adequate) in Port Harcourt study site. The study revealed those developmental actions (5 out of 18) represented by 26.67% level of actions that were high or adequate in Port Harcourt area for tourism to take off to be access roads, good hotels, communication facilities, cultural centres and schools/high institutions. Impliedly, it showed that about 73.33% of developmental actions taken were low. The infrastructural facilities where developmental actions were available but found to be low or inadequate in Port Harcourt include fire station, electricity, libraries, museum,

airport, seaport, beaches with resort, central market, motor park, hospital and bridges. This means that reasonable actions towards putting up facilities that will enable tourists to have comfort and enjoy their trips to Port Harcourt as a tourist destination were not enough. Similarly, in Bonny study site 72.22% out of the 18 developmental actions taken which are necessary for tourism activities to take off were found to be low, while the study indicated that out of 18 developmental actions found in the three sites, 27.78% representing 5 out of 18, no action has been taken at all. Among those facilities that no actions were taken (not available) include fire station, cultural centres, tourism village, tourist national park and beaches with resort. For Opobo, the study revealed that 44.44% of developmental actions on facilities for tourism to take off have been taken but at low level in the construction of access road, hotel/motel, communication facilities, electricity, central market, motor park, bridges and schools/institutions.

Table 4.9: Level of developmental actions on the available infrastructures that are fundamental for tourism to kick-off in the selected sites

Actions:	P/H	Bonny	Opobo
Construction of Access Roads	///	//	//
Construction of good Hotel/Motel/Restaurant	///	//	//
Fire station	//	/	/
Availability of Electricity	//	//	//
Availability of communication facilities	///	//	//
Construction of cultural centres	///	/	/
Availability of libraries	//	//	/
Availability of museum	//	//	/
Availability of Tourism village	/	/	/
Construction of Airport	//	//	/
Construction of tourist National Park	/	/	/
Construction of Sea Port	//	//	/
Beaches with resort	//	/	/
Construction of Central Market	//	//	//
Construction of Motor park	//	//	/
Construction of Hospital	//	//	//
Construction of Bridges	//	//	//
Availability of schools / High institutions	///	//	//

Source: field survey, 2013

Key:

- /// High/adequate
- // Low/inadequate
- / No action

Generally, the study revealed that the level of actions taken in Port Harcourt for tourism development to take off was quite high and remarkable more than Bonny and Opobo thereby making Port Harcourt study site to be more favourable for tourism development

4.3.3 Facilities available which are pre-conditions for economic take-off for tourism development

According to Rostow (1990) in WTO (1997), there are pre-conditions that must be met for economic take-off and which are fundamental part of tourism development. The development of transport and infrastructure is seen as a pre-condition for economic take-off for tourism development. Similarly, Okoli (2001) described that both infrastructures and superstructures are necessary for tourism development. These include airports, railways, roads, public utility, power supply, communication system, hotels, restaurants, drainage and sewage systems, etc.

Table 4.10 has revealed responses of the local residents on the availability of both the infrastructural and supernatural facilities on the three study sites for tourism development to take off. The study showed that out of the 400 copies of the questionnaire administered to 400, majority of the average respondents were of the view that the facilities available in the three study sites were Hospital represented by 98.26%, while 1.74% of the respondents disagreed with that view. Also, other facilities on ground as indicated by the average responses of the local residents were Pipe borne water (94.53%), Restaurant and Bar (91.93%), communication network

(88.92%), Hotel and Motel (85.58%), Good access road (38.25%) and cultural market (32.11%). A total of 100.0% for Opobo, 100.0% for Port Harcourt and 94.74% for Bonny were of the opinion that hospitals were available in the respective study sites. The findings for availability of Pipe-borne water revealed 83.58%, 100.0% and 100.0% were for Opobo, Port Harcourt and Bonny respectively. The results for restaurants and bars showed 100.0% responses for Opobo, 100.0% responses for Port Harcourt and 75.79% responses for Bonny. The study revealed responses on the availability of communication network as 82.09% for Opobo, 89.92% for Port Harcourt and 94.74% for Bonny.

Table 4.10: Perceptions of Local Residents on the actions taken so far towards Tourism Development in the area

Questions and variables	Opobo (%)	P/H (%)	Bonny (%)	Average score (%)
Which of the following infrastructures and superstructures are available in your area?				
Good access road	11(16.42)	214(89.92)	8(8.42)	78(38.25)
Hotel/motel	61(91.04)	214(89.92)	72(75.79)	116(85.58)
Restaurant and Bar	67(100.0)	238(100)	72(75.79)	126(91.93)
Electricity (stable power supply)	0(0)	0(0)	87(91.58)	29(30.53)
Communication network	55(82.09)	214(89.92)	90(94.74)	120(88.92)
Public libraries	0(0)	238(100)	0(0)	79(33.33)
Museum	0(0)	95(39.92)	16(16.84)	37(18.92)
Air port	0(0)	238(100)	0(0)	79(33.33)
Sea port	0(0)	238(100)	95(100.0)	111(66.67)
National park	0(0)	0(0)	0(0)	0(0)
Hospital	67(100.0)	238(100)	90(94.74)	132(98.26)
Developed beaches	0(0)	0(0)	0(0)	0(0)
Cultural market	22(32.84)	91(38.24)	24(25.26)	46(32.11)
Pipe borne water	56(83.58)	238(100)	95(100.0)	130(94.53)

Source: field survey, 2013

Also, a total of 91.04% respondents for Opobo, 89.92% respondents for Port Harcourt and 75.79% respondents for Bonny agreed that hotels/motels were available in the various study sites. For availability of access roads, Opobo showed 16.42%

responses; Port Harcourt showed 89.92% while Bonny showed 84.42% responses. The availability of cultural market has shown 32.84%, 38.24% and 25.26% responses for Opobo, Port Harcourt and Bonny respectively.

The study has revealed that there were no facilities already on ground around beaches and National Parks in all the three sites under study. The results for stable power supply (electricity) have revealed 91.58% responses for Bonny and 0% responses for both Opobo and Port Harcourt. The result has shown that majority of the respondents from Bonny agreed that they had stable power supply unlike Opobo and Port Harcourt. For availability of public libraries the responses were 0% for Opobo, 100% for Port Harcourt and 0% for Bonny. While museums availability the responses were 0%, 39.92% and 16.84% for Opobo, Port Harcourt and Bonny study sites respectively. The result has equally shown that 100% of the respondents from Port Harcourt have unanimously agreed that there was availability of airport in Port Harcourt while the study has revealed that there was no airport in both Opobo and Bonny study sites. Finally for the availability of sea ports, the study showed 0% responses for Opobo, 100% responses for Port Harcourt and 100% responses for Bonny. From the above stated findings, it implies that Port Harcourt study site has met those pre-conditions that are fundamental for tourism development to take off as stated by Row (1990) and Okoli (2001) more than Bonny and Opobo. Those facilities available include airport, public libraries, seaports, hospitals, pipe borne water, museum cultural markets, good access road, restaurant and bars, hotels and motels and communication networks. For Bonny study site, the facilities available were pipe-borne water, hospital, sea port, communication network, stable power supply, restaurant and bar, and hotel and motel. While Opobo revealed that hospitals, pipe-borne water, hotel/motel, restaurant and bar and communication networks were

available. The Bonny study site was next to Port Harcourt in meeting those pre-conditions that are fundamental for tourism to take-off in Rivers State.

4.4 Challenges and prospects of coastal tourism development in Rivers State

4.4.1 Challenges of developing coastal tourism in selected sites of Rivers State

The study revealed the following challenges of developing coastal areas of selected sites in Rivers State into tourism destination as presented in table 4.11.

Deforestation: The study revealed that some mangrove forests in Opobo have been destroyed. The local people depend much on mangrove forest for local boat construction, local basket weaving, mortar and pestle construction, fish rackets for drying of fish, masquerade head construction. The local residents cut on daily basis trees from mangrove for fire wood, as they believe that food cooked with fire wood gives better taste than those cooked with stove or gas. It was found from the study that mangroves in Opobo have suffered depletion through agricultural practices of the local farmers. The agricultural practices of the local farmers have posed great threat on mangrove. As some mangroves have been cleared by these farmers where they cultivate vegetables and other crops, especially during dry season. For them farming is their occupation and so it is difficult to stop them from such practices.

In Bonny, the belief of the local residents on the use of firewood for cooking was not different from what was discovered in Opobo. Almost on daily basis, forest trees were cut down for firewood as cooking fuel. The local farmers from Bonny have placed much pressure on “*Ngala*” mangrove forest by encroaching on part of it for their farm work. Similarly, *Ngala* mangrove forest has suffered threat due to deforestation through the activities of the local residents who engaged in construction

of platforms for firewood, fish, drying and basket weaving and masks construction, poles and timber harvesting.

Table 4.11: Challenges Confronting Development of Tourism in the Study Area

S/No	Challenges	P/H	Bonny	Opobo
1	Deforestation	√	√	√
2	Swamp	√	√	√
3	Apathy from government	√	√	√
4	Erosion	√	√	√
5	Flood	√	√	√
6	Bush burning	√	√	√
7	Illegal grazing	√	×	×
8	Pollution	√	√	√
9	Scarcity of land	√	√	√
10	Insecurity	√	√	√
11	Absence of good natural drinking water	√	√	√
12	Community conflict	√	×	√

Source: Field survey, 2013

Key: (√) Where a specific challenge was identified

(×) Where a specific challenge was not identified

In Port Harcourt study site, the study showed that “*Oke-ohia Agala*” mangrove has suffered threat and depletion. The local residents of *Nkpogu, Budu, Elekahia, Oroada Borokiri, Orochiri, Eligi* and *Oroabali* that bordered the mangrove have depended on the mangrove for charcoal and firewood for their cooking and wood for building. The greatest challenge on the forest is urbanization due to industries, institutions, roads, estates and markets that are springing up yearly in the area (Plate 26).



Plate 26: Deforestation

Swamp: The study revealed that swamp was another threat that will militate the development of tourism in the study area. From the study it was discovered that Bonny site among others faced this challenge most. It was observed that Bonny appeared to be the worst hit due to its location. It is located very close to the coast and bordered in the North by the Atlantic Ocean. Its mangrove forest was predominantly covered with swamp (plate 27). It was discovered that for any construction of tourism to take place in the swamp areas the engineers will first of all do sand filling to cover the swamp which makes it cost intensive to develop tourism in the area. The swamp area has become a home for breeding mosquitoes and rattle snakes and produces rotten smell due to the decomposition of vegetation.

The study has revealed that *Gbalaja-woji* and Eagle Island Agip are among the swampy areas in Port Harcourt study site. For one to build house or do any form of construction in the swamp places, huge sum of money would be spent to do sand filling (plate 28). This will no doubt make development of tourism in such places capital intensive which subsequently affects the time for return on investment.



Plate 27: Swamp



Plate 28: Sand filling

Air Pollution: Air pollution has been identified to be another challenge to coastal tourism development. The study revealed that gas flaring (Plate 29) was a major contributor to air pollution in the three study areas due to oil exploration in the state. Residents in the area complained with bitterness the level of damage the emission of gas has caused their houses and plants.

It was observed that the continuous flaring of gas in Bonny was responsible for the frequent acid rain on the island that corroded almost all the roofing sheets in Bonny. The study revealed areas where gas flaring has caused corrosion on their roofing sheets as *Orisikiro, Green Village, Ayama, Polo Nkwere, Ikuba, Aganya, Otobie, Polo Nwafor, Cable road, Ayambo, Light house.*

Apart from the damage on the vegetation and houses, the health of residents in the area is in jeopardy, as the residents are prone to cancer, asthma and other respiratory diseases. This finding was supported by NEST (1991) and OMPADEC (1993) that stated that gas flaring has environmental impact such as atmospheric pollution, human illness and production of acid rain.



Plate 29: Gas flaring

Noise Pollution: The study has revealed that movement of cars, buses and motor bikes as a source of noise pollution within the study sites particularly in the major cities like Port Harcourt, Bonny and Opobo towns. These can pose a threat to the development of tourism in these places contrary to quiet environment that will be conducive and cherished by tourists. Other sources of noise pollution discovered by the study were traffic congestion (Plate 30) and the use of fireworks by youths and children during festival such as carnival, Christmas and New year. Also the use of cannons (large guns) planted on the ground during burial, coronation and any special events. All these contribute to noise in the environment.



Plate 30: Traffic congestion

Water Pollution: Another challenge to tourism development as the study had shown was the pollution of water particularly Bonny study site. It was observed that most of

the rivers around Port Harcourt and Opobo areas were equally polluted. The major pollutants as revealed at the study sites were oil spills; solid garbage such as bottles, foot wears, cans, plastics, bags and other disposables. These pollutants might cause harm to aquatic lives; and they can equally flow into the beaches through the movement of the water thereby getting the beaches polluted (Plate 31).



Plate 31: Polluted beach due to oil spillage

Bush Burning: Bush burning was equally revealed by the study as another major problem against tourism development in the state. It was discovered that many a time school children set fire in the bush during dry season. Hunters and farmers alike have been found to be agents of bush burning in the three study sites. This militating problem reduces the vegetation cover for wildlife thereby exposing them to predators. Bush burning has led to loss of soil fertility and its consequences of lean harvest because of the destruction of useful bacteria and removal of organic matter contents.

Several plant and animal species have been lost within the environment due to habitat destruction as a result of bush burning. Apart from clearing of vegetation, destruction of useful bacteria and removal of organic matters, bush burning has contributed adversely to environmental pollution (Plate 32).



Plate 32: bush burning

Poaching: The study has revealed that poaching is a problem facing conservation and tourism development in Opobo, Bonny and Port Harcourt. Due to the fact that hunting and fishing are the occupations of some of the local residents in the three study sites. The study revealed that many of the local residents depended on this practice for their meat and fish consumption. Responses from the people showed that they prefer bush meat to domestic and fish from rivers to those from ponds. According to them bush meat and fish from rivers have better taste than domestic ones. Some of the weapons used for killing of games include shot guns, rifles, sticks, traps and shovels and diggers for animals that live in holes. The instruments used for illegal fishing were nets and hooks. With such weapons hunters and fishers have killed off some species of animals and fishes.

Apathy from Government: Government at all levels have made some good policies that favour tourism development; but have failed to carry out tourism development projects that will bring reality unto limelight particularly in Bonny and Opobo. The study also showed that tourism development projects are not in the priority list of Government. Government is only giving lip service to it through their bogus policies devoid of implementations or action programmes. Governments have not provided needed funds for tourism development projects.

Flood: The study revealed flood disaster as another challenge that will militate against development of tourism. One of the respondents who was interviewed complained bitterly his ordeals as a result of flood in Rumu-ibekwe Port Harcourt, Rivers State which destroyed a lot of property and rendering many families homeless. During the flood incident, many houses were submerged as they were covered with water. Another respondent said that for five days she was scooping water from her house and she did not go to work because of this menace. When she was asked the cause of the drainage, she stated that it was due to the blockage of the drainage system which has not allowed flood water to flow. One of the major challenges of developing tourism in Bonny area was flooding. Almost all the respondents interviewed expressed their experiences on the problem of flood.

The study identified some areas in Bonny as flood prone areas according to the experience the respondents had in the past. Some of the communities as discovered through the respondents in Bonny study site were *Perekunle Iwoama*, *Aganya Community*, *Macaulay* and *Ayambo*. Other areas were *Orosikiri* local beach, sand-fill, *Dappa Posia*, *Igoni polo*, *Manila Pepple* compound, *Aligon* compound and cable road. It was discovered that the geographical location of Bonny has made it to be prone to flood disaster. Bonny is a land surrounded by water and this has made it so vulnerable to flood.

Opobo was not left out in the flood incidence. It was discovered that properties worth millions of naira were damaged in the year 2010 following a heavy rain in Opobo. One of the respondents stated that the areas affected most by this flood were Brown compound, Pombe area and some buildings close to Opobo New layout. Another respondent interviewed was a victim of the flood who described the disaster as

unprecedented. However incidence of flood has been discovered by the study as a perennial occurrence in Opobo.

Illegal Grazing: The study revealed that the practice of taking cattle from place to place by cattle Fulani nomads was another problem that will face tourism development. This practice was identified to be common in Port Harcourt. It was also discovered that some residents of the local communities equally graze their animals (sheep and goats) on the vegetation in Opobo and Bonny. The grazing of animals has affected wildlife, especially grasses, insects, ants and rodents. The practice reduces vegetation cover which provides protection for some wildlife. Many plant and animal species have been lost in nature due to habitat destruction resulting from grazing animals.



Plate 33: Illegal Grazing

Scarcity of Land: Availability of land is essential for tourism development. Unfortunately the study showed that the three study sites were facing the problem of land scarcity. For instance, in Port Harcourt a plot of land is sold within the range of 1.5M to 50M. Also, due to scarcity of land, some swamps have to be reclaimed for buildings and other constructions. The description of costs of plots of land in Port Harcourt was revealed by study as follows: old, GRA – ₦ 50M/₦40m; Ada George road between ₦10M – ₦22M; Agip Estate between ₦10M - ₦15m; GRA (II)

between ₦25M – ₦45M; Location Road between ₦6M - ₦10M; Rumuigbo between ₦4.5M - ₦5M; Elekahia between ₦2.5M - ₦10M; Trans-Amadi between ₦10M - ₦20M and Borokiri Sand Field between ₦6M - ₦10M.

In Bonny, the study revealed that the people do not sell their land to others except their family members. While the price of a plot of land was sold at 1.5M in Bonny town the swamp areas sold at ₦1M. A Plot of land in the rural areas was sold at a range of ₦800,000 to ₦900,000. When the respondents were interviewed on why they do not sell land to people outside. The responses from them pointed to the fact that the people of Bonny did not have sufficient land because of much water surrounding Bonny.

Similarly it was discovered from the study that the people of Opobo faced similar problem of scarcity of land. The people don't sell land. Instead of selling their land portions they prefer that their relations build for them in exchange for their portion of land. According to the respondents many indigenes of Opobo do not have enough land to build and cultivate let alone the one to sell.

Insecurity: The history of Rivers State has been characterized with insecurity. During the military era precisely from 1983 to 1999 militancy was the main issue in Rivers State. Even democracy in the state has had its challenges with incessant politically motivated killings across the state had posed security challenges to lives, properties and democracy in state. In fact at the last concluded general election there were records of killings in the state. It was reported that All Progressive Congress (APC) youth leader, Mr. Clever Orukwuowu was murdered on the day of the governorship election in the state. In *Obrikom* in *Ogba/Egbema/Ndoni* LGA, a former *Chairman* of the council, Late Chief Christopher *Adube* was killed with his

children, driver and cousin in April, 2015. Other victims of attack were Mr. Blessing Nwuchigbo and Onuwa (Mr) who escaped death from gunmen but have their family houses burnt down. The insecurity in the state worsened when it was reported that police killed 26 cultists in a forest around *Obesemini* community in *Egi*. Also it was revealed that cult related violence had taken over most parts of Rivers State as a result of failure of governance in the state. The insecurity in Rivers State is not investment friendly for tourism development in the state. However the Rivers state Governor Barrister Nyesom Wike who was sworn-in on May 29th, 2015 as the governor of the state has promised international investors of an investment friendly environment. He promised to improve on the security of lives and property across the state and ensured that kidnapping shall become a thing of the past.

Absence of good natural drinking water: It was discovered from the study that the three study sites lack good natural drinking water. In the three study sites it was discovered that drinking water quality was impaired by run-off discharges, organic and inorganic matters. The rivers and streams which used to be sources of drinking water have been damaged with industrial pollutants and oil spills. River water, creek water, lake water and streams have been polluted with the discharge of wastewater effluents by industries. Even rain water which should have been a source of good drinking water was discovered from the study as unsafe for human consumption due to gas flaring effects on the roofing sheets used for rain water collection. The people complained bitterly on the damage the impact of oil exploration, gas flaring and industrialization have created on their streams and rivers which used to be their sources of drinking water. According to the researcher's informants from the three study sites, the only sources of drinking water in their communities were primarily community boreholes provided by NDDC, Shell, Agip and Chevron, individual

household boreholes and pipe-borne water supplied by the state water board. However, to ascertain the quality of water from Opobo, Port Harcourt and Bonny to determine their suitability for human consumption, the study evaluated some of the physico-chemical parameters and microbiological status.

Community conflict: The study revealed that the three study sites have witnessed community conflicts at one time or the other. The responses from the locals showed that the conflicts were due to ethnic pluralism, diverse cultures, boundary dispute between communities. It was discovered from the study that the community conflict has spread to different dimensions with socio-economic consequences which ranges from incessant communal conflict to destruction of towns and villages, killings and maiming of people, sabotage of oil and gas facilities, kidnapping, hostage taking and other crimes.

4.4.2 Perceptions of Local respondents on the Challenges of developing coastal tourism in selected sites of Rivers State

Table 4.12 showed various problems facing the Communities under study. The results revealed that majority of the average respondents were of the opinion that the biggest challenge facing their Communities regarding tourism development was apathy from government (98.95%) for which Opobo was 100%, Port Harcourt showed 100% positive responses and Bonny indicated 96.84% responses.

Table 4.12: Perceptions of Local Residents on the problems facing the Communities

Variables	Opobo (%)	Port Harcourt (%)	Bonny (%)	Average score (%)
Apathy from government	67(100.0)	238(100.0)	92(96.84)	132(98.95)
Erosion	21(31.34)	96(40.34)	09(9.47)	42(27.05)
Flood	18(26.87)	166(69.75)	56(58.95)	80(61.86)
Swamp	23(34.33)	119(50.0)	32(33.68)	58(39.34)
Bush burning	6(8.96)	70(29.41)	9(9.47)	28(15.95)
Deforestation	32(47.76)	145(60.92)	18(18.95)	65(42.54)
Illegal grazing	0(0%)	75(31.51)	0(0.0)	25(10.50)
Pollution	31(46.27)	215(90.34)	67(70.53)	104(69.05)
Illegal fishing	12(17.91)	90(37.83)	10(10.53)	34(20.09)
Scarcity of land	57(85.07)	238(100.00)	25(26.32)	107(70.46)
Insecurity	8(11.94)	150(63.03)	10(10.53)	556(28.49)
Absence of good drinking water	45(67.16)	167(70.17)	50(52.63)	87(63.32)
Community conflict	8(11.94)	88(36.97)	0(0.0)	32(16.30)

Source: Field survey, 2013

The next challenging problem as revealed by their responses was scarcity of land with average responses of 70.46% where Opobo was 85.07%, Port Harcourt was 100% and Bonny was 26.32%. Another problem as revealed by their responses was pollution with average responses of 69.05%, where Opobo, Port Harcourt and Bonny were 46.27%, 90.34% and 70.53% respectively. Then followed by absence of good drinking water with average responses of 63.32% where Opobo was 67.16%, Port Harcourt was 70.17% and Bonny was 52.63%. The study also revealed flood as another challenging problem with Opobo, Port Harcourt and Bonny indicating 26.87%, 69.75% and 58.95% responses respectively where the average response was 61.86%. The least respondents received on the problems confronting the communities were illegal grazing 10.50%, bush burning 15.95%, community conflict 16.30% and illegal fishing 20.09%. For illegal grazing, Port Harcourt showed 31.51% responses while Bonny and Opobo showed 0% response. Also, responses for Opobo, Port Harcourt, and Bonny were 8.96%, 29.41% and 9.47% respectively for bush burning,

while community conflict revealed 11.94% for Opobo, 36.97% for Port Harcourt and 0% for Bonny. Finally, the responses for illegal fishing indicated 17.91% for Opobo, 37.82% for Port Harcourt and 10.53% for Bonny study sites. Therefore, it can be deduced from the study that the major problems confronting the communities which can hamper tourism development as lack of political will, scarcity of land, pollution, absence of good drinking water, flood and deforestation, etc. It was observed that the major sources of noise and air pollution were gas flaring, and emissions from vehicles, motor bikes and generator sets due to unstable power supply especially in the major cities and towns like Port Harcourt and Bonny towns. While the sources of water pollution were discharges from boats, solid wastes from passengers, faeces and wastes discharges by some industries such as oil and petrochemical industry, fertilizer industry, textile industry, fabrication industry etc.

Table 4.13 shows the mean values of the physico-chemical parameters of water samples to ascertain the safety of water in rivers, lakes, beaches, and seas for recreational activities that involve water, Among those activities are yachting, pool swimming, canoeing, boating racing, water polo, snorkelling, diving, under water hockey, under water football, etc. The water samples from the three study sites – Port Harcourt, Bonny and Opobo were compared with WHO (1984) standard. The mean water temperatures of the samples were 33°C, 39.7°C and 34°C for Port Harcourt, Bonny and Opobo respectively. The appearance of water samples from Port Harcourt and Opobo was clear while that of Bonny was very dense indicating the presence of many particles and sediments inside the water making it unwholesome and unsafe for drinking by tourists. The colour of water samples from Port Harcourt and Opobo were clear showing a sign of being clean water for drinking, while the water sample from Bonny was dark brown indicating a sign of bad water for tourists to consume.

The turbidity indicates a sign of cloudiness caused by large number of individual particles that are invisible with the naked eyes.

Table 4.13: Comparisons of Physico-chemical Parameters of water samples from Port Harcourt, Bonny and Opobo for recreation with WHO Standard.

S/No	Parameters	Units	Port Harcourt	Bonny	Opobo	WHO
1	Appearance	-	Clear	Very dense	Clear	-
2	Temperature	0°C	33°C	39.7°C	34.0°C	-
3	Colour	-	Colourless	Dark Brown	Colourless	-
4	Turbidity	NTU	0.001	146	ND	5
5	Conductivity	usc ^m ⁻¹	0.001 usc ^m ⁻¹	0.04 usc ^m ⁻¹	0.001 usc ^m ⁻¹	-
6	pH	-	7.03	8.87	7.11	6.5-7.5
7	Alkalinity	mg/l	0.004mg/l	0.001mg/l	0.005mg/l	-
8	Pb	mg/l	ND	0.0175mg/l	ND	0.1
9	Cr (chromium)	mg/l	ND	0.17mg/l	ND	0.05
10	Cd (cadmium)	mg/l	ND	0.0193mg/l	ND	0.01
11	Ammonia	mg/l	ND	1.16mg/l	ND	0.5
12	BODs	mg/l	1.67mg/l	16.10mg/l	1.75mg/l	6.0
13	Dissolved oxygen	mg/l	3.50mg/l	2.73mg/l	3.76mg/l	5(m/l)

Source: Field survey, 2013

ND - Non-Detectable

The turbidity of water sample from Port Harcourt was 0.001mg/l, Bonny was 146mg/l and Opobo was non-detectable, while WHO standard was 5. The mean turbidity of Port Harcourt and Opobo was less than the WHO standard which is an indication of good quality water, while the water sample from Bonny was highly turbid.

In the conductivity of water which measures the ability of water to pass an electrical current due to presence of high concentration of salts and other chemicals that ionize in the solution, Port Harcourt has shown 0.001usc^m⁻¹, Bonny (0.04usc^m⁻¹) and Opobo (0.001usc^m⁻¹). The water conductivity of Bonny was higher than Port Harcourt and Opobo indicating higher concentration of salts and other chemical ions. This also indicates that waters from Port Harcourt and Opobo were more salt free, ion-free or impurity free than the water from Bonny. The pH of water samples from Port

Harcourt, Bonny and Opobo were 7.03, 8.87 and 7.11 respectively. The pH levels of water samples from the three study sites were all base, however pH levels of water samples from Port Harcourt and Opobo were within the maximum acceptable range of 6.5 and 7.5 of a normal good drinking water. The pH level of water sample from Bonny was alkaline but was above maximum acceptable range which has health implications to man.

The mean BODs for Port Harcourt water sample was 1.67mg/l, Bonny water sample was 16.10mg/l and Opobo water sample was 1.75mg/l as against 6.0 for WHO standard. The Bonny water sample BODs was too high and deviated significantly from maximum permissible level of 6.0 mg/l for BOD for drinking purpose WHO (1984). This could be attributed to increased total suspended solids, high organic matter content of the river where the water was collected, sewage discharges, oil refining and petrochemicals, oil spills, industrial effluents dissolved solids, etc. when these pollutants gain access into the river, they will need a large amount of oxygen needed by aquatic organisms thereby using it up to the detriment of the aquatic organisms.

The BODs of 1.67mg/l for pH and 1.75 for Opobo as against the 6.0 for WHO standard implies that the amount of pollutants that gain access into the rivers where the water samples were collected were significantly low. The implication is that the rivers in Port Harcourt were less polluted than that of Opobo while rivers from Bonny were highly polluted with heavy pollutants which gain access into them.

The mean dissolved oxygen content recorded in this study was 3.50mg/l for Port Harcourt 2.73mg/l for Bonny and 3.76mg/l for Opobo was less than the recommended minimum standard of 5mg/l (WHO, 1984, FEPA. 1991) for drinking purpose. This

deviation was more significant in Bonny more than Port Harcourt and thereafter Opobo. This shows that the water sample from Bonny contained large amount of dissolved oxygen followed by the sample from Port Harcourt. Water sample from Opobo appeared the best amongst the three samples with 3.76mg/l dissolved oxygen content closer to 5mg/l recommended minimum standard of WHO.

The mean concentration of the heavy metals in the study sites – Port Harcourt, Bonny and Opobo is as follows (see table 4.13). The following heavy substances – lead (Pb), cadmium (Cd), Chromium (Cr) and Ammonia (NH) were non-detectable in water samples from both Port Harcourt and Opobo study sites. However, for lead (Pb): Bonny (0.0175mg/l) and WHO (0.1); for cadmium (Cd): Bonny (0.0193mg/l) and WHO (0.01); for chromium (Cr): Bonny (0.17mg/l) and WHO (0.05) and for Ammonia (NH): Bonny (1.16mg/l) and WHO (0.5). The table shows that the following parameters: pH, BODs, cadmium, chromium and Ammonia were higher than the recommended values for WHO standard except in lead (Pb). Considering that those metals are toxic substances, it can be seen that the water from Bonny study site is not suitable for human consumption and for swimming and other recreational activities in beaches, rivers, lakes and swimming pool by tourists. However, it may be suitable for other purposes such as irrigation and industrial purposes but should not come in contact with food and skin because of its toxicity.

The following parameters: lead, chromium, cadmium and Ammonia were non-detectable from Port Harcourt and Opobo water samples. These water samples were clear and colourless. Also, BODs, pH parameters were less than the recommended WHO standard for Port Harcourt and Opobo; while turbidity was non-detectable for Opobo and less than recommended value for WHO standard for Port Harcourt. This

implies that the water samples from Port Harcourt and Opobo were safe and wholesome for human consumption, swimming and bathing for tourists.

Table 4.14 displays the physical and chemical parameters of water samples from Bonny, Opobo and Port Harcourt with the National Standard for Drinking water quality (SON, 2014). The mean values of water temperature reveals 33°C for Port Harcourt, 39.7 °C for Bonny and 34.0 °C for Opobo while the National Standard is ambient (i.e. dependent on the atmosphere and the environment). This shows that water temperatures have no health implication.

Table 4.14 Comparisons of physical and chemical parameters of water samples from Bonny, Port Harcourt and Opobo with National standard for drinking water quality:

S/No	Parameters	Units	Port Harcourt	Bonny	Opobo	National standard
1	Appearance	-	Clear	Very dense	Clear	-
2	Temperature	°C	33 °C	39.7 °C	34.0 °C	Ambient
3	Colour	TCU	Colourless	Dark brown	Colourless	15
4	Turbidity	NTU	0.001	146	ND	5
5	Conductivity	US/CM	0.001us/cm	0.04	0.001	1000
6	pH	-	7.03	8.87	7.11	≥6.5≤8.5
7	Alkalinity	Mg/L	0.004	0.001	0.005	-
8	Pb	Mg/L	ND	0.0175	ND	0.01
9	Chromium	Mg/L	ND	0.17	ND	0.05
10	Cadmium	Mg/L	ND	0.0193	ND	0.003
11	Ammonia	Mg/L	ND	1.16	ND	-
12	BODs	Mg/L	1.67	16.10	1.75	-
13	Dissolved oxygen	Mg/L	3.50	2.73	3.76	-

Source: Field survey, 2013

Key:

ND = Non – Detectable

BOD's = Biochemical oxygen demands

us/cm = Microsiemens per centimetre

The water samples from Port Harcourt and Opobo were clear and colourless while the sample from Bonny was very dense and dark brown and the National Standard recommended a maximum permitted level of water value of 15. The water samples

from Port Harcourt and Opobo have acceptable quality in terms of colour and appearance unlike the water sample from Bonny.

The mean turbidity values were 0.001, 146 and non-detectable (ND) for Port Harcourt, Bonny and Opobo respectively, while the National Standard recommends 5 as the maximum permitted level for water turbidity. The turbidity values of water samples from Port Harcourt and Opobo were less than Port Harcourt and Opobo were less than the permitted level recommended by Stand Organisation of Nigeria as the National Standard. Also, the water sample from Bonny was highly turbid and differed significantly from the National Standard value. This level of turbidity makes it unacceptable for human consumption and therefore unsuitable for tourists' use.

The mean values of water conductivity of water samples from Port Harcourt, Bonny and Opobo were 0.001us/cm, 0.04 us/cm and 0.001us/cm respectively, while the value recommended by SON as the maximum permitted level was 1000us/cm. The conductivity levels of water samples from the three study sites were far less than the National Standard value recommended by SON. This indicates that the concentration of salts and other chemicals that ionize in solutions were not high in the three water samples from the study sites in comparison with the National Standard recommendation. However, the water samples from Port Harcourt and Opobo were more salt free, ion-free or impurity free than the water sample from Bonny. It is important to note that the higher the conductivity of water, the higher the ability of the water to pass electricity current.

The pH was 7.03 for Port Harcourt, 8.87 for Bonny and 7.11 for Opobo while the National Standard was $\geq 6.5 \leq 8.5$. The pH values of water samples from Port Harcourt and Opobo were within the recommended range of the National Standard. The pH

value of the water sample from Bonny was little above the National Standard value. This implies that the pH of water from Opobo and Port Harcourt was acceptable for a good drinking water; but the water from Bonny was slightly alkaline which has health implication and unsuitable for consumption.

The mean value of lead (Pb) showed non-detectable (ND) for water samples from Port Harcourt and Opobo and 0.0175mg/L for Bonny while the National Standard recommended value was 0.01mg/L. This indicates that Opobo and Port Harcourt waters were lead-free and no health implications on human concerning those issues connected to excess lead (Pb) in the body. On the other hand, the water from Bonny appears to be toxic, likely to cause cancer, have interference with Vitamin D metabolism, as well as having the tendency to affect the mental development in infants. In other words, the water is hazardous to human health.

The value of chromium (Cr) was non-detectable (ND) for Port Harcourt and Opobo; 0.17 mg/L for Bonny, and 0.05 mg/L for National Standard. Similarly, the water samples from Opobo and Port Harcourt indicated to be good and acceptable for human consumption. The waters from those two study sites were not hazardous when considering those health issues linked with chromium. In contrast, the water from Bonny was higher than the recommended National Standard value by Standard Organization of Nigeria. From the finding, it shows that water from the study site was hazardous for drinking thereby making it carcinogenic and likely to cause cancer.

The table also shows that cadmium (cd) was non-detectable (ND) for Opobo and Port Harcourt, 0.0193m/l for Bonny and 0.003mg/L for National Standard considering this metal, the waters from Opobo and Port Harcourt have no health implication and is therefore good and acceptable as good for drinking. The mean value of cadmium (cd)

was above the maximum permitted level recommended as National Standard value. The water is hazardous to human health. The level of the metal in the water from Bonny has the potential to damage the kidney; as cadmium is known to be toxic to the kidney.

For Ammonia, there is no recommended maximum permitted level according to the National Standard for drinking water quality in Nigeria. However, this gas was not detected in the water sample from Bonny. The absence of Ammonia in the water samples from Opobo and Port Harcourt has no doubt made the water from these sites to be acceptable and preferable to the water from Bonny.

The BOD's value was 1.67mg/L for Port Harcourt, 1.75mg/L for Opobo and 16.10 mg/L for Bonny. There is no recommended value according to the National Standard. BOD's is a parameter which indicates presence of suspended solids and organic matter content. The results revealed that the water from Bonny has a very high suspended solids and organic matter content more than Opobo; while Opobo has slightly more than the value of Port Harcourt. This shows that sewage discharges, oil spills, industrial effluents, dissolved solids, etc have significantly more access into the rivers in Bonny than the rivers in Opobo and Port Harcourt. This indicates that rivers in Bonny were heavily polluted while rivers in Port Harcourt were less polluted.

The mean value of dissolved oxygen for Port Harcourt was 3.5 mg/L; Opobo was 3.76 mg/L and Bonny was 2.73 mg/L. The mean value of dissolved oxygen was least in Bonny thereby making the water less acceptable, while the mean value of the dissolved oxygen was highest in Opobo thereby making it more acceptable.

Therefore, looking at the parameters holistically, the water samples from Port Harcourt and Opobo were neither toxic nor carcinogenic because the level of heavy

metals present in them was less than the National Recommended value. The waters were clear and colourless. Also, their pH, conductivity and turbidity levels were lower than the National Standard values. The quality of water from Port Harcourt and Opobo study sites were suitable, acceptable and good for normal good drinking water. The waters were not hazardous but safe for drinking by tourists. In view of the above parameters used for the study, Opobo and Port Harcourt study sites are suitable sites and have prospect for tourism development. However, Port Harcourt site has more prospects for tourism development more than Opobo study site because its pH, alkalinity and BODs levels were lower than that of Opobo except that the amount of dissolved oxygen was a little high in Opobo and turbidity was not detected in Opobo.

The study revealed that Bonny water was very dense in appearance, dark brown in colour, highly turbid, basic and with mean concentration of the heavy metals – Lead, chromium and cadmium higher than the recommended National Standard. Also, the water has high concentration of ammonia and BOD's as well as being low in dissolved oxygen. This implies that Bonny water was hazardous and not safe for human consumption. The water was highly polluted with heavy metals that are toxic. The indication is that one of the challenges of developing tourism in Bonny is the poor quality of the water as a result of pollution. The water did not meet the recommended National Standard for drinking water quality in Nigeria.

The result of the microbiological test of water samples from the three study sites was presented in table 4.15. The microbiological test of water was carried out to determine the safety of water for tourists to carry out their sporting activities in water such as swimming, diving, boating, water polo, etc. The result revealed that the culture of water samples from Opobo and Port Harcourt yielded no growth after 48 hours of incubation. While the culture of water sample from Bonny yielded moderate growth

of pseudomonas Spp. after 48 hours of incubation. This indicated faecal contamination of the water sample. The infections these bacteria can cause include gastrointestinal infections, endocarditis, osteomyelites, urinary tract infections, meningitis, etc. The presence of the bacteria has made the water unsafe for human consumption and recreational or sporting activities. Hence, faecal contamination of water is a serious challenge towards developing tourism in Bonny Area. That Opobo and Port Harcourt waters were safe for drink as revealed by the study implies that they have better prospects for tourism development in the state than Bonny area.

Table 4.15: Comparisons of microbiological status of water samples from Port Harcourt, Bonny and Opobo.

Sources of samples	Serial dilution factor	Microbial count	Isolated organisms
Port Harcourt	10 – 1 10 – 2 10 – 3 10 – 4 10 – 5 10 – 6 10 – 7	NIL	Culture yielded no growth after 48 hours of incubation at 37°C
Opobo	10 – 1 10 – 2 10 – 3 10 – 4 10 – 5 10 – 6 10 – 7	NIL	Culture yielded no growth after 48 hours of incubation at 37°C
Bonny	10 – 1 10 – 2 10 – 3 10 – 4 10 – 5 10 – 6 10 – 7	2.7×10^2	Culture yielded moderate growth of pseudomonas Spp. after 48 hours of incubation

Source: Field survey, 2013

The result of some of the physicochemical properties of the soil samples at different study sites with the control site is presented in table 4:16. The pH of the three soil samples from Opobo, Port Harcourt and Bonny study sites were very close ranging

from 6.20 – 6.83 where 6.83, 6.20 and 6.54 were for Opobo, Port Harcourt and Bonny respectively.

Table 4.16: Mean values of physical and chemical properties of soils at various locations within coastal areas of Rivers State and the control soil sample mean values.

Parameters	Soil locations			
	Opobo	Port Harcourt	Bonny	Control
pH(H ₂ O)	6.83	6.20	6.54	5.2
E/C	311	178	205	131
N	0.05	0.01	0.02	0.016
OC	6.31	1.28	1.32	1.16
TPH (mg/g)	1123	450	423	ND
Ca	1.15	5.60	5.12	3.12
Mg	1.30	2.41	2.40	1.5
K	180	147	156	0.22
Na	15.2	1.85	2.20	1.30
Pb	0.62	0.012	0.011	ND

Source: Field survey, 2013

* us/cm = Microsiemens per centimetre

This indicates acidity of all soil samples studies. The control site was more acidic with pH of 5.2. however, the pH of the soil samples from Opobo and Bonny were within the range of 6.5 to 7.5 which is the maximum available range that is good for all the essential plant nutrients including flowers for beautiful environment, trees for shade and wind break and vegetable that provides a ground cover that permits rain to percolate into the ground, preventing run off flooding which is suitable for tourism development. The result shows that the study sites were more protected from direct rainfall and movement of surface runoff than the control sites. (Foth, 2006).

The electrical conductivity (EC) results of Opobo, Port Harcourt and Bonny showed the value of 311 us/cm, 178 us/cm and 205 us/cm respectively which are

comparatively higher than the electrical conductivity of the control site with 131 us/cm. This suggests that the concentration of salts in the soil of the study sites was higher than the salt concentration of the soil from the control site. The result also showed that the salt concentration of Opobo soil was highest and this was followed by Bonny and was lowest in Port Harcourt study site. The implication of the results is that Opobo and Bonny have good soils as there are enough nutrients available to plants in the soils in Opobo and Bonny as against the soils in Port Harcourt study site and control site. This is because the EC of soils from Opobo and Bonny was within the range of 200 us/cm and 1200 us/cm. And good soil EC level will be somewhere above 200 us/cm and 1200 us/cm. Any soil below 2000 us/cm means there is not enough nutrients available to the plants and could perhaps show a sterile soil with little microbial activity. An EC above 1200 us/cm include too high salt fertilizer or perhaps a salinity problem from lack of drainage (“The way and how to testing”, n.d).

The study revealed that the proportion of nitrogen was significantly higher in Opobo (0.05) than in control site (0.016). The proportion of nitrogen in the control site was higher than nitrogen content of Port Harcourt (0.01) but lower than the total nitrogen in Bonny (0.02). Also, the proportion of organic carbons (OC) was higher in the three study sites than in the control site. The organic carbon in Bonny was 1.32, Port Harcourt was 1.28 and Opobo was 6.31 while the control site was 1.16. This shows that the organic carbon was significantly higher in Opobo than the control site.

This implies that the higher levels of total nitrogen and organic carbon (OC) in the study sites particularly Opobo and Bonny could be attributed to the accumulation of residues of the fallow vegetation which has increased the rate of nutrients returned to the soil through the fall and subsequent decomposition of litter from undistributed

vegetation or forest (Iwara, Ogundele, Ibor, Arrey and Okongor, 2011; and Ogbodo, 2011).

The study revealed that hydrocarbons were found in the study areas but were not detected in the control site. The Total Petroleum Hydrocarbons (TPH) detected in Opobo was significantly high with 1123mg/g while Port Harcourt and Bonny revealed 450 mg/g and 423 mg/g respectively. The presence of petroleum hydrocarbons in those areas was due to the effect of oil exploration by the oil companies. The study showed that the Ca and Mg contents of the soil from the control site were significantly lower than the soil samples from Port Harcourt and Bonny but higher than the soil sample from Opobo. For Port Harcourt Ca (5.50) and mg/l(2.41); Bonny Ca (5.12) and mg/l(2.40), control site Ca (3.12) and mg/l (1.5) and Opobo, Ca (1.15) and mg/l(1.30). The higher Ca and Mg contents of Port Harcourt and Bonny as against the control sites could be attributed to the deposit of sediment caused by water currents. Also, the higher soil moisture of the mangrove swamp soil zone could have assisted the release of the inorganic Ca and Mg from the soil minerals. The study also revealed higher Na content in all the study sites than the control sites where Opobo was significantly very high with Na content level of 15.2mg/g, where 1.85 mg/g was for Port Harcourt, 2.20mg/g for Bonny and 1.30mg/g for control site. The levels of K content in the study areas were all significantly higher than the level of K content of the control site. The consistent higher level of different mineral content of the study areas over the mineral content of the control site was due to high level of organic matter, litter from vegetation and soil moisture of the mangrove swamp. Also, the study showed that the level of soil K content varied among the soils from the study areas. The inconsistency of the soil K content among the study sites could be as a result of variations in soil minerals and constituents among the different sites of the

study areas. This supports the work of (Ogbodo, 2011) where he reported that the inconsistency of soil K content could be attributed to the variations in soil minerals. Finally, the study disclosed that there was contamination of soils from different study sites of the study area with lead (Pb) which was not found in the soil from the control site. The presence of this toxic metal in the soils from study sites constitute serious problems to man because it is a source of environmental pollution particularly when the heavy metal is above threshold limit in the environment. According to Udensi (2010) in Chukwu and Saeed (2014) toxic metals constitute serious problems to human beings because they are neither rapidly removed nor readily detoxified through metabolic activities.

In conclusion, the study revealed acidity of all the soil samples studied where the pH of the soil samples from Opobo and Bonny being within the range of 6.5 - 7.5 maximum available range that is good for essential plants. The finding reveals that the study area had good soil structure with good nutrient status due to deposit of sediments and decomposition of litter from vegetation. There was also good vegetation cover that will protect the soil from direct rain storm and at the same time slow down the movement of surface runoff. The soil structure of the three study sites is not only good for vegetation cover and beautiful flowers but also of good quality for construction of facilities needed to support tourism. The results did not show any indication of leaching of nutrients from the soil which causes environmental degradation in form of infrastructural collapse as well as making the soil unproductive for ecological sustainability. Poor quality of soil can lead to collapse of hotels, resorts, and other facilities for tourists to stay and enjoy and may lead to loss of lives and property. The impacts of tourism on the environment tend to be more devastating if the quality of soil is poor from the inception of tourism development than good

quality soil. It is dangerous to construct tourism facilities without first ascertaining the soil quality of the area among other things to determine if the soil is good for construction of tourism facilities to avoid the devastating effects of having collapsed building or structures. So, it is essential to determine quality of soil before deciding to develop an area. This agrees with Iwara et al (2011) that showed the environmental impacts of construction of tourism facilities are leaching of nutrients, accelerated soil erosion and loss in biotic diversity and that if these impacts are not properly managed will degrade the environment in different ways such as collapse of infrastructures, loss in soil nutrients and on-site destruction. The study area generally has good soil structure for tourism and ecological sustainability. However, the major problem discovered was the presence of Total Petroleum Hydrocarbons (THC) and lead (Pb) which are toxic and sources of environmental pollution and hence pose environmental risks.

4.5 Prospects of coastal tourism development in Rivers State

In determining the perception of people concerning tourism development within their communities table 4.17 showed that majority of average respondents of 121 (91.70%) welcomed the idea of developing tourism in their community, where 62 ((92.54%) responses were for Opobo, 214 (89.92%) responses were for Port Harcourt and 98(92.63%) responses were for Bonny. Only average of 12 (8.30%) did not welcome the idea of developing tourism in the communities where 5(7.46%), 24(10.08%) and 7(7.37%) represented Opobo, Port Harcourt and Bonny respectively. This indicates that majority of the respondents understand what tourism is and its numerous benefits to the people and the communities and so they were ever prepared to embrace it. This is equally a good indication that majority of the people in three communities would welcome the idea of developing tourism in their area. The table revealed that majority

of the average respondents were of the opinion that the benefits the development of tourism will bring into their communities were employment opportunities

Table 4.17: Perceptions of the local people of communities under study on the prospects of developing tourism in their areas

Questions and variables	Opobo (%)	P/H (%)	Bonny (%)	Average score (%)
Do you welcome the idea of developing tourism in your community				
Yes	62(92.54)	214(89.92)	88(92.63)	121(91.70)
No	5(7.46)	24(10.08)	7.7(37)	12(8.30)
What benefits do you think developing tourism will bring to your community?				
Income generation	62(100.0)	214(100.0)	40(42.11)	105(80.70)
Employment generation	62(100.0)	214(100.0)	60(63.16)	112(87.72)
Increase in standard of living	45(72.58)	212(99.07)	25(26.32)	94(66.0)
Development of local arts and crafts.	39(62.91)	309(97.66)	25(26.32)	91(62.30)
Improvement of health condition	39(62.91)	205(95.79)	8(8.42)	84(55.71)
Improvement of infrastructure	48(77.42)	194(90.65)	34(35.79)	92(67.95)
Fostering Host Tourist friendship	50(80.65)	214(100.0)	43(45.26)	102(75.30)
Indicate your reasons for your fear of not welcoming the idea of developing tourism in your community				
Cultural vandalism	5(100.0)	19(79.17)	7(100.0)	10(93.06)
Immorality	5(100.0)	24(100.0)	6(85.71)	12(95.24)
Insecurity	5(100.0)	24(100.0)	6(85.71)	12(95.24)
Introduction of diseases	4(80.6)	21(87.50)	4(85.71)	10(74.88)
Increased crime	3(60.0)	24(100.0)	5(71.43)	11(77.14)
Community conflict	5(100.0)	17(.70.83)	2(28.57)	8(66.47)
Loss of language	1(20.0)	8(33.33)	1(14.29)	3(22.54)
Increase in the cost of living	5(100.0)	24(100.0)	7(100.0)	12(100.0)
Crowding and congestion	2(40.0)	20(83.33)	7(100.0)	10(74.44)
Host/tourist hospitality	5(100.0)	18(75.0)	2(28.57)	8(67.86)
Pollution	5(100.0)	18(75.0)	6(85.71)	10(86.90)
Widening the gap between the rich and the poor	4(80.0)	13(54.17)	5(71.43)	7(68.53)

Source: field survey, 2013

112(87.72%), income generation 105(80.70%) fostering Host/Tourist friendship 102 (75.30%) increase in standard of living 94 (66.0%), improvement of infrastructure 92(67.95%) development of local arts and crafts 91(62.30%) and improvement of health condition 84(55.71%). The first in the list of the benefits tourism development will bring to the communities as revealed by the study was employment opportunities. In addition to high acceptance for tourism development by the local residents of the communities, other prospects of coastal development as revealed by the study were the availability of good access roads, decent hotels (Swiss International Hotels, Hotel Presidential, Randolph Hotel, Le Meridien Hotel, Londa Hotels, etc); good communication network, public libraries, museums, airports, seaports, hospitals, and pipe-borne water which were mostly located within Port Harcourt area.

This shows that the respondents were aware of the important role tourism plays towards employment generation and its place in the global market. This has confirmed the assertion of WTO (1997) that travel and tourism is the world's largest creator of job, in most countries, providing employment for over 10 million people worldwide.

The study has also shown that the total of 36 respondents who did not welcome the idea of tourism development in their communities indicated the major reasons for their fears as increase in the cost of living (100.0%), immorality (95.24%), insecurity (95.24%), cultural vandalism (93.06%), pollution ((86.90%) increased crime (77.14%), introduction of diseases (74.88%), crowding and congestion (74.44%) and the least amongst the reasons for their fears was loss of language (22.54%).

Action Plan of Rivers State toward tourism development:

Rivers State Tourism Development Authority (RSTDA) has come up with development plans known as, “5 – segment plan”. The plan traverses the entire landscape of tourism possibilities in Rivers State. The plan seeks to;

1. Revamp and develop heritage sites, festivals and carnivals of high interest
2. Regulate hospitality and entertain services
3. Develop aquatic recreation and resort facilities
4. Power an indigenous film development initiative, and
5. Revive and revitalize the arts and crafts (RSTDA, 2013).

National tourism policy:

The National Tourism policy of Nigeria was launched on 10th July 1990. This was aimed to generate foreign exchange encourage even development, promote tourism based rural enterprises, generate employment and accelerate cultural exchange. The provisions of the policy include;

- i. Basic infrastructural facilities such as good roads, water, electricity, communications, transportation etc to centres of attraction in order to accelerate development in the tourist centres and improve tourist values.
- ii. Involvement of the three tiers of government namely, federal, state and local governments in tourism development
- iii. Active participation of the organized private sector in tourism development
- iv. Fiscal and other incentives to facilitate private domestic and foreign capital investment in the tourism sector.
- v. Tourism manpower development and training
- vi. Prompt issuance of visas to facilitate inflow of international tourists.
- vii. Establishment of effective organs for the planning, development, promotion and marketing of tourism in and outside Nigeria.
- viii. Tourism development philosophy with emphasis on the demarcation of major tourism zones and elimination of unnecessary duplication and rivalry among the states in tourism development.
- ix. Appropriate institutional arrangement for the effective administration of tourism in the country

- x. Finding through annual budgetary allocation and the establishment of a National Tourism Development Fund to which all levels of authority in the industry as well as the private sector will contribute (Ikpefan, 2006).

4.6 Results and Discussion

The results (tables 4.2, 4.3, 4.4) showed potential potentials tourism resources identified in the selected sites to include mangrove forests, sacred forests, sacred rivers, lakes, beaches, fishing rivers, historical monuments, shrines, museums, different cultural festivals, cultural materials, slave port, recreational park, zoological garden and tourism village all of which have not been harnessed. This agreed without contradiction with the works of Ayodele (2002); Partnership for Development (2002), Atlas of Nigeria (2002) and Edet and Ijeomah (2011) that Nigeria is one of the richest nations on the earth in terms of tourism potentials. Also, the result supported the work of Fakiyesi (2008) that Nigeria possesses both natural and cultural resources which are capable of attracting tourists if fully harnessed. Also, contrary to what is obtainable in Sri Lanka (Ashley, 2005), Nepal (Centre for Resources and Environmental studies-CREST, 1995), Indonesia (Wall, 1996) and Senegal (Atlas of Nigeria, 2002) numerous natural resources, cultural heritage resources and man-made attractions in Nigeria have not been explored for social and economic benefits. In figure 4.1 Port Harcourt study site appeared highest with 84.5% levels of attractions, indicating that it is endowed with more natural attractions than Bonny and Opobo with the level of attractions of 75% and 62.5% respectively. The study showed that Port Harcourt tourist site had more tourism potentials followed by Bonny and lastly Opobo thereby giving Port Harcourt a comparative advantage for tourism development over other sites. This finding was in agreement with Ijeomah (2007) who observed that some areas are more endowed than others. Similarly, Atlas of

Nigeria (2002) supported the result that tourism potentials are not equally distributed in Africa.

Therefore, harnessing these coastal potentials for coastal tourism development can be a panacea to over-dependence on oil as major source of income generation. It suffices to say here that tourism is the third largest economic activity in the world (after oil and automobiles) and the fastest-growing activities (Batta, 2009). Considering the fact that over-dependence on oil has become the major cause of inter-community conflicts, oil pipeline vandalism, abduction of oil workers and environmental pollution in the area, developing coastal areas for tourism in the state can present a good alternative source of revenue as well as become a veritable tool for poverty alleviation and a measure to control rural-urban migration and environmental pollution. Coastal tourism being eco-tourism is more environmentally friendly than the oil sector. Nomadic (2009) defines eco-tourism as connecting conservation, communities and sustainable travel. This means that those who implement and participate in responsible tourism activities should adopt the following eco-tourism principles: minimize impacts, build environmental and cultural awareness and respect and raise sensitivity to host countries' political, environmental and social climate.

The study revealed that though government played role to protect the resources, the communities had local norms and sanctions which protected the resources against poaching, deforestation, bush burning and illegal grazing. Prominent among the resources were "*Rehueli*" forest, "*Finima*" forest, "*Amadioha*" forest, Thunder forest, "*Nwominirehu*" forest and "*Tolofari*" as well as wildlife species such as owl, snail, white egret, hippopotamus, water horse, kiwi, "*nkelu*" and "*asiri*". This result supported Ijeomah (2007) that local people employed local legislation that served as a good conservation measure to protect community forest. In the same vein, Kemf

(1993) reported the view of Alan Durning and Edmund Hillary which stated that local people remain the world's primary stewards of forests. They also emphasized that over the centuries, native people developed wise procedures to protect their natural resources, established sacred forest, regulated times for planting and harvest, and established close relationship with nature in all forms. This finding disagreed with Blench (1998) who stated that indigenous people are not necessarily natural conservationists. He maintained that human beings from prehistoric times were responsible for flora and fauna destruction. But he forgot that man is the only agent of conservation of flora and fauna who has domesticated them and lived in harmony with them. More so, his argument may not pull through all the time because it is not always true that human beings were responsible for the destruction of flora and fauna. Blench did not consider the fact that natural disaster and climate change have done more harm than good on the environment that created devastating effect on flora and fauna species. Ijeomah and Emelue (2009) equally argued that all protected areas in Nigeria are economically dependent on either the federal or state government for funding. However, the result of the study does not hold the same view with them. The local people depended only on their local norms and sanctions and not on government funding to protect these sacred forests. The effectiveness of these local measures in the communities was due to fears of the punishment which will come upon the offenders for violating the norms. Those punishments included offering sacrifices to the gods to appease them, death, diseases or other mysterious circumstances. The local people believed that these forests were sacred and whoever desecrates them faces the wrath of the gods of the land.

Government apathy, erosion, flood, swamp, bush burning, deforestation, illegal grazing, pollution, poaching (illegal fishing and hunting), and scarcity of land,

insecurity community conflict and absence of good drinking water were the challenges facing development of tourism. The result showed that 98.95% of the respondents were of the opinion that governments (federal, state and local) apathy to develop the state into tourism destination was the greatest challenge. The next challenging problem was scarcity of land which revealed 70.46% average responses, 85.07% responses in Opobo, 100% responses in Port Harcourt and 26.32% responses in Bonny. This was followed by pollution with average responses of 69.05%. The determination that is backed up with action programme by the governments to develop tourism sector was missing in government programmes. Nigeria government had made beautiful policies to promote tourism without action programmes for the policy implementation. This result agreed with Ngoka and Ogu (2011) who were of the opinion that tourism development has not attracted the serious attention of the government in terms of actions needed in a similar study on *Azumini* Blue River.

The study revealed that local residents cut down trees from mangrove forest for fire wood, boat construction, basket weaving, timber, fish rackets and for cultivation of their crops and vegetables. The findings was supported by Daniel and Edward (1990) who stated that land clearing for agriculture is one of the principal causes of biodiversity depletion in Nigeria. The views of Ijeomah, Dagba and Aju (2007) and Ijeomah, Adedapo, Abimbola and Abadeen (2009) were in line with result which revealed that deforestation in rain tropical forest was a serious environmental problem facing coastal areas of Rivers State.

Bush burning was revealed as one major problem facing tourism development in the state. Often times school children, hunters and farmers set fire in the bush during dry season thereby reducing the population of flora and fauna in a given area. This has adversely affected the environment and the development of tourism in the state. This

result collaborated with similar studies by Salihu (2002), Egbu (1990) and Obinwanne (2009) on Yankari National Park which reported that flora and fauna in the park have been depleted due to incessant bush fires set by the local people. In the same vein (Obinwanne, 2009) was of the view that bush burning reduces the vegetation cover for wildlife thereby exposing wild animals to predators.

The practice of Fulani nomads who illegally move their cattle from place to place to graze them was identified as a big challenge facing tourism development in Rivers State. The grazing of goats and sheep by some residents within the local communities together with the Fulani nomads had equally contributed to the loss of plants, vegetation, insects, ants and rodents. The problem is difficult to control because both the Fulani nomads and the local communities believe that they have the right to graze their animals anywhere they like which sometimes results into fight, loss of property or lives when farmers resist them. This is in line with Kamweti, Osiro and Mwiturubani (2009) that described illegal grazing as the major cause of conflict between famers and pastoralists.

Flood is another militating problem facing development of tourism which has rendered many people homeless and property worth millions of naira destroyed. The flood and erosion was as a result of blockage and poor drainage system that obstructed the free flow of erosion water. Some communities which were victims of flood incidence were Rumu-Ibekwe, Aganya community, Sandfield, Igoni polo and Orosikiri. The result agreed with Ebuzoeme (2015) and Agbonkhese, Agbonkhese, Aka, Joe-Abaya, Ocholi and Adekunle (2014) that flood and erosion menace pose a serious threat to the environment. They described in their report the causal factors of flood in Nigeria as indiscriminate dumping of refuse on drainage channel, poor drainage system and land use pattern. It is true that flood is a natural occurrence, but

human activities most often have led to disastrous consequences. For tourism to be developed and sustained in the area, effective control measures must be put in place to checkmate human activities and the menace of flood and erosion to save lives and property. According to the report of UN-Water (2011) there has been rapid growth in number of people killed or seriously impacted by flood disasters globally. Flood has been reported to be the cause of about half of the disaster cases world-wide and 84% of deaths caused by disaster incidents in the world were attributed to flood (UN-Water, 2011). Flooding has become a serious threat in the coastal area of Rivers State because of the number of interconnecting rivers in the state. Hence, adequate attention must be given to this menace by all stakeholders for tourism to thrive if developed in the area.

Also, various forms of pollution such as air pollution due to gas flaring and emission, water pollution and noise pollution were identified as problems confronting tourism development in the state. This finding was in agreement with NEST (1991) which stated that gas flaring has environmental impact such as atmosphere pollution, human illness and production of acid rain. The result revealed that gas flaring was responsible for the persistent acid rain that had corroded roofing sheets in Bonny causing damage on vegetation and other parts of the state that put the health of residents in jeopardy. Pollution of water as a result of oil spills, solid wastes such as bottles, foot wears, damaged bags and sewage and industrial discharges was another environmental challenge. This finding agreed with Ekpo (2010), Awobajo (1981), UNEP (1999), UNEP (2002) and (WWF, 2011b) that described various pollutants that cause water pollution as solid waste disposal, oil spillage, waste water and industrial discharges which have polluted seas, beaches, lakes and other water bodies. The study revealed that Bonny water was polluted with toxic substances and at the same time

indicated fecal contamination with a moderate growth of *pseudomonas* spp. It was discovered that the level of pH, BODs, Cadmium, Chromium and Ammonia was higher than the recommended values for WHO except in lead (Pb) thereby polluting the water from Bonny and making it unsafe for consumption. . According to Udensi (2010) in Chukwu and Saeed (2014) toxic metals constitute serious problems to human beings because they are neither rapidly removed nor readily detoxified through metabolic activities. The mean BOD for Bonny water sample was 16.10mg/l as against 6.0 mg/l for WHO standard. The Bonny water sample BODs was too high and deviated significantly from maximum permissible level of 6.0 mg/l for BOD for drinking purpose (WHO, 2006 and 1984). The physicochemical parameters of water which were not within the suitable range with WHO standard and the Standard Organization of Nigeria (SON) have made the water unsafe for human consumption and swimming by tourists. The finding as shown in tables 4.13 and 4.14 agreed with similar study conducted by Andem, Udofia, Okafor, Okete and Ugwumba (2012) and Kalu, Onuoha and Ogidi (2009) that the physicochemical parameters influenced water quality of *Ona* River and *Aba* River making them unsafe for drinking due to urban sewage discharges and industrial effluents. Also, it is good to note from the study that the result agrees with the views of Asonye, Okolie, Okenwa and Iwuanyanwu (2007), Chindah , Braide and Sibeudu (2004), Ubalua, Chijioke and Ezereonye (2007) and Onajake, Sikoki, Omokheyke and Akpiri (2015) that the concentration of heavy metals such as Pb, Cr, Cd and Ammonia detected in the water from Bonny was generally low but higher than the recommended limit by WHO (2006), WHO (1984) and SON (2014). This has indicated that the water from Bonny was affected by metal pollution and demands for adequate water treatment and continuous monitoring to prevent possible public health hazards which will hamper development of tourism and

jeopardize the life of tourists and local residents in the area. Meanwhile, lead, chromium, cadmium and Ammonia were non-detectable from Port Harcourt and Opobo water samples. These water samples were clear and colourless. Also, BODs, pH parameters were less than the recommended WHO standard for Port Harcourt and Opobo; while turbidity was non-detectable for Opobo and less than recommended maximum limit by WHO (1984), WHO (2006) and SON (2014) standard for Port Harcourt. This implies that the water samples from Port Harcourt and Opobo were safe and wholesome for human consumption, swimming and bathing for tourists. However, table 4.16 indicated that the presence of Total Petroleum Hydrocarbons (THC) and lead (Pb) which was significantly higher than the control soil sample were found in soil sample from Opobo. These substances were toxic and potential sources of environmental pollution and hence pose environmental risks and health hazards. Hence, Port Harcourt study area appeared to have advantage over OPobo and Bonny study areas considering the occurrence of possible health hazards due to pollution and have prospect for tourism development.

The availability of good access road, decent hotels/restaurants, communication network, public libraries, museums, airport, sea port, hospitals, and pipe borne water and high level of acceptance by local residents of the communities for tourism development were good prospects of tourism development. The study revealed in table 4.9 that some infrastructure were readily available in the study area to enable tourism activities to kick off. This finding was in line with Okoli (2001) which stated that both infrastructure and superstructures are necessary for tourism development and correlated with the opinion of Rostow (1990) in WTO (1997) that there are pre-conditions that must be met for economic take-off and which are fundamental part of tourism development. The development of transport and infrastructure is seen as a

pre-condition for economic take-off for tourism development. The study showed that the level of developmental actions taken in Port Harcourt on infrastructure necessary for tourism development to take off was quite high and remarkable when compared to Bonny and Opobo. This implies that priority attention should be given to Port Harcourt because the basic infrastructural facilities are already on ground and therefore favourable and enabling for tourism development. This agrees with Coastal Tourism Working Group (CTWG,2001) convened by the Tourism Division and the National Environmental Council through the Tanzania Coastal Management Partnership which suggested that it is necessary to identify the areas with the best resources and focus more efforts on those areas. The study which indicated 91.70% acceptance by local residents of the communities was a good prospect for tourism development. In other words, majority of the respondents understand what tourism is and its numerous benefits to the people and the communities and so they were ever prepared to embrace it. This is equally a good indication that majority of the people in three communities would welcome the idea of developing tourism in their area. Acceptance and willingness of the people to participate in tourism guarantee cultural peace and harmony; and enabling environment for tourism to flourish. This was in agreement with Ijeomah, Adedapo, Abimbola and Abedeen (2009) that tourism cannot thrive in crisis. The result supported Jamal and Stroza (2009) with the opinion that interest of the local communities affect and are affected by the decisions of the key policy makers. So, for this reason, local tourism development requires acceptance and support of people in both planning and implementation process (Pongporat 2011). The role of communities towards tourism has made it significant to seek the opinion and the support of local communities as well as encourage them to participate in tourism development.

The pH of the three soil samples from Opobo, Port Harcourt and Bonny study sites were very close ranging from 6.20 – 6.83 and was distributed as 6.83, 6.20 and 6.54 for Opobo, Port Harcourt and Bonny respectively. This showed slight acidity of all soil samples of the study area. The control site was more acidic with pH of 5.2. However, the pH of the soil samples from Opobo and Bonny were within the acceptable range of 6.5 to 7.5 of a good soil while Port Harcourt soil pH (6.20) deviated slightly but not significantly from the maximum available range for a good soil. Holistically, considering the pH of the soil samples with the control sample the result showed that the soil from the area of study was good and contained all the essential minerals (N, OC, Ca, Mg, K, Na) and plant nutrients to grow flowers for beautiful environment, trees for shade and wind break and vegetable that provides a ground cover that permits rain to percolate into the ground, preventing run off flooding as well as suitable for building tourism infrastructure. The result showed that the study sites were more protected from direct rainfall and movement of surface runoff than the control sites and this result was in agreement with (Foth, 2006). The soil structure of the three study sites was not only good for vegetation cover and beautiful flowers but also of good quality for construction of facilities needed to support tourism. The results did not show any indication of leaching of nutrients from the soil which causes environmental degradation in form of infrastructural collapse as well as making the soil unproductive for ecological sustainability. Poor quality of soil can lead to collapse of hotels, resorts, and other facilities for tourists to stay and enjoy; and may lead to loss of lives and property. The result was in agreement with Oloyede, Omo Ogun, Akinjane (2010) who attributed amongst the causes of building collapse to soil quality, natural disasters and quality of building materials. They stated that different soil types pose varying problems for built foundations and the structural

integrity of the entire building. Mc Carthy (1999) noted that there is need to carry out soil surveys to ascertain the compressibility or consolidation potentials as well as the bearing strength of the soil of a particular site. Uzokwe (2001) summarized that the causes of building collapse were due to weak soil, the quality of the blocks used, quality of concrete used, poor compaction and consolidation of foundation of soil. The impacts of tourism on the environment tend to be more devastating if the quality of soil is poor from the inception of tourism development than good quality soil. It is dangerous to construct tourism facilities without first ascertaining the soil quality of the area among other things to determine if the soil is good for construction of tourism facilities to avoid the devastating effects of having collapsed building or structures. So, it is essential to determine quality of soil before deciding to develop an area.

CHAPTER FIVE

5.0 SUMMARY, CONCLUSION, AND AREA OF FURTHER STUDY

This chapter contains the summary of the whole report of the findings, the conclusion drawn, and the suggested area of further study.

5.1 SUMMARY

The study revealed both the natural, cultural heritage resources and man-made attractions identified in the three selected sites – Port Harcourt, Opobo and Bonny areas of Rivers State. The natural attractions found include mangrove forest, sacred forests, sacred rivers, lakes, beaches, fishing rivers, natural sources of drinking water and sanctuary. The cultural heritage resources were historical monuments, shrines, museums, different cultural festivals, and cultural materials and slave port. The man-made attractions were recreational park, zoological garden and tourism village. It was found that there were more resources (natural, cultural and man-made) in Port Harcourt study site and therefore it has comparative advantage over Bonny and Opobo for tourism development. This was seconded by Bonny study site. Considering the fact that coastal areas have the potential to become attractive destinations for tourist and given the limited resources available, it is essential to put efforts and available recourse towards developing those coastal areas with best and more potential.

It was discovered that, though the local residents are dependent on the local natural resources, they still have protected forests which have not been tampered with through the communities' local norms and sanctions. Also, the study showed certain wildlife species which have received protection from the communities concerned through their local norms. The protected forests include *Rehueli* forest, *Finima* forest,

Amadioha forest, Thunders forest, *Nwominirehu* forest, and *Tolofari* forest. While some of the protected wildlife species are owl, white egret, hippopotamus, water horse, kiwi, '*nkelu*', '*asiri*' etc. The study revealed that Port Harcourt had more protected forest areas and wildlife species than Bonny and Opobo. The study revealed that communities generally have local norms and sanctions that they apply to protect certain wildlife species and some habitat areas to avoid extinction of those protected species and destruction of the habitat. Those local sanctions protected the forests against poaching, deforestation, bush burning and illegal grazing. The punishment of violations of the local norms include, offering sacrifices to the gods to appease them. Others were death, diseases or mysterious circumstances. Government at all levels should adopt a proactive habitat planning and developmental approach through policy formulation which will encourage planners and developers to adopt wildlife habitat protection principles into local and regional planning efforts. Tourism developers should design an effective storm water management system that can prevent flooding, property damage, death, and water pollution, which may result from storm water runoff. This can be realized by ensuring that coastal tourist facilities be designed to limit changes to natural run off patterns and to compensate for those disruptions that are unavailable. This standard requires that the rate, volume and control of storm water discharge after development must not be greater than the rate, volume and or content before site development occurred.

The study revealed that the level of actions taken for development of tourism to take off were high in Port Harcourt considering both the infrastructural and super-structural facilities available in the area. Some of those facilities include access road, hotels, airport, seaport, libraries, hospitals, pipe-borne water. Port Harcourt had met those pre-condition that are fundamental for tourism development to take off. The

study showed that Bonny was next to Port Harcourt in meeting the pre-conditions for tourism development to take-off in Rivers State, though the actions taken in terms of facilities required for tourism to take off were low while in Opobo it was discovered that little or no action was taken in the development of facilities for tourism to kick off. This implies that Port Harcourt study site has more super-structural and infrastructural facilities necessary for tourism to take off more than Bonny and Opobo study sites. Government at all levels should put concerted efforts to create the enabling environment by providing adequate infrastructure, superstructures, social security and conducive tax system necessary for development of tourism to kick off and thrive. Treated potable water should be provided for the people especially people from Bonny area to save them from imminent danger of consuming water polluted with faecal contaminants and toxic substances. The development of tourism in the state should be private sector driven. Private, local and foreign investors should be involved in developing tourism industry in the state. Government should set up Tourism Development Bank (TDB) with the purpose of giving out loans to investors with little or no interest on the loan for tourism development. The bank will provide funds to investors who have interest in tourism development but lack the necessary fund to do so.

It was found that the major problems confronting the communities under study which can hamper tourism development were apathy from government, scarcity of land, absence of good drinking water, flood, deforestation, illegal grazing, bush burning, swamp, pollution, community conflict and insecurity. The study revealed that Bonny water was polluted with toxic substances. The level of pH, BODs, cadmium, chromium and Ammonia was higher than the recommended values for WHO except in lead (Pb) thereby polluting the water from Bonny and making it unsafe for

consumption and other human use. Governments should remove apathy and indifference by backing up their beautiful policies on tourism development with action programmes so that it will not appear that they are giving lip service to tourism development in the country. There should be equitable participation of tourism stakeholders in the planning development; and sharing of dividends from tourism in the state for stakeholders to be responsible and have sense of belonging. This will enable the host communities to be actively involved to avoid conflict and destruction of property and the attraction after developing the place.

The study revealed that Bonny water was very dense in appearance, dark brown in colour, highly turbid, basic and with mean concentration of heavy metals-lead, chromium, and cadmium higher than the recommended WHO and Nigerian national Standards. The water had higher concentration of ammonia and BOD's as well as being low in dissolved oxygen. This implies that Bonny water was hazardous and so not safe for human consumption. Hence, water pollution has been found as one of the major challenges confronting development of tourism in Bonny.

The study has disclosed that lead, chromium, cadmium, ammonia were not detected from Port Harcourt and Opobo water samples. These water samples were clear and colourless with BODs and pH less than the recommended WHO. The turbidity was non-detectable for Opobo and less than recommended value for WHO standard in Port Harcourt. Also, the pH, conductivity and turbidity levels of water samples from Port Harcourt and Opobo were lower than the National Standard values. The water samples from Port Harcourt and Opobo were neither toxic nor carcinogenic because the level of heavy substance present in them was less than the National recommended value. This has shown that Port Harcourt and Opobo have brighter prospects for tourism development due to the wholesomeness and safety of water from those areas.

It was discovered that water samples from Port Harcourt and Opobo were free from harmful bacteria that yielded no growth after 48 hours of incubation at 37°C while water samples from Bonny revealed growth of moderate *Pseudomonas* spp. after 48 hours of incubation. This has indicated faecal contamination of Bonny water thereby making it unsafe for drinking. Central urban sewage system should be established and effluent treatment facility integrated to tackle the increasing industrial effluent as a means of checking excessive pollution of rivers in the state. However, where central urban sewage treatment and disposable system is not possible, septic tanks and soil absorption systems need to be developed and placed appropriately. Septic tank should be installed above water table and should not be close to drinking water supplies and water bodies in coastal areas.

The study discovered acidity of all the soil samples studied, where the soil samples from Opobo and Bonny being within 6.5 to 7.5 maximum available range that is good for essential plants. Generally, the findings revealed that the study area had good soil structure with good nutrient status due to deposit of sediments and decomposition of litter from vegetation. In order to control soil erosion which is one of the problems confronting the area as well as preventing leaching of nutrients from the soil that are capable of damaging tourism facilities when erected, tourism stakeholders and developers should strive to adopt sound ecological principles that will conserve, protect and promote sustainable environmental and tourism development. This can be achieved by planting improved tree varieties whose heights are controllable as well as planting more perennial tree species along with grass in places where the land is sloppy. This principle will not only control soil erosion but will ensure sustainable environment and tourism development by reducing on-site destruction and tourism facilities collapse.

The quality of soil is equally good for constructing tourism facilities such as resorts, hotels and other infrastructure for tourists to stay and enjoy without fear of collapse of facilities. There was also good vegetation cover that will protect the soil from direct rain storm and at the same time slow down the movement of surface run-off. The study area generally has good soil structure for tourism and ecological sustainability. However, the major problem discovered was the presence of Total Petroleum Hydrocarbons (THC) and lead (Pb) which was significantly found in Opopo. These substances were toxic and potential sources of environmental pollution and hence pose environmental risks and health hazards.

5.2 AREA OF FURTHER STUDIES

The researcher recommends that further study be carried out on the same topic but should cover different study areas. The scope of the study area should be widened, sample size increased and SPSS be used for data analysis.

5.3 CONCLUSION

The study was aimed at examining the challenges and prospects of developing coastal tourism potentials in Rivers State and how to harness the potentials to develop the state into tourist destination magnate. The study revealed that numerous coastal tourism potentials abound in the state but unevenly distributed amongst communities. Those potentials include mangrove forest, sacred forests, sacred rivers, lakes, beaches, fishing rivers and natural sources of drinking water. Some communities have more potentials than others. It was disclosed that local communities used local norms and sanctions against poaching, deforestation, bush burning and illegal grazing to protect and conserve some of their forests and wildlife species. The punishment of violations

of the local norms include, offering sacrifices to the gods to appease them. Others were death, diseases or mysterious circumstances.

It was found that the level of developmental actions taken which meet the preconditions that are fundamental for tourism development to take off were not at same level and equally distributed at different sites. For instance, Port Harcourt has more prospects for tourism development than other studied area. This work showed that the major challenges facing development of tourism in the state as lack of political will, scarcity of land, absence of good drinking water, flood, deforestation, pollution, etc. The study revealed that Bonny water was highly polluted more than any other site. There was also presence of petroleum-hydrocarbons in the three sites due to oil exploration in the state. The findings revealed that the three study sites have good soil structure with good nutrient status due to deposit of sediments and decomposition of litters from vegetation.

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ACRONYMS

PAN	-	Protected Area Network
NG	-	National Geography
C I	-	Conservation International
WRI	-	World Resources Institute
AWF	-	African Wildlife Foundation
ED	-	Environmental Defense
IDB	-	Inter- American Development Bank.
UN	-	United Nations
CCD	-	Coast Conservation Department.
NGOs	-	Non- Governmental Organizations
MPAs	-	Marine Protected Areas
EU	-	European Union
ICRI	-	International Coral Reefs Initiative
UNEP'S	-	United Nations Environmental Programmes
MEA	-	Multilateral Environmental Agreement
UNCLOS	-	United Nations Conventions on the Law of the Sea
UNEP/MAP/PAP -	-	United Nation Environmental Programme/Mediterranean's Action Plan/ Priority Actions programme
EEA	-	Europe's Environmental Assessment
PAP	-	Priority Action Programme
PAP-RAC	-	Priority Action Programme/Regional Activities Centre
WTO	-	World Tourism Organization
UNSTAT	-	United Nations Statistical Commission
NTDC	-	Nigeria Tourism Development Corporation
EIA	-	Energy Information Administration
WTTC	-	World Travel and Tourism Commission
WWF	-	World Wildlife Fund for Nature
WCMC	-	World Conservation Monitoring Centre

WCPA	-	World Commission on Protected Areas
IUCN	-	International Union for Conservation of Nature
TNC	-	The Nature Conservancy
USAID	-	United States Agency for International Development
CRA	-	Coral Reef Alliance
NAFTA	-	North American Free Trade Agreement
ASEAN	-	Association of South- East Asian Nations
AU	-	African Union
UNESCO	-	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
IUCN	-	International Union for the Conservation of Nature
LOICZ	-	Land- Ocean Interactions in the Coastal Zone
ODA	-	Overseas Development Assistance
IFC	-	International Finance Corporation
WIO	-	Western Indian Ocean.
IPCC	-	Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change
FAO	-	Food and Agriculture Organization
WCD	-	World Commission on Dams
EIA	-	Energy Information Administration
ENAS	-	Environmental News Alert Service
UNWTO	-	United Nations World Tourism Organization
SPF	-	Sun protection Factor
GDP	-	Gross Domestic Product
GNP	-	Gross National Product
CLIA	-	Cruise Line International Association
EPA	-	Environmental Protection Agency
NMMA	-	National Maritime Manufacturers Association
IITS	-	International Institute of Tourism Studies
GATS	-	General Agreement on Trade in Service
N.D	-	No Date

TITLE PAGE

**CHALLENGES AND PROSPECTS OF DEVELOPING COASTAL
TOURISM IN RIVERS STATE, NIGERIA.**

BY

**OBINWANNE, CLETUS OKECHUKWU
REG. NO: PG/Ph.D/09/51534**

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ARCHAEOLOGY AND TOURISM, UNIVERSITY OF NIGERIA,
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REQUIREMENTS FOR THE AWARD OF DOCTORATE
DEGREE**

(Ph.D) IN TOURISM

**SUPERVISOR:
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CERTIFICATION PAGE

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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my late father Ezinna Simon Obinwanne and my beloved mother Ezinne Cordelia Obinwanne whose ambition for me in life was that I became educated and attain the highest echelon of education; and to my dearly beloved wife for her supports and encouragements.

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ABSTRACT

The study focused on challenges and prospects of Developing Coastal Tourism in Rivers State, Nigeria. Specifically, the objectives were to: (i) identify the various tourism resources in the coastal area of the State, (ii) ascertain the actions taken towards protection and preservation of tourism resources, (iii) ascertain the challenges of coastal tourism development and (iv) determine the prospects of coastal tourism development in the State. The survey design was adopted for the study. Bonny, Opobo and Port Harcourt Local Government Areas (LGAs) were randomly selected from the 12 LGAs that lie within 60km radius from the coast. The population of the study was 1,067,481. The sample size was 400, statistically determined using Taro Yamane formula. The instruments for data collection were observation checklist, questionnaire and interview guide. The instruments were validated by five experts in tourism. Three water samples were collected to ascertain the safety of water for recreation and three soil samples and control soil sample to determine the capacity of the soil to carry tourist resort built on it without collapsing and planting of flowers for decoration. These were subjected to physico-chemical and microbiological tests. The data collected with questionnaire were analyzed using simple percentages. The comparative analysis of the water samples was done with World Health Organization and Nigeria National Water Quality Standards while the soil samples were compared with the control soil sample. Mangrove forests, sacred forests, beaches, fishing rivers, historical monuments, shrines, museums, cultural festivals, slave port, recreational park and zoological garden were among the tourism resources identified in the State. The communities had norms and sanctions which protected the potentials against poaching, deforestation, bush burning, and illegal grazing. Prominent among the resources protected were '*Rehueli*' forest, '*Finima*' forest, '*Amadioha*' forest, Thunders forest, '*Nwominirehu*' forest, and '*Tolofari*' forest as well as wildlife species such as owl, white egret, hippopotamus, water horse, kiwi, '*nkelu*', and '*asiri*'. The challenges of tourism development in the State were apathy from government, pollution, illegal grazing, gas-flaring, bush burning, community conflict, poaching and the presence of Total Petroleum Hydrocarbons (TPH). The availability of good access roads, decent hotels, communication networks, museums, airport, sea port, hospitals and high level of acceptance (91.70%) by local residents of the communities for tourism development were good prospects of tourism development.

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ACRONYMS

PAN	-	Protected Area Network
NG	-	National Geography
CI	-	Conservation International
WRI	-	World Resources Institute
AWF	-	African Wildlife Foundation
ED	-	Environmental Defence
IDB	-	Inter- American Development Bank.
UN	-	United Nations
CCD	-	Coast Conservation Department.
NGOs	-	Non- Governmental Organizations
MPAs	-	Marine Protected Areas
EU	-	European Union
ICRI	-	International Coral Reefs Initiative
UNEP'S	-	United Nations Environmental Programmes
MEA	-	Multilateral Environmental Agreement
UNCLOS	-	United Nations Conventions on the Law of the Sea
UNEP/MAP/PAP	-	United Nation Environmental Programme/Mediterranean's Action Plan/ Priority Actions programme
EEA	-	Europe's Environmental Assessment
PAP	-	Priority Action Programme
PAP-RAC	-	Priority Action Programme/Regional Activities Centre
WTO	-	World Tourism Organization
UNSTAT	-	United Nations Statistical Commission
NTDC	-	Nigeria Tourism Development Corporation
EIA	-	Energy Information Administration
WTTC	-	World Travel and Tourism Commission

WWF	-	World Wildlife Fund for Nature
UNEP-WCMC	-	United Nations Environmental Programme & World Conservation Monitoring Centre
WCPA	-	World Commission on Protected Areas
IUCN	-	International Union for Conservation of Nature
TNC	-	The Nature Conservancy
USAID	-	United States Agency for International Development
CRA	-	Coral Reef Alliance
NAFTA	-	North American Free Trade Agreement
ASEAN	-	Association of South- East Asian Nations
AU	-	African Union
UNESCO	-	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
IUCN	-	International Union for the Conservation of Nature
LOICZ	-	Land- Ocean Interactions in the Coastal Zone
ODA	-	Overseas Development Assistance
IFC	-	International Finance Corporation
WIO	-	Western Indian Ocean.
IPCC	-	Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change
FAO	-	Food and Agriculture Organization
WCD	-	World Commission on Dams
EIA	-	Energy Information Administration
ENAS	-	Environmental News Alert Service
UNWTO	-	United Nations World Tourism Organization
SPF	-	Sun protection Factor
GDP	-	Gross Domestic Product
GNP	-	Gross National Product
CLIA	-	Cruise Line International Association
EPA	-	Environmental Protection Agency
NMMA	-	National Maritime Manufacturers Association

IITS	-	International Institute of Tourism Studies
GATS	-	General Agreement on Trade in Service
N.D	-	No Date

**CHALLENGES AND PROSPECTS OF DEVELOPING COASTAL
TOURISM IN RIVERS STATE, NIGERIA.**

BY

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