

**An Interaction between Tourism enabling environment, Investment in tourism and
poverty reduction in communities around protected areas
The case study of Bushenyi district, south-western Uganda**

BY

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Abstract

The study was carried to examine the relationship between tourism enabling environment, investment in tourism and tourism related sectors, and poverty reduction in communities around protected areas. It was guided by four objectives of examining the relationship between tourism education and training and growth of indigenous capabilities, the relationship between community participation and involvement in tourism planning and development and community empowerment, the relationship between government political will and commitment and growth of tourism support infrastructure and the relationship between community empowerment and poverty reduction.

The study took a cross section study design and the questionnaires were filled by the respondents with the help of trained research assistants. A sample of 310 was used.

The findings revealed that there was a significant relationship between tourism enabling environment, investment in tourism and tourism related sectors, and poverty reduction. The key recommendation was to always involve local communities in planning and development of new tourism activities through organisation of community workshops, and seminars where people should be able to share their views on activities that will eventually affect them.

*Key words: **Poverty reduction, community involvement, conflict management, and tourism***

1.0 Background to the study

Tourism and travel is the world's largest and fastest growing industry. In the year 2001 alone over 693 million tourists traveled globally contributing about US\$464 billion. It is further estimated that the industry will contribute over US\$2 trillion by the year 2020 to the global economy (World Trade Organisation, 2001). This means that tourism constitutes a major feature of world economy and can thus act as a tool for poverty reduction in developing countries (Dieke, 2003). This is because tourism has a significant economic, social and environmental effect at both macro and micro levels. Its linkage with other sectors makes it an industry capable of pulling an economy out of poverty (Sinclair, 1998).

Although tourism has strengthened the economic performance of countries in Europe, America and East Asia, Africa's share has been the smallest yet it is the continent with highest poverty levels. According to Wolfgang (2007), Uganda received about 700,000 visitors in 2006 from about 200,000 in 2001. This has contributed to employment, revenue generation and development of the affected sectors. However, over the same period, absolute poverty in the country has only reduced from 45% to 39%. In 2004, the GDP per capita was at US\$250 (Kasfir, 2007) implying that an average Ugandan earned US\$0.7 per day! This was the case notwithstanding income disparities and the fact that tourism grew at average of 21% per annum for the preceding five years.

According to the Uganda Tourism Policy (2003), Uganda's tourism has been hampered by inadequacies in the enabling environment, low government commitment to the industry, limited community involvement and participation, and less than desired indigenous human resource capacity. The resulting effect has been underdevelopment of the sector, a trend that has limited its effect on poverty reduction. The indigenous people have not been empowered to fully participate in tourism, leave alone having the will to support tourism development. The few indigenous firms operate on small-scale and for most of them, life is a daily struggle, with many operating at the margin of survival. They also lack the requisite experience to run tourism business along modern management principles.

Furthermore, since the country largely depends on rural-based tourism, it would be conceivable that considerable benefits from the sector accrue to the rural poor. However, the rural people have not been involved in tourism activities to the effect that its contribution to their welfare has remained meager, hence rampancy of rural poverty. The gravity of this problem can be appreciated if it is understood that over 85% of Uganda's population lives in rural areas (Uganda Bureau of Statistics, 2002).

The challenge for tourism developers is to create a new view of tourism, one that can be used as a tool for reducing poverty in communities around protected areas.

1.1 Statement of the problem

There seems to be lack of the necessary commitment and political will of the government to use tourism as a tool for poverty reduction in communities around protected areas. The enabling environment in terms appropriate policies and strategies for human resource development, security and infrastructure, marketing and promotion appears to be inhibitive of tourism growth. Community involvement and participation in tourism planning and development seems to be limited and partnerships between government and

private sector to enhance tourism entrepreneurship are also likely to be lacking. As a result protected areas remain underdeveloped to have a significant effect on community welfare. Despite of increased tourism activities in the protected areas, poverty still is high in communities around them.

1.2 Purpose of the study

The purpose of the study was therefore to examine the relationship between tourism enabling environment, investment in tourism and tourism related sectors, and poverty reduction in communities around protected areas.

1.3 Objectives of the study

The study was guided by the following objectives:

- i. To examine the relationship between tourism education and training and growth of indigenous capabilities
- ii. To examine the relationship between community participation and involvement in tourism planning and development and community empowerment
- iii. To examine the relationship between government political will and commitment and growth of tourism support infrastructure
- iv. To examine the relationship between community empowerment and poverty reduction

1.4 Research Questions

The following research questions were used to guide the research process.

- i. What relationship existed between tourism education and training and growth of indigenous capabilities?
- ii. What relationship existed between community participation and involvement in tourism planning and development and community empowerment?
- iii. What relationship existed between government political will and commitment and growth of tourism support infrastructure?
- iv. What relationship existed between community empowerment and poverty reduction?

1.5 Scope of the study

1.5.1 Conceptual scope

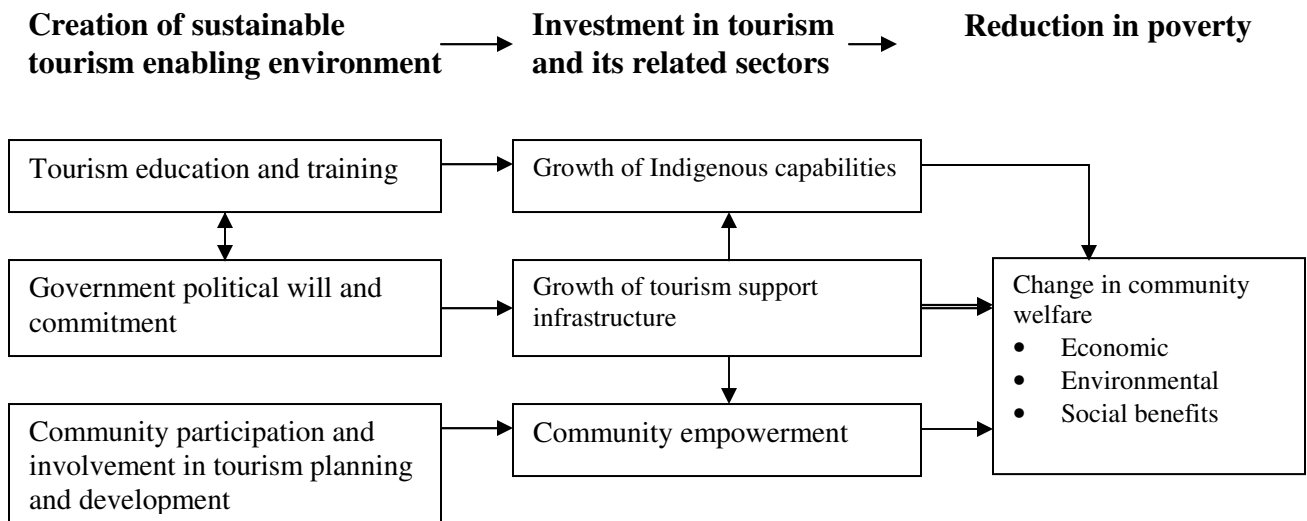
The study was limited to examining tourism enabling environment, education and training, community participation and involvement in tourism planning and development, and reduction in poverty. Reduction in poverty was studied basing on the changes in community welfare as a result of variables under the study improved. To accomplish this, the study specifically examined relationships between government commitment and political will and investment in tourism support infrastructure, tourism education and training and growth of indigenous capabilities, community participation and involvement in tourism planning and development and community empowerment, and how these affected community welfare to explain reduction in poverty.

1.5.2 Sample scope

The study used a sample of 310 respondents. This was drawn from households in communities in Bushenyi district, particularly those around Queen Elizabeth National Park and the Kalinzu Forest Reserve Ecotourism Site.

1.7 Conceptual framework

To carry out the research, the following conceptualization was made. It was conceptualized that whenever tourism education and training is carried out in communities living around protected areas and there is government political will and commitment towards efforts aimed to improving community welfare, and there is community participation and involvement in tourism planning and development, this would lead to growth of indigenous capabilities and community empowerment, growth of tourism infrastructure which would lead to change in community welfare through improvement in economic, social and environmental benefits the indicators of poverty reduction.



Source: Developed from literature Review

2.0 Literature Review

A lot of literature has been written about the subject of tourism and economic development. The literature was reviewed with the view to extract information on the relationship between tourism and poverty reduction in a developing country. The review was specifically confined to enabling environment and tourism investment, tourism education and training and growth of indigenous capabilities, community participation and involvement in tourism planning and how the variable can help in poverty reduction.

2.1 Government Political will and Commitment, Tourism Enabling Environment and Investment in Tourism

Creation of enabling environment for tourism investment is crucial in enhancing the participation of the poor in tourism business. Spenceley and Seif (2003) noted that tourism has to be integrated into national policies if it is to develop on a sustainable basis. Policies should always be meant to create a favorable socio-economic environment for the poor (Matlou, 2001). These include among others, creation of enabling legislative and financial frameworks for tourism, strengthening the effectiveness of counseling services to the rural poor, sharing with them technical knowledge and production experiences, and generating jobs as well as creating business opportunities for them to increase their income. These policies can be fulfilled with a view that tourism must be fast and sustainable so as to enable the poor benefit (Deat, 1996).

Jamieson (2002) contended that poverty goals in tourism have to be formulated because poverty needs to find a stable place in each country's statement of tourism development objectives, followed by feasible implementation strategies, which creates harmony between the needs of a visitor, the place, and the community. This should be facilitated by broad community support with a proper balance between economic, social, cultural, and human objectives and recognition of the importance of co-operation between government, the host communities, the tourism industry, and the non-profit organizations involved in community development and environmental protection. However, it should be noted that the role of government is that of facilitator. The tourism sector must be government led, private sector driven and locally oriented (Ashley, 2001).

2.2 Community Participation and Involvement in Tourism and Community Empowerment

Community participation and involvement in tourism planning and development is a key step towards empowerment of communities to participate in tourism. Horton (2003) noted that participation can be facilitated through surveys, focus groups and charters which can set down the rights of the community. This promotes collaboration, transparency and accountability. Rhodri and Huw (2006) noted that if local tourism policies are to be effective, community members need to be part of decision making.

Bramwell and Sharman (1999) noted that active involvement in tourism policy making offers significant benefits to all destination stakeholders since its ultimate goal is to build consensus about tourism related policies. Involvement of the local community creates a bond through mutual understanding and trust. It thus helps to reduce potential conflicts and all the costs associated with their resolution.

It is also noted, especially from a political perspective that collectively developed policies are more likely to be accepted and gain stakeholder buy in. Mason (2003) argued that active involvement of the community results in dialogue, negotiation, and consensus building which ultimately results in proposals and policies, about the development of tourism, that are mutually acceptable. Such policies that people develop to promote tourism in their areas can be economically, environmentally and socially sustainable (Jackson, 2006). This is because all stakeholders have a chance to lobby on their own behalf during the policy making process. Hence they cannot engage in activities that are detrimental to tourism development (Butler and Boyd, 2000). However, if this is to be achieved, the people must have the required skills and competencies to actively participate (Jamal and Getz, 1995).

Jackson (2006) developed a framework to foster the process of community participation and involvement in tourism development. He showed that the process begins with identification of key stakeholders and interest groups, establishment of communication mechanisms and information flow channels among stakeholders. Jackson recommended that effort has to be made to show community members that they have shared power and an equal say in the process of tourism planning and development. This can be done through appointment of a committee that represents stakeholders in negotiations and planning activities.

2.3 Tourism Education and Training, and Growth of Indigenous Capabilities

To enhance the involvement of the poor in tourism, and at the same time the quality of tourism services, governments have to undertake action for the provision of adequate educational, technical and professional training programmes. Relly and Koch (2002) showed that tourism education should be extended to school children so that they can appreciate, right from childhood, the 'wonders of nature'. Training and education can be done in several areas such as communications, environmental health, nature conservation, business, traffic safety, motor mechanics, and social work (Relly and Koch, 2002). According to the Africa Foundation (2000), the trainees should at least deliver motivational talks other community members.

Sinclair (2005) revealed that tourism education has a lot of benefits including enhancement of leadership skills of administrators; development of planning capabilities; strengthening of skills in the area of tourism marketing; development of basic accounting knowledge; enhancement of knowledge in group dynamics and organisational psychology; development of skills in tourism project preparation and writing; and development of IT literacy.

O'Leary and Deegan (2005) observed that tourism education has a pivotal role to play in ensuring that a balance exists between the needs and wants of employers and learners. In order to attract, train and maintain high quality tourism staff, O'Leary and Deegan recommended better communication between educators and employers so that a satisfactory understanding of industry needs exists. To them, this would assist in the provision of focused, market-driven programmes; thereby achieve a streaming of adequately prepared graduates directly into the industry. They also recommended development of realistic expectations amongst learners, through their programme of study (real life scenarios, work placement, industry guest speakers), regarding potential job opportunities in the industry.

Martin and McEvoy (2003) showed that simulation is an effective method of training that cultivates practical skills into the learners. This type of training develops an understanding of operations, tactics and strategy, while recognizing the potential conflicts among the various stakeholders involved within tourism. It provides an exciting and effective alternative to straight lecture and case-study courses. To them, simulation provides good hands-on learning experience that is challenging and dynamic, encouraging analytical thinking, decision-making and problem-solving ability. The findings of Martin and McEvoy concurred with those of Rosenorn and Busk (1998) who also concluded that simulations create a suitable environment that can nurture life long skills development. Watson and Drummond (2002) commended that tourism has significant linkages with other sectors and training the people that run the industry is an integral part of its development. They reported that tourism training and education helps to improve attitudes, enthusiasm and involvement of stakeholders in tourism development.

2.4 Growth of Tourism and its Related Sectors and Reduction in Poverty

Maxwell (1999) noted that there is no globally accepted definition of poverty. He showed that poverty is variously looked at as the level of income obtained by households and/or individuals; lack of access to social services; inability to participate in society, economically, socially, culturally and politically. The European Union's working definition of poverty is; 'Persons, families and groups of persons whose resources (material, cultural and social) are so limited as to exclude them from the minimum acceptable way of life in the Member State to which they belong'. Whereas there is no definition of poverty, it is clear that absolute poverty occurs when an individual is not capable of meeting his basic necessities of life.

According to Kabeer (1996) poverty can be conceptualised in terms of "ends" and "means" perspective. The "ends" perspective concerns the basic needs and whether these are met. The "means" perspective concentrates on the resources available to the poor and whether these resources can meet the needs. Within the framework of gender discrimination, it has been recognised that poverty measures, both in terms of income and well being measures do not differentiate between male and female.

Poverty leads to the inability to function in society and makes an individual more vulnerable to income, weather shocks and almost any slight shock in society. Thus, poverty reduces the individual to limited choice (Watts, 1968), be it in food consumption or general basic needs. According to the World Bank (2000), "poverty is pronounced deprivation in well-being" where well-being can be measured by an individual's possession of income, health, nutrition, education, assets, housing, and certain rights in a society such as freedom of speech. It is also a lack of opportunities, powerlessness, and vulnerability (Adjasi and Kofi, 2007).

3.0 Research Methodology

3.1 Research Design

This research took a cross sectional study design. It was conducted in communities around the protected areas of Bushenyi district. The main theme of the study was how tourism can be used in reduction of poverty in communities living around protected areas in Uganda. The research further examined the relationship between enabling environment, education and training, community participation and involvement in tourism planning and development, and community welfare which were found to be antecedents of poverty reduction. Methodological triangulation was used but data analysis was mainly done using quantitative techniques.

3.2 Population of the Study

The study population was 1600 individuals who at the time of the study were residents in households around wildlife protected areas of Queen Elizabeth National Park and the Kalinzu Forest Reserve Ecotourism Site. Individuals in the study population were residents, business owners and developers, as well as non-government organizations such as environmental and conservation groups within those areas. An appropriate sample was selected from this population.

3.3 Sample Size

The sample size of the study was 310 respondents. These were found to be representatives for the different stakeholders of the tourism sector in the selected sites. The sample size was arrived at using Krejcie and Morgan (1970) table that give a basis for making a good decision model and provides a generalized scientific guideline for sample size. According to this table also in Sekaran (2004), a population (N) of 1600 gives a sample (S) of 310

3.3.1 Sampling Design and Procedure

The sampling design used was a three stage clustering design. The first stage involved identifying three sub-counties within Bushenyi district. The district was chosen purposively because it has part of Queen Elizabeth National Park and Kalinzu Forest Reserve Ecotourism Site, some of the major tourist centers in the country. The second stage involved selection of six parishes from the selected counties. The third stage involved selection of twelve wards from which the study sample was selected. Each ward provided an equal number of respondents as others. The selection procedure of the respondents in these wards was simple random sampling. Here, the researchers obtained a list of households from the Uganda Bureau of Statistics (UBOS) within these communities and the households were assigned numbers, which were put in a box and selected on ruffle basis.

3.4 Sources of Data

The data used in the study was gathered from both primary and secondary sources. The primary sources were got by a combination of questionnaires, interviews and field observations this constituted empirical data. In addition, scheduled interviews and structured dialogue was conducted with selected private and public sector representatives, local community leaders and politicians. Secondary sources used involved consultation of documented information from UWA, UCOTA, AUTO, and UBOS.

3.5 Instruments of Data Collection

3.5.1 Structured Oral Interviews

The researchers designed structured questionnaires of closed ended type based on Likert's five point scale model. This method was because the respondents were mainly upcountry people who difficulty in answering the questionnaires on their own without being assisted. This also made the exercise more quicker and additional qualitative data to be captured using a tape recorder through the interactions with the respondents. This saved time and increased response rate of 99%

3.5.2 Thorough discussions

The study used discussions to collect primary data. This method was chosen because it will gave the researchers an open dialogue with the respondents thereby facilitating idea generation regarding how tourism can be used to reduce poverty in Uganda.

3.6 Measurement of the Study Variables

The instrument used for data collection was self-designed by the researchers basing on literature review. Community involvement and participation was developed basing on the content of Jackson's (2006) model for community involvement in tourism development and 25 items were used. Community empowerment was measured using content from the Tourism policy of Uganda (2003) and 23 items were used. For training and education, Hanqin and Hung Hom's (2004) recommendations were followed and 17 items were used.

Government political will and commitment was measured using 21 items developed by the researcher's interaction with government experts from Tourism Uganda and Uganda Wildlife Authority. Growth of indigenous capabilities was measured using 20 items all anchored on 1-5 Likert scale. Growth of tourism support infrastructure was measured using 4 items developed by researchers. In order to measure poverty reduction, the researchers adopted Saunder's (2004) deprivation tool for measuring poverty and Adjasi and Kofi (2007). Community welfare items were developed with 20 items all anchored on 1-5 Likert scale. The Uganda Tourism Policy (2003) was used greatly in the developing of most of the instruments.

3.7 Reliability and Validity of the Instrument

In order to ensure reliability, the questionnaire was pre-tested using 30 respondents before the actual surveys, and the findings subjected to the Cronbach Alpha Test to measure internal consistence. The following scores were got of which 6 variables had alpha coefficients above 0.70 and only one had .5638.

The reliability scores got meant that the items used to measure the variable under study consistently reflected the construct they were measuring except for that which was measuring growth of tourism support and infrastructure that had a weak measure which needs to be re-modified in future studies.

In order to check for validity of instrument, the researchers carried out face validity by consulting tourism and community welfare experts who advised on the appropriateness of the instrument. Pearson Correlations were also done and results showed significant relationships with less than 0.01 probabilities that a correlation coefficients got would have occurred by chance in a sample of 30 respondents that were used during the pre-testing stage.

3.8 Data Analysis

Quantitative data was entered into computer using EPIDATA software and manipulated using Statistical Package for Social Scientists (SPSS) and STATA software packages. The researchers used Pearson's correlation and multiple regression analyses. These measures helped in determining relationships between independent variables and the dependent variable and the strength of the relationship between the variables.

4.0 Results

The presentation of the findings is in line with the objectives of the study which were; To examine the relationship between tourism education and training and growth of indigenous capabilities; To examine the relationship between community participation and involvement in tourism planning and development and community empowerment; To examine the relationship between government political will and commitment and growth of tourism support infrastructure; and To examine the relationship between community empowerment and poverty reduction

4.2 Demographic Characteristics of the study

These are descriptive statistics that were used to describe the characteristics of the sample. They were followed by Chi-square (X^2 – value) test to show whether the differences were significant. The results from cross-tabulations are given below:

Age of the respondent by level of education

The researcher used cross tabulations to study the distribution of age by level of education of the respondents (**Table 4.1**)

Table 4.1: Age of respondent by level of education

			Education				Total	X^2 Value	Df	P-value
			University	Tertiary	Secondary	Other		26.05	9	0.002
Age	51-60	Count	3	2	5	28	38			
		Row %	7.90%	5.30%	13.20%	73.70%	100.00%			
	41-50	Count		9	25	31	65			
		Row %		13.80%	38.50%	47.70%	100.00%			
	31-40	Count	1	5	22	64	92			
		Row %	1.10%	5.40%	23.90%	69.60%	100.00%			
	21-30	Count	9	8	36	58	111			
		Row %	8.10%	7.20%	32.40%	52.30%	100.00%			
Total		Count	13	24	88	181	306			
		Row %	4.20%	7.80%	28.80%	59.20%	100.00%			

Table 4.1 above reveals that there was a significant association between age of respondents and their level of education ($X^2 = 26.04$, sig. 0.002). Majority of respondents (73.7%) in the age group 51-60 years had education level that was below secondary and 13% had secondary education. However, among the respondents aged 41-50, majority had secondary education compared to respondents above 51 years of age. Table 4.1 shows that generally young people were more educated than older people.

The study results also showed that there was a significant relationship between education level of respondents and their occupations ($X^2 = 54.8$, sig. 0.000). Majority of respondents (43.8%) with secondary education were farmers while majority of respondents with university education (46.2%) were traders. However, most respondents (42%) were farmers. This finding indicates that the fairly educated people were in trade while majority of the less educated individuals did farming and other activities.

4.3 Correlation Analysis

In order to determine the relationships between explanatory variables and the dependent variable, correlations had to be performed. Pearson correlation analysis was used to measure relationships between community participation and involvement in tourism planning and development, tourism training and education, government political will and commitment, community empowerment, growth of indigenous capabilities, growth of tourism support infrastructure, and community welfare. The findings are summarized in table 4.2 below.

Table 4.2: Pearson Correlations (n=307)

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	Community participation and involvement in tourism planning and development	1.000						
2	Tourism Training and education	0.424**	1.000					
3	Government political will and commitment	0.268**	0.33**	1.000				
4	Community empowerment	0.601**	0.519**	0.387**	1.000			
5	Growth of indigenous capabilities	0.41**	0.248**	0.173**	0.27**	1.000		
6	Community welfare	0.206**	0.01	-0.134*	0.058	0.189**	1.000	
7	Growth of tourism support infrastructure	0.321**	0.397**	0.23**	0.308**	0.234**	-0.166**	1.000

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

4.3.1 The relationship between tourism education and training and growth of indigenous capabilities

The first objective of the study was to establish the relationship between tourism education and training and growth of indigenous capabilities. According to table 4.5 above, there was a significant positive relationship between tourism education and training and growth of indigenous capabilities ($r = 0.248$, $p < 0.01$). This statistic implies that when tourism education and training improves, growth of indigenous capabilities

improves. However, it also shows that if tourism training is weak or lacking, indigenous capabilities may not grow. This observation was made at the 99% confidence level meaning that there was less than 0.01 probability that a correlation coefficient this big would have occurred by chance in a sample of 307 respondents.

4.3.2 The Relationship between community participation and involvement in tourism planning and development and community empowerment

The second objective of the study was to establish the relationship between community participation and involvement in tourism planning and development and community empowerment. According to table 4.5 above, a strong positive relationship existed between community participation and involvement in tourism planning and development and community empowerment ($r = .601$, $p < 0.01$). This means that community involvement and community empowerment were related to the extent that if the former did not exist, the latter would also not exist. This further means that involving communities to participate in tourism planning and development would bring about community empowerment.

4.3.3 The Relationship between government political will and commitment and growth of tourism support infrastructure

The third objective of the study was to establish the relationship between government political will and commitment and growth of tourism support infrastructure. Table 4.5 above shows that there was a strong relationship between government political will and commitment and growth of tourism support infrastructure ($r = 0.23$, $p < 0.01$). This observation is made at 99% confidence level, and implies that the greater the commitment and political will of the government to develop tourism results into growth of tourism support infrastructure. Likewise, the statistic also implies that poor government political will is likely to negatively affect development of tourism support infrastructure in a given community.

4.3.4 The Relationship between community empowerment and community welfare

The fourth objective of the study was to establish the relationship between community empowerment and community welfare. According to table 4.5 above, a weak positive relationship existed between community empowerment and community welfare ($r = 0.058$, $p < .05$). This statistic implies that it is not possible to have good community welfare when community members are not empowered. However, the weakness of the relationship further shows that empowerment is necessary but alone is not sufficient to generate strong community welfare. A combination of many factors can jointly explain community welfare.

4.4 Regression Analysis

Having established that there were relationships between the dependent variable and the explanatory variables, it became necessary to test the extent to which such variables influenced the dependent variable. In order to achieve this, a multiple linear regression model was used with specific interest in the adjusted R-squared values, the F-statistic and

the t-tests of individual explanatory variables. The results are summarized in table 4.6 below:

Table 4.3: The Regression Analysis

	Un- standardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	R- Square	Adjusted R- Square	df	F	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta			0.152	0.13	6	8.94	0.000
(Constant)	3.207	0.24		13.382	0.000					
Community participation and involvement in tourism planning and development	0.323	0.088	0.263	3.690	0.000					
Community empowerment	-1.59E-02	0.116	-0.01	-0.137	0.891					
Tourism Training and education	3.15E-02	0.095	0.022	0.332	0.74					
Growth of indigenous capabilities	0.159	0.055	0.169	2.868	0.004					
Government political will and commitment	-0.229	0.075	-0.178	-3.037	0.003					
Growth of tourism support infrastructure	-0.265	0.062	-0.254	-4.278	0.000					

Source: Primary Data

From table 4.3 above, it is shown by the F-statistic (8.94, sig. 0.000) that community participation and involvement in tourism planning and development, tourism training and education, government political will and commitment, community empowerment, growth of indigenous capabilities, and growth of tourism support infrastructure were statistically significant predictors of community welfare. This is further supported by the adjusted R-square which shows that 13% of the variation in community welfare was explained by these independent variables.

However, the t-test reveals that not all these factors were significant in explaining the level of community welfare. Community participation and involvement in tourism planning and development (t =3.69, sig. 0.000), growth of indigenous capabilities (t =2.868, sig. 0.004), government political will and commitment (t =-3.037, sig. 0.003), and growth of tourism support infrastructure (t =-4.278, sig. 0.000) were among all factors the only statistically significant predictors of community welfare. This implies that if tourism is to improve community welfare in the communities around protected areas, effort to involve communities in the tourism planning and development, to raise tourism support infrastructure, to nurture growth of indigenous capabilities should be encouraged under the umbrella of strong government political will and commitment.

It is further noted from table 4.6 that community empowerment and community tourism training were not statistically significant predictors of community welfare. The interpretation of this is that these two factors do not directly influence the welfare of the people but affect other variables which directly influence the wellbeing of community members. Therefore, they are not exclusively less important.

5.0 Discussion, conclusion and recommendations for policy

5.1 Introduction

This section discusses the research findings in chapter four in relation to the objectives of the study and review of related literature. The chapter also contains study conclusions, recommendations and areas for further research.

5.2 The relationship between tourism education and training and growth of indigenous capabilities

The first objective of the study was to establish the relationship between tourism education and training and growth of indigenous capabilities. There was a significant positive relationship between tourism education and training and growth of indigenous capabilities ($r = 0.248$, $p < 0.01$). This statistic implies that when tourism education and training improves, growth of indigenous capabilities improves. This finding is consistent with the views of Sinclair (2005) who revealed that tourism education helps to improve capabilities of local communities. This comes in form of benefits such as enhancement of leadership skills of administrators; development of planning capabilities; strengthening of skills in the area of tourism marketing; development of basic accounting knowledge; enhancement of knowledge in group dynamics and organisational psychology; development of skills in tourism project preparation and writing; and development of IT literacy (Sinclair, 2005).

However, it was noted from the study that tourism education/training was something that had never been conducted in the surveyed communities. No effort had been made by management of the protected areas to teach local communities about the importance of tourism and how they could tap from its opportunities. This was the case despite the fact that the Uganda Tourism Policy (2003) and the Kalinzu Forest Reserve Ecotourism Project proposal (2001) emphasized the need to train communities adjacent to protected areas as a way of encouraging them to appreciate tourism in such places.

Community members revealed that whereas they would be interested in participating in such trainings, no one had ever made a step to train them. This was evident even among those that operated small lodges and eating facilities. Their view of quality was far from what any tourist would expect. Therefore, they would only sell to local communities. While Relly and Koch (2002) showed that tourism education should be extended to school children to appreciate the 'wonders of nature', in Bushenyi, children attended primary school and only studied conventional subjects. In fact, interactions with some school children revealed that majority did not understand what tourism or even wildlife management was about. Like the adults, young people in the area understood tourism in terms of 'white people' coming around and taking photographs.

The statistical correlations revealed a strong positive link between tourism training and growth of indigenous capabilities. However, training and education of community members in tourism related disciplines was lacking in the surveyed communities. This therefore means that indigenous capabilities were low among community members. This is true because people lived adjacent to places visited by thousands of foreigners but could not take initiative to create something to tap income. Instead, it were people from far that bought land and built structures to accommodate tourists. Community members

would not even form community drama groups, cultural groups and other groupings to perform for foreigners at some cost. The individuals that operated bars, lodges and eating places did not understand properly what market they were targeting. It should therefore be said that communities remained 'asleep' as tourism business boomed largely because of lack of training, sensitization and education on how they could tap from tourism.

5.3 The Relationship between community participation and involvement in tourism planning and development and community empowerment

The second objective of the study was to establish the relationship between community participation and involvement in tourism planning and development and community empowerment. The found out that a strong positive relationship existed between community participation and involvement in tourism planning and development and community empowerment ($r = .601$, $p < 0.01$). This means that community involvement and community empowerment were related to the extent that if the former did not exist, the latter would also not exist. This finding concurs with that of Rhodri and Huw (2006) who recognized that community members must be part of decision making if tourism is to effectively benefit local communities.

However, the study confirmed that local community participation and involvement in tourism planning and development was non-existent in the surveyed communities. This therefore implies that community members were not empowered to fully participate in tourism activities. The lack of involvement created disharmony between communities and management of protected areas, a finding that is not consistent with the findings of Horton (2003) who observed that involvement promotes collaboration, transparency and accountability. Community members were aware of the 20% income that UWA remitted to local communities but they denied having benefited anything out of it. The local council leaders commented that the money was enjoyed by the top district authorities but nothing reached the grassroots. Hence the elements of accountability and transparency were lacking.

The consensus which Bramwell and Sharman (1999) noted that arises from active involvement in tourism policy making did not exist in Bushenyi community members. There was no recognized mutual understanding between local communities and UWA because communities were not involved in anything to do with tourism planning or development. In fact there was conflict, which could even be detected from the way people talked about UWA and wildlife:

In Kichwamba, Kyambura, Kayanja and Kyamuhunga communities, people bitterly complained about monkeys and chimpanzees that constantly invaded their crops. Local communities were denied access to water, herbs, and firewood within the protected areas yet they did not see any benefit from these places. The management of protected areas did not give people alternatives but came in to deny people access to resources they had considered theirs for centuries.

By the time of the survey a fuel tanker had had an accident and fallen in the only lake Rutoto where people collected clean water. The fuel spoiled it but community members

were not allowed to step in the Kalinzu forest in search of water. This scenario creates disenchantment among local residents which was vividly captured by the following remark by a local resident around this lake:

Members of this community eat only one meal a day because they did not have firewood. Asked on whether these policies of UWA and the National Forestry Authority (NFA) had been reached through consensus, community members denied knowledge of any workshop, seminar or meeting where they had been invited to discuss such issues.

The study confirmed that communities were powerless regarding planning and development of tourism in the protected areas. They were not involved in anything to do with tourism planning. They would only see developments, policies and decisions coming from above to be implemented. They therefore did not have the inner drive and motivation to promote tourism. At Kazinga channel, the fishing communities at Katunguru village complained of beatings and brutality of UWA personnel regarding usage of the water. UWA did not consider the fact that policies that people develop to promote tourism in their areas can be economically, environmentally and socially sustainable (Jackson, 2006). Instead people engaged in activities that were detrimental to tourism development (Butler and Boyd, 2000). Key of these activities was wildlife poaching, and killing of monkeys and other animals that were found in gardens. In the end, there is crisis of will among community members to actively support tourism.

5.3 The Relationship between government political will and commitment and growth of tourism support infrastructure

The third objective of the study was to establish the relationship between government political will and commitment and growth of tourism support infrastructure. The study confirmed that there was a strong relationship between government political will and commitment and growth of tourism support infrastructure ($r = 0.23$, $p < 0.01$). This observation implies that the greater the commitment and political will of the government to develop tourism, the greater would be the growth of tourism support infrastructure. Likewise, the statistic also implies that poor government political will is likely to negatively affect development of tourism support infrastructure to aid tourism growth. According to the Tourism Policy (2003) the government both central and local was to have a strong commitment and will to develop tourism not only at National level but also at community level. The study found some trace of government political will and commitment in developing tourism in the surveyed communities.

There was general consensus among community members that the government provided adequate security to the people. The security created an enabling environment for people to conduct their own businesses. However, the community at Katunguru did not have ethical police officers. It was noted that fights in the community took place on daily basis and these sometimes involved killing of people but little justice was exercised and no protection was provided by the government. Holland, Burian and Dixey (2003) observed that poor security conditions in rural areas constrain international tourism development. On the same view, Salençon (2004) pointed out that the state has to improve the police forces and the army to assure the security of tourists and the locals.

On the whole, government commitment and will was not strong. Communities at Katunguru did not have toilets. People would simply ease themselves in the bush, and those that could manage would ease themselves in the water on their boats! Apart from the Kampala – Kasese highway, all roads that were observed were in very poor state. There were banks, fuel stations or modern health facilities to attract both tourists and investors in the tourism industry. Mahony and Zyl (2001) advocated for adoption of corporate social responsibility programs among the tourism investors as a way building mutual relationships with adjacent communities. However, no evidence of investments into schools, clinics, water and sanitation, and bursaries was observed from the tourism investors in the area.

5.4 The effect of tourism in the protected areas on the welfare of adjacent communities

The study revealed that a weak positive relationship existed between community empowerment and community welfare ($r= 0.058$, $p<.05$). This statistic implies that it is not possible to have good community welfare when community members are not empowered. However, the weakness of the relationship further shows that empowerment is necessary but alone is not sufficient to generate strong community welfare. A combination of many factors must be considered to jointly explain community welfare. The researchers found that community participation and involvement in tourism planning and development, tourism training and education, government political will and commitment, community empowerment, growth of indigenous capabilities, and growth of tourism support infrastructure were statistically significant predictors of community welfare (F-statistic 8.94, sig. 0.000).

It was confirmed that community involvement ($t -4.32$ sig. 0.000), growth of tourism support infrastructure ($t -4.38$ sig. 0.000), government political will and commitment ($t -3.16$ sig. 0.002), and growth of indigenous capabilities ($t - 2.90$ sig. 0.004) were statistically significant predictors of community welfare. Indeed the adjusted R-square showed that about 14% of variation in community welfare was explained by these factors. This implies that if tourism is to improve community welfare in the communities around protected areas, effort to involve communities in the tourism planning and development, to raise tourism support infrastructure, to nurture growth of indigenous capabilities should be encouraged under the umbrella of strong government political will and commitment.

However, community welfare was found to be low in the surveyed communities. Some communities, particularly the community at Katunguru did not have basic facilities such as latrines, schools, health facilities and decent accommodation. On the whole people's education levels were very low, and majority did not have adequate clothing or bedding facilities. It was confirmed that people had only one meal a day because of lack of firewood, and bathing was a big problem because of lack of clean and safe water as Lake Rutoto had been contaminated by fuel spills. The few health facilities present severely lacked equipment and medicine and for this reason it can be said that people lived in poverty. Hence tourism in protected areas did not have a significant effect on reduction of rural poverty in communities around protected areas. This was largely because of less than desirable government commitment to establish tourism infrastructure, lack of

community involvement and participation in tourism planning and development, lack of community training and sensitization, and lack of indigenous capabilities.

5.5 Conclusions

The study revealed that there was a strong positive relationship between tourism education and training and growth of indigenous capabilities. Training of community about the importance of tourism, environmental management and about tapping of tourism opportunities was not done. There was little sensitization of people on the importance of having tourism activities in their communities. Lack of this made people see no justification for existence of protected areas. Therefore, they remained 'asleep' as tourism took place in the protected areas as they could not take initiative to exploit the opportunities arising from the industry. Part of the reason was that people were not involved in planning of tourism activities. The study found out that a strong positive relationship existed between community participation and involvement in tourism planning and development and community empowerment. But because involvement of people in making decisions was lacking, communities were not empowered to exploit or even support tourism activities. This was made worse by lack of a strong government political will and commitment to enable community members to benefit from tourism by way of establishing tourism support infrastructure. In the end, tourism in the protected areas did not significantly contribute to reduction of poverty in the local communities.

5.6 Recommendations

In order to enable local communities to benefit from tourism in the protected areas and therefore yield sustainable tourism business, the following needs to be done:

There is need to sensitize local communities about the importance of tourism and wildlife in the development process. People should be educated so that they realize why protected areas exist. This will help to build positive attitudes, harmony and eventually indigenous capabilities will grow as people begin to form community tourism groups to benefit from the industry. UWA may also have to give tourism education scholarships to community members with the view that in the future such people will be used as UWA ambassadors to the local communities.

Involvement of local communities in planning and development of tourism activities should be encouraged. This may have to be done through organisation of community workshops, and seminars where people should be invited to share their views. Decisions as to how much people should access the resources in the protected should be mutually agreed to avoid resistance and conflict. Alternatives like firewood and medicine should be agreed upon jointly if poaching of resources in the protected areas is to reduce. For example, tree planting campaigns may be started to ensure that in the longer term, people have enough firewood from their gardens.

Government should make sure that it gets committed to seeing local communities benefit from tourism. For example, the 20% which UWA remits to local communities should be channeled directly to the adjacent communities in the form of medicine and medical equipment to the local health centers, local school support and establishment of other necessities that may be lacking in communities. This would be better than sending the

money to district authorities who never even explain to local communities what the money is used for. If community members begin to see direct benefits coming from the protected areas, their perception of tourism may change and this will create sustainable tourism business in local communities.

The public relations department of UWA may have to come up strongly to explain to communities why the UWA staff treats communities the way they do. Because UWA staff wear army green uniforms and always carry guns, local communities fear them and interpret their actions as inhuman. Indeed those who speak Kiswahili understand clearly that UWA means to kill and it is the reason UWA exists. Therefore, UWA may have to change its image among local community members. If this is done, harmonious management of protected areas may be achieved. More to the Jackson's (2006) ameliorative model should be adopted to encourage community participation in tourism.

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