

**TOURISM REVENUE SHARING AND COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN TOURISM
AND CONSERVATION AROUND VOLCANOES NATIONAL PARK IN RWANDA.**

Submitted by:

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DECLARATION

This Thesis is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other University.

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to all tourism professionals who are keen in integrating conservation and tourism to community development

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

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ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

MINALOC: Ministry of Local Government

ORTPN: Office Rwandaise du Tourisme et des Parcs Nationaux

OTF: On the Frontier

RDB: Rwanda Development Board

TANAPA: Tanzania National Park

TRS: Tourism Revenue Sharing

UWA: Uganda Wildlife Authority

VNP: Volcanoes National park

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OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS

Community is the people of a district or country considered collectively, especially in the context of social values and responsibilities in the society

Community participation is a situation whereby members of the community who live in a particular area directly or indirectly participate in tourism revenue sharing decision-making, and/or operate a tourism-related business or works in tourism as an individual or in a group

Protected area is a 'clearly' defined geographical space, recognised, dedicated and managed, through legal or other effective means, to achieve the long-term conservation of nature with associated ecosystem services and cultural values

Tourism revenue-It's any proceeds in monetary terms received from tourist activities in a destination

Tourism revenue sharing-This is an act of distributing certain proceed from the tourism business to selected groups or a community in general

ABSTRACT

The study assessed Tourism Revenue Sharing (TRS) and its impact on community participation in conservation and tourism around Volcanoes national park in Rwanda. Further the study objectives were to analyze implementation of TRS and its impact on community participation in conservation and tourism around Volcanoes National Parks (VNP). In addition, the Local communities' attitude towards tourism revenue sharing around VNP was assessed and how it impacted on their participation in conservation and tourism, to identify the constraints to revenue sharing around VNP. To achieve the above objectives the researcher used a descriptive research design utilizing both quantitative and qualitative techniques. A sample of five Rwanda Development Board (RDB) staff, eight local leaders and one hundred and seventy eight local communities was used. Also the researcher used simple random sampling to select local communities' respondents and purposive sampling technique to select Rwanda Development Board staff and Local leaders. The results indicate that TRS implementation is not clear to many as there were contradictions in how the Officials of RDB say as compared to responses from the locals. However there was a general appreciation from a majority of the respondents (70%) in the TRS program. In spite of the dissatisfaction among majority of the respondents on the way TRS was being implemented, the majority of the respondents (90%) stated that they would readily participate in conservation and tourism activities if they were more involved in TRS process. From these inferences the researcher concluded that the participation of local communities in conservation and tourism activities was not influenced by the way TRS was being implemented or by the benefits accrued from it. However TRS could act as an inducement to improve local community participation. The findings however indicated that there was weak relationship between TRS implementation and community participation in conservation and tourism around Volcanoes national park ($P < 0.05$) From the conclusions, the researcher thus recommended that RDB to take a leading role in enhancing local residents representation in the TRS implementation process as well as involving them in decision making process on projects to be funded. Also consider rewarding those close to the parks with more direct benefits as well as reducing the time taken to disburse the funds.

Key word: Tourism revenue sharing, local community, community participation, conservation, tourism

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the study

Tourism Revenue Sharing (TRS) has been identified by various environmentalists and conservationists as one of the ways to offset human-wildlife conflict which impedes local support for national parks (Hulme & Murphree, 2002). By channeling tourism revenue to local residents, conservationists hope to offset wildlife costs and improve local attitudes towards conservation and tourism in general. Tourism revenue-sharing programs however have met mixed success with some feeling that the revenue sharing is little compared to costs as well as unfair distribution of said revenue (Western, 2001, Lacher, & Nepal, 2010)

The growth in tourism industry has recently been recognized by international and other global activists of development and environment concern as one of the most profitable in national and communal economies in Africa (Akama & Kieti, 2007). This has resulted on the need for several governments to transform from their earlier practices of focusing mainly on profitability of tourist destinations to managing tourist areas in conformity with the need to protect the environment and improve peoples' livelihoods. As one of the ways to protect the environment and promote local participation in Ecotourism, Rwandan government through Rwanda Development Board (RDB) have embraced revenue sharing as a tool to promote community support to conservation and ecotourism and provide people with opportunities to improve their economic situations (RDB, 2005).

Rwandan protected areas have been exposed to significant pressure on resources, as the ever increasing population forces people to look for additional land for cultivation. The problem became more serious after the 1994 genocide when many returnees needed land for settlements. For instance Volcanoes National Park (VNP) was reduced to under half its original size of 340

Km² to 160 Km² as a government initiative to settle the increasing population around the park as well as to increase agriculture production (Dept of Forestry, 2001, ORTPN, 2004).

Aware of the importance of tourism in raising its economy from the ashes, the Rwandan Government extended its efforts to protect her only three national parks (Akagera, Nyungwe and Volcanoes National park) in order to protect biodiversity and tap on tourism as there are no major exports (ORTPN, 2004). This renewed focus on conservation created three key problems for people living around the parks, these problems included being deprived of cattle grazing land, cultivating land, and game meat. Also Crop-depredation (wheat, potatoes, and beans) by wildlife became an issue near national parks, increasing the frustration of local communities. Finally, community access to the park was limited, and benefits such as wood fuel, wild fruits, honey and traditional medicinal plants were foregone (RDB, 2005).

1.2 Problem Statement

Despite extensive research on revenue sharing, there are still conflicting debates about the success and failures of community conservation in many African countries. For example, although local communities in Uganda appreciate revenue sharing programs and developments resulting from the same, there is still a feeling from some local communities around Bwindi Impenetrable National park that it does not meet their immediate needs and that the costs are too much compared to the benefits (Hulme and Murphree, 2001). The same scenario is also felt around protected areas in Tanzania among communities living around parks (Katherine and Emmanuel, 2011). Also although Tourism Revenue Sharing (TRS) programmes are aimed at promoting tourism development and ensuring that local communities enjoy tangible benefits from the industry while participating in conservation of natural resources (Archabald and

Naughton-Treves, 2001), in Rwanda the whole process has not fully been appreciated since local people continue to invade Volcanoes National Parks in spite of their protection status, and carry out illegal activities like pit sawing, poaching, and snaring to supplement their subsistence activities thus threatening touristic activities which is crucial to Rwandan economy.

Ritah and Straton (2010) reported that funds obtained from revenue sharing were used in constructing schools, health clinics and road construction among others. However, it was not known whether and how revenues intended for community development through revenue sharing benefited local people as well as who decided on what is to be done with the revenue dedicated to the local communities.

Due to this uncertainty, there was thus the need for this research in order to investigate the implementation process of the TRS as well as the locals view towards the tourism revenue sharing process and how it influenced their participation in Ecotourism activities.

1.3 Purpose of the study

The purpose of this study was to assess the implementation of tourism revenue sharing around VNP and whether it affects local community's appreciation of the revenue as well as finding out whether there is any relationship between tourism revenue sharing and local community participation in conservation and tourism initiatives around protected areas.

1.4 Research Objectives

1.4.1 General Objective

To assess the implementation of tourism revenue sharing and investigate its impact on local communities participation in conservation and tourism initiatives around Volcanoes National Park.

1.4.2 Specific objectives

- i. To find out the relationship between Tourism revenue sharing and community participation in tourism and conservation activities
- ii. To evaluate the implementation of Tourism revenue sharing and its impact on community participation in tourism and conservation activities around Volcanoes National Parks.
- iii. To assess the local communities' attitude towards tourism revenue sharing around Volcanoes National Parks and how it impacts on their participation in tourism and conservation activities
- iv. To examine the constraints to revenue sharing around Volcanoes National Parks

1.5 Research questions and Hypothesis

- i. What criteria are used to implement tourism revenue program around VNP?
- ii. What are the constraints of TRS around VNP in Rwanda?

1.5.1 Hypothesis

- i. **H₀** There is no significant relationship between tourism revenue sharing implementation and community participation in tourism and conservation activities?

- ii. **H₀** There is no significant relationship between local community attitudes towards TRS and their participation in tourism and conservation activities?

1.6 Significance of the study

It is believed and evidenced from previous tourism studies that good relationships between people and parks are a major element of ensuring sustainable conservation which is important in enhancement of tourism. It is assumed that due to some tourism benefits being channeled to people residing adjacent to national parks, community attitudes towards national parks will improve over time. According to RDB, the revenue sharing scheme aims at encouraging local communities in environmental protection and tends to ensure sustainability and improved rural livelihoods.

This research is important for both governments and non-government agencies that are involved in implementing conservation policies in Rwanda to make informed decisions regarding tourism revenue sharing. This research has identified and noted the gaps between tourism revenue sharing practice and this helps in enhancing the adoption of right practices which are profitable to communities surrounding the parks.

The report generated from this study is of value to all Rwanda stakeholders in conservation and tourism as it gives them a detailed understanding of the tourism revenue sharing successes and its possible failures and how best tourism revenue sharing could help promote conservation of protected areas especially by local communities and hence enhancing tourism development.

Further, the study also forms a base for other related studies in the field of wildlife and tourism by future scholars and thus enhancement of knowledge.

1.7 Scope of the study

The study was carried out around Volcanoes national park focusing on the period 2005 to 2014. The year 2005 was the time when tourism revenue program was initiated around protected areas in Rwanda.

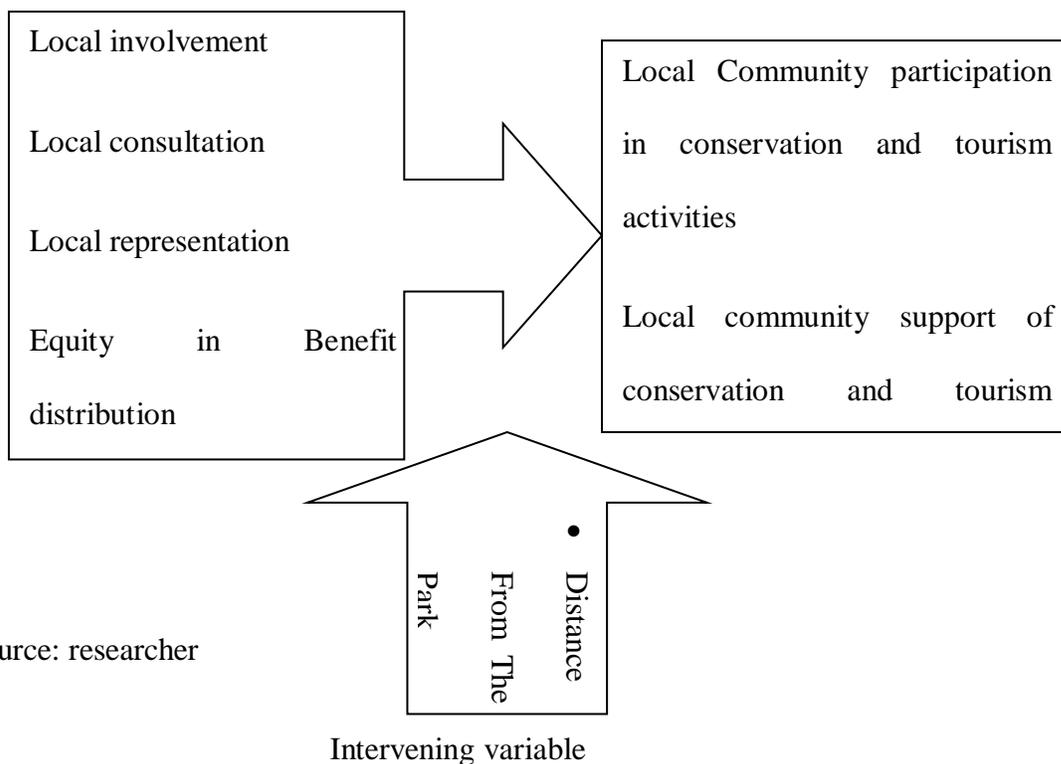
1.8 Limitation

Suspicion from the respondents-Most respondents were suspicious and tried to withhold information from the researcher. However, the researcher assured them that the research was purely academic and that confidentiality will be enhanced

1.9 Conceptual Framework

Implementation of Tourism Revenue sharing
(Independent Variable)

Impact of community participation
in tourism and conservation (Dependent
Variable)



The implementation of tourism revenue sharing is the independent variable as this affected the community willingness to participate in conservation activities around the park. Implementation process was measured in terms of the extent to which local community was involved in the process as well as through local representation in decision making process. On the other hand, dependent variable was community participation efforts which depended on the level of involvement in the TRS implementation. This was assessed by analyzing the locals' willingness in participation in conservation and tourism efforts such as creating of buffer zones around parks, participation in touristic activities like guiding and setting up of curio shops, readiness to report any poaching activities as well as reduced levels of human wildlife conflicts

The intervening variable was the distance the locals were from the park boundaries as the more close the respondents were to the park affected their responses compared to those that were considerably some distance from the park boundaries.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This Chapter highlights the review of literature related to the study topics. In this section, the researcher highlights the relationship between tourism revenue and community participation, wildlife benefits as an economic rationale for community support to conservation, factors influencing community participation around protected areas, attitudes of the local people towards conservation, barriers to community participation constraints to tourism revenue sharing, Rwanda Development Board revenue sharing scheme, constraints to revenue sharing and finally making a summary showing the gaps in literature.

2.1 Tourism Revenue sharing and Community Participation

Sharing benefits of tourism with local communities has constantly been seen as one of the various modes of community participation in the industry. In other words, participation of local communities through tourism benefits sharing is one of the major viewpoints for community participation in tourism (Timothy, 1999; Tosun, 2000; Li, 2004; Li, 2005). Various studies and different international development agencies have established that tourism is one of the powerful tools for poverty alleviation, especially due to its associated potential economic gains and due to the fact that tourism is a momentous economic sector in most countries with high levels of widespread poverty (Zhao and Ritchie, 2007). While there is no standard method for assessing the adequacy of community participation levels (Li, 2005), the way benefits from the tourism industry are shared has been argued to be the focus of community participation. This, however, implies that communities can be influenced to participate in the tourism industry through benefit sharing, and one prerequisite for a successful community tourism programme. Moreover, it is noted that equitable sharing of tourism benefits “must remain in the hands of the majority

community members in an open and easily understood manner” (Tusabe and Habyalimana, 2010, p.56).

An example of community participation in the benefits of tourism can probably be seen in the Uganda Wildlife Authority (UWA), especially through its outreach programme where the outreach staffs reach out to the community to enlighten them on better ways to maximize on tapping from tourism growth in the region (Ahebwa et al, 2012). The principal reason for sharing tourism revenues with local communities is to attract their participation as well as ensure sustainability of the natural resource while promoting human welfare through tourism. TRS usually donates a portion of revenue accrued from wildlife-based tourism to assist local communities neighboring national parks in the construction of schools, dispensaries, water supply etc (Archabald and Naughton-Treves, 2001). In actual fact, Tourism Revenue Sharing (TRS) programmes promote tourism development and ensure that local communities enjoy tangible benefits from the industry while participating in conservation of natural resources (Archabald and Naughton-Treves, 2001). More examples of such schemes are the Community Conservation Services (CCS) in Tanzania under the Tanzania National Parks Authority (TANAPA) where the locals surrounding conservation areas in Tanzania are actively involved in enjoying the benefits accrued from tourism activities through direct employment as well as indirect employment (Melita & Mendlinger 2013)

There are many other similar programmes in various protected areas in Africa that aim to benefit local people through development projects. Many of these programmes have a well detailed tourism benefit-sharing mechanism with ‘poor’ neighbouring communities. As from 2002 for

example, 29% of tourist revenue at Jozani National Park in Zanzibar went to community development projects such as schools, health services, safe water supply and many others (Makame and Boon, 2008). As a result of these benefits, locals around Jozani national park have positively supported conservation initiatives as well as devising means of minimizing human wildlife conflicts (Makame and Boon, 2008).

Consequently, the actual outcome for soliciting community participation is to create and produce an enabling environment needed by these stakeholders, especially local communities to have a real stake in development activities (Havel, 1996; Songorwa, 1999). This requires involving local communities in decision-making and strengthening their ability to act for themselves.

2.2 Wildlife benefits and community conservation

The economics of community conservation depends on the fact that wildlife can generate national benefits in terms of employment opportunities, infrastructure developments and other development projects among others. If there is no domestic economic gain associated with wildlife then there will be insufficient arguments – as well as insufficient local incentives – either for conserving it or for communities becoming involved in conservation activities. It is however necessary to move beyond merely stipulating that wildlife contributes to national economic goals. The main concern in economic approaches to community conservation is not the total economic value of wildlife but rather the extent to which wildlife benefits actually reach the local residents of wildlife areas (Leader-Williams, 1996).

This concern with distribution arises from the fact that although wildlife contributes substantially to the national economies of many East and Southern African countries, a high national economic value alone is not enough to ensure that wildlife will be conserved. Wildlife economic

benefits are unequally distributed, with community benefits typically accounting for only a small proportion of the total value of wildlife. For example, in Tanzania with the introduction of a standard set of fees for all types of non-consumptive use (from walking safaris to game drives) under the wildlife and conservation Non-consumptive use regulations 2007, Tour operators had to pay fees to the central treasury that would then be dispersed to villages and to the districts. This move however was not received positively by both local communities who felt that their negotiations with tour operators directly was cut off, and tour operators who felt their businesses was at risk because of double charges to wildlife in village lands and that in protected areas (Melita & Mendlinger, 2013) These kinds of regulations undermined the principle of devolution in which villages themselves could establish fees in discussion with private investors and were paid directly by these investors (Katherine and Emmanuel, 2011). Although these new regulations threatened community's revenues from tourism quite significantly, the then Acting Assistant Director for Wildlife Utilization viewed the new regulations as designed to protect villagers' livelihoods from the previous system which benefited only a few citizens (Tanzania Natural Resources Forum, 2008). On the contrary, since the adoption of the regulations local leaders claimed that the local communities' revenue earnings was adversely affected, as all tour operators who in the past entered contracts with the village authorities were then paying directly either to the WMA or the Director of Wildlife (Katherine and Emmanuel, 2011).

This skewed distribution of wildlife benefits away from local communities is not only inequitable but can actually discourage local community involvement in wildlife conservation. Katherine and Emmanuel (2011), in their research on community tourism in Tanzania, realized that with decentralization of programs and changes in national natural resource policies, there

was considerable confusion on the part of all actors involved as to what the correct procedures are and how communities are really to be involved in decision-making. In tourism, this confusion and lack of coordination and accountability is predominantly true in the area of revenue collection and distribution. Sulle (2007) found that in all areas where tourism is taking place from the district to the village level, there were various views about how much revenue was actually being generated and how it was being distributed to local communities.

However, it is important to note that although centralization of revenue distribution like is the case of Kenyan national parks, helps to reach out to those protected areas less visited, the direct communities must feel a greater share of the benefits otherwise they will feel 'cheated'. Consequently, decentralization does not always result to local communities benefiting since sometimes the local leaders may in some way fail to meet the general interest of the vast majority of local communities. A good example is Kenya where locals surrounding Lake Bogoria national reserve, Maasai Mara national reserve etc still do not benefit fully (Akama, & Kieti, 2007) as those in charge may divert the revenue away from the interest of the general community. In Maasai Mara, Elite households (i.e. those who are not generally searching for livelihoods) tend to control most of the income from tourist activities and also control the policy process in most parts of the region and they have incentives to make policies most advantageous to their own continued incomes and this has resulted to locals not benefiting from tourism revenues, leading them to have little or no stake in tourism and wildlife conservation goals (Lamprey and Reid 2004).

The above scenario is very evident in Volcanoes national park (VNP) where wild animals always move to the adjacent lands in search of food, and in the process, generate conflicts with adjacent communities in terms of crop damage as well as attack on both human and domestic animals. In

a move to compensate local communities of the negative impacts from wild animals, the government of Rwanda through RDB introduced revenue sharing policy whereby 5% of net tourism revenues from gate collections to the park is shared with the local communities around protected areas in Rwanda (RDB 2010).

2.3 Factors influencing community participation

Community participation via decision-making is a crucial determinant to ensure that the benefits local communities get from tourism are guaranteed, and their lifestyles and values are respected. However, this approach is rarely found in developing countries (Tosun, 2000; Li, 2005). Building on the same argument, Kibicho (2003), in his study about community tourism in Kenya, further noted that local communities had the feeling that they were not fully involved in their country's coastal tourism, especially in decisions regarding its development, despite the fact that the industry had impacts on their well-being. Moreover, in regard to the nature of community participation expected by the local community in Turkey, Tosun (2006) observed that the local community needs to be part and parcel of the decision making body through consultation by elected and appointed local government agencies or by a committee chosen by the public particularly for developing and managing tourism issues.

It is nonetheless important to note that community participation in decision making is not only desirable but also necessary so as to maximize the socio-economic benefits of tourism for the community. It is perhaps one of the most important elements of wildlife management to enable communities who often suffer from the negative impacts of wildlife conservation, to get involved and eventually participate in planning decisions regarding conservation of natural resources. This is important in order to create better handling of the negative impacts of conservation and tourism development (Li, 2004; Tosun, 2000). Much of the literature seems to support the idea

that fruitful conservation initiatives can be achieved if local communities benefit from tourism revenue as well as being integrated into the decision-making process.

However, Li (2005), while studying community decision-making participation in tourism development in Sichuan Province, China, pointed out that there was weak local participation in the decision-making process yet local communities received satisfactory benefits from tourism. It is similarly important to note, therefore, that incorporation of local communities into the decision-making process is “not a final goal itself” but only one of the many ways through which community participation can be achieved (Li, 2005).

2.4 Attitudes of the local people towards tourism and conservation

Allport (1935) referred attitudes to a mental and neutral state of readiness, organized through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individuals' responses to all objects or situations with which it is related. Attitudes are thus not born with but learned and have objective reference, differ in valence and like most psychological concepts; can be deduced from the observed antecedent stimulus and the consequent behaviour pattern.

According to Lindberg (1991), local people's attitudes towards conservation are mostly induced by tourism's contribution to the local economy. This can be in form of increased income by the local people, increased employment opportunities and even general infrastructure without forgetting participation of all stakeholders at all stages (government officials, protected area personnel and the local people). Contrarily, negative attitudes result from the negative impacts that local people acquire from wildlife conservation. These may be in form of inflationary pressure on local economies and exclusion of the local people from management and use of resources on which they depended on for their basic needs (Cater, 1992, Makambo, W. 2009).

2.5 Barriers to community participation

Various researchers have identified a number of inter-related barriers that prevent effective local communities' involvement and participation in the tourism industry (Tosun, 2000; Manyara and Jones, 2007; Cole, 2006). The overall outcome of such barriers is often the communities' limited enthusiasm towards the industry resulting from little benefits that trickle down to them (Manyara and Jones, 2007).

Cole (2006), while focusing on spontaneous community participation, identified a number of barriers that make active local community participation hard to achieve in the tourism industry. Lack of ownership, capital, skills, knowledge and resources all constrain the ability of communities to fully control their participation in tourism development. In addition to lack of skills, knowledge, ownership of tourism resources, Manyara and Jones (2007) recognized that elitism, empowerment and involvement, leakage of revenue, partnerships, access to tourists, transparency in benefit-sharing, and lack of an appropriate policy framework to support the development of community initiatives had significant impacts on community involvement in the industry.

The examples of the above obstacles collectively make it difficult for the local community to participate in the tourism development and community wildlife conservation process. Nonetheless, one approach to ensure that local communities overcome those barriers and ultimately participate actively in conservation initiatives and tourism development generally is to empower them (Van der Duim *et al*, 2006; Zhao and Ritchie, 2007).

2.6 The RDB Revenue Sharing Scheme

In an effort to compensate and sustain people residing in areas adjacent to the parks, Rwanda Development Board (RDB) recognizes the need for programs that would benefit local communities who affect and are affected by protection policy of the protected areas. RDB has since 2005 adopted a revenue sharing policy consisting of giving 5% of tourism revenues from the park fees to communities as incentives for conservation; RDB-Tourism and Conservation has so far provided \$1,830,000 to support community projects around protected areas in Rwanda. Among the projects include Infrastructure development, schools, health facilities, Agriculture: Seeds production and storage, agroforestry, tree planting, Bee keeping, Water supply, especially rain water collection (Tusabe and Habyalimana, 2010)

This Tourism Revenue Scheme was to ensure that the local people consider the parks as one of their own as benefits could be seen (RDB, 2005). To improve local community appreciation of the tourism revenue sharing scheme, Spenceley et al., 2009 noted that the local government needs to ensure the participatory selection of local projects to finance and need for full local communities engagement. This could be achieved through consultation with local communities to understand their priorities and suggestions.

The tourism revenue sharing distribution however is not uniform as priority is always given to those regions closest to the parks. This is due to the intensity of the direct negative effects resulting from close proximity to the parks (Bush, 2009). In general, although few or no study has been carried out to assess the impact the scheme is making on the livelihoods of people living near protected areas, extensive sensitization efforts from RDB, as well as from local authorities indicate that the scheme has contributed to an increased awareness of tourism benefits

to the community, as well as the need to protect biodiversity around protected areas (Spenceley et al., 2009).

2.6.1 Reasons behind TRS scheme

Among the issues that prompted RDB to come up with TRS scheme were Local people invasion to the parks looking for survival means by encroaching and collecting park resources in terms of medicinal plants, charcoal as well as poaching activities, RDB felt that these activities heightened human wildlife conflicts and if not checked, could hinder successful conservation and tourism activities. Therefore, the management felt that the introduction of TRS scheme would help provide an alternative source of income and thus minimizing illegal human activities in the parks.

Consequently, the introduction of TRS scheme was aimed at rewarding and compensating locals around the parks for the costs they incur for being adjacent to conservation areas. Therefore by compensation, the communities would appreciate and own the park related activities. Consequently it was thought that by introducing the revenue scheme, local people would benefit through jobs creation and support from the revenue, they would feel part of the whole process and do anything possible to protect parks existence as well as facilitating touristic activities by offering guiding services, selling of artifacts and thus make it easy for the park management to carry out her activities.

2.7 Constraints to revenue sharing

A constraint to revenue sharing starts with the vague manner in a way which benefactors are defined by some scholars. For instance, according to Uganda National Parks (1994) beneficiaries are defined as people living adjoining the parks that are affected by, and affect the park. Thus,

Agrawal (1997) argues that establishing equitable and effective revenue-sharing programs requires that we define the 'local community', an entity much celebrated but poorly understood. Most conservationists agree that economic benefits should be shared with those who most immediately affect and are affected by a protected area (Wells & Brandon 1992; Western & Wright 1994). Yet, those who have the greatest impact on biodiversity conservation are not necessarily the same as those suffering the greatest costs of conservation (Barrett & Arcese 1995).

In Kinigi sector for example, although some money was used to build the high-end Sabyinyo Silverback Lodge which is a joint venture between the local Kinigi and Nyange communities (represented by the Sabyinyo Community Livelihoods Association, or SACOLA), the private sector (Governors Camps Ltd), international NGOs (International Gorilla Conservation Program [IGCP] and the African Wildlife Foundation (AWF) and Rwanda development Board (RDB), there is a weaknesses of the initiative include poor leadership and weak governance of SACOLA, and the reliance on the private sector operator to generate revenue from tourists (Makambo, 2009).

Consequently, the time taken to disburse funds to local communities either in terms of project funds or direct benefits, makes the local communities appreciation of tourism revenue sharing to diminish as it does not come at the time they expect (Tusabe and Habyalimana, 2010). This leads to resentments towards the parks conservation especially by those who seek for direct compensation resulting from human-wildlife conflicts. (Hazzah, L. et al., 2009)

2.8 Summary

The literature has revealed that sharing the proceeds from tourism activities is very essential for community participation in conservation activities. While involvement and participation of communities in the tourism industry can be viewed in the decision-making process and in the sharing of tourism benefits, community participation through employment brings more economic benefits directly to the household level which, in turn, can be used to alleviate widespread poverty and make locals appreciate tourism and conservation activities in their region.

To achieve this, the literature has suggested that an ‘enabling environment’ that encourages and empowers community participation is required. The following Gaps were noted;

2.9 Gaps in Literature

What is known/Contribution	Gap
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • TRS influences community participation (Katherine and Emmanuel, 2011), (Akama, & Kieti, 2007) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • No clarity on extent to which TRS influences community participation • No clarity on the real impact TRS has on community participation
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tourism revenue sharing is distributed to communities as pay back for hosting wildlife in their region (Sulle, 2007), (Akama, & Kieti, 2007) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Little or no emphasis as to how TRS is being shared among locals
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Local Community that benefits from the TRS funds (Cole, 2006). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • No clear definition on who in the community should be considered in the Revenue proceeds

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter highlights the research design to be used, the study area, target population, sampling techniques, sample size, research instruments to be used, pre testing, validity and reliability, data collection techniques, data analysis and ethical considerations.

3.1 Research Design

The research design was descriptive using a combination of qualitative and quantitative research methods and enabled the researcher to acquire information and deduce conclusions about the implementation of tourism revenue around VNP and how it influenced community participation in conservation activities. This design was used since the research was aimed at demonstrating the relationships between respondents' views on Tourism revenue sharing and participation in tourism and conservation initiatives.

3.2 Study area

3.2.1 Volcanoes National Park

Volcanoes National Park (VNP) Measuring 160km² lies in northwestern Rwanda and borders Virunga National Park in the Democratic Republic of Congo and Mgahinga Gorilla National Park in Uganda (Refer to appendix 5). The national park is known as a haven for the mountain gorilla (*Gorilla beringei beringei*). The park was the base for the zoologist Dian Fossey and was first gazetted in 1925, as a small area bounded by Karisimbi, Visoke and Mikenko, intended to protect the gorillas from poachers. In 1958, some 700 hectares of the park were cleared for a human settlement (ORTPN, 2004).

The surrounding communities mainly engage in subsistence farming with maize, beans and potatoes being the main food crop and the main tourism activities include Gorilla tracking and nature walks. This park has a visitation of about 23,000 visitors annually according to 2010 RDB statistics. Making it the highest visited in Rwanda because of the famous Gorillas (RDB 2012 annual report)

This park was chosen because it's the prime park in Rwanda because of the famous Mountain Gorillas and also due to the fact that the population around has been growing rapidly over the past few years.

3.3 Target Population

The target population of study was composed of 371 households in Kinigi sector who were living in the sectors since 2005 (Appendix 2). Also the population was composed of 10 RDB

staff in conservation and tourism department concerned with tourism revenue sharing as well as 8 Local leaders in Kinigi sector which directly borders the park.

3.4 Sampling Techniques

The sampling techniques used included simple Random sampling technique to local communities and purposive sampling technique to RDB staff and local leaders. In simple random sampling the researcher put three hundred and twenty one (321) numbers representing household representatives of Kinigi sector in a box from where 178 numbers were randomly selected. This process ensured that the researcher had no bias in choosing which household representative to question. Purposive sampling on the other hand was used to select RDB staff and local leaders depending on their knowledge of the tourism revenue sharing (TRS)

3.4.1 Sample Size

Given data collection method being qualitative and quantitative in nature, a list of households living close to the park was compiled from village (Midugudu) leaders and was used to get the sample. To select the sample, Yamane formular (1967) was used as follows. $n = N / (1 + Ne^2)$ where n=Sample size, N=Total population, and e=Error tolerance.

From the calculation, the sample size was 178 households from which the head of the household or any other senior member who was over 20 years of age was questioned as well as 5 RDB staff and 8 local leaders.

Table 3.1 Sample size determination

Target population (N)	Sample size determination	Sample size (n)	Error tolerance
	$n = N / (1 + Ne^2)$		(0.05)
371 households	$n=371/(1+371*0.0025)$	178	0.05

3.5 Research Instruments

3.5.1 Questionnaires

A four point Likert scale closed ended questionnaires was used to collect data from the local communities around the two case studies in order to minimize the chances of respondents deviating from the objectives of the questions asked. Respondents were asked to indicate their agreement with statements about implementation of tourism revenue as well as local communities' attitudes towards tourism revenue sharing among others. The attribution items were assessed using a 4-point Likert scale from 4= strongly disagree to 1= strongly agree.

Also closed and open-ended questions were incorporated in the four point Likert scale to get more in depth information from the local communities which could not be captured in the closed questions.

3.5.2 Interviews

The interviews were used to allow for more flexibility and enhance discussions to ensure openness and ability to investigate people's perception about the implementation of tourism

revenue sharing process. This was carried out on key informants like RDB officials involved in tourism revenue implementation and Community leaders.

3.6 Pretesting

This was done by the researcher conducting a pretest in Akagera National park which was presumed to have almost similar characteristics with the chosen case studies. Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient (2004) was then used to assess the internal consistency of the instruments after which the Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient was computed and was 0.759.

3.7 Validity and Reliability

3.7.1 Validity

Joppe (2000) states that validity determines whether the research truly measures that which it was intended to measure or how truthful the research results are. In other words, does the research instrument allow you to hit "the bull's eye" of your research object? In this study, the Researcher shared the questionnaire with various experts as well as the university supervisors before using them in the field to ascertain that the questions asked met the objectives of the research.

3.7.2 Reliability

Joppe (2000) defines reliability as the extent to which results are consistent over time and an accurate representation of the total population under study, and if the results of a study can be reproduced under a similar methodology, then the research instrument is considered to be reliable. In this study, the researcher conducted a pilot study in Akagera National Park, a different park with similar characteristics with the main case studies before the actual data

collection. Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient was then computed and was 0.759 thereby terming the question as reliable as there was internal consistency of the instruments.

3.8 Data Collection Techniques

For the researcher to obtain quantitative and qualitative data, both primary and secondary sources of data were used.

3.8.1 Primary Data

Primary data are defined as those which are collected for the first time from the field and thus happen to be original in character (Kothari 1999).

Quantitative data collection involved administering questionnaires to Local communities around the two protected areas (VNP and ANP) Qualitative data collection was conducted through semi-structured interviews to RDB officials and local leaders to ensure flexibilities and openness. This helped the researcher to lead a conversation with the selected RDB officials and local leaders and at the same time be able to re-phrase questions for more precise responses.

3.8.2 Secondary Data

Secondary data was obtained from review of books, journals, and official reports from RDB. To support primary data, results from related studies were crosschecked to note any consistency and/or inconsistencies.

3.9 Data analysis and presentation

The completed questionnaires were then coded and the quantitative data entered in spreadsheet of Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS).

Descriptive statistics involved description of data using statistics such as means and standard deviations while inferential statistics included using Cross tabulations and chi-square tests for relationship purposes.

Chi-square tests was used to test the relationship between tourism revenue implementation process and local communities' participation in tourism activities and whether benefits from tourism revenue affected local communities' attitude towards tourism activities.

Qualitative data from open-ended questions and interview questions was coded into a set of categories developed from identified commonalities. For all the qualitative data, the researcher paraphrased responses while remaining faithful to the original meaning from the interviewee responses.

3.10 Ethical considerations

The ethical part of this research is based on Bryman (2001). In this case, the researcher acquired authorization from the Rwanda Development Board allowing him to carry out the study in the two districts. Consequently, the researcher introduced himself to the respondents explaining the purpose of the research. Lastly, the respondents consent on participation in the research was sought and honored as well as assuring the respondents that confidentiality on all issues given will be observed.

CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

4.0 Introduction

This chapter highlights the research findings as well as the interpretation of statistical analysis, various explanations and discussions in general.

Out of the 178 questionnaires distributed, only 160 were returned and 18 were not returned making the response rate to be 90%.

4.1 Overview of Tourism Revenue Sharing In Rwanda



Figure 1: Tourism revenue sharing in Rwanda from 2005-2013 in USD

Figure 1 shows that, Tourism revenue from the three national parks has been increasing since year 2005 due to political stability and increasing positive image of Rwanda in the world, apart from in 2010 when the revenue collections drastically reduced due to political tension during the 2010 election process which reduced the number of tourist visitation to Rwanda.

However it later on picked up and has been increasing since as a result of intensive marketing by RDB and political stability. The 5% tourism revenue shared compared to the number of members around these protected areas (>45,000, appendix 2) is not sufficient enough, since the population in rural Rwanda has been increasing at an approximate rate of 3% annually and dependency ratio standing at 80 % (NISR, 2012). This causes some imbalance as the same increase has not happened in terms of TRS percentage.

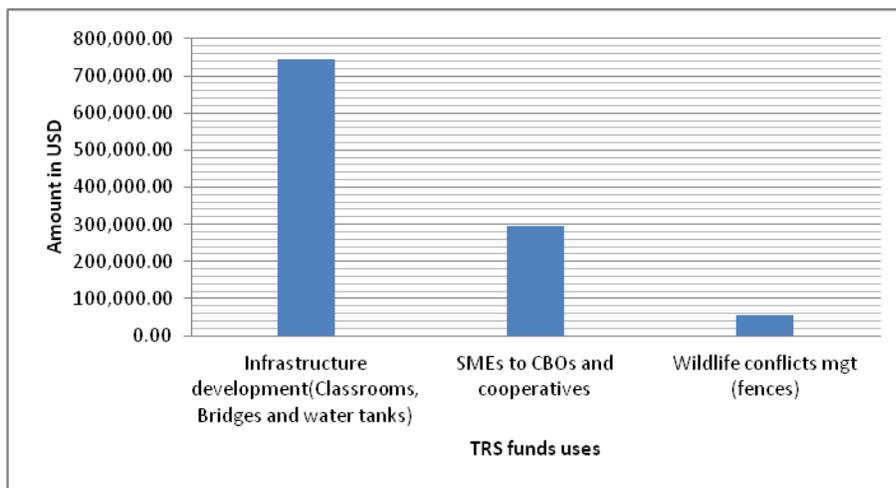


Figure2: Forms in which Tourism revenue 1 funds are used in Rwanda (2005-2013)

Tourism revenue funds are distributed to local communities in form of infrastructure developments such as building of schools, water tanks, hospitals among others as well as building of fences to minimize wildlife conflicts as well as funding community based projects and enterprises. This is an indication that human wildlife conflicts issues receive least funding yet they are the ones that directly involve local communities especially those living close to the parks. Consequently, there is no indication of direct benefit to individuals members of the community as all proceeds are spent on community projects.

4.2 Local Communities' General Findings

Table 4.1 Gender of respondents 1

	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Male	70	43.8
Female	90	56.2
Total	160	100

Source: Field Survey 2014

Table 4.1 above indicates that of the 160 respondents above 20 years of age questioned during the survey, Majority (56.2%) were female and the rest (43.8%) were male. This was as a result of the fact that most household heads are commonly composed of female gender due to the fact that there was more male massacre during the 1994 genocide. This is in agreement with Schindler, and Brück, 2011 findings that the 1994 genocide left more males dead as compared to their female counterparts. Also the National institute of statistics thematic report notes that the effects of genocide are still visible in terms of sex ratio (NISR, 2012)

Table 4.2 Respondents distance from park 1

	Frequency	Percent (%)
Less than 1 km	50	31.3
1-5km	97	60.6
Over 5km	13	8.1
Total	160	100

Source: Field Survey 2014

Table 4.2 indicates that majority (60.6%) of the respondents lived between 1kilometer (km) and 5 km from the parks, 31.3% lived less than a kilometer from the park and only (8.1%) lived more than 5 km from the parks. This was an indication that most people questioned lived near the park and therefore their responses are very important for consideration in conservation and tourism activities around the two parks and therefore they should be given first priority if any peaceful coexistence with the park resources is to be expected.

Table 4.3 Length of stay around the park 1

	Frequency	Percent (%)
1-5 years	30	18.8
Between 6 and 10years	60	37.5
Over 10 years	70	43.8
Total	160	100

Source: Field Survey 2014

Table 4.3 indicates that of the 160 respondents questioned, 43.8% had lived in the location for more than 10 years while 37.5% had lived there between 6 and 10 years and only 18.8% had lived there less than 5 years. This made the researcher confident that the information given by majority of the respondents was valid. The fact that most respondents had spent considerable number of years around the two parks meant that they had witnessed the birth of Tourism revenue sharing scheme and thus could tell of its contribution to their livelihood.

Table 4.4 Activities around the park 1

	Frequency	Percent (%)
Crop farming	60	37.5
Animal farming	20	12.5
Both	80	50.0
Total	160	100

Source: Field Survey 2014

Table 4.4 clearly shows that majority of the respondents practiced both crop and animal farming and only few specialized in crop farming (37.5%) and animal farming (12.5%). In general the people living around the parks were mainly farmers.

Table 4.5 Participation in tourism/conservation activities

	Frequency	Percent (%)
Yes	100	62.5
No	60	37.5
Total	160	100

Source: Field Survey 2014

Table 4.5 shows that a majority (62.5%) of the respondents participated in conservation and tourism activities around the park while the rest did not (37.5%). The activities they were engaging in included planting of trees, reporting poaching activities to park management, selling souvenirs as well as provision of guiding in around the parks. For example around Volcanoes national park, the community guides and trackers are 40 in number who facilitate gorilla tracking to tourists (personal communication from RDB officials in the parks).

Table 4.6 Challenges faced by Locals 1

	Frequency	Percent (%)
Yes	110	68.5
No	50	31.5
Total	160	100

Source: Field Survey 2014

Table 4.6 shows that 68.8% of the respondents faced challenges while living around the parks, among those challenges included, crop destruction by monkeys as well as buffaloes. Other form of challenges was animal predation. Some reported chicken killing by mongooses and eagles. Also some reported harassment by park staff especially for collection of firewood from the park, where they had to be forced to return firewood back to the park which they termed as being inhuman. Those who said they don't face challenges explained that to them the park is more of a benefit than a problem since they are doing businesses which could be worse off without the National parks existence.

Table 4.7 Duration of tourism revenue 1

	Frequency	Percent (%)
Less than 1 year	20	12.5
More than 1 year	140	87.5
Total	160	100

Source: Field Survey 2014

Table 4.7 indicates that the time taken to receive tourism revenue sharing (TRS) proceeds was more than one year (between 1 to 3 years) as indicated by 87.5% of the respondents. Only 12.5% said it took less than one year. For the few (12.5%) who said TRS took less than a year, their responses was not consistent with Park staff as they said the revenue could take long sometimes due to logistics. Therefore, the researcher concluded that those who said TRS proceeds took less than a year to receive could did not understand the question or they wanted to show loyalty to the authorities. Also, the RDB official reports and interviews were consistent with what local community responses as they said that the revenue sometimes could take long to be disbursed due to the logistics and delay in identifying priority projects to be funded.

4.3 Form of revenue sharing received by communities

Majority of the local community members said the revenue shared was in the form of development projects for the community in general and sometimes individual grants in form of goats and cows. For example the Kinigi community commercial complex which is an off-farm Income Generating Project is currently operational and generates revenue to communities, especially artisans. Also 186 small-rain water tanks built for communities (100 in Burera and 86 in Nyabihu) between the year 2005 and 2013 to help solve water problems in Kinigi region,

Classrooms as well as cows and sheep projects where 2900 sheep and 200 cows are distributed to poor people and cooperatives working in park conservation over the period of 2008 to 2013.

4.4 Local communities view on the implementation process of tourism revenue sharing (TRS)

NOTE: Tables interpretation:

- Any mean between 1.0 to 2.5=Agreeing to statements
- Any mean Between 2.6 to 4.0=disagreeing with statements

Table 4.8 Locals view on implementation 1

	Involvement in Implementation of TRS	Involved in Selecting our Representatives	Consulted at Every Step in TRS process	We decide on Projects to be Funded	RDB is Doing Enough to Involve us
Mean (μ)	3.19	3.06	3.31	3.19	3.12
Std. Deviation	.884	.661	.770	.728	.760

Source: Field Survey 2014

Table 4.8 above shows that the majority of the locals who participated in the study said they were not involved in the implementation process (μ 3.19 SD .884) while also they said that they were not involved in selecting representatives (μ 3.06 SD .661). Also when they were questioned on whether they were consulted in every step of the TRS process, their responses were inclined to the negative with (μ 3.31 SD .770). Consequently on whether they are the ones who decide on the projects to be funded, they tended to disagree (μ 3.19 SD .728). Lastly they never seemed to

agree to the fact that Rwanda Development Board (RDB) was doing enough to involve them (μ 3.12 SD .760). The responses were however not homogenous as their standard deviation was above 0.5 indicating wide views in their responses. Percentage wise, most (over 75%) of the respondents disagreed to be involved in general in the implementation process.

In general, the implementation process was not well appreciated by the majority of the respondents who participated in the whole survey. Among the dominant explanation given was that the leaders mainly decided on the projects to be funded. Also as one respondents said “I wonder even how this money is given, I only hear there is a school, a hospital or even water points being built, and sometimes I wonder who decided for us about those projects, I wish they asked our opinions. What’s the use of water or even school when our children have nothing to eat”? This kind of response shows disappointment on the whole process.

Another respondent said that;

“These people (RDB and Leaders) take us like kids and think they are too wise and that they can decide on what the community needs are. Can you imagine for example a single individual or a group of self declared leaders deciding for more than ten thousand people? Does it make sense even to you?”

From the findings of this research, it is clear that the leaders and RDB officials decided on projects to be funded without much consultation with the local communities. Also TRS scheme is implemented mainly through community projects such as school buildings, hospitals among others and that these decisions are arrived at through consultation with the community representatives. However this kind of approach is not highly appreciated by the community members as some good number felt that they were not represented well and that the TRS did not

benefit those who bear the cost of tourism and conservation development. Therefore most felt cheated and were for the support of TRS scheme giving preference to those directly affected by conservation and tourism development rather than projects supporting the community in general. This kind of response is similar to a case in Uganda wildlife authority TRS scheme where according to Archabald and Naughton-Treves (2001) members of the community felt that the whole process was biased and that the tourism revenue was not really meeting their costs as neighboring communities. This was also reported in Jozani National Park in Zanzibar by Makame and Boon, 2008.

Table 4.9 Attitude on Tourism revenue 1

	TRS is unfairly Distributed	TRS do Not benefit those Directly Affected by conservation and Tourism Development	TRS should aim those directly affected	Willing to fully participate even without TRS	Would be more involved if I benefited more from TRS
Mean (μ)	1.38	1.75	1.38	2.06	1.62
Std. Deviation	.698	.832	.698	.661	.860

Source: Field Survey 2014

Table 4.9 above indicates that from the local communities questioned, the majority felt that tourism revenue sharing was unfairly distributed (μ 1.38 SD.698) while still a good number felt that TRS does not benefit those who are directly affected by tourism development and conservation (μ 1.75 SD .832) as TRS proceeds were in form of projects which benefited the whole community in general. Also 75% of the respondents strongly felt that TRS should instead be aiming directly to those affected by conservation and tourism developments (μ 1.38) and not the community in general as it is currently where the government through RDB allocate a portion of the tourism revenue to the community projects (RDB 2012 annual report).

Surprisingly, the locals irrespective of the fact that they felt TRS was unfairly done as well as not benefiting those directly affected, majority (75 %) (μ 2.06) stated that they were willing to participate in conservation and tourism initiatives even without tourism Revenue Sharing (TRS). However, in spite of this attestation, most (86%) (μ 1.62 sd .860) felt that their participation

would be improved if they benefited more from tourism revenue. Most of these responses again had a widespread of views as their standard deviation was above 0.5 which was possibly because some especially those who were enjoying direct benefits had different opinions from majority of those who benefited less and thus had different opinions.

From these findings most of the locals questioned expressed dissatisfaction with the way tourism revenue was being distributed as well as feeling that those who live closest to the park and experienced more animal menace didn't benefit more from the revenue sharing. This feeling created a feeling that those directly affected by the tourism and conservation development should be given first priority in tourism revenue sharing proceeds before general community consideration. These kind of negative feelings were contributed by the fact that most locals who faced various forms of loss through crop damage from wild animals, were getting little or no compensation from RDB for their loss. But instead the TRS was aimed at benefiting the community in general in form of community projects, a concept that most local communities didn't welcome well. They were for the idea that direct compensation or direct benefits could work better for them. These same sentiments have been witnessed in other regions like In Uganda, Kenya as well as Tanzania where those directly affected by wildlife protection for tourism purposes were not equally compensated by the management. (Archibald and Lisa Naughton-Treves. 2001, Zhao and Ritchie 2007)

Table 4.10 Constraint to tourism revenue sharing around VNP

	Amount shared is Too Small to meet Needs	TRS Take Long to be Distributed	No Openness In TRS process	Leaders Misrepresent Us	Amount shared is Too Small to meet Needs
Mean (μ)	1.69	1.62	1.94	1.81	1.69
Std. Deviation	.919	.860	.557	.728	.919

Source: Field Survey 2014

From the results of table 4.10, the main constraints to tourism revenue sharing around the two parks was the fact that the amount shared was small to meet local communities needs as noted by the majority of the respondents who tended to agree (μ 1.69 SD .919), also majority of the respondents pointed out that the revenue being shared took long time (more than one year) to be distributed as indicated by the majority of the respondents whose responses were inclined between scale of 1 and 2 indicating that they felt that TRS took long time to reach them. Also interview from local leaders supported this as they couldn't understand why TRS funds were taking long as indicated by one respondent; "I don't understand how the government could be receiving money on a daily basis yet when it comes to sharing with us, it takes more than a year. I have never understood this and always wonder."

Consequently, the locals felt that there was no openness in the TRS process as most people chose a scale of between 1 and 2 which tended to agree to the fact that there was no openness in the TRS process (μ 1.94 sd .557). The locals felt that those involved sometimes used favourism especially in giving direct benefits to the locals. As one responded said, "we have more poor people here around us who have not got even a chicken since the TRS scheme started, yet we

have seen many well up people getting sheep repeatedly and even their relatives getting jobs.....tell me do those people know us more than ourselves? That's why I dislike these people (RDB and local leaders), they are all the same. Minding about their own only.....but God will help us I believe”

Lastly, the respondents felt that they were poorly represented by their leaders (μ 1.81 SD .728) and that instead of making better decisions to help those that directly suffer the consequences of living around the parks, they were just supporting projects which benefited all and mostly those who used them have not suffered at all from the harsh problems that we face when dealing with wild animals. One respondent expressed it this way, “I wish you know how me and my family have suffered for living with these animals, my goats were killed by these animals and instead of buying others for me, these leaders never listened to me but instead said I should relocate and do other business.....tell me, would you call such your leader?”

However for those who were of different opinion, they felt that all was well and that they appreciate living around the parks since their businesses were doing well. For example one local business lady involved in a curio shop stated that; “Living around this park has really changed my life, my children go to a nearby school thanks to RDB and also my business increases due to their (RDB) visitors who buy my goods”. Currently there are 101 small medium enterprises Around the protected areas, where people have set up different type of shops selling either traditional carvings and/or snacks with an aim of selling to tourists visiting their region.

4.3 Inferential statistics

Table 4.11 relationship between Local community involvement in TRS implementation and their participation in tourism and conservation activities

Crosstabulations		Willingness to fully participate even without involvement in TRS implementation			Total	Percentage (%)
		strongly agree	agree	disagree		
Involvement in TRS Implementation	strongly agree	0	10	0	10	6.2
	Agree	0	20	0	20	12.5
	disagree	20	20	20	60	37.5
	strongly disagree	10	40	20	70	43.8
Total		30	90	40	160	
Percentage(%)		18.8	56.2	25		100

Table 4.11 above shows that majority of the respondents 43.8% (strongly disagreed) and 37.5% (Disagreed) admitted that they were not involved in the TRS implementation process. Only 6.2% and 12.5% strongly agreed and agreed respectively to have been involved in the TRS process. However the lack of involvement didn't seem to affect their willingness to participate in conservation and tourism activities since 18.8% and 56.2% of the respondents strongly agreed and agreed respectively that they were willing to participate fully even without being involved in the implementation process. Only 25% wouldn't participate if they weren't involved in the implementation process

Table 4.12 Chi-square on TRS Implementat 1ion process and community participation**Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	38.519 ^a	6	.000
Likelihood Ratio	49.276	6	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.216	1	.270
N of Valid Cases	160		

From the table 4.12 above, it's evident that lack of involvement in the TRS implementation process had little influence to local communities participation in the conservation and tourism activities ($P < 0.05$). This could possibly be due to the fact that they are more engaged in their own personal businesses and whether or not they got involved had little influence on their activities around the conservation areas.

Therefore the Null hypothesis that there is no relationship between tourism revenue sharing implementation process and community participation in conservation and tourism activities was therefore rejected and their alternative hypothesis accepted.

Table 4.13 Relationship between Local community consultation and their participation

Crosstabulations		Willingness to fully participate even without consultation in TRS process			Total	Percentage (%)
		strongly agree	agree	disagree		
Consulted At Every Step in TRS process	strongly agree	0	10	0	10	6.25
	disagree	30	30	20	80	50
	strongly disagree	0	50	20	70	43.75
Total		30	90	40	160	
Percentage(%)		18.75	56.25	25		100

Table 4.13 above indicates that of the 150 (93.75%) respondents who felt they were not consulted in the TRS process, 120 (75%) were willing to participate in conservation and tourism activities around the parks even without the consultation. Only 25% were unwilling to participate in conservation and tourism activities. This is an indication that although local consultation is critical to full community participation in tourism and conservation initiatives, it didn't affect much the local community participation.

Table 4.14 Chi-square on local community consultation (attitudes) and community participation

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	44.127 ^a	4	.000
Likelihood Ratio	57.999	4	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	6.916	1	.009
N of Valid Cases	160		

From the table 4.13 above, it's evident that of involvement in the TRS implementation process had little influence to local communities willingness to participation in the conservation and tourism activities ($P < 0.05$). However, they all indicated that their involvement would be more if they were involved in the TRS process well and if they benefited more from the TRS scheme.

Therefore the Null hypothesis that there is no relationship between local community attitudes towards TRS and their participation in conservation and tourism activities was rejected and the alternative hypothesis accepted.

CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Introduction

This chapter highlights the general summary of the findings of the study, general conclusions and various recommendations.

5.1 Summary of the findings

The findings of the study were discussed as per research objectives posed in the study. Concerning the first objective on whether there is a relationship between TRS and Community participation in conservation and tourism activities, the results indicate that even though respondents were not satisfied with the implementation process, they were more than willing to continue with the conservation and tourism activities even without any revenue sharing.

Also on the criteria used to implement The TRS program, it was noted that most of the tourism revenue reached the surrounding communities through community projects. The decision on projects to be funded was arrived at through discussion with community representatives and RDB officials in charge of TRS. Also TRS was also implemented through identification of the poorest in the community living around the parks and was shared inform of one goats per affected household as well as getting employment in the park. However this kind of implementation was thought by the majority as not open as most felt that they were not well represented by their leaders (93.7%) as well as feeling that RDB was not doing enough to ensure they benefit (75%)

Consequently, on whether local communities' attitudes towards TRS affect their participation in conservation and tourism activities around Volcanoes national parks, the results indicated that although local communities felt that TRS was unfairly distributed (μ 1.38) and also feeling that TRS did not benefit those directly affected by conservation and tourism development, (μ 1.75) and that feeling that TRS should aim those directly affected (μ 1.38), these feelings had little influence to their willingness to participate in conservation and tourism activities even without TRS as most responses tended towards positivity to the statement (μ 2.06). In spite of these responses, local communities admitted that they would be more involved in conservation and tourism participation if they benefited more from the TRS as evidenced by the responses which tended to strongly agree (μ 1.62)

Finally on the constraints of TRS process around the Parks, several constraints were raised among them being that the locals feeling that the amount shared was too small to meet their needs, as well as the feeling that the revenue was taking long to be disbursed. Other constraints were the feeling that there was no openness in the whole process and that the local leaders were misrepresenting them.

5.2 Conclusions

Tourism revenue sharing is an interesting concept and plays a key role in promoting rural development and community appreciation to tourism developments. However, despite its adoption around several PAs in developing countries, the mechanism for its implementation has yet to deliver adequately.

In the area of this study for example, Tourism revenue sharing is a key motivator to the community participation in conservation and tourism activities as majority of the findings show

that with TRS, the community would be more participative as compared to their current involvement. However local community participation in conservation and tourism activities around Volcanoes national parks is not pegged on their benefit from tourism revenue.

On the other hand the implementation process does not get the support from the locals as it really deserves despite the fact that there is evidence on TRS projects in terms of Schools, Hospitals as well as community curio shops and cooperatives as well as employment for the locals. This is because the locals feel left out in the whole process steps. However this does not deter them from participating in the conservation and tourism activities but they admitted they would participate more if they were more involved in the process steps. Therefore there is need for adept approach in the whole implementation process if it has to win local support and thus becoming more sustainable.

Generally Local communities attitude towards the way TRS was being shared was mixed with some local communities feeling that Tourism revenue was unfairly distributed and that it didn't benefit those directly affected. This was possibly due to the fact that those close to the TRS projects as well as those who had direct benefits were happier on TRS distribution as compared to those who didn't enjoy direct benefits. In this regard it has proved challenging to ensure that the local people's share meets their expectations, and that it reaches the most deserving communities, and/or individuals within a community.

The whole TRS process faces several constraints in terms of time taken for the locals to get the revenue as well as a feeling that the amount is small or insufficient and that it should be increased.

From these findings it was clear that local consultation in every step was critical for successful TRS implementation. However Local people, for their part-based on past experiences may not be convinced that their involvement will produce meaningful outcomes.

5.3 Recommendations

From the conclusions above, the researcher made the following recommendations;

- There is need for RDB to engage in participatory planning, adept implementation of the TRS scheme as well as putting in place legitimate monitoring methods on the way projects and other benefits reach the community
- There is need for control and adjust policies and practices in regard to those eligible for TRS proceeds to avoid local communities feeling that the selection of those eligible is biased
- There is need for a more concerted effort to overcome the TRS constraints, such as identified in this research by reducing on time taken to disburse the revenue as well as increasing the funds for better appreciation by the local communities.
- There is need to adopt variable approaches whereby those facing real challenges resulting from their proximity to the park getting more tangible proceeds or even having more benefits as compared to those who don't feel much effect of tourism and conservation development.

5.3.1 Suggestions for further research

Since the researcher could not exploit all the issues relating to tourism and conservation development, he wishes to make the following suggestion for further research:

- There is need to carry out a research to ascertain whether Tourism Revenue Sharing scheme was creating a new form of dependency in the community members

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APPENDIX 1: Map of Rwanda



Figure 1: Map of Rwanda

APPENDIX 2: Population of study area

National Park	Sector/division	Population	Households/Number
Volcanoes	Kinigi	22,019	267

Source: 2012 Population of housing census

Household numbers

Sector	Households/Number
Kinigi	267

Source: Sector leaders' records

APPENDIX 4: QUESTIONNAIRES AND INTERVIEW GUIDES

QUESTIONNAIRE TO LOCAL COMMUNITIES

Dear respondent, I am a master’s student at Kenyatta University carrying out an academic research on “Tourism revenue sharing and community participation in conservation and tourism around Volcanoes National Park in Rwanda. I wish to request for your contribution in responding to the questions below to help me gather the objectives of my research. The answers provided will only be used for academic purposes and will be treated with confidentiality. Any assistance rendered to me will be highly appreciated. (kindly tick only one option where applicable)

1. What is your gender? Male Female
2. How far is your home from the park boundaries?
Less than 1km between 1 and 5km Over 5km
3. How long have you lived in this location?
Between 1 and 5 yrs, between 6 and 10yrs More than 10yrs
4. What activity do you engage in? Crop farming Cattle keeping Both any other
5. Do you participate in conservation activities in your area? Yes No if yes, which activities?
6. Do you face any challenges for living around the park? Yes No (if yes, give Examples)
7. How frequent do you receive revenue from RDB? Monthly, every six months, Yearly, any other...
8. In what form is the revenue shared by the community?
9. Who is responsible for the revenue sharing in your region?.....
10. a) Implementation of tourism revenue sharing and impact on tourism and conservation

To what extent do you agree with the following statements (Tick only one option per question)	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Am involved in the implementation of tourism revenue sharing				
Am always involved in selecting our representatives in tourism revenue committee				
We are always consulted at every step in the implementation process of TRS program				
We always decide on what project to be undertaken in our area				
In general, RDB and park management are doing enough to involve us in the implementation process				

b) In your own view, what is your view of the implementation process of Tourism revenue in your sector? Explain.....

11.a) Local communities’ attitude towards tourism revenue sharing around ANP

To what extent do you agree with the following statements(Tick only one option per question)	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Tourism revenue is unfairly distributed				
The revenues do not benefit those who are directly affected by tourism development				
The revenue sharing should aim at those directly affected and not just the community in general				
Even without tourism revenue sharing, am willing to fully participate in conservation efforts in my area				
I would be more involved in conservation efforts if I benefit from tourism revenue				

b) In your view, do you think Tourism revenue shared equals the cost of living around this park? Explain.....

12 a) Constraints to tourism revenue sharing around ANP

To what extent do you agree with the following statements(Tick only one option per question)	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
The amount of money shared is too small to meet our needs				
The revenue takes too long to be distributed to community				
There is no openness in the revenue sharing process				
Our leaders do not represent us well				

b) Explain your choices above.....

13. a) Strategies of improving tourism revenue sharing with local communities.

To what extent do you agree with the following statements(Tick only one option per question)	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
local consultation is important for successful revenue sharing program				
We should always be involved in every step in the implementation process				

b) What would you suggest to be done in order to make tourism revenue sharing program more helpful to you and the community in general?.....

INTERVIEW GUIDE TO RDB STAFF

Dear respondent,

I am a master's student at Kenyatta University carrying out an academic research on "Tourism revenue sharing and community participation in conservation and tourism around Volcanoes National Park in Rwanda. I wish to request for your contribution in responding to the questions below to help me gather the objectives of my research. The answers provided will only be used for academic purposes and will be treated with confidentiality. Any assistance rendered to me will be highly appreciated.

1. How many people are involved in the TRS in 2013?
3. What criteria is used when funding community projects using TRS funds?
4. In what ways are the local communities involved in the decision-making process that leads to which projects to be funded?
5. From your own experience, do you think local communities fully appreciate how tourism revenue is currently being implemented?
6. In your opinion, is there any improvements needed to make the tourism revenue distribution to the Communities more fruitful?
7. In general, how satisfied do you think the local communities are with the current tourism revenue sharing program? (tick only one option)

Very satisfied Satisfied Not satisfied Not
 sure
8. Do you face any challenges in your position as head/member of tourism revenue sharing committee? Explain.....
9. What happens In case of death or relocation of some community members in terms of revenue sharing?
10. What is the smallest unit of sharing revenue to the community?
11. What criteria is used to identify the people legible for the sharing?
12. What challenges exist in implementation of the scheme?

INTERVIEW GUIDE TO LOCAL LEADERS

Dear respondent,

I am a master's student at Kenyatta University carrying out an academic research on "Tourism revenue sharing and community participation in conservation and tourism around Volcanoes National Park in Rwanda. I wish to request for your contribution in responding to the questions below to help me gather the objectives of my research. The answers provided will only be used for academic purposes and will be treated with confidentiality. Any assistance rendered to me will be highly appreciated.

1. How is the community organized in this region and who is responsible for the organization?
2. Who makes decision about how tourism revenue is to be used in your sector?
3. How is decision on what projects to be funded by TRS arrived at?
4. From your own experience, do you think local communities fully appreciate how tourism revenue is currently being implemented?
5. How do you involve locals in your sector in decision making about tourism revenue sharing?
6. Is there any guideline that guides the committee when dealing with the tourism revenue distribution?
7. In general, how satisfied do you think the local communities are with the current tourism revenue sharing program? (Tick only one choice) Explain your choice
 Very satisfied Satisfied Not satisfied Not sure
8. a) How long does it take to receive the revenue from RDB?
 Monthly every six months yearly any other.....
- b) What's your feeling towards the duration taken to receive revenue sharing fund...
10. Has anything changed for the better since the TRS were put in place?

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.759	35

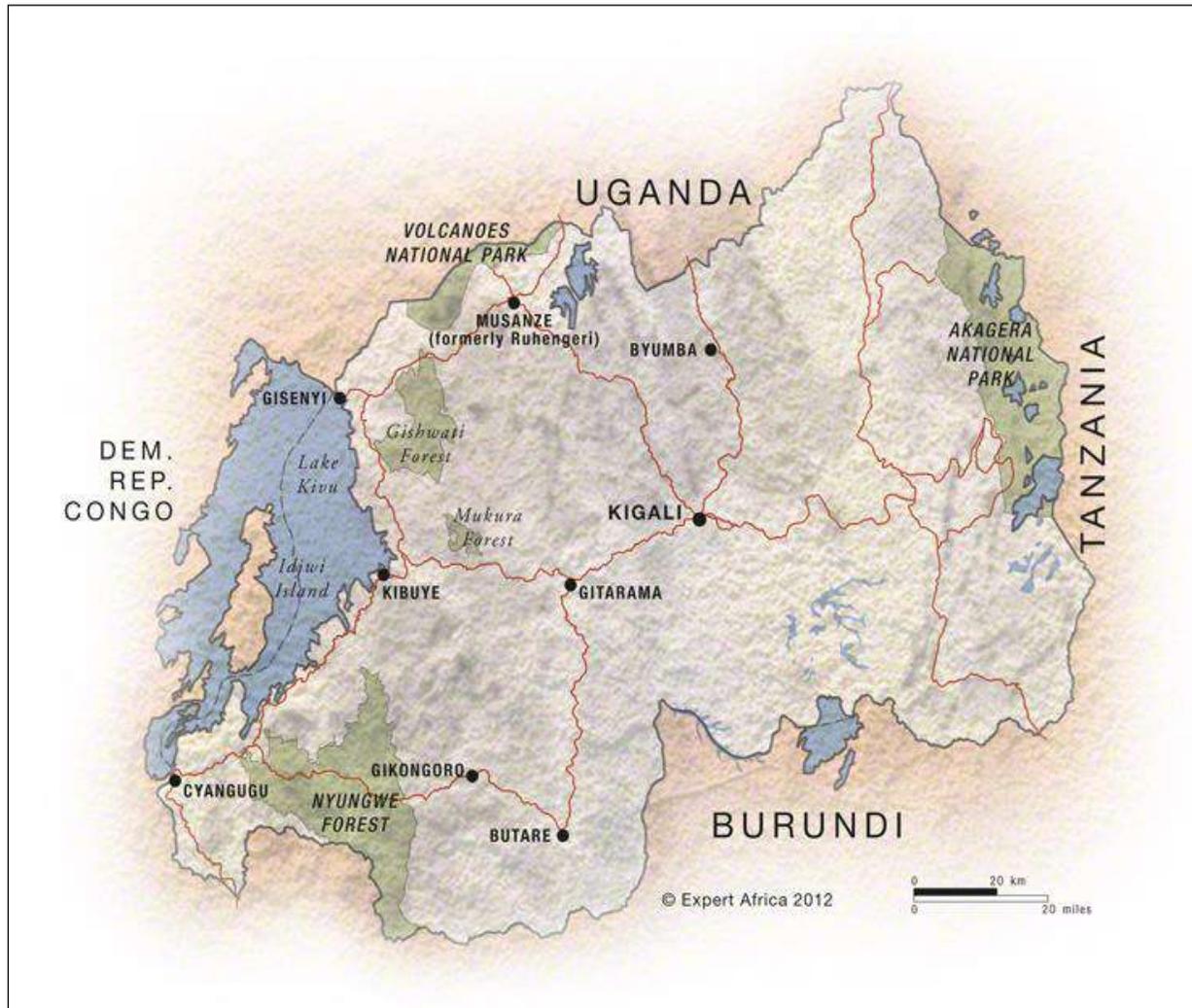
APPENDIX 5: MAP OF STUDY AREA

Figure 2: Map of Rwanda showing the Volcanoes National Park and other parks

Source: Expert Africa 2012

APPENDIX 6: RESEARCH PERMIT FROM RWANDA DEVELOPMENT BOARD



BunfairlyDistributedTRS

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	strongly agree	120	75.0	75.0	75.0
	agree	20	12.5	12.5	87.5
	disagree	20	12.5	12.5	100.0
	Total	160	100.0	100.0	

BtrsdoNotbenefitthoseDirectlyAffectedbyTourismDevt

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	strongly agree	70	43.8	43.8	43.8
	agree	70	43.8	43.8	87.5
	disagree	10	6.2	6.2	93.8
	strongly disagree	10	6.2	6.2	100.0
	Total	160	100.0	100.0	

BtrsShouldAimthoseDirectlyAffected

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	strongly agree	120	75.0	75.0	75.0
	agree	20	12.5	12.5	87.5
	disagree	20	12.5	12.5	100.0
	Total	160	100.0	100.0	

BwouldbemoreinvolvedifbenefitfromTRS

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	strongly agree	90	56.2	56.2	56.2
	agree	50	31.2	31.2	87.5
	disagree	10	6.2	6.2	93.8
	strongly disagree	10	6.2	6.2	100.0

BwouldbemoreinvolvedifbenefitfromTRS

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid strongly agree	90	56.2	56.2	56.2
agree	50	31.2	31.2	87.5
disagree	10	6.2	6.2	93.8
strongly disagree	10	6.2	6.2	100.0
Total	160	100.0	100.0	

CamountsharedTooSmalltoMeetNeeds

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid strongly agree	90	56.2	56.2	56.2
agree	40	25.0	25.0	81.2
disagree	20	12.5	12.5	93.8
strongly disagree	10	6.2	6.2	100.0
Total	160	100.0	100.0	

CtrsTakeLongtobeDistributed

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid strongly agree	90	56.2	56.2	56.2
agree	50	31.2	31.2	87.5
disagree	10	6.2	6.2	93.8
strongly disagree	10	6.2	6.2	100.0
Total	160	100.0	100.0	

CnoOpennesInTRSprocess

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid strongly agree	30	18.8	18.8	18.8
agree	110	68.8	68.8	87.5
disagree	20	12.5	12.5	100.0
Total	160	100.0	100.0	

CleadersMisrepresentUs

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid strongly agree	50	31.2	31.2	31.2
agree	100	62.5	62.5	93.8
strongly disagree	10	6.2	6.2	100.0
Total	160	100.0	100.0	

DlocalConsultationimportantforSuccessfulTRS

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid strongly agree	140	87.5	87.5	87.5
agree	10	6.2	6.2	93.8
disagree	10	6.2	6.2	100.0
Total	160	100.0	100.0	

DshouldAlwaysbeInvolvedinImplementationProcess

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid strongly agree	120	75.0	75.0	75.0
agree	20	12.5	12.5	87.5
disagree	20	12.5	12.5	100.0
Total	160	100.0	100.0	

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Implementation	160	1.40	4.00	3.1750	.70175
LocalAttitudes	160	1.00	2.60	1.6375	.53421
Constraints	160	1.00	3.50	1.7656	.63610
Strategies	160	1.00	3.00	1.2812	.55990
Valid N (listwise)	160				

One-Sample Statistics

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
AinvolvementImplementation TRS	160	3.1875	.88444	.06992
AinvolvedSelectingReps	160	3.0625	.66055	.05222
AConsultedAtEveryStep	160	3.3125	.77042	.06091
AdecideonProjectsFunded	160	3.1875	.72846	.05759
ArdbDoingEnoughToInvolveu s	160	3.1250	1.05658	.08353

One-Sample Statistics

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
A involvement Implementation TRS	160	3.1875	.88444	.06992
A involved Selecting Reps	160	3.0625	.66055	.05222
A consulted At Every Step	160	3.3125	.77042	.06091
A decide on Projects Funded	160	3.1875	.72846	.05759
A rdb Doing Enough to Involve us	160	3.1250	1.05658	.08353
B un fairly Distributed TRS	160	1.3750	.69816	.05519
B trs do Not benefit those Directly Affected by Tourism Devt	160	1.7500	.83176	.06576
B trs Should Aim those Directly Affected	160	1.3750	.69816	.05519
B Willing to fully participate even without TRS	160	2.0625	.66055	.05222
B would be more involved if benefit from TRS	160	1.6250	.85965	.06796
C amount shared Too Small to meet Needs	160	1.6875	.91931	.07268
C trs Take Long to be Distributed	160	1.6250	.85965	.06796
C no Openness In TRS process	160	1.9375	.55726	.04405
C leaders Misrepresent Us	160	1.8125	.72846	.05759
D local Consultation important for Successful TRS	160	1.1875	.52829	.04176
D should Always be Involved in Implementation Process	160	1.3750	.69816	.05519

One-Sample Statistics

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
CamountsharedTooSmalltom eetNeeds	160	1.6875	.91931	.07268
CtrsTakeLongtobeDistributed	160	1.6250	.85965	.06796
CnoOpennesInTRSprcess	160	1.9375	.55726	.04405
CleadersMisrepresentUs	160	1.8125	.72846	.05759

One-Sample Statistics

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
DlocalConsultationimportantf orSuccessfulTRS	160	1.1875	.52829	.04176
DshouldAlwaysbeInvolvedinl mplementationProcess	160	1.3750	.69816	.05519

One-Sample Statistics

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
BunfairlyDistributedTRS	160	1.3750	.69816	.05519
BtrsdoNotbenefitthoseDirectl yAffectedbyTourismDevt	160	1.7500	.83176	.06576
BtrsShouldAimthoseDirectly Affected	160	1.3750	.69816	.05519
BWillingtofullyparticipateeven withoutTRS	160	2.0625	.66055	.05222
Bwouldbemoreinvolvedifben efitfromTRS	160	1.6250	.85965	.06796

gender

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	male	70	43.8	43.8	43.8
	female	90	56.2	56.2	100.0
	Total	160	100.0	100.0	

distancepark

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Less than 1km	50	31.2	31.2	31.2
	between 5 and 10km	60	37.5	37.5	68.8
	over 5km	50	31.2	31.2	100.0
	Total	160	100.0	100.0	

duration

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	less than 5 years	30	18.8	18.8	18.8
	between 5 and 10yrs	60	37.5	37.5	56.2
	over 10yrs	70	43.8	43.8	100.0
	Total	160	100.0	100.0	

activity

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	crop farming	60	37.5	37.5	37.5
	animal farming	20	12.5	12.5	50.0
	both	80	50.0	50.0	100.0
	Total	160	100.0	100.0	

conservationParticipation

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	yes	100	62.5	62.5	62.5
	no	60	37.5	37.5	100.0
	Total	160	100.0	100.0	

faceChallenges

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	yes	110	68.8	68.8	68.8
	no	50	31.2	31.2	100.0
	Total	160	100.0	100.0	

durationOfRevenueReceiving

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	less than 1yr	20	12.5	12.5	12.5
	more than 1yr	140	87.5	87.5	100.0
	Total	160	100.0	100.0	