Cape Peninsula
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The extent of community involvement in tourism development and conservation activities in eastern Rwanda

By

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DECLARATION

I, **Emmanuel Nsabimana**, hereby declare that the contents of this thesis represent my own unaided work, and that the thesis has not previously been submitted for academic examination towards any qualification. Furthermore, it represents my own opinions and not necessarily those of the Cape Peninsula University of Technology.

Signed **Date**

ABSTRACT

This study investigated the extent of local community involvement in tourism development and conservation activities in eastern Rwanda by using Akagera National Park as a case study. The study used a structured questionnaire to collect data from local residents, while face-to-face interviews were conducted with key informants from Rwanda National Tourism and Conservation Agency and local government officials as means to obtain deeper insights.

Tosun (2000:626) contends that community involvement in tourism can be considered from at least two viewpoints, namely the decision-making process that would involve community participation and the benefits of tourism development such as employment and business opportunities. Results of this research suggest that community participation in Akagera National Park has been recognised by Rwanda National Tourism and Conservation Agency and the government of Rwanda only in the sense of helping local people to obtain economic benefits via employing them as workers within industry [though, still at a low rate], whilst encouraging them to operate small scale businesses such as curio shops, rather than create opportunities for them to have a say in the process of decision making of tourism management and conservation policies.

Although Rwanda has opted for a decentralised system in its rural development plans, it is evident that it has failed to do so in the areas of tourism and conservation - at least in Akagera National Park. The researcher believes that in the light of the research results, the decision making system for Akagera National Park tourism and conservation development plans is still highly centralised, which, conversely, work against participatory development approach. The study recommends that local communities in the Akagera area should be consulted and involved in development programmes within their villages from the start, as this process will present a significant step towards ensuring more adequate participation in conservation and tourism. Finally, the researcher recommends that further studies should be conducted to engage in evaluation of impacts and successes of governmental policy of 5% revenue sharing, which should be implemented in communities around Akagera National Park.

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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my mother, Khezia Kabera, and my late father, John Nsengimana, as well as to my wife, Regina Mutimukeye and my daughter, Lee-Ann Gaga Kanyana, for their love, support, encouragement, and inspiration.

KEY WORDS

Akagera National Park: A national park, which is located in Eastern Rwanda and was used as a case study for this research.

Community: A social group whose members reside in a specific locality, and who share a government, and often have a common cultural and historical heritage.

Community involvement: Community involvement is a process, which engages people within a local area in organisation and development, for example, involving local people in tourism and conservation activities.

Community conservation: The term community conservation refers to wildlife conservation efforts that involve rural people as an integral part of wildlife conservation policy.

Eastern Rwanda: One of the four provinces that comprise Rwanda and, which houses the Akagera National Park, which was the case study for this research.

Rwanda: This is a small landlocked country in the Great Lakes region of east-central Africa, and is bordered by Uganda, Burundi, the Democratic Republic of the Congo and Tanzania, while the study took place in its eastern province.

Tourism: Tourism can essentially be described as an industry, which provides tours and services to tourists.

Tourism development: The term can be defined as a long-term process of preparing for the arrival of tourists and entails planning, building, and managing attractions, transportation, services, and facilities that serve tourists.

Participatory tourism: Participatory tourism is regarded as a tourism planning approach that aims to involve people in tourism development planning. It involves stakeholders such as local communities, governments, non government organizations, and so on in order to participate in the planning process.

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GLOSSARY OF ABBREVIATIONS

ANP	Akagera National Park
CAMPFIRE	Communal Area Management Programme For Indigenous Resources
CBC	Community Based Conservation
CPUT	Cape Peninsula University of Technology
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GNP	Growth National Product
IUCN	International Union for the Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources
MINALOC	Ministry of Local Government [Rwanda]
MINAGRI	Ministry of Agriculture and Animal Resources
MINECOFIN	Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning [Rwanda]
MINICOM	Ministry of Commerce, Industry, Investment Promotion, Tourism and Cooperatives [Rwanda]
NGO	Non Governmental Organisation
NNP	Nyungwe National Park
ORTPN	Office Rwandais de Tourisme et Parcs Nationaux (Rwanda National Tourism and Conservation Agency)
OTF	On The Frontier
RNIC	Rwanda National Innovation and Competitiveness Agency
RTPN	Rwanda Tourism National Policy
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences.
TWG	Tourism Working Group
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
US	United States
VNP	Volcanoes National Park
WCED	World Commission on Environment and Development
WTO	World Tourism Organisation

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

Nature-based tourism, including ecotourism, adventure and wilderness travel is a large and growing global industry (Hiwasaki 2003:107). Hiwasaki argues that much of this tourism is based in parks and other protected areas, which constitute key components of tourism for several countries. Tourism and other public concerns for biodiversity conservation have, therefore, prompted establishment of protected areas around the world. In tropical countries, establishment of protected areas was identified as a key strategy to reduce biodiversity loss in tropical rainforests. Rao and Geisler (1990:24), however, indicate that in several places it has proven difficult to manage protected areas because of higher dependency of the population on natural resources for agricultural, energy, nutritional, medicinal, and other needs. Furthermore, protected areas in developing countries are often viewed as a source of income from timber, oil, mineral exploitation, or tourism by the government (Putz, 1988:5). In addition, inadequate government resources, weak management capacities and ineffective legal systems have compounded problems that are related to protected areas management in developing countries (Salasfky & Wollenberg, 2000:1429).

Conservation strategies in Africa have been characterized by exclusion of human use of resources in protected areas. In particular, this approach, which is often described as “fortress conservation” or “the fines and fences” approach (Wells & Brandon, 1992:11), has been influential in sub-Saharan Africa, where there is a long history of reserve creation, which began with the Sabie game reserve in 1892 in Natal (Adams & Hulme, 1998:6). Post-colonial African governments continued to embrace and conduct colonial conservation strategies that excluded human use of resources of protected areas (Gbadegesin & Ayileka, 2000:90). As several protected areas are proposed on lands that are legally or customarily owned and managed by local people, it has often been impractical or impossible to consider these lands off-limits to human use (Masozera, 2002:2). Furthermore, in countries where remote populations endure social and economic inequities, protected areas have further restricted their livelihood options (Salafsky & Wollenberg, 2000:1431). Hence, the protectionist approach has caused scepticism, lack of trust, and even hatred between protected areas’ managers and communities that live around protected areas (Ite, 1996:352). There is also a growing consensus among conservationists and international conservation organizations that

the protectionist approach may no longer conserve wildlife in Africa (Ite, 1996:353; Barret & Grizzle, 1999:24).

In an attempt to reconcile human needs and conservation goals, since the late 1970s conservationists have been searching for innovative solutions. One of the earliest approaches that was used was the creation of the biosphere reserve (Sayer, 1991:14). Sayer further estimates that a key feature of the biosphere reserve model is to create a spatial compromise by enabling local people to continue to meet their livelihood needs, while still protecting key species and their habitats. This approach also attempts to decrease local peoples' reliance on natural resources by substituting alternative livelihood activities (Sayer, 1991:15).

In recent years, in several parts of Africa, and specifically in southern Africa, different models of community based conservation programs (CBC) that seek to link conservation with the alleviation of rural poverty, as well as encourage community participation, were undertaken (Gbadegesin & Ayileka, 2000:90). Community Based Conservation (CBC) stresses the need to include local people, either physically in protected areas management or politically in the conservation policy process (Western & Wright, 1994:132).

Emerging literature on biodiversity conservation suggests that CBC approaches have failed to achieve their goals (Songorwa 1999:2062). The main reasons include failure to meet communities' expectations, unwillingness of national governments to devolve ownership and management responsibility to local communities, and a lack of capacity to manage CBC projects by communities (Wainwright and Wehrmeyer 1998:934; Songorwa *et al*., 2000:606). This suggests that protected areas management in Africa is challenging. One of the big challenges is that areas of outstanding conservation importance coincide with dense human settlement (Balmford *et al*., 2001:18). Therefore, implementation of a management strategy will require an understanding of the extent of a community's dependency on natural resources in protected areas and the perceptions of different stakeholders regarding the management strategy.

While biodiversity conservation in Africa is complex (Vogel, 2001:26), the Rwandan situation is even more complex. Bush (2003:2) indicated that the question of responsibility for conservation and benefit from the tourism product from protected areas is a prominent debate in Rwanda**.** Establishment of protected areas in Rwanda began in early 1918 by the colonial government and in 1933 all remnants of mountain forests were set aside as protected forests (Weber, 1987:208).

Currently, Rwanda (see Figure 1.1), a country of 26,338 km^2, has three protected areas (Kanyamibwa 1998:1400) (see Figure. 2), which include:

- The Nyungwe Forest Reserve (NFR) (970km^2) in the Southwest, which is the largest remaining lower mountain forest in Africa;
- The Volcanoes National Park (425 km^2) in the northern part, which harbours highly-endangered biota, including mountain gorillas and golden monkeys; and
- The Akagera National Park in the East, which is a complex of savannah/wetlands that provide habitat for a diverse fauna, including nearly 600 species of birds.

Figure 1.1: Map of Africa showing the location of Rwanda

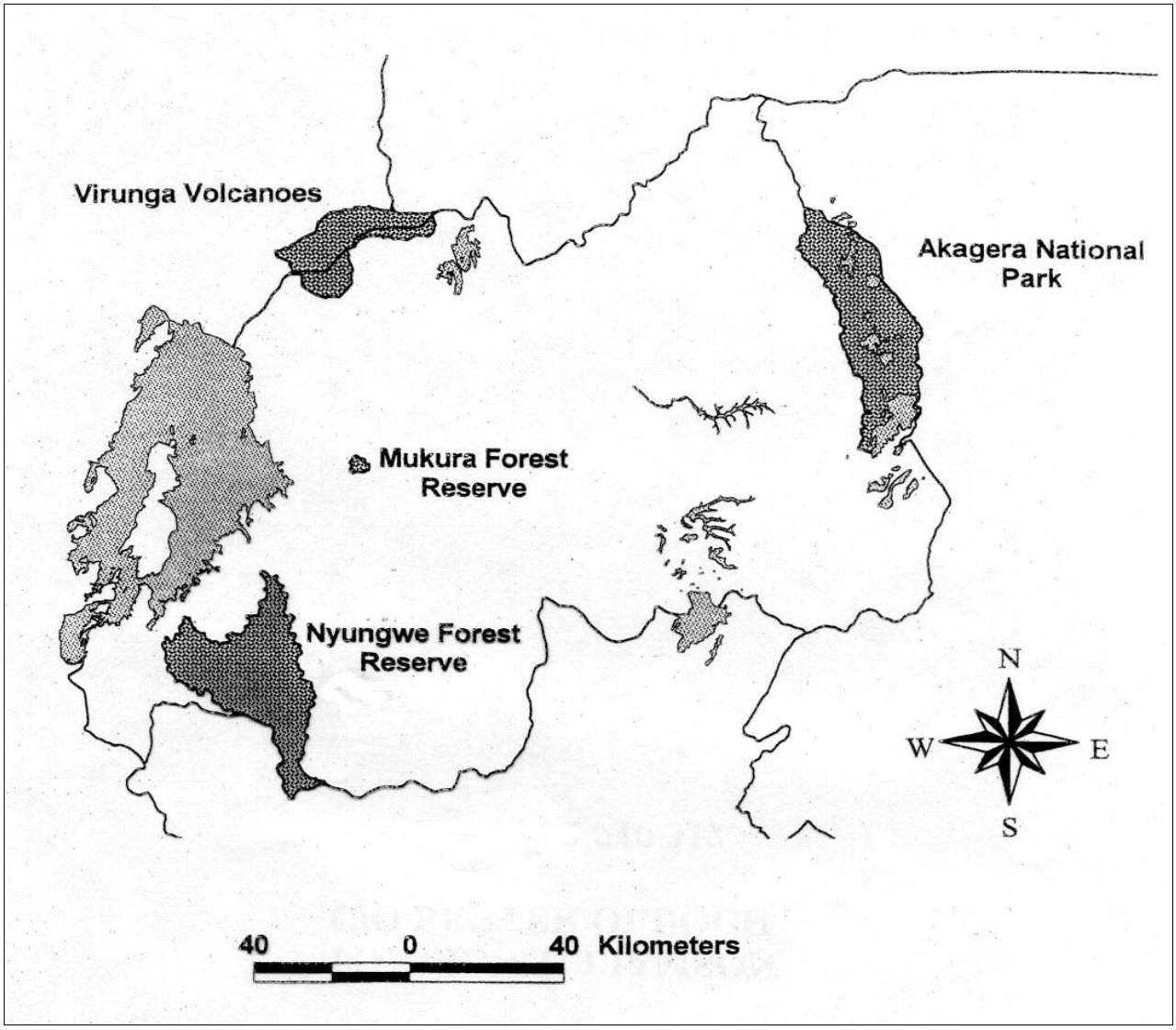

Figure 1.2: A map of Rwanda with its protected areas (Masozera, 2002:4)

These protected areas are located in the Albertine Rift region, which is the richest region in biodiversity and the most populated in Africa (Masozera, 2002:5). Masozera adds that Rwandan protected areas conserve some of the world's greatest concentrations of bird species and some of the most endangered species such as mountain gorilla, golden monkey (Cercopithecus mitis kandti), owl-faced monkey (Cercopithecus hamlyni), eastern chimpanzee (Pan troglodytes schweinfurthii) and Ruwenzori Touraco.

Though concern for the environment is not a recent phenomenon, management of protected areas in Rwanda has become complex. Kanyamibwa (1998:1399) reveals that growing population pressure, limited land resources, and a decade of war that has resulted in movement and resettlement of population in protected areas, are major challenges to manage protected areas. For example, two-thirds of the Akagera National Park was de-gazetted in 1997 to legalize the occupation of the western grasslands by thousands of

returning refugees (Kanyamibwa, 1998:1403). The research study, however, concentrates only on Akagera National Park as it is the greatest tourist attraction and protected area in Eastern Rwanda, which is the main focus of this thesis.

1.2 Problem statement

Tourism has been targeted as one of the key leading areas for Rwanda's economic and social development recovery after the 1990-1994 civil war and genocide. In this regard, specific emphasis was placed on the redevelopment and conservation of Akagera National Park, which is located in Eastern Rwanda and, which had been massively destroyed by the war (Rwanda, 2003:12).

However, though the country's tourism policy underpins involvement of local communities in tourism and conservation activities that are close to all Rwanda national parks, the extent of this involvement in Akagera National Park remains unexplored. A lack of documentation about local residents' involvement in this park's tourism and conservation activities is, therefore, a leading motivation for the study. Furthermore, the partnership between the Eastern Rwanda residents adjacent to Akagera National Park and the national tourism and conservation body [ORTPN] in managing the tourism and conservation activities in the park, was particularly considered.

1.3 Motivational background of the research problem

The Rwandan civil war of 1990/94 left the Eastern Rwanda tourist region almost completely destroyed. The first large-scale fighting occurred inside the Akagera National Park in October 1990. The infrastructure was destroyed and several animals were killed by soldiers (Kanyamibwa, 1998:402). Conservation bodies that conducted research activities on animals in the park were forced to stop these activities. Kanyamibwa (1998:1402) also states that during the war, the administration and activities, which protect the park, were affected. The Banyambo (a Tanzanian tribe) took advantage of the situation and poaching increased, which led to the number of aquatic duiker (Sitatunga) being dramatically reduced during the war period (Kanyamibwa 1998:1402)

After the 1994 Rwandan civil war and genocide, there have been continuous challenges regarding the re-development of Eastern Rwanda as a suitable tourism destination, especially Akagera National Park. High human pressure on natural habitat, poverty, low conservation education and a lack of integration of the local population were crucial problems

(Kanyamibwa, 1998:1399). Some reports suggest that “the disaster in Akagera National Park was a reminder of Malthus' prediction [an English economist, 1798] of an exponentially growing human population, which devours all its natural resources merely to stay alive (Anon, 1995).

In addition, after 1994 the eastern part of Rwanda experienced a rapid population growth owing to a number of returned Rwandan refugees from countries such as Uganda, Tanzania and Kenya who did not have anywhere to locate. Hence, the population growth forced the government to apportion about two-thirds of the Akagera National Park for human occupation (Rwanda, 2003:13). It is actually anticipated that this program caused a huge impact on the park and other natural reserves because people thought that they would continue to exploit the park as they wish.

Between 1998 and 1999 the Rwanda national parks reopened to provide rebirth to its tourism industry as a hope to redevelop the country’s economy and social welfare. Particularly with regard to the Akagera National Park, the Rwandan government, through ORTPN, introduced measures to protect the remaining park and nature reserves. However, there seemed to have been little consultation with residents to find out how they would feel once they are deprived of using the reserves as they had previously done. This could be shown by ongoing poaching and other illegal activities that continued to happen in the Park, even during the period that this study was conducted. Furthermore, the researcher believes that continuous fighting between the local population and Park authorities (see Mudingu, 2007) is an indication that local communities were excluded from the process of redeveloping tourism and conservation activities in the Akagera National Park. Moreover, local communities adjacent to the Park are generally cattle keepers and farmers, and they would want to have the park open for grazing purposes and to grow crops. This attempt would abuse the park resources and, therefore, this study suggests that an alternative to grazing should be found to accommodate residents’ needs.

However, Kanyamibwa (1998:1404) generally recommends that the future of Rwanda's environment and wildlife is highly dependent on the dedication of national conservation bodies to protect natural areas against human pressure. This can only be achieved by providing other alternatives to respond to local peoples’ needs and by guaranteeing security and safety of their belongings. In the Akagera National Park protection of local people from wild animal attacks is crucial to achieve conservation objectives.

This study has gained more significance in the sense that several tourism and conservation researchers and writers in Rwanda have concentrated only on Volcanoes and Nyungwe National Parks and omitted the Akagera National Park. This was probably, in the researcher's belief, owing to the fact that the first two parks were quickly reopened in 1998 after the Rwandan civil wars and had easy access compared to Akagera National Park. This study forms an addition to the limited amount of literature available regarding the Akagera National Park.

1.4 Research questions

This research was designed and sought to address the following questions:

- How and to what extent are community residents involved in tourism and conservation activities in the Akagera National Park?
- What are community residents' feelings about tourism and conservation activities, which are carried out in the Akagera National Park?
- What policies are in place to enhance community involvement in tourism and conservation activities in the Akagera National Park?

1.5 Aims and objectives of the study

1.5.1 Primary objectives

The study is an exploratory study, which aims to develop a knowledge base on the involvement of community residents in tourism activities and conservation activities in Eastern Rwanda by focusing on community residents who live adjacent to the Akagera National Park. Babbie (1998:90) explains that exploratory studies are typically motivated by three reasons:

- To satisfy the researcher's curiosity and desire for better understanding;
- To test the feasibility of undertaking a more extensive study; and
- To pave the way for future researchers who will be interested in similar studies in the area.

All three of these incentives can be regarded as relevant to this research endeavour. This study could, therefore, be considered a pilot study, "a small scale exploratory research technique…that generates primary data" (Zikmund, 2000:144), as this study attempts to pave the way for other research papers, which address community involvement in tourism development and conservation activities in Eastern Rwanda and the Akagera National Park.

1.5.2 Secondary objectives

A part from the main objectives discussed in the previous sub section, this study also sought to:

- Explore the extent of community residents' involvement in tourism and conservation activities in the Akagera National park.
- Highlight the residents' feelings about tourism and conservation activities carried out in the Akagera National park, and
- Identify the policies that are in place to enhance community involvement in tourism and conservation activities in the Akagera National Park.

1.6 Clarification of basic terms and concepts

This section contains some terms that were deemed to be important for the meaning of the topic and the researcher has opted to define them for readers.

1.6.1 Conservation

In its broadest sense, conservation means to preserve from harm or decay or to protect from loss or consumption. According to the National Conservation Strategy for Australia, conservation is defined as "the management of human use of the biosphere so that it may yield the greatest sustainable benefit to present generations while maintaining its potential to meet the needs and aspirations of future generations." Conservation can also be defined as a process for protection, preservation, management, or restoration of natural environments and the ecological communities that inhabit them. It [conservation] is generally held to include the management of human use of natural resources for current public benefit and sustainable social and economic utilization (The Free Dictionary by Farlex)

1.6.2 Community conservation

As stated by Hackel (2001:726), the term community conservation or Community-Based Conservation (CBC) refers to wildlife conservation efforts that involve rural people as an integral part of wildlife conservation policy. The key elements of such programs are that local communities participate in resource planning and management and that they gain economically from wildlife utilization. This approach acts to make rural people a constituency for wildlife and, therefore, active backers of wildlife protection.

1.6.3 Tourism

The World Tourist Organisation (WTO) defines tourists as people who are "travelling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes not related to the exercise of an activity remunerated from within the place visited". Tourism can then be defined as a service industry that offers services to tourists. These services mainly include provision of transport, accommodation and offering goods and human resources in order to fulfil the wishes of travellers (Global Change Magazine for Schools)
(http://www.atmosphere.mpg.de/enid/Nr_9_July__6_Air_traffic/C__Tourism_5rw.html).

1.6.4 Tourism development

Generally, development means improvement in a country's economic and social conditions. On a specific note, it refers to improving management techniques of an area's natural and human resources in order for wealth creation and to improve peoples' lives. Development can, however, be considered in terms of human or economic development, and development indicators are ways of measuring this development. Tourism development is, however, defined as a long-term process of preparing for the arrival of tourists. It entails planning, building, and managing attractions, transportation, services, and facilities that serve tourists (Khan, 2005:9).

1.6.5 Tourism and conservation partners

Throughout this study this term will refer to stakeholders of tourism and conservation activities in Akagera National Park, and will, in fact, be referred to as stakeholders in this thesis. They include community residents [local residents], non government conservation organizations (both national and international) and [Rwandan] government bodies that are in charge of tourism and conservation activities, namely ORTPN (the national body in charge of tourism and conservation) and the Ministry of Commerce, Industry, Investment Promotion, Tourism and Cooperatives [MINICOM], as well as Akagera National Park authorities. This term will be used interchangeably with the term stakeholder participation throughout the thesis.

1.6.6 Sustainable tourism

Sustainable tourism is envisaged by the World Tourism Organisation (WTO) as "leading to management of all resources in such a way that economic, social and aesthetic needs can be fulfilled while maintaining cultural integrity, essential ecological processes, and biological diversity and life support systems" (Towards Earth submit, 2002:1).

Sustainable tourism might also be defined as "tourism, which is economically viable but does not destroy the resources on which the future of tourism will depend, notably the physical environment and the social fabric of the host community" (Swarbrooke, 1999:18).

1.7 Research methodology and design

1.7.1 Methodology

This research is an exploratory study and comprised both qualitative and quantitative data to arrive on drawn conclusions. The research instruments were both survey questionnaires, which were given to household respondents, and personal interviews, which were conducted with key informants from ORTPN and the government. These interviews sought to obtain more insights into the research problem. Key informants from ORTPN and government officials were selected because they could provide helpful information that may not be obtainable from secondary data. Furthermore, the research conducted informal interviews (also referred in this thesis as informal talks) with household respondents whenever there was an opportunity to do so during data collection.

1.7.2 Sampling technique

Probability sampling was used for purposes of this research; hence all units in the population had an equal chance of being selected. Zikmond (2000:474) contends that in non-probability sampling the probability of any particular member of the population being chosen is unknown, while in probability sampling the probability of any particular member of the population being chosen is determined and known. After identifying five administrative sectors that were adjacent to the ANP, a random selection method was used in order to obtain the required respondents. A household was a unity of analysis in the household questionnaire and any person over the age of 18 in the household could represent the household and respond to the questionnaire.

1.7.3 Delineation of the study

This study was conducted in the Rwandan Eastern Province, by using Akagera National Park as the study area. Questionnaires and interviews were restricted to community residents adjacent to the park, conservation authorities in Akagera National Park and ORTPN and government authorities in the Eastern province of Rwanda.

1.8 Significance and contribution of the study

The number of studies concerning community involvement in conservation and tourism activities in Akagera National Park remains limited. This study is beneficial owing to the fact that it creates current awareness about the extent of community involvement in tourism and conservation activities in the park. Academic researchers and scholars will gain empirical knowledge with regard to tourism and conservation in the park.

Furthermore, the study is beneficial to tourism and conservation planners (Rwandan Government through ORTPN and other conservation bodies) because it will act as guidance to the way that local communities perceive park activities. It is, therefore, a useful tool for community integration policies regarding tourism and conservation activities in Akagera National Park. The recommendation section is crucial in this regard.

Finally, the study serves as a secondary source of information, which is available to the researcher's academic institution, namely the Cape Peninsula University of Technology (CPUT) and its information will be used as academic reference material about Tourism and Conservation in Akagera National Park.

1.9 Thesis overview

This thesis comprises six main chapters, which are structured as follows:

The first chapter provides a background to the study, as well as the statement of the research problem, research questions and research objectives. It clarifies certain basic terms, which are necessary to understand the topic. The chapter also briefly describes the methodology and discusses the study's significance.

The second chapter examines literature on tourism and conservation, as well as community involvement in these issues. The chapter generally discusses tourism and development, while it also considers sustainable and participatory tourism, which enable communities to

participate in the process and thereby ensure their participation in conservation. The chapter discusses some approaches to tourism planning and later highlights the significance and importance of involving communities in tourism and conservation activities. While the chapter mostly uses theoretical grounding around tourism, conservation and community issues, it also provides a closer look at how stakeholder participation in tourism and conservation is practical. The chapter finally pays specific attention to community conservation / community based conservation issues.

The third chapter discusses tourism and conservation issues in the Rwandan context while it places a specific emphasis on Akagera National Park, which was the study site.

The fourth chapter describes the research settings in which the study was conducted, and examines methods that were used in the study. The study population, sampling method, data collection and instrumentation are all described in this chapter. Finally, it indicates how data analysis was conducted and provided.

The fifth chapter depicts results of the research, and provides profiles of respondents, as well as a description of the research data. Furthermore, discussion of data is outlined in this chapter and final research findings are also observed and described in this chapter.

The sixth and final chapter of this thesis draws more attention to the findings discussed in the fifth chapter. Research conclusions and recommendations, which are based on the research findings, are also elaborated upon in this chapter.

1.10 Summary

The chapter introduced the reader to the problem under investigation. It provided a clear background about the research problem and the need to research it. This chapter also clearly indicated that the objective of the study was basically to investigate the extent of involvement of local communities in tourism development and conservation activities in Eastern Rwanda by using Akagera National Park as a case study. Different terms that are deemed to be important for the reader were defined in order to give concise direction and meaning of the topic. Finally, the chapter provided a summary of what will be discussed during the rest of the thesis for the readers' acquaintance of the thesis contents. The following chapter focuses on a conceptual framework for tourism and development and discusses different models, which relate to community involvement in both tourism and conservation activities.

CHAPTER TWO

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK FOR TOURISM AND DEVELOPMENT

2.1 Introduction

This chapter examines the literature which deals with tourism and conservation, as well as community involvement in these areas. The chapter generally discusses tourism and development, while it also considers sustainable and participatory tourism that are believed to be a good model to enable local community participation, and thereby ensure their participation and commitment in conservation. The chapter also discusses some approaches to tourism planning and later emphasizes the significance and importance of involving communities in tourism and conservation activities. While the chapter mostly uses theoretical grounding around tourism, conservation and community issues, it finally provides a closer look at how practical this stakeholder participation in tourism and conservation is. The chapter finally pays specific attention to community conservation / community based conservation issues.

2.2 Theoretical grounding of tourism and development

Since the 1950s, development of economically marginal regions and countries has been a central concern of policy-makers (Hewitt, 1992:231). Keyser (2002:27) estimated that tourism is a crucial component of several regional economies, and that it is certainly regarded as having extensive positive economic impacts. Hewitt (1992:232) also contended that the dominant political and economic ideology, which influences development, encouraged poorer countries to follow the lead of industrialized nations in moving towards modernisation. This meant development policy that stressed growth in GNP (Growth National Product) as a means to create employment, increase income and material wealth (Hewitt, 1992:233). In academic literature, prevalent theories embraced this top-down approach to development (Young, 1995:4). The ‘trickle down effect' suggested that the benefits of economic growth would gradually filter through to the population at large (Young, 1995:4). During the same period, Rostow's model of the Stages of Economic Growth argued that all countries pass through five stages, and that underdeveloped countries were simply at an earlier stage than industrialized ones (Griffin, 1973:14). Another perspective supported the idea that modernization would begin in 'core' regions and naturally spread to the 'periphery' (Young, 1995:7).

The 1960s brought about the emergence of mass tourism. Tourism was regarded as a way to diversify economies of the developing world by providing a direct flow of foreign exchange from wealthy countries (Allen & Hamnett, 1995; Crick, 1989; de Kadt, 1976; Liu, 1998). Tourism was viewed as an easy economic opportunity for infrastructure development to poor countries, which are reliant only upon areas' natural and cultural resources (Crick, 1989:14; de Kadt, 1976:9). Tourism has spread unevenly across the globe and between sectors of society (Cater 1995:186). First World countries continue to be the most visited, generate the most income from tourism, and have the largest number of tourists (Mowforth & Munt, 1998:17). Europe receives sixty percent of tourist arrivals, whereas the developing world accounts for twenty percent (Cater, 1995:188).

Economic growth has not consistently trickled down to result in more equitable income distribution, while the gap between rich and poor regions has widened (Hewitt, 1992:234; UNDP, 1996). Even within industrialized nations, the benefits of growth have not spread from core regions to the periphery, as theorized, but instead continue to flow within and between metropolitan core economies (Young, 1995:6), which has resulted in the marginalisation of remote regions and people living there.

The paradox of this uneven growth and development has been explained by an imbalance of economic power, which was often established during colonial times that led to the dependence of developing regions upon developed, industrialized regions (Britton, 1996:161; Fik, 1997; Hewitt, 1992:236; Keller, 1982). Fik (1997:47) expresses that the relationship, based upon trade, began unequally with poorer regions supplying raw materials to developed regions in exchange for manufactured goods. Narrowly based economies of less developed regions were subject to fluctuations of world prices for their primary commodities (Fik, 1997:64). Resulting uneven interdependence is seen as being responsible for maintaining and worsening regional economic disparities both within and between countries (Fik, 1997:79; McMichael, 1996).

Dependency theory by Frank (1972) has been applied to the growth of mass international tourism in the Third World (Britton, 1996:156; Crick, 1989). The historical development of a colonial export economy in a region sets the stage for modern day tourism industries that are dominated by local elites and outside ownership (Milne, 1997:286). Milne further explained that when travellers purchase inclusive foreign-owned airline, hotel and activity packages before they leave home, the main economic benefits leak from the destination region (1997:287). Britton's model for dependent tourism development (1996: 158) explains how this

process forms and reinforces a hierarchical tier of foreign-owned commercial power, leaving only small, peripheral services, which are provided by local entrepreneurs. To such a setting, it seems that the mass tourism industry formed in a manner that placed much of it beyond the control of developing countries. For this reason, international tourism in the Third World has been described as reminiscent of colonial power and control (Allen & Hamnett, 1995; Chambers, 1997:52)

2.2.1 Impacts of tourism

Along with a lack of control, tourism brings other issues to developing regions and countries. The expansion of international tourism can cause local taxes to rise, as well as prices for labour, goods and land (Butler, 1992; Crick, 1989).

Residents may have to choose between tourism employment and traditional pursuits because the timing of a tourist season often conflicts with traditional agricultural or hunting activities (Butler, 1992; Hitchcock, 1997; Pearce 1998; Reimer & Dialla, 1992). Aside from economic considerations, the host environment and society can also suffer adverse impacts. The local environment is a key attraction for tourism, yet a fast-growing industry can result in environmental degradation. Limited infrastructure present in developing regions may not be sufficient to deal with an increase in garbage and sewage, as well as demands for water that come with a large increases in the number of visitors (Butler, 1992; Cater, 1995:189).

In terms of social impacts, residents in less developed regions have little control over tourist expectations or the manner of the contact experienced (Hitchcock, 1997:94). This begins with outsiders' image of the destination, which is largely determined by promotional media that is created and viewed outside the developing region, whether in the form of film, travel brochures or magazines (Milne *et al*., 1998:102; Silver, 1993). As a result, local people may have no control over expectations of arriving tourists.

Furthermore, the behaviour of visitors may be culturally inappropriate for residents such as indigenous groups, which can result in locals becoming unwilling hosts (Smith, 1977:21). The process of acculturation figures prominently in the discussion of social impacts that arise in the meeting of hosts and guests. Much has been written about the stark contrast that exists between idealized views that tourists hold of an area and realities of everyday life for locals (Cohen, 1988; MacCannell, 1973; Milne *et al*., 1998). In order to understand the gap between real and ideal cultures, Cohen (1988:373) considers the impacts of tourism through

the processes of commoditization and authenticity. Firstly, he draws on Greenwood's idea that tourism leads to commoditization, in which culture is packaged for sale to visitors who come to experience 'colourful' local customs, rituals and art. According to Greenwood (1977:131), it is through commoditization that cultural expressions and human relations are changed, which eventually render them meaningless. Since local culture can be commoditized by anyone, without the consent of the participants, it can be expropriated, while local people are exploited (Greenwood, 1977:132). Cohen's (1988:373) second point builds on MacCannell's theory that commoditization destroys the authenticity of cultural expression, which eventually result in the emergence of a surrogate 'staged authenticity'. Through the process of commoditization, cultural expressions become increasingly oriented to the external public, and rituals may be shortened or changed to suit the tastes of tourists.

Chambers (1997:47) points out that the local resident's point of view and motivations are too often missing in discussions of tourism's impacts. Frank's dependency theory has also been criticized for not recognizing the agency of local people and their ability to influence their own development (Corbridge, 1990:627). To conclude that tourism is bad for developing countries would be to disregard the fact that in spite of its inherent impacts, tourism is still one of few economic options that are available to several poor regions and countries (Cater, 1995:190). As Poon (1993:7) indicates, the size and spread of tourism across the globe means that the issue is not a question of whether to develop tourism, but how to develop it.

Persaud and Douglas (1996:59) summarise both positive and negative effects of tourism in the following table (Table 2.1).

Table 2.1: Effects of tourism

POSITIVE	NEGATIVE
Increases and complements financial income.	Increases the consumption of resources and can, in the case of mass tourism, exhaust them.
Improves facilities and infrastructures.	Takes up space and destroys the countryside by creating new infrastructure and buildings.
Allows greater investment for the preservation of natural or cultural enclaves.	Increases waste and litter production.
Avoids or stabilizes emigration of the local population.	Upsets natural ecosystems, introduces exotic species of animal and plants.
Makes tourists and local populations aware of the need to protect the environment and cultural and social values.	Leads to population movement toward areas of tourist concentration.

Raises the socio-cultural level of the local population. Facilitates the commercialization of local products of quality. Allows the exchange of ideas, customs and ways of life.	Encourages purchase of souvenirs that are sometimes rare, natural [or cultural] elements. Leads to a loss of traditional values and a uniformity of cultures. Increases prices and the local population lose ownership of land, houses, trade and services.

Source: (Persaud & Douglas, 1996:59)

2.2.2 Tourism and Sustainable Development

Ecotourism is regarded as a catalyst, which encourages ecologically sustainable development. From here one should understand what is really meant by sustainable development; Harris & Leiper (1995:11) perceive sustainable development as a form of economic growth, which occurs within the context of sound environmental management. As such, the concept of sustainability implies resource conservation, which allows exploitation to support people at a given level of technology and lifestyle in perpetuity.

The concept of sustainable development became widely discussed after the World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED) published the Bruntland report in 1987 (Barrow, 1995; de Kadt, 1992; Hall & Lew, 1998). The report produced a definition that expressed that 'sustainable development is development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs" (WCED 1987: 8). As for tourism, the World Tourism Organisation (WTO) envisages that sustainable tourism leads to management of all resources in such a way that economic, social and aesthetic needs can be fulfilled, while maintaining cultural integrity, essential ecological processes, and biological diversity and life support systems. Swarbrooke (1999:13) estimates that sustainable tourism is tourism, which is economically viable but does not destroy resources on which the future of tourism will depend, notably the physical environment and the social fabric of the host community.

Despite the appeal of sustainable development, however, Hall and Lew (1998:4) draw attention to widespread uncertainty over finding a workable definition. Barrow (1995:370) explores the evolution of the term and its various interpretations and questions regarding whether it is possible to have ongoing development, which is sustainable. Furthermore, Milne (1998: 36) notes that it may not be possible to resolve conflict between different scales of resolution. He asserts that while the contradictory goals of continued economic growth and

ecological and societal stability/sustainability may never be met, the concept of sustainable development provides a focal point for stakeholder discussion (1998:37).

The Bruntland Report was a response to the general recognition of deficiencies in conventional development theory and quantitative economic analysis (de Kadt, 1992:47). One result of unchecked market-led growth is that individuals use natural resources short-sightedly, enticed by short term benefits and heedless of the needs of both marginal populations and future generations (Zazueta, 1995:37). This understanding has created a political shift towards greater regulatory involvement of the state, and managing and directing growth in the best interest of the public (de Kadt, 1992:48). The result is a move towards forms of development that are ecologically-minded, small-scale, based upon a long-range view and, which consider present and future local needs in equal measure. Hawken (1993) demonstrates, however, that this shift does not occur everywhere at the same level. In some cases, only lip service is paid to the concept of sustainable development. The problem of growing regional disparities in development raises the question of how policy decisions are made, and for whose benefit they are made.

“A given political unit is not necessarily of the right size for economic development to benefit those whose need is the greatest. In some cases it may be too small, but in the generality of cases today it is too large” (Schumacher, 1 973:164). Liu (1998) provides an example where tourism growth in less developed countries continues to be promoted in the most accessible regions that have the most infrastructures. While this policy is understandable in a country that has few resources, it reinforces development of a wealthier core and poorer periphery. An "increase in the national cake is viewed as far more important than questions of how the cake might be spatially made and distributed" (Liu, 1998:32).

Hall (1994) has pointed out that coordinated national and regional policy make for more sustainable development. The case of Bali, as presented by Picard (1993:74), illustrates differing views of development at national and regional levels. Bali's national master plan for development of tourism concentrated on luxury resorts, which are mostly owned and operated by large Indonesian or foreign corporations. Picard (1993:81) indicates that this type of development earned foreign currency and provided low-skilled employment for locals, but formed limited links with the domestic Balinese economy. At the same time, unanticipated growth occurred in another sector of the industry. Budget tourists began to arrive and were catered for by small scale locally-owned Balinese accommodation and services. Picard (1993:81) estimates that whereas Indonesia's priority at national level was still the

development of high-end services in Bali, the regional government favours the budget travel market, which allows the local population to own businesses and so benefit more from tourism (1993:86). In comparison of the two scales of development, Rodenburg (1980:187) finds that not only do smaller sale enterprises offer more profit and control to locals, but they are also congruent with traditional social relationships and values.

2.2.3 Ecotourism

Sustainability has now become a major theme in tourism literature, and several texts explore changes in the industry and the emergence of new forms of tourism (Cater & Lowman, 1994; Hall & Lew, 1998; Mowforth & Munt, 1998; Smith & Eadington, 1992). There has, for example, been an increase in demand for travel to previously inaccessible places for the experience of 'untouched' wilderness and cultures (Eagles, 1992:5; Smith, 1996:42; Smith & Eadington, 1992), which makes ecotourism the fastest growing segment of the industry (Cater, 1995:190). Ecotourism occurs on a smaller scale than forms of mass tourism, and is based on the conservation of nature and gaining an understanding of local cultures (Hawkins and Khan, 1998:196).

Ecotourism has generated great interest from governments, tourism enterprises, tourists, conservation groups; and other stakeholders within the industry (Hvenegaard, 1994; Lindberg & Hawkins, 1993). These authors also estimate that one of the reasons for this interest is the availability of pristine natural environments, particularly in Africa.

These natural areas attract increasing numbers of tourists. Second, ecotourism emphasizes small scale, locally owned infrastructure in contradistinction with the expensive infrastructure associated with mass tourism. On the basis of cost, use of local materials and indigenous operations of enterprises is particularly attractive for ecotourism (Cater, 1995:71). Also, ecotourism is sensitive to the fragile nature of ecosystems and cultural systems. These qualities of ecotourism call for greater attention to destination planning, management of resources in line with consumer tastes, quality and price of tourism products (Hvenegaard, 1994). The broad goals of ecotourism dovetail with ideas of sustainable development in the sense that natural resources are utilised for tourism according to local aspirations and local knowledge. However, there are few examples, which demonstrate that the development of ecotourism destinations has gone according to plan (Hvenegaard, 2002:24).

Eco-tourists are expected to have a harmonious relationship not only with nature, but also with the local communities that host them. Hence, they are expected to respect the host

communities, their cultures and customs. This is not to assume that cultural attributes of such communities are readily known to the eco-tourists. Rather, it is to emphasise that tourists are sensitised to local cultural circumstances. Ultimately, a kind of partnership should be developed with the result that cultural insensitivity and various forms of cultural abuse are minimised, if not completely eliminated.

A popular argument in support of ecotourism is that it attracts fewer tourists. However, numbers of tourists should not be a problem in all areas. Tour operators are intent on attracting more visitors. This may be explained by Western's (1993:4) plea that the definition of ecotourism should shift from the narrow focus on small scale developments to principles, which are applicable to nature-related tourism. In his view, 'the principles applied to the mass market can do more good for conservation — and alleviate more harm than a small elitist market'. This perspective emphasises principles of creating and maintaining a balance of tourism, conservation and culture (Western, 1993:10), rather than being preoccupied by reducing the number of tourists.

Initially, eco-tourists were regarded as an elite group of nature enthusiasts, ready to go to remote areas and who are comfortable with foreign cultures. Eco-tourists are older, usually 30 to 50 years; well educated with a minimum college degree qualification; and who have high incomes (Hvenegaard, 1994:28; Whelan, 1991). Most US eco-tourists would likely be professional or retired people who probably already have previous foreign travel experience (Whelan, 1991:5). In general, eco-tourists spend more money than conventional tourists in destination areas. Their preferred activities include trekking, hiking, bird watching, nature photography, wildlife safaris, mountain climbing, camping, fishing, river rafting, canoeing, kayaking, and botanical study (Whelan, 1991:6). The argument here is that eco-tourists need not be an exclusive band of people; they can be diverse groups of individuals from various socioeconomic backgrounds who are brought together by principles that underlie responsible tourism. Finally, supporters of ecotourism proceed on the belief that it achieves both conservation and development objectives (Lindberg *et al*., 1996:546).

Although this assumption has not been tested empirically in Africa, it is clear that resource conservation encourages and supports tourism, and tourism, in turn, provides money that should be ploughed into conservation efforts and local development initiatives (Masozera *et al.,* 2006:207). Nevertheless, McKercher (1993:133) questions whether tourism, as a resource-dependent industry, can survive the current shift toward sustainable development. In fact, he draws attention to the competition between the conservation movement and

resource consumptive economic sectors and points out that sustainable development policy may severely impact wilderness and adventure tourism. However, in spite of apparent contradictions, such new forms of tourism are recognized as a move towards achieving more sustainable development, as suggested by Liu (1998:22). While some (de Kadt 1992; Hall 1994) regard growth in alternative tourism as a result of a shift in social values, opinions vary. Poon (1993:9) indicates that new forms of tourism development are characterized by a demand for flexibility, segmentation and more authentic tourism experiences.

Mowforth and Munt (1998:54) argue that alternative tourism has surfaced not as a response to the impacts of conventional mass tourism, but as an industry-driven, re-invention of itself as 'sustainable'. They (Mowforth and Munt, 1998:56) argue that such forms of tourism are an extension of colonialism and control, which further benefit those who are already advantaged. Although alternative tourism is growing, many agree (Butler, 1992; de Kadt, 1992; Inskeep, 1991; Poon, 1993) that it will not replace mass tourism. Butler (1992:36) argues that some destinations are better suited to smaller scale ecotourism, but that they are also areas that would likely not experience mass tourism, for example, because of inaccessibility. He also stresses that it is possible for alternative forms of tourism to grow into mass tourism without careful management. Mercer (1998:101) contends that regions and nations do not experience unidirectional change in tourism development. De Kadt (1992:49) states that while conventional and alternative tourism are on opposite paths, they should be regarded as continuous. He suggests that policy can push development in either direction, but that policy makers can also promote sustainability by constantly striving to make the conventional more sustainable. Milne and Ateljevic (2001:371) agree and caution that it may be counter productive to differentiate 'new', alternative forms of tourism from 'old' mass tourism. Rather, they can be viewed as interdependent parts of an evolving industry.

Scheyvens (1999:245) considers ways in which to draw a better understanding on how ecotourism ventures impact on the lives of people living in, and around, environments, which eco-tourists frequent. He argues that from a development perspective, ecotourism ventures should only be considered successful if local communities have some measure of control over them and if they share equitably in benefits that emerge from ecotourism activities. Scheyvens (1999:247) proposes an empowerment framework (see Table 2.2) that helps to analyse social, economic, psychological and political impacts of ecotourism on local communities.

Table 2.2: Framework that determines impacts of ecotourism initiatives on local communities

	Signs of Empowerment	Sings of disempowerment
Economic empowerment	Ecotourism brings lasting economic gains to a local community. Cash earned is shared between many households in the community. There are visible signs of improvements from the cash that is earned (for example, improved water systems, houses made of more permanent materials).	Ecotourism merely results in small, spasmodic cash gains for a local community. Most profits go to local elites, outside operators, government agencies, and so on. Only a few individuals or families gain direct financial benefits from ecotourism, while others cannot find a way to share in these economic benefits because they lack capital and/or appropriate skills.
Psychological empowerment	Self-esteem of many community members is enhanced because of outside recognition of the uniqueness and value of their culture, their natural resources and their traditional knowledge. Increasing confidence of community members leads them to seek out further education and training opportunities. Access to employment and cash leads to an increase in status for traditionally low-status sectors of society, for example, women, youths.	Many people have not shared in the benefits of ecotourism, yet they may face hardships because of reduced access to the resources of a protected area. They are thus confused, frustrated, disinterested or disillusioned with the initiative.
Social empowerment	Ecotourism maintains or enhances the local community's equilibrium. Community cohesion is improved as individuals and families work together to build a successful ecotourism venture. Some funds raised are used for community development purposes, for example, to build schools or improve roads.	Disharmony and social decay. Many in the community take on outside values and lose respect for traditional culture and for elders. Disadvantaged groups (for example, women) bear the brunt of problems associated with the ecotourism initiative and fail to share equitably in its benefits. Rather than cooperating, individuals, families, ethnic or socio-economic groups compete with each other for the perceived benefits of ecotourism. Resentment and jealousy are commonplace.
Political empowerment	The community's political structure, which fairly represents the needs and interests of all community groups, provides a forum through which people can raise questions relating to the ecotourism venture and have their concerns dealt with. Agencies initiating or implementing the ecotourism venture seek out the opinions of community groups (including special interest groups of	The community has an autocratic and/or self-interested leadership. Agencies initiating or implementing the ecotourism venture treat communities as passive beneficiaries, failing to involve them in decision-making. Thus the majority of community members feel that they have little or no say over whether the ecotourism initiative operates or the way in which

	women, youths and other socially disadvantaged groups) and provide opportunities for them to be represented on decision-making bodies, for example, the Wildlife Park Board.	it operates.

Source: Scheyvens (1999:247)

When considering whether or not a community has been economically empowered by an ecotourism venture, Scheyvens (1999:247) indicates that it is necessary to consider opportunities, which have arisen in terms of both formal and informal sector employment and business opportunities. He continues that while some economic gains are usually experienced by a community, problems may develop if these are periodic and cannot provide a regular, reliable income.

From a psychological perspective, ecotourism, which is sensitive to cultural norms and builds respect for local traditions, can be empowering for local people (Scheyvens, 1999:248). Conversely, Scheyvens contends that ecotourism, which interferes with customs by, for example, interfering with the integral relationship between a group of people and their land, may have devastating effects.

Scheyvens (1999:248) further explains that social empowerment refers to a situation in which a community's sense of cohesion and integrity has been confirmed or strengthened by an activity such as ecotourism. He asserts that strong community groups, including youth groups, church groups and women's groups, may be signs of an empowered community. In addition, Scheyvens (1999:248) believes that social empowerment is perhaps most clearly a result of ecotourism when profits from the tourism activity are used to fund social development projects such as water supply systems or health clinics in the local area.

Finally, Scheyvens (1999:249) shows that if a community should be politically empowered by ecotourism, their voices and concerns should guide the development of any ecotourism project from the feasibility stage through to its implementation and those diverse interest groups within a community, including women and youths, should also have representation on community and broader decision-making bodies. Akama, cited in Scheyvens (1999:249), argues that for local communities to be able to exert some control over ecotourism activities, however, power should be decentralised from national level to community level (Akama, 1996).

2.2.4 Sustainability and stakeholder participation

Though tourism is by no means a universal panacea for all peripheral regions – several will lack the necessary portfolio of desirable tourist attractions and infrastructure – the introduction of a tourism sector can frequently be regarded as one of the few options for economic, environmental and cultural viability (Bramwell, 1994:2). Thus, it is easy to envisage a local susceptibility to the advertised charms of a new source of economic benefits, and consequent risks of turning a blind eye to environmental and socio-cultural drawbacks that have already been noted in previous tourism development areas. In these circumstances, it has been suggested that the development of a viable tourism industry requires a co-ordinated and co-operative management effort from those who are responsible for delivery of the tourism product (Plog, 1991). If this analysis is accurate, the desirability of multiple stakeholder involvement in the development process seems strongly indicated – in other words, investigation of tourism from an overall host community perspective is merited.

In an attempt to isolate defining characteristics of community tourism, Dernoi (cited in Smith & Eadington, 1995), identifies a privately offered set of hospitality services and features, extended to visitors by local families or a host community, with its prime aim being to establish direct personal and cultural communication between host and guest. The resulting series of high intensity personal contacts will inevitably result in some form of community impacts, and literature since the early 1980s has isolated a number of ways in which these impacts have manifested themselves.

In relation to perceived economic benefits to the community, for example, Long *et al*. (1990:6) comment that much of the work in this field has taken place in communities where tourism is already the single largest source of income (for example, Milman & Pizam, 1988; King *et al*., 1993). However, the nature of perceived impact can be radically different in cases where the subject community is contemplating a move into tourism for the first time. In such cases, it is possible to identify a common 'doomsday strategy', where tourism is proposed as a last resort salvation for economically deteriorating regions, and attitudes in these circumstances are often more positive than in well-established communities, which possess alternative options for economic viability (Perdue *et al*., 1990) – overall support for tourism can be easier to find if residents are pessimistic about the economic future of their community.

In attempting to isolate explanatory variables, which determine resident attitudes, Faulkner and Tideswell's (1997:23) review of the principal literature concludes that a wide range of

potentially salient criteria is evident, and that results of intensive academic effort have been inconclusive at best – the presence of a wide range of opinion diversity within and between communities has negated any possibility of a generally accepted set of variables, which can reliably explain or predict the full spectrum of potential resident reaction. Accepting Ross's (1992:15) claim that heterogeneity of resident attitudes is an academic fact of life, one can, therefore, suggest that further research in this area is essentially futile.

Several regional tourism development projects have led to resident communities enjoying the worst of both worlds. Whilst inheriting the responsibility to create a friendly and welcoming environment for visitors, in line with the substantial interpersonal component of community driven tourism, they frequently have been given no choice in the visitor type that is targeted or the nature of the tourism product that is presented. As some authors have previously indicated (for example, Liu *et al*., 1987; Marsh & Henshall, 1987:47-54), this exclusion of residents from the development process can result in a considerable loss of effectiveness, with local people handicapped in their ability to recognise potential costs and benefits of tourism, and are consequently ill-equipped to make informed choices about how subsequent tourism activity should unfold.

As a result, there have been frequent calls to involve the local community from early stages of development discussion, claiming that residents who concur with tourism goals and objectives set for their region will be equally happy with the outcomes, which ensue (Murphy, 1981:192). In this respect, isolation of concerns that are specific to a given community has often been advocated as an appropriate task for local people who will be affected (Ahmed, 1986; Keogh, 1990:454; Lankford, 1994:38) and, if this suggestion is adopted, Murphy (1988:101) argues that the possibility of sustainable development choices being made will be considerably enhanced.

Though examples of successful implementation are rare, full community involvement in the development process is at least theoretically possible. As Ap and Crompton (1993:48) argue, regional resident groups may possess a range of abilities and techniques, which are not available to traditional inheritors of development responsibility, and resident self-interest levels can contribute to articulation of unique strategies to cope with what will often be a new and unfamiliar activity. Whilst any such strategies may draw on situational factors, which are equally unique and, which will not readily generalise towards comparative situations elsewhere, Simpson (2001:9) suggests that it is possible to establish a set of guideline

principles (see Table 2.3), which summarise an optimal relationship between community tourism development and potential sustainability.

Table 2.3: *Guideline principles for optimal relationship in community tourism development*

• Local resident perceptions will determine attitudes towards tourism development
• Local residents must identify salient issues of local concern
• Local residents must determine pace and scale of development
• Development must coincide with community aspirations and abilities
• A wide range of resident opinion will exist within and between communities
• Resident participation will result in support for ensuing development

Source: Simpson (2001:10)

2.2.5 Tourism planning process and approaches

Whilst Simpson (2001:10) suggests that sustainability in regional tourism development requires reconciliation of several conflicting viewpoints, it is also necessary to recognise its foundations in the premise of long-term thinking – of taking the future into account in decision making rather than concentrating on short term implications of decisions that are made. In this respect, as Harrison and Husbands (1996) suggest, sustainable tourism is not a product or a brand – it is a way of conducting planning, policy and development to ensure that tourism benefits are equitably distributed between all stakeholders.

For Butler (1997), the pursuit of appropriately sustainable tourism development goals is inevitably linked to a formal planning process through consideration of a circular model of causality. In this approach, development of any kind implies future change; change implies a range of future impacts; impacts imply a need for future management; and management implies support for sustainability in future development efforts. Hence, the inherently long-term focus of these ideas, and the intuitively attractive concept of stakeholder involvement lead inexorably to consideration of appropriate planning practice as a logical response.

Formalised planning for tourism has existed since the advent of jet aircraft and the subsequent explosion in mass charter tourism. In a succinct analysis of the historical evolution of tourism planning traditions, Getz, cited in Simpson (2001:11), has identified four discrete approaches, which combine to represent a staged development of tourism planning philosophy. See Table 2.4.

Table 2.4: Tourism planning approaches

• Boosterism approach: tourism is an entirely beneficial activity and the extent of its operations should be maximised wherever possible
• Economic approach: tourism is a valuable force for economic development and is best used to generate income and employment for selected regions
• Physical/Spatial approach: tourism should be developed in such a way that negative environmental impacts are minimised
• Community approach: tourism is a social and political force, which can best be developed through the medium of local control

Source: Getz (1987:4): adapted from Simpson (2001:11).

Though the approaches shown in Table 2.4 have tended to emerge in parallel rather than consecutively, and examples of each remain evident in a variety of situations throughout the world, the physical/spatial approach enjoys considerable support through the efforts of writers such as Inskeep (1991) and Gunn (1994) and, as a result, often appears to be the dominant tourism planning philosophy.

However, principles of sustainable development are more clearly perceptible in Getz's community based model, and this relationship is acknowledged by Hall (1995:17) in his identification of a fifth planning approach – that of sustainable tourism planning. Hall's vision of appropriate planning is centred on a rejection of Getz's boosterism approach, allied to a perceived necessity to incorporate elements of economic, physical/spatial and community philosophies. Hall (1995:68) acknowledges the need for integration of tourism with other economic activities, and advocates a long-term view, which seeks to maximise tourism's benefits whilst minimising or eliminating environmental, cultural and social instability. However, whilst Hall clearly endorses sustainability as a desirable outcome of all planning activity; he acknowledges that any efforts to determine a uniformly ideal planning model may represent an inappropriate approach. An aura of inevitable failure surrounds such ambitions, as site specific influences will consistently intervene to the extent that a model, which is effective in one region cannot be automatically generalised to others – as Gunn (1994:10) notes, any search for a universal planning panacea is probably futile.

Hall (2000:4) has subsequently argued that optimum forms of tourism planning remain a contested concept, and reflect a perceptual gap between global and national interest in sustainability, and the kaleidoscope of local issues, which combine to determine regional land use and infrastructural development. In these circumstances, he suggests that any further

effort to establish a detailed prescriptive planning model may be counter-productive, arguing that a more useful contribution lies with the establishment of a generic planning framework, which is sufficiently broad-based to allow flexible interpretation in the face of varying circumstances.

Thus, Hall (2008:8) emphasises the need to distinguish between the planning process and the plan itself: whilst the nature and content of individual plans will continue to reflect unlimited variation, it is nevertheless appropriate to strive towards a consistent and defining paradigm within which those plans may evolve. If this approach is adopted, Hall (2008:14) argues that the developmental direction, which is eventually selected – the actual tourism plan itself – will inevitably reflect the range of local influences, which characterise individual regions, and will accordingly represent an outcome that is tailored to the specific needs of the area under review. The concept of strategic planning has been frequently advanced, in the generic management literature, as a suitable mechanism by which a process framework of this nature can be realised.

The concept of strategic planning is a cornerstone of conventional management theory, and has been discussed at length in the management literature (for example, Steiner, 1979; Kotler *et al*., 1993; Mintzberg, 1994). Described as 'a comprehensive plan of action that sets a critical direction, and guides the allocation of resources to achieve long-term objectives' (Schermerhorn, 1996:160), strategic planning embodies several advantages, which are coincident with previously identified criteria for sustainability – it implies a long-term perspective, requires consideration of multiple situational influences, is clearly goal oriented, and can accommodate a wide range of conflicting perspectives.

Whilst a lengthy evolution of literature has resulted in a varied portfolio of terminologies being applied to components of strategic planning, it is possible to identify substantial agreement in terms of its principal stages.

As Hall (2000:7) correctly notes, the mechanics of strategic planning in any given situation will be influenced by the environment in which it is conducted, and will reflect institutional arrangements and culture, stakeholder values and attitudes, as well as a range of broader economic, political and social issues: in simple terms, participants in any specific project will bring their own particular perspectives to bear when considering the task, which faces them. However, if regional tourism development activity consistently involves all stakeholders in a

process, which is guided by a strategic orientation, the literature indicates that prospects for ultimate sustainability will be considerably enhanced.

2.3 Emphasis on community participation in tourism decision-making

As has been discussed in previous sections, Din (1997:155) and Lele (1991:613) argue that the process of development must embody local participation if it should succeed, even in the short run. In a review of sustainable development and popular participation, Redclift (1995) shows that differences between northern (developed) and southern (developing) regions exist not only in their material circumstances, but also between their systems of knowledge. He argues that currently, sustainable development thinking employs northern management in solving southern problems (1995:28). In order to be truly applicable to developing countries, policy must value contributions of local knowledge.

Zazueta (1995) provides reasoning behind public participation: “First, if ways to involve marginal populations in policy-making are found, projects and programs will better respond to their needs. Second, it is in the interest of these populations to support policies and projects that will directly improve environmental management ... And third, once people's basic needs are met, they will be more willing to invest in the well-being of future generations” (1995: 1).

Added to this is the base of ecological knowledge possessed by local people who may have developed sustainable resource management systems over centuries of living in a region (Vivian, 1995:53). This view of bottom-up development promotes devolution of power from central political systems to community level (de Kadt, 1992:49). As Zazueta (1995: 20) notes: “clearly, government has a catalytic role to play in creating new, more democratic, and flexible policy-making institutions, structures, and methods; in developing the negotiation capacities of marginal groups; and in making available the information needed for informed choices”. With an understanding of issues that surround the choice between different forms of development, stakeholders, including members of the public, can decide upon the route that fits their aspirations and environment.

Posing the question 'who benefits from growth?' has led to a new ideology for development. However, the structure of the planning process and the way in which it is managed determines how democratic participation is actually conducted. Haywood (1988:108) emphasizes that strategic planning is meaningless unless it is accepted and implemented at an operational level. Tourism planning has been advocated as a means of bringing

development to a broader section of society (Louw & Smart, 1998). Through intervention and monitoring of the tourism industry, planners can manage the impacts and distribution of benefits.

Much has been published on the impacts of conventional or mass tourism development, but alternative ideas for achieving more sustainable development only began to surface in academic literature during the 1980s (Gunn, 1979;Haywood, 1988; Inskeep, 1991; Murphy, 1985). The focus became long term planning, based on local decision-making. Described as a seminal piece of work, Murphy's "Tourism: a Community Approach" (1985), is seen as the blueprint for local participation in tourism planning (Taylor, 1995:488). Woodley (1993:136) notes, while Din (1997:156) agrees that the community based approach to tourism development is viewed as a prerequisite for sustainability. Still, for some researchers, the exact meaning of the term 'community based' remains unclear (Taylor, 1995:488; Woodley, 1993:137). On this subject, Din (1997:161) makes the point that: "Tourism planners and policy makers seldom pay attention to issues considered relevant among academics. As for the host, they have never sought to understand the subject except on their terms, and their terms, like others, usually revolve around the question of what is in it for them."

A central issue in community based development is how much local control exists. Different definitions range from: "giving an opportunity to local people to become involved in the decision-making process" (Tosun & Jenkins, 1998:110), to "producing a tourism product that the community as a whole wishes to present to the tourism marker" (Murphy, 1985:37). The choice of strategy appears to be mostly influenced by the funding agency or institution (Tosun & Jenkins, 1998). Depending on how terms are defined and portrayed to the community involved, differences can arise regarding the level of control expected and that, which is actually given (Reimer & Dialla, 1992).

Tourism planning has evolved by adopting the view that residents' local knowledge is essential for decision-making (Gunn, 1994). Gunn (1994: 21) provides a comparison between conventional and new interactive planning. The most significant difference is in equating the importance of stakeholder and planner roles. Open participation consists of the planner acting as a 'value committed advocate' rather than a value-neutral expert'. Still, Gunn's ultimate belief in the indispensable rote of the professional planner does not go as far in terms of community control as others have. Tosun and Jenkins (1998) review approaches to tourism planning with reference to their suitability to development in Third World countries. They find

that no one model perfectly fits developing countries, and instead suggest training and developing the planning expertise of local residents.

Din (1997: 153) comments that the texts on tourism planning generally approach the subject from a macro level. “While they support the idea that tourism should benefit the community, they do not explain how to mobilize local involvement”. Planning for participation denotes a move from the question of who benefits, to the mechanics of who participates.

On the issue of community based participation techniques, therefore, Din (1997), Keogh (1990) and Simmons (1994) identify methods such as meetings; selected interviews; public attitude surveys; mail out surveys; focus groups and the Delphi technique as useful. Meetings have an advantage over the other forms as they can be conducted by locals, whereas more sophisticated methods rely on being administered by a professional (Mowforth and Munt, 1998:213).

Mowforth and Munt (1998:241) also review community participation by using Pretty's typology (see Table 2.5). Here, seven levels of public involvement begin from the situation where local residents have no power or, at best, engage in a passive role. The opposite end of the spectrum is 'self-mobilization' where people participate by taking initiatives, which are independent of external institutions.

Table 2.5: Pretty’s Typology of Participation: how people participate in development programmes and projects

Typology	**Characteristics of each type**
Manipulative participation	Participation is pretence with peoples’ representatives on official boards but who are unelected and have no power.
Passive participation	People participate by being told what has been decided and what has already happened. It involves unilateral announcements by an administration or project management who do not listen to peoples’ responses. The information offered belongs only to external professionals.
Participation by Consultation	People participate by being consulted or by answering questions. External agents define problems and information gathering processes and control analysis. This process does not concede any share in decision making and professionals are under no obligation to adopt peoples’ views.
Participation for Material incentives	People participate by contributing resources such as labour, in return for food, cash or other material incentives.

Functional participation	Peoples' participation is seen by external agents as a means of achieving project goals, especially reductions in costs. People may form groups to meet pre-determined objectives. This participation may be inter-active and may involve shared decision making, but tends to arise only after major decisions have been made by external agents. Local people may only be co-opted to serve external goals.
Interactive participation	People participate in joint analysis, development of action plans and the formation, or strengthening, of local institutions. Participation is seen as a right, not just as a means of achieving project goals. The process involves inter-disciplinary methodologies that seek multiple perspectives and make use of structured and systematic learning processes. As groups take control of local decisions and determine how local resources are used, so they have a stake in maintaining structures and practices.
Self Mobilization	People participate by taking initiatives, independently of external institutions, to change systems. They develop contacts with external institutions for resources and technical advice that they need, but retain control over how the resources are used. Such self-initiated mobilisation and collective action may or may not challenge existing inequitable distributions of wealth and power.

Source: Pretty (1995:1252)

An examination of the middle ranges of this typology shows that the exercise of public consultation does not necessarily mean that local ideas will be reflected in the final development.

In addition to considering the degree of citizen involvement in community participation, Simmons (1994:99) highlights two other key elements: equity and efficiency of participation. Planners should balance incompatibility between these three elements; each increase in the degree of citizen participation is more time consuming. As Mowforth and Munt (1998:242) show, the concepts behind public participation are relatively new and the techniques are flawed. Since communities are not homogenous in their view, but may have conflicts of interest, the question of who participates becomes of interest in itself.

Getz and Jamal (1994:153) point out that Murphy's model does not provide a process for sorting out conflicting and complex issues within a community. Rather than relying on confrontation, the writers recommend that stakeholders should adopt a collaborative approach and they argue that this consensus-based tourism planning model produces a communal strategic vision, and requires environmental, industry and community interests to recognise their interdependence (1994:154).

Madrigal (1995:98) and Ryan *et al*. (1998:120) offer another approach, which involves clustering groups within communities according to their attitudes toward tourism. Clusters, which range in their level of support for tourism, can then be examined to find other common features that may act as determinants for opinions. Additionally, they can indicate, which groups within the population feel strongly enough about tourism to participate in decision-making. On this issue, Taylor (1995:489) questions whether community participation produces tourism development that is different from any other kind. He argues that those in the community with the most to gain from tourism are the ones who participate.

Taylor (1995:489) further suggests that such an insider approach may only differ from an outside initiative in its political expedience, lending towards the appearance of local empowerment. Zazueta (1995:22) draws attention to the fact that there are degrees of power, influence and access to decision-making within communities. For example, among marginal populations, local elites who speak for the community may in fact only represent their own interests. As with any research, the findings of local attitude studies are only as good as the sample, which is representative of the whole population.

In the past, examples of the successful application of a community based approach to tourism development were rare (Woodley 1993:137). Inskeep (1991) agrees that the degree to which a plan is workable and fits into the local community has not always been an effective part of tourism planning. Sofield (1993) provides an example of the gap between tourism planning, policy and implementation in the Solomon Islands. In this case, the policy for development was based upon a public participation study, which involved extensive consultation throughout all levels of government and within local communities.

The plan included both international standard resorts and small-scale indigenous tourism businesses. However, existing legislation and regulations were not considered. The legal structure placed constraints upon the development of the village based plans, leaving no room for the application of traditional resources, skills and systems. There is now recognition that in order to be successful, community based planning must include the implementation stage, and must be flexible and able to respond to changing circumstances (Gunn, 1994; Inskeep, 1991). Table 2.6 shows that Ashley and Roe (1998:7) exhibit different forms and examples of community involvement in tourism activities.

Summarily, there are several potential benefits when stakeholders in a destination collaborate and attempt to build a consensus about tourism policies. According to Healey (1998), firstly,

such collaboration potentially avoids the cost of resolving adversarial conflicts among stakeholders in the long term. Healey explains that adversarial conflicts are wasteful as stakeholders entrench their mutual suspicions, improve their adversarial skills and play out similar conflicts around each subsequent issue. Secondly, collaborative relations may be more politically legitimate if they give stakeholders a greater influence in decision-making, which affects their lives (Benveniste, 1989).

Table 2.6: Different forms of community involvement in tourism

Type of enterprise/institution	**Nature of local involvement**	**Examples**
Private business run by outsider	• Employment • Supply goods and services	• Kitchen staff in a lodge • Sale of food, building materials, and so on
Enterprise or informal sector operation run by local entrepreneur	• Enterprise ownership • Self employment • Supply of goods and services	• Craft sales, food kiosk, campsite, home stays • Guiding services • Hawking, sale of fuel wood, food
Community enterprise	• Collective ownership • Collective or individual management • Supply of goods & services • Employment or contributed labour	• Community campsite • Craft centre • Cultural centre
Joint venture between community and private operator	• Contractual commitments • Shares in revenue • Lease/investment of resources • Participation in decision–making	• Revenue-sharing from lodge to local community on agreed terms • Community leases land/resources/concession to lodge • Community holds equity in lodge
Tourism planning body	• Consultation • Representation • Participation	• Local consultation in regional tourism planning • Community representatives on tourism board and in planning floor

Source: Ashley & Roe (1998:7).

And thirdly, this collaboration greatly improves the coordination of policies and related actions, whilst promoting consideration of social, economic and environmental impacts of tourism. The resulting outcomes are potentially more efficient and sustainable (Lane, 1994). Furthermore, collaboration adds value by building on the store of knowledge, insights, and capabilities of stakeholders in the destination (Bramwell & Broom, 1989). For example, Roberts and Bradley (1991) suggest that the sharing of ideas among stakeholders results in a richer understanding of issues and leads to more innovative policies. Such joint working may

also promote a shared ownership of resulting policies, and thereby channel energies into joint implementation or co-production (Susskind & Elliot, 1993).

Nevertheless, Hall (1994) argues that while locally-based tourism collaborations may offer advantages to stakeholders and destinations, their development gives rise to difficult challenges. For example, policy ideas, institutional practices and resource allocations embedded within the society may, to an extent, often restrict the influence of particular stakeholders on collaborative arrangements. The power of stakeholders is often unequal, and Hall (1994:52) believes that "power governs the interaction of organizations, agencies and individuals that influence, or try to influence, the formulation of tourism policy and the manner it should be implemented".

2.4 Conservation significance of community participation in tourism

Sustainable development presumes the well-being of individuals and communities in a people-centred and conservation-based development (Gakahu, 1992:117). This idea is based on the notion that local people have the greatest repertoire of knowledge of their ecology to be able to manage the resource system in a sustainable manner (Sindiga, 1999). Hence, local populations should be involved in creative ways both in conservation, and in direct tourism activities. Community-based conservation is a bottom-up approach to natural resources management. It is the reverse of long-held top-down conservation strategies, which tended to be technocratic and denied local people direct benefits of their participation in conservation (Western & Wright, 1994: 7; Murphy, 1985:153).

More than any other industry, tourism development depends on the goodwill and cooperation of local populations (Murphy, 1985:153). Such community involvement in wildlife conservation for tourism has worked with measurable success, for example, under the communal area management programme for indigenous resources (CAMPFIRE) in Zimbabwe (Murindagomo, 1990; Matzke & Nabene, 1996; Olthof, 1995; Hill, 1996). CAMPFIRE guidelines provide that 50% of net revenues from wildlife utilisation should be applied to local projects in areas in which wildlife are located (Hill, 1996: 114). The key to wildlife conservation in Zimbabwe was the 1975 legislation, which allowed landowners to derive direct benefits from wildlife.

Rural communities earn income mainly through hunting safaris. Some villagers have developed land use plans, provided access to primary education for children, created local employment and provided resources to cushion households against drought (Matzke &

Nabene, 1996). Also, community-based tourism development has been the key stated policy of the Namibian government (Ashley & Garland, 1994; Ashley, 1995).

As Ashley and Garland (1994:2) also indicate, community participation in resource management for tourism has potential capacity to increase incomes and employment, develop skills and institutions, and thereby empower local people. Ecotourism could thus fuel economic growth, equitable distribution of resources and, in the process, alleviate poverty. More importantly, community participation could guarantee local support for conservation and natural resource utilisation (Ashley & Garland, 1994: 2). Only when rural communities share in the control and management of wildlife and derive economic benefits from sustainable use and management of wildlife, do conflicts and competition for resources, which threaten parks, become minimised (Ashley, 1995). Brett (1996) does, however, caution against too much optimism in using participatory mechanisms to manage development. In fact, he argues that unduly large community groups could hamper decision-making, generate greater social conflicts and reduce output. Besides, community organisations could become complex thereby requiring large outlays of resources to manage. However, as in the Zimbabwean example, some villagers have succeeded in decision-making on the distribution of revenues from safari hunters (Matzke & Nabene, 1996).

Another setback in terms of community participation, as Brett (1996) believes, is the assumption that communities are homogenous groups. Every community comprises diverse elements on the basis of defined criteria such as income, education, religious affiliation, gender, resource ownership and so on. This diversity in community composition can lead to problems of equity in access to resources and sharing benefits. Brett (1996), however, suggests that whatever procedures are used, planners should be sensitised to the fact that communities comprise several segments, and each should be given due attention in order to resolve conflicts and advance goals and objectives, which are common to all groups.

2.5 Practical aspects of stakeholder participation in the tourism development [planning] process

The tourism industry can easily be visualised as a fragmented compendium of small and medium-sized businesses, which provide a wide spectrum of services for an even wider range of customer motivations and needs; and it seems clear that a similarly diverse range of attitudes may exist towards future development. It has, therefore, been frequently suggested that a wide range of stakeholder opinion should be canvassed in relation to future tourism development.

In an early attempt to isolate legitimate stakeholder groupings in the tourism development process, Gunn (cited in Pigram, 1994) highlighted the role of four key players – the tourist, the tourism developer, government planning and control agencies, and the local populace – an arguably simplistic categorisation, which can nevertheless be acknowledged as an appropriate first step towards identification of involved and affected parties. In this respect, this review has previously argued that it is realistic to anticipate that multiple perspectives may result in low opinion unanimity within and between stakeholders, while it retains an overall perspective of tourism as a composite system, which should take these views into account. Table 2.7 shows that Simpson (2001:15) proposes an enhanced range of parties that should be involved in all stages of tourism planning.

It is recognised that these broad groupings (Table 2.7) of stakeholder interest can realistically represent guideline categories only, as site specific influences can mediate the nature and relative importance of each group. However, the literature has identified specific considerations, which are commonly critical in respect of each identified category, and these are discussed in the paragraphs, which follow.

Table 2.7: Stakeholder groups for consultation

Governmental:	– National, regional and local government
	– National and regional tourism organisations
	– Government departments with links to tourism
Visitation:	– Existing visitor groups
Community:	– tourism industry operators
	– non-tourism business practitioners
	– local community groups
	– indigenous peoples' groups
	– local residents

Source: Simpson (2001:15)

Elliot (1997) asserts that government involvement in tourism development can be measured in two ways – the extent and nature of allocated statutory responsibilities, and the methods used by the public sector to discharge these responsibilities. Previous researchers (for example, Dowling, 1993; Long, 1994; Kearsley, 1997) have addressed this issue through secondary data review, revealing two critical aspects of government participation, which require interpretative comment.

Firstly, the locus of planning responsibility and power can vary along a continuum, which includes national government (Britton, 1977), regional or provincial administrations (Dowling, 1993), and local body activities (Dymond, 1997, Kearsley, 1997). Despite an occasional image of bureaucratic inefficiency, various levels of government agency are generally recognised as best equipped to administer the tourism planning process, particularly when their comprehensive organisational structure is contrasted with the factional and fragmented nature of the greater tourism industry. In this context, however, the distribution of planning responsibility between levels of government can be infinitely variable, and can materially affect the realisation of full stakeholder participation in any specific planning process.

Secondly, there may be considerable variance in the degree to which institutional planners accept and discharge responsibilities that are delegated to them. At any level of government, the bureaucracy will include both elected politicians and appointed officials, each of whom brings an individual perspective to the planning issues that their position requires them to confront, while some authors have noted a clear predisposition towards further delegation of the tourism planning function (Moore & Dredge, 1992; Edgell *et al.*, 2008). The extent to which responsibility is discharged, delegated or shared will clearly impact on the resulting planning process, and subsequently on the degree to which ensuing strategies can command institutional and community support.

Page and Getz (1997) state that issues that relate to existing visitor market segments are the least researched and understood process in (rural) tourism, whilst Winter (1987) identifies characteristics, attitudes and expectations of visitors as a clear 'missing link' in the impacts literature. Despite the existence of an early body of exploratory work, which sought to establish an underlying typology of tourist behaviour patterns (for example, Cohen, 1972; Smith, 1977 and Weaver, 2007:174 -190), subsequent consideration of the interplay between tourist and resident has been limited. Though attention has been paid to aspects of tourist motivation and behaviour, this has usually been restricted to demographic characteristics (Butler, 1975; Bramwell, 1993), and economic behaviour or a psycho-graphically based classification of visitors (Schewe & Calantone, 1978; Lawson *et al.*, 1997). Hence, in spite of some evidence to suggest that visitor type can impact substantially on the attitudes and behaviours of resident populations (Liu & Var, 1986; Ross, 1992 and Weaver, 2007), there have been no reported instances of visitor representation on tourism strategy formulation teams.

For some authors, the concept of overall host community participation in the tourism planning process is an idealistic proposition with little chance of effective implementation. Haukland's (1984) study of the introduction of tourism in a 'doomsday' situation notes that whilst initial resident attitudes have been encouraging, a number of practical barriers to full participation have become apparent. Haukland (1984) acknowledges that, initially, high levels of resident support can be subject to future evaporation according to the cycles proposed by Doxey (1975) and Butler (1980), whilst both MacEochaidh (1994) and Addison (1996) identify problems, which are related to a serious lack of business skills amongst a local community population that is unaccustomed to entrepreneurial activity. Gartner (996) adds that community residents do not often understand the economic benefits derived from tourism, and that instead they tend to focus more on the negative impacts resulting from congestion and overcrowding.

MacEochaidh's (1984) comments recall barriers to community participation, which are identified by both Woodley (1993) and Gilbert (1993) – the existence of multiple interest levels amongst the community (from strong support to total apathy), a lack of industry knowledge to support informed comment, a mistrust of participation by external experts, and inadequacy of access to development funds and tourism industry expertise. Hence, there is at least a possibility that writers such as Taylor (1995) are correct when they say that the community objective is an impossible dream.

Despite the relatively well-established nature of community planning theory, specific examples of community involvement are difficult to locate: a review of the major planning models with claims to a community orientation, reveals that each has an element of community involvement, while levels of participation appear to be minor in the extreme (Simpson, 2001). Major input from communities is restricted to the ability to comment on the appropriateness of the solution selected by institutional planners and, in this respect, it is possible to recognise that community consultation is present in several cases: however, community participation is a much rarer commodity.

Even in the few cases where resident opinion is actively sought in early stages, fatal weaknesses appear elsewhere in the process. For example, Ritchie (1993) carefully outlines methods that are used to derive a community led vision for the city of Calgary [Canada], and offers detailed guidance on how communities should go about foundation planning for long-term tourism development. However, his point is rather negated by a vision, which was

determined through the participation of exactly 18 local citizens who were drawn from an urban population of almost one million people.

On other occasions where genuine community participation has featured, practical difficulties have resulted in unsatisfactory outcomes, with the theoretically co-operative process being characterised by an overwhelming stakeholder inability to agree (Williams *et al*., 1998). In these circumstances, it is quite feasible to conclude, as do Middleton and Hawkins (1998) that a community driven tourism planning process may lead to no better quality of decision making than public or private sector domination.

2.6 Review of community conservation

Hackel (2001:726) estimates that the term community conservation or community-based conservation (CBC) refers to "wildlife conservation efforts that involve rural people as an integral part of a wildlife conservation policy". Key elements of such programs are that local communities participate in resource planning and management and that they gain economically from wildlife utilization (2001:726). He further argues that this approach acts to make rural people a constituency for wildlife and, therefore, active backers of wildlife protection. In the following sub sections the research study reviews and discusses a theoretical framework for the emergence of community conservation; a description of community conservation; barriers to community conservation; and how to enable community conservation.

2.6.1 Emergence of community conservation

The modern conservation movement emerged in 19th century Europe, in response to population growth and the impact of industrialisation on the environment (Western, 2000: 54). Western (2000) also notes that before long, jurisdiction over natural resources passed largely into government hands throughout the western world.

Current conservation policy and practice is vested in government, and until recently has done little to encourage public participation in conservation (Western, 2000: 53). It has also tended to focus on changing the conservation awareness and behaviour of individuals rather than groups or communities (Pretty & Ward, 2001:3).

Agrawal and Gibson (1999:632), however, indicate that poor outcomes from several government led conservation efforts have moved attention to the potential of community

conservation. Agrawal and Gibson add that other supporting factors for this move include a trend towards greater public participation, indigenous communities, which emphasise a stewardship role for populations in relation to nature, disillusionment with state and market conservation approaches, as well as increasingly vocal non government organisations.

As a result, in the last two decades community conservation efforts have become widespread globally and communities have reportedly become "the locus of conservationist thinking" (Agrawal & Gibson, 1999:631).

2.6.2 Describing community conservation

Hackel (2001) believes that conservation is fundamentally about restoring, protecting and maintaining natural processes and ecosystems. Community conservation initiatives involve local communities and interest groups that undertake this restorative and protective work. Horwich and Lyon (2007:377) identify key characteristics of community conservation projects, which include:

- Community participation (of varying degrees and levels);
- An inclusive and holistic approach;
- Being flexible in implementation; and
- Typically small scale financially and spatially.

Agrawal and Gibson outline how within community conservation literature 'community' tends to be conceived as a small place based unit (such as a neighbourhood or suburb), or as a homogenous or undifferentiated group (within which harmony reigns and outside of which conflicts prevail), or as a group with common interests and shared norms concerning resource use (1999: 633-636). The assumption is that these types of community can achieve desirable resource use and conservation outcomes. They can also, however, hold norms, which support environmental degradation and exploitative behaviour, or resist outside attempts to change.

Hence, Agrawal and Gibson (1999:634) warn against simplistic and idealised perceptions of community conservation. These include assuming that local people possess more knowledge about how to conserve the area in which they live than others; that if communities are not actively involved in resource management they will use resources destructively; and that as it is in community interests to protect their environment, they will do so. These assumptions can underplay the complexity of communities, how local interests and processes work within

them, and between communities and external groups. Also, viewing communities as an organic whole fails to attend to their differences, and the role of local politics and competing interests.

Agrawal and Gibson, therefore, argue that a more realistic and accurate view of communities and their relationship with natural resources should pay attention to three core aspects of communities (1999: 636-638), namely:

- That they are made up of multiple actors with multiple interests and actors who attend to their own interests who can change as circumstances change.
- The processes through which people interrelate at a local level, and between the local level and outside agencies, including government.
- The formal and informal rules and norms that shape peoples' interactions with each other and nature.

In general, community conservation is place based, participatory and often focused on problems beyond the scope of the environmental regulatory system (Meyer, 2005:4). Meyer (2005) also indicates that some efforts are organic and ground up, driven by a crisis or problem or by concerned individuals, while others are government driven, seeking to encourage public participation or to tackle problems that are difficult to address through conventional top-down methods. Agrawal and Gibson (1999:638) state that regardless of the level of community involvement, community conservation typically involves policies, rules and regulations, which are developed by government rather than communities.

Allen *et al*. (2002:30-31) cite Pretty's 1995 participation continuum (see Table 4) to describe types of community engagement in agriculture, which can be usefully applied to community based conservation, and express that participation in the following table.

In addition, Forgie *et al*. (2001:40-41) identify the following points as guiding principles for community based conservation initiatives:

- Localised and community solutions should be a first approach rather than a back-up measure.
- Different communities and circumstances require different responses and support. Professional advice, administrative assistance and expertise should complement local

knowledge, but agency support provided to communities should not encourage dependency.

- It is important for agencies to work with existing groups and not to displace them.
- Community conservation initiatives are more effective if they involve all stakeholders – the broader the base of community representation the better.
- Community based initiatives should be issue-driven with specific goals.
- The organisational structure should not precede local expression of interest, and organisational models should not be imposed from outside.
- An integrated and collaborative approach by agencies that are involved in community conservation efforts is required.

2.6.3 Barriers to community conservation

In his study in New Zealand, James (2001) undertook five focus groups comprised of people from Auckland's general public (including older and younger people, parents, urban Maori and Pacific people) on conservation issues facing Auckland; their awareness and views of the Department of Conservation and involvement in conservation. Among reasons given for not being involved in community based conservation, were a lack of information about opportunities for involvement, lack of advice and help to undertake conservation on their own land, not knowing who to contact to have their say about issues of concern, being too busy or that hands-on conservation activity is not appealing.

James (2001); King (1996) and Bennett *et al*., (1999) also highlight the following, as barriers and obstacles to community conservation:

- Finding resources for projects/initiatives, including funding expert assistance;
- Lack of long term commitment of resources;
- Unrealistic objectives and expectations;
- Lack of threat/issue perceived. Willingness to participate must come from the community itself – if catalysts, leaders and sponsors appear dormant then government agencies may need to provide the impetus to activate them;
- Lack of capacity – several communities do not have the capacity to initiate change, and there may be conflicts or economic considerations that override environmental concerns (especially in lower socioeconomic communities); and
- Economic barriers to changing practices – land management practices can improve more for economic reasons than environmental considerations, and the most commonly identified barriers to more sustainable practices are economic in nature.

2.6.4 Agency barriers to supporting community conservation

Little (1994:351) reveals that agencies can be reluctant to work with community groups owing to reservations about directing resources where performance measurement can be difficult, and the often slow implementation rates for community based approaches. Allen *et al*. (2002: 32), further add that agencies can also be unclear regarding what they want to achieve in supporting community conservation, be fearful of sharing control and organisations seldom speak with one voice and, therefore, give mixed messages to communities.

Agencies should be aware of community mistrust of government, inequities in costs and benefits of conservation, and deficits of knowledge and power in communities to undertake conservation, especially in poor and disadvantaged communities (Western, 2000: 60). Moreover, community groups can also find it difficult to link with the right people in local government and across various departments of agencies (Scott 2007:18). Supporting community conservation can require agencies to relinquish control over rules and outcomes arising (Agrawal and Gibson, 1999:640). Also, how agency outcomes will unfold in local areas through community conservation can not be plotted precisely, only roughly assessed (1999:640). This means that there can be limited certainty regarding outcomes, comprising goal and target setting. Letting things unfold is often of limited appeal to agencies desiring accountability, clear and quick results.

There can be some resistance to integrated management within agencies, including how to mesh narrow agency mandates with the broad aims of community based ecosystem management (Western, 2000). Government agencies tend to protect their traditional domains of influence and authority and can be reluctant to take responsibility in areas that are not usually part of their role.

Agencies can also be slow to respond to grassroots signals that people are ready to take action – these can include complaints and criticism arising from environmental conditions, to community suggestions for specific projects and programmes (Scott, 2007:19). Scott also estimates that the government agencies should pick these up and expand the circle of interest to see if partnerships can be formed. Agencies can, however, have an unrealistic understanding of local social dynamics, and should foster widespread community support so that projects do not rely on one or a few individuals who may withdraw.

Forgie *et al*. (2001:9) admit that agencies should also work alongside communities to address community scepticism about science and expert knowledge. They argue that this requires an institutional change in attitude and a willingness to work with people and organisations rather than tell them what to do. Furthermore, Forgie *et al*. comment that in some government agencies there can also be a preference for hands-off methods such as education, research and participatory action. There can also be a lack of support for local level staff to form partnerships and to participate in multi-stakeholder groups.

2.6.5 Enabling community conservation

Western (2000: 54) believes that in order to succeed, conservation must be as widely understood as hygiene and as voluntarily practiced as bathing. In 1992 an international meeting was held in Virginia to review and promote community conservation. Over 70 participants examined a range of case studies and identified conditions that enable local participation in conservation as being (Western, 2000: 59):

- Democracy;
- Human rights;
- Justice;
- Trust;
- Equity;
- Opportunity;
- Incentives, including conservation funding, easements and market incentives;
- Skills; and
- New forms of institutions.

Western (2000) also notes that communities that are represented at this international meeting did not abandon government; what they called for was “better governance to facilitate such initiatives and to provide the larger checks and balances not achievable locally” (Western, 2000:59).

In their project analysis, Greenaway *et al*. (2006) identify the following requirements for effective community action:

- Skilled leadership;
- Adequate resourcing;
- Infrastructural development;
- Strategic support;

- Coordination;
- Vision building;
- Facilitation;
- Advocacy;
- Networking;
- Mentoring;
- Planning; and
- Critical reflection.

Ritchie (2002) states that encouragement and inspiration motivates communities to become involved in conservation, as well as skills and knowledge, contacts and networks (for example, being asked to be involved by someone that they know), sufficient resources for tasks, opportunities for involvement, two-way communication, successes and acknowledgement, while Bell (2003:38) found that a motivator for people's conservation involvement was to ensure that their children and grandchildren can enjoy the environment in future. In his study, James (2001) realised that reasons that participants put forward for involvement in conservation activities tended to stress personal, social and cultural reasons, and not simply desired environmental outcomes. These included (James, 2001:24):

- recreational opportunities;
- personal satisfaction;
- skills development;
- doing something that would benefit the community;
- doing something that would benefit future generations; and
- preserving heritage.

Fitzgerald (1999:48) also identifies four conditions, which are necessary for community based action to succeed:

- Pressure for change;
- A shared vision;
- Capacity for change; and
- Actionable first steps.

Agencies can play supportive roles in all of the four areas above by highlighting pressures that face the environment and how they might be addressed, which facilitate development of a shared vision and resourcing community capacity and practical first steps.

Forgie *et al*. (2001:22) add the aspect of supporting community monitoring by stating four features that are critical to facilitating active public involvement in conservation. These include environmental education; fostering working partnerships; delegating monitoring responsibilities; and providing adequate funding.
Forgie *et al*. (2001:23) further believe that people must feel a genuine need to improve or change the existing situation; without this an initiative has no perceived relevance and, at worst, can be seen as interference by outsiders. Effective community based or bottom-up initiatives involve valuing local knowledge and skills and working in a spirit of trust, respect and cooperation (Fitzgerald, 1999: 55). Outside experts and agencies should move from being project implementers who plan and act for local people to become enablers for community based projects.

The attitudes and behaviours of those who facilitate this process are crucial, and for Fitzgerald (1999:55). appropriate attitudes include openness, humility, curiosity, acceptance, sensitivity; and appropriate behaviours include sharing, establishing rapport, being friendly and encouraging, showing respect, listening carefully (not lecturing), embracing and learning from mistakes, neutrality and avoiding being dominating. James (2001:26) believes that ways in which agencies can encourage community involvement in conservation include coordinating volunteers, improving consultation and communication with communities and having clear points of contact and ongoing communication.

Summarily, Western (2000:60) estimates that some government agencies are taking their cue from successful communities and community based conservation efforts and are reshaping their policies and practices in order to achieve broad participation. He then contends that the distinction between directing and responding is narrowing as dialogue, negotiation, and collaboration replace command-and-control methods.

2.7 Summary

The chapter mainly discussed theories pertaining to tourism development and conservation issues. The use of tourism as a development tool in a given region was discussed in this chapter, while its impacts were also established. This has led the discussion to invoking the concept of sustainable tourism development, as well as a review of ecotourism, which was regarded as a positive tool to ensure sustainable development. Much of this review, however, has concentrated on the involvement of communities in both tourism decisions and

conservation issues, and in this regard, emphasis was paid to the concept of stakeholder participation, which involves all levels of society including government agencies, conservation bodies and local communities in tourism development and planning.

The chapter discussed possible approaches to tourism planning that enable stakeholder participation. Furthermore, specific attention was given to the significance and importance of bringing local communities together in the tourism decision making process. However, the study went on to question the practicability of this stakeholder participation and, therefore, a discussion was developed around this concept. Finally, the study specifically discussed the concept of community conservation, which was seen as the effective approach to community involvement in conservation and tourism plans. The next chapter discusses tourism and conservation issues in Rwanda.

CHAPTER THREE

TOURISM AND CONSERVATION ISSUES IN RWANDA

3.1 Introduction

Rwanda is a landlocked country, which has few natural resources and minimal industry (Rwanda, 2006). It covers an area of 26 338 sq km, and has a population of about 10 million people (MINECOFIN, 2007), 59 per cent of whom live below the poverty line, while the country is one of the poorest in the world, with the highest population density on the African continent.

About 91 per cent of Rwanda's population is engaged in the agricultural sector and relies mainly on subsistence farming. Land is accordingly a precious natural resource, the need for which often overrides other developmental initiatives. The catastrophic 1990–94 war and genocide severely damaged an already fragile economic base and badly affected the livelihood of the population. Further, the image of the country was damaged, which in turn had an impact on both local and foreign direct investments.

Since 1994 the country has faced the daunting task of rebuilding its economy. The reform efforts have brought about a surge of growth during the last decade, particularly in agriculture, which is the leading economic sector and contributes 41.6 per cent of its national GDP (Mazimhaka, 2007). Furthermore, Mazimhaka estimates that although Rwanda continues to depend heavily on foreign aid to meet its numerous development challenges, it has also, during the post-1994 years, made substantial progress to stabilize its fledgling economy, which has been one of the fastest growing in Africa. Nevertheless, levels of poverty remain severe, and the government's main economic challenge is to stimulate new sources to reduce poverty and enhance economic growth. In addressing the challenges of economic growth and poverty reduction, the Rwanda Government has acknowledged tourism's potential (MINICOM, 2006). Since 1994, the industry has undergone a significant overhaul as the country has sought to establish itself strategically as a unique tourism destination in Africa and competes against the attractions of more established African tourist destinations such as Kenya and Tanzania.

The rest of the chapter discusses issues around tourism development in Rwanda, protected areas and places specific emphasis on Akagera National Park, which is the focus of this research study.

3.2 Rwandan tourism and conservation review

As indicated by ORTPN (2005), Rwanda's tourism industry, coinciding with conservation and preservation efforts, has been based primarily on the country's list of natural endowments. A majority of its natural attractions are located within its three national parks: the Volcanoes National Park in the north-west, on the slopes of the Virunga mountain range, which is home to the rare and famous mountain gorilla; the Nyungwe Tropical Forest, surrounded by a lush forest canopy, home to several species of bird and the rare golden monkey and, which also offers great opportunities for hiking; and the Akagera National Park in the north-east, an 'archetypal African savannah landscape', which is a relatively warm region of woodlands interspersed with open grasslands.

In 1990, these three parks were managed by the Rwanda Office for Tourism and National Parks or 'Office Rwandais pour Tourisme et Parcs Nationaux' (ORTPN) as property for conservation, as well as development. Historically, and to the present day, these three parks have been the country's major tourist destinations.

3.2.1 Evolution of international tourism in Rwanda

Due to a lack of any records or data, there is limited historical information on the growth and development of Rwanda's tourism industry. Some observers, however, suggest that tourism's origins go back to the early 20th century when Rwanda's varied flora and fauna, diverse primates and, in particular, its rare mountain gorillas began to attract the attention of several visitors, including naturalists, scientists and zoologists (Booth & Briggs, 2004). In 1925 the Albert National Park was established, and subsequently renamed the Volcanoes National Park after political independence in 1962. Located within the Virunga Volcanoes mountain chain, it has been the focus of several studies of mountain gorillas (Booth & Briggs, 2004: 177). Researchers Booth and Briggs revealed that at the time of independence the gorillas were already well known internationally and, in spite of the problem of overpopulation, Rwanda's new leadership vowed to maintain the park for tourists and researchers. According to the ORTPN, several projects and studies were conducted over the years by various organisations to promote conservation mainly in this park. The work of zoologist Dian Fossey, since 1967, made the gorillas of Rwanda internationally renowned. Her life, as depicted in the 1988 film, *Gorillas in the Mist*, 'drew global attention to the plight of the mountain gorilla, and generated unprecedented interest in the gorilla tourism program' (Booth & Briggs, 2004: 178).

For almost 30 years, Rwanda's most recognisable tourism asset has been its mountain gorillas. Of only 700 left in the world, Rwanda is home to about one-third (ORTPN, 2005). Shackley (1995) observed that in the early 1990s gorilla tourism contributed an estimated 75 per cent of all national tourism revenue. By 2004 dependence on gorilla tourism had increased to 93 per cent of tourism income (ORTPN, 2005).

Williamson (2001) notes that gorillas have become the country's national symbol and images of the animal are used on bank notes and by national companies and organisations. Indeed, 'gorillas play an essential role in contributing to the positive image of Rwanda and act as ambassadors on the international scene by raising the profile of the country' (ORTPN, 2005). Not only do gorillas contribute to improving the country's image, continued increases in the number of international tourists who come to see them, has played the biggest role in the country's tourism growth. Accordingly, protecting the gorillas' habitat is a huge priority for Rwandan tourism.

The year 1984 is recorded as the peak of international tourism in Rwanda, when the number of tourist arrivals reached a total of 39 000 (OTF Group, 2005:1). The devastation that the genocide caused to the country's tourism economy is clear and only since 2000 has the trajectory of international tourism arrivals once again been positive. The most recent data suggests that international visitor arrivals reached 20 000 in 2004, a level which is almost half of the numbers recorded in 1984 (Mazimhaka, 2007).

The main tourism asset in Rwanda for international travellers has been its mountain gorillas. Rwanda's tourism attractions include two other national parks, namely Akagera National Park as well as Nyungwe National Park. In 2006, the Rwanda National Tourism Policy (RNTP) identified and described the country's tourism assets that are marketable to both domestic and international tourists, as indicated in the following sections.

3.2.2 Protected areas and tourist attractions in Rwanda

According to the Rwanda National Strategy and Action Plan for the Conservation of Biodiversity paper (Rwanda, 2003), in Rwanda, protected areas are the Volcanoes National Park, which was classified as a reserve since 1925, the forest of Nyungwe since 1933 and the Akagera National Park and the hunting fields, which were classified as a reserve since 1934. The Volcanoes National Park and the Akagera National Park are managed by ORTPN, while the rainforests of the Congo-Nile ridge are managed by the Ministry of Agriculture and

Animal Resources (MINAGRI). These natural reserves have been classified for their multiple roles, including their ecological, economic, cultural and social role. The major objective for their preservation is the conservation of species and various habitats of biodiversity for educational, tourism and research purposes. However, these areas have been affected by various changes, including reduction of space owing to different causes such as resettlement of the population in the special case of the Akagera National Park where two-thirds of the hunting fields have been given away for resettlement for people returning from exile.

The following sub sections provide a brief description of the Rwandan protected areas and other tourist attractions including, among others, lakes, museums, as well as heritage sites.

3.2.2.1 Volcanoes National Park (VNP)

According to the RNTP (2006), the VNP is home to Rwanda's *Gentle Giants,* mountain gorillas, which account for one third of the world's remaining mountain gorillas. Rwanda enjoys a population of 195 habituated gorillas.. Ranging in altitude from 2,400m to 4,507m, the park is dominated by a string of five volcanoes: Karisimbi (4,507m), Bisoke (3,711m), Sabyinyo (3,634m), Gahinga (3.474m) and Muhabura (4,127m). The park covers an area of 16000 ha. At the time of its creation it was the first known national park in Africa.

3.2.2.2 Nyungwe National Park (NNP)

The RTPN (2006) paper asserts that Nyungwe National Park covers an area of 1 030 km² and is the largest mountain forest in Africa. The forest extends from lush low valleys to high mountain peaks, and range in altitude from 1,600m to 2,950m with temperatures, which vary between 0°C and 30°C. Its biodiversity is rich and unparalleled in Africa. The paper further indicates that Nyungwe forest is home to 13 types of primate, over 275 bird species, 270 species of trees and shrubs, and 100 varieties of orchids. Nyungwe is most alluring to nature lovers who often find that there are still new species that should be discovered. Nyungwe is renowned for primates, which include chimpanzees, black-and-white colobus monkeys, mangabeys and blue monkeys.

3.2.2.3 Akagera National Park (ANP)

The RNTP (2006) describes Akagera National Park as a savannah with multiple ecosystems. Rwanda's Akagera National Park generally comes as a surprise to tourists as it is set at a relatively low altitude compared to the lush hills that many are used to. Rwanda's only game reserve is the perfect place to see up to 20 mammal species, including herds of hippos,

elephants and buffalo and, on occasion, lions or even hyenas. The serene environment is perfect for acquainting oneself with nature and experiencing one of Africa's true beauties. As for birds, Akagera National Park has more than 525 species, among which there are 345 nesting species, as well as a big number of migrants. Unique species such as shoebill and the papyrus gonolek, or sea sizeable flocks of resident as well as migrant birds, attracted by the seasonal fluctuations in water levels, might be encountered in the park.

3.2.3 Other tourist attractions

This category includes other tourist attractions besides the national parks. Encountered here are water based attractions such as lakes, museums and heritage attractions, as well as genocide memorial centres.

3.2.3.1 Lake Kivu Littoral

Described as the 'Cote d'Azur' of East Africa, Rwanda's Lake Kivu is enclosed by the country's characteristic rolling hills. It is surrounded by three resort towns, namely Gisenyi, Kibuye, and Cyangugu.

3.2.3.2 Rwanda's culture and history

Like many other East African people, the Banyarwanda of Rwanda have a unique history that the traveller can share in serenity, which is not found in several bustling cities in East Africa (RNTP, 2006). Traditionally, the Banyarwanda's culture comprised an all-male dance troupe where Intore (male dancers) performed warlike dances for the monarchy. These dances have since been replaced with peaceful dances by both male and female dancers and are seen at several public functions. Rwanda's Intore dancers have toured the world with their vibrant, expressive, beautiful, and graceful form of dance and perform at all major functions in Rwanda.

3.2.3.3 National Museum of Rwanda

Rwanda's second largest city, Butare, houses its national museum and is filled with artefacts that tourists are welcome to touch and experience, while the museum tells a story of Rwanda and its people (RNTP, 2006). The King's palace at Nyanza gives tourists a chance to step into the past when the King ruled his court. According to the RNTP, Rwanda's artistic crafts are one of a kind in the way that they are produced. Rwanda's pottery has been made famous by the Twa ethnic group, which has perfected the skill of a practical and beautiful craft.

3.2.3.4 Other notable tourism attractions

The RNTP (2006) indicates that Rwanda boasts several other notable tourism attractions, which include:

- Besides Lake Kivu, lakes in the countryside such as Muhazi, Bulera and Ruhondo have potential for the practice of nautical sports and other aquatic leisure.
- Rusumo waterfalls and those of Ndaba also present a considerable interest in terms of observational tourism.
- Kigali [Rwandan capital city] has several tourist sites including the Gisozi Genocide Memorial Centre, Kandt's House, handicraft centres and vibrant markets.
- Rwanda has witnessed several investments in hotels and restaurants, which comprise 1,700 hotel rooms, including a 104-room five star hotel, and one upscale lodge. Kigali also offers a wide range of restaurants.

3.2.4 Renewal of Rwanda's tourism economy

Since 2001 the Government of Rwanda has identified several priority sectors for economic development. The Rwandan Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper emphasises a need to 'develop other engines of growth and to transform [the] economy', including 'encouraging the development of tourism' (Government of Rwanda, 2002: 9). Through the Rwanda National Innovation and Competitiveness (RNIC) programme, the OTF (On The Frontier) Group developed a National Tourism Strategy that was adopted in 2001.

The strategy identified a long-term vision and defined several areas that should be developed to promote tourism in Rwanda' (OTF Group, 2004:1). A group of 40 representatives from the private and public sectors met with local NGOs to form Rwanda's Tourism Working Group (TWG), with a mandate to implement the strategy. Overall, this group articulated the following goal for Rwanda's tourism industry: 'Generate $100 million in tourism receipts [and 70 000 international tourists] in 2010 by focusing on creating high value and low environmental impact experiences' (OTF Group, 2005).

The beginning of the potential realisation of this goal was evidenced by increases in visitor arrivals to the three national parks by 39 per cent, while park receipts increased by 42 per cent in 2003-2004. Nevertheless, it has become evident that 'the gorillas alone cannot sustain Rwanda's tourism growth' (ORTPN, 2004: 1). Despite their enormous contribution to the country's tourism industry, the concern remains that international tourism remains gorilla-centred and current growth is, therefore, unsustainable. This prompted the ORTPN's

suggestion that Rwanda 'needs to move away from Gorilla monoculture' (ORTPN, 2005:1) and explains why Rwanda's tourism industry has recently focused on providing a more diverse tourism experience for all visitors.

In October 2003, the ORTPN and the TWG held a National Tourism Launch in Kigali, which was designed to inform the local population of the industry's latest efforts. The launch attracted several VIP guests, including the Rwandan President and several cabinet ministers. According to Mazimpaka (2007), 'there is a future for Rwanda and a future for tourism'. During 2003, the ORTPN hired marketing and public relations firms to help the industry reach new markets (ORTPN, 2005:15). The role of these firms was to promote Rwanda throughout Europe and to arrange for a successful re-launch of Rwandan tourism on the international market at the World Travel Market in London in November 2003. ORTPN estimated that this re-launch would be the official message to the international community that Rwanda was ready to offer a unique tourism experience to all tourists. Whilst Rwanda's national parks remained the country's most popular attractions, the Rwandan tourism industry's efforts were being placed at diversification so that other natural and cultural assets should be promoted for tourism purposes (Mazimpaka, 2007). Rwanda's cultural attractions are viewed as critical for the future growth of international tourism and for showcasing the diverse attractions of the country's tourism industry. The new images that were used to re-launch Rwandan tourism represent the re-emergence of Rwanda as a tourism destination and reflect its hospitality and enthusiasm for promoting its culture.

In February 2006 the Ministry of Commerce, Industry, Investment Promotion, Tourism and Cooperatives (MINICOM) of the Government of Rwanda released the Rwanda National Tourism Policy, which focuses on 'tourism promotion, on improvement of tourist sites, on the development of tourist infrastructure, as well as [the] development of [an] entrepreneurship spirit in the hotel and hospitality industry' (Rwanda, 2006:6). This policy document is a landmark as it represents the first national tourism policy, which was adapted to address pressing issues that faced tourism in Rwanda. It was announced that MINICOM will work in conjunction with the United Nations World Tourism Organization to 'develop an action plan for the rehabilitation of tourism' (Rwanda, 2006: 6). Development of the tourism policy and defining specific objectives for tourism are viewed as imperative to ensure that 'the industry can fulfil its potential while leveraging the country's natural and cultural endowments' (Rwanda, 2006: 14).

Overall, it is evident that since 1994 Rwanda's tourism industry has faced several challenges in terms of its growth and development. As the country continues to rebuild itself economically, tourism will continue to play an important role, being widely considered as one of the sectors that will help the country achieve its economic targets through revenue gains and job creation. Thus far, Rwanda's tourism product has, understandably, been aimed largely at international tourists in order to raise much-needed foreign currency, and while this has proved positive with regard to achieving industry targets, dependence on an exclusive market could be detrimental to the industry in future. The 2006 tourism policy is committed to encouraging 'high end ecotourism' with a focus on generating increased volumes of international tourism (Rwanda, 2006). Only brief mention is made of domestic tourism, stressing that 'Rwanda citizens and foreign residents have not been able to experience the same tourism attractions due to lack of tourism culture, insufficient information and financial limitations' (Rwanda, 2006: 20). Rutagarama and Martin (2006) argue that if the tourism sector should play a more considerable economic role than previously, a vibrant domestic tourism should be encouraged and, furthermore, that its success will go a long way to boosting not only Rwanda's tourism industry, but the country's economy as a whole.

3.3 Akagera National Park: Study site

According to Birdlife International (2008), Akagera National Park was named after the river that runs along its eastern boundary; the park is Rwanda's famous Savanna reserve. Compared to the rest of the country, the Akagera area is relatively warm and low-lying, and plains support a cover of dense, broad-leaved woodland with lighter acacia woodland and patches of rolling grassland. In the west of the plains there is a chain of low mountains, with elevations of up to 1,800m. The vast wetland is supported in the eastern part of the park.

Poaching in this area has greatly reduced wildlife populations in recent years, and what was formerly the north of the park is now a settlement area for returned refugees (Rutagarama & Martin, 2006:292). The lakes that remain within the national park are routinely used to water domestic cattle; indeed, the long-horned Ankole cow is by far the most commonly seen large mammal. Akagera is, however, a worthy visiting place in spite of the above challenges. There is plenty of game such as buffalo, elephants, zebras, giraffes, hippos and various antelope, which are all reasonably visible. The lakes support some of the highest concentrations of hippo that may not be found anywhere else in Africa, as well as numerous large crocodiles while lion, leopard and black rhino are still in small numbers.

The birdlife in Akagera is extraordinary; according to ORTPN, there are 550 species, which include all sorts of rarities and a large concentration of water birds. . Akagera National Park is one Africa's game reserves where one can drive for some hours without passing another vehicle, and without knowing what wildlife encounter he/she might find around the next corner (ORTPN, 2005). Akagera is also amongst the most scenic of the savannah reserves, with its sumptuous forest-fringed lakes, tall mountains and constantly changing vegetation.

3.3.1 Ecological importance of Akagera National Park

Akagera National Park is known for protecting a wide diversity of habitats within a relatively small area. Prior to the Rwandan civil war in 1990, it was regarded as one of the few African savannah reserves to form a self-sustaining ecological unit, which means that its resident large mammals had no need to migrate seasonally outside of the park boundaries (ORTPN, 2005). Roughly two-thirds of the original park was de-gazetted in 1997, and while some of the discarded territory is still virgin bush, it is probably only a matter of time before it will all be settled; placing further pressure on Akagera's diminished wildlife populations.

The northern boundaries of the park protect an area of 1,085km. The eastern part of the park consists of an extensive network of wetlands, fed by the Akagera River, and dominated by a series of small to-medium-sized lakes. Lake Ihema lies within the revised park boundaries and is the largest open water body covering about 100km. The lakes are connected by narrow channels of flowing water and large expenses of seasonal and perennial papyrus swamps. The eastern wetlands are important habitats for protected animals within the park: they do not only provide a permanent source of drinking water for the large mammals, but also form an important water bird sanctuary.

3.3.2 Accessibility to Akagera National Park

Using a private vehicle, Akagera can be reached from Kigali in a two hour long drive and from Kayonza or Rwamagana districts in about one hour. The only usable entrance gate, 500m from the new Akagera Game Lodge, is reached through a 27km dirt road, which branches from the main surfaced road at Kabarondo, which is 15km north of Kayonza. This dirt road is in fair condition, passable by any vehicle except after rain. Within the park, however, a 4x4 is advisable, though any vehicle with good clearance should be fine during the dry season.

Reaching Akagera by public transport is quite problematic. Any minibus-tax travelling between Kayonza and Kibungo can drop one at the junction, from where the only realistic option is a motorbike-taxi. Inside the park, unless one is staying at the Game Lodge, no walking is permitted with or without a guide, and there is no vehicle available for game drives.

3.3.3 Safari activities in Akagera National Park

Boat trips are available at Lake Ihema, and a booking should be made in advance through ORTPN in Kigali [the main office]. Close encounters with outsized crocodiles and large pods of hippo are all but guaranteed, and one will also pass substantial breeding colonies of African darter, cormorant and open-bill stork. Other water birds are abundant: the delicate and colourful African jacana can be seen trotting on floating vegetation, fish eagles are posted in trees at regular intervals, jewel-like malachite kingfisher hawk from the needs, while pied kingfishers hover high above the water to swoop down on their fishy prey. Of greater interest to enthusiasts will be an opportunity to spot marsh specialists such as blue-headed coucal and marsh flycatcher.

3.3.4 Conservation issues in Akagera National Park

Akagera National Park and the formerly contiguous Mutara Hunting Reserve were protected by Decrees dating from 1934 and 1957, respectively (Rutagarama & Martin, 2006:293). Compared with other parts of Rwanda, the park is not heavily populated. At least, it has not been in recent decades; its previous inhabitants were displaced upon creation of the park. Following social unrest in the country in the 1960s, there was uncontrolled poaching and grazing and several guards were killed.

In 1969, 3,800 ha were de-gazetted from the park as were 8,400 ha from the Hunting Reserve. Following the recent civil war, the park came under further pressure, as a result of occupation by several thousands of pastoralists, which resulted in 60% of the park being de-gazetted in 1997. Furthermore, there is a plan to build a hydroelectric dam on the Rusumo falls on the Akagera River and this represents a potential threat for the wetland ecosystems of the park and all surrounding areas.

3.3.5 Community life around Akagera National Nark

Communities around Akagera National Park are involved in economic activities, which include livestock farming and agriculture. This area, as for most part of the eastern province, is home to the nation's milk- producing cattle keepers. Other livestock include sheep, goats, poultry, pigs, bees and fish.

Agriculture is mostly for subsistence purposes, although some of the crops are commercialized. Major crops that are grown include rice, maize, beans, sorghum, cassava and potatoes. Local authorities in this area are striving to promote cultivation and processing of cassava and banana- based products.

In areas with marshlands around the park communities are involved in activities of growing corn, vegetables, beans, soya, pepper, pineapple and rice. A priority is growing coffee, maracuja (passion fruit), strawberry, and vanilla. However, the area is exposed to natural calamities especially drought in some parts of the region, as well as soil erosion.

There is no electricity in most parts of the area around the park and most of the houses there are self contained grass houses, which look more traditional in the Rwandan context. Few houses with iron sheets are being developed by some community members. As far as education is concerned, there are a few constructed schools in this area; in most cases pupils attend their classes under big trees or other alternatives.

In terms of business activities, people in this area engage in trade with other Rwanda regions and neighbouring countries [Tanzania and Uganda] to provide mostly milk, beans, bananas, sorghum, maize, beef, hide and skins, cheese, butter and honey in exchange for fruits and Irish potatoes from other regions.

In relation to tourism, their famous cultural dance [Igishakamba], which is said to portray the beauty of long-honed Ankore cows and the general way of life of the semi- pastoral inhabitants of this area, has been tipped to be another potential tourist attraction. While travelling north to Uganda, one is able to appreciate repeating scenes of beautiful, white-horned cattle grazing along the farms and near the road.

In short, the area is characterized by a population that is still unstable [in terms of land and housing]; the agriculture and livestock are still traditionally practiced, while town and business centres are not really developed. There is insufficient socioeconomic infrastructure, as well as insufficient electricity. The region is further characterized by long dry seasons and a shortage

of water; fragile soil land and presence of white ants, while frequent immigration and semi-desert vegetation is also seen there.

3.4 Summary

Chapter Three reviewed and discussed issues pertaining to tourism and conservation in Rwanda. Though much emphasis was given to Akagera National Park, the chapter started by generally discussing the evolution of international tourism in Rwanda, which is the most lucrative source of Rwandan tourism revenue, and then went on to highlight and discuss the possible protected areas and tourist attractions that Rwanda possesses.

After this broad review, the chapter placed a specific focus on Akagera National Park, which is the area for the research study. In this regard, a discussion ensued, which dealt with the ecological importance of the park, accessibility to the park, safari activities in the park, as well as issues related to conservation in the park. Lastly, a brief discussion on community life around Akagera National Park was outlined. Chapter Four follows and discusses the research design and methodology, which was used for this research study.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

The chapter examines the methodology that was used to gather information for the study. Emphasis is given to the research design, the sampling and data collection procedures. Research ethics are explained, while the research instruments, measures and techniques that were used for data analysis, are also discussed.

4.2 Statement of the problem

Tourism has been targeted as one of the key leading areas for Rwanda's economic and social development recovery after the 1990 -1994 civil war and genocide. In this regard, specific emphasis was placed on the redevelopment and conservation of Akagera National Park, which is located in Eastern Rwanda and, which had been massively destroyed by the war (Rwanda, 2003:12).

However, though the country's tourism policy underpins involvement of local communities in tourism and conservation activities close to all Rwanda national parks, the extent of this involvement in Akagera National Park is still unexplored. A lack of documentation about local residents' involvement in this park's tourism and conservation activities is, therefore, a leading motivation for the research study. Furthermore, the partnership between Eastern Rwanda residents adjacent to Akagera National Park and the national tourism and conservation body [ORTPN] in managing the tourism and conservation activities in the park, was also of particular interest.

4.3 Research questions

The study aimed to develop a knowledge base regarding the involvement of community residents about tourism activities and conservation activities in the eastern Rwanda, using the case of communities adjacent to Akagera National Park. The study investigated their involvement through answering research questions, as expressed in the following statements:

- To determine the extent to which local residents are involved in tourism and conservation activities in the Akagera National Park.
- To establish community residents' feelings about tourism and conservation activities, which are carried out in Akagera National Park.

- To determine government policies about the involvement of local residents in tourism and conservation activities in the Akagera National Park.

4.4 Methodology

4.4.1 Study definition

This study was an exploratory study. Zikmund (2000:72) contends that exploratory study is undertaken when not much is known about the situation at hand or no information is available on how similar problems or research issues have been solved in the past. In such cases, extensive preliminary work should be done to gain familiarity with the phenomenon in the situation and understand what occurs before one develops a model and sets up a rigorous design for comprehensive investigation. Several studies have been conducted elsewhere in Africa, Europe and America; however, there are no studies that were conducted on Akagera National Park, especially on the local peoples' participation in conservation and tourism activities. This, however, motivated the researcher to conduct the study in an exploratory model, since it should pave ways for other further studies that can be conducted in the same area, whilst drawing appropriate recommendations that can be used by concerned tourism and conservation authorities by engaging with local communities in the management of the park.

4.4.2 Survey design

This study used a combination of survey method and interview method to gather information. Surveys are the most common method of generating primary data as Zikmund (2000:66) explains, yet they require a high standard of systematic planning and implementation of research (Booysen, 2003:128). As there is a lack of primary data or research on this specific research problem about Akagera National Park, a survey was selected. According to Zikmund (2000:66), a survey is a research technique in which information is gathered from a sample of people by using a questionnaire. This sample represents a cross-section of the population at a particular point in time and within a specific context (Booysen, 2003:127). In addition, the study used an interview method to be able to obtain more insight into the research problem. The interviews were applied to key informants from ORTPN and government official who could provide helpful information that may not be obtainable from secondary data.

The survey questionnaire was divided into two main sections (see Appendix A). Section One included four questions about respondents' demographics, while the second section included nine questions about respondents' feelings on/and their involvement in tourism and

conservation activities in ANP. All 13 questions were closed-ended type questions. One of the questions was designed to be measured by using a 5-point Likert-type scale, with a neutral central category (5 = Most important, 4 = More important, 3 = Important, 2 = Less important and 1 = Least important). This question included four statements that sought to establish the feelings of household respondents about community collaboration and cooperation with ORTPN. Respondents had to disagree or agree, if not neutral, with each statement. Finally, there was an open ended question (14th question), which allowed respondents to feel free and add any additional comments and information that they felt were important to the study.

Apart from the survey questionnaire, three oral face-to-face interviews were organized with two ORTPN officials and one local government official so that the researcher could obtain more insight into the problem under investigation. This provided an opportunity for the researcher to ask questions that highlighted the ORTPN and Government's position about community involvement in conservation and tourism activities in ANP.

4.4.3 Administration of the survey

The questionnaire was designed in English and translated in Kinyarwanda so that respondents could understand the questions. The researcher and two other trained research assistants administered the questionnaire. First, the survey was pre-tested with three tourism students and then with ten community members. After the pre-test, minor revision was undertaken on the questionnaire. The survey was approved by the Cape Peninsula University of Technology (CPUT) through the university research supervisor and authorization was obtained from ORTPN to conduct a research in the Park.

4.5 Sampling design

Sampling involves selection of elements, following prescribed rules from a defined population (Czaja & Blair, 1996:107). The process of sampling involves using a small number of items or parts of the population to make conclusions about the entire population and its purpose is to enable one to estimate some unknown characteristics of the population (Zikmund, 2000:462). According to Zikmund (2000:42), sampling cuts costs, reduces labour requirements and gathers vital information quickly and, if properly selected, will produce sufficiently accurate results. This is why a research study with limited resources should focus on obtaining a high response rate rather than trying to reach all respondents within the sample.

4.5.1 Probability vs. nonprobability sampling methods

Babbie (quoted by Uys and Puttergill 2003:109) states that the aim of sampling is to choose cases of the population, which will supply representative information about the population. According to Czaja and Blair (1996:108), there are two types of sampling: probability and non-probability sampling. Zikmund (2000:474) notes that when using probability sampling every element in the population has a known, nonzero probability of selection. This means that all units in the population have an equal chance of being selected. In non-probability sampling the probability of any particular member of the population being chosen is unknown (Zikmond, 2000:474). Probability sampling was used in this research study. After identifying five administrative sectors that were adjacent to ANP, a random selection method was used in order to select respondents. In this case, it should be explained that the random technique was used because all the population units under study were considered homogeneous and, therefore, any one of them had an equal chance of being included in the sample.

4.5.2 Sample unit of analysis

The unit of analysis in this study was a household. The MINALOC (2008:9) classified a household as either:

(a) A one-person household, that is to say, a person who makes provision for his or her own food or other essentials for living without combining with any other person to form part of a multi-person household; or

(b) A multi-person household, that is to say, a group of two or more persons living together who make common provision for food or other essentials of living.

According to MINALOC (2008:9), the persons in the group may pool their incomes and may, to a greater or lesser extent, have a common budget; they may be related or unrelated persons or constitute a combination of persons both related and unrelated.

4.5.3 Sample size

Karangazi, Murundi, Mwiru, Ndego and Rwimbogo are the five local administrative sectors in Eastern Rwanda adjacent to ANP. The unit of analysis in this study was a household and any [one] person over the age of 18 in the household was allowed to represent the household to respond to the questionnaire. In most instances, however, the head of the family was selected to respond to the questionnaire. In this regard the sample was selected on the basis of the total number of households that were estimated to be in the five sectors mentioned

above. According to MINALOC (2006), there are approximately 4425 households in each administrative sector of Eastern Rwanda, as the sample included five administrative sectors; hence the research population included 22125 households among the entire five administrative sectors. In reference to Sekaran's (2000:295) sample size table [see the Appendix G], three hundred and thirty (330) households were selected to participate in the study as the sample. Sixty six (66) questionnaires were, therefore, distributed in each sector mentioned above to arrive at a total of three hundred and thirty questionnaires.

4.6 Data collection procedures and methods

The purpose of this study was to explore the extent of community involvement in the tourism development and conservation activities in the Akagera National Park. Research data was collected from November 2008 to January 2009. Research techniques included household surveys, key-informant interviews, and participant observation, as well as additional information, which were obtained from census reports, park pamphlets, and other relevant literature.

A total of 330 household surveys were carried out in person, usually at the place of residence, with a sample frame that consisted with one individual in each household. The research assistant had to hand the questionnaire to the respondent and collected it back after completion. In some instances, some interpretation had to be given to the respondents who were illiterate or could not understand the questions properly. The questions were set in both English and Kinyarwanda, the national language, to enable participants to understand the questions clearly.

The household survey was applied to one adult member of the family. On each questionnaire an open space was provided for the respondent to express any additional information or comments about anything related to the study. Whenever an opportunity arose, the researcher carried some informal interviews with household respondents in order to obtain more in-depth information about their responses. All questionnaires were returned as the researcher or research assistants would wait for the questionnaires to be completed or come back to collect them after completion. However, eight questionnaires were not answered correctly and had to be rejected during presentation and analysis of the data. This means that the study had 322 (97.6%) of questionnaires successfully completed and, therefore, the reported data is based on a total of 322 respondents.

Qualitative methodology by key-informant interviews was applied to obtain a more detailed perspective on community involvement regarding park activities and policies concerning park management and conservation. One official from one of the five administrative sectors mentioned in the sample size section and two officials from ORTPN (park management), were given open interviews. In all instances a direct oral face-to-face interview was conducted and the researcher used semi-structured questions during the interviews (see Appendix C).

In addition, to help to verify, refute, or qualify data that was collected, the observation method was used, with the researcher visiting the surroundings of the park and informally speaking to people in the area.

As earlier indicated, questionnaires were designed in both English and Kinyarwanda (local language) to enable illiterate and non-English speaking respondents to understand and respond to the questionnaire.

4.7 Data analysis

The data that was gathered through the above methods were presented in conjunction with available literature. All primary data that was collected through questionnaires were sent to the CPUT research statistician to be coded and entered into the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS. 16) programme for analysis. The software helped to analyse data and appropriate frequencies were produced in table and chart formats. The software examined relationships among variables and performed tests of statistical significance based on the research questions where possible. Results were, therefore, presented in both tables and charts where deemed necessary.

4.8 Summary

The chapter described methods, procedures and data that were used in the study. It was mentioned that three hundred and thirty (330) households participated in the study with a success rate of 97.6% (322 well completed questionnaires). A few interviews were conducted with key informants including tourism and government authorities to gain more insight into tourism development and conservation activities in the Akagera National Park. The next chapter provides a description of the data and presents the results. Also included in the next chapter are analysis and a discussion of the results.

CHAPTER FIVE

PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

5.1 Introduction

The chapter presents and discusses results of the study. It combines information from both the questionnaires and interviews. The chapter comprises two sections: Section A discusses results from the structured questionnaire, which was distributed to community households, and this will be referred to as the household questionnaire; and Section B discusses and summarizes results from the interviews that were conducted with key informants and tourism officials in Akagera National Park.

Section A begins with demographic characteristics of respondents and then follows with a presentation and discussion of questions pertaining to tourism and conservation activities related to Akagera National Park. Section A further discusses qualitative information that was provided by household respondents as additional comments and information. The section finally ends with a summary of the informal interviews that the researcher had with some household respondents in order to gain more insight into their perceptions of tourism and conservation activities in ANP.

As far as Section B is concerned, the researcher preferred to report the information that was gathered from the key informants' interviews on an individual basis. This means that specific information that was reported was assigned to a specific individual who provided that information.

5.2 Section A: Results from community households' questionnaire

5.2.1 Demographic profile of respondents

This section discusses the demographic characteristics of respondents. They include age of respondent, gender of respondent, respondent's sector of residence, as well as respondent's role in the household.

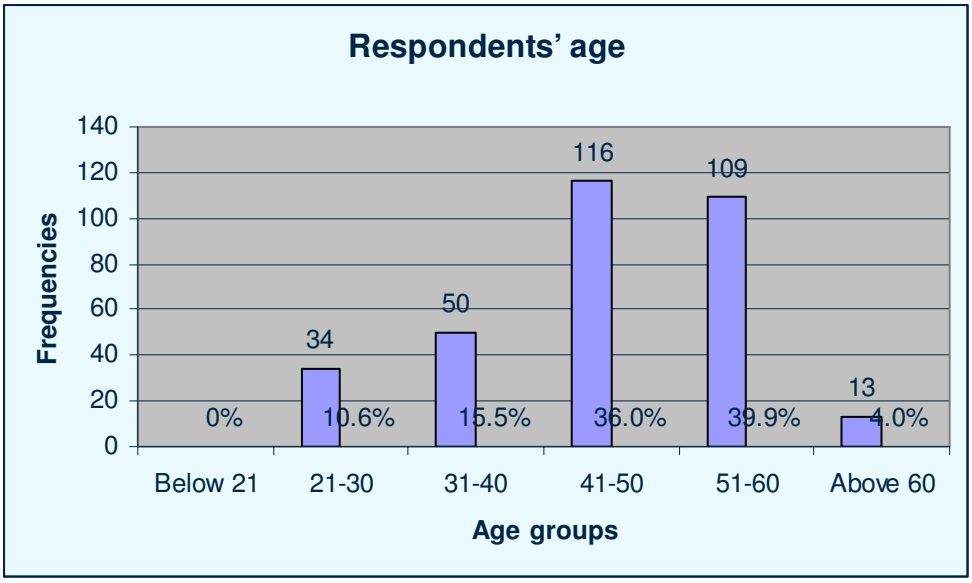

Figure 5.1: Respondents' age

Respondents were asked to state their age category, which was divided into five categories, as indicated in Figure 5.1. It is clear from the figure that the largest group of respondents are in the category age of 41-50 with 36%. However the category of 51-60 is also close to the former with 33.9%. The smallest group of respondents is in the category of 60 and above with 13%. The results clearly indicate that respondents were matured (in age) and hence expected to have knowledge and awareness of what happens in and around their communities, as only 10.6 % of respondents were under 30 years of age.

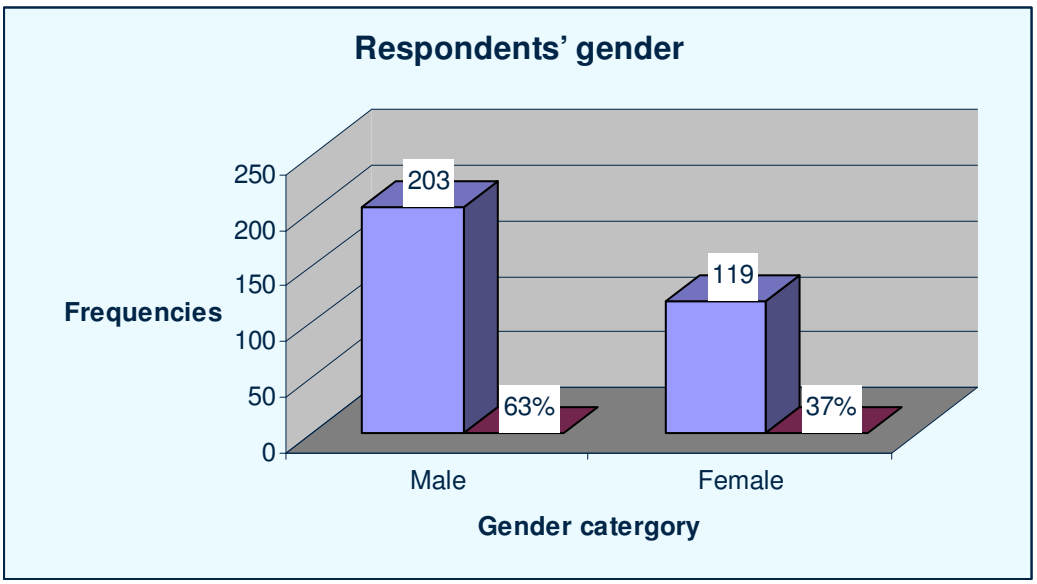

Figure 5.2: Respondents' gender

The results indicate that 63% of respondents are male, while 37% are female, as shown in Figure 5.2. This disproportional ratio in respondents' gender is probably caused by the fact that a male in Rwandan society is always seen as the head of family and, therefore, in most cases, the questionnaire was completed by the head of the family. On the other hand, Rwanda seems to have a number, though small, of single mothers who occupy households and, therefore, a bigger chance of getting a few women to respond to the questionnaire.

Regarding respondents' sectors of residence, Figure 5.3 shows that there was an even distribution in respondents' sector of residence with all five sectors that were selected for the study having between 18% and 20.5% of respondents. This is purely attributed to the fact that the researcher distributed an equal number of questionnaires in each sector and hence there was a small probability of uneven distribution of respondents among the sectors.

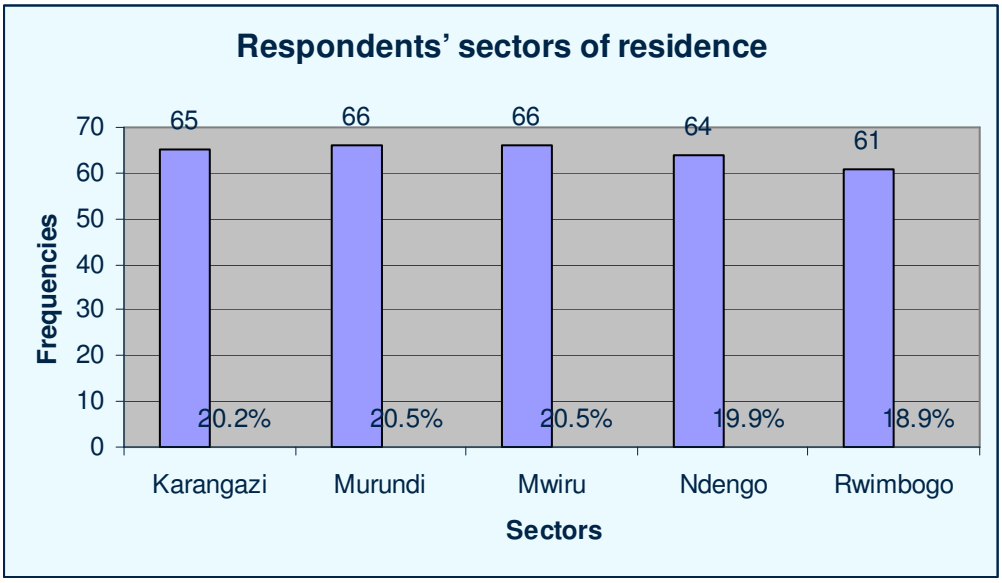

Figure 5.3: Respondents' sectors of residence

Lastly, the demographic characteristics of respondents include the role that a respondent occupied within his/her household. The researcher assigned two roles that he believed a respondent may occupy, namely a dependent role and a head of household role.

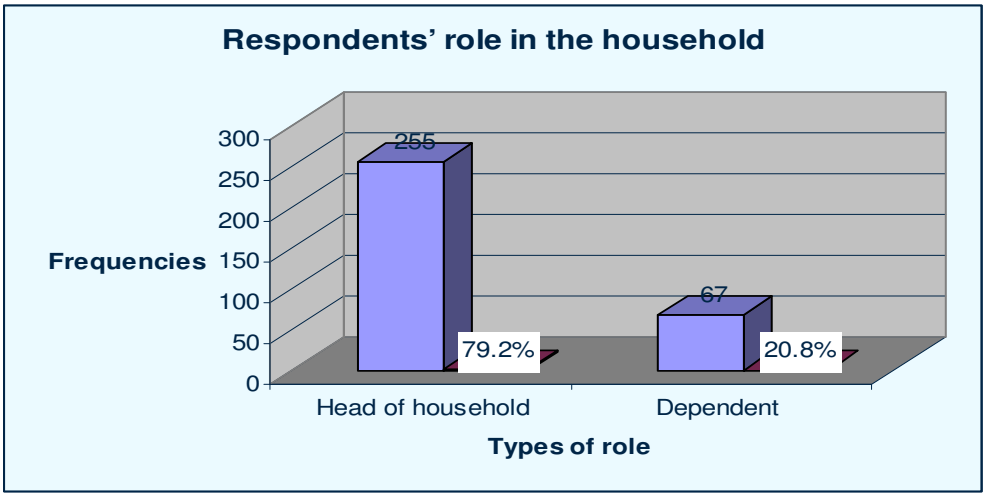

Figure 5.4: Respondents' role in the household

Figure 5.4 clearly indicates that 79.2% of respondents were heads of households, while 20.8% of respondents were dependants. This satisfies the researcher's methodology of targeting heads of households as the main respondents of the questionnaire. The assumption behind the researcher's motive to target heads of households was that they are the ones who are likely to be called for community meetings and be contacted if the park management wanted to discuss any issue/s with community residents. Therefore, they were expected to provide accurate or more information than dependants who, in most cases, happened to be below the age of 30 years.

5.2.2. Questions pertaining to tourism and conservation activities in the ANP from the household questionnaire

This section discusses results from other questions from the community questionnaire. A brief description is given of each question and is followed by the researcher's analysis.

5.2.2.1 What are reasons for community residents' visits to the ANP?

This question sought to identify the reasons why community residents visit the Akagera National Park. The researcher first sought to know those who visit the park and those who do not visit it. The rationale behind this question was simply to learn residents' motives to visit the park and to discover their attitudes towards park inhabitants (biodiversity).

Before embarking on reasons that make residents visit the park, the researcher first sought to learn the number of those who would admit that they visit the park and those who would not. Three hundred and seven respondents (95.3%) stated that they visit the park, while 15 respondents (4.7%) said that they have never been to the park (see Appendix D).

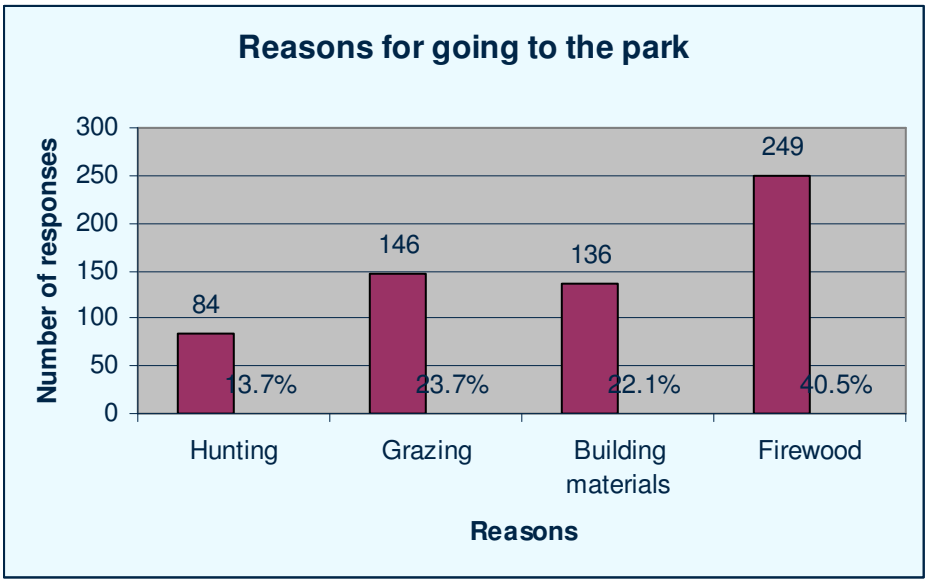

Figure 5.5: Respondents' reasons for going in the ANP

Results shown in Figure 5.5 indicate that 615 responses were given by respondents who stated that they visit the park. Because the question gave respondents a right to choose more than one option, the results indicated a higher number of responses compared to the number of respondents (615 responses from 307 respondents). A majority of respondents indicated that they visit the park to look for fire wood (40.5% of 615 responses), hence at least 77.3% of 322 respondents visit the park to collect fire wood. Conversely, 13.7% of 615 responses visit the park for hunting purposes. However, even though hunting has a low percentage, among other reasons, it is a significant barrier to tourism and conservation activities in the Akagera National Park. This was stressed by one park official in the interviews (see Section B of this chapter) that "*while firewood and grazing are some of the biggest motives of residents visits in the park, hunting is the more serious problem that the park management is facing as it does not only disturb the eco-system in the park but also takes life of the animals that were meant to be preserved".*

Apart from the reasons given on the questionnaire list, respondents indicate other reasons that are behind their visits to the park. As indicated in Figure 5.6, these reasons include seeking herbal medicine and walking across the pathway.

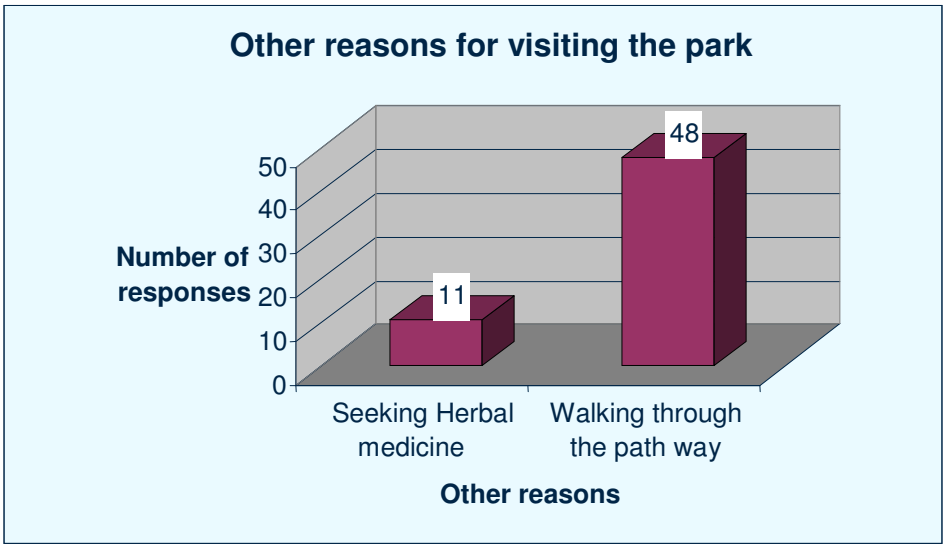

Figure 5.6: Other reasons for residents' visit to the ANP

Figure 5.6 highlights that about 11 respondents indicated that they have visited the park for medicinal purposes, while about 48 respondents visit the park by passing through its public way. The information from Figure 5.5 and Figure 5.6 confirm that people continue to depend on the natural resources from the Akagera National Park. Rao and Geisler (1990) indicate that in several places it has proven difficult to manage protected areas because of the higher dependency of population on natural resources for agricultural, energy, nutritional, medicinal, and other needs. Putz (1988) believes that protected areas in developing countries are often viewed as a source of income from timber and mineral exploitation. The situation in Akagera National Park is probably a conclusion of these two authors' thoughts. Furthermore, the park management and government (Rwanda) seem to be short of an adequate policy, which provides alternative plans for residents in order for them to respect the park's resources. A suggestion from this research is that support zones, which were first suggested by Wild and Mutebi (1996:4), can be created to enable local people to continue to meet their livelihood needs whilst still protecting key species and habitats of the park. These support zones should aim to enhance the positive and reduce the negative impacts of conservation on adjacent communities and adjacent communities on conservation.

However, while a majority admitted to visiting the park, fifteen respondents indicated that they never visit the park (see Appendix D). Among reasons that they provided were fear of animals and fear of legal prosecution (see Figure 5.7).

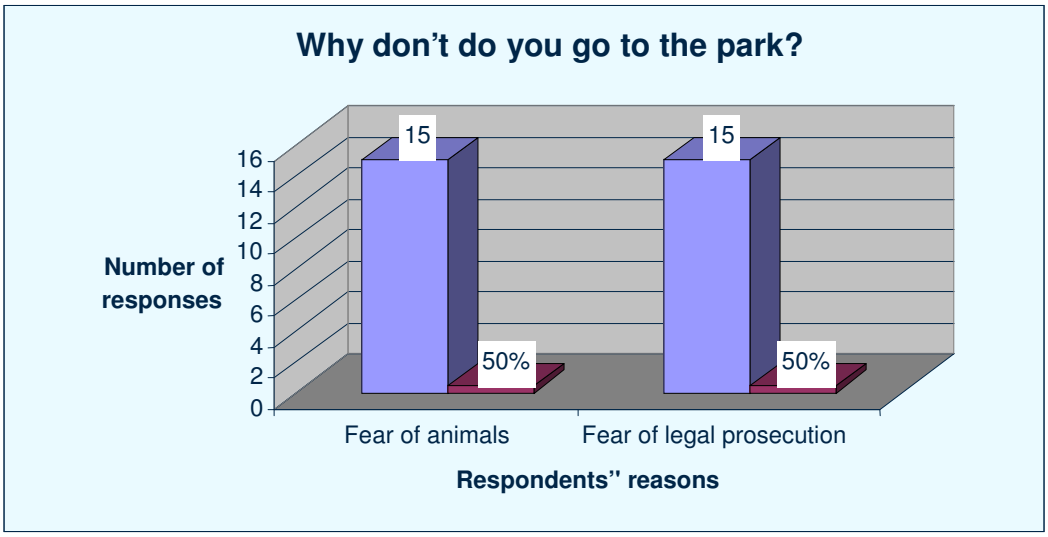

Figure 5.7: Respondents who never visit the park and their reasons

As indicated in Figure 5.7, all 15 respondents who indicated that they never visit the park stated that their reasons for not going there are fear of animals and fear of legal prosecution. These reasons do not imply that these respondents are in the least respecting the park's resources in terms of conservation; rather, it can be understood that if it was not because of government rules and their fear of animals, they would probably also visit the park to seek firewood, hunt or graze. This information is, therefore, crucial to tourism and conservation authorities to bear in mind that these residents are not behaving like this because of good practice of conservation of natural resources. The government's strategy should not only use the rules to protect the park, but they should also sensitize and educate the locals about the value of conserving the parks and their inhabitants.

5.2.2.2 Rating of problems faced by communities by assigning numbers 1,2,3,4 and 5 according to the degree of seriousness; 5 was the most serious problem and 1 was the least serious problem

This question was aimed at identifying how community residents around Akagera National Park perceive and rate anticipated problems, which are faced by their communities. Respondents were asked to rate five problems according to a degree of seriousness. The problems include limited land, limited food stuffs, and crop and livestock damages by park wild animals, lack of access to forest/park resources and lack of space for cattle grazing. Number five (5) was assigned to the biggest problem faced by the community as preferred by a respondent and number one (1) was assigned to the least serious problem, according to the respondent's perception as well. Table 5.1 summarises the results regarding this question. An analysis follows the table.

Table 5.1: Problems facing community residents as rated by respondents

	Limited land		Limited food		Crop & livestock damage		Lack of access to forest resources		Lack of grazing space	
Rating	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
1	0	0	132	41.0	0	0	148	46.0	42	13.0
2	55	17.1	134	41.6	26	8.1	83	25.8	24	7.5
3	62	19.3	30	9.3	108	33.5	42	13.0	80	24.8
4	77	23.9	14	4.3	82	25.5	36	11.2	113	35.1
5	128	39.8	12	3.7	106	32.9	13	4.0	63	19.6
Total	322	100	322	100	322	100	322	100	322	100

Table 5.1 indicates that the most serious problem in the communities around ANP is a lack of land. According to the above statistics, limited land was ranked as the most serious problem by 128 respondents, comprising 39.8% of all respondents. Crop and livestock damage by wild animals was regarded as the second most serious problem with 106 respondents (32.9%) assigning number 5 ahead of it. Further on the list lack of grazing space was placed as the third most serious problem with 19.6% of respondents choosing it by assigning number 5 to it. Conversely, a lack of access to forest resources is the least serious problem with 148 respondents (46%) assigning number 1 to it. Furthermore, if respondents who assigned numbers 4 and 5 are combined, the results still indicate that the rating of problems is as follows:

- Limited land is the most serious problem, since 63.7% (39.8% + 23.9%) of respondents chose this option;

- Crop and livestock damage by wild animals is the second most serious problem for 58.4% (32.9% + 25.5%) of respondents;
- The third most serious problem is lack of grazing space 54.7% (19.6% + 35.1%);
- Limited food, however, seems to be the least serious problem with 82.6% (41% + 41.6%) ranking with number 1 and number 2 [here it should be noted that the most serious problem that was ranked was assigned number 5, while number 1 was assigned to the least serious problem]. It is, therefore, surprising to realise that food has the least rating. The fact that land is the most serious problem, one would think that this problem affects the production of foods; and
- Lack of access to forest resources is, therefore, the second least serious problem after limited food with 71.8% (46% + 25.8%) of respondents assigning numbers one and two to it.

Table 5.1 suggests that while land is the most serious problem for communities adjacent to ANP, community residents are likely to have sought alternatives by using the park as a source of income, revenue and food. Furthermore, given that most residents in these communities are cattle keepers, land shortage causes a serious obstacle to their cattle grazing since that land is not even sufficient for farming. This suggests that there is a high degree of expectation that the park area is likely to be used for grazing as it also contains a lot of green vegetation, which is food for domestic animals. As a result, poaching in the park is likely to increase as people seek other ways of pushing their livelihood forward.

Conversely, having wild animals coming to destroy crops and domestic livestock is more frustrating to communities. One of the respondents complained that "*ORTPN must do more to protect us from wild animals as well as reimburse us in case of damages caused by the park animals as we are no longer allowed to kill them from our fields".* Hence, it appears that government is not doing enough to provide protection to peoples' belongings, as well as repair damages caused by park animals. Another respondent suggested that "it *could be much better if the authorities stop us from getting into the park but only if they can stop animals from damaging our crops",* while another respondent lamented that "*they [ORTPN] don't want us to hunt their animals, yet the animals come to destroy our livestock and crops*". These three additional comments by respondents indicate that there is a serious problem in the cooperation between ORTPN and communities around the park. One would argue that communication between the two stakeholders is probably not effective or that ORTPN seems to take these problems lightly or that probably there is a lack of resources to deal with such problems. However, as discussed in the next section [interviews and comments], an official from the ORTPN office indicated that they [ORTPN] are aware of problems, which residents

face, and that a revenue sharing policy has been established to help communities feel better about the presence of the park and its conservation regulations.

5.2.2.3 How community residents benefit from tourism activities in Akagera National Park

Table 5.2 summarises different tourism business activities that some community residents around Akagera National Park are involved in. The statistics show an extent to which local residents around this park participate in tourism businesses. Information in the table identifies whether one is an employee or an owner of a tourism related business. From the total number of respondents (322), 17.1% of them indicated that they are involved in one of the tourism activities indicated on the questionnaire. In addition, 26.7% of respondents indicated other tourism related business activities that they are involved in besides the ones listed on the questionnaire (see Table 5.3). The questionnaire provided four tourism activity options that respondents had to choose from. The options included restaurant business, guest house business, craft shops and camping site business activity. With all of the options a respondent indicated whether they are the owner or an employee in that particular business. Craft shop business related activity comprised 10.6% of respondents who participated in this activity. The second was the restaurant business, which recorded 5.3% of respondents. Guest house business activity comprised 1.2% of respondents, while no single respondent was found to be participating in camping site business activities. Handcrafts including pottery, drawing and other handmade objects are most of the activities that interest people in the ANP community residents. People work via so called community cooperatives and associations and that is where they learn how to make hand-made objects, since they believe that tourists are more interested in handcrafts as souvenirs. This is probably why craft shop business activities were chosen by a slightly larger number of respondents compared to other options.

Table 5.2: Tourism related business activities involving residents around ANP

Tourism business activities involving local residents		
	Frequency	Percent
Restaurant		
Owner	1	0.3%
Employee	16	5.0%
Guest House		
Owner	0	0.0%
Employee	4	1.2%
Craft Shop		
Owner	19	5.9%
Employee	15	4.7%
Camping site		
Owner	0	0.0%
Employee	0	0.0%
Summary totals		
Owners of tourism businesses	20	6.2%
Employees in tourism businesses	35	10.9%
Total number of people involved in tourism business	55	**17.1%**
Number of people not involved in tourism business	267	**82.9%**
Total	**322**	**100.0%**

There are not enough restaurants in this region as it is a rural area and tourists who visit the park either bring their own food or they use Akagera Game Lodge, which is the only single hotel that you can find in this region. However, there are some small restaurants, which probably cater for local people, and not necessarily tourists. Table 5.2 shows that only one person revealed to be an owner of a restaurant, while 16 people indicated that they work as employees in the restaurant business. These people probably work in those small establishments or they are employed by the Akagera Game Lodge at its restaurant outlet. Clearly there are not enough people involved in the tourism businesses in the area probably because there is no proper infrastructure in this area. Electricity, water, roads and guest

houses are some of the area's challenges. Most tourists who come to ANP do not spend much time outside the park owing to a lack of infrastructure in the area, and after visiting the park they rush to get back to the cities.

Table 5.3 Other tourism business activities involving local people around ANP

	Frequency	Percent
Bicycle	20	6.21%
Hotel gardener	1	0.31%
Motorbike owner	23	7.14%
Selling fresh food	31	9.63%
Park guard	4	1.24%
Tourist porter	4	1.24%
Tour guiding	2	0.62%
Taxi Driver	1	0.31%
Not involved	236	73.30%

Apart from business activities, which were given as options on the questionnaire, respondents were given an opportunity to include any other business activity on the questionnaire that they might be involved in. Table 5.3 shows that 26.7% of respondents indicated that they are involved in other tourism related activities, and the sale of fresh food was the activity that most people were involved with. A total of 9.63% stated that they were involved in this activity. Through observation, the researcher could also establish that there are a lot of people who trade on streets that lead to ANP and that they are mostly selling either handcrafts or fresh food from the farms. The food items include mostly fresh bananas, avocados and fresh sweet corn. There is a belief that in Kigali City (the capital city of Rwanda) fresh food prices are so high so that any person who visits this rural region would want to buy here because of the cheaper prices *en route* to ANP. In fact, most road users stop at different stations in the area to buy fresh food from the farms.

Furthermore, given that the region is not well developed in terms of transport infrastructure, people mostly use bicycles and motorbikes. This was confirmed by the larger number of respondents who stated that they own bicycles and motorbikes, which are used to transport people. A total of 6.21% of respondents indicated that they use or own bicycles, while 7.14%

indicated that they own or use motorbikes for their business. The fact is, if tourists do not have their own car, they will travel with the ORTPN bus or otherwise they will need to hire a motorbike or bicycle to travel within this region as there no taxis and busses to provide public transport. Poor road infrastructure is probably the cause behind the lack of public transport (taxis and busses).

Among other tourism activities recorded by respondents were park guarding, tour guiding and tourist porter. Four people indicated that they are park guards, while another four stated that they are tourist porters, and two are tour guides. These are three activities that involve people directly with tourists and apparently it is clear that the number of people involved in these professional activities is small. This may be explained by the fact that ORTPN uses a lot of people from other provinces on the basis that there is a lack of skills among the local people. One of the respondents complained that the ORTPN only uses people from Kigali and that it does not give local people opportunities. "*The OTPN does not give us jobs, they only use people from Kigali city and unknown people in our communities",* he narrated in an additional comment.

However, as indicated earlier, an official from ORTPN during an interview stressed that local people do not have the required skills to work in the tourism sector, which is why ORTPN employs people from other corners of the country. He mentioned, nevertheless, that "*ORTPN is developing a plan that will see a bigger number of local individuals getting trained to acquire skills so that they can be integrated in the jobs at a bigger margin*".

5.2.2.4 Community participation in park related matters

Most respondents indicated that they have participated in meetings involving ANP related matters. As shown in Table 5.4, there were a number of reasons cited why a person was invited to participate in the meetings. Three hundred and seven [307] respondents (95.3%) provided a "yes" answer to the question that sought to know if people had ever been invited to participate in park discussions. A total of 15 respondents (4.7%) answered "no" to the same question.

Table 5.4: Reasons for residents' participation in park matters

Reasons	Responses	
	N	Percent
I / a member of my household had violated the park rules	62	19.25%
Receiving an award from park authorities	0	0.0%
Meeting with park authorities to discuss management and conservation of the park and its resources	91	28.26%
Meeting with other community members to discuss issues related to the park (access, damage of crops by wild animals, park rules imposed by ORTPN, and so on)	307	95.34%
Other reasons	0	0.0%
Population (N = 322)		

With regard to reasons for residents' participation in park matters, four options were given in the questionnaire for respondents to choose from. However, they had a chance to include any other reason that was not pre-typed in the space reserved for other reasons. Table 5.4 indicate that 95.34% of respondents have had to meet with other community members to discuss issues that relate to the park (access, damage of crops by wild animals, park rules imposed by ORTPN, and so on). A total of 28.26% of respondents participated in the meeting with park authorities to discuss management and conservation of the park and its resources, while 19.25% of respondents had also participated because they (or members of their households) had violated park rules. Reason for receiving an award from park authorities did not receive any mark. It is apparent from Table 5.4 that most respondents have not had chances to interact with ANP authorities on matters related to the management of the park; instead, a majority of respondents have only held meetings among themselves to discuss park related issues that affect their livelihood. This is rather an indication of complaints from residents that the park impacts negatively on their daily life. These meetings referred to in Table 5.4 (4th statement) are organised by community leaders and do not necessarily involve any representative from the park's management or the government. Decisions taken in those meetings are rather conveyed in the form of suggestions and proposals to government officials or to ORTPN authorities for their consideration.

Conversely, although 28.26% of respondents expressed that they participated in meetings involving management and conservation of the park, one government official in the interview explained that the ORTPN, in collaboration with government, draws policies and makes decisions regarding the management and conservation of the park, and then communicate this to community residents through their administrative leaders (local government leaders). He indicated that this is in line with the ORTPN integration policy, which seeks transparency and wants to keep ordinary people informed of what is happening around their communities. However, he clearly indicated that residents do not have the power to contest decisions and policies, which are made by government through ORTPN.

5.2.2.5 Residents' preferences for tourism community funds

The researcher sought to know the preferences of community residents if there was a tourism community fund that would assist communities to engage in projects. The researcher provided five project options to choose from and an open space to provide any other choice that respondents felt should be prioritised for the fund.

As indicated in Figure 5.8, projects that were included in the choices were (1) building houses for community residents; (2) building public schools in the communities; (3) paying schools' fees for needy community children; (4) contributing to "mutuel de santé" (medical insurance) payments for community members; and (5) funding small business projects from community residents. Respondents were only allowed to select one option from the five projects that were proposed. This intended to find out what community residents regard as the most important project for them and in case the funds are not enough, it can be prioritised. It was clearly expressed that most respondents considered the "building public schools in the communities" to be the most preferred project for a tourism community fund; 56.8% of respondents made that selection while the second most preferred project was "the contribution to 'mutuel de santé' payments" with 17.1% respondents (see Figure 5.8).

Payment of school fees and funding business projects from community residents received almost the same amount of preferences with 11.2% against 10.9% of respondents. The least preferred project was "building of houses for community members".

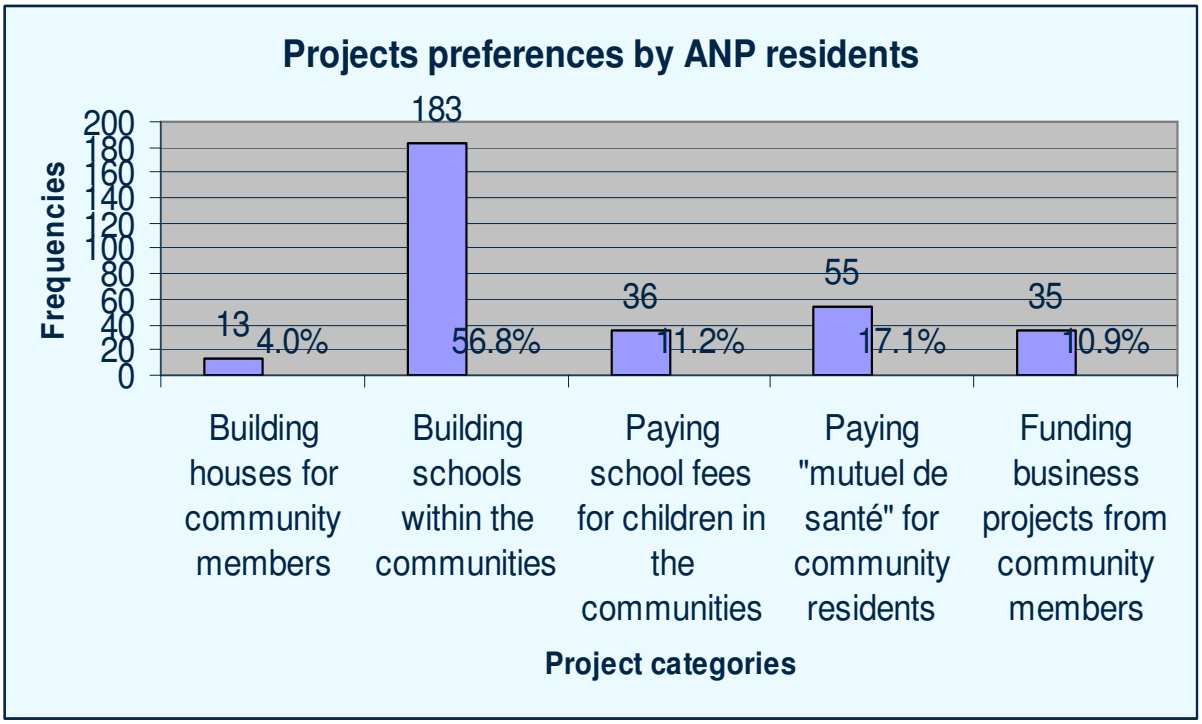

Figure 5.8: Project preferences by residents for a tourism community fund

5.2.2.6 Statements concerning residents' feelings about collaboration between ORTPN and communities

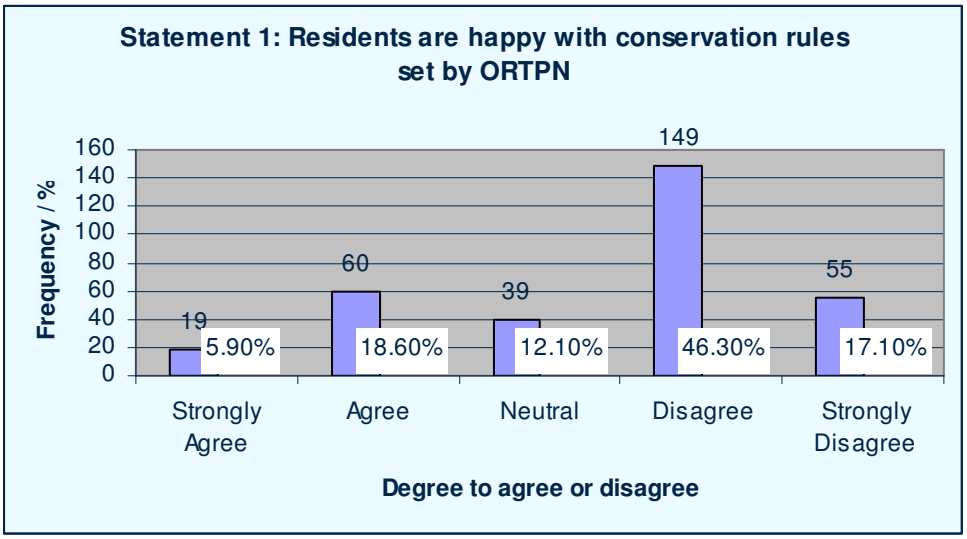

Figure 5.9: Statement about happiness of residents with conservation rules set by ORTPN

It is clear that most respondents were not in favour of the above statement. A total of 46.3% of respondents disagreed with the statement, while 17.1% strongly disagreed. Nevertheless, 18.6% of respondents indicated that they agreed and 5.9% were strongly in favour of the

statement. However, 12.1% of respondents were neutral. If one combines strongly agree and agree cases, on one hand, and then strongly disagree and disagree on the other, it is apparent that a majority of respondents were not happy with conservation rules, which were set by ORTPN. Hence, 24.5% was in favour of the statement as opposed to 64.4% of respondents who was not in favour of the statement.

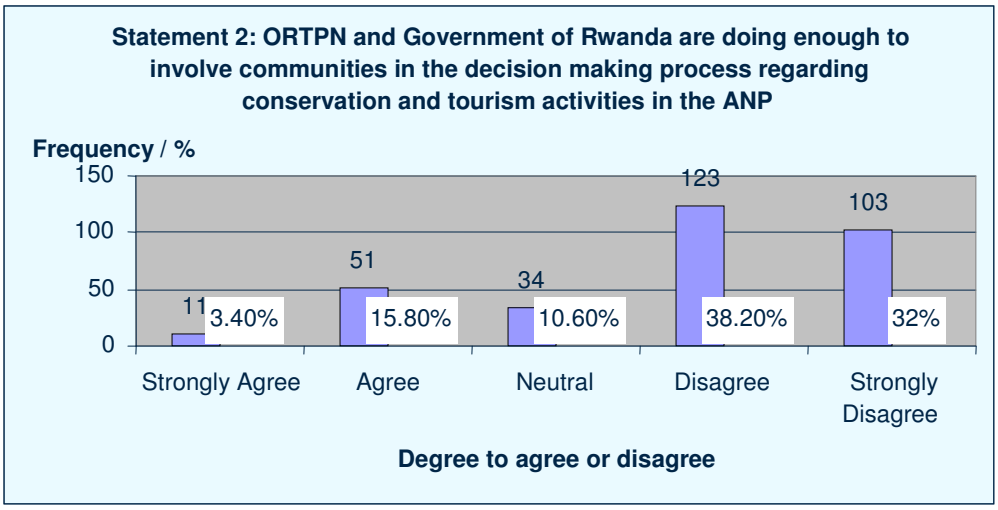

Figure 5.10: Statement about involving communities by ORTPN and the Government of Rwanda

The second statement expressed that ORTPN and the Rwanda Government were doing enough to involve communities in decision making processes regarding conservation and tourism activities in the park. Here also, most respondents were negative about the statement. A total of 38.2% of respondents disagreed, while 32% strongly disagreed. Conversely, 15.8% of respondents agreed with the statement, while 3.4% strongly agreed. With the combination of strongly agree and agree cases on one hand and the combination of strongly disagree and disagree on the other, it is clear that a majority of respondents were not in favour of the statement, hence 19.2% of respondents favoured the statement, and 70.2% of respondents denied the statement's credibility.

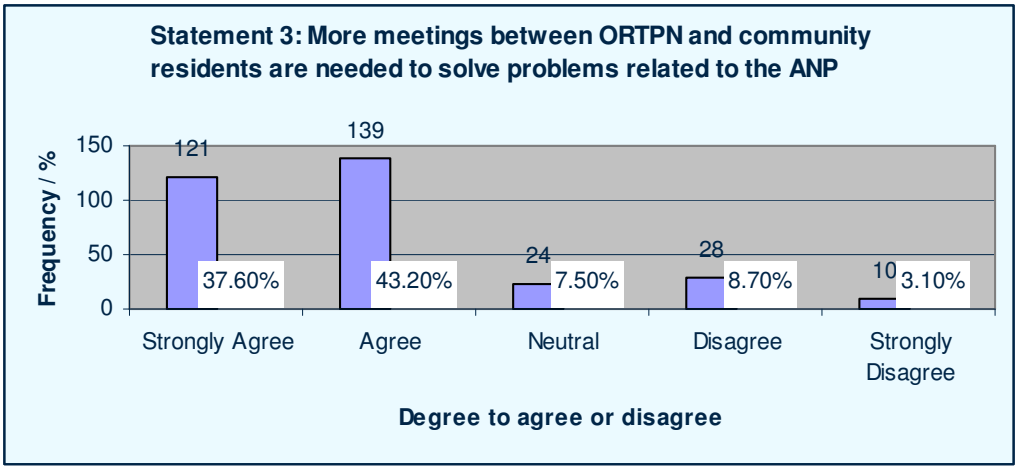

Figure 5.11: Statement about respondent's feelings on more meetings with ORTPN

With regard to the third statement, respondents expressed their willingness to have more meetings with ORTPN in order to solve problems, which relate to the park. With a total of 7.5% of respondents abstaining from taking sides regarding the statement, 43.2% of respondents, however, agreed that more meetings are required, while 37.6% of respondents strongly agreed. Conversely, 8.7% of respondents disagreed that more meetings are required, while 3.1% of respondents strongly disagreed. In essence, nevertheless, a combination of agree and strongly agree cases (80.8%) indicate that residents who neighbour the ANP require more interaction with ORTPN authorities in order to express their views and problems that relate to the park and its activities.

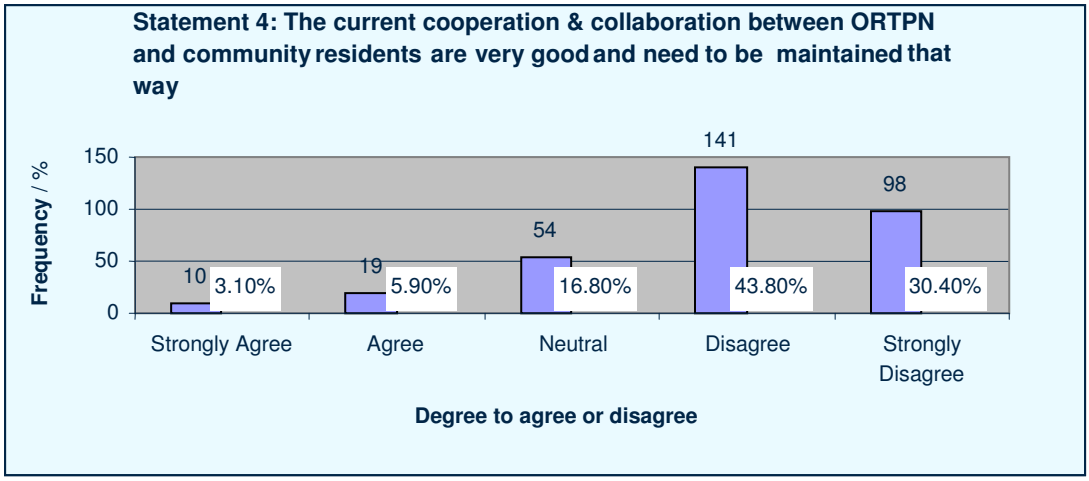

Figure 5.12: Statement about the current cooperation & collaboration between residents and ORTPN

The fourth and final statement comprised a summary of cooperation and collaboration between ORTPN and local residents at Akagera National Park. The gap was indeed broad between respondents who were not in favour of statement four and those who were in favour. A total of 43.8% of respondents and 30.4% of respondents, respectively, disagreed and strongly disagreed with the statement, while 5.9% of respondents and 3.1% of respondents, respectively, agreed and strongly agreed with the statement. This means that 74.2% (43.8% + 30.4%) of respondents were not in favour of the statement and 9% of respondents were in favour of the statement. Summarily, it is indeed apparent that cooperation and collaboration between ORTPN and local residents surrounding ANP are not good and require improvement.

5.2.2.7 Discussion of additional notes, comments and details from household respondents

In order to obtain some in-depth ideas from household respondents, the researcher provided an additional space on the questionnaire where respondents were free to add any comments that they deemed important for this research. Although several respondents did not complete this space, information that was received from a few respondents who completed this section, proved crucial for this analysis and helped the researcher to understand more of what happens in communities surrounding the ANP. Twelve respondents (3.73% of respondents) expressed themselves in this regard and Table 5.5 provides a summary of their notes. One of the respondents thanked the Government of Rwanda for teaching them about natural resources. His statement reads as follows:

"*I think the government is doing well by teaching us about natural resources protection because they attract tourists and hence a source of revenue for the government*".

Although, generally, several respondents criticized the Government and ORTPN with regard to their collaboration policy, the above statement indicates that some people in the local communities around ANP understand the importance of natural resources and park conservation. If the government and ORTPN continue to educate people about conservation, their perceptions about the park will certainly become positive.

Generally, additional comments from respondents were complaints, and dealt mainly with ORTPN not doing enough to protect residents and their belongings from wild animal attacks. However, as also indicated in Table 5.5, there were a few positive comments about the

activities of ORTPN in the communities, as well as other comments that expressed respondents' happiness with the existence of the Akagera National Park as it brings in tourists, and residents benefit from selling them some products.

Table 5.5: Additional notes, comments and details from household respondents

Ref	Comments
1	*I think the government is doing well by teaching us about natural resources protection because they attract tourists and hence a source of revenue for the government.*
2	*I think people must stop hunting in the park because they can mistakenly shoot even tourists who are visiting the park*
3	*It could be much better if the authorities stop us from getting into the park but only if they can stop animals from damaging our crops*
4	*ORTPN must do more to protect us from wild animals as well as reimburse us in case of damages caused by the park animals as we are no longer allowed to kill them from our fields.*
5	*ORTPN must help the community to develop more infrastructures like schools, roads and other stuff because we have problems with public transport. Imagine paying Rwf 3000 for a motorbike in about 10 miles only. (**Note**: Rwf 3000.00 = SA Rand 50.00)*
6	*ORTPN must help us to create our own businesses that can help us to also benefit from tourists money. Nevertheless, we thank ORTPN for funding some community projects in this region like schools and renovating some of our tap water sources.*
7	*The ORTPN does not give us jobs. they only use people from Kigali city and unknown people in our communities*
8	*The wild animals are a big problem that the government must try to protect us from, otherwise we respect tourists to come in Rwanda and bring foreign currencies.*
9	*They [ORTPN] don't want us to hunt their animals, yet the animals come to destroy our livestock and crops*
10	*We benefit from selling fresh crops to tourist especially those from Kigali city who do not want to buy the same items at an expensive price in Kigali*
11	*When tourist come here the community benefit because we sell our local products to them and they pay very good money*
12	*Why should we stop from going in the park which is a God's property put there for people to use? Those people from Kigali must let us also exploit our forest.*

Apart from comments, which were added to the questionnaire, the researcher managed to conduct a few oral interviews with some household respondents and the following remarks were made:

Some residents claimed that the unrestricted movement of wild animals from the park is one of the reasons why they live in poverty. In Munini, which is a residential area (umudugudu) in Rwimbogo, residents indicated that they cannot grow cassava because of wild pigs and other animals from the park. They also remarked that they have trouble growing maize because it happens to be a favourite dish for hippos.

George Gahondogo, a resident from Mucucu, also in Rwimbogo, warned that buffalo remain their number one threat. He reiterated that lions kill in other areas such as Rwemiyaga in the Nyagatare District, but that it is the buffalo that are responsible for most cattle and human deaths or injuries in Mucucu village.

Some respondents claimed that they are afraid to express their complaints to ORTPN for fear that ORTPN will punish them instead of compensate them. Bazimya from Mucucu village told the researcher that they "*used to report losses to the game rangers",* but that they *"stopped after realizing it was in vain".* He added that *"now we cannot even dare ask."*

While there are some policies that ORTPN has established to help victims of wild animal attacks as is reported in the following section (Section B), some residents are not aware of these policies and one of the respondents simply laughed at the idea that ORTPN provides assistance of any kind to victims of park animals. She said that she had "*never heard any one assisted by ORTPN*" and that "*buffalo injure people and kill their domestic animals all the time",* but she "*never heard any one get money from ORTPN*".

It is probably possible that some victims do not receive any help because they do not know when, where and how to claim it. After all, these are remote areas and their local leaders may not forward their claims because there is no compensation or obligation on the part of ORTPN.

5.3 Section B: Discussion of interview results from key informants and government officials

It was a bit challenging and difficult for the researcher to secure appointments with ORTPN and government authorities for interviews to discuss matters related to tourism and

conservation activities in Akagera National Park. About five ORTPN officials were initially targeted by the researcher, but only two of them could give their time to the researcher for interviews. Among the executive secretaries of the five administrative sectors under study, one of them could make it. Nevertheless, the data obtained form the three interviewed leaders was paramount and contributed significantly towards the findings and conclusions of this research.

5.3.1 Interview one

The first interview was held with Mr. Charles Nsabimana, ORTPN's protection warden in Akagera National Park. He contributed a lot to this research with regard to ORTPN challenges in Akagera National Park, and how ORTPN deals with damages caused by park animals in local communities.

He placed community residents' activities that cause problems for the park into three main points:

Grazing: Mr. Nsabimana indicated that grazing is a big problem that ORTPN faces within Akagera National Park. This is, according to him, because of the fact that most people who reside in this area are cattle herders and have a lot of cows without enough grazing space in their own farms. He mentioned that there are laws that restrict people from using the park as grazing fields; however, cattle herders allow their cattle to graze in the park during the night and remove the cows from the park early in the morning.

Poverty: Mr. Nsabimana indicated that residents' poverty is a great challenge to the existence of the ANP. He mentioned that because residents do not have enough food, they tend to seek food from hunting in the park and practice illegal fishing in some of the lakes, which are located inside the park. Poverty also urges people to seek fire wood from the park as most community residents use fire wood to prepare their food.

Commercial: some of the activities mentioned in the second point (poverty) are driven by commercial practices. According to Mr. Nsabimana, poaching (hunting) and illegal fishing are mostly motivated by business activities. This is because most restaurants around Akagera National Park use more hunted meet than meet from the livestock. Other activities related to commercial motives in the park are illegal smugglers from Tanzania who pass through the park and there is also excessive cultivation of marijuana in the

park's forest. Mr. Nsabimana believed that the activities can also cause problems to the park's management.

In short, Mr. Nsabimana stated that local community residents cause much trouble to the park and its biodiversity. He stated that while fire wood and grazing are some of the biggest motives for residents' visits to the park, hunting is a more serious problem that the park management faces as, according to him, it does not only disturb the eco-system in the park, but also takes the lives of animals that were meant to be preserved. These hunters, also labelled as poachers by him, are dangerous to the park system. He said that these poachers attract animals by starting fires in the park. An area burnt by the fire becomes attractive to animals when new vegetation grows and then poachers get chance to capture them. Wild fires are one of the biggest challenges that ANP faces. In addition, Mr. Nsabimana expressed that the other challenge that probably causes all of the above problems is the fact that there are no borders between the park and peoples' land.

However, Mr. Nsabimana also indicated that the park causes a lot of problems to the communities as well. He mentioned that owing to a lack of water in the park animals leave the park and enter the residents' fields and farms whilst seeking drinking water. While there, the animals often kill or injure local people, destroy crops and homes, and kill livestock (cows, goats and chickens). Most of these animals include hippos, elephants and buffalo.

Mr. Nsabimana indicated that ORTPN had not been compensating people for damages caused by park animals because there is no law, which determines how to do that, at least not at the time that this research was conducted.

He mentioned that there was, as yet, no law that determined things such as who receives compensation, proof of damage, by what measure or where the money will come from, and so on, but further indicated that ORTPN were working on such a law.

The protection manager, nevertheless, expressed that although ORTPN did not compensate the people, but did not simply ignore them either. He indicated that some sort of assistance had been extended to various victim categories as a gesture of good neighbourliness.

According to Mr. Nsabimana, for every cow that was killed by park animals, the park gives the owner Rwf 20,000 (SA Rand 320.00), as assistance. Furthermore, he said that where a

person is injured by animals, ORTPN contributes to hospital or medical bills. ORTPN also covers expenses for burial in the case of a human death.

As a strategic plan to curb the attacks from park animals, Mr. Nsabimana expressed hope that the planned construction of an electric fence that will divide local peoples' lands from the ANP will create a lasting solution for most complaints against the park.

Mr. Nsabimana finally indicated that ORTPN and the government are working on finalizing a Wildlife Act, which will reduce human-wildlife conflicts in all Rwandan national parks, including Akagera National Park.

5.3.2 Interview two

The second interview was successfully conducted with Mr. Providence Sibomana, the ORTPN community conservation warden in Akagera National Park. The interview with Mr. Sibomana was efficient, since it generated a lot of information regarding ORTPN policies in integrating local communities amongst tourism and conservation activities in ANP.

Mr. Sibomana reiterated that poor understanding and lack of skills on the part of local community residents is the biggest barrier to conservation and management of the park. He mentioned that the lack of conservation understanding drives people to activities such as starting wild fires in the park, hunting and poaching, overgrazing and illegal fishing. However, he mentioned that ORTPN works in conjunction with local communities to try and curb those illegal activities by sensitizing and educating them and providing them with different assistance programmes. He insisted that measures are in place to curb illegal activities; they include providing local community residents with information on emerging business opportunities such as selling handcrafts to tourists, cultural and heritage shows and offering Rwandan cuisine to interested tourists.

With regard to policy making process, Mr. Sibomana expressed that about four partners participate in the process. These are members of parliament, the Ministry in charge of tourism and conservation, ORTPN and local community residents who live around the concerned park, in this case Akagera National Park. He explained that it takes nine steps, which are explained below:

Step 1: ORTPN assesses the need for a policy or a law and makes a public tender to hire a panel of law or policy experts within the relevant field.

Step 2: The hired panel of external experts conduct surveys amongst ORTPN staff in Akagera National Park and local community residents to obtain their ideas about the policy or law proposal.

Step 3: After gathering ideas from local people and ORTPN staff, the panel of experts draw a draft of the law and present it to ORTPN's law department.

Step 4: ORTPN, through its law department, approves the policy/law or it gives it back to the panel of experts for necessary amendments.

Step 5: Once approved by ORTPN, the policy/law is sent to the Ministry in charge of tourism and conservation (MINICOM) for the Minister's approval.

Step 6: If approved by the Minister, the policy/law goes to parliament in the lower chamber of deputies for their assessment and approval. They either approve it or send it back for amendments.

Step 7: Once approved by the lower chamber of deputies, the law/policy passes to the senate (the high chamber) to check its conformity with the Rwanda constitution.

Step 8: After approval from the senate the law/policy is sent through to the presidency to be signed by the President of the Republic. Here, it may also be rejected or returned for amendment/s.

Step 9: Once signed by the President of the Republic, the law/policy is gazetted in the National Gazette and consequently becomes effective.

Mr. Sibomana talked about a specific policy that was already established to encourage local residents to participate in the conservation of national parks in Rwanda. He mentioned that ORTPN has established a policy on how to share revenue with community residents surrounding ANP. He indicated that the policy is in line with Rwanda's strategy to promote tourism for the benefit of all Rwandan people. He stressed that ORTPN gives five per cent (5%) of tourism revenue to districts surrounding ANP to invest in projects that benefit people who live there. According to him, tourism revenue is supposed to benefit people who are affected by tourism and conservation in ANP.

Mr. Sibomana was so positive that those projects are a testament that Rwanda's tourism sector is a success tool for poverty eradication and another sensitization strategy that involves communities in the conservation of wildlife and their habitat.

During this interview, Mr. Sibomana stated that some of the projects that ORTPN has funded in the Akagera National Park area through the revenue sharing policy include:

- 11 schools with 47 classrooms ;
- Three hospitals;
- Two community curio shops;
- 15 communal water taps and 10 water harvesting tanks;
- Seven bridges; and
- Rwimbogo women handcraft association.

Future projects, according to Mr. Sibomana, include:

- Construction of Rwimbogo Secondary School;
- Kageyo Primary School;
- A 2km stone wall in Nyagakonji to contain the movement of buffalo out of the park;
- Construction of a modern brick making centre; and
- Construction of a cultural centre and grain milling factory.

Other income generating activities funded by ORTPN include bee farming, goat herding, mushroom farming, energy saving stoves and tree planting. Mr. Sibomana explained that these projects are first chosen by local government officials after surveying what is needed in their respective districts and sectors, and then submitted to ORTPN for funding. Ordinary people have no voice in deciding, which projects should be pursued or which should be rejected, according to Sibomana.

Mr. Sibomana concluded that the aim of revenue sharing is to promote more equitable shares of costs and benefits from conserved tourism resources. The researcher questioned a need for such revenue sharing, while Sibomana asserted that there should be effective tourism revenue sharing with people who live around the protected areas for them to conserve the available resources. He added that proper community conservation programs based on revenue sharing enable citizens to have persistent trust in protected areas.

5.3.3 Interview three

A third interview was conducted with a local government official from one of the five sectors included in the research sample, namely Mr. Murara Fred Kazoola. He also stressed that ORTPN gives five per cent of tourism revenue to local residents through their respective districts to help them develop their own projects. Mr. Kazoola felt that ORTPN is excellent at giving back to the community, although he contended that ORTPN could do a little more to compensate residents.

He said that when ORTPN captures peoples' cattle in the park, and owners have no money to pay fines immediately, his office writes to ORTPN to guarantee payment so that cows can be released. However, he lamented that when people bring claims about animal attack damages, his office cannot forward their claim to ORTPN because they have no compensation policy in place. Nevertheless, Mr. Kazoola believed that people have a more positive attitude towards ORTPN though they are not properly compensated. He commented that people [local residents] are beginning to understand that the park's animals are in fact their own as well. To him it is more like one's own cow killing another when a park animal attacks someone's cow. Nevertheless, Mr. Kazoola believes that there is certain unfair treatment from ORTPN by stressing that there are laws and policies that restrict people from damaging park property but that, conversely, there is no policy in place that assists local people when wild animals from the park damage their properties or kill them.

In order to clearly understand how revenue sharing policy works between ORTPN and local government institutions, the researcher asked Mr. Kazoola to brief him in this regard. Mr. Kazoola indicated that ORTPN determines how much should be allocated to local districts in the revenue sharing system, which is five percent of the year's gross revenue. Then ORTPN writes letters to concerned leaders and informs them of the amount that should be allocated to the districts and then asks them to make project proposals that should be funded. He stressed that money is only released once ORTPN approves projects that should be funded. This means that the districts do not have full deciding power over this money as ORTPN manages the funds and releases them to be paid only to approved projects. The researcher sought to understand the role that community residents play in this process and Mr. Kazoola indicated that the process is only between local leaders and ORTPN because it will be a long process to involve the entire population in the process. He also added that this process is fair to community residents as local leaders (on district levels) who participate in that process were initially elected to office by the residents themselves.

5.4 Summary

Chapter Five presented and analysed results from the research questionnaire. The emphasis of this chapter was on presenting and analysing data that was gathered to find solutions to research questions pertaining to the extent of community involvement in tourism and conservation activities in Akagera National Park. The data was presented in a way, which would assist the researcher to achieve the objectives of this research, as stated in Chapter One.

The results were presented in four major parts: demographic characteristics, questions from the household questionnaire pertaining to tourism and conservation of ANP, open additional notes from household respondents and finally a discussion of key informants' interviews from ORTPN and local government officials.

CHAPTER SIX

FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Introduction

This final chapter discusses the findings, conclusions, as well as recommendations of the research. The findings are discussed in accordance with the research questions and objectives. Then a discussion of recommendations follows before research conclusions are discussed. Finally, the chapter discusses limitations of the research, as well as further areas for future research and the chapter ends with a general summary of the research.

6.2 Statement of the research problem

Tourism has been targeted as one of the key leading areas for Rwanda's economic and social development recovery after the 1990-1994 civil war and genocide. In this regard, specific emphasis was placed on the redevelopment and conservation of Akagera National Park, which is located in Eastern Rwanda and, which had been massively destroyed by the war (Rwanda, 2003:12).

However, though the country's tourism policy underpins involvement of local communities in tourism and conservation activities close to all Rwanda national parks, the extent of this involvement in Akagera National Park remains unexplored. A lack of documentation concerning local residents' involvement in this park's tourism and conservation activities is, therefore, a leading motivation for the study. Furthermore, the partnership between Eastern Rwanda residents adjacent to Akagera National Park and the national tourism and conservation body [ORTPN], to manage tourism and conservation activities in the park, was also paid particular attention.

6.3 Research questions

This research was designed and sought to address the following questions:

- How and to what extent are community residents involved in tourism and conservation activities in Akagera National Park?
- What are community residents' feelings about tourism and conservation activities in Akagera National park?
- What policies are in place to enhance community involvement in tourism and conservation activities in Akagera National Park?

6.4 Findings

The findings were analysed in accordance with the research questions mentioned in the previous sub-section. The main purpose was to respond to these questions, which would enable the research to respond to the main research question. In addition to the questions, the research aimed to develop a knowledge base of the involvement of community residents in tourism activities and conservation activities in eastern Rwanda, by using the case of communities adjacent to Akagera National Park and, hence, the researcher wanted to (1) satisfy the researcher's curiosity and desire for better understanding; (2) test the feasibility of undertaking a more extensive study; and (3) pave the way for other researchers who are interested in similar studies.

6.4.1 Extent of local community residents' involvement in tourism and conservation activities in Eastern Rwanda

At World Conservation Congress Resolution 1.53, the IUCN recognised that indigenous people have the right "to participate effectively in the management of the protected areas established on their lands or territories" and, therefore, agreements should be reached with them "prior to the establishment of protected areas in their lands or territories". Also, this resolution requests all components of the IUCN to "endorse, support, participate in and advocate the development and implementation of a clear policy in relation to protected areas established in indigenous lands and territories". 'This action is to be based on the recognition of land/territorial and resource rights, the necessity for prior agreement on the establishment of new protected areas on their lands or territories, and rights to effective participation in protected area management' (Beltrán, 2000:4).

This study used the case of Akagera National Park. In this park, the process seems to have operated contrary to the above resolution. Despite the fact that Akagera National Park is an area of particular value in terms of uniqueness, and is rich in biological diversity, this research found that local people from local communities, within the boundaries of the park area, were left marginalized in decision making processes and through the centralized top-down approach, government and ORTPN have set management and conservation policies for the park without consultation and acceptance of local people and in spite of the fact that local people have their private land and livestock hugely affected by the ANP. A total of 28.26 % of respondents indicated that they had participated in meetings with ORTPN with regard to management and conservation of the park and its resources (see table 5.4). Furthermore,

70.2% of respondents indicated that ORTPN and the government have not been doing enough to involve them in conservation decision making of ORTPN, while 64.4% of respondents expressed their dissatisfaction with the level of collaboration between ORTPN and local communities (see Figure 5.9 and Figure 5.10).

In addition, as contended by Tosun (2000:626), community involvement in tourism can be considered from at least two viewpoints: in the decision-making process and in the benefits of tourism development. However, results of this research suggest that community participation in Akagera National Park has been recognised by ORTPN and the government of Rwanda only in the sense of helping local people to derive economic benefits via revenue sharing policies (see interview 2) and encouraging them to operate small scale businesses such as curio shops, rather than by creating opportunities for them to have a say in the process of decision making of tourism development and conservation policies. Nevertheless, the economic and social benefits from tourism activities for ANP local communities are also not sufficient to conclude that one of Tosun's (2000) viewpoints is satisfied. This study found that merely 17.1% is involved in tourism related business activities through either employment or business ownership (see Table 5.3 and Appendix E). The study, however, found that ORTPN is trying to do well in terms of providing social and economic infrastructure to communities around ANP, as revealed by the ORTPN official (see interview two under section B in Chapter Five).

As several studies have already revealed (Tosun, 2000:626), without creating opportunities for local people to participate in the decision-making process of Akagera National Park's tourism and conservation plans, it would be difficult for these people [local communities] to obtain adequate benefits from tourism activities. In addition, it is indeed questionable to see how ORTPN and the government set policies. For example, if one considers 5% of revenue sharing policy mentioned by the second interviewee from ORTPN, the results suggest that [through informal talks with residents] few people are aware of this policy and apparently it has been only communicated through local government officials (see interview three under section B of Chapter Five, paragraph 4). This indicated that local residents' participation in decision making in Akagera National Park is done through representation by government officials. However, the same residents who were informally interviewed expressed that there are no meetings that are conducted with them and their representatives (local government officials) to decide on the message that those representatives should forward to ORTPN. Furthermore, ORTPN's second interviewee indicated that ORTPN decides on what projects from district leaders should be funded, while the power of district leaders is only limited to

forwarding proposals. This also indicates that the decision making process with regard to ANP revenue sharing, is unilateral on the part of ORTPN.

Although Rwanda has opted for a decentralised system in its rural development plans, it is evident that it has failed to do so in areas of tourism and conservation; at least in Akagera National Park. The researcher believes that considering the research results, the decision making system for ANP tourism and conservation development plans remains highly centralised, which works against a participatory development approach. The researcher believes that the Rwanda government keeps the tourism decision making process centralised because this is a strategic industry where the government derives much of the public revenue and, perhaps, it is not ready to release all deciding powers to decentralised bodies that can work contrary to its will.

6.4.2 Community residents' feelings about tourism and conservation activities in Eastern Rwanda

As indicated in the previous discussion, this study used Akagera National Park as a case study. Household respondents who participated in the study indicated a number of complaints regarding how ORTPN treats them (see Table 5.5 and Appendix E). Based on additional comments by household respondents and the conversations (informal talks) that the researcher organised with some household respondents, the research found that community residents do not feel positive about treatment that they receive from ORTPN. The findings indicate that community residents feel that they are less important in the face of ORTPN compared to the park animals (see Table 5.5, point 9). This feeling responds to Scheyvens' (1999:247) eco-tourism framework, which spells out signs of community disempowerment when agencies initiate or implement ecotourism ventures and treat communities as passive beneficiaries by failing to involve them in decision-making, hence a majority of community members feel that they have little or no say over whether or not tourism initiatives operate or the way in which they operate (see Table 2.2).

One respondent expressed that "one wild animal is more important to ORTPN than five community residents because if one wild animal is killed many community residents may be arrested even if they might have done nothing" (informal talks with respondents). This statement indicates that the partnership between ORTPN and community residents is still weak. Conversely, as indicated by respondents, ORTPN does not care if community livestock such as cows or their agriculture crops are destroyed by the wild animals (see Table 5.5).

Respondents estimated that ORTPN regard the situation as an accident and does not reimburse anything to the communities. The research reveals that community residents struggle to obtain an institution in which they can direct their complaints about ORTPN because when they take their complaints to local government officials, they are told by the officials that they do not have the power to prosecute ORTPN (see point 5.2.2.7, paragraph 7). The option for local residents is merely to keep quiet and remain patient.

Concerning ORTPN's revenue sharing policy of 5%, most household respondents who were informally interviewed by the researcher [after interviews with ORTPN officials] indicated that they are not aware of such a policy (see point 5.2.27, paragraph 8). Furthermore, the ORTPN official who had been interviewed explained that the projects that are funded by that revenue come from local government officials and not from community residents (see interview two under section B of Chapter Five). He also explained that ORTPN keeps the money until a proper project proposal is obtained from local leaders, otherwise, money will not be disbursed. The findings of this research clearly indicate that ORTPN makes decisions on its own and that it regards local people as people who should just be given some sort of financial help to ease their tension towards ORTPN, and not as partners who should actively participate in the conservation and management of the park. What is apparent in this research is that ORTPN works as an independent body, which dictates to the local people regarding what to do or not to do (see interview two under section B of Chapter Five, paragraph 4).

More importantly, it should be noted that collaboration and cooperation between ORTPN and local residents in Akagera region is weak; in fact, it does not exist. This research estimates that community residents and ORTPN do not have a common understanding regarding management of the resources within the park and how the park is conserved. Furthermore, there is unfair treatment on the side of ORTPN towards local residents when it comes to protecting the park and its biodiversity (see interview one and three under section B in Chapter 5). This means that in the circle of conserving the park and its biodiversity, ORTPN regards local people as threats to the park and not as participants who would help ORTPN to achieve its objectives. Another sign of lack of collaboration between ORTPN and local communities is that most household respondents who were informally interviewed, complained about the lack of any institution that they could channel their problems and issues with ORTPN which, in fact, translates into the fact that ORTPN hardly engages with local communities.

This research finally reveals that the lack of compensation package from ORTPN towards damages that are caused by park animals is a serious hindrance to its collaboration and partnering with local residents in ANP. The fact is that the lack of a compensation package leaves community residents with no choice but to hunt and kill animals that come to their farms. It also leaves them with a denial to cooperate with ORTPN on matters such as help ORTPN to fight wildfires that more often destroy the park or refuse to provide information that can lead to the arrest of popular poachers who hunt animals for commercial purposes. Household respondents themselves estimate that cooperation and collaboration between them and ORTPN is not good. This was revealed by 74.2% of respondents who disagreed with the statement that "the current cooperation and collaboration between ORTPN and community residents are very good and need to be maintained that way" (see Figure 5.12).

6.4.3 Policies that enhance community residents' involvement in tourism and conservation activities in Eastern Rwanda: the case of ANP

As stated by one of the interviewees from ORTPN, the national tourism and conservation policy in Rwanda is based on five principles:

1. Improved conservation of protected areas and wetlands;
2. Sustainable use of biodiversity of natural ecosystems and agro ecosystems;
3. Rational use of biotechnology;
4. Development and strengthening of policy, institutional, legal and human resource frameworks; and
5. Equitable sharing of benefits derived from the use of biological resources.

It is clear that the fifth point above seems to be the one that refers to partners in tourism and conservation exercises, which include local residents. The policy also stresses that the involvement of the population that live around the conservation of protected areas is of great importance.

However, this policy seems to regard local residents as dormant participants who need only be informed or economically assisted, for example, by providing them with some financial incentives for tourism, employment opportunities and does not value them as partners who will be involved in decision-making processes. The research results found that the only community involvement policy that is in place in Akagera National Park is that of revenue sharing. As also revealed by the ORTPN official (see chapter 5: section B), 5% of tourism revenue is given to districts that neighbour the park so that they use the funds in projects that

will benefit the local residents. Most of this money is spent on public facilities such as the construction of schools, as well as construction of water taps and bridges. To a lesser extent, the funds are also used to assist and finance small projects from the local community's residents such as bee keeping and curio shops. In fact, residents do not even have any knowledge about the existence of revenue sharing policy.

Nevertheless, the research results reveal that local residents in the ANP area do not even derive much economic benefit from tourism activities within the park as few people own or work in tourism related businesses (see Table 5.2), even though ORTPN estimates that having more local people open small businesses from the tourism revenue sharing exercise is one of its priority goals.

6.5 Recommendations

In order for tourism activities to succeed in the Akagera National Park and contribute to long-term sustainable socio-economic development, an alternative tourism strategy that value more local community integration is required to assist in ameliorating social, economic and environmental problems that seriously confront communities, which have a negative impact on the industry. In this regard, the success of tourism development should not be measured merely in terms of increased numbers of tourist arrivals and gross tourism revenues, but should also be evaluated according to how the industry benefits local communities at a grassroots level. In this regard the revenue sharing policy, which was initiated by ORTPN should be strengthened and should involve the input of local communities (the beneficiaries), for instance, with regard to what they would like to do with the money.

For tourism to contribute to long-term sustainable socio-economic development, policy and institutional mechanisms should be initiated, which promote local involvement and participation in tourism project design, implementation and management. Thus, the main objectives of the Rwandan tourism strategy should include: enhancement of equitable distribution of the tourism revenues; increased local participation in tourism decision making; increasing the multiplier effects of tourism; and minimisation of social and environmental impacts of tourism. The following principal elements [recommendations] can assist to minimise negative impacts of tourism, and enhance its efficacy to promote long-term sustainable development.

Recommendation one

Tourism activities in the Akagera National Park should be appropriately planned, monitored and managed to ensure that they do not conflict with conservation and sustainable use of resources, as well as compromise the livelihood of local residents.

Recommendation two

Policy and institutional mechanisms should be established to encourage local participation in the design, implementation and management of tourism projects and local use of tourism resources. At least, local communities should be empowered to determine what forms of tourism facilities they want to see developed in their respective communities, and how tourism costs and benefits should be shared among different stakeholders. In order to achieve these, socio-political changes will require decentralisation of tourism authority and decision-making processes from a national level to elected regional and grassroots institutions and organisations such as district councils, administration sectors and local community villages [commonly known in Rwanda as imidugudu].

Community based tourism activities that are designed and implemented through community consensus other than centrally planned (top-down) tourism programmes may cause less negative effects and disruption of rural cultures and livelihood. These tourism programmes will potentially enhance opportunities for spontaneous, rather than contrived encounters between local communities, tourists and top government institutions. Also, community based tourism projects will possibly lead to increased linkages and multiplier effects of tourism with domestic economic sub-sectors.

Recommendation three

ORTPN should develop a clear community-based conservation and tourism development approach that will see residents in Akagera region actively participate in the decision making process of activities that are related to tourism and conservation in the area. Using the participation typology of Pretty (see Table 2.5), ORTPN should use an interactive participation approach where people, including local communities and ORTPN itself, will participate in joint analysis, development of action plans and formation or strengthening of local institutions. ORTPN should regard participation here as a right, not merely as a means to achieve project goals. ORTPN should also recognise that through this process local groups

take control over local decisions and determine how local resources should be used, so that they have a stake in maintaining structures and practices.

Recommendation four

In order for community-based tourism and conservation to materialise in the Akagera National Park area, local communities should develop a pool of resources, including financial support, human capital, and ownership of tourism projects, as well as marketing exposure. Local people should be actively involved in each and every stage of tourism planning and development in order to ensure that all their tourism projects and products are integrated in tourism programmes that are reserved for visitors.

Recommendation five

Local communities in Akagera area should be engaged and should be involved in development programmes in their villages right from the start. This process will present a significant step towards ensuring more adequate participation in conservation and tourism. However, considering the fact that there is a lack of skills within local communities to make decisions independently, ORTPN and the Rwanda Government should develop a strategy that will see more local skills strengthened. This means that for some time local people will only participate through consultation (see Table 2.5) until necessary skills are produced within the local communities so that interactive participation, which was suggested in point three of the principal elements, can be fully implemented.

Recommendation six

Environmental education should be provided. Far too often people who live on the periphery never get an opportunity to experience and learn more about the wildlife that live within the park. This is especially important for the youth so that they can have a future. An environment education program should be established by ORTPN to provide the youth with opportunities to experience and learn about their natural heritage. The programme can be conducted through schools and synergies, which can be explored between schools and the park.

Recommendation seven

ORTPN's complaint management, in collaboration with the Rwanda Government, should establish a clear, institutional channel where local residents should direct their complaints about problems, which are caused by the park or its biodiversity to the residents and their properties.

Recommendation eight

ORTPN should try to come up with a clear zoning plan of the ANP. This is because there is no clear distinction between local peoples' farms [land] and the Park. This means that the park's boundaries are not clear and there is no fencing or any other form of limits that disallow wild animals from getting out of the park to residents' farms. Some of residents' cows are captured by ORTPN for contravening park rules because the owners might not exactly know that their cows are grazing in the park since there are no boundaries.

Recommendation nine

Finally, ORTPN should work with academic researchers, anthropologists, economists, politicians, socialists and environmental specialists to develop a better understanding of the dynamics of rural communities. They should familiarise themselves with rural residents' values, norms and attitudes, as well as the way in which those rural residents approach the idea of development, which leads to sustainable livelihood.

6.6 Research conclusions

Highly centralised public administration system and planning activities are common practice in Rwanda's tourism sector. As Tosun (2000:627) believes, this works against the participatory tourism development approach. Clearly, moving towards a more participatory tourism development policy requires decentralisation of public administration systems including tourism planning. In this context, political and administrative decentralisation should be supported in parallel to the conception that local bodies know local problems and feelings, and hence what is suitable, in a better way than the central authorities possibly can. That is to say, as Tosun (2000:629) contends, meaningful participation necessitates a systematic local autonomy, through which communities bring to light possibilities of exercising choice and thereby becoming capable of handling their own development. The lesson from this research

is that local administrative leaders in the Akagera area should be re-organised to protect, defend and reflect concerns and interests of local people in their administrative areas. Additional financial resources should be made available for local leaders to use particularly for community development projects and organisation of participatory activities. However, genuine community participation will require a change in attitudes and behaviours of decision makers that exclude local people; this will lead to new patterns of distributing power and controlling resources.

The findings reveal that an understanding of the relationships between local people and protected areas, as well as knowledge of conflicts between people and protected areas, is required for the design of sustainable conservation strategies for the management of the Akagera National Park. In this regard ensuring local support in Akagera area is still viewed by the researcher as an important element in the ANP's biodiversity conservation. Furthermore, Tosun (2000:628) asserts that the success of individual policies typically depends on whether various stakeholders are positively or negatively affected by conservation. Thus, the attitudes and perceptions of stakeholders towards a conservation area and the policy being implemented are important for sustainable conservation. The findings of this study necessitate a need to strengthen the current ANP biodiversity conservation policy, promote the involvement of local people and empower them, in terms of resource use, but also in terms of skills that are required in interaction with other stakeholders.

It is necessary to promote communication and collaboration between stakeholders on an appropriate level. Some positive attitudes towards Akagera National Park and conservation from local residents were significantly influenced by benefits from the governmental policy of revenue sharing, which enabled some community projects to be realised. However, negative feelings were highly influenced by the park's wild animals that destroy both crop and domestic livestock that belong to local people and yet the government does not reimburse them, while, conversely, when domestic animals from local communities enter the park, their owners have to pay a penalty fine to the park management. Community residents around ANP regard that as an unfair practice from ORTPN's side; instead, there should be measures that ensure that both sides respect each other's rights and obligations. The researcher also believes that when people are connected through participation in their social and institutional context, the capacity for participation is increased. This research is probably the first that concerns local community involvement in Akagera National Park and is thus of great significance in respect of practical use to Akagera National Park managers and the

Government of Rwanda. This research study makes a scientific contribution to an understanding of concerns of the people who live around the Akagera National Park area.

6.7 Limitations of the research

Limited existing research about Akagera National Park was one of the biggest challenges that this research encountered. The researcher had to rely on other research that was conducted elsewhere to be able to understand the models and theories behind tourism development and conservation, especially regarding the involvement of local and indigenous communities. Nevertheless, it was one of the objectives of the study to pave the way for future researchers by generating a secondary source of information. In order to satisfy the researcher's curiosity, the unexploited study area was also a motivating factor for the researcher.

Furthermore, lack of adequate transport facilities in the Akagera region was also a big challenge during this study as the researcher had to rely on lifts from ORTPN or hire motorbikes to get to the study area as there are no public transport systems in this area. Indeed, the selected sample sectors were scattered, which made it difficult to travel from one sector to another because of the lack of transport as indicated above.

6.8 Further research areas

Future studies are highly encouraged in the Akagera National Park. A development of a model that will see local populations become actively involved in the activities of tourism development and conservation is a critical area for further research. The researcher found it surprising and interesting that there are not enough academic studies done on this park given the rich biodiversity that it houses.

Furthermore, future studies should engage in evaluating the impacts and successes of the governmental policy of revenue sharing, which has been implemented in the communities around the Akagera National Park. Whether the policy is effectively implemented and if the process of assigning funded projects is open and democratic to all stakeholders, is also a subject of study.

Another element to explore and, which was not mentioned in this research study, is the cause of fires in the Akagera National Park. More studies are encouraged to determine the core reasons for the fires, which usually damage the park and its biodiversity. ORTPN only thinks that the fires are simply ignited by poachers who target the animals (according to one of

ORTPN interviewees). There might be more reasons behind those fires and one should conduct a scientific study on this subject by also engaging community residents.

6.9 Concluding remarks

This study investigated the extent of local community involvement in tourism development and conservation activities in Akagera National Park. The study used a combination of both a structured questionnaire to obtain information from local residents, while oral interviews were conducted with key informants, including ORTPN and government officials. This report began by firstly introducing and defining the problem under study, while at the same time providing its objectives and significance. A review of literatures was outlined in both Chapter Two and Chapter Three. The literature discussed theories related to tourism and development by elaborating on the linkage between tourism and development. In this section issues regarding impacts of tourism, sustainable tourism and ecotourism, as well as sustainability and stakeholder participation, were discussed in-depth. The literature also made a holistic review of tourism planning processes and approaches and emphasised the participation of communities in tourism decision making processes.

Furthermore, there was no way to discuss tourism and community participation without mentioning conservation in all of these issues. From this perspective, conservation significance around community participation in tourism was discussed and a practical point of view of stakeholder participation in the tourism development process was also elaborated on. Community based conservation was one of the big issues that dominated the last part of Chapter Two and this discussion touched on elements such as emergency of community conservation, description of community conservation, barriers to community conservation, as well as specific agency barriers in supporting community conservation, and finally the chapter discussed possible ways of making community conservation work.

Chapter Three focussed on Rwandan tourism. Here the main discussion was about the evolution of international tourism in Rwanda, which reviewed literature regarding protected areas and tourist attractions in Rwanda. As a country that experienced civil wars and genocide, which destroyed the tourism industry, this chapter tried to brief readers about the renewal of the Rwandan tourism economy after the 1990-1994 civil wars. This chapter also placed specific emphasis on Akagera National Park, which was the study site. On this point, specific focus was placed on the ecological importance of Akagera National Park and its

accessibility, as well as conservation issues that relate to the park. Lastly community life styles around Akagera National Park were debated.

The methodology used in this study was described in Chapter Four. The methods and techniques to collect and analyse data were discussed in this chapter. Specific emphasis was given to the design and administration of the survey and the design, size and unit of the sample. Chapter five presented and discussed the research results. The chapter was divided in two sections. Section one discussed responses from household respondents, while section two discussed interviews, which were conducted with key informants from ORTPN and one government official. The data was presented in both table and graphic formats, as deemed necessary, and statistics were expressed in both absolute figures and percentages.

Finally, Chapter Six discussed the research findings and drew conclusions related to these findings and made necessary recommendations for various stakeholders who may have an interest in this study. Limitations of the study, as well as future areas of research, were also discussed in this final chapter.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Household Questionnaire (English)

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR COMMUNITY RESIDENTS

CAPE PENINSULA UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY

FACULTY OF BUSINESS

MTech: Tourism and Hospitality Management

Research Topic*: Extent of Community Involvement in Tourism Development and Conservation Activities in Eastern Rwanda*

This research is being done for academic purposes as part of the requirements for the completion of a masters' degree. The objectives of the research are: to investigate the involvement of local Eastern Rwanda residents in tourism development as well as conservation of the Akagera National Park (ANP). The study aims to develop a holistic view of the cooperation between local residents, conservation & tourism bodies and government of Rwanda towards the management on the ANP.

You have been selected to respond to this questionnaire by the fact that you are a local resident living adjacent (close) to the park. Your contribution is needed to ascertain your perceptions and involvement towards the development of tourism within and around the park and the conservation activities therein.

This is purely an academic research. All information you will provide that may be personal will remain confidential.

How to complete this questionnaire

- Persons completing this questionnaire should be a local resident close to Akagera National Park and should be of maturity age (18 and above).
- Please place an **'X'** in the block that you wish to select your response to that question unless detailed answer is provided.
- Should you wish to add a comment on this research, please add it in the space provided.

All enquiries regarding this research and questionnaire may be addressed to:

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We would like to pass our sincere thanks to you for your valuable time and contribution to make this research possible. Your information and feedback is of paramount importance to us. Your willingness is appreciated.

Demographic characteristics of respondents

1. Respondent's age:

≤ 20	21-30	31-40	41-50	51-60	> 60

2. Respondent's gender:

Male		Female	

3. Respondent's role in the household

Head of household (family)		Dependant	

4. Please indicate the sector in which you live.

Karangazi	Murundi	Mwiru	Ndengo	Rwimbogo

Tourism and conservation related questions

5. Do you ever go to the park? :

Yes		No	

6. If yes, why?

Hunting	Grazing	Building materials	Fire wood	Worship	Other (please specify)

7. If no, why?

Fear of animals	No interest	No time	Fear of being prosecuted	Others (specify)

8. Rate the following problems that your community faces by assigning numbers 1,2,3,4 and 5 according to the degree of seriousness? 5 being the most serious problem and 1 being the least serious problem.

Limited land	Limited food	Wild animals damage crop & livestock	Lack of access to forest resources	Lack of grazing land

9. If any, what type of tourism business activities are you engaged in? You may choose more than one business activity if applicable to you.

Restaurant		If yes, indicate whether you are the	Owner		or employee	
Guest house		If yes, indicate whether you are the	Owner		or employee	
Craft shop		If yes, indicate whether you are the	Owner		or employee	
Camping Site		If yes, indicate whether you are the	Owner		or employee	
None						

Other (please specify)……..

10. Have you ever been invited to participate in park related discussions?

Yes		No	

11. If you responded yes to the previous question, what was the main reason for the invitation? You may choose more than one option, as applicable to you.

A member of my household (or yourself) had violated park rules	
I received an award/grant from the park authorities	
I met park authorities to discuss the management and conservation of the park	
Meeting with other community members to discuss issues related to the park (access, damage by wild animals, park rules imposed to us, and so on)	
Other (please specify)……	

12. How often are your (community) demands/proposals implemented by the park's management?

Always	Often	Sometimes	No idea	Never

13. If there was/is a tourism community fund available, what projects should be implemented for the community? Choose only one, which is most desirable to you.

Building houses for community members	
Building schools for the community	
Paying school fees for community children	
Paying "mutuel de santé" (medical insurance) for community members	
Funding business projects of community members	

14. To what extent do you agree with the following statements regarding collaboration between your community and the park management?
Please mark your answer with an **"X"** in the appropriate box.

	Strongly agree	**Agree**	**Neutral**	**Disagree**	**Strongly disagree**
Residents are happy with the conservation rules set by ORTPN	1	2	3	4	5
ORTPN and the Government of Rwanda are doing enough to involve communities in decision making regarding conservation and tourism activities in the park	1	2	3	4	5
More meetings between ORTPN and community residents are required to solve problems related to the park.	1	2	3	4	5
Current cooperation and collaboration between ORTPN and community residents are good and should be maintained.	1	2	3	4	5

15. Please use the following box to provide more details and comments about your answer in the previous question (collaboration between community members and park management) or anything else regarding the park that you want to comment on.

If you would like the feedback on this research, please write your email address below:

……..……

……..……

THANK YOU.

Appendix B: Household questionnaire (Kinyarwanda)

Ibibazo bigenewe abaturage begereye pariki y'akagera

Umutwe w'ubushakashatsi*: urwego abaturage bashyira mu bikorwa by'ubukerarugendo no kurinda ibidukikije mu ntara y'iburasirazuba mu Rwanda.*

Ubu bushakashatsi burakorwa ku mpamvu z'ishuri ku bisabwa kurangiza impamyabushobozi ihanitse mu by'ubukerarugendo. Impamvu z'ubu bushakashatsi n'ukureba uburyo abaturage bashyirwa mu bikorwa by'ubukerarugendo no kurinda ibidukikije muri pariki y'akagera.

Twabahisemo gusubiza ibi bazo bikurikira kubera ko mutuye mu nkengero za pariki y'akagera. Inkunga yanyu irakenewe mu kugaragaza ibitekerezo byanyu ku birebana n'ibikorwa by'ubukerarugendo no kurinda ibidukikije muri pariki y'akagera.

Ubu bushakashatsi bugamije gusa impamvu z'ishuri. Ibitekerezo n'ibisubizo uzatanga bishobora kuba ari bwite ku buzima bwawe bizaguma ari ibanga.

Uko basubiza ibibazo by'ubu bushakashatsi:

- Umuntu usubiza ibibazo wese agomba kuba atuye mu nkengero za pariki
- Shyira inyuguti ya X aho ushaka gushyira igisubizo cyawe. Keretse ahasabwa igisubizo kirambuye.
- Niba ushaka kongeraho ibindi bitekerezo, ubishyira mu mwanya wabigenewe.

Ibijyanye n'ubu bushakashatsi byose bigomba kubazwa:

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Tubaye tubashimiye iyi nkunga muradutera mu gusubiza ibi babazo.

Ibibazo by'imyirondoro

1. Imyaka ubarirwamo

≤ 20	21-30	31-40	41-50	51-60	> 60

2. Igitsina

gabo		gore	

3. Akamaro kawe mu rugo

Umukuru w'umuryango		Mba mu muryango	

4. Erekana segiteri utuyemo.

Karangazi	Murundi	Mwiru	Ndengo	Rwimbogo

Ibibazo bijyanye n'ubukerarugendo no kurinda ibidukikije

5. Ujya muri pariki?

Yego		Oya	

6. Niba aribyo, uba ugiye:

Guhiga	Kuragira	Guca ibiti byo kubaka	Gusenya inkwi	Gusenga	Indi mpamvu (yivuge)

7. Niba atari byo, ni ukubera:

Ntinya inyamaswa	Nta mpamvu	Nta mwanya	Ntinya amategeko ya leta	Indi mpamvu (yivuge)

8. Erekana ukuntu ibibabazo bikurikira byugarije akarere ubamo. Urashyira umubare 5 ku kibazo kiremereye kurushya ibindi, hanyuma ushyire 4 ku gikurikiyeho bityo bityo kugeza ushyize rimwe ku kidakomeye cyane. (5,4,3,2,1)

Ubutaka buke	Ibiryo bidahagije	Inyamwas za pariki zona imyaka zikica n'amatungo	Kutemererwa gukoresha ubukungu bwa pariki	Kutagira ubutaka bwo kuragiraho (inzuri)

9. Niba aribyo, ni ibihe bikorwa by'ubukerarugendo n'amahoteri waba ukoramo ubucuruzi. Erekana niba uri nyirabwo cyangwa niba uri umukozi? Ushobora guhitamo ibyo ubona byose urimo.

Resitora		Niba ari byo vuga niba uri	nyirayo		Cg umukozi	
Inzu y'icumbi		Niba ari byo vuga niba uri	nyirayo		Cg umukozi	
Ubukorikori		Niba ari byo vuga niba uri	nyirabwo		Cg umukozi	
Inkambi y'ubukerarugeno		Niba ari byo vuga niba uri	nyirayo		Cg umukozi	
Ntabyo						

Ibindi (Bivuge)……..

10. Wigeze utumirwa mu nama zo kungurana ibitekerezo ku bibazo bya pariki?

Yego		oya	

11. Niba wavuze yego ku kibazo kirangiye, vuga impamvu watumiwe. Ushobora guhitamo impamvu zirenze imwe.

Umuntu wo mu muryango yari yangirije ibidukikije muri pariki	
Nafataga igihembo kivuye ku bayobozi ba pariki	
Nagomba guhura n'abayobozi ba pariki tugananira ku bibazo byo kuyobora no kubungabunga pariki.	
Nagombaga guhura n'abandi bantu duturanye muri kagari cyangwa umurenge kuganira ku bibazo bitubangamiye biterwa na pariki (urugero: kutemererwa kujya muri pariki, inyamaswa zitwonera, amategeko akomeye ya pariki, n'ibindi…)	
Indi mpamvu (yivuge)……	

12. Ni kangahe ibyo musaba abayobozi ba pariki bishyirwa mu bikorwa?

Buri gihe	akenshi	Rimwe na rimwe	Simbizi	Nta na rimwe

13. Haramutse hari ikigega cy'imari iva mu bukerarugendo wifuza ko yakoreshwa iki? Hitamo kimwe gusa wumva kiruta ibindi kuri wowe.

Kubakira abaturage amazu	
Kubaka amashuri mu kagari cyangwa umurenge wacu	
Kwishyura amafaranga y'ishuri y'abana bacu	
Kudufasha kuriha mutuel de santé	
Gudutera inkunga tukikorera imishinga y'ubucuruzi	

14. wemeranya ute n'interuro zikurikira ku mikorere kagati y'abaturage n'abayobozi ba pariki?
Shyira inyuguti ya **"X"** mu kazu uhisemo.

	Ndabyemera cyane	**Ndabyemera**	**Ndifashe**	**Simbyemera**	**Simbyemera na gato**
Abaturag bishimiye cyane amategeko ashyirwaho na ORTPN	1	2	3	4	5
ORTPN na Leta bakora cyane kudushyira mu gufata ibyemezo bijyanye no kubungabunga ibukikije muri pariki	1	2	3	4	5
Inama nyinshi hagati ya ORTPN n'baturage zirakenewe mu gukemura ibibazo bijyanye na pariki	1	2	3	4	5
Imikoranire hagati ya ORTPN n' abaturage iriho ubu irashimishije, ikwiye kuguma uko iri.	1	2	3	4	5

15. Koresha akazu ko hepfo ushyiremo ibindi bitekerezo byaba bijyanye n'ikibazo umaze gusubiza ubona bifitiye ubu bushakashatsi akamaro cyangwa n'ikindi cyose wifuza kuvuga cyaba kijyanye n'ubu bushakashatsi.

Niba ushaka kuzabona amakuru kuri ubu bushakashatsi andika aderesi yawe hasi:

……..……

…….……

MURAKOZE

Appendix C: A guiding questionnaire for interviews

A guiding questionnaire for interviews with key informants from ORTPN and Government officials

This questionnaire was not given to respondents. The intention of the questionnaire was to guide the researcher in terms of, which questions should be asked during the interview in response to the study objectives. The following were the guiding questions.

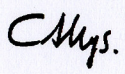
1. What institution do you work for and what is your position?
2. What are current and potential threats to tourism and conservation in ANP?
3. Who are key stakeholders in making policies regarding tourism and conservation in ANP?
4. How do you collaborate/work with local communities?
5. What policies are in place for community integration to participate in tourism and conservation activities in ANP?
6. Specifically, how do local communities respond to conservation policies?
7. What role do you assign to local communities in the process of tourism and conservation policy making?
8. Are there any specific projects that aim to take care of the community needs as a way of encouraging them to participate in tourism and conservation in ANP? If any, what are they?
9. What are the main tourism business activities, if any, that communities are involved in?
10. What current measures which are in place to respond to community threats such as poaching, overgrazing, and so on (violation of park rules)?
11. Do you have other comments or additional information that you would like to add?

Appendix D: Statistician letter

To whom it may concern:

Emmanuel Nsabimana (Student Number 204220645) – MTech dissertation

I have reviewed the statistical analysis used in this dissertation. The student used SPSS 16 to analyse the data. I declare the analysis of the data to be sound.



Corrie Uys, M.Sc (Statistics)

Appendix E: Grammarian Certificate

GRAMMARIAN CERTIFICATE

7 April 2010

Dear Sir/Madam

This serves to confirm that I have proofread and edited the research study entitled: *"The extent of community involvement in tourism development and conservation activities in Eastern Rwanda",* and that the candidate has been advised to make the necessary changes.

Thank you.

Yours faithfully

Shamila Sulayman

(Ms) Shamila Sulayman
Communication Lecturer
Department of Management and Project Management
Faculty of Business
Cape Peninsula University of Technology
(021) 460-3180

Appendix F: SPSS Frequency Tables

1. Section A

1.1. Demographic questions

Respondents' age

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
21-30	34	10.6	10.6	10.6
31-40	50	15.5	15.5	26.1
41-50	116	36.0	36.0	62.1
51-60	109	33.9	33.9	96.0
>60	13	4.0	4.0	100.0
Total	322	100.0	100.0	

Note: This table represents respondents' ages. The highest frequency age was 41-50 with 116 respondents in this category, while the lowest frequent age was above 60 with only 13 respondents in this category.

Respondents' gender

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	203	63.0	63.0	63.0
	Female	119	37.0	37.0	100.0
	Total	322	100.0	100.0	

Note: This table shows the number of females and males who participated in the study: 63% of participants are males and 37% of respondents are females.

Respondents' sector of residence

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Karangazi	65	20.2	20.2	20.2
	Murundi	66	20.5	20.5	40.7
	Mwiru	66	20.5	20.5	61.2
	Ndengo	64	19.9	19.9	81.1
	Rwimbogo	61	18.9	18.9	100.0
	Total	322	100.0	100.0	

Note: The above table shows the number of participants from each of the administrative sectors that were used in the study sample. The numbers shown here are those who successfully completed the household questionnaire. Initially, all the sectors were assigned equal numbers of respondents (66 respondents each).

Respondents' role in the household

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Head of household	255	79.2	79.2	79.2
	Dependent	67	20.8	20.8	100.0
	Total	322	100.0	100.0	

Note: This table indicates frequencies of respondents regarding their household roles. The roles were divided into two: head of the household and a dependent. A majority of respondents (79.2%) were heads of households.

1.2. Questions related to tourism and conservation activities

Question 5: Do you visit the park?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	307	95.3	95.3	95.3
	No	15	4.7	4.7	100.0
	Total	322	100.0	100.0	

Note: The table above indicates that 95.3% of respondents visit the park, while 4.7% did not.

Question 6: Why do you visit the park, if you answered "yes" to the previous question?

Reason 1: *Hunting*

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	84	26.1	100.0	100.0
Missing	System	238	73.9		
Total		322	100.0		

Reason 2: *Grazing*

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	146	45.3	100.0	100.0
Missing	System	176	54.7		
Total		322	100.0		

Reason 3: *Building Materials*

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	136	42.2	100.0	100.0
Missing	System	186	57.8		
Total		322	100.0		

Reason 4: *Fire wood*

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	249	77.3	100.0	100.0
Missing	System	73	22.7		
Total		322	100.0		

Reason 5: *Worship*

		Frequency	Percent
Missing	System	322	100.0

Note: The above five tables indicate respondents' reasons for visiting the park. Fire wood collection is the most frequent reason that drives local residents to visit the park. Grazing is second. However, there was no single respondent who indicated worship as a reason to visit the park. The term "valid" indicates the number of those who chose that option, while the term "missing" represents the number of respondents who did not choose that option.

Other reasons

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
No other reasons	263	81.7	81.7	81.7
Herbal medicinal products	11	3.4	3.4	85.1
Walking through the path-way	48	14.9	14.9	100.0
Total	322	100.0	100.0	

Note: This table shows other reasons that motivate people to frequent the park. These reasons were provided by respondents apart from those that were provided on the questionnaire.

Question 7: Why do you not visit the park? If your answer was "no" on Question 5

Reason 1: *Fear of animals*

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	15	4.7	100.0	100.0
Missing	System	307	95.3		
Total		322	100.0		

Reason 2: *No interest*

		Frequency	Percent
Missing	System	322	100.0

Reason 3: *No time to go to park*

		Frequency	Percent
Missing	System	322	100.0

Reason 4: *Fear of prosecution*

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	15	4.7	100.0	100.0
Missing	System	307	95.3		
Total		322	100.0		

Other reasons

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	322	100.0	100.0	100.0

Note: The above five tables indicate respondents' reasons not to visit the park. Fear of animals and fear of prosecution are the main reasons that prevent residents from visiting the park. Only 30 respondents indicated that they never visit the park. The term "valid" indicates the number of those who chose that option, while the term "missing" represents the number of respondents who did not choose that option.

Question 8: Problems that face communities, which are adjacent to ANP. The frequency ranges from 5 to 1 with 5 being the most serious problem and 1 being the least serious problem.

a. Limited land

Rating	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
2	55	17.1	17.1	17.1
3	62	19.3	19.3	36.3
4	77	23.9	23.9	60.2
5	128	39.8	39.8	100.0
Total	322	100.0	100.0	

b. Limited food

Rating	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1	132	41.0	41.0	41.0
2	134	41.6	41.6	82.6
3	30	9.3	9.3	91.9
4	14	4.3	4.3	96.3
5	12	3.7	3.7	100.0
Total	322	100.0	100.0	

c. Crop & livestock damage by animals

Rating	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
2	26	8.1	8.1	8.1
3	108	33.5	33.5	41.6
4	82	25.5	25.5	67.1
5	106	32.9	32.9	100.0
Total	322	100.0	100.0	

d. Lack of access to forest resources

Rating	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1	148	46.0	46.0	46.0
2	83	25.8	25.8	71.7
3	42	13.0	13.0	84.8
4	36	11.2	11.2	96.0
5	13	4.0	4.0	100.0
Total	322	100.0	100.0	

e. Lack of grazing land

Rating	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1	42	13.0	13.0	13.0
2	24	7.5	7.5	20.5
3	80	24.8	24.8	45.3
4	113	35.1	35.1	80.4
5	63	19.6	19.6	100.0
Total	322	100.0	100.0	

Note: The above five tables indicate ratings given by respondents in respect of problems faced by the communities. Rate "5" had the highest weighting, while rate "1" had the lowest. In other words, if a person assigns number 5 to a problem, it means that that problem is the most serious compared with other problems and vice versa. Limited land and crop damages by wild animals appeared to be the most serious problems in communities around ANP, while limited food and lack of access to forest animals had the lowest rank.

<u>Question 9</u>: What tourism activities are you engaged in either as an owner or as an employee?

Business activity 1: *Restaurant*

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Did not choose	305	94.7	94.7	94.7
	Owner	1	.3	.3	95.0
	Employee	16	5.0	5.0	100.0
	Total	322	100.0	100.0	

Business activity 2: *Guest House*

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Did not choose	318	98.8	98.8	98.8
	Employee	4	1.2	1.2	100.0
	Total	322	100.0	100.0	

Business activity 3: *Craft Shop*

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Did not choose	288	89.4	89.4	89.4
	Owner	19	5.9	5.9	95.3
	Employee	15	4.7	4.7	100.0
	Total	322	100.0	100.0	

Business activity 4: *Camping site*

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Did not choose	322	100.0	100.0	100.0

Note: The above four tables indicate how respondents participate in tourism business related activities. Respondents had to select if they were an employee or owner of that business activity. Craft shop activity was the most practiced business with 19 respondents (5.9%) owning a craft shop, and 15 (4.7%) who are employed in craft shop businesses. In general, this research indicated that few people from local communities around ANP participate in tourism business related activities.

Do not participate in any tourism business activity

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	294	91.3	100.0	100.0
Missing	System	28	8.7		
Total		322	100.0		

Note: While the previous tables indicate respondents who participate in any tourism business related activity, this table indicates the number of respondents who do not participate in any tourism business activity. This table shows that 91.3% of respondents do not participate in any of the four tourism business activities pre-indicated on the questionnaire.

Other business activities

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid		237	73.6	73.6	73.6
	Bicycle	19	5.9	5.9	79.5
	Hotel gardener	1	.3	.3	79.8
	Motorbike owner	23	7.1	7.1	87.0
	Park guard	4	1.2	1.2	88.2
	Selling fresh food	31	9.6	9.6	97.8
	Taxi Driver	1	.3	.3	98.1
	Tour guiding	2	.6	.6	98.8
	Tourist porter	4	1.2	1.2	100.0
	Total	322	100.0	100.0	

Note: This table summarises other businesses, other than those outlined on the questionnaire, which respondents participated in: selling fresh food to travellers and motorbike businesses were mostly indicated by respondents.

<u>Question 10</u>: Have you ever been invited to participate in discussions that deal with park related matters?

Respondents' participation in park matters

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	307	95.3	95.3	95.3
	No	15	4.7	4.7	100.0
	Total	322	100.0	100.0	

Note: This table captures the frequencies of respondents who answered "yes" or "no" to the question of being invited to discussions related to park matters. Apparently, a majority of respondents participated in one way or another in park related discussions. The next question summarises reasons behind inviting respondents to park matters' discussions.

Question 11: If you answered "yes" to the previous question, what was the main reason for the invitation?

The most applicable to you:

Reason 1: *Violation of park rules*

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	62	19.3	100.0	100.0
Missing	System	260	80.7		
Total		322	100.0		

Reason 2: *Receiving an award from park authorities*

		Frequency	Percent
Missing	System	322	100.0

Reason 3: *Meeting with park management to discuss conservation and tourism issues*

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	91	28.3	100.0	100.0
Missing	System	231	71.7		
Total		322	100.0		

Reason 4: *Meet other community members to discuss their problems*

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	307	95.3	100.0	100.0
Missing	System	15	4.7		
Total		322	100.0		

Other reasons

		Frequency	Percent
Missing	System	322	100.0

Note: The above tables indicate frequencies regarding reasons why respondents participated in park related matters. The most noted reason was for meetings between community members to discuss community problems caused by the park. This participation is not a good indication of how people are being integrated by ORTPN into management and conservation of the park rather a good indication that they were left out from the process.

Question 12: If there is / was a tourism community funding what projects should be implemented for the community? Choose only one, which is most desirable.

Project 1: ***Building houses for community members***

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	13	4.0	100.0	100.0
Missing	309	96.0		
Total	322	100.0		

Project 2: ***Building schools for the community***

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	183	56.8	100.0	100.0
Missing	System	139	43.2		
Total		322	100.0		

Project 3: ***Paying school fees for community children***

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	36	11.2	100.0	100.0
Missing	System	286	88.8		
Total		322	100.0		

Project 4: ***Paying Mutuel de sante for community members***

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	55	17.1	100.0	100.0
Missing	System	267	82.9		
Total		322	100.0		

Project 5: ***Funding business projects for the community***

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	35	10.9	100.0	100.0
Missing	System	287	89.1		
Total		322	100.0		

Note: The above five tables indicate respondents' preferences for possible projects that can be financed by a tourism community fund. Most respondents (56.8%) were in favour of a "building schools for community children" project.

Question 13: To what extent do you agree with the following statements regarding the collaboration between your community and the park's management?

Statement 1: *Resident happy with conservation rules set by ORTPN*

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
strongly agree	19	5.9	5.9	5.9
Agree	60	18.6	18.6	24.5
Neutral	39	12.1	12.1	36.6
Disagree	149	46.3	46.3	82.9
Strongly disagree	55	17.1	17.1	100.0
Total	322	100.0	100.0	

Statement 2: *ORTPN does enough to involve local communities in tourism and conservation activities*

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly Agree	11	3.4	3.4	3.4
Agree	51	15.8	15.8	19.3
Neutral	34	10.6	10.6	29.8
Disagree	123	38.2	38.2	68.0
Strongly disagree	103	32.0	32.0	100.0
Total	322	100.0	100.0	

Statement 3: *More meetings between ORTPN and local community residents are required to solve problems related to the park*

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly Agree	121	37.6	37.6	37.6
Agree	139	43.2	43.2	80.7
Neutral	24	7.5	7.5	88.2
Disagree	28	8.7	8.7	96.9
Strongly Disagree	10	3.1	3.1	100.0
Total	322	100.0	100.0	

Statement 4: ***Current collaboration between ORTPN and communities is good and should be maintained***

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly agree	10	3.1	3.1	3.1
Agree	19	5.9	5.9	9.0
Neutral	54	16.8	16.8	25.8
Disagree	141	43.8	43.8	69.6
Strongly disagree	98	30.4	30.4	100.0
Total	322	100.0	100.0	

Note: The four tables above indicate the feelings of respondents about collaboration and cooperation between ORTPN and local communities around Akagera National Park. Respondents had to either agree or disagree with the statements with an option to remain neutral towards any particular statement. A summary of these frequencies indicate that respondents do not appreciate current collaboration between them and ORTPN and that more should be done on the side of ORTPN to involve local people in the management and conservation of the park.

Question 14: Please use the space below to provide details, if any, of the previous question or any other additional comments regarding this research.

Other additional notes, comments & details

Comments	Frequency	Percent
No additional comments	310	96.3
I think the government is doing well by teaching us about natural resources protection because they brought tourists in	1	0.3
I think people must stop hunting in the park because they can mistakenly shoot even the tourist who are visiting the park	1	0.3
It could be much better if they stop us from getting into the park but only if they can stop animals from damaging our crops	1	0.3
ORTPN must do more to protect us from wild animals as well as reimburse us in case of damages caused by the park animals	1	0.3
ORTPN must help the community to develop infrastructures like schools, roads and other staff because we have problems with public transport. Imagine paying Rwf 3000 (Rand 60) for a motorbike in about 10 miles only.	1	0.3
ORTPN must help us to create our own business that can help us to also benefit from tourists currencies	1	0.3
The OTPN does not give jobs. they only use those people from Kigali city	1	0.3
The wild animals are a big problem that the government must try to protect us from, otherwise we respect tourist to come in Rwanda and bring foreign currencies.	1	0.3
they[ORTPN] don't want us to hunt their animals, yet they come to destroy our livestock and crops	1	0.3
we benefit form selling fresh crops to tourist especially those from Kigali city who would buy the same items at an expensive price in Kigali	1	0.3
When tourist come here the community benefit because we sell our local products to them and they pay very good money	1	0.3
Why should we stop from going in the park which a God's property put there for people to use? Those people from Kigali must let us also exploit our forest.	1	0.3
Total	322	100.0

Note: The above table records all additional notes, comments and details provided by respondents apart from answers that were provided to the closed ended questions. The main lesson to draw from these comments is that most respondents complained about ORTPN's attitude and actions. The researcher believes that this should call for a shift in management of the park by trying to integrate local community residents and hence understand their concerns as well.

Appendix G': Sekaran (2000:295)'s table for sample size for a given population size

N	S	N	S	N	S
30	28	280	162	1500	306
40	36	290	165	1600	310
50	44	300	169	1700	313
60	52	320	175	1800	317
70	59	340	181	1900	320
80	66	360	186	2000	322
90	73	400	196	2200	327
95	76	420	201	2400	331
100	80	440	205	2600	335
110	86	460	210	2800	338
120	**92**	480	214	3000	341
130	97	500	217	3500	346
140	103	550	226	4500	354
150	108	600	234	5000	357
160	113	650	242	6000	361
170	118	700	248	7000	364
180	123	750	254	8000	367
190	127	800	260	9000	368
200	132	850	265	10000	370
210	136	900	269	15000	375
220	140	950	274	20000	377
230	144	1000	278	30000	379
240	148	1100	285	40000	380
250	152	1200	291	50000	381
260	155	1300	297	75000	382
270	159	1400	302	1000000	384

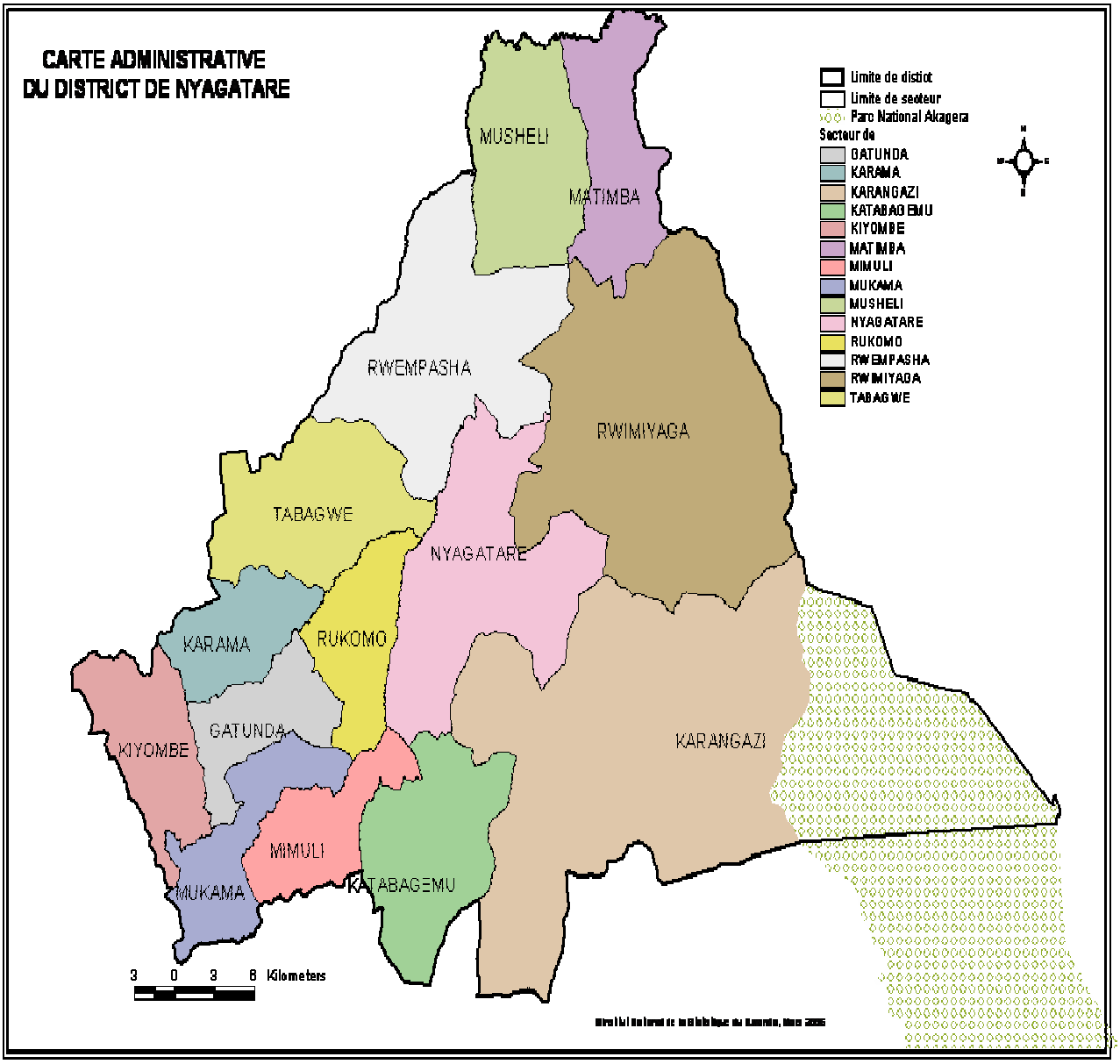
Note: N = Number of population, S = Sample to be taken.

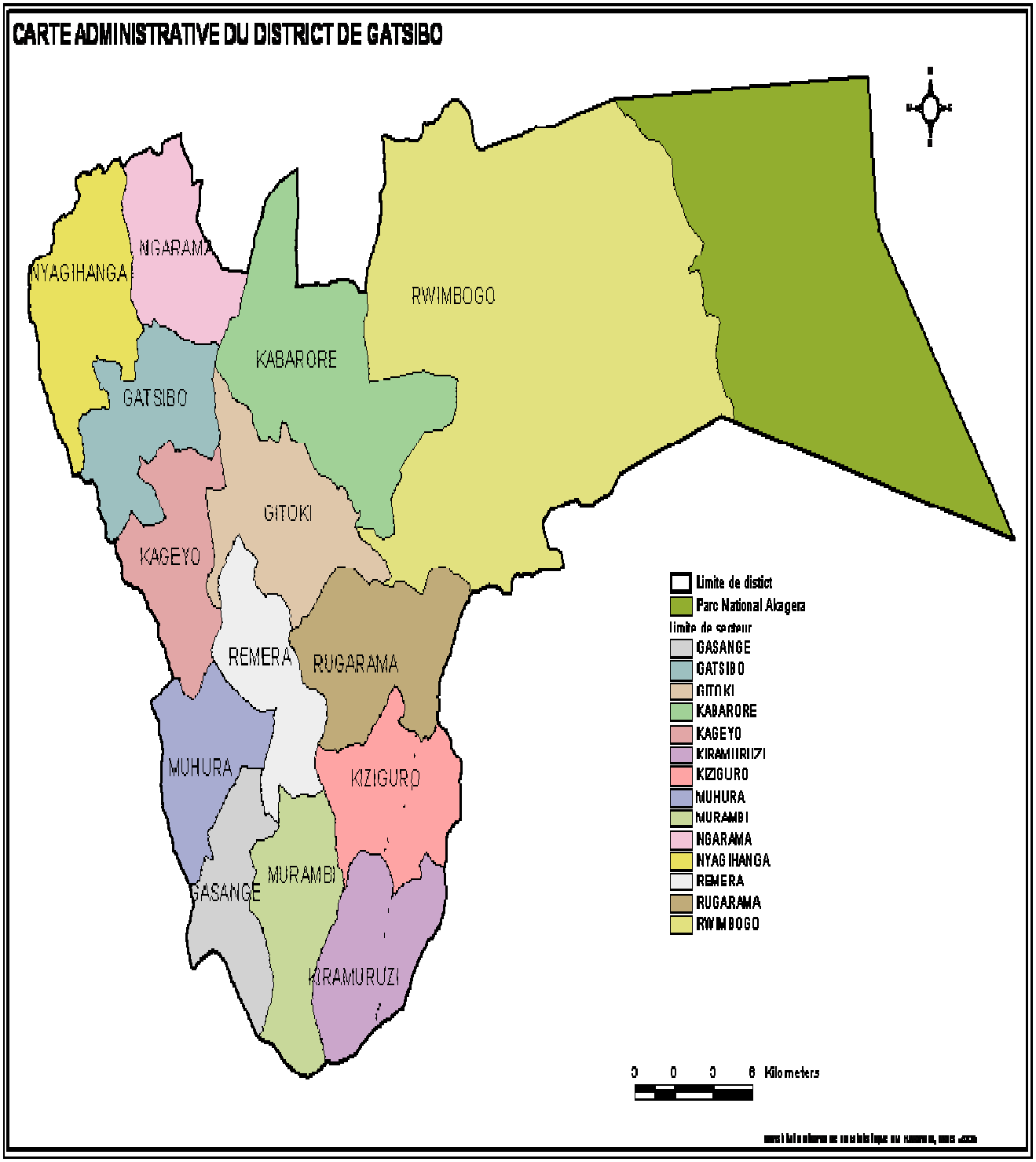
Table 1: Table for Determining Minimum Returned Sample Size for a Given Population Size for Continuous and Categorical Data

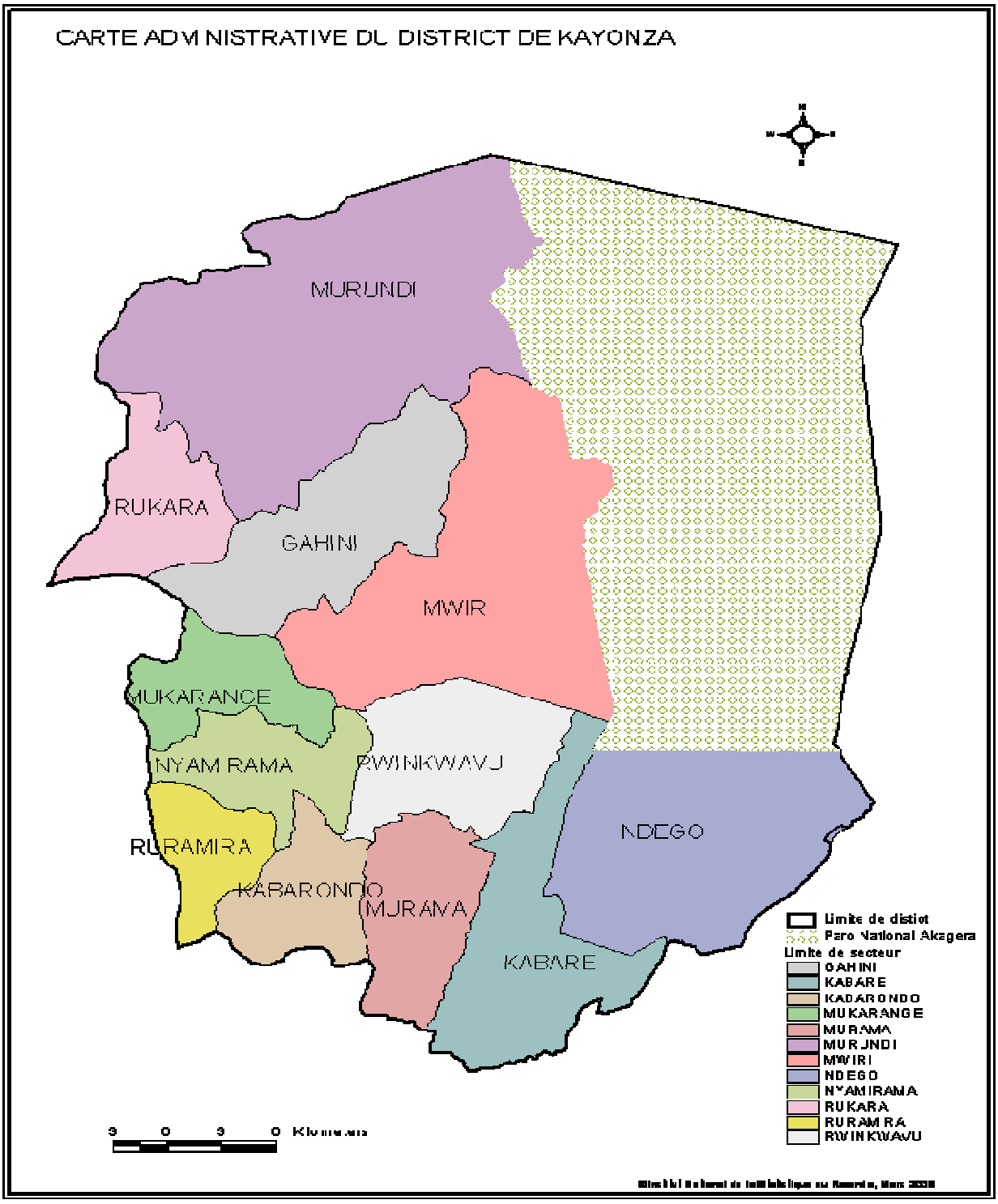
	Sample size					
	Continuous data (margin of error=.03)			Categorical data (margin of error=.05)		
Population size	alpha=.10 t=1.65	alpha=.05 t=1.96	alpha=.01 t=2.58	p=.50 t=1.65	p=.50 t=1.96	p=.50 t=2.58
100	46	55	68	74	80	87
200	59	75	102	116	132	154
300	65	85	123	143	169	207
400	69	92	137	162	196	250
500	72	96	147	176	218	286
600	73	100	155	187	235	316
700	75	102	161	196	249	341
800	76	104	166	203	260	363
900	76	105	170	209	270	382
1,000	77	106	173	213	278	399
1,500	79	110	183	230	306	461
2,000	83	112	189	239	323	499
4,000	83	119	198	254	351	570
6,000	83	119	209	259	362	598
8,000	83	119	209	262	367	613
10,000	83	119	209	264	370	623

NOTE: The margins of error used in the table were .03 for continuous data and .05 for categorical data. Researchers may use this table if the margin of error shown is appropriate for their study; however, the appropriate sample size must be calculated if these error rates are not appropriate. Table developed by Bartlett, Kotrlik, & Higgins.

Appendix H: Districts' maps showing administrative sectors that participated in the study (Neighbouring ANP): Karangazi, Rwimbogo, Murundi, Mwiri & Ndego




CARTE ADMINISTRATIVE DU DISTRICT DE GATSIBO
NYAGIHANGA
NGARAMA
RWIMBOGO
KABARORE
GATSIBO
GITOKI
KAGEYO
REMERA
RUGARAMA
MUHURA
KIZIGURO
MURAMBI
GASANGE
KIRAMURUZI
Limite de district
Parc National Akagera
limite de secteur
GASANGE
GATSIBO
GITOKI
KABARORE
KAGEYO
KIRAMURUZI
KIZIGURO
MUHURA
MURAMBI
NGARAMA
NYAGIHANGA
REMERA
RUGARAMA
RWIMBOGO
0 0 3 6 Kilometers


CARTE ADMINISTRATIVE DU DISTRICT DE KAYONZA
MURUNDI
RUKARA
GAHINI
MWIR
MUKARANGE
NYAMIRAMA
RWINKWAVU
NDEGO
RURAMIRA
KABARONDO
MURAMA
KABARE
Limite de district
Parc National Akagera
Limite de secteur
GAHINI
KABARE
KABARONDO
MUKARANGE
MURAMA
MURUNDI
MWIRI
NDEGO
NYAMIRAMA
RUKARA
RURAMIRA
RWINKWAVU

Appendix I: Cows passing & grazing in the ANP

Appendix J: Example of a house of a poor family around ANP

Appendix K: A photo showing a dry grazing farm

Appendix L: A photo showing green vegetation after wild fire burnt the area