AN ASSESSMENT OF THE EMPLOYMENT STRUCTURE IN THE TOURISM INDUSTRY OF OBUDU MOUNTAIN RESORT, CROSS RIVER STATE, NIGERIA

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Abstract: This study examined the employment structure in the tourism industry of the Obudu Mountain Resort in Cross River state, Nigeria with special focus on the hotels within the resort area. Data for the study were collected through questionnaire survey, interviews, field inventory and participatory rural appraisal methods. The data generated were analyzed using descriptive statistics such as mean, percentages, averages, graphs, charts, frequencies and maps. An inferential statistics (Students t-test) was adopted to test the hypothesis of the study. The result of the analysis revealed that there is no significant difference in employment of indigenes and non-indigenes in the resort hotels (P>0.05, df=11, t=0.27). It is observed that, despite the high rate of tourism activities in the study area, the people are yet to enjoy the full benefits of tourism in terms of employment, infrastructural development and an adequate improvement in their standard of living. Based on these findings, it is recommended that adequate steps and measures be adopted to improve the standard of living of the people through the provision of training, capacity building, credit facilities, more tourism servicing establishments and provision of basic social amenities in the adjoining villages of the tourism business centre (TBC).

Key words: Tourism, Employment, Tourism development, indigenous people, tourism industry, Tourism activities

INTRODUCTION
Tourism is one of the world’s largest industries, with total receipts from international tourism equaling US $682 billion (WTO, 2009). The tourism industry employs an estimated 10 percent of the global workforce and capital formation (World bank, 1997). Tourism is not merely an activity for pastime and entertainment. It is an enriching and energizing activity. As an industry, the impact of tourism is manifold. Tourism is important and in some cases vital for many countries, such as France, Egypt, Greece, Lebanon, Israel, the United States, the United Kingdom, Spain, Italy, and

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Thailand, and many island nations, such as Mauritius, The Bahamas, Fiji, Maldives, Philippines and the Seychelles. It brings in large amounts of income in payment for goods and services available, contributing an estimated 5% to the worldwide gross domestic product (GDP), and it creates opportunities for employment in the service industries associated with tourism. These service industries include transportation services, such as airlines, cruise ships and taxicabs; hospitality services, such as accommodations, including hotels and resorts; and entertainment venues, such as amusement parks, casinos, shopping malls, music venues and theatres (Ashe, 2005).

Tourism industry nourishes a country’s economy, stimulates development process, restores cultural heritage, and helps in maintaining international peace and understanding. The most significant feature of the tourism industry is the capacity to generate large scale employment opportunities even in backward areas, especially to women, both educated and uneducated (Cole, 2006). Another important feature of tourism is that it contributes to national integration of the people who live in different regions of the country with diverse cultures and languages. A survey of 400 policy and opinion makers in 20 countries placed these and three other industries ahead of tourism in global economic contribution, but recently gathered statistics tell a different story.

As a contributor to the global economy, tourism has influenced the world’s economy in various ways as follows;

- It employs 204 million people worldwide or one in every nine workers, 10.6 percent of the global workforce,
- it is the world’s leading economic contributor, producing an incredible 10.2 percent of the world’s gross national product,
- it is the leading producer of tax revenues at US$655 billion and
- it is the world’s largest industry in terms of gross output approaching US$304 trillion (Goodwin, 2009).

Tourism accounts for 10.9 percent of all consumer spending, 10.7 percent of all capital investment and 6.9 percent of all government spending. Tourism is the industry of industries and has a great multiplier effect on other industries. Tourism serves as an effective medium for transfer of wealth because here income earned in places of “residence” is spent in place of visit (tourists’ destinations). It is the highest generator of employment. A total of 212 million persons are now being employed globally through direct and indirect opportunities generated by this industry. This means that out of every nine persons, one person earns a living from tourism. For every million rupees of investment 13 jobs are created in manufacturing industries, 45 jobs in agriculture and 89 jobs in hotels and restaurants. Tourism is therefore considered to be an important area for intensive development for all governments. As the fastest growing foreign exchange earner, especially in developed countries, it is being given priority attention (Hinch & Butler, 2007).

In recent times, tourism has been seen to be a composite of an activity, services, and industries that delivers a travel experience, namely transportation, accommodations, eating and drinking establishments, shops, entertainment, activity facilities, and other hospitality services available for individuals or groups that are travelling away from home. It encompasses all providers of visitor and visitor-related services. Tourism is the entire world industry of travel, hotels, transportation, and all other components, including promotion that serves the needs and wants of travelers. Finally tourism is the sum total of tourist expenditures within the borders of a nation or a political subdivision or a transportation-centered economic area of contiguous states or nations (Honey, 2008).

Community participation has become a common element in many development initiatives, such as community-based programs, which assume participatory methods and has been promoted by development organizations, notably the World Bank, to address the inefficiency of highly centralized development approaches particularly in
the developing world (Baral & Heinen, 2007). Today, many development initiatives solicit the participation of all concerned stakeholders, at the relevant levels, not only for the sake of efficiency and equity of the program, leverage of donors and demands of local communities, but also for sustainability of these initiatives (Ribot, 2004). Consequently, the real outcome for soliciting community participation is to create and produce an enabling environment needed by these stakeholders, especially local communities who have been vulnerable to negative impacts of tourism attributed partly to the fact that many tourism resources occur in their areas and they need to have a real stake in development activities (Havel, 1996; Songorwa, 1999). This requires involving local people in decision-making and strengthening their ability to act for themselves. One approach to achieve this is “through investments in human capital, such as education and health, investments in social capital such as local-level institutions and participatory processes, and support for community based development efforts planned and implemented from bottom up” (Havel, 1996). However, given the fact that the central point underlying people’s participation may be the degree of power distribution, these efforts are unlikely to succeed unless responsive institutions and the legal and policy framework that facilitate and support local participation are in place (Havel, 1996; Tosun, 2006; Wang & Wall, 2005).

For a developing country like Nigeria which is on the path of modern economic growth through structural transformation of the economy, tourism is the right vehicle. With diasporic voyages on the rise more and more destinations are being hunted with the vehicle of tourism (Ajake, 2008). Tourism involves many players including tourists, businesses, tourism managers, host communities and society. All players need to derive benefits from tourism for tourism to be truly successful. However, the aspirations of these players are at least partially competing. Tourists seek to maximize ‘consumer surplus’, that is get the best experience possible for the least cost, while businesses seek to maximize (short-term) profits and host communities are interested in long-term income and employment as well as net benefits (Okpoko, 2006; Odunsanwo, 2009).

In Nigeria, most tourism destinations are located in regions originally inhabited by local people who are relocated or displaced to ensure the comfort of tourists without an alternative source of livelihood provided for the people. Okpoko and Okpoko (2002) reported that, for tourism to attain sustainability, all stakeholders (government, private sector, non-governmental organizations and local people) must be fully integrated and involved in all segments of its development. Udadiegwu (2002) acknowledged that local people’s participation in tourism development in Nigeria is yet to be given adequate attention. Investigations have revealed that the people of Becheeve community (hosts of Obudu Mountain Resort in Cross River State) have been denied the right to maintain and control their cultural heritage and to manage the positive and negative impacts from tourism activities (ODI, 2006; Ajake, Egbe, Emanghe & Eneji, 2010).

Obudu Mountain Resort in Cross River State has also experienced increased tourists visits and patronage and the host people (Becheeve community) who were mainly farmers and hunters are now becoming more interested in tourism-related activities like; jobs in the hotels, sales of food, drinks, honey, yoghurt, handcraft and other local products, engagement in transportation and tour-guiding services. The presence of tourism in the area has also provided basic amenities like; schools, electricity, security, accessible road, financial and communication facilities. However, a reconnaissance survey of the area has shown that most of these amenities are found only around the ranch urban area and these have called for a quest to answer questions like; can tourism be seen as an efficient development agent that keeps a balance between improving the standard of living and maintaining sustainable use of resources in the area and have the benefits accruing from tourism business adequately impacted or improved the lives of the people in the area.
Reconnaissance survey in the area also reveals that hotels in Obudu Mountain Resort have enjoyed significant patronage with an increase in tourists’ patronage from 593 tourists between January and December 2000 to 1383 tourists’ patronage from January to December 2009. Despite the increase in tourist patronage, little or nothing has been done to empower the people of Becheeve community through capacity building projects like training in skill acquisition, seminars and provision of credit facilities. The rapid increase in tourists’ patronage prompted the establishment of local and privately owned hotels within the Ranch Urban area in 2008, demonstrating an improved interest in tourism by the local and community peoples. However, the privately-owned hotels which are located outside the “ranch urban area” have continued to experience low patronage despite the “low price” accommodation they offer; this can be traced to the low state of facilities they provide (Anake, 2008).

The local people of Obudu Ranch have experienced a change in their original occupations like farming, hunting and cattle rearing to a more tourism-based activity such as providing accommodation, security jobs and transportation services, sale of honey, food and drinks. It is observed that about eighty per cent of the community people employed in the tourism servicing industries is labor-intensive workers, receiving very little remuneration as wages for services rendered. This has not in any real way improved their standard of living since their income hardly satisfies their needs. This accounts partly for the high poverty rate in the area.

Studies by Anake (2008); Aniah, Eja, Otu and Ushie (2009) in their earlier studies revealed that, the presence of tourism has brought about development in the area with the provision of basic amenities and infrastructures like schools, tarred road, health-care centre, electricity, security and financial facilities. It is however observed that these benefits from tourism development have not been spread to the adjoining villages around the “ranch urban area”. Also little or nothing has been done to assess the level of participation of the community people in the planning and implementation stages of tourism development in the study area. It is in this regards that this research seek to investigate the level of the local people’s participation in the tourism industry in their community with special focus on the employment structure in the tourism industry in the area.

STUDY AREA

The study area is the Obudu Mountain Resort located in Obaliku Local Government Area of Cross River State. It lies between latitude 6°21'13.011N and 6°22'13.011N and longitude 9°22'10.11E and 9°22'14.511E, with an approximate area of 104 sqm², and a height of about 1576m above sea level (Cross River State Tourism Bureau, 2010). Obudu Mountain Resort is bounded in the North by Benue state, North-East by the Republic of Cameroon, to the South-East by Boki Local Government Area in Cross River State of Nigeria. Seven villages within the Obudu plateau (Apah-ajili, Okwamu, Keji-oku, Kegol, Okpazenge, Anape, OldIkwette) makes-up the focus of this study (Figure 1).

Tourism and indigenous peoples participation

The major underlying assumption of ecotourism is that visitors can provide the necessary economic incentives to achieve local conservation and development. In theory, ecotourism generates revenue that can be used to protect and conserve biodiversity and the natural resources that draw visitors to a particular site. It is also regarded as a mode of eco-development, which represents practical and effective means of attaining social and economic improvement for all countries (Beeton, 2006).

Indigenous peoples participation (which can mean a level of control, ownership or influence) in a tourism initiative appears to be closely linked to the derivation of livelihood and other benefits from the initiative to the same people (Tosun, 2000).
According to Jamieson, Goodwin & Edmunds, (2004), “Tourism is sustainable when its development and operation include participation of local population, protection of the total environment, fair economic return for the industry and its host community, as well as a mutual respect and gratification to all involved parties”.

Figure 1. Map of Cross River State showing Obanliku Local Government Area
(Source: Calligraphic Unit, University of Calabar, 2011)

A definition of ecotourism must account for the local population, and should minimize negative impacts on the host community, otherwise the local population may come to dislike the presence of tourism and this could undermine its long term
prospects. Tourism is likely to have the greatest socio-cultural impacts on small, isolated communities, which may themselves be one of the tourist attractions. As a result, any cultural changes in the community’s way of life may reduce the overall marketability of tourism products and therefore provide future prospects. At the same time, ecotourism should produce direct economic benefit for the local community if it is to elicit their continued support, benefits that compliment rather than overwhelm traditional practices and sources of income (Pearce, 1994). However, such economic benefits and material wealth obtained by the local community may themselves lead to cultural changes in their way of life.

Wang and Wall (2005), retorted that “eco-tourism is an agent of change” and the wide spread misuse of the term “Sustainable Development”, asserting that it should be considered as “Tourism which can maintain its viability in an area for an indefinite period of time”. Ecotourism can be viewed as part of a longer term strategy of sustainable development in which tourism is later phased out (Pretty, 1994). It is widely agreed that the host population receives economic benefits from ecotourism without which they will have little reason to view the intrusion of tourists positively and so have little incentive to protect the environment upon which tourism depends (Milan, 2008; Ashley, 2000).

Great importance is attached to the need for local participation in ecotourism. Ecotourism is a type of tourism that maximizes the early and long term participation of local people in decision-making process that determines the kind and amount of tourism that will occur (Pearce, 1994). The degree of control the local population has over tourism in their locality is generally perceived as being a significant element of sustainability (Milan, 2008). Communities located near major attraction sites, such as; national parks, reserves, archaeological and historic sites should have the opportunity to participate in tourism activities. These communities can provide hotels (accommodation), restaurants, shops, transportation and tour services; they can also be employed in management and operational activities (Okech, 2008).

Huge financial benefits obviously play an important part in ensuring smooth partnership between government, resort managers and local people and considering the fact that community people have a final say on how much and the extent tourism develops in their areas. This partnership should be based on a commitment to hire community people as managers or workers in protected areas and this should rest on improving the quality of lives through providing health care services, education and economic advancement and on empowering communities to manage their resources effectively.

Hinch and Butler (2007) made strong recommendations for indigenous tourism above ecotourism. He defined indigenous tourism as any form of tourism that involves adequate participation by indigenous people in the tourism industry in either direct or indirect way. Involving the community is a critically important and complex subject for successful community based ecotourism. An important principle is to seek to work with existing social and community structures, though these can create challenges as well as opportunities. The principle can also help to identify potential leaders and also assist in the achievement of broad and equitable benefit throughout the community (Denman, 2001).

Community people need to be empowered by increasing their understanding and where possible strengthen their knowledge of their legal rights and responsibilities over resources in their territories. It is also important to remember and note that ecotourism is a business, and as such, community-led initiatives in private enterprise and investment should be encouraged within a structure that enables community people to benefit and have decision-making power over all levels of tourism activities in their area (UNCTAD, 2007; Tourism Master Plan, 2002).

Studies have examined the involvement and participation of Indigenous people in the tourism development process like in (Tosun, 2000; Tosun, 2006; Li, 2005; Li, 2004;
The process of tourism development as pointed out in Simmons (1994) and Tosun (2000), appears to suggest that there is a high degree of dependence on residents for their acceptance of the industry before it starts in a particular destination. This is to say, initial adequate involvement of local people is fundamental to enable the initial stage of tourism development (Simmons, 1994; Tosun, 2000), which Simpson, (2007) called the exploration stage.

Implicitly, the above argument about the relationship between tourism development and indigenes participation indicates that community involvement is, indeed, crucial in order to avoid more likely uncertainties and misunderstandings about tourism development in the area (Simmons, 1994). While local peoples participation in the tourism development process is highly desirable as an element of development, it is important to note that active involvement and participation of the local people in tourism especially at the exploration stage is crucial because at this initial stage of tourism development there is normally little or no tourism infrastructure in the area and therefore local people, after accepting the idea of introduction of tourism in their area, usually start, own and operate small scale guest-houses, low-class hotels or souvenir shops, and supply the workforce for the industry especially in many developing countries (Tosun, 2000). More importantly, providing local people with the opportunities to own and operate tourism facilities is thought to increase their tolerance to tourist activities in the area and eventually creates a sense of ownership, a feeling of responsibility and practical involvement in tourism (Simpson, 2007).

Andres Barona points to the frequent justification for ecotourism as a means to benefit community people without detrimental social or environmental consequences and increase income for tribal communities while also lowering pressure on the natural resources. Also cited by Jorge Nahual of the coordination of the Mapuche organizations, tourism can increase community and personal income and bring empowerment and self-confidence to traditionally subjugated people. The experience in Latin America has led to greater respect for the local people on the part of national and local authorities and their active incorporation in development planning for tourism as respected players (Timothy, 2000).

The literature seems to acknowledge the fact that indigenous peoples’ participation is vital in the tourism development process. However, Tosun (2000) while exploring limits to local people’s participation in the tourism development process in developing countries, further observes that “opportunities for local people to participate may vary over time with the type and scale of tourism developed, thresholds of entry, and the market served”. His study views the relationship between local community participation and tourism development process in the context of Butler’s tourist area cycle of evolution model. He also notes that, such variations are due to the reality that as the destination becomes more popular and attractive after considerable development (or as a result of growing commercialized tourism).

More investors, especially large capital owners, are attracted to the destination making competition stiffer than before. In this regard, local people are likely to lose control over tourism development since they often have limited financial resources (Zhao & Ritchie, 2007) and therefore it gradually becomes more difficult for them to open large scale businesses (Tosun, 2000). To avoid this situation, Tosun (2000) suggests that there is a deliberate need to empower local people at the initial stage of tourism development to enable them to keep control over tourism development in their area. One way to achieve this is through removing barriers that hinder local communities’ effective participation in markets (Zhao & Ritchie, 2007).

Guan (2008) in the study on “Tourism, cultural survival and host ethnic participation”, sought to evaluate the impact of tourism on host cultures, he discovered that development of tourism on a large scale should include beneficial cross-cultural
exchange and result in inter-ethnic understanding and appreciation. He also noted that in tourist’s destinations there is bound to be conflict in value between the hosts living in closed societies with traditional lifestyles and the quests from modernized regions with foreign behaviours and new ideas. These conflicts lead to host cultural drift and tourist misunderstanding. The ultimate answer to this conflict is host participation, which means making the local people take part in tourism organization, administration, guiding and services; and decide the amount and quality of cultural content as well as the communication methods in tourist activities.

He also noted that tourism without host participation can be a major set-back to the host ethnic culture while noting that one major negative impact of tourism on host culture is that members of the host communities especially the youths susceptible to the apparent material superiority of the outsiders, may copy the latter’s behaviours and consumption patterns, feeling ashamed of their own social customs and life styles, and consequently accepting alien values and attitudes without choice. In conclusion, he noticed that host participation in tourism plays a decisive role in meeting tourist expectations, which attracts visitors to particular destinations with special cultural characteristics, and helps the visitors’ understanding of the host culture; as a result, successful tourism with local participation could have a particular ethnic flavour in keeping with traditional host cultural values and customs. To satisfy the tourists’ cultural desire, some cultural forms which may have been forgotten can be revived, there-by rejuvenating the cultural heritage of the native people. The result of this study shows that it is only when local people have a good knowledge of their culture that they can possess self-confidence and self-respect and successfully helps visitors to understand and accept the meaning of their culture.

**METHODOLOGY**

Primary and secondary sources of data collection were used to obtain data for this research. The primary sources involved the use of questionnaire, interviews and the researcher’s direct field observations. The secondary sources involved information from textbooks, journals, State Tourism Bureau and the management of Obudu Mountain Resort hotels. The population of the study is made up of the house-hold heads in the study area. Information was also gathered from women and youths who were involved in tourism and non-tourism related activities. They are mainly community people who are bread-winners of their families and are involved in economic activities within the study area. All house-hold heads in the area were purposely adopted for this study questionnaire survey process because this category of people makes up the population involved in economic activities in the area, while the choice to use all the house-hold heads in the area was based on the consideration of the limitation of the number of house-holds present in the area. This is sometimes referred to as judgemental sampling because the selection of units to be included in the sample is on the basis of the judgement of the researcher because most of the information required was elicited through questionnaire survey and interviews with key informants. The total number of house-holds used for this study is two hundred and twenty-five (225) in the study area (Table 1).

The method of data collection was through questionnaire administration, interviews and participatory research method (PRM). The people were given the questionnaire to respond to and the researcher collected the questionnaire as soon as the responses were completed to avoid indoctrination by other persons. The interviews were organised and their responses were recorded and used as a veritable tool to provide answers to the questions on the challenges of local peoples’ participation in tourism related activities in the area. The extent of the people’s involvement in tourism related activities was examined by direct field observation by the researcher; this formed the
foundation of the appreciation of the extent of the people’s involvement in tourism development in the area.

During the field work, seven field assistants (mainly local people who are secondary school leavers) were trained and employed for the questionnaire survey session (one for each village).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Village</th>
<th>*POPULATION (2009)</th>
<th>+TOTAL HOUSEHOLDS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Anape</td>
<td>397</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Okpazenge</td>
<td>266</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Kegol</td>
<td>338</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Keji-uku</td>
<td>261</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Okwamu</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Apah-Ajili</td>
<td>195</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Old-Ikwette</td>
<td>337</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1926</td>
<td>225</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data collected was analyzed and presented using descriptive and quantitative techniques. The descriptive technique includes the use of tables, graphs, charts, mean, standard deviation and simple percentages. A quantitative technique was employed to test the hypothesis.

The student’s t-test was adopted to test the hypothesis. Student’s t-test is the most powerful technique for the comparison of simple mean. It is a parametric test and is used to determine whether or not the difference between two sample means are great as to justify a conclusion that the mean of the population also differ significantly. The formula is given as:

\[
t = \frac{\bar{x}_1 - \bar{x}_2}{\sqrt{\frac{S^2_1}{n_1} + \frac{S^2_2}{n_2}}}
\]

Where,

\[
\begin{align*}
\bar{x}_1 &= \text{Mean of group A} \\
\bar{x}_2 &= \text{Mean of group B} \\
S^2_1 &= \text{Variance of group A} \\
S^2_2 &= \text{Variance of group B} \\
n_1 &= \text{Total number of sample A} \\
n_2 &= \text{Total number of sample B}.
\end{align*}
\]

Hypothesis:

H₀ There is no difference between the number of indigenes and non-indigenes employed in the ranch resort hotels.

H₁ There is a difference between the number of indigenes and non-indigenes employed in the ranch resort hotels.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Occupational distribution in the study area

It was observed that out of 271 persons involved in non-tourism related activities, 129 people were farmers representing 48 per cent of the total population.
The result also shows that 28 persons were involved in fishing representing 10 per cent; 48 persons in hunting representing 18 per cent; 18 persons were involved in artisan job representing 7 per cent; 46 persons were civil servants representing 17 per cent while the least group of 2 persons were cattle-rearers representing 1 per cent of the entire population.

It could be evidenced that farmers are more in number owing to the nature of the environment which is mainly forested, with a climatic condition that encourage crop yield in the region.

In investigating the number of people involved in tourism activities in the area, it was observed that 169 persons were involved in sales of honey representing 34 per cent of the entire population of people involved in tourism related activities; 4 persons in sales of food and drinks representing 1 per cent; 28 persons in sales of yoghurt representing 6 per cent; 22 persons in sales of hand-craft representing 4 per cent; 31 persons in tour-guiding representing 6 per cent; 113 persons in transportation representing 23 per cent; 67 persons in security jobs representing 14 per cent; 60 persons in hotel jobs representing 12 per cent while 2 persons provided local accommodation in the area. Since most of the people involved in tourism related activities were young and mainly semi-skilled, we noticed that they were more involved in self-employed activities like sales of local tourism product and transportation.

Table 2. Occupational distribution of the people involved in non-tourism activities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Community</th>
<th>Farming</th>
<th>Fishing</th>
<th>Hunting</th>
<th>Cattle rearing</th>
<th>Artisan</th>
<th>Civil servants</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Anape</td>
<td>28 (55)</td>
<td>2 (4)</td>
<td>16 (31)</td>
<td>0 (o)</td>
<td>5 (10)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Okpazenge</td>
<td>19 (58)</td>
<td>3 (9)</td>
<td>5 (15)</td>
<td>0 (o)</td>
<td>3 (9)</td>
<td>3 (9)</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kegol</td>
<td>23 (56)</td>
<td>2 (5)</td>
<td>6 (15)</td>
<td>0 (o)</td>
<td>4 (10)</td>
<td>6 (15)</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Keji-Oku</td>
<td>22 (56)</td>
<td>2 (5)</td>
<td>3 (8)</td>
<td>0 (o)</td>
<td>1 (3)</td>
<td>11 (28)</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Okwamu</td>
<td>16 (57)</td>
<td>3 (11)</td>
<td>2 (7)</td>
<td>0 (o)</td>
<td>2 (7)</td>
<td>5 (18)</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apah- Ajili</td>
<td>9 (29)</td>
<td>7 (23)</td>
<td>7 (23)</td>
<td>0 (o)</td>
<td>1 (3)</td>
<td>7 (23)</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Old-Ikwette</td>
<td>12 (25)</td>
<td>9 (19)</td>
<td>9 (19)</td>
<td>2 (4)</td>
<td>2 (4)</td>
<td>14 (29)</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>129 (48)</td>
<td>28 (10)</td>
<td>48 (18)</td>
<td>2 (1)</td>
<td>18 (7)</td>
<td>46 (17)</td>
<td>271</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In summary, those involved in tourism related activities were 496 people representing 65 per cent while 271 persons were involved in non-tourism activities representing 35 per cent of the entire population involved in an economic activity in the area.

Benefits from Tourism activities

The study examined the occupational distribution of the peoples' involvement in tourism and non-tourism related activities in order to determine the people's level of participation in tourism development in the area which also enabled the authors examine the employment structure in the tourism industry in the area.
Table 3. Occupational distribution of people involved in tourism related activities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study area</th>
<th>Sales of Honey</th>
<th>Sales of food and drinks</th>
<th>Sales of Yoghurt</th>
<th>Hand-craft</th>
<th>Tour guide</th>
<th>Driving</th>
<th>Security</th>
<th>Hotel staff</th>
<th>Hotelier</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ANAPE (%)</td>
<td>41 (68)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>2 (3)</td>
<td>2 (3)</td>
<td>11 (18)</td>
<td>4 (7)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OKPAZENGE (%)</td>
<td>24 (34)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>9 (13)</td>
<td>3 (4)</td>
<td>8 (11)</td>
<td>15 (21)</td>
<td>7 (10)</td>
<td>4 (6)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KEGOL (%)</td>
<td>18 (29)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>5 (8)</td>
<td>6 (10)</td>
<td>4 (6)</td>
<td>9 (14)</td>
<td>18 (29)</td>
<td>3 (5)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KEJI-OKU (%)</td>
<td>16 (21)</td>
<td>1 (1)</td>
<td>4 (5)</td>
<td>3 (4)</td>
<td>6 (8)</td>
<td>12 (16)</td>
<td>11 (15)</td>
<td>21 (28)</td>
<td>1 (1)</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OKWAMU (%)</td>
<td>16 (23)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>3 (4)</td>
<td>1 (1)</td>
<td>4 (6)</td>
<td>26 (38)</td>
<td>7 (10)</td>
<td>12 (17)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APAH- AJILI (%)</td>
<td>26 (33)</td>
<td>3 (4)</td>
<td>2 (3)</td>
<td>2 (3)</td>
<td>3 (4)</td>
<td>21 (27)</td>
<td>6 (8)</td>
<td>14 (18)</td>
<td>1 (1)</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OLD-IKWETTE (%)</td>
<td>28 (35)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>5 (6)</td>
<td>5 (6)</td>
<td>4 (5)</td>
<td>19 (23)</td>
<td>14 (17)</td>
<td>6 (7)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL (%)</td>
<td>169 (34)</td>
<td>4 (1)</td>
<td>28 (6)</td>
<td>22 (4)</td>
<td>31 (6)</td>
<td>113 (23)</td>
<td>67 (14)</td>
<td>60 (12)</td>
<td>2 (0)</td>
<td>496</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4. Occupational distribution of people involved in tourism related activities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EMPLOYMENT CADRE</th>
<th>NON-INDIGENES</th>
<th>% OF STAFF</th>
<th>INDIGENES</th>
<th>% OF STAFF</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FOOD AND BEVERAGES</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RECEPTIONIST</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SECURITY</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOUR GUIDE</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MANAGERS</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LABOURERS</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WAITERS</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHEF</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LAUNDRY</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HOUSE KEEPERS</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GARDENER</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACCOUNTANTS</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>268</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| MEAN(*)          | 10.9          | 53         | 11.4      | 48         | 22.3  |
| STD. DEVIATION(*)| 16.2          | 32         | 14.5      | 32         | 28.5  |

(*): Authors data analysis, (2011)
Test of hypothesis:

Ho: There is no significant difference between the population of indigenes and non-indigenes employed in the ranch resort hotels.

Hi: There is a significant difference between the population of indigenes and non-indigenes employed in the ranch resort hotels.

In examining the difference in the population of indigenes and non-indigenes employed in the ranch hotels, Students t-test was employed, since the researcher sought to determine the difference in mean between the two groups. The result of the t-test is presented in table 5. The mean value indicates that more indigenes (M=52.48) are employed in the ranch resort hotel than non-indigenes with a mean value of 47.53.

However, table 5 shows a $t_{cal}$ value of 0.27 with 11 degrees of freedom and $p=0.79$. Hence, even though more indigenes were employed, such difference in the percentage of employment was not significant.

Since $t_{cal} (0.27)<t_{tab} (2.20)$ at the 11 degrees of freedom (2-tailed), we accept the null hypothesis. This implies that there is no significant difference in the employment of indigenes and non-indigenes in the Ranch Resort hotel. Figure 2 further illustrate the employment pattern between indigenes and non-indigenes in the Ranch hotel.

**Table 5.** Occupational distribution of people involved in tourism related activities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>Cal. t</th>
<th>Tab. t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Indigenes</td>
<td>52.475</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>31.52480</td>
<td>9.10043</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>2.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-indigenes</td>
<td>47.525</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>31.52480</td>
<td>9.10043</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SUMMARY OF FINDING**

In a bid to investigate the opportunities tourism offers to the development of Becheeve community (hosts of Obudu Mountain Resort), this study therefore examined the level of involvement of the community people in tourism related activities and benefits in the area.

It is noticed that to ensure sustainable development in the area, it is expedient that any government or government agency that wishes to invest in the area must have a priority to improve the living conditions of the people. In assessing the impact of
tourism on the living standards of the people, it is observed that although basic social amenities like; tarred roads, electricity, potable water, security, medical facilities, communication facilities, schools, transportation services and financial facilities (ATM) are provided, these facilities are mainly found noticeably around the tourism business centre (TBS) and therefore it could be said that the facilities are basically put in place to ensure the satisfaction and comfort of tourists visiting the area. Apart from Keji-oku, which is located at the heart of the (TBC), other adjoining villages do not feel the presence or relevance of such facilities.

In terms of income, it is observed that tourism in the area has created impact on the household income. The study reveals that there was a steady increase in participation in tourism related activities and this transformed to an adverse increase in house-hold income in the area. Just as Haulot (1981) and Gould (2004), have identified one major impact of tourism to increase the income level among the host people; this increment is also felt in the level of employment of indigenes in the various tourism servicing industries in the area with a recorded 51 per cent of employed indigenes in the hotels over 49 per cent of non-indigenes. This is a confirmation of Ribot (2004); Mathieson and Walls (1993) observations that the tourism industry brings about the establishment of allied industries which in-turn generates more employment opportunities to the people of the area. Tourism development in the area has also witnessed an increase in patronage of the hotels by tourists visiting the area with an increase from five hundred and ninety-three (593) tourists in 2000 to one thousand, three hundred and eighty-three (1383) in 2009.

Information on table 4 shows that non-indigenes are more employed in the ranch resort. The data reveals that one hundred and thirty-seven non-indigenes, representing 51 per cent of the people employed at the resort while one hundred and thirty-one indigenes are employed at the resort. The data further revealed that most of the indigenes employed are mainly in the category of unskilled or labour intense cadre. This is in line with the assertion of scholars like (Argumedo & Stenner, 2008; Leena & Prema, 2009; Ngugen, 2007) who posit that local people are more involved in labour and low paid jobs in a tourist resorts because of their limited qualifications and training for the challenges of such jobs. It further shows that there exist differences in indigenes and non-indigenes employed in the Ranch hotels; it indicates that there are more indigenes employed in the hotels. The result further indicates that $t_{cal}(0.27) < t_{tab}(2.20)$ at the 11 degree of freedom, with this result, it implied that there is no significant difference in the employment of indigenes and non-indigenes in the ranch Resort hotels.

CONCLUSION

The focus of this study has been to investigate the participation of the community people, the contributions of the people to the development of tourism and the benefits from the tourism industry in Obudu Mountain Resort. The study shows that tourism has contributed to the improvement of living conditions of the people, for instance, there was an increase in house-hold income encouraging the people to be more involved in tourism activities. The study also revealed that the increase in employment and other economic activities embarked upon by the people have contributed immensely to the steady increase in their mean house-hold income. The study has shown that the basic social amenities currently provided in the area are grossly inadequate, considering the level tourism has attained in the area; this can undermine the peace and security necessary for the smooth operations of tourism in the area. With the steady increase in tourist’s patronage since 2000 to 2009 in the area, the study has revealed that if
tourism is properly planned, it could stimulate equitable development of the people and the host communities. It is, therefore, wished that the authorities concerned should as a matter of urgency plan how tourism can be used as a catalyst towards human and community development in the state.

REFERENCES


Jamieson, W., Goodwin, H., Edmunds, C., (2004), Contribution of Tourism to Poverty Alleviation: pro-poor tourism and the challenge of measuring impacts, United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific, UN ESCAP.


An Assessment of the Employment Structure in the Tourism Industry of Obudu Mountain Resort, Cross River State, Nigeria


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