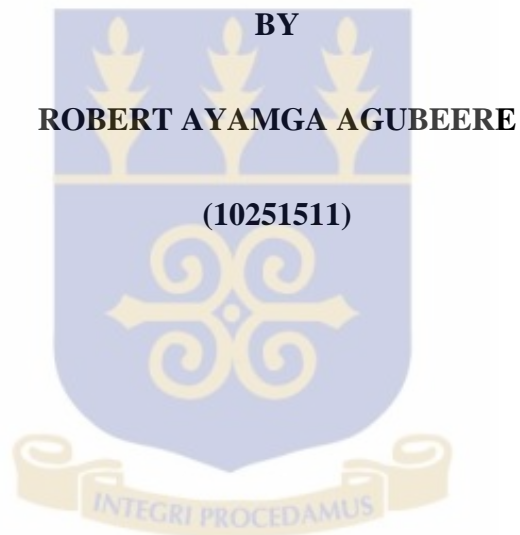


UNIVERSITY OF GHANA
DEPARTMENT OF GEOGRAPHY AND RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT

RURAL TOURISM AS A MEANS OF ENHANCING RURAL LIVELIHOODS
AT PAGA, UPPER EAST REGION, GHANA



THIS THESIS IS SUBMITTED TO THE UNIVERSITY OF GHANA, LEGON
IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENT FOR THE AWARD
OF MPHIL GEOGRAPHY AND RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT DEGREE.

JULY, 2014

DECLARATION

I, Robert Ayamga Agubeere declare that this thesis and its entire contents represent my own work and all references quoted or used have been duly acknowledged in the list of references. The research is presented to the University of Ghana in partial fulfillment for the award of a Master of Philosophy Degree. No part whatsoever has been presented to any other institution for the award of a degree.

Robert Ayamga Agubeere

ID NO. 10251511

.....

Date.....

SUPERVISORS

Prof. Alex B. Asiedu (Principal supervisor)

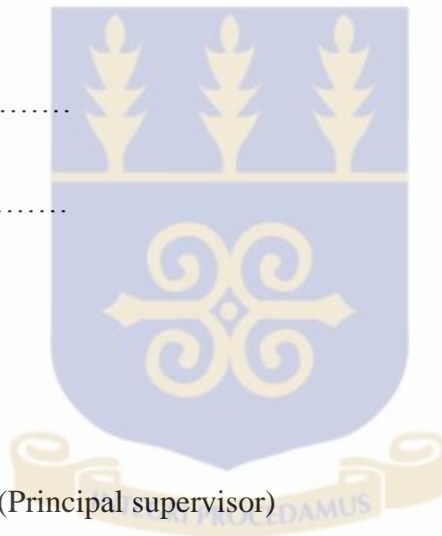
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Date.....

Prof. Joseph A. Yaro (Co-supervisor)

.....

Date.....



ABSTRACT

This thesis examines the means and ways in which rural tourism contributes to the enhancement of rural livelihoods at Paga. To date little is known about the empirical evidence linking rural tourism and livelihood enhancement at Paga. In order to gain better understanding of relevant issues in the context of the study, the sustainable livelihood framework which addresses livelihood assets, transforming structures and processes, vulnerability context, and livelihood strategies in order to achieve livelihood outcomes was employed. These components were then linked with rural tourism, livelihoods and poverty reduction. A combination of methods was used in this study (household questionnaire survey, semi-structured interviews, field observation, and informal discussions). The data gathered were then analysed, compared and integrated with each other and discussed.

The study discovered that rural tourism provides employment opportunities to nearly 15.1% of the local people working in campsites and lodges, tour guiding, bar/restaurant operations among others.

It also found out that farming contributed the least to individual monthly income, while the tourism sector contributed slightly higher in individual monthly incomes.

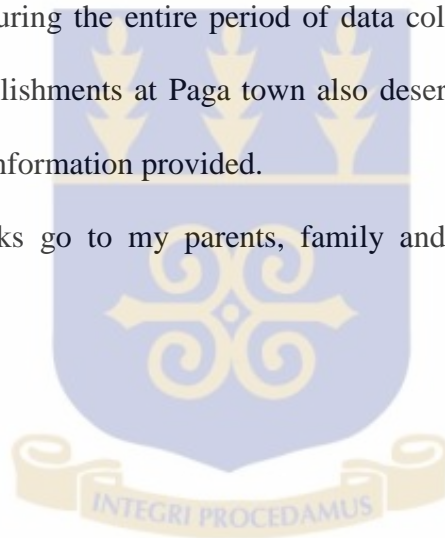
The study concludes that rural tourism at Paga has the potential to enhance rural livelihoods. Benefits from the tourism sector must reach the poor and leakages should be minimised so that more benefits can be retained locally. The need to encourage local participation and decision making has also been stressed.

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Finally, special thanks go to my parents, family and friends for their moral and material support.



ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

ADB	African Development Bank
CARE	Cooperative for Assistance and Relief Everywhere
CBD	Central Business District
CCP	Chief Crocodile Pond
DFID	Department for International Development
FGD	Focus Group Discussion
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GPRTU	Ghana Private Road Transport Union
GTA	Ghana Tourist Authority
HIV-AIDS	Human Immune Virus-Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
ICAO	International Civil Aviation Organization
IDS	Institute for Development Studies
IUCN	International Union for Conservation Nature
JHS	Junior High School
KNWD	Kassena-Nankana West District
KTS	Kingdom Transport Services
LAU	Limits of Acceptable Use
LDC(s)	Least Developing Countries
MDG(s)	Millennium Development Goal(s)
MMT	Metro Mass Transit
NGO(s)	Non-Governmental Organization(s)
OECD Development	Organization for Economic Cooperation and
PPT	Pro- Poor Tourism

SHS	Senior High School
SLA	Sustainable Livelihood Approach
SLF	Sustainable Livelihood Framework
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
STC	State Transport Company
PSC	Pikworo Slave Camp
ST-EP	Sustainable Tourism-Eliminating Poverty
UNCED	United Nations Conference on Environment and Development
UNCTAD	United Nations Conference on Trade and Development
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNEP	United Nations Environment Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Education, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNWTO	United Nations World Tourism Organization
WCED	World Commission on Environment and Development

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0 General Introduction

Tourism is considered as a multidimensional economic activity and is thought to have evolved with mankind. In modern times, it has become a social necessity or even a social right as evidenced by the increasing patronage of tourists to destination areas. Tourism has been widely identified for its economic (Martin and Uysal, 1990; Mathieson and Wall, 2006), social (Cooper et al, 2008; Goeldner and Ritchie, 2012), environmental (Sunlu, 2003; Hall, 2001; ICAO, 2009) and cultural (OECD, 2012; Kim, 2007; Virod and Sandeep, 2014) impacts.

Regarded as one of the world's largest industries (Holloway, 2002; McIntosh et al, 2000; Wall, 1997), tourism has also been acknowledged as being one of the most magnificent forces of dynamism for economic growth in this modern world (William, 2008; UNEP, 2013). In the history of the world, it has played a vital role in the economy of nations making up more than 10% of the world's Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and up to 11% of the GDP of Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) countries (OECD, 2014; UNTWO, 2014). This phenomenon has engineered governments the world over to put in a lot of policies for rural tourism development (Asiedu, 2002; Holden et. al, 2011; Hall, 2008,).

Rural tourism has been recognized internationally as an important economic activity and tipped as a major problem solver to some of the economic issues facing some communities that lag behind in terms of development (Tchetchik et al., 2008; Pratt, 2015). It is also viewed as one of the most sustainable means by which rural

communities can lift themselves out of poverty by enhancing their livelihoods and expanding the local economic base of their localities through the benefits that accrue from rural tourism (Doohyun et al (2014) cited in Musasa and Mago, 2014). Globally, international bodies and many national governments including community-based organizations and other policy makers strive to make rural tourism as an alternative solution to rural poverty. According to Musasa and Mago (2014), rural tourism has become a household name in terms of creating livelihoods for the rural folks and reducing poverty (see also Doohyun et al., 2014).

In many rural societies, communities usually rely more on agricultural production as their main economic activity and the only source of livelihood activity (Musasa and Mago, 2014; Sharpley and Ussi, 2012). Other scholars are however of the view that these communities are not capable of sustaining themselves without a diverse economic base or without assistance from other sources (Roberts and Hall, 2001 cited in Musasa and Mago, 2014; Sharpley and Ussi, 2012 cited in Pratt, 2015). Rural tourism has therefore been pioneered as complementing the already agrarian nature of many rural communities that form majority of their local economic base (see also Doohyun et al., 2014; Ezeuduji, 2013a, 2013b; Ezeuduji, 2014).

At the international level, rural tourism has been touted as a very essential contributory factor to expansion and diversification of local economies (Musasa and Mago, 2014) and this sustainable intervention was initiated by the Commission for Sustainable Development (CSD) which advocated for assistance from national governments (Petroman et al., 2010 cited in Musasa and Mago, 2014). Sustainable livelihood frameworks which try to measure people's livelihood assets and their outcome were one of the outcomes of this initiative. One of such frameworks

conceived and popularized by the Department for International Development (DFID), an agency of the British government has been adopted for this study.

Studies into rural development have shown that in Africa and particularly Sub-Saharan Africa, rural tourism has played an important role in reducing poverty among the local population (Ashley, 2006; Goodwin, 2000). The continent abounds in a lot of natural and cultural resources in rural areas and these could be harnessed and developed to contribute positively to improvement in individual livelihoods and local economies (Ezeuduji, 2013).

In Ghana, the tourism sector has witnessed a surge in growth over the last few years. The sector contributes about 6.5% of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and is estimated to contribute more than 7.5% by the year 2020 (GTA, 2010). However, due to the lopsided nature of development strategies designed for tourism development, most of the well-developed tourist's attractions are found within the coastal areas and the middle rainforest belt of the country (Asiedu, 2002). The more peripheral areas especially those on the Northern sector of the country have received little or no attention for development despite the huge potential of rural tourism resources in these areas. Agriculture remains the backbone of their local economies and there are few or no other livelihood opportunities to help diversify the local economies. The tourism resources in these areas can be developed to create opportunities for the rural communities and help improve their livelihoods especially through linking these resources with agricultural products.

One of such rural tourism resources in northern Ghana is the Paga crocodile pond. The pond and the surrounding communities have an immense rural tourism growth potential if there could be a rural tourism development strategy that can unlock

opportunities for the local community to utilize these resources for development. The major attractions in the area the Paga crocodile ponds, the Pikworo slave camp, the Ghana-Burkina frontier, the Paga Chief palace and the traditional art market. Since the local economy of the community is agrarian in nature, developing these rural tourism assets can help diversify the local economy and enhance personal livelihoods through poverty reduction. However, the key question still remains whether rural tourism in Paga can lead to the enhancement of livelihoods. This study seeks to find answers to this question thereby help add knowledge on the development of rural tourism and its effects on the enhancement of rural livelihoods at Paga.

1.1 Problem Statement

With a growing interest in leisure travel and a general awareness of sustainable economic development, rural tourism is fast becoming one of the niche economic sectors in the world (UNTWO, 2001; Garau, 2015). Rural tourism's phenomenal growth has indicated that it can play an essential role in the global tourism industry. This reflects in the fact that rural tourism has great potential for providing employment, reducing leakages of economic benefits out of countries, and the creation of multiplier effects which in all foster sustainable economic development (Pratt, 2015).

In Ghana, tourism is a vibrant economic sector which places fourth behind gold, cocoa and foreign remittances even though the discovery of oil might eventually change this. Tourism has also earned the country's revenue that is equivalent to 6.2% of Gross Domestic Product (GDP) (Ministry of Tourism, Ghana, 2010). Conventional or mass tourism which involves large numbers of tourists to a tourist destination has, however, received mixed feelings among governments, environmental rights groups, local communities and tourists as well for its high leakages, its insufficient multiplier

effects and the general failure to trigger positive spread effects that would help reduce poverty especially in rural areas. Rural tourism has an advantage in working in tandem with the other economic sectors in reducing poverty hence improving the general livelihoods of the rural poor in Ghana (Asiedu and Gbedema, 2011; Kuuder, 2012).

There has been a surge in the development of rural tourism due to the perceived positive effects including poverty reduction especially in peripheral areas where this unique economic opportunity is found (Mitchell and Ashley, 2007; Ahmadi, 2010; Holden, 2013). It has also received tremendous endorsement these days in Ghana as it has yielded positive results as some proponents advocate (Asiedu, 2002; Chok, 2008; Yeboah, 2013; Truong, 2014). It is envisaged that if well planned and developed in conjunction with the agricultural sector, rural tourism would be the major force to reckon with in terms of economic diversification and livelihood enhancement in these communities (Rogerson and Rogerson, 2010 cited Rogerson, 2012,; Musasa and Mago, 2014).

The rural tourism industry is however, bedevilled with a number of challenges that limits its ability to attain its primary goal of fighting poverty in the country. These include poor marketing of rural areas as destinations, lack of Ghana Tourism Brand; low awareness of the potential of tourism as a viable economic sector; poor infrastructure especially poor condition of access roads to tourist sites, paucity budgetary allocation, lack of facilities at destination areas, poor human resource base, lack of domestic awareness and patronage and lack of coordination among authorities (Asiedu, 1997; Aboagye et al, 2013; Gyasi, 2013; Eshun et al, 2014).

Paga in the Kassena-Nankana West District abounds in many rural tourism products including the famous Paga crocodile sanctuary, the Paga slave market, and the Ghana-Burkina frontier which attract tourists' day in day out. These products could be harnessed to develop Paga as a vibrant tourism destination thereby helping to enhance the livelihood outcomes of residents and move them out of their current poverty situation if the products are properly developed and managed. The community is well positioned as a rural tourism destination and in a strategic location as a border town as compared to other tourism destinations in the Upper East Region and Ghana as a whole. It is located close to Burkina Faso and the Republic of Togo and therefore can help attract tourists from these areas. Moreover, it is closer to two major urban centres in the region; Navrongo and Bolgatanga. Therefore it is positioned to benefit from services and market offered by them for the development of tourism. Services like access to good roads, other transport networks, communication network and accommodation facilities are closely available from these major settlements. Despite these advantages for tourism development the community continues to be poor. This research therefore attempts to find out the extent to which rural tourism could be developed using these assets to enhance the living standards of the people within the Paga community.

1.2 Objectives of the Study

The broad objective of this research is to examine livelihoods opportunities and challenges associated with tourism at Paga and critically review its existing and potential role in poverty reduction in the area. Specifically, the study seeks to:

1. Find out livelihood opportunities of the local people that are connected to tourism development in the area.

2. Examine the extent to which tourism is contributing toward enhancing the local economy and the livelihoods of residents of the community.
3. Discuss the challenges faced by residents and stakeholders operating within this nascent industry.
4. Recommend measures towards enhancing the successful development of tourism in the community.

1.3 Proposition of the Study

This study is guided by the proposition that rural tourism development has the potential to enhance rural livelihoods and reduce poverty.

1.4 Conceptual framework

This theoretical review describes some essential concepts that were taken into consideration in the formulation of the study. To arrive at a good and concise conceptual framework, it was important to point out the basic concepts that play major roles in enhancing sustainable rural livelihoods and how these concepts have been dealt with in the study. The Sustainable Livelihood Framework proposed by the Department for International Development (DFID) of the United Kingdom's government was adapted in this study. The development of a conceptual framework according to Veal (2011) forms an important part of a research proposal though it is one of the most difficult parts to deal with in research. In developing a conceptual framework, the study took into consideration the concepts that were employed in the study and how those concepts interrelated. Veal (2011) therefore proposed four steps to arrive at developing a conceptual framework. These included identification, definition, exploration of relationships between and operationalization of concepts to which he argued that the process should not be viewed as a linear one but one that is iterative.

The conceptual framework (see figure 1.1) shows how natural and cultural resources could be used to develop rural tourism. It implies that these resources can be used to form the tourism resource base of the area under study which in turn has the capacity to attract tourists to visit the area. These resources can also equip local people within the area with strategies and activities to pursue their daily livelihood outcomes. Rural tourism and livelihood strategies and activities are expected to influence on each other and these together can provide local people with livelihood assets in order to attain positive livelihood outcomes.

Once local people harness the resources and realize these positive outcomes, then improved local participation and its associated benefits could ginger or increase a vibrant rural tourism industry. It is worth noting however that the combined forces of the external environment like the vulnerability context as well as policies, institutions and processes operating within the area do influence and exert impacts on the natural and cultural resource base, tourism industry, local people's livelihood assets, activities and strategies as well as livelihood outcomes.

The sustainable livelihood approach (SLA) that is based on a participatory and policy tools to highlight the interlinkages between livelihood systems at both the macro and micro levels of policies which affect these livelihoods. The concept of livelihoods is related to the Sustainable Livelihood Framework (SLF). This framework has its root in the work of Chambers and Conway (1992 cited in Ashley and Husein, 2000). It has since been used extensively by development practitioners. According to Chambers and Conway (1992) "*a livelihood comprises the capabilities (stores, resources, claims and access) and activities required for a mean of living*". They also stressed that "a livelihood in its simplest sense is a mean of gaining a living."

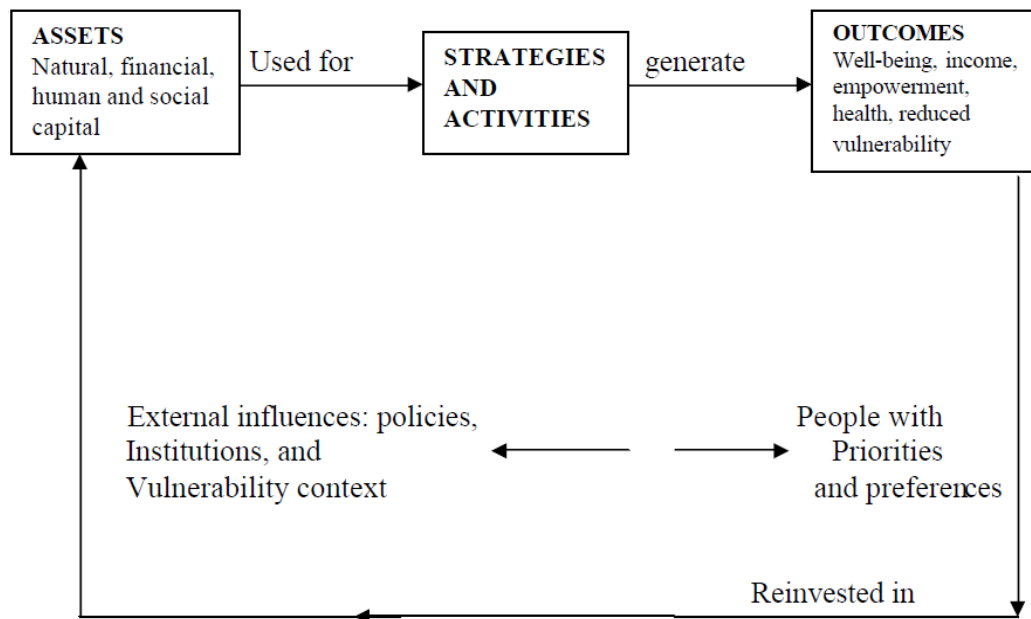
The sustainable livelihood framework was an approach developed to influence our way of thinking about development issues particularly in emerging economies or the developing world (Ashley, 2000 cited in Njole, 2011). This model was also developed to inform our understanding of the livelihood of the poor in society especially in rural areas.

According to Chambers and Conway (1992) and Moser (1998), the realities and the changing perspectives on poverty, participation and sustainable development gave rise to the sustainable development frameworks. Other writers like Arce (2003 cited in Mathembu, 2008) opined that the diminishing rate of political significance of national states and their relation to regional economic markets on the economic global interdependence of the national governments was actually responsible for the development of the SLA. The whole idea of sustainable livelihood first appeared in a document by the Advisory Panel of the World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED) in the year 1987. It was initially tailored “as an approach to maintain or enhance resource productivity, secure ownership and access to assets, resources and income-earning activities as well as to ensure adequate stocks and flows of food and cash to meet basic needs” (Singh and Gilman, 1999). The WCED used the term “sustainable livelihood” whilst discussing the issues of basic needs, ownership, and rural livelihood security (WCED, 1987). . In another development, the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED) spearheaded the approach into action at the Rio Earth Summit in Brazil in following the context of the Agenda 21 which stood for the advance in poverty reduction strategies. Notable writers like Brocklesby and Fisher (2003) opined that this approach is a means of linking and interlinking the socio economic and environmental concerns. To this view, Cahn (2002 cited in Mathembu, 2008)) averred that this approach should be

viewed as a “way of thinking” which can be used as tool for planning interventions, reviewing evaluating projects, research, policy analysis and development. The SLA has increasingly in recent years been adopted, developed and implemented by an increasing number of Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs), academic institutions, aid donors, and international intergovernmental Organizations like that of the United nations Development Programme (UNDP) as an approach to reducing poverty (Singh and Gilman, 1999; Brocklesby and Fisher, 2003 cited in Njole, 2011) and employed in a lot of development related projects across the globe (see for instance Carney, 2002; Ashley, 2000 and DFID, 1997). With the introduction of the concept of SLA, it has gained popularity and significance in areas such as rural development, poverty reduction, tourism development and sometimes in environmental resource management (Scoones, 1998).

According to D’Haese and Kirsten (2003), diversification of income sources is one key factor that communities can be able to sustain themselves because it has the power to influence the well-being of households. In times of shocks or down-turns people would always be able to adapt economically so they engage in variety of economic activities for this reason.

Figure 1.1: Conceptual Framework



Source: Ashley (2000)

1.5 Significance of the Study

Tourism development plays an important role in improving the livelihood conditions of communities, and nations that develop their tourism assets and resources and attract local people to participate in it. However, its contribution to enhancing local livelihoods is yet to be appreciated in Paga and a number of rural tourism destinations in Ghana.

Therefore, the expectation behind this study is that it will add scientific knowledge to tourism studies in Ghana by investigating and projecting the knowledge on rural tourism development at Paga. This is a sure way of enhancing and broadening rural livelihoods development opinions in the country. The result of this study can also assist the Paga Ecotourism Project authorities and other key stakeholders in the area to assess their policies and strategies in order to be able to withstand additional

demand for tourism opportunities in the area. All of which may have some implications for rural livelihood enhancement through poverty reduction.

In addition, the study is in line with Ghana's commitment to the realization of aspects of the MDGs as it is likely to assist in fighting poverty, hunger, disease, illiteracy and discrimination against women, among others. This is in line with the overall objective of the Ghana tourism policy which is to help local economies and livelihood standards of the society, especially towards poverty reduction.

1.6 Arrangement of the Study

This thesis is organized into six chapters. Chapter 1 gave a brief introduction of the study, the problem of the study under investigation, the objectives of the study, the proposition of the research. It also spelled out the significance of the research and some possible limitations that the research may encounter. Chapter 2 provides insights into literature that exist on the study topic. Various literary sources were sourced to explain some of the concepts including tourism and rural tourism, the rural terrain as a resource for rural tourism, tourism development in Ghana, rural tourism and the agriculture sector, rural tourism and poverty reduction strategies, community participation in tourism development and the sustainable livelihood framework, poverty, and local participation

Chapter 3 gives a vivid description of the study area by profiling its demographic characteristics and the status of the local economy. The rationale behind the methods, instruments and sampling techniques explained.

Chapter 4 presents the interpretation and discussion of the results. Chapter 5 presents the discussion of under different themes according to the objectives of the study. These include results about the contribution of tourism to the enhancement of

livelihoods and the local economy, opportunities connected to the tourism sector and some major challenges facing the industry and finally, chapter 6 gives a summary of some of the key findings of the research, conclusions drawn, and some recommendations for action and suggestions for future research.

1.7 Chapter Summary

This chapter gave an overview of the research by giving an introduction to the study where basic concepts were discussed prior to the study. The problem statement of the study was also looked at as well as the objectives spelt out, the proposition, and the conceptual framework. An insight into the operationalization of the conceptual framework is spelt out and brief descriptions of some of the essential concepts of the framework are also given.

The significance of the study and the arrangement or structure of the thesis formed the concluding part of this chapter.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.0 Introduction

This chapter looks at various literary sources and also presents the review of related literature concerning rural tourism and how it influences livelihood enhancement and the conceptual framework of the study. It begins by introducing the main concept of the study. The following issues concerning the study are looked at and they include: perspective on the historical development of rural tourism, rural tourism development and poverty reduction strategies, rural tourism development in Ghana, rural tourism and agriculture by stating the linkage and importance between the two, community participation in tourism related activities, barriers to community participation in rural tourism, the sustainable livelihood framework and its essential features and the contribution of the study to the literature and finally highlight the contribution of this research on the literature of rural tourism.

2.1 The Concept of Tourism

Tourism as a concept has been used by different organizations and individuals to suit their purposes. For instance, the United Nations World Tourism organizations (UNWTO, 2011) defines tourism as the activities of people travelling to and staying in places outside the normal environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and purposes (Delishe and Venne, 2005 cited in Mathembu, 2008). Tourism is also seen as a temporary short term movement of people to the destinations outside the places where they normally live and work. Activities during their stay include movements for all purposes as well as day visits and excursions (Richards, 2005 cited in Mathembu, 2008). Tourism is also seen by others like page

(2003) as the activity of persons travelling and staying in places outside their usual places of residence for not more than one consecutive year for leisure or otherwise so far as remuneration is not a priority of that travel or visit. To Ashley (2002), tourism may refer to two things, that is, the activity to travel and the industry based travel. Others adopt an economic and financial approach (Luvanga and shitundu, 2003 cited in Mathembu, 2008) because to them tourism is an economic activity which belong to the invisible trade area balanced of payment accounts. This is deemed fit to be an export of services to foreign countries for which visitors originate.

A look at the term rural tourism points to the fact that this phenomenon takes place in rural areas. The word itself is a highly contested one and disagreements among writers are not uncommon (Doohyun et al., 2014). This concept has a long history and most people view the concept erroneously as referring only to non-urban areas. According to Ellison (2002 cited in Mathembu, 2008) the notion 'rural' means an area that is basically outside the boundaries of a primary metropolitan statistical area with a population of 10,000 or more. It is worth emphasizing however that the term rural is country specific and different countries use different figures and indices in defining a rural area. According to the United Nations, the population of a rural area should be 1,000 or less and in Ghana, Ohene-Konadu (1996 cited in Asiedu, 2002)) likened a rural area to one that does not portray the characteristics of urban lifestyle and predominated by agricultural production and animal and other related income generating activities and settlements made up of mainly villages, hamlets and homesteads. The above definition of a rural area according to Asiedu (2002) is usually used in the "context of geographical space to represent a non-urban, non-industrial but largely agricultural setting". Concerning the specific figure about the population of a rural area in Ghana, the Government of Ghana (GOG) (1984) cited in Asiedu (2002)

pegged the figure at 5,000 inhabitants and below. Attention should however be drawn to the fact that some rural areas can blend with urban areas making the line in-between them blurred because some rural areas possess similar features as that of urban areas.

Some scholars including Viljoen and Tlabela (2006 cited in Mathembu, 2008) have come out with five-fold features of rural areas. These are:

- Rural areas are those areas where there are human settlements which occupy only small patches of landscape. The landscape is mostly dominated by fields and pastures, woods and forest, water, mountain and desert.
- Most rural dwellers spend the most of their time tilling the land.
- Land-rent is relatively cheaper in rural areas.
- Cost of doing business and interaction is high because of long distances and poor infrastructure.
- The geographical destinations of rural areas increase the cost of political transactions and increase the possibility of elite capture of urban bias.

In the context of this research, the term rural is used to denote the more peripheral areas of the country-side characterized by low population densities and mainly agriculture or primary production.

Rural tourism has a long history, though it has been around since time memorial, scholars like Arahi and Kaikan (1998 cited in Mathembu, 2008)) still maintain that it might have originated in mountainous region of Germany and in some coastal areas of France. According to Sharpley and Sharpley (1997) rural tourism emerged as an

important activity in Europe in the latter half of the eighteenth century, although rural tourism can be traced back through history. Wild mountainous regions such as the Canadian Rockies, the Swiss Alps and the English Lake District also attracted aristocrats initially, the middle-class income tourists (Page et al, 2006 cited in Mathembu, 2008).

With the advent of the industrial revolution, the phenomenon of global travel has undergone significant changes. New forms of technology as well as new modes of transport including trains, passenger ship, cruise ships, motor vehicles and airplanes have all made travel less difficult. Thomas Cook directed the first package tour to rural Switzerland in 1863, which marked the beginning of a rapid growth in tourism and rural tourism in particular. Combined with this, technology and state promotion of tourism, such as Pan African Festival (PANAFEST) in Ghana led to tourism and rural tourism development. The development of modern means of transport was also accompanied by improved development of roads, railways and other fixed transport facilities. It has therefore, enabled tourists to travel longer distances and reach faraway destinations.

The growth in rural tourism at this era was however, not analyzed and interpreted in terms of livelihood impacts and implication for poverty reduction (Ashley, 2007; Goodwin, 2006; Eruera, 2008 cited in Mathembu, 2008). This research has the intention to establish the existing relationship between the countryside and the tourism industry. New labour laws that were developed further increased leisure time. For instance, in Europe and Germany in particular, rural tourism can be traced back to developments in labour laws between 1873 and 1914 (Mathembu, 2008). It was a dictum that whoever worked should have a paid holiday which increased

opportunities to travel. This period saw people beginning to embark on holidays by taking holidays on farms and stayed in expensive accommodation.

Immediately after the Second World War there was a dramatic growth of rural tourism as a commercial enterprise (Cole, 2009 cited in Mathembu, 2008). Transportation facilities also improved to such an extent that remoteness, in time and cost could no more pose as a hurdle for rural areas. In effect, rural tourism development projects could be undertaken at remote rural communities. Certain factors that also contributed to rural tourism development include lower transportation cost, increased disposable income, smaller family sizes, changing demographics, improved standards of living, peace, serenity and tranquility of the countryside, interest in healthy lifestyles (Spa), growing interest in heritage infrastructural development, more hospitable environments for tourists and increase in leisure (Cole, 2009).

Tourists' attitudinal change also played a major role to the quality-based rural tourism. For instance in 1970 and the years after, there has been a switch from mass tourism towards alternative tourism prospects (Redman, 2009, Gursory and Chi, 2010; Vainikka, 2013). This sudden interest in alternative among others is being the concern about the natural landscape, the inherent failure of conventional mass tourism to benefit local communities in a positive manner and tourists' interests in the learning experience than merely undertaking overseas travel for the sole purpose of taking photographs of flora and site seeing (Mathembu, 2008).

By the middle of the 1970s, a lot of studies critiqued many of the positive benefits of tourism as envisioned by its proponents. It was during this era that rural-based community studies began reviewing some of the environmental and socio-cultural

effects resulting from poorly planned tourism development (UNEP, 2013). This phenomenon led to this period labeled as the 'cautionary platform' (Gartner, 2005 cited in Mathembu, 2008). One of the consequences of the 'cautionary platform' was the criticism that was leveled against tourism was neglected protection of the environment. This led to terms such as eco-tourism, cultural tourism and green tourism beginning to appear in literature.

New models of tourism development by academics started to emerge (Gartner, 2005 cited in Mathembu, 2008) with most of them calling for less instructive forms of development and adopt a more sensitive one that cater for the need of rural dwellers and a greater reliance on local capital for development. All these developments were referred to as 'adaptancy platform.' The idea that tourism must cater for local needs began to take centre stage. Majority of these types of tourism developments were concentrated in rural areas as urban areas were already physically transformed (Gartner, 2005).

Countryside tourism first began to grow in the nineteenth century as a reaction to the stress of increasing industrialization and urbanization. Modern rural tourism has undergone significant changes. Tourists' receipts have increased tremendously and rural tourism has developed in different countryside environments instead of being limited to areas of exceptional scenic beauty. Rural tourism has widely been promoted as a means of addressing the socio-economic challenges face by the rural poor, especially those that are associated with the decline of traditional agrarian societies (Genzong et al, 2007; Rogerson and Rogerson, 2010 cited in Rogerson, 2012; Asiedu and Gbedema, 2011).

2.2 The Rural Terrain as a Resource for Tourism

The landscape of the rural areas are diverse in natural resources which are essential pull factors that derives the benefits of containing a diversity of bird species, plant and animal species just to mention but few (Moric, 2013). One can easily think of such beautiful attractions as in natural and cultural landscapes with its accompanying rivers, lakes, estuaries, mountains and valleys with district biome which supports a diverse collection of flora and fauna. Since all these resources are found in the rural communities, they give the rural communities a competitive edge over their rivals in the urban setting. This it does by attracting and exploiting the growing tourism industry for the benefit of the rural poor (John et al, 2008, Moric, 2013). Rural communities must in the same vein foster the conservation and preservation of the natural and cultural beauty to make the tourism business a sustainable one.

Ghana is in a good position to be a major player in tourism enterprise because its rural landscape has a lot of contributive factors to the tourism resource base of the country. Ghana's magnificent tourism attractions lie in its wide diversity of tourism products. Ghana has a tropical excellent climate, natural beauty, colonial castles and fortes darterd along the coast, ancient museums, historical sites, national parks as well as rare animal and bird species (Asiedu, 2002; Aboagye et al, 2013; Eshun et al, 2014). These resources contribute to the growing rural tourism niche market in the country.

Primary activities at the countryside have become so attractive to visitors such that they yearn to have a feel of it. Most tourists, especially those from cities and metropolitan countries prefer the kind of tourism that affords them the opportunity to enjoy the rural landscape and explore the local agricultural activities. They might also be interested in how agriculture is practiced and what is produced and processed. Available literature on rural tourism indicates that the countryside has long been

romanticized and commoditized to some extent in order to satisfy the customers' own perceptions. According to Frochot (2005 cited in Mathembu, 2008), visitors sometimes seem to view the rural landscape with awe and nostalgia as a place that has escaped the urbanization of society and where people can revert to old ways of life and authenticity.

Pollution, congestion, crime and prostitution, overcrowding, noise and general confusion are usually associated with most urban destinations. These negative images are always in sharp contrast with the countryside which is associated with quietness, rich cultural heritage and natural resources, personal contact, authenticity and individual resonance coupled with community togetherness and cohesion (Yasim et al, 2003; Gartner, 2004, Gartner, 2005 cited in Mathembu, 2008).

Planners must strive to and take advantage of these assets of the rural areas and use them as a way of enhancing rural livelihood assets to achieve the single most essential livelihood outcome which is poverty reduction (Ashley and Roe, 2002; Tao et al, 2009; Ahmadi, 2010; Truong et al, 2014).

The natural environment and tourism are intrinsically linked and interdependent. Tourism depends on the environment to succeed and the environment on its part depends on the AF income generated from tourism to maintain it (Parker, 2004 cited in Mathembu, 2008).

Rural folks on the other hand can create livelihood opportunities for themselves and increase sales of products, thus enhancing their livelihood by reducing poverty (Seong-Woo and Sou-Yeon, 2005). Rural communities in Ghana can use tourism development as a means of enhancing their livelihoods and thereby reducing poverty. Acheampong and Asiedu (2007) stated emphatically that tourism is one of the best

opportunities available for Ghana because it creates employment and livelihood for the rural poor.

Dominant in rural areas are traditional cultures which in one way or the other attract visitors from all walks of life. Historic landmarks and traditional agricultural tools and methods are part of cultural heritage package which appeal to visitors, who would sometimes like to listen to stories and tales as well as try to understand the history of a village. Visitors also demand to participate in some cultural activities of a community during some of these visits (Arahi and Kaikan, 1998 cited in Mathembu, 2008). As visitors participate in these cultural activities, they make tourism to become more community-based and give locals some supplementary income to offset the possibility of a desire to abandon farming and migrate to cities. Concerted efforts are needed to improve the geographical spread of tourism development to rural areas to ensure benefits accrued from the industry trickle down to the poor and those struggling to make ends meet at the local communities.

Because rural tourism utilizes indigenous resources that have the ability to increase its importance and uniqueness in the industry, the countryside is a valuable resource for tourist attraction (Ohe, 2008; McClinchey and Carmichael, 2010). Most rural areas attract tourists from the simple fact that their cultural value, historical significance and natural beauty or amusement opportunities. Rural areas have amenities and facilities of educational value and in their heritage and environment which make them more attractive and some of these attractions include monuments, historical places and zoos (Asiedu, 1997; Ohe, 2008). Natural parks, forests, ethnic enclave communities and cultural events still form part of tourist attractions which are rural area. Aside the fact about what these non-human features can do, ethnic communities and their cultures may become tourists attractions. Tourism development in rural areas can bring about

changes in production and create employment and reduce the impact of poverty (Gholanic and Assayesh, 2010,)

Tyran (2007) holds the view that tourists consume landscape, natural atmosphere and a quiet environment. This consumption has some economic spinoffs for the rural area. Yesid et al (2009 cited in Mathembu, 2008) made their assessment on the same line of thinking by saying that tourism has become a quality indicator, an essential source of income, a regional growth propeller. Rural areas can boast of a wide range of resources, which are part of the stock. This makes it able to provide a variety of activities such as skiing, fishing, golf, riding, snowboarding, water sports and nature study. Some rural communities have these resources throughout the year and it makes them to increase their livelihood success. These year-round resources can help reduce seasonal employment which in turn creates seasonal maximization of the effects of poverty in rural areas.

Tourists attractions in rural areas are home based and therefore do not need large financial capital to set up. They do not necessarily need large sums of money to buy new products. One attractive side of the rural landscape is the living condition at those places. It distinguishes itself from an urban setting that is usually surrounded concrete and high rise-buildings. This pleases the urbanites as they make their way through this amazing landscape. The rural area presents beautiful scenery and woodland in which their urban dweller enjoys and this changes from one season to the other (Arachi and Kaikan, 1998 cited in Mathembu, 2008; Asiedu, 1997),

It was also argued by some researchers that the rural tourism industry must be located in rural areas (Mishra and Dash, 2003 cited in Mathembu, 2008) because this makes sense since the rural area has a location advantage derived from the busy nature of the

Central Business District (CBD) of large metropolitan areas. This makes it appropriate for people who need a relaxing atmosphere. There are a lot of options which relate to strengths and resources of rural areas. These resources are sometimes termed as natural and recreation attractions and they include amusement parks, forests, lakes, beaches and other outdoor areas. The weather conditions in most rural areas also play a role in attracting visitors since it has warm and sunny climates in these areas. In this regard, Yesid et al (2009), postulate a link between the rural landscape and three elements: space, people and product. They argue that tourism is an activity at rural areas which can be carried out in the rural spaces which in turn can lead to economic recovery, employment generation and creation of new markets.

2.3 Rural Tourism Development in Ghana

Now the country's tourist products fit within five broad categories as a result of a gradual shift in tourists interests from high-density activity to more personalized activities such as exploration of historical, cultural and ecological heritage, in which Ghana is richly endowed (GTB, 2000 cited in Gyasi, 2013). The five broad categories are; Cultural and Heritage tourism, Ecotourism/rural tourism, Beach tourism, Conference or Business tourism and Urban tourism. These resources could be developed and managed to add value to the livelihoods of the poor in peripheral areas like Paga. Tourism is currently the fourth highest contributor to the nation's foreign earnings and contributes some 6% to GDP while employing more than 250, 000 people locally, both directly and indirectly (Ghana Statistical Service, 2006). Ghana's main market arrivals include; the Americas, Europe, Ghanaians in the diaspora, the economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) members.

Rural tourism in the country has been growing of late because of the country's vast natural and cultural tourism resources that are manifest in the rural communities

(Asiedu, 2002). On the perspective of the role of these nature-based resources to the development of rural tourism in the country, Asiedu (2002) posited that these natural and cultural resources of the country-side tend to attract and patronized by the well-to-do in society because of the uniqueness and authenticity of the rural setting. If well-coordinated with the relevant authorities, rural tourism can play a significant role in enhancing local livelihoods and improve local economies. Evidence abound in the literature about positive impacts of rural tourism on local livelihoods, local economic growth, and poverty reduction (see WTO/UNCTAD, 2001; Asiedu, 2002; Holland et al., 2003; Mitchell and Ashley, 2007; Tao and Wall, 2007; Ahmadi, 2010)

The shift towards rural tourism is necessitated by the fact that many people now tend to shun mass and conventional tourism because of its accompanying negative impacts both socio-culturally, economically, and environmentally (Asiedu, 2002) because the general assumption is that nature-based or rural tourism is less damaging to local economies, the environment and the cultural or traditional set-up of rural communities.

Tourism can provide an important diversification for other sectors of the local economy especially the agriculture sector and create new ones, offering additional livelihood opportunities for the rural poor (Muhana, 2007; Asiedu and Gbedema, 2011). From the tourism and a poverty perspective it is generally more productive to focus on the linkages with other economic sectors. If the linkages to the local economy can be increased, the extent of leakages will be reduced and benefits filter down to the marginal groups in society. For instance, according to the World Tourism organization (WTO, 2002), one of the best ways to enhance economic benefits to the local community and to increase the contribution to poverty reduction is to increase the extent of linkages between the formal tourism sector and the local economy. The

fact that the costumers come directly to the destination makes tourism have a higher potential for linkages with the rest of the economy in the country.

Majority of the tourism related activities in rural areas are practiced by farmers on their working agricultural operations for the entertainment and education of visitors. The tourism agricultural nexus is an essential component that presents a struggle against rural poverty because they have the potential to generate increased farm revenues and might increase farm profitability (Jolly, 2005; Eshun et. al, 2014). The possibility of on-farm tourism to generate potential income can help farmers and rural dwellers to survive the challenges associated with agricultural mechanization. This income can help reduce poverty and also help check depopulation due to out-migration (Rogerson and Rogerson, 2010 cited in Rogerson, 2012).

For those who make up the majority of the rural poor, they include agricultural wage earners, small holder and marginal farmers and those workers engaged in non-agricultural related activities. Small land holdings fragmented land development coupled with their low productivity are usually the root cause of rural poverty among rural households who depend on these land-based activities for their main livelihoods (Arahi and Kaikan, 1998 cited in Mathembu, 2008). This poor physical and social capital base forces majority of rural dwellers to migrate to urban centres, where they seek employment that are non-existent and for those who do get some kind of employment they are offered extremely low wages probably because their educational background or lack of technological know-how and the net effect is that they are unable to sustain families back home (Mathembu, 2008). How to create employment for the unskilled rural poor is still a headache to development planners. If the well-being of rural communities is to be mainland, then we need a robust model building technique of how to blend rural sector sustainability because they share the same

infrastructure, services and natural and human capital (Robinson and Mazzoni, 2004 cited in Rogerson, 2012).

Agriculture and rural tourism share the same challenges since they have become bedmates by default (Rogerson and Rogerson, 2010 cited in Rogerson, 2012) and they however have a potential for mutual benefit if well managed. Taking it from the angle of agriculture, the taking here is that it is under heavy pressure. Land use changes have led to the closer of many farm lands. The agricultural sector relies much on large tracts of forested and mountain ranges for grazing and mowing. In effect, the rural area is left with large tracts of unused land and hence poverty. Studies that are done recently show that the link between agriculture and tourism is generally positive (Rogerson, 2012). This positive attribute must be translated into tourism related industries in rural areas for positive benefits to the local people. Rural population, according to recent studies, is concerned about depopulation of their areas and the subsequent abandonment and over growth of agricultural land. The concern of the tourist industry reveals a shared destiny between agriculture and tourism.

Due to the pattern of settlement in the countryside if presents that serve the agricultural sector, it provides infrastructure and services that tourism relies on (Rogerson, 2012). This mixture of agriculture and tourism has a potential of absorbing the rural workers who have been frustrated by the abandonment of agricultural land before they decided to migrate to urban centres.

It is a known fact that tourism takes place within a well-balanced environment with people, natural resources and activities. If agricultural activities becomes extinct and people leave the rural areas, the tourist industry would be hit hard and suffer some consequences. Genzong et al (2007 cited in Rogerson, 2012) talk of a 'cultural

motivation' for travel in which participation in tourism is motivated by the edge to mix with locals and learn new cultures. People also have the desire to participate in 'real lived lives,' and to hear stories of the rural areas they visit and to taste local traditional food made by local people (World Bank, 2008). The creation of new opportunities can change the fortune of the rural poor and help them involve themselves in tourism instead of migrating to cities. Tourism, in addition to the cultural landscape and the hundreds of hamlets, Lakes, lagoons and rivers can combine with the traditional hospitality and offer pleasant experiences to the kind of tourists that seeks an amazing serenity and a relaxing atmosphere (Kulcsar, 2009 cited in Rogerson, 2012).

According to Rogerson (2012), the destiny shared by agriculture and tourism leads to what is known as the multifunction of agriculture. This includes the likes of cultural landscapes, biodiversity, cultural heritage living with rural communities and recreational possibilities, coupled with bulk food production. The farmer thus becomes the provider of leisure goods and has to relate to customers as visiting tourists at the farm or service as a tourist guide through the village so that tourist can have a feel of real live in those villages. Farmers in this way are not only situated in the landscape as producers of food alone but also has a relation with outside gaze. On the other side, the tourist wants to move away from the traditional outsiders' perspective of someone just passing through countryside and experiencing it by eyes only.

In Ghana, (agritourism, used to denote the linkage between tourism and agriculture), has an immense potential to boost the economy since the country's economy is predominantly agrarian in nature. This potential to diversify the local economies of most rural areas has recently received a significant attention evident in the rise in

research concerning this topical issue (Asiedu and Gbedema, 2012; Eshun and Tettey, 2014; Eshun et al., 2014a, cited in Eshun et al., 2014b). Integrating the agriculture sector with rural tourism can have positive impacts on the livelihoods of the rural poor. The linkage of these sectors has the ability to create local employment, raise household incomes, check rural-urban migration, enhance rural livelihoods, and also strengthen the local economic base of most peripheral areas in the country (Asiedu and Gbedema, 2012 cited in Rogerson, 2012). This has been observed because much of the rural communities are ‘inextricably’ linked to the agriculture sector ((Rogerson, 2012). To this end most African countries have since made agritourism one of their most economic growth models in trying to unlock opportunities for the rural poor (Goodwin, 2006; Rogerson and Rogerson, 2010 cited in Rogerson, 2012). Looking at this phenomenon on the angle of pro-poor tourism which according to Ashley (2000) is tourism that makes available net benefits to the poor, Asiedu and Gbedema (2012) aver that “agriculture is able to integrate with tourism to generate increased growth and development in rural settings and poorer marginalized sectors of the society through pro-poor policy interventions”.

2.4 Rural Tourism and its Influence on Poverty Reduction Strategies

Since the 1960s tourism has increasingly played an important role in the national economies of Less Developed Countries (LDC) (WTO/UNCTAD, 2001; Saville, 2001). A lot of scholars argue that tourism has made huge contributions to the economies in developing countries in terms of foreign exchange earnings; employment opportunities, tax revenue, and reducing poverty (for instance see Hall, 2007; Mitchell and Ashley, 2007; Holden et al, 2011). Many developing countries support tourism as a development tool because it provides employment, improves balance of payments, boosts foreign exchange earnings and is assumed to support

regional development (Teye, 2000; Dieke, 2000; Holden et al, 2011; Theuns, 2000; Moran-Cahusac and Fennell, 2007).

Tourism activities in developing countries nowadays are seen as a way to improve a local community's economy by producing new opportunities (Mendoza, 2006 cited in Njole, 2011). Lindberg and McKercher (1997) cited in Njole (2011) suggest that nature-based tourism can provide jobs and economic independence to host communities, increase livelihood opportunities and enriching local economies. Tourism generates employment opportunities for poor people and provides options for local and marginalized communities (Neto, 2003). Socially, tourism is also seen as assisting in the development and improvement of social services such as health centers, schools, community roads and the provision of clean and safe water. Tourism revenue can be channeled for the enhancement of rural economies and generates benefits through improved infrastructure such as roads, telecommunications, and sanitation systems that improve the conditions of the local population. The development of tourism activities in any region can offer considerable benefits to local communities (Asiedu, 2002; Asiedu and Gbedema, 2011; Chok et al., 2008; Truong et.al, 2014 whilst others (Steiner, 2006; Ashley, 2006, Goodwin, 2000; Musasa and Mago, 2014) stress that it is vital to find ways in which tourism can work for development because it is the world's largest industry and it is continuing to grow, particularly in Third World countries. The development of tourism activities in these countries may provide assistance in meeting the goals of a number of local communities (Nowaczek et al., 2007 cited in Njole, 2011). Tourism activities are perceived as the potential tool for poverty reduction especially to local communities in many developing countries. Goodwin, (2000 cited in Njole, 2011) pointed out that tourism presents much potential for the poor especially in remote and marginal areas,

where people have less livelihood choice and development opportunities in developing countries by the year 2015. In 2009, the UNWTO endorsed Millennium Development Goals (MDG), which actively promotes tourism as an instrument of prosperity through sustainable development and poverty reduction.

Pro-poor tourism is another strategy developed trying to link tourism development and poverty alleviation among local communities. Pro-poor tourism is a form of tourism that increases net benefits for the poor (Ashley, 2002, Asiedu and Gbedema, 2011; Zeng et al., 2014)). Pro-poor tourism is not a specific product or niche sector but an approach to tourism development and management that can focus on any tourism segment, but one common principle is to improve the linkage between the tourism business and the poor and to expand benefits to the poor people. Benefits that accrue to the poor people can be economic, cultural, social or environmental among others (Ashley et al, 2001 cited in Musasa and Mago, 2014). Compared with other economic sectors, tourism has some advantages such as being labour intensive. Also in this sector consumption occurs normally at the point of production and tourism can capitalize on natural scenery and cultural elements, which are normally some of the few assets the poor, possess and have access to (UNWTO, 2002). Governments, donor countries and non-governmental organizations in developing countries have integrated some of the principles of pro-poor tourism strategies into many alternative forms of tourism and some tourism projects to fight poverty.

2.5 Community Participation in Rural Tourism Development

The sustainability of rural tourism activities in any destination depends on the way host communities are involved. Community participation in the development of rural tourism resources is the redistribution of power that enables communities presently excluded from the political and economic processes to be deliberately included in the

day-to-day management of tourism resources (Arnstein, 1969). According to Murphy (1985) and Diamantis (2004 cited in Kuuder and Manu, 2012), rural tourism potentials can be realized fully if the goodwill and cooperation of local people form part of its product so it is important for the communities to be involved in managing and exploiting tourism resources in their areas.

A number of authors (Ashley and Roe, 2002; Ashley and Goodwin, 2001; Yeboah, 2013) pointed out that the participation of the local communities in tourism activities can range from the individual to the whole community including a variety of activities from employment and supplying goods and services to community enterprise ownership and joint ventures. Whilst others (Wild, 1994; Tosun, 2006 cited in Kuuder and Manu, 2012 and Muganda, 2009) suggested that nature-based tourism which encourages local employment and small business development promotes higher economic multipliers and a community approach to decision-making helps to ensure traditional lifestyles and community values are respected. To rYeboah and Obiri-Yeboah (2008), local communities view rural tourism as an accessible development alternative which can enable them to improve their living standards without having to sell off their natural resources or compromise their culture.

To achieve and enhance a strong connection between the local communities and the rural tourism resources, it is considered essential to involve local people in the planning and management processes of tourism resources (Mendoza, 2006 cited in Njole, 2011). Studies have shown that there are some challenges that communities face when it comes to participating in the tourism industry. For instance according to Scheyvens, (2002 cited in Njole, 2011) the major limitations for local communities in engaging with the tourism activities are the unequal distribution of benefits and the fact that control often remains with outsiders.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter looked at the focus of the study and the study area where the study was conducted. Here the background information about the area was given and map provided for easy visualization. A description of the area as a case study has also been explained. The methods of data collection are described so also are the sampling and sampling frames and the instruments that were used for the data collection.

3.1 Study Area

The Kassena-Nankana West District is one of the newly created districts in the Upper East region and lies within the Guinea Savannah woodlands. The district falls approximately between latitude 11°10' and 10°30' North of the equator and longitude 0°50' and 1°30' west of the Greenwich meridian. It has a total area of about 1,674 square kilometres and stretches about 55km from North-South and 53km East-West. The district shares boundaries to the North with Burkina Faso, to the East with Bongo and Bolgatanga Districts, to the West with the Builsa District and Sissala District of the Upper West Region and South with West Mamprusi District of the Northern Region. The District experiences the tropical maritime air mass between May and October. This brings rainfall averaging 950 millimetres per annum. Another peculiar feature of the climate is the high rate of evapo-transpiration. The district is covered mainly by the Sahel and Sudan-Savannah types of vegetation, comprising open savannah with fire-swept grassland and deciduous trees. Some of the most densely vegetated parts of the district can be found along river basins and forest reserves. Examples are the Sissili and Asibelika basins, Kologo and Naga forest reserves. Most of these trees in the forest areas shed off their leaves during the dry season. However,

human activities in the form of deforestation and bush burning over the years have affected the virgin vegetation cover. Common trees found are dawadawa (*Parkiaclappertoniana*), baobab (*Adansoniadigitata*), shea (*Butyrospermumparkii*), mangos (*Mangiferaindica*) and neem (*Azadirachtaindica*).

3.2 Case Study Description

Paga and its famous crocodile ponds are located at the Upper East Region of Ghana and is one of the popular tourism destinations in the region. The area is noted for its friendly crocodiles that come out of their ponds to play with humans. Remains of the Pikworo slave camp is another area that tourists frequent. There are relics left behind by the slave raiders and their loot. These include rocks that were used as a source of entertainment, gaps in the rocks used to store water for bathing, cooking, and washing. History has it that this was the transit point for slaves en route to Salaga is noted for its beauty and offers opportunity of diversified tourist activities like sightseeing, walking and bicycle safaris as well as camping. As a cultural centre the ponds and the slave camp also offer an opportunity for research and education. Being a popular tourist destination the area acts as a germ which attracts a lot of people from different parts of the country in search of employment and business opportunity in the industry either directly or indirectly. The availability of water and the strategic location of the town as a border town make it a business hub and this also attract people all over the country to the area. However, the influx of people into the area does not change the economic status of the area as a poor place despite these tourism potentials.

A number of factors contribute significantly to make this area popular for rural-based tourism. A number of infrastructure such as a good first class road, lodges, hotels, campsites and other facilities have developed around the area especially in Paga town

in order to cater for the demand of the booming tourism industry. For instance, personal communication with the assemblyman of the area revealed that there were 17 guesthouses/lodges, 2 hotels and quite a number of fine restaurants and bars at Paga and well established cultural and traditional activities going on in the area.

Its position within a short distance from the main road of the town entrance to the crocodile pond and the slave camp tends to make Paga an accessible tourism destination. Its location on the way to the border with Burkina Faso also makes it a strategic location for foreigners to stop over

Therefore, the decision to undertake this study in Paga as a rural tourism destination was largely based on a combination of the following five major factors.

- ❖ The area is found within the popular, well-established and famous northern tourism circuit which receives a lot of tourists annually therefore it provides opportunities for the locals to participate in the tourism industry.
- ❖ As a natural and cultural centre it provides opportunities for research and education.
- ❖ The history behind its emergence and the available local ethnic and immigrant communities supports cultural tourism.
- ❖ The evidence that there are already some tourism activities going on in the area. For example, a number of on-going community based tourism activities such as the Paga ecotourism project.
- ❖ It also has a number of tourism establishments and facilities such as tourist hotels, lodges, campsites and cultural shops whose staff are necessary to participate in this study.

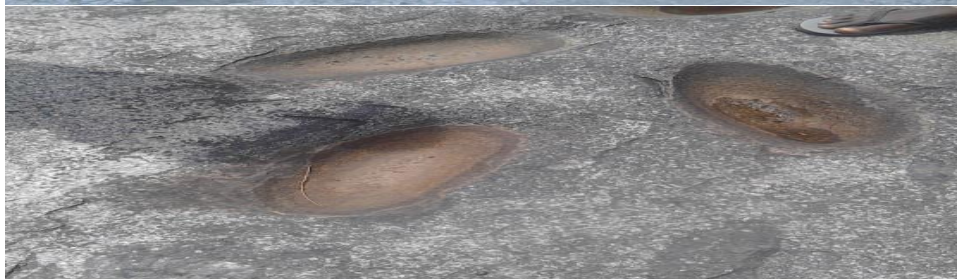
As the research aimed to study local people who live and work in a place where tourism activities is going on, Paga was strategically chosen because it offered a reflective picture of the phenomenon under investigation. As argued by De Vaus (2001 cited in Mathembu, 2008)) strategic selection of cases is a key strategy for improving the validity of the case studies

Figure 1.3: The Achala Village Tourism Centre at Paga



Source: Fieldwork, 2014

Figure 1.4: Relics of the Slave Trade at Pikworo Slave Camp



Source: Fieldwork, 2014

3.3 The Paga Ecotourism Project

The Paga Ecotourism P (PEP) is an amalgamated managed attraction that includes the Chief Crocodile Pond, the Zenga Crocodile Pond, the Nania Slave Camp at Pikworo, and the Chief's Palace. Each attraction is managed by local committee with representatives of each attraction committee coming together to form the overall Paga Ecotourism Committee. Paga has consistently received the highest number of visitors on the project but has also consistently recorded the lowest revenue per visitor figures.

Several decisions regarding implementation of the Community-Based Ecotourism Project (CBEP) at Paga were made early on by the Peace Corps Volunteer. The decisions were that infrastructure development should be spread across all the attractions, and that local architecture and materials would be used, where feasible, to maximize the number of activities that could be implemented. As a result the following infrastructure improvements were made at Paga:

1. Construction of Visitor reception and craft shop room in a walled compound •
Construction of summer hut in compound, and storage room.
2. Construction of 2 seat water closet and showers with tank-fed water supply
3. Construction of bridge leading from the main highway to the visitor centre.
4. Renovation of summer-hut at the Chief Crocodile Pond
5. Construction of summer hut at the Zenga pond and The Slave Camp
6. Construction of storage rooms both at The Chief Crocodile pond and at Zenga
7. Construction of single-seat KVIP & urinal at the Slave Camp

8. Renovation of several rooms and traditional structures for palace tour

Paga benefited from the same marketing activities as other sites. Equipment provision and training opportunities were divided among the separate attractions to ensure fairness. Because Paga had a very active Peace Corps volunteer, Paga was one of the few CBEP sites to benefit from additional signage. Welcome signs were placed at each of the primary attractions, and signs were also installed at the Slave Camp to mark key sections of the tour.

Paga also benefited from several visits by USAID personnel, having its Visitor Centre launched by the US Ambassador, and a visit by a CNN film crew in April 2004.

Paga's primary strength is its strong visitor base and the fact that it has been promoted by the Ghana Tourist Board for many years. In addition, Paga is prominently featured in all of the major guide books that mention Ghana. Paga is well positioned to generate increased revenue from this strong visitor base. In addition, Paga has not yet developed many alternative experiences for visitors, nor has it fully developed alternative revenue generation options such as food & drink sales and souvenir sales. The Slave Camp at Nania will be a strong draw for African American visitors as their patronage to Northern Ghanaian destinations increases.

The primary challenge at Paga has been a lack of leadership. Most of the committee members have been more concerned over their own attraction's success, or their personal wellbeing. Guides at the attractions are unsupervised, and as a result there is a great deal of revenue and visitors to the attractions that go unreported. The Paga

Pio (paramount chief) intervened in October 2003 by dissolving the old committee and establishing a new committee. The new committee now includes members who

are senior citizens of Paga and who are well respected community members. However, the new committee still lacks a direct connection to the day-to-day management of the individual attractions and as a result, revenue collection is still weak. 1st Quarter 2004 visitor and revenues are down compared to the same period in 2003.

The other challenge at Paga is the question of centralized registration. The new committee feels that a centralized registration and payment point will minimize the opportunities for guides to hide revenue. This is a laudable idea, but its implementation will be challenging. Most visitors who bring groups to Paga are used to going straight to the attractions, rather than stopping at the visitor centre. It will take a concerted effort on the part of all involved, and a great deal of time and patience to make the shift to a centralized registration process. The old committee had been charged with re-roofing the craft shop which collapsed before the US Ambassador's visit in August 2003. The new committee has taken on this challenge and has not only roofed the craft shop, but has also re-roofed the main visitor centre as well.

Finally, sanitation remains a key concern at Paga. Not only is Paga a large town that generates a significant amount of waste, staff of the attractions do not take pride in their work, and are often content to leave rubbish lying about the attraction, even when they are on duty.

Future Plans for Paga: There were three interpretive maps designed for Paga during Phase 1 that will be produced with Phase 2 funds. These maps, in the form of tri-fold brochures, include a town map, a map of the Chief's Palace, and a map of the slave camp. Centralized registration and improved souvenir, food, & drink sales will

provide a big boost to Paga's revenue base, and to its revenue per visitor day figures. If the community, private entrepreneurs, or the District Assembly can secure and renovate some of the old chalets from the Divestiture Committee, then Paga could also begin to benefit from accommodation revenue (Source: CBEP, Final Report, 2012).

3.4 Demographic Characteristics

The population of the Kassena-Nankana West District is estimated to be 70,667 with a density of 92 persons per square kilometre. The 2000 Population and Housing Census revealed an age composition of 43.40 per cent for 0–14 years, 47.69 for 15–59 years and 8.91 for 60 and above populations. The population density of 92 people per square kilometre shows how dispersed the population is. The most urban settlement, Paga has a population of about 5,000 which is about 29 per cent of the total population.

3.5 Structure of the Local Economy

Agriculture is the mainstay of the District economy; employing over 60 per cent of the economically active population. Agricultural activities are mainly rain-fed. However, irrigation facilities at Tono Irrigation project areas, smaller dams/dugouts and some other water bodies serve as sources of water for dry season farming.

Although, crop farming is the highest contributor to agricultural development, in practice the people in the District integrate other non-cropping activities such as fishing, hunting, livestock and poultry keeping with their cropping activities. There are also tourist products in the community which can be harnessed to diversify the economy of the community. These products include the famous Paga crocodile sanctuary, The Paga slave camp, the Ghana-Burkina Faso frontier, and the Paga

market just to mention but few. Small-scale informal industrial activities account for the industrial revenue and its associated employment in the district. The activities involved in the sub-sector's domain include small-scale agro-processing such as fibre, cotton, groundnuts, Shea fruits, dawadawa, rice, among others and small-scale construction works. The sub-sector's activities offer value adding opportunities to the raw agricultural produce in the district.

Generally, the service/tertiary sector's activities contribute about 32 per cent of total employment in the District (District Profile, 2012). Apart from the sector's activities regarding the aggregation of the economy's Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and employment generating indices, the services from this sector complement and extend the outputs gotten from the primary and secondary sector activities. In effect, these services do not only generate revenue but also fill in the livelihood gaps left after agricultural activities impact.

Trading and commercial activities in the District revolve around mainly foodstuffs, semi-processed food and craft items. These items are sold in the local markets as well as outside the District with some specialized ones meant for the international market though on a small-scale. About 95 per cent of those engaged in these activities are women. Foodstuffs traded include; millet, sorghum, cowpea, groundnuts and rice. Other items including cassava, gari, palm fruits, plantain, and citrus fruits are mainly from southern Ghana, with Techiman being the main point of purchase.

3.6 Transport and Communication

Transport services facilitate effective communication and information dissemination, as well as making it easy for the distribution and allocation of productive resources. The primary means of transport in the District are roads of varied forms, the use of

footpaths are paramount. The major service providers, in terms of road use for people traveling within and outside the District include the Ghana Private Road Transport Union (GPRTU) of the Trades Union Congress (TUC), STC Ltd. Kingdom Transport Services Ltd. (KTS), Imperial Transport Services, who travel long distances whilst the Metro Mass Transit (MMT), individual/private owned and/ operated trucks, mini-buses and taxi cabs serve travelers within the central townships, between communities and across to other surrounding districts such as Builsa, Bolgatanga, and Bongo. Paga, Sirigu, Chiana and Navrongo are the main locations that serve as the points of departure and destination which are growth centres.

3.5 Philosophical Paradigm Proposed for the Study

A lot of research undertaken is done based on at least one philosophical paradigm or worldview. According to Slife and Williams (1995), though philosophical ideas are still hidden under much research, they still influence the practice of research and there is therefore the need to acknowledge them as we undertake any research. A philosophical worldview or paradigm according to Creswell (2013) is a philosophical angle concerning the world we live in and the nature of research that a researcher brings forth. Paradigms are basic belief systems that seek in one way or the other to guide the investigator in the course of research (Creswell, 2012). They further divided paradigms into three parts namely ontology which refers to assumptions about nature of reality; relationship between the “knower” and the “known” where the question is whether the researcher should be “objective” and affect the results or outcomes as much as possible or that the researcher (knower) should actively take part and influence knowledge with others. Some writers including Lincoln et al (2011); Mertens (2010) have referred to these worldviews as epistemologies and ontologies or what Neuman (2012) conceived them broadly as research methodologies.

Philosophical paradigms reflect researchers' assumptions about the real world and how he or she conceives the world to be. There are different kinds of these paradigms that researchers may choose from. These paradigms range from positivism to pragmatism as two polar ends of the research paradigm. This research wishes to propose pragmatism as its philosophical worldview. Pragmatism is largely associated with the writings of Peirce, James, Mead, and Dewey (Cherryholmes, 1992). Other writers include that of Murphy (1990), Patton (1990), and Rorty (1990). Many writers view pragmatism as a worldview that arises out of actions and what is frequently called situations and consequences rather than conditions as associated with positivism and post positivism (Creswell, 2013). With pragmatism, researchers focus on the research problem rather than the method of approach. This philosophical view suits this research since it would be using all available approaches to try and understand the research problem in question largely associated with pragmatism. This paradigm is not entirely committed to one system of philosophy and since a mixed method approach would be used in this study drawing data from both qualitative and quantitative, this paradigm makes that probable.

Since pragmatism is in consonance with the usage of multiple methods of data collection, a mixed method approach would be adopted. The mixed method of data collection involves the combination or integration of both quantitative and qualitative data. The research intends to conduct a convergent parallel data collection. What it means here is that both quantitative and qualitative data would be converged or merged in order to get a comprehensive result for the study. The convergent data collection involves collecting both forms of data at the same time (Creswell, 2012). The strength in this method is that one database could be used to cross-check the inefficiency or validity of the other.

3.6 Research Design

Research design is likened to a master plan or logic of a research that throws light on how the study is to be conducted. According to Mouton (1996) the research design serves to "plan, structure and execute" the research to maximize the "validity of the findings". It gives directions from the underlying philosophical assumptions to research design, and data collection. Yin (2003) adds further that "colloquially a research design is an action plan for getting from here to there, where 'here' may be defined as the initial set of questions to be answered and 'there' is some set of (conclusions) answers". This study made use of the case study research design. A case study is one of several ways of doing research whether it is social science related or even socially related because its aim is to understand human beings in a social context by interpreting their actions as a single group, community or a single event: a case. Gillham (2000) defines a case study as an investigation to answer specific research questions which seek a range of different evidences from the case settings. Yin (2003) defines a case study as an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly defined. The case study approach is especially useful in situations where contextual conditions of the event being studied are critical and where the researcher has no control over the events as they unfold. Ritchie and Lewis (2003) see the primary defining features of a case study as being "multiplicity of perspectives which are rooted in a specific context".

Given the pragmatic position adopted in this research and the nature of the research questions, the case study methodology was considered the most appropriate approach to employ because it provided a systematic way to collect data, analyze information, and report the results, thus understand a particular problem or situation in great depth.

More specifically, it provides a variety of participant perspectives and uses multiple data collection techniques.

Further, unlike many other forms of research, the case study does not utilize any particular methods of data collection or data analysis (Merriam, 1998); therefore, a combination of data collection methods was selected in this study in anticipation of providing a more complete picture; thus allowed for the adoption of both qualitative and quantitative data collection methods which presented a more coherent picture of a unique situation. The case study approach makes use of multiple methods of data collection such as interviews, document reviews, archival records, and direct and participant observations and subsequently ‘thick descriptions’ of the phenomena under study (Yin, 2003). Such ‘thick descriptions’ give the researcher access to the finesses of changing and multiple interpretations (Walsham, 1995). A descriptive statistical method will be used to analyze the quantitative data from the household questionnaire.

Case studies do not claim to be representative, but the emphasis is on what can be learned from a single case (Tellis, 1997). Case studies have value in advancing fundamental knowledge in the relevant knowledge domains. The underlying philosophy of single case study is “not to prove but to improve” (Stufflebeam et al, 2000). Indeed, this study seeks to improve and enhance livelihoods through rural tourism development.

3.7 Research Method and Strategy

This research employed the mixed method type of data collection in consonance with the pragmatic philosophical paradigm. A cursory look at the literature provides numerous definitions of mixed methods (e.g., see Johnson, Onwuegbuzie, & Turner,

2007). For purposes of this study, mixed methods research was defined as a research strategy or methodology. This definition focused on the type of research questions posed that called for real-life contextual understanding, multi-level perspectives, and cultural influences. The study also made use of a rigorous quantitative and qualitative research to examine the magnitude and frequency of constructs and to explore the meaning and understanding of constructs respectively. Multiple methods were employed (questionnaire survey, in-depth interviews, focus group discussions and a stakeholder interview). The study also intentionally combined these methods in order to draw on the strengths of each and to frame the investigation within a particular philosophical and theoretical position. The mixing of methods became necessary since peoples income and livelihoods were looked at and perspectives on rural tourism were sought after.

3.8 Data Sources

Primary data were collected through a household questionnaire survey.

Secondary data is information which has typically been collected by other researchers which might have undergone at least one layer of analysis prior to its acquisition. Secondary data may comprise published and unpublished materials, internet materials, media reports and data which has been cleaned, analyzed and collected for a purpose other than the intended study.

For the purpose of this research and in order to achieve my objectives, data were collected from both primary and secondary sources. The primary sources consisted of field trips to the study area where interactions and observations of the community took place and a critical review of selected literature including books, publications, journals, and articles and this contributed towards the formation of background

information needed for this research and in order to build the project constructively and the readers to understand thoroughly the survey outcome.

3.9 Data Collection Methods and Instruments

3.9.1 Quantitative

This research method is characterized by the collection of information which can be analyzed numerically, the results of which are typically presented using statistics, tables and graphs. This study designed a household questionnaire in order to elicit information from different households concerning their livelihoods and knowledge on tourism development. Questionnaire survey is one of several methods used in gathering primary data and according to Cohen and Manion (1989), this technique is a self-report instrument used for gathering information about variables of interest to an investigation. Surveys use questionnaires to generate quantitative data from which statistical permutations can be performed (Kitchin and Tate, 2000). Some of the objectives proposed in this study demanded a quantitative approach and it therefore collected data through a questionnaire survey.

3.9.2 Qualitative

Qualitative research method by definition tries to explore the original meaning of problems and have been extensively written about (see Creswell, 2013; Denzin and Lincoln, 2011). It is used when we do not know what to expect, how to define the issues, or lack of an understanding of why and how people are affected by a particular problem. Qualitative data just like quantitative data is based on empirical investigation and evidence. However, qualitative research explores information from the perspective of groups and individuals and generates case studies and summaries

rather than lists of numeric data. The study combined both structured and semi-structured interviews and participant observation as its qualitative tools.

3.10 Sample Sizes and Sampling Techniques

The current study adopted the multi-stage sampling technique. The study area is the Paga community. At the first stage, the Paga community was divided into three (3) clusters (A, B and C) representing the Chief Crocodile Pond area (CCP), Nania, and Zenga communities using the major roads and footpaths in the community. The division was based on the fact that settlements in the area were widely sparse and this was done so as to ensure each household within a cluster was given a fair representation. Again the basis for this division was because the tourist resources were located at three main areas of the community (Paga main, Nania, and Zenga areas) so care was taken to sample respondents from these areas too.

At the second stage the simple random technique was used to select households in each of the clusters. To achieve this, a transect walk through the community was undertaken to give a fair idea on the number of households in the cluster. This exercise helped to calculate an estimated sample frame that was used to determine the number of households to be selected. Out of the 100 households to be selected from these clusters, 40 questionnaires were allocated to cluster A, 30 to cluster B and 30 to cluster C. This distribution was done as a result of the differences in population of houses in the area so that as one moves away from the Central Business District (CBD), the number of households decreases albeit everything being equal. In this case cluster A represents the centre of the community, cluster B and C the outskirts of the area.

Finally, household heads were selected for the questionnaire survey. In cases where the household heads were absent or unavailable, the spouse or any person with knowledge in tourism and livelihoods impacts in the community was considered.

For the qualitative instruments, In-depth interviews and Focus Group Discussions (FGD) were conducted targeting women and men separately to get differing views on the effects of rural tourism on their poverty reduction status and other livelihood enhancement endeavours. The group was comprised of three from cluster A and one each from cluster B and C that were chosen through quota sampling. Quota sampling as a type of purposive sampling is also a common technique in qualitative sampling techniques. In quota sampling, one decides how many people with which characteristics to include as participants. Characteristics might include age, place of residence, gender, class, profession, or marital status. This technique suited the study since it comprised both men and women that were chosen from different locations. Conducting separate interviews for men and women was also necessary because this was a rural community and women might not feel comfortable speaking about certain issues in the midst of men. This group also comprised those who were directly involved in tourism and those who were not in order to explore the reasons why they were not involved. A stakeholder interview was also conducted with the tourism information officer in charge of the Ghana Tourism Board (GTB) at Paga, the regional director of the GTA at Bolgatanga was also contacted for an interview in addition to three staff members of the GTA at Bolgatanga, two tour guides at Paga, three restaurant operators, two guest house owners, and the assemblyman/woman of the area. Finally, civil society groups and Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) operating in the area were also interviewed to solicit their views on the impacts of their work on reducing poverty in the community.

3.11 Data Analysis

The analysis stage affords the researcher an opportunity to discover the mysteries hidden in the data gathered and also helps one to organize the data efficiently and aids to link and annotate the relationships between the data (Bringer et al., 2004 cited in Njole, 2011). Interviews were conducted using a tape recorder and these were later transcribed and read through carefully to detect any grammatical errors. Direct quotations by interviewees were used to report the findings of the qualitative part of the study. At this stage, raw data obtained from respondents were organized and arranged in order to extract useful information from them. Data from the questionnaire was coded and entered into Microsoft excel and imported into SPSS (Version 10) after careful editing for analysis. Descriptive analysis and cross-tabulation of quantitative data were performed using the SPSS computer software and frequency tables and charts generated. Relevant quotations from respondents were highlighted and incorporated in the analysis since the study employed both the quantitative and qualitative methods of data collection. Concerning the issue of the significant difference of dependent and independent variables, the asymptotic significant value was used to test their relationship. In this case, a p-value less than 0.05 implied a significance difference between the variables and more than 0.05 p-values indicated no significance difference between the variables under consideration.

3.12 Reconnaissance Survey

The study also undertook a reconnaissance survey as a preliminary investigation to collect pre-knowledge in the main study that was subsequently conducted. Before the actual study, a reconnaissance study was undertaken to test logistics and instruments that the research intended to use in order to improve the quality of the questionnaire and the effectiveness of the data collection process.

3.13 Ethical Considerations

Since this study required the participation of people, specifically people representing different households, certain ethical issues were addressed. The consideration of these ethical issues was necessary for the purpose of ensuring the privacy as well as the safety of the participants. Among the significant ethical issues that were considered in the research process include consent and confidentiality. In order to secure the consent of the selected participants, the researcher explained all essential details of the study, including its aim and purpose, objectives, and the methods employed. By explaining these important details, the respondents were able to understand the importance of their role in the completion of the research. The respondents were also advised that they could withdraw from the study even during the process. With this, the participants were not forced to participate in the research. The confidentiality of the participants was also ensured by not disclosing their names or personal information in the research. Only relevant details that helped in answering the research questions were included.

3.14 Limitations of the Study

The research encountered a few challenges and limitations and these were found below.

First and foremost, in terms of finance, this study was averagely expensive since it required massive data collection and in depth studies. Since the study looked at rural livelihoods, it also required a longer study time period. This however was not possible since the study had to be completed within the stipulated period given.

Since the study was expected to end within the period specified, and funding too was hard to come by, this in the long run affected the number of questionnaires that were

designed and administered and interviews that were conducted. This affected the extent to which the final results of this study were generalized.

In addition, some of the questionnaires that were administered did not return in a timely manner and getting key information from interviews also posed as a hurdle too. Hence, the study was eventually based on the questionnaires returned and the availability of key information for interviews that were conducted.

Finally, it was quite difficult to get specific information concerning the effects of rural tourism in an area like Paga.

3.15 Chapter Summary

This chapter looked at some of the profile of the study area, a description of the case study about the demographics of the study area, the structure of the local economy, a detail account of the methods that were employed in the data including the types and sources of data. It also threw light on the research strategy and design that the study opted for and the philosophical paradigm chosen by the researcher for the study

Finally, issues of data analysis were also looked at as well as the arrangement of the study, ethical considerations and reconnaissance study.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the results and findings of the data collected and subsequently analyzed on this empirical study on rural tourism as a means of enhancing rural livelihoods at Paga. The chapter discusses the demographics that were collected, how tourism development in the area is enhancing livelihoods and the local economy, livelihood opportunities connected to the tourism sector, and challenges faced by the tourism industry. The results are followed by an in-depth discussion linked to the literature to place the issues in a wider context. The findings are presented by performing some statistical analysis on them from data collected through the survey and interviews conducted. Frequency and percentage tables have been used as well graphs to depict the outcome of the findings. There are some instances of cross tabulations to check correlations between the variables concerned. Demographic data as well as other relevant information concerning livelihood opportunities connected to the tourism sector are discussed here in connection with the objectives that were stated in chapter one. The results and findings are discussed in detail below.

4.1 Demographic Profile of Respondents

Demographic data collected for this research played an essential role since poverty issues affect both male and female alike. The three surveys conducted were analyzed separately but that of the personal demographics were analyzed jointly (see table 4.1).

Table 4.1: Attributes of respondents (N=100)

Variables	%	Variables	%
AGE		SEX	
15-20	2%	Male	63%
21-25	12%	Female	37%
26-30	19%	Total	100%
31-35	35%		
36 and above	25%		
Cannot Disclose	7 %	LEVEL OF EDUCATION	
MARITAL STATUS		No Education	16%
Married	52%	Primary	13%
Single	41%	JHS	26%
Divorced	4%	SHS	26%
Widowed	2%	Tertiary	19%
Cannot disclose	1 %	Total	100 %
Total	100 %		

Source; Fieldwork, 2014

Table 4.2a: Main Occupation of Respondents (N=100)

Tourism sector	16%
Farming sector	60%
Other sectors	24%
Total	100%

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

Table 4.2b: Major Economic Livelihood Activities Undertaken By Households

(N=100)

Livelihood Activity	Percentage
Tourism sector	15.1%
Farming sector	75.3%
Other sectors	9.6%
Total	100%

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

Results from the three areas under study indicated that the main economic livelihood activity in the Chief Crocodile Pond (CCP area was tourism (47.5%), farming (40%), and other sectors (15%) (See table 4.1c). At the Nania community area, 23.3% were engaged in tourism, 66.7% in farming and 10% in other sectors and at Zenga community, 20% were into tourism, 66.7% into farming, and 13.3% (see table 4.2c) into other sectors. The variations could be explained by the fact that the CCP area is the main tourist attraction in Paga where the adult crocodiles are found and the area too is strategically located near Paga town and the main road linking the Ghana-Burkina Faso border. For Nania and Zenga, these are communities that are dominated by farmers because facilities for the tourism industry are basically inadequate.

Table 4.2c: Major Livelihood Activity by Community (N=100)

Community	Major Livelihood Activity			Total
	Tourism	Farming	Others	
CCP	19(47.5%)	16(40%)	6(15%)	100%
Nania	7(23.3%)	20(66.7%)	3(10%)	100%
Zenga	6(20%)	20(66.7%)	4(13.3%)	100%

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

The results from table 4.1 indicate that there was no female respondent and only 2 male respondents within the age range of 15-20 years. Since this survey targeted heads of households, it is reasonable to understand this scenario since in most rural traditional African homes, males whether married or otherwise are considered the primary head of a household and girls normally play second to boys or men in these situations. From table 4.1, majority of the respondents were from the age range of 31-35 years (23% male and 13% female) and 36 years and above (16% male and 9% female). This distribution shows a youthful population within the age range of 20-35 years. The possible reason could be that fertility rates in the area are high or the local people attach importance so much to the number of children born

The results indicated that the population of the study area was dominated by men as table 4.2c shows. As much as 63% percent of the total population surveyed was male and only 37% were female. The main occupations of the respondents surveyed were categorized into those working in the tourism sector, the farming or agricultural sector and those in other sectors including public sector workers, self-employees and petty

traders. There are several reasons that could be attributed to these variations including the fact that the tourism sector in Paga is not well developed yet and so employs only a handful of local people. Another reason for the variation could be that majority of the respondents (60%) who were engaged in farming are because agriculture is still the dominant means of livelihood of the local people and so most are into it. Also, the 24% of respondents who were employed in the other sectors including public servants could be attributed to the fact that the Kassena-Nankana West District is one of the newly created districts in the Upper East Region which was undertaken in 2008. It therefore has limited resources and so employment in that sector is limited.

The major economic and livelihood activity undertaken by respondents is farming which is an agricultural activity. This outcome points out to the fact that in Ghana and for that matter Northern Ghana, agriculture is the dominant form of a livelihood activity since industries and the service sectors are few even if they exist at all. Most of the farmers were into millet, groundnuts, mango, fowls and guinea fowls, goats, sheep and in some cases rice farming. Since irrigation facilities are not common in the community, most of these farmers only do seasonal farming. That means that farm activities only happen during the wet season when the rains do set in and in the dry season, only poultry and animal rearing take place. The findings correspond with the Ghana Statistical Services' (GSS) report which indicates that the Ghanaian economy is largely a rural agricultural sector and that only a fraction of it is urban in nature with agriculture being the primary economic activity (GSS, 2010).

The study also revealed that most of the stakeholders or those engaged directly into rural tourism at Paga are mainly tour guides which are all local inhabitants and from households that have connections with the main tourist sites which include the crocodile ponds and the Pikworo slave camp. Those who also work in hotels and

guest houses, restaurant or bar operators, sellers of artifacts to tourists also form part of this group (see figure 4.2). Majority of respondents surveyed were farmers or peasants (75.3%) and those working directly or indirectly in the tourism sector at Paga were 15.1%. Tourism sector employees are those working in the above mentioned establishments. Other sectors including public sector employees accounted for only 9.6% of (see table 4.2). By public sector employees, we mean those formally employed and working at the District Assembly or any government organization at Paga and they may also be termed as civil servants. This category of people receive at least basic salary monthly and they may include Teachers, Nurses, Police officials and Immigration officials just to mention but few. Those who were also categorized as other sectors included those selling agricultural products, casual workers, petty traders and those who are self-employed including carpenters, mechanics, and general construction workers. The survey and various interviews revealed that poultry especially guinea fowls and fowls are widely practiced by farmers in the community. However, large scale livestock as a commercial activity is not so common in the area since fodder and water is hard to come by especially in the long dry season experienced in Northern Ghana. This practice is however, done across the border in Burkina Faso where the activities of Fulani herdsmen are common.

It should also be noted however that people in the community are not engaged only in one particular type of job but do undertake multiple economic opportunities to supplement their main source of income. For instance, a restaurant operator remarked during an interview as follows; *“Apart from this bar business, I also run a shop that sells artifacts like leather sandals, hats and locally made beads and hand woven smocks to visitors and also owns a sizable number of guinea fowls and goats at home that generate an additional income for me”*. In another case one woman who owns a

grinding mill indicated during an interview said that *“I have a rice farm and a vegetable farm at my backyard but since these activities are mainly rain fed, I resort to my grinding mill business during the dry season when there are no rains. This helps me a lot since it will assuage the effect of the fallow period after the wet season. It will also help me pay my children’s’ school fees when the harvest from the rice farm and the vegetable garden are not ready”*.

Figure 4.1: Main Economic Livelihood Activities at Paga



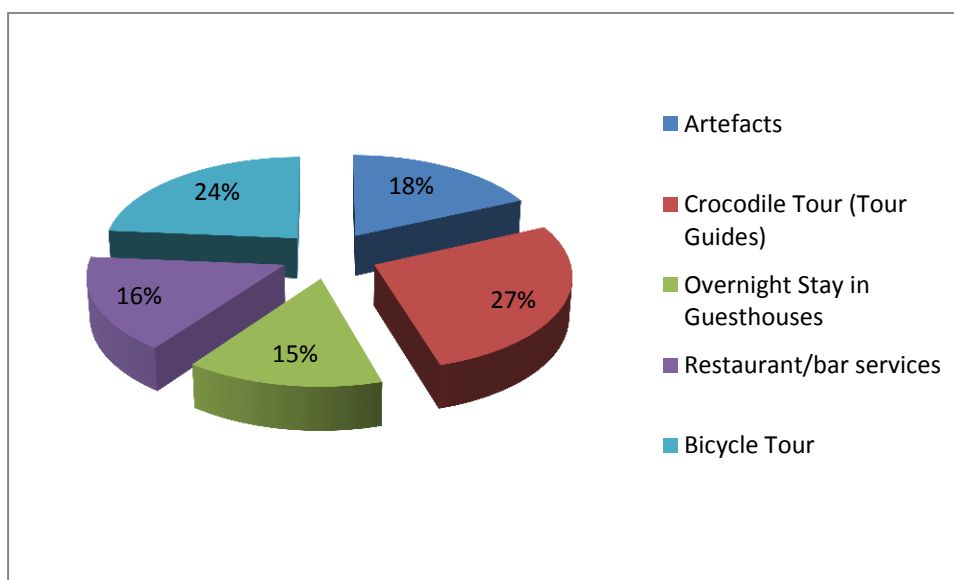
Source: fieldwork, 2014

4.2 Livelihood Opportunities Connected to the Tourism Industry at Paga

Tourism offers a variety of livelihood opportunities for people in the destination area (Mbaiwa, 2003; Njole, 2011) and these include both direct and indirect jobs in various tourism establishments. Data analyzed from respondents on the main tourism related income generation activities in Paga indicated that crocodile tour, smock weaving, bicycle tour (traditional homes, chief palace, Ghana-Burkina frontier and the local market), artifacts and souvenir shopping are the main tourism related income

generating activities in Paga. These activities serve as sources of livelihood enhancement opportunities and are in consonance with Ashley et al. (2001 cited in Kuuder and Manu, 2012) who suggested that rural-based tourism activities should generate income to the host community and also further confirms the statement by Ghana Tourism Authority (1996 cited in Kuuder and Manu, 2012), that income from rural-based activities serve as a means of poverty reduction in rural areas in Ghana. Figure 4.2 depicts these ecotourism related income generation activities in the Paga community with the highest income generating activity being Crocodile tours (27%).

Figure 4.2: Livelihood Income Generating Activities at Paga (N=100)



Source: Fieldwork, 2014

From the three communities surveyed, overnight stay in hotels and tour guiding seemed to be the main income generating activity in the CCP area (57.5%) followed by artefacts selling (20%). Bicycle tour and tour guiding were the main income generating activity at Nania with 33.3% (see table 4.3) of the respondents saying so. The reasons could be that the CCP receives a lot of visitors therefore the demand for

tour guides are high there as compared to Nania and Zenga. Again Nania and Zenga registered low percentages in the accommodation and food sectors because these facilities are inadequate at those areas and many tourists who wanted to pass the night go back to Paga town to do so.

Table 4.3: Main Livelihood Activity Connected to the Tourism Industry by Community (N=100)

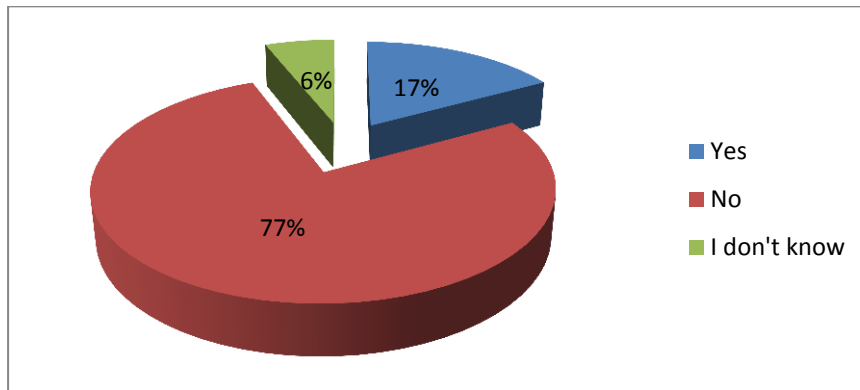
Community	Main Livelihood Income Generating Activity					Total
	Tour Guiding	Artefacts Sellers	Overnight Stay	Bicycle Tour	Restaurant Operations	
CCP	23(57.5%)	8(20%)	4(10%)	3(7.5)	2(5%)	100%
Nania	10(33.3%)	5(16.7%)	2(6.7)	10(33.3%)	8(10%)	100%
Zenga	11(36.7%)	8(26.7%)	3(10%)	4(13.3%)	4(13.3%)	100%

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

4.2 Perceptions of Respondents about Rural Tourism Development in Paga

Respondents were asked to state their opinion on whether rural tourism development in Paga has influenced some of their capital assets and their perceptions about rural tourism development in general in Paga.

Figure 4.3: Tourism and influence on social network (N=100)



Source: Fieldwork, 2014

The results indicated that a high number of respondents (77%) were of the opinion that tourism development in the area had no influence on their social network. What it means is that it is not because of tourism that has made it possible for this group of people to connect to other people including tourist but could be that distant relatives and friends or family members made this possible for them. 17% of the respondents (see figure 4.3) however, held a contrary view by indicating that tourism was responsible for them being able to connect to different people from different geographical locations.

Taking into consideration the occupation of the respondent and their views on this issue, the result from the research established a significant effect on the influence of tourism to social network across the three main occupations among the local people. 62.5% of respondents working in the tourism sector as seen from Table 4.3 agreed to the fact that tourism had actually influenced their social network. This is no surprise since visitors' usually frequent campsites, hotels, bars and other cultural centres where some of these people work. This remark was made by one tour guide at Chief Crocodile Pond at Paga;

“I get the opportunity to interact with them (foreigners) and try sometimes to learn a language different from mine. Through my interaction with a French woman, I was invited one summer to France to also experience a different environment and culture. This network and acquaintances kept on increasing day in day out as and when different visitors come to the community as a result of tourism”.

From the results analyzed, 10.8% of respondents in the farming sector and 4.2% from respondents from other sectors alluded to the fact that tourism had an influence in their social network. Social networks are created out of social capital therefore tourism drives this by bringing the various stakeholders including the local people, tourists and other agencies in the tourism industry to interact among themselves. This network may influence the economy of the destination area through marketing of tourism products and getting acquainted with customers and potential customers, employees and intermediaries. The study also indicated that tourism involves movement from one area to another involving people from different backgrounds and those working in the sector have a higher chance of meeting a lot of people than those who are not directly involved in the tourism industry.

Table 4.4: Tourism and its Influence on Social Network by Occupation (N=100)

Occupation of respondent	Percentage			Total
	Yes	No	I don't know	
Tourism sector	62.5%	31.2%	6.3%	100%
Farming sector	10.0%	86.7%	3.3%	100%
Other sectors	4.2%	83.3%	12.5%	100%

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

Comparing data from the three sites surveyed indicated that tourism development had influenced the social network of respondents from the CCP area than any other area with majority of the respondents there (70%) indicating so. 43.3% from Nania said yes it did influence their social network with only 33.3 % (see table 4.5) disagreeing that it has influenced their social network. Again, the reasons for this variations are not far-fetched since respondents closer to the CCP area interact more with tourist who come to the area in numbers than the rest of the two areas because of the availability of facilities including visitor centres, hotels and lodges, and restaurant services in the area.

Table 4.5: Tourism and its Influence on Social Network by Community (N=100)

Statement	Community		
	CCP	Nania	Zenga
Yes	28 (70%)	13 (43.3%)	12 (40%)
No	10 (25%)	10 (33.3%)	13 (43.3)
I don't Know	2 (5%)	7 (23.3%)	5 (16.7%)
Total	40 (100%)	30 (100%)	30 (100%)

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

4.2.2 The influence of rural tourism on household human capital

The household size and the number of labourers in each household were used to evaluate the outcome. By household labourers we mean the number of household members who are actively working or engaged in any income generating activity. Educational level and skills of household members were also used to measure their human capital.

Table 4.6: Rural Tourism and its Influence on Human Capital Development (N=100)

Household size	Percentage
5-9	8%
10-14	39%
15-19	38%
20-24	10%
25-29	2%
30 and above	3%
Total	100%

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

The survey result indicated that the highest household size was between 10-14 representing 39.0% and 15- 19 representing 38% and lowest being 25-29 (2%) (See table 4.6). This result gave a vivid picture of a typical African household where the extended family system is still part and parcel of the culture. Averagely, three in each household were also engaged in income generating ventures (household labourers).

According to Ashley (2007), the development of human capital catapults in the attainment of skills necessary to undertake any employment and that rural communities should garner their development through this direction. The situation in Paga is a bit worrying since the results indicated that majority of the respondents were not either educated or had lower levels of education at either the primary or Junior High school levels. This does not auger well for the community since most employers especially in the tourism sector demand some level of tertiary education. Programmes and policies should therefore be put towards improving the human resource development of the community.

Concerning the issue of the level of education, results were compared across the three main occupations and variations were found in each case. Results from the survey indicated that respondents from the tourism sector have attained a higher level of education as compared to those in the farming sector. 22.2% of them finished JHS, SHS (31.2%), and Tertiary (27.5) (see table 4.7). The reason for this might be that some forms of the skills were required in the tourism sector that also demands attaining some college education. In the African and particularly Ghanaian context, there is no need for even primary education before one enters into farming and this explains the high number (25.0%) of respondents there who had had no education at all. Those classified as others that included public sector workers attained the highest (41.7%) of tertiary education. This can also be explained based on the fact that these are civil servants occupying senior positions in the District Assembly and therefore are expected to be highly educated. Those who fell under the primary school graduates (10%) and that of those who did not attend school (5%) may be those such as the casual workers, construction workers, carpenters and petty traders as these professions do not require much education. An essential part of the results from the analysis was that basic education is almost free at that part of the country and some people took that advantage of that to get some primary education and did further up to at least the JHS level. Statistically speaking, the results showed a significant difference between the household level of education and the main occupations of the respondents surveyed.

Table 4.7: Occupation of Respondent and Level of Education (N=100)

Occupation of Respondent	Level of Education in Percentages					Total
	Primary	JHS	SHS	Tertiary	None	
Tourism sector	12.8%	22.2%	31.2%	27.5%	6.3%	100%
Farming sector	20%	28.3%	21.7%	5.0%	25.0%	100%
Other sectors	10%	25%	20%	40%	5%	100%

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

On the other hand, table 4.8 indicates that 19% of male respondents work in the tourism sector as compared to 10.8% of females in the same sector. This can be deduced from earlier results which showed more males being educated than their female counterparts and since the tourism sector demand some skills which comes with some form of education, this is understandable. Similarly, more males are into farming (65.1%) more than females (51.4%). This phenomenon might be that in most rural traditional homes, female members do not own lands. Husband and for that matter males are custodians of family lands and most females undertake only domestic chores. However, a high number of females (37.8%) are into other sectors as their main occupations. The reason is that most petty traders are market women who are part of that category. This means that education is still gender biased and that more men are still being educated than women. This phenomenon is a reason for concern since women make up majority of the workforce in the accommodation and food sectors of the tourism industry (Swain, 1990; Scheyvens, 2000; UNTWO, 2010; and Duflo, 2012). Efforts should therefore be made to raise the awareness of girl-child education in the area.

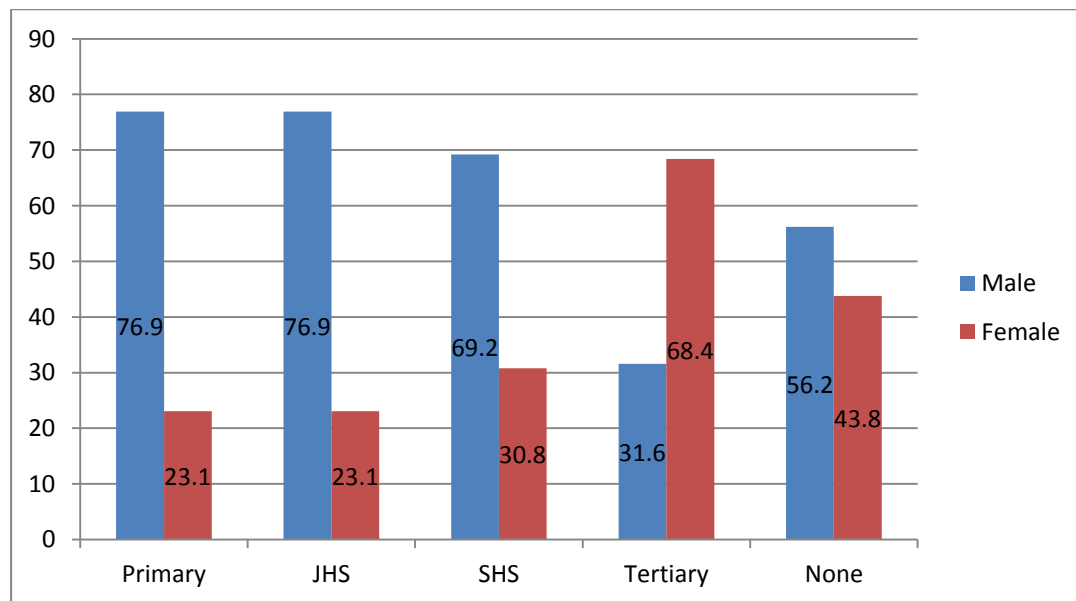
Table 4.8: Main Occupation by Gender (N=100)

Gender of respondent	Occupation of respondent in percentages			Total
	Tourism sector	Farming sector	Other sectors	
Male	19%	65.1%	15.9%	100%
Female	10.8%	51.4%	37.8%	100%

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

There were variations however, in terms of the level of education against the gender of respondents. Whilst 76.9% of male respondents had primary education, 23.1% of females did same (see figure 4.4). The same number of males and females respectively had senior high school education. More females (68.4) however, had attained tertiary education as compared to 31.6% of males. The reason might be due to some NGOs in the area like the World Vision International (WVI) who are pushing for girl-child education especially at the tertiary level.

Figure 4.4: Gender of Respondent and Level of Education (N=100)



Source: Fieldwork, 2014

4.3 Tourism Development and its Influence on the Availability of Education and Health Care Services

Here respondents were asked if rural tourism activities in the community have influenced the availability and access to education and basic healthcare services. Respondents were asked to rank their perception on the scale of agree, disagree or neutral the result which is summarized in table 4.9

Table 4.9: Tourism and its Influence on the Availability of Education and Basic Health Care Services (N=100).

Level of Agreement	Percentage
Agree	65%
Neutral	11%
Disagree	24%
Total	100%

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

From table 4.9 the results indicate that 65% agreed to the fact that tourism development did influence the availability and their access to education and basic healthcare. Their reasons for this could be that tourism authorities and foreign visitors sometimes put up infrastructures in the educational and health sector. Educational opportunities form an important part in raising awareness about sanitation and health issues in a tourism destination (Ashley, 2007) and as the results indicate, more educational facilities should be provided at Paga to meet this aim. It could also be that some tourist assists brilliant but needy students to further their education in the community. For the 24% who did not agree, their explanation for this stance could be that government provides some of these services and not necessarily because of

tourism development in the area. 11% of the respondents however, were neutral on this item and it could be that they were not aware of any assistance from the tourism sector or were just not in a position to take a stand on the issue.

On the contrary, when the data was analyzed by comparing the three main occupations of the respondents there were differences in the way they perceived this issue. Livelihood activities that actively influence the household level of education and access to basic health services are shown on table 4.10. As seen from the table, tourism related activities played an important role and also had a big influence on the household skills, level of education and household access to basic health services for those working in the tourism sector (66.7%). During interviews, respondents gave similar views as remarked by one as follows; *“Since I started working in the tourism industry, I have been able to take good care of my family including my kids’ school fees and their medical bills”*. Non-tourism related activities played a smaller part (12.7%) in influencing the skills, level of education and access to basic health care services. This is because apart from working in the tourism industry, some people are also engaged in other income generating activities like farming to supplement the family income. Some especially those operating bars and restaurants that sell food to visitors also own either a farm that sell groundnuts or maize. One respondent who is a hotel maid commented as follows;

“Being a hotel maid does not pay much here so I also raise chicken and have a vegetable garden. Combining the two businesses have afforded me the opportunity to get my own house and a motorbike and also sent my children to the senior high school”.

However, respondents in the farming sector depended solely on non-tourism related activities to influence their household skills, level of education and access to basic health care services (62.7%). The reason for this could be that majority of these respondents considers tourism to be remote from their daily activities so they do not depend on it. To disassociate themselves from tourism related activities is however not entirely true since some farmers sell their produce to tourism related infrastructure in which they get money to help them access some of their livelihood requirements. For those in the other sectors, 16.7%, 62.7.8%, and 20.6% of tourism related, non-tourism related and both tourism and non-tourism related activities respectfully influence the availability of education and access to basic healthcare services.

Table 4.10: Livelihood Activities that Influence Respondents' Availability and Access to Education and Basic Health Care Services by Occupation (N=100)

Livelihood activity	Occupation of respondent (%)		
	Tourism sector	Farming sector	Other sectors
Tourism related activities	66.7%	16.7%	16.7%
Non-tourism related activities	12.7%	70.4%	62.7%
Both	20.6%	12.9%	20.6%
Total	100%	100%	100%

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

At the individual community level, results indicated that tourism played an essential role in influencing the availability of education and healthcare services at the CCP area with a total of 22 (55%) of the respondents agreeing that tourism has indeed influenced the availability of education and healthcare services as table 4.11 indicates. It could be that schools and other social facilities for the health sector have been built at the area making the people to believe that it is tourism that has led to the emergence of those facilities. However, 33.3% and 30% at Nania and Zenga respectively disagreed that tourism has influenced the availability of education and healthcare services in their communities.

Table 4.11: Tourism and its Influence on Education and Healthcare Services by Community (N=100)

Community	Scale			Total
	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	
CCP	22(55%)	8(20%)	10(25%)	100%
Nania	12(40%)	8(26.7%)	10(33.3%)	100%
Zenga	10(33.3%)	11(36.7%)	9(30%)	100%

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

4.4 Contribution of Rural Tourism to Enhancing Local Livelihoods

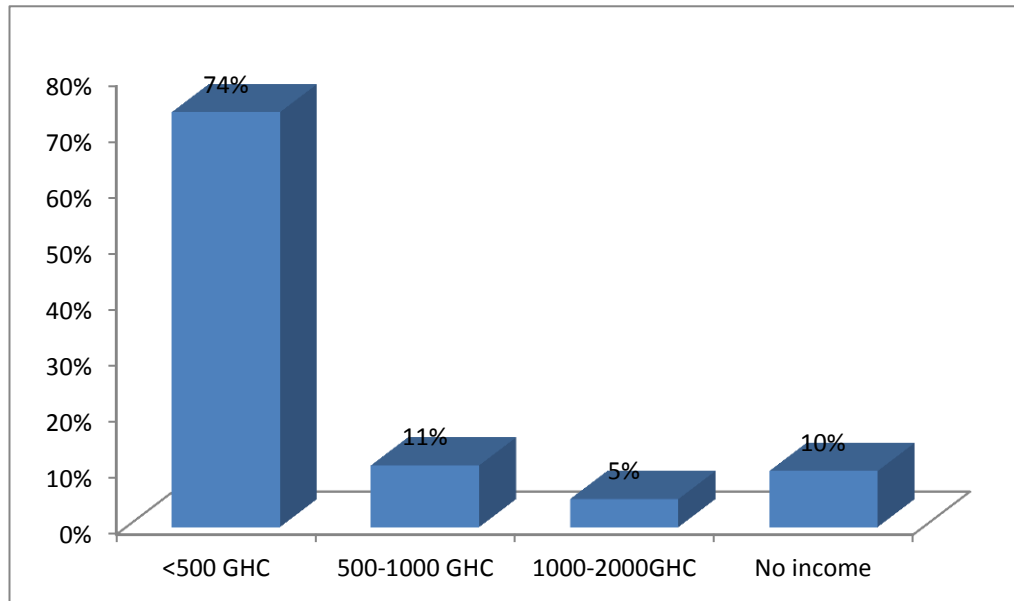
In line with objective two of the study, the study tried to examine the extent to which rural tourism contribute to the livelihoods of the people. A combination of capital assets was used to examine how rural tourism affects their livelihoods the results which are summarized below.

4.4.1 Monthly Income of Respondents

Individual monthly income was analyzed here to ascertain the extent to which people earn every month and show whether it was enough to improve their livelihoods.

From the results analyzed it was revealed that as high as 74% of respondents earned a monthly income of less than 500 Ghana cedis, 11% earned between 500 and 1000 Ghana cedis, 5% earned between 1000 and 2000 Ghana cedis, and 10% did not earn any income at all. The reasons for this variation could be that unemployment is a major challenge to the District and majority of the people resort to temporary and petty trading which do not fetch much income. Rural tourism has been promoted mainly to improve the livelihoods of local people through income generation which in turn reflects in their willingness to support ant rural tourism project (Holden et al, 2011; Theuns, 2002; Tao et. al, 2009). The situation in Paga as shown from the result indicates that local people are yet to realize income generated from the tourism sector. This could be that the revenues are unequally distributed or that a few community elite control the tourism resources in the area. This will eventually lead to unfair income distribution among the local people and according to Holland et al.,(2003) and Zeng et. al, (2014), this leads to underdevelopment of the tourism destination area.

Figure 4.4: Monthly Income of Respondents (N=100)



Source: Fieldwork, 2014

As stated earlier the main livelihood activities at Paga (the study area) include tourism, farming and other sectors such as the public sector. The study again compared monthly incomes among the various occupations to get a clear picture of how they performed. Results showed income differentials among the various occupations of the respondents.

Table 4.12: Monthly Income of the Respondents by Occupation (N=100)

Occupation of respondent	Monthly income (GHC)/percentage share		
	<500	500-1000	1000-2000
Tourism sector	12.2%	27.3%	40.0%
Farming sector	68.9%	27.3%	20.0%
Other sectors	18.9%	45.4%	40.0%
Total	100%	100%	100%

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

Results from the survey revealed that farming being the dominant livelihood activity in the area contributes less to the total household income. As much as 68.9% of farmers receive less than GHC500.00 a month. This abysmal figure may point to the fact that majority of those engaged in the agricultural sector are mostly small scale farmers with little or no capital to expand their businesses. Again, as mentioned earlier agriculture in Northern Ghana is rain-fed and so during the dry season farmers do not earn anything but rely on the savings from the previous harvest. Those few who earn between GHC 500.00 and GHC 1000.00 constitute those who undertake relatively large scale farming in either animals or tomato production.

Those working in the tourism sector performed better in terms of monthly contribution of income at the household level (see table 4.12). For instance 12.2% of

respondents' surveyed earned less than 500 Ghana cedis but 27.3% earned between 500 Ghana cedis and 1000 Ghana cedis and to those who earned between 1000 Ghana cedis and 2000 Ghana cedis, the number is 40.0%. The first income earners could be tour guides, bartenders, and hotel or guesthouse cleaners. The second category may include those engaged in operating smaller restaurants and those who sell artifacts. For those who earn above the 1000 Ghana cedis mark could be those who own hotels and guesthouses, big restaurants and bars in the area. Another case for those working in the tourism sector is that their businesses are seasonal in nature too. For instance during the peak season like festivals and occasions when visitors are many, they tend to earn a lot but when visitor numbers start to dwindle their monthly income also drop significantly. One Lodge manager remarked on this as follow; *“Our serious concern is that we only receive visitors on transit, during festivals and funerals and from a few local guys who need a place to play outside”*. From table 4.12, public servants contribute the highest income to the household income. 18.9% earned less than 500 Ghana cedis, 45.5% earned between 500 Ghana cedis and 1000 Ghana cedis and 40% earned between 1000 Ghana cedis and 2000 Ghana cedis every month. This crop of employees was government workers who receive salary every month.

Results from the survey were also cross tabulated to get the situation concerning the three sites (CCP, Nania, and Zenga) of which the results are presented in table 4.13.

Table 4.10: Monthly Income by Community (N=100)

Monthly Income (Gh¢)	Community		
	CCP	Nania	Zenga
< 500	13(32.5%)	22(73.3%)	20(66.7%)
500-1000	20(50%)	2(6.7%)	3(10%)
100-2000	5(12.5%)	1(3.3%)	1(3.3%)
No Income	1(2.5%)	5(16.7%)	6(20%)
Total	100%	100%	100%

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

The results from table 4.13 indicate that respondents in Nania and Zenga receive the least amount of average monthly income with as high as 73.3% and 66.7% (see table 4.10) of them receiving less than 500 Ghana Cedis a month and this could be attributed to the nature of their main occupation (farming) which does not bring in much income. It could also be the fact that they are less able to supplement their household monthly income since opportunities in other sectors are non-existent. The area with the highest household income is the CCP area with 32.5%, 50%, 12.5%, and 2.5% receiving less than 500.00, 500-1000.00, 1000.00-2000.00, and no income respectively.

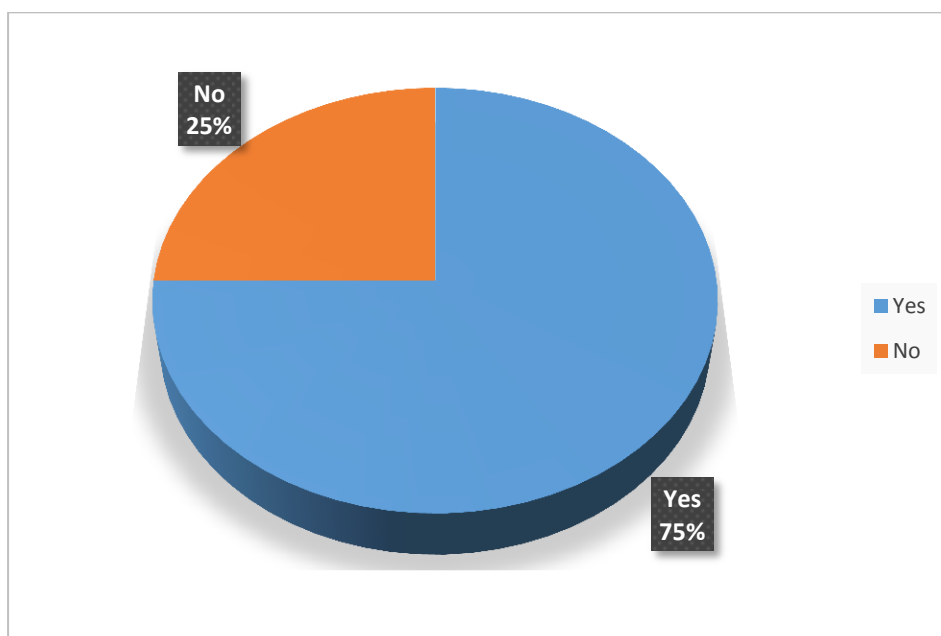
4.5 Access to Natural Assets

Natural capital plays an important role in pursuance of household livelihoods. According to OECD (2007) natural capital refers to “the natural assets in their role in providing natural resource inputs and environmental services for economic production”. This definition was broken down into specific components by UNEP (2012): “Natural capital includes land, minerals and fossil fuels, solar energy, water, living organisms, and services provided by the interactions of all these elements in ecological systems”. Natural capital constitutes around 36% of total wealth of low-income countries and in 2012, natural resources accounted for 77% total exports and 42% of government revenue (UNEP, 2015).

4.5.1 Access to Safe Drinking Water

Through a questionnaire survey, respondents were asked if they had access to some of these assets. The study revealed that 75% of respondents had access to clean and safe drinking water as against 25% who said they did not have access to clean and safe drinking water (see figure 4.5).

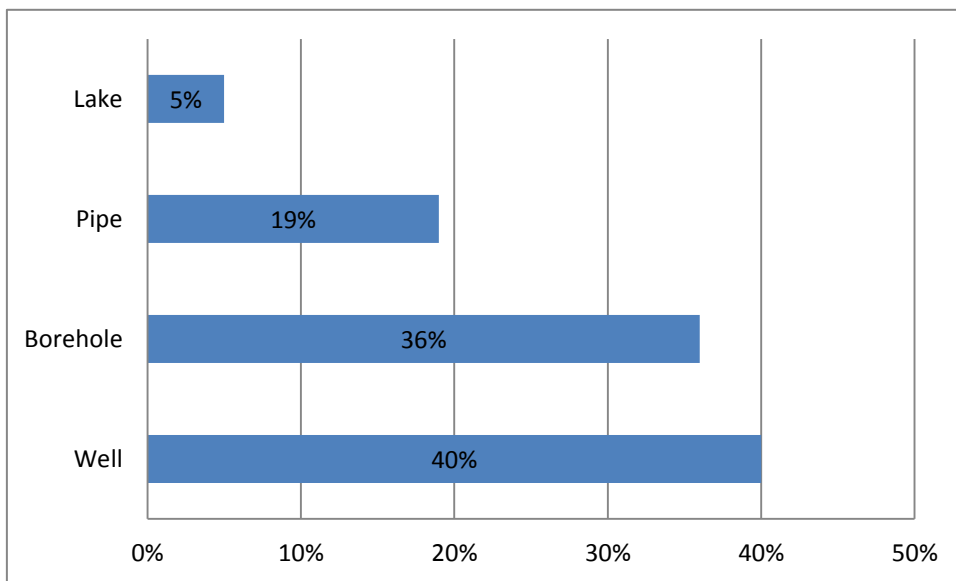
Figure 4.5: Access to Clean and Safe Drinking Water (N=100)



Source: Fieldwork, 2014

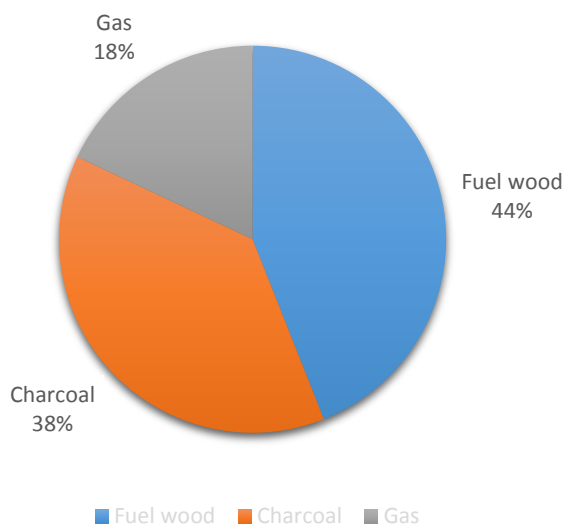
Majority of respondents at least had access to clean and safe water (36% from borehole and 19% from pipe borne sources). 40% of respondents mostly farmers from remote areas however get their water from a well and only 5% get their source of water from a lake near the community (See figure 4.6). On the other hand, when queried what type of energy they use in cooking, majority of the respondents said they used firewood and charcoal as their main type of fuel in preparing food at home (See figure 4.6).

Figure 4.6: Sources of Household Water (N=100)



Source: Fieldwork, 2014

Figure 4.7: Sources of Energy Used for Cooking (N=100)



Source: Fieldwork, 2014

Data from the three communities indicated that many of the respondents had access to safe and clean drinking water with as many as 90%, 73.3%, and 80% from CCP area, Nania, and Zenga respectively saying yes they had access to safe and clean drinking water (see table 4.14). However, when queried where they get their sources of water, there were variations among the three communities with those from CCP area getting their water from pipe borne sources (30%), borehole (62.5%), well (5%) and lake (0.25%). Majority from Nania get their sources of water from boreholes dug in the community and a total of 18% of respondents from Zenga getting their water from a well. This variation represents the unfair or lopsided development in Paga where concentration is on the CCP area to the disadvantage of the other areas which is at the outskirts of the Paga community. The results also indicated that the sources of energy used for cooking in the communities also varied with 70% of those in CCP area saying they use gas to prepare their food and only 12.5% use fuel wood. However, at Nania and Zenga most households use charcoal and fuel wood for cooking with 30% at Nania saying they use charcoal and 36.7% at Zenga using fuel wood in preparing food as indicated in table 4.14.

Table 4.11: Access to Water and Sources of Water by Community (N=100)

Community	Statement		Total	Source				Total
	Yes	No		Pipe	Borehole	Well	Lake	
CCP	90%	10%	100%	30%	62.5%	2.5%	0.25%	100%
Nania	73.3%	26.7%	100%	20%	63.3%	10%	6.7%	100%
Zenga	80%	20%	100%	10%	60%	20%	10%	100%

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

Table: 4.15 Sources of Energy Used in Cooking by Community (N=100)

Source	Community		
	CCP Area	Nania	Zenga
Gas	70%	33.3%	33.3%
Charcoal	17.5%	30%	30%
Fuel wood	12.5%	36.7%	36.7%
Total	100%	100%	100%

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

4.6 Tourism and Access to Natural Resources (N=100)

Respondents were asked if they had access to some rural natural resources like water, land among others and the results are which are summarized in table 4.16.

Table 4.16: Respondents' Access to Natural Resources

Level of agreement	Percentage
Agree	33%
Neutral	16%
Disagree	51%
Total	100%

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

According to the results from table 7, 51% agreed to have access to the natural resources available in the area mainly those governed by rules and regulations set up

by the local authorities of Paga comprising the chief and elders of the area. These are those who understood the fundamental reasons for setting up the slave camp and the 5 crocodile ponds and authority of the chief and elders of protecting the sites. For the 16% neutral and 33% who agreed to have access to the natural resources are those who took into consideration natural resources found outside the two main sites mentioned above. Those who agreed did know the rules and regulations of the resources utilization outside the sites that are set by the community. However, those who are neutral knew very well they had the right to use the resources but were unaware of the rules and regulations governing their usage. According to Njole (2011), access to natural resources by local people leads to greater participation and more economic benefits to people and that conflict are often avoided if local people have access to some of the natural resources in their community. It can therefore be concluded that tourism introduction in the area had not entirely changed local peoples' perception towards access to resources found in the area. They consumed resources outside the two sites according to rules and regulations set not because of tourism.

4.3 Household Physical Assets

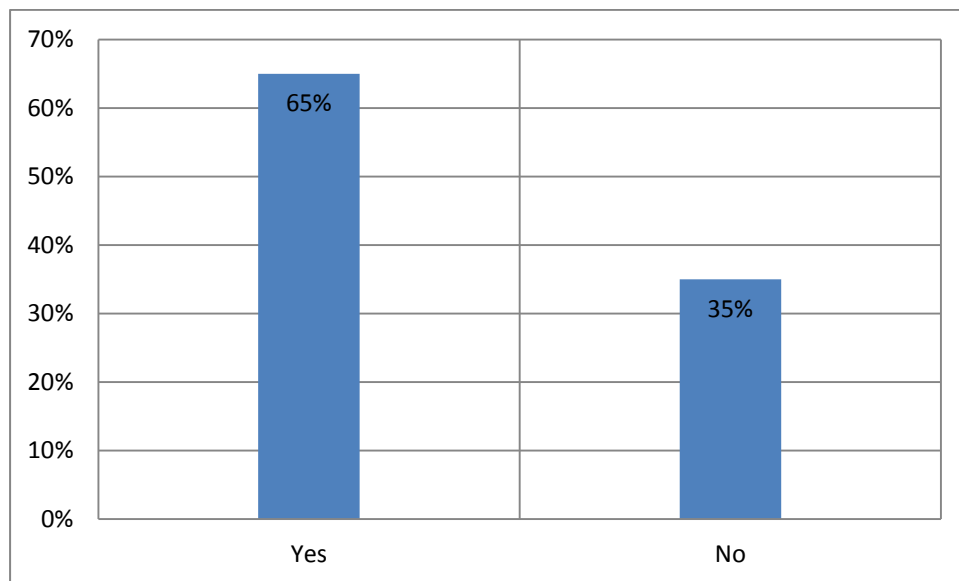
Here it was questionnaire survey that was used to evaluate household physical assets by people in the study area. For the sake of this study physical assets referred to tangible assets that the local people used to pursue their livelihoods. The main idea here was to look at the extent to which individuals possess some of these assets. Some of these household assets include houses, means of transport, mobile phones, access to internet services as well as water and energy. In a rural African traditional setting, a combination of some of these assets makes someone relatively wealthy. From earlier reports, it was observed that a lot of households had access to clean and safe water

sources from either the borehole or pipe borne though some still source water from a well and lake

4.7.1 House Ownership

To own a house is such an honorable thing for everybody as they are considered as properties and at the same time provide shelter for the local people and also show the richness of most families (Shen, 2009). When respondents were asked to state whether they owned a house or not, 65% indicated yes meaning they owned a house and 35% said no meaning they did not own any house (see figure 4.8)

Figure 4.8: Respondents' Ownership of a House (N=100)



Source: Fieldwork, 2014

On the other the results compared the ownership of a house and the respondents' occupational status and as shown on table 4.17, 26% of those working in the tourism sector, 38.2% of those in the farming sector and 35.3% of other sectors do not own houses. This category of people may be renting these houses or are lodging with relatives. However, 10.8%, 70.8% and 18% representing employees in the tourism sector, farming sector, and other sectors respectively owned houses. The results also revealed that there are no variations between those who owned houses and their main occupations. This means that ownership of a house does not depend on the occupation of the respondent since houses are equally important to all people.

Table 4.17: Ownership of Houses by Respondents' Occupation (N=100)

Occupation of respondent	Do you own a house/Percentage share	
	Yes	No
Tourism sector	10.8%	26.5%
Farming sector	70.8%	38.2%
Other sectors	18.4%	35.3%
Total	100%	100%

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

When respondents were asked to indicate the kind of houses they owned and the status of their occupation, almost half of the respondents classified as other sectors (42.9%) including public sector employees said their houses are made of cement

blocks with iron sheet roofing. The main reasons behind this could be that as public servants they are guaranteed a monthly salary and in addition to other income sources could afford to purchase construction materials like cement and iron sheets. It could also be that as a government worker, they have easy access to loans from the bank and so could afford the cost which averagely is expensive for the poor people in the area.

On the other side, the same number from those working in the tourism sector (28.6%) had cement blocks and iron sheet roof houses. Majority of those in the farming sector (73.9%) however, had mud with iron sheet roof, mud with thatch/grass roof (90.0%) and mud with soil roof (80.0%) houses (see table 4.18). These are considered as the less privilege or the poor who had no income to afford better housing and therefore use readily available materials like mud and thatch/grass. One public servant working at the survey department of the District Assembly remarked during an interview *“Because of my monthly salary and a small shop that I operate in town am able to build my own house where I am currently staying with my family”*. The study revealed a significance difference between the types of houses owned by the respondents from different occupations. This means that owning a kind of house is tied to the kind of work one does.

Table 4.18: Types of Houses and Occupation of the Respondent (N=100)

Occupation of respondent	Type of house owned/Percentage share			
	Cement block with iron sheet roof	Mud with iron sheet roof	Mud with thatch/grass roof	Mud with soil roof
Tourism sector	28.6%	8.7%	4%	0.0%
Farmer	28.6%	73.9%	92%	80%
Other sectors	42.8%	17.4%	4%	20%
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

The three communities were also asked to indicate whether they owned houses and the type of house owned if yes and the results are indicated in table 4.19.

Table 4.19: Ownership of a House and Type of House Owned by Community

(N=100)

Community	Statement		Total	Type of House Owned				Total
	Yes	No		Cement with iron sheet roof	Mud with iron sheet roof	Mud with thatch/grass roof	Mud with soil roof	
CCP Area	96%	4%	100%	70%	20%	8%	2%	100%
Nania	86%	14%	100%	46%	24%	20%	10%	100%
Zenga	66%	34%	100%	28%	57%	5%	10%	100%

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

104.3.2 Ownership of a Means of Transport

Personal observations and the survey conducted revealed that owning a means of transport is a part of life of the people in the study area. It forms part of the daily livelihood of the local people since it facilitates personal movement between and within villages, carting of goods and services and sometimes used for commercial or business purposes. The means of transport here referred to cars, motorbikes, trucks as well as bicycles. As much as 79% of respondents surveyed owned a means of transport and only 21% did not own any means of transport (see table 4.20). The result from the study indicated that 16.5%, 58.2% and 25.3% from the three main

occupations in the area respectively owned one or two means of transport (see table 4.20).

Figure 4.9: A Mud and Thatch/Grass Roof and Mud with Soil Roof House at Paga



Source: Fieldwork, 2014, self-eco-tours.com

However, when asked the type of means of transport owned across the three main occupations there were variations between the types of transport owned by respondents and their occupations meaning that owning a type of means of transport

depends on the occupation of the respondent everything being equal. For instance, among the respondents who owned the means of transport, in the tourism sector 20.0% owned cars, none owned a truck, 32.4% owned motorbikes and none owned a bicycle. For those in other sectors such as public sector employees, type of transport owned were as follows; car (60.0%), truck (0%), motorbikes (37.8%), and bicycles (8.3%) (See table 4.20). Those from the farming sector owned 20.0% (cars), 29.7% (motorbikes), and 91.7% (bicycle). A cursory look at the results also indicated that motorbikes were the most common means of transport among all the occupations; tourism sector (32.4%), farming sector (29.7%), and other sectors (37.8%). Bicycles however dominate the farming sector at a staggering 91.7%. The reason for this high number of bicycles among agricultural workers might be that bicycles are relatively cheaper and affordable costing less than 500 Ghana cedis. As tourism grows gradually at Paga, some young entrepreneurs have identified a business opportunity of hiring bicycles for tourists who prefer to do bicycle safaris around the community. The bicycles are also hired for anybody who wants to use them and the cost of hiring one is 5 Ghana cedis per hour. This small business has improved the economy and has increased their household income. The study identified one man who is engaged in this business near the Paga Chief Crocodile Pond.

Table 4.20: Ownership of a Means of Transport and Type of Major Means of Transport Owned (N=100)

Occupation of respondent	Do you own a means of transport		Type of means of transport owned			
	Yes	No	Car	Truck	Motor	Bicycle
Tourism sector	16.5%	14.3%	20%	0.0%	32.4%	0.0%
Farmer	58.2%	4.8%	20%	100%	29.7%	91.7%
Other sectors	25.3%	1.0%	60%	0.0%	37.8%	8.3%

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

In many rural areas in Ghana and the developing world in particular, cars are considered as a luxury livelihood means of transport and only a few individuals can actually afford them. Those who owned cars are considered financially well-off. The data indicated that 20.0% of those in the tourism sector owned cars, 20% in the farming sector and 60% in other sectors owned cars.

Results from the communities also showed some variations concerning the ownership of a means of transport and the type of transport owned with respondents from a high number owning one or two means of transport in their respective communities. 87%, 67%, and 80% in CCP area, Nania, and Zenga owned a means of transport respectively. However, 35% from CCP area owned cars and motorbikes seemed to be the highest type of a mean of transport owned across the three communities. As indicated in table 4.21, 55% in CCP area owned motorbikes, 60% in Nania, and 40% in Zenga owned motorbikes.

Table 4.21: Ownership of a Means of Transport and Type of Transport Owned by Community (N=100)

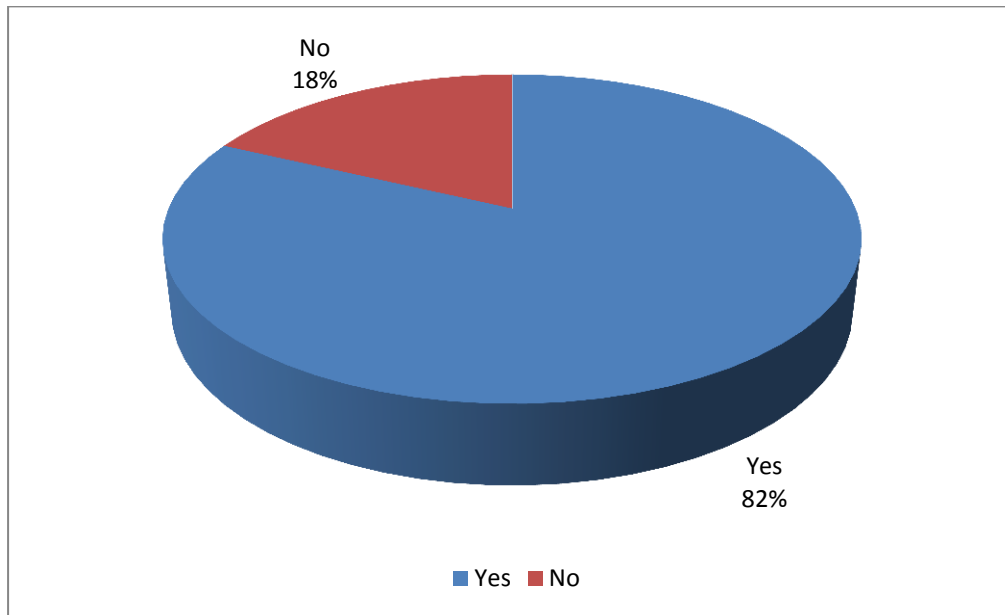
Community	Statement		Total	Type of Transport Owned				Total
	Yes	No		Car	Truck	Motor	Bicycle	
CCP Area	87%	13%	100%	35%	1%	55%	9%	100%
Nania	67%	33%	100%	8%	0.0%	60%	32%	100%
Zenga	80%	20%	100%	15%	0.0%	40%	45%	100%

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

4.3.3 Mobile Phone Ownership

In this globalized world mobile phones are fast becoming a norm and plays an essential livelihood asset because one can keep in touch with different people be it business or non-business purposes. Those were the days when landlines were the common means of communication. Mobile phones have come to replace them though a few are still operational for official use.

Figure 4.10: Do You Own a Mobile Phone



Source: Fieldwork, 2014

The results as shown in figure 4.9 indicate that majority of respondents surveyed (82%) owned mobile phones and just a small number (18%) did not own mobile phones. This shows how vital mobile phones are to the local people but when they were asked whether they owned mobile phones and the kind of work they did, the results did not vary significantly as shown on table 4.22.

Table 4.22: Mobile Phone Ownership (N=100)

Occupation of respondent	Do you own a mobile phone/percentage	
	Yes	No
Tourism sector	52.4%	0.0%
Farmer	19.6%	94.1%
Other sectors	28.0%	5.9%
Total	100%	100%

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

From table 4.22, the data indicated that majority of respondents, 52.4% (tourism sector), 19.5% (farming sector), and 28% (other sectors) owned mobile phones. The results also established that there is a significance difference among the local people of various occupations who owned mobile phones. This means that mobile phones are a matter of priority and not everybody could afford them no matter how valuable it was. About 94.1% of those in the farming sector did not own mobile phones. These were either people with low incomes to afford and run a mobile phone or they included those who were not interested in having one based on reasons not revealed during the survey.

The distribution of the ownership of mobile phones in the three communities was fair with each community recording a higher percentage concerning the ownership of mobile phones as indicated in table 4.23. Differences were however observed when respondents from the three communities were asked if they had access to internet

facilities with those from CCP area having the highest rate of internet services (80%) and Zenga community recording the lowest rate of 30% (see table 4.23). The reasons could be that those residing in the CCP area were better educated and so knew how to use these services. It could also be that there are internet facilities in this area like internet cafes and people could also afford computers with internet connections than the other areas who seemed less developed as compared to the CCP area.

Table 4.23: Ownership of Mobile Phones and Access to Internet Services (N=100)

Community	Do You Own a Mobile Phone		Total	Do You Have Access to Internet Services		Total
	Yes	No		Yes	No	
CCP Area	96%	4%	100%	80%	20%	100%
Nania	87%	13%	100%	40%	60%	100%
Zenga	82%	18%	100%	30%	70%	100%

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

4.8 Summary

This chapter discussed relevant issues that have connections with the objectives that were stated earlier in chapter one of this study. Demographic profile of respondents in the study area were discussed and specifics given as in age structure, gender, level of education and occupational status of respondents.

Rural tourism livelihood opportunities that are connected to the rural tourism industry also analyzed as part of objective one stated in chapter one which showed different

livelihood opportunities that are connected to the rural tourism industry that the people could engage in.

Some capital assets including financial, physical and social were also analyzed to ascertain if they contributed to the enhancement of rural livelihoods at Paga. The availability, access and possession of some of these assets were vital since the aid an individual to pursue livelihood activities.

CHAPTER FIVE

CONTRIBUTION OF RURAL TOURISM TO THE LOCAL ECONOMY AND SOME MAJOR CHALLENGES FACED

5.0 Introduction

This chapter looks at contribution made by the rural tourism industry at Paga to the local livelihood economy. Issues raised here included the major contribution of rural tourism concerning perceptions of local people on whether or not it has enhanced local livelihoods in terms of reducing poverty, creating local employment opportunities, linking the agricultural sector to the tourism industry, creating small businesses or diversifying the local economy.

Some major challenges facing the industry are also looked at concerning stakeholders of the tourism industry including tour guides, tour agents, tourism facilities and local authorities.

5.1 Local Livelihood Economic Enhancement

This part explored the opinion and perceptions of the local people about tourism related livelihood outcomes and how they have enhanced the local economy. They are grouped into economic, environmental, institutional and social outcomes as proposed by Shen (2009).

The issues discussed under economic outcomes included tourism and rural livelihood enhancement, tourism and poverty reduction, and tourism and job creation.

5.1.1 Tourism and Local Livelihood Enhancement

Respondents were asked if rural tourism development has improved their livelihoods and they were to indicate so by ranking their level of agreement on a 5-liket scale of Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Neither agree or disagree (N), Disagree (D), and Strongly Disagree (SD) and the results of which are analyzed in table 5.1.

Table 5.1: Tourism and Local Livelihood Enhancement (N=100)

Level of Agreement	Percentage
Strongly Agree	16%
Agree	40%
Neither agree nor disagree	5%
Disagree	30%
Strongly Disagree	9%
Total	100%

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

The results indicated that 16% and 40% of respondents strongly agreed and agreed respectively that rural tourism development had actually enhanced their livelihood whilst 30% and 9% disagreed and strongly disagreed (see table 5.1) that the local economy had been enhanced by the development of rural tourism in the area and only 5% were unable to take sides on the issue.

When asked to rank the same item by their various occupations, the results indicated a different view. Out of the total number surveyed, 43.5% in the tourism sector, 23.3%

in the farming sector and 41.7% from other sectors agreed that tourism did bring economic and livelihood enhancement benefits to them and the community at large (see table 5.2). For those working in the tourism industry, it has brought direct impacts in terms of personal income but for those working in the farming sector for instance, it has brought indirect impacts to themselves and their local economy. The reasons may be that those working in the tourism sector agreed that during the peak season a lot of money was in circulation. On this, one respondent remarked that: *“It is true that when you come to Paga during the peak season people are always smiling about because they have made some good money and everybody seems busy”*. Other respondents like farmers admitted that selling some of their produce to some tourism establishments had improved their economic status and their local economy and other respondents appreciated the financial support they get from friends and relatives working in the tourism sector. This means that no matter the occupation one is engaged in, tourism still had either a direct or indirect economic benefits.

Table 5.2: Tourism and Local Livelihood Enhancement by Occupation (N=100)

Occupation of respondent	Scale					Total
	SA	A	N	D	SD	
Tourism sector	12.5%	43.5%	6.2%	37.5%	0.3%	100%
Farmer	8.3%	23.3%	13.3%	43.3%	11.8%	100%
Other sectors	16.7%	41.7%	4.2%	12.4%	25.0%	100%

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

The study discovered some economic leakages going on in the area. Some cars were spotted carrying goods from Navrongo and Bolgatanga meant for the tourism sector at

Paga. The reason for this economic leakage could be that the local products were seen as inferior especially for foreign visitors or those they were not adequately available to meet the demand at the time. Several interviews with managers of some lodges revealed that majority of tour operators only use their facilities for accommodation purposes but always bring along their own food packs from other towns like Navrongo and Bolgatanga and that the only products patronized at the local market are traditional artifacts and guinea fowls.

Opinions of respondents from the three communities were varied on this issue since their levels of engagement in the tourism sector were also varied. There was an overwhelming support from those in Zenga community area that tourism had improved their livelihood with 26% indicating they strongly agreed to the fact that tourism has improved their livelihood and 28% (see table 5.3) indicated they agreed to the same issue. This is surprising since the CCP area attracts more visitors than the other two areas but the reason could be that majority of those working at the CCP area are from Zenga community.

Table 5.3: Tourism and Local Livelihood Enhancement by Community (N=100)

Community	Scale					Total
	SA	A	N	D	SD	
CCP Area	36%	18%	10%	20%	16%	100%
Nania	32%	18%	20%	30%	10%	100%
Zenga	20%	30%	20%	12%	18%	100%

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

5.1.2 Tourism and Improvement of the Local Economy

Tourism development has the potential to improve the local economy through its multiplier effects if properly planned and managed successfully. It can also aid the local economy to enhance its growth by diversifying it for instance from being predominantly agrarian. Respondents were asked to rate their agreement on a five likert scale ranging from strongly agree (SA) to strongly disagree (SD) on whether tourism development in the area can successfully drive the local economy and improve its economic base the results of which are summarized in table 5.4.

Table 5.4: Tourism and Improvement of the Local economy (N=100)

Level of Agreement	Percentage
Strongly Agree	20%
Agree	40%
Neither agree nor disagree	5%
Disagree	25%
Strongly Disagree	10%
Total	100%

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

The results indicated that 20% and 40% of respondents strongly agreed and agreed respectively that rural tourism development had actually improved the local economy whilst 25% and 10% disagreed and strongly disagreed (see table 5.4) that the local economy had been enhanced by the development of rural tourism in the area and only 5% were unable to take sides on the item. However, authors like Ezeuduji (2013) stated that tourism development in any destination area should reflect in the growth of the local economy but judging from this study the results are at variance with this

assertion. Authorities should therefore do more to make sure there are no or limited poor linkages with the local food industry of the local area in order to retain the proceeds to help the local economy grow which will also lead to more investment in the sector (Doohyun et. al, 2014). Care should be taken to prevent massive leakages out of the community because in most rural communities, resources are scarce or limited to support tourism development and in such circumstances the propensity to import goods and services is high (Sharpley and Ussi, 2012 cited in Pratt, 2015).

Table 5.5: Tourism and Local Economic Growth (N=100)

Occupation of respondent	Scale					Total
	SA	A	N	D	SD	
Tourism sector	18.2%	22.6%	10%	34%	15.2%	100%
Farming sector	45%	15%	10%	20%	10%	100%
Other sectors	36%	32%	10%	12%	10%	100%

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

The results indicate that 18.2% from the tourism sector, 45.5% from the farming sector, and 36% from other sectors strongly agree that the local economy can be improved and enhanced through tourism development in the area and another 22.6% (tourism), 15% (farming), and 32% (other sectors) (see table 5.5) agreed concerning this same issue. This is a strong indication that they have a very strong belief in the tourism sector can help drive the local economic growth. Their possible reason could be that since the area is predominantly agrarian in nature, giving the tourism sector

can help diversify the local economy hence help it grow. A community youth leader commenting about this issue had the following to say;

“People are now beginning to see that they can get money by engaging in the tourism sector and not just depend on farming alone. When visitors come here they spend a lot of money buying either food or drinks and this adds more money to the local economy. The local people in turn have the money now to spend on other domestic needs and the spread continues”

On the other hand 10% each from the tourism and other sectors and 80% from the farming sector were neutral on this item. What it portrays is that they were either not aware the existence of this situation or were not a position to say.

Table 5.6: Tourism and Improvement of the Local Economy by Community (N=100)

Community	Scale					Total
	SD	A	N	D	SD	
CCP Area	20%	27%	15%	18%	20%	100%
Nania	22%	18%	20%	20%	20%	100%
Zenga	26%	28%	10%	22%	14%	100%

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

On the issue of local economic growth, 22% of respondents from Zenga disagreed that tourism has improved the local economy of the area by citing the lack of proper road network in the area and other basic social services like schools and hospitals. A total of 20% and 22% from CCP area and Nania respectively however strongly agreed

that tourism has led to the improvement of the local economy of their respective communities as indicated in table 5.6.

5.1.3 Tourism and Poverty Reduction through Job Creation

It is a well-known fact that tourism plays an important role in reducing poverty by creating local employment (Goodwin, 2000; Ashley, 2006; Musasa and Mago, 2014). This study contradicts that of Kuuder and Manu (2012) when they reported from a study conducted at Sirigu (a nearby community in the Kassena-Nankana District) that 100% of all employees in the tourism sector were all locals but it agrees with Neil (199) that rural tourism creates local employment for the people in the form of tour guides, hotel/lodge workers, drivers and art sellers among others. When respondents were asked to state the opinion on this issue all respondents from the three main occupations; 32.7% (from the tourism sector), 30.9% (from the farming sector), and 32.4% (from other sectors) agreed that tourism in the area has reduced some level of poverty by creating additional jobs for them especially the youth (see table 5.6). This study mimics that of Muganda et al. (2010) because it was realized that tourism had created direct local job opportunities as taxi drivers and tour guides, positions in hotels, guesthouses, bars and restaurants, shops that provide cultural goods and services and for street vendors. Muganda et al. (2010) realized that indirectly, tourism had created more local businesses and other income generating projects as well as self-employment opportunities for the local people. These opportunities play a significant role in the fight against poverty in many local economies.

Table 5.7: Tourism and Poverty Reduction (N=100)

Occupation of respondent	Scale of Agreement					Total
	SA	A	N	D	SD	
Tourism sector	32.7%	30.1%	20%	9.9%	7.7%	100%
Farmer	30.9%	20.7%	20%	19.3%	9.1%	100%
Other sectors	32.4%	19.1%	20%	23.1%	5.4%	100%

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

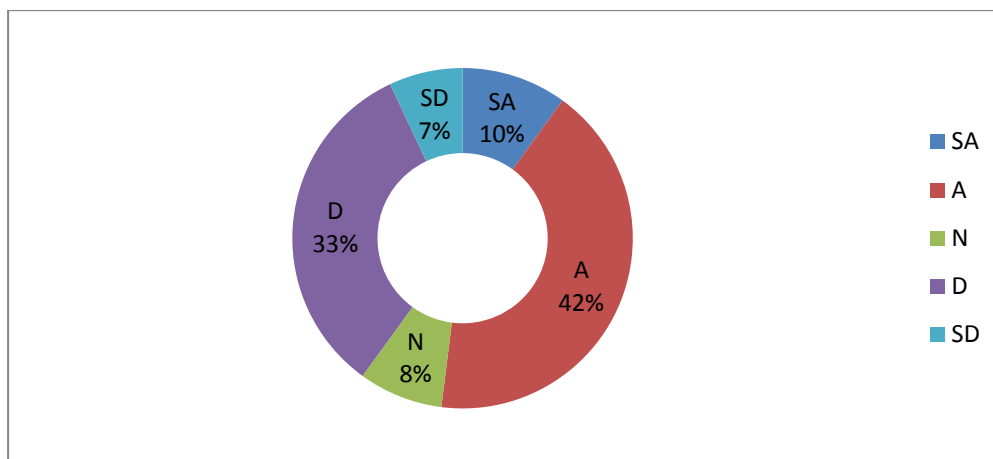
Interviews conducted revealed three (3) tour guides each for the Pikworo slave camp and the 5 crocodile ponds at Paga and it was revealed that all the tour guides were from the local area. The criteria for choosing a tour guide was through the educational level of the person, language competency (English, French, and Kasem; the local dialect). Another criterion was that a tour guide must have some connections to the royal family who controls the community tourism sites. The Ghana Tourist Board (GTB) at the regional capital at Bolgatanga organizes periodic training workshops for the tour guides on how to handle the tourists and local people.

Three (3) sites and a lodge (Kubs lodge) were contacted for an interview to ascertain the number of local employees at their outfits. Kubs lodge found some few kilometres from the chief crocodile pond granted an interview and it was revealed that in total there were 16 workers (10 permanent and the rest temporary). Out of the 16 workers, 10 were from the local area and the rest from other areas. The Pikworo Slave Camp

(PSC) had 4 employees; the Chief Crocodile Pond (CCP) had 7 employees, and 6 each for the remaining crocodile ponds. All of these employees are local indigenes.

Generally speaking, 10% and 42% (see figure 5.1) strongly agreed and agreed respectively that tourism can create local jobs in order to fight poverty.

Figure 5.1: Tourism and Poverty Reduction (N=100)



Source: Fieldwork, 2014

There were also variations among the three communities in the area with a total of 18 respondents representing 45% and 12 representing 30% (see table 5.8) from CCP area strongly agreed and agreed respectively that tourism had reduced poverty levels in the area. A total of 10 and 8 respondents from Nania and Zenga respectively representing 33.3% and 26.7% also indicated that tourism has reduced poverty in their communities.

Table 5.8: Tourism and Poverty Reduction by Community (N=100)

Community	Scale (%)					Total
	SA	A	N	D	SD	
CCP Area	18 (45%)	12 (30%)	1 (2.5%)	5(12.5%)	4 (10%)	100%
Nania	10(33.3%)	8(26.7%)	3(10%)	7(33.3%)	2(6.7%)	100%
Zenga	8(26.7%)	8(26.7%)	4(13.3%)	5(33.3%)	5(33.3%)	100%

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

5.1.4 Tourism and the Cost of Goods and Services

It is widely believed that tourism destinations are noted for where the cost of living is very high as compared to non-tourism destination areas. For instance, people easily believe that the cost of living in and around the Kakum National Park (KNP) area in the Central Region of Ghana is high as compared to other areas in the same Region.

Respondents from the three communities however did not seem to agree that tourism has caused the prices of goods and services to increase in their communities with 12 respondents from CCP area representing 30%, 13 respondents from Nania representing 43.3%, and 12 respondents from Zenga representing 40% (see table 5.9) disagreeing with the notion that tourism development has led to hike in the prices of goods and services.

Table 5.9: Tourism Development and Cost of Goods and Services by Community

(N=100)

Community	Scale					Total
	SA	A	N	D	SD	
CCP Area	8 (20%)	8 (20%)	5 (10%)	10(25%)	12(30%)	40(100%)
Nania	2(6.7%)	3 (10%)	1(3.3%)	11(36.7%)	13(43.3%)	30(100%)
Zenga	2(2.7%)	4(13.3%)	2(6.7%)	10(33.3%)	12(40%)	30(100%)

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

Table 5.10: Tourism and Cost of Goods and Services by Occupation (N=100)

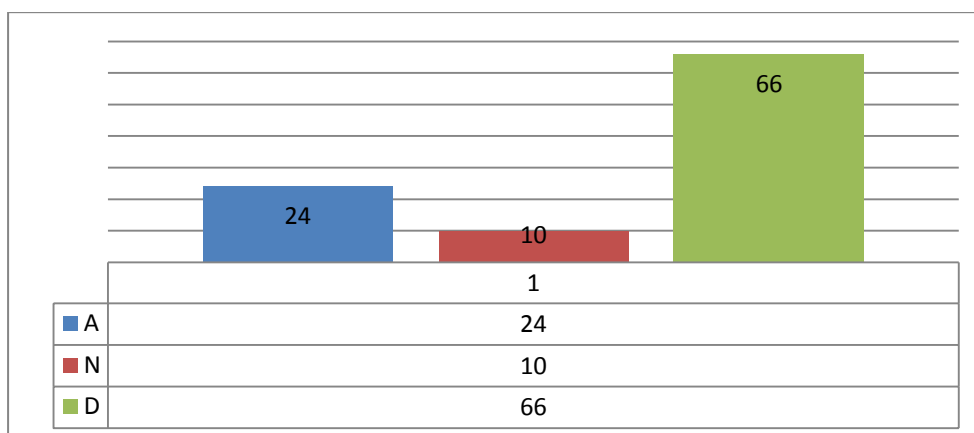
Occupation of respondent	Level of agreement			Total
	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	
Tourism sector	50%	40%	10%	100%
Farming sector	60%	30%	10%	100%
Other sectors	30%	50%	20%	100%

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

From table 5.10, the results indicated that there is no difference in the opinion among respondents and their main occupations. 50%, 60% and 30% of respondents in the tourism sector, farming and other sectors respectively agreed that prices have

increased because of the advent of tourism development at Paga. As one respondent commented *“Because Paga is one of the famous tourism destinations in the Upper East Region, prices of goods and services increase a lot during the peak seasons because they (service providers) believe that if the local people cannot afford them the tourists would”*. On the other hand some respondents as indicated in table 5.6 had their opinion that tourism is not actually the cause of the increase in the prices of goods and services at Paga. In one instance, a respondent remarked that *“The District Assembly, the Chiefs and the government have not been able to control prices of goods and services during the peak seasons and we do not have to place the blame on tourism development. Why does the increment only occur during the peak seasons? This means that it is intentional and the authorities should always step in to protect consumers”*. On individual basis, a lot of respondents disagreed with the assertion that tourism development in the area has led to the increase in the prices of goods and services (66%). Only 24% agreed on this item and 10% were neutral as regards this issue (see figure 5.2).

Figure 5.2: Tourism Development and the Cost of Goods and Services (N=100)



Source: Fieldwork, 2014

5.1.5 Tourism and Social Infrastructure

Basic infrastructure play a crucial role in developing the economy of a place and so good communication networks like roads can play an important in the lives of local people if tourism is well planned. Many peripheral areas in the world lack some basic social infrastructure development and this tends to isolate them from urban centres. This study again differed from that of Kuuder and Manu (2012) which showed that tourism development had led to the provision of infrastructure in Sirigu in the form of toilet facilities, boreholes, a community library, and a classroom block. Evidence from Paga indicates that these basic facilities were lacking in many areas of the community witnessed by only one ICT centre built in the community by a local living outside the community. This could mean that the Visiting Friends and Relative (VFR) type of tourism should be explored to unearth some of these contributions to promote the development of infrastructural facilities in the area.

Table 5.11: Tourism and Social Infrastructure Development (N=100)

Statement	Percentage
Agree	27%
Neutral	8%
Disagree	65%
Total	100%

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

When respondents were asked to indicate their statement of opinion on whether tourism development had brought about major improvement in infrastructure development and the kind of work they did, majority of them (65%) disagreed that it

had led to an improvement and only 27% alluded to the fact with 8% who remained neutral (see table 5.12)

Table 5.12: Tourism and Infrastructure Development against Respondents'

Occupation (N=100)

Occupation of respondent	Statement/percentage			Total
	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	
Tourism sector	62%	6%	32%	100%
Farmer	63.0%	27%	10%	100%
Other sectors	30%	50%	20%	100%

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

From table 5.12, some respondents (62%) in the tourism sector, (63.0%) in the farming sector, and (30%) in other sectors agreed that tourism has brought improvement to the existing social infrastructure. In support of this position one respondent argued that;

“It is true that because of tourism development in the area some improvement in social infrastructure like road networks. For instance, look at the road leading to the Pikworo Slave Camp (PSC). It was in a deplorable state for the past 6 years but now it is at least motorable though not tarred. This I think it is because the authorities wanted easy access to the camp that is why they decided to pave it nicely”.

Personal observation from the field indicated an area where a first class road built during the first republic president linking Ghana and its northern neighbor of Burkina Faso. It was also observed that the area was well-connected by the major

telecommunication networks; MTN, Tigo, Vodafone, Airtel and Glo (Limited areas). The presence of these developments in the area has been facilitated by the growth of tourism because people need to keep in touch with friends and families for many purposes. Some respondents who differed from the above opinion (see table 5.12) suggested that the developments were deliberate from the government officials and local politicians as one respondent remarked; *“It is the Member of Parliament (MP) of the area who came to converse for votes and during that period that some of these infrastructures were put up and not because of tourism”*.

Interviews conducted with the District Assembly revealed that they support the tourism sector in terms of infrastructure development. For instance, they do take periodic renovation of facilities at the Chief Crocodile Pond (CCP). They have financed the construction of a wire fence around the pond to ward off intruders including stray animals. But personal observations from the field showed that the supposed wire fence did not cover the entire pond area and some animals could be seen loitering in and around the pond. To this the authorities said they were not given enough funds so they do it phase by phase with their own Internally Generated Funds (IDFs). For facilities at the Pikworo Slave Camp, the least said about them the better. There were no washrooms and the only available one had its doors falling off and needed massive paint work and the visitor center (see figure 5.3) was no better. It was a single structure made of mud and a thatch/grass roof in which tour guides receive visitors and the area was not well demarcated so anybody could pass the other end and just enter the site. As an official from the site underlined during an interview;

“As you can see (pointing to where they receive visitors) this is the place where we come to work. When there is a rainstorm, we cannot sit here and we usually have to run to our various homes. Most visitors also complain about the poor condition of the

washrooms. According to them their privacy is at stake when they usually want to use them”.

Evidence from the field seemed not to support the idea of a fair distribution of social amenities in the three communities. Whilst it was observed that there were hospitals, cluster of schools both public and private, a tarred road, fine guest houses and lodges, and well renovated visitor centre at the CCP area, these facilities were non-existent at the other two locations. The CCP area has benefited from these facilities because of its proximity to the main town. At Nania, there was only one ICT centre that was sited, but the only visitor centre there was in a deplorable condition and the only two washrooms at the site were seen falling apart. As for Zenga, the least said about it the better. There were a few summer huts available and even those few ones needed massive renovation work. The results indicated that 18 (45%) from CCP area, 25(50%) from Nania, and 16 (53.3%) from Zenga disagreed that tourism has improved social infrastructure of their respective communities with only 16 (40%) from CCP area, 10 (33.3%), and 8 (26.7%) (see table 5.13) from Zenga agreeing to this item.

Table 5.13: Tourism and the Provision of Social Infrastructure by Community

(N=100)

Community	Scale			Total
	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	
CCP Area	16 (40%)	6 (15%)	18 (45%)	40 (100%)
Nania	10 (33.3%)	5 (16.7%)	25 (50%)	30 (100%)
Zenga	8 (26.7%)	6 (20%)	16 (53.3%)	30 (100%)

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

Figure 5.3: A visitor centre and washroom at Pikworo slave camp



Source: Fieldwork, 2014

5.1.6 Tourism and Access to Education and Healthcare Services

One of the most essential basic fundamental human rights is the ease of access to education and healthcare services by a population and this has received both national and international support over the years. In line with this argument the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) aimed at ending poverty and hunger, achieving universal education and ensuring child and maternal health among its goals (World Bank, 2010). Therefore, if carefully planned and properly administered the benefits that accompany rural tourism can help the government deliver on some of these promises by ensuring that local communities have access to these services. Questionnaire survey, semi-structured interviews and secondary data were used to gather information on the impact of tourism on access to education and healthcare services. During the survey, respondents were asked to rate their level of agreement if tourism development had resulted into easy access to healthcare and education services the results of which are summarized on table 5.14.

Table 5.14: Tourism and Access to Education and Healthcare Services and Respondents' Occupation (N=100)

OCCUPATION OF RESPONDENT	STATEMENT/PERCENTAGE			TOTAL
	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	
TOURISM SECTOR	62%	28%	10%	100%
FARMER	70.8%	10.2%	19%	100%
OTHER SECTORS	53%	27%	20%	100%

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

There were variations as regards the responses among the respondents in the various sectors. For example, some respondents (10% in tourism, 19% in farming, and 20% in other sectors) had their opinion that tourism is not responsible for improved local access to healthcare and educational services. Their possible explanation could be that the government is responsible for providing these services since it is their constitutional right enshrined in the constitution of the Republic Ghana. These people believed more on the promises given by the central government and local politicians especially during electioneering campaigns. One respondent even remarked this way;

“Access to healthcare and educational services is our constitutional right and need so we have and enjoy them because of good government policies and programmes that made this possible and not tourism. When tourism was not that particularly popular here we were enjoying these things so how do you now attribute these services to tourism development?”

While some respondents were neutral in their opinion, others agreed that tourist activities had led to easy access to healthcare and educational services. They include {(62% in tourism, 70.8% in farming and 53% in other sectors (see table 5.14)}. Their reasons could be that in the tourism sector there are mechanisms put in place for people to easily access some of these services. During the semi-structured interviews with the stakeholders it was revealed that their main source of funding came from donations by organizations and individual philanthropists. For instance a classroom block and an Information and Communications Technology (ICT) centre (see figure 5.4) was donated by Andre Dede Ayew (a renowned Ghanaian footballer who is a native of Paga).

5.1.7 Tourism and Educational Opportunities

This research tried to look at how tourism has influenced the availability of opportunities in the education sector for the local people. Educational opportunities used here implied how tourism development has provided a possibility for individuals to receive financial support in the form of scholarships and bursaries to be able to pursue studies at any level of education.

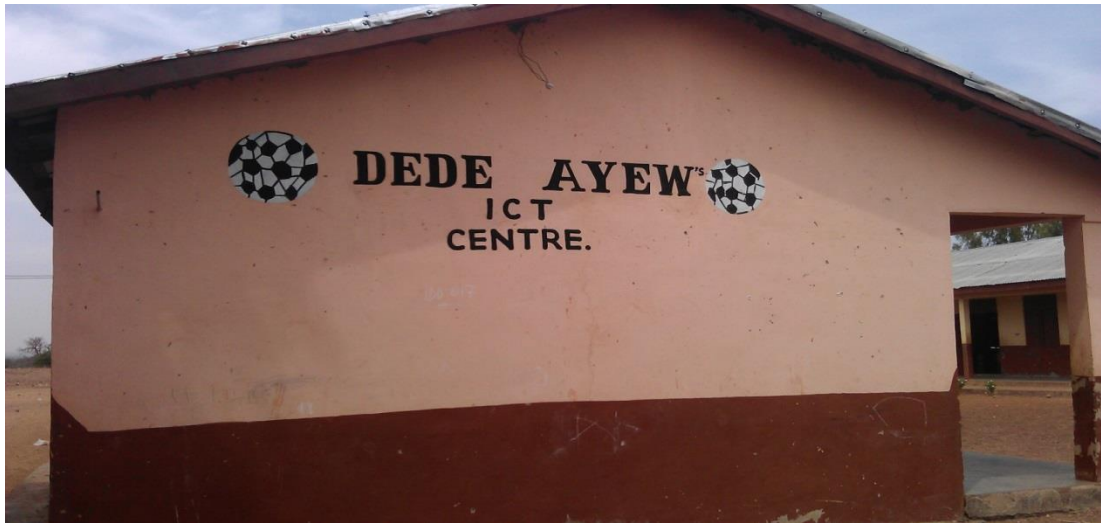
Results from the survey indicated that tourism did not generally bring in its wake any major educational opportunities for the local people in the three communities with 13 respondents from CCP area representing 32.5% agreeing that tourism development did provide educational opportunities for the local people in the area. The rest included 19 respondents from CCP area representing 47.5%, 20 respondents from Nania representing 66.7%, and 18 respondents from Zenga representing 60% (see table 5.15) indicating that they did not agree with this item.

Table 5.15: Tourism and Educational Opportunities by Community (N=100)

Community	Scale			Total
	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	
CCP Area	13 (32.5%)	8 (20%)	19 (47.5%)	40 (100%)
Nania	9 (30%)	1 (3.3%)	20 (63.7%)	30 (100%)
Zenga	10 (33.3%)	2 (6.7%)	18 (60%)	30 (100%)

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

Figure 5.4: Dede Ayew ICT Centre at Nania



Source: Fieldwork, 2014

The results from table 5.16 indicate that 63.7% in tourism, 63% in farming and 38.9% in other sectors agreed that there were educational opportunities available for the local people due to tourism development in the area. Tourism according to them involves interactions among different people and in the process some opportunities did arise. According to one respondent; *“A few of the local boys from the community recently had financial support from a group of American and Canadian tourists to study medicine outside Ghana. Their schooling had almost come to a halt because of the lack of funding until these tourists learnt about their plight and helped them. To me therefore, tourism development at Paga had made this possible”*. Some managers of hotels in the area also agreed to sponsor a couple of students in the senior high school. These are individuals who acting on humanitarian grounds decided to help brilliant but needy students in the local area.

Table 5.16: Tourism and Education Opportunities by Occupation (N=100)

Occupation	Scale			Total
	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	
Tourism sector	63.7%	28.6%	7.7%	100%
Farmer	63.0%	28.6%	8.4%	100%
Other sectors	38.9%	42.9%	18.2%	100%

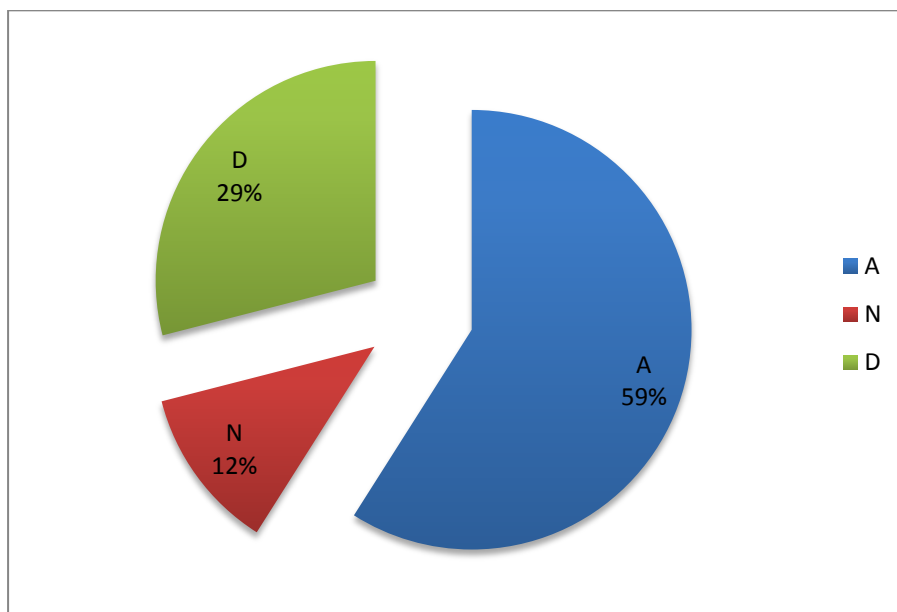
Source: Fieldwork, 2014

For those who disagreed that tourism had created any opportunities in education for the local people, it could be that they were not of the help from the foreign tourists or that some natives were helping brilliant but needy students in schools.

5.1.8 Tourism and Access to Information on Livelihoods

The availability of information in a community is an asset that people would use to the benefit of everybody so respondents were asked if tourism had made it possible for information to be available that they found useful in their livelihoods. The results revealed that majority of respondents surveyed (59%) found information that was useful because of tourism development. The rest were 29% who disagreed and 12% who abstained (see figure 5.5)

Figure 5.5: Tourism and Access to Valuable Information (N=100)



Source: Field work, 2014

Table 5.17: Tourism and Access to Information on Livelihoods by Occupation
(N=100)

Occupation of respondent	Statement(percentage)			TOTAL
	AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	
Tourism sector	63.8%	13.8%	22.4%	100%
Farmer	65.5%	33.3%	1.2%	100%
Other sectors	40.7%	33.3%	26%	100%

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

From table 5.17, the data showed that 63.8% from the tourism sector, 65.5% from the farming sector, and 40.7% from other sectors agreed that they have received some useful and important information that is valuable to their livelihoods because of tourism development in the area. Their possible explanation could be that tourism

involves working with different groups of people be it tour guides, tourists or tour operators and these actors give them information that is useful in pursuit of their livelihoods outcomes. For those who disagreed (see table 5.17), the reason behind their thinking could be that the media including newspapers, radio, and television and village gossip are their main sources of information and not tourism.

5.2 Socio-cultural Outcomes

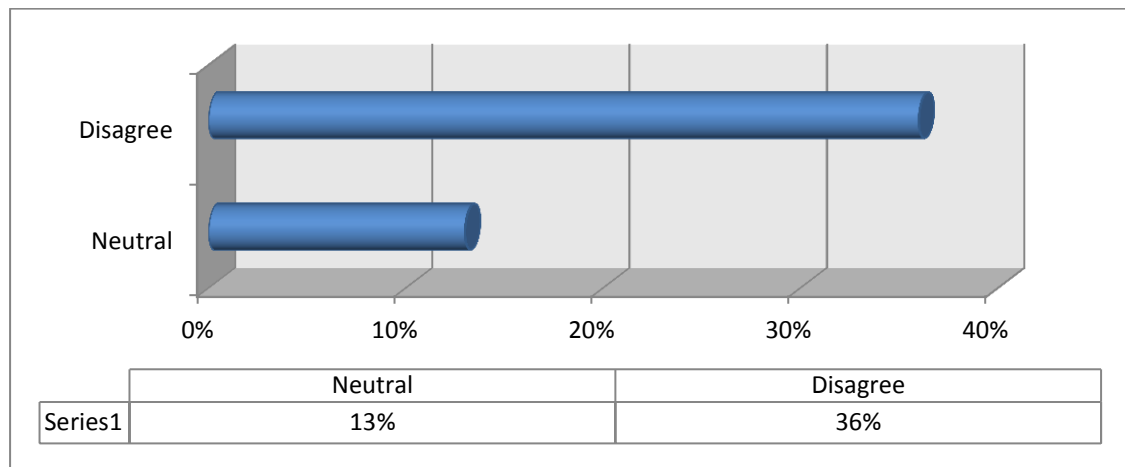
Socio-cultural issues are paramount when it comes to economic development since they either woo or prevent investment different sectors of the economy. Information here was gathered through questionnaire survey and the questions were designed to seek the opinion of local people concerning their social outcomes. They were asked to rank their opinion on this issue based on the statements provided if they agreed, disagreed or they were neutral.

5.2.1 Tourism and Social Vices (Criminality, Prostitution, and Alcoholism)

Social vices deter investors from doing business in any part of the world since security issues are always compromised and sometimes conflict can arise if these vices are not checked (Kim, 2007; Ratz, 2007; OECD, 2009). The issues tackled here included the levels of criminality like armed robbery and pick-pocketing, prostitution, and the abuse of alcohol

Generally the results indicated that more than half the respondents surveyed (51%) expressed worry over the spate of social vices in the community. The rest were 36% who disagreed and 13% who remained neutral over the issue (see figure 5.6)

Figure 5.6: Tourism and the Level of Social Vices (N=100)



Source: Fieldwork, 2014

Table 5.18: Tourism and Social Vices against Occupation of Respondents (Criminality, Prostitution, and Alcoholism)

OCCUPATION OF RESPONDENT	SCALE			TOTAL
	AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	
TOURISM SECTOR	62.2%	15.4%	22.4%	100%
FARMER	68.6%	22.8%	8.6%	100%
OTHER SECTORS	19.4%	53.8%	26.8%	100%

Source: Fieldwork, 201

As showed in table 5.18, 22.4% in tourism, 8.6% in farming, and 26.8% in other sectors disagreed that tourism actually influenced the level of these social vices in the area. Their possible reasons could be based out from a remark made by a respondent as captured below;

“Whether there is tourism or not if one wants to engage in either one of these social vices, he or she could do it. So to me it is not because of tourism but a personal decision that one can take”.

However, interviews with authorities at the District Assembly revealed a different opinion. A planning officer responded this;

“Because Paga is a transit point between Ghana and Burkina Faso, a lot of drivers and commuters do sleep over the town and they have the money to do whatever they want. There is therefore the possibility of luring the local girls into sleeping with them”.

Alcoholism: “Yes it is rampant in this community but not just because of tourism but I must say tourism has a significant say in this because after all tourism is all about fun and enjoyment during these occasional visits. It could also be caused by the fact that the people are poor and they find sanctuary in booze. People are depressed because of the poverty situation and sometimes it is the depression that causes them to take alcohol or the alcohol that fuels the depression. Either way it is still a bad habit”.

Criminality: “It happens once every year but I cannot link that to the tourism sector though coincidences do occur when foreigners are in town. You know this a community where everybody knows everybody except the foreigners besides there is a good policing system here because of the strategic location of the area as a border town so these incidences barely happen”.

Results from the three communities supported the above argument by the local authority official with 26 (65%), 24 (80%), and 23 (76.7%) (see table 5.19)

representing CCP area, Nania, and Zenga respectively indicating that they disagreed with this assertion.

Table 5.19: Tourism and Social Vices by Community (N=100)

Community	Scale			Total
	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	
CCP Area	12 (30%)	2 (5%)	26 (65%)	40 (100%)
Nania	4 (13.3%)	2 (6.7%)	24 (80%)	30 (100%)
Zenga	6 (20%)	1 (3.3%)	23 (76.7%)	30 (100%)

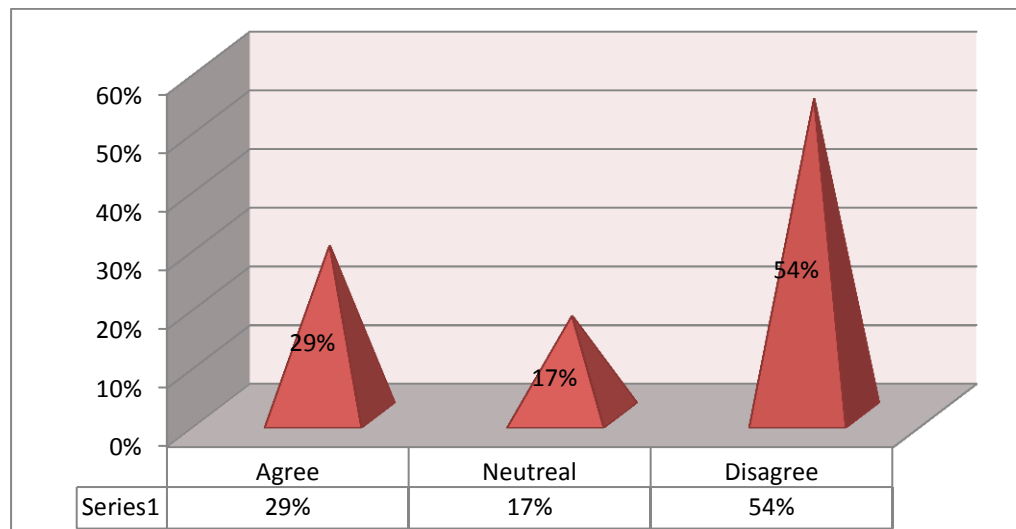
Source: Fieldwork, 2014

5.2.2 Tourism and its Influence on Local Tradition and Culture

Interacting with people from different cultural backgrounds is always associated with tourism activities as it is the case at Paga which is a famous tourism destination in the Upper East Region of Ghana. During these interactions one or more actors have the ability to influence the other in a certain manner which in turn can influence the kind development that would be undertaken at a particular place in time and local traditional beliefs and culture are not exempted from being influenced. Tourism in general is considered to be the single biggest key part of globalization and the effects of tourism and globalization on local tradition and culture have been hotly debated. Respondents were asked to rank and state their opinion on whether or not tourism development has negatively affected local tradition and culture and this has been summarized in figure 5.7

More than half the respondents surveyed (54%) disagreed that the local traditions and culture have been influenced by the development of tourism in the area with 29% having said they agreed and 17% remained neutral (see figure 5.7).

Figure 5.7: Tourism and its Influence on Local Traditions and Culture (N=100)



Source: Fieldwork, 2014

When asked to state their occupation and their opinion on the above item, the results varied as summarized in table 5.18

Table 5.20: Tourism and Local Tradition and Culture against Occupation of Respondent (N=100)

Occupation of respondent	Scale			Total
	AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	
Tourism sector	67.6%	9.9%	22.5%	100%
Farmer	66.7%	8.8%	24.5%	100%
Other sectors	44.1%	20.4%	35.5%	100%

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

As table 5.20 indicates, some respondents (67.6% in tourism, 66.7% in farming, and 44.1% in other sectors) agreed that tourism has negatively influenced local tradition and culture of the area. This attitude has largely been described as the creation of the global culture the homogenization of culture characterized by the unconditional movement of people especially tourists (see Featherstone, 1993 cited in Njole, 2011)). A lot of the people revealed that the situation has been exacerbated by the youth trying to copy the way of life of the tourists especially foreign ones. In doing this they become oblivious of their own culture. One District Assembly Official commented on this as follows;

“Now it is not uncommon for one to notice boys pulling their trousers down the waistline and ladies wearing bikinis (miniskirts) all over the place as if the area has a beach front attraction. To me as a traditional man, this is shameful and should be condemned in the strongest possible terms”.

However, cultural commercialization does not sometimes automatically erode traditional and cultural set up of a society (Virod and Sandeep, 2014). On a more positive note, tourists who have direct contact with hosts can work to foster cross-cultural understanding and can create avenues for the host community to widen their horizon. In fact fewer controllable numbers of tourist can play a positive role in host communities. A report by Stein and Anderson (1998 cited in Virod and Sandeep, 2014) in the USA city of Minnesota found out that the host community had improved its pride and authenticity, consistency, exchange of ideas, as well as outer world Some respondents especially those in the agriculture sector (24.5%) however disagreed on the above assertion. The reason could be found in the lamentations of one respondent captured below;

“Tradition and culture have rather brought us together as one people because of tourism. Now we try to showcase our culture when foreigners come here. Our way of dance, language and clothing and even our local food are now household names among foreigners because of tourism”.

The three communities of CPP area, Nania, and Zenga overwhelmingly disagreed that tourism has influenced the traditions and culture of the local people in any way. In fact half the respondents 20 (50%) from CCP area disagreed with this and 16 (53.3%) from Nania and 25 (83.3%) (see table 5.21) from Zenga said they disagreed that tourism development influenced the local tradition and culture citing similar statements above.

Table 5.21: Tourism and its Influence on Local Tradition and Culture by Community (N=100)

Community	Scale			Total
	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	
CCP Area	18 (45%)	2 (5%)	20 (50%)	40 (100%)
Nania	6 (20%)	8 (26.7%)	16 (53.3%)	30 (100%)
Zenga	3 (10%)	2 (6.7%)	25 (83.3%)	30 (100%)

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

5.2.3 Tourism and Communal Sense

Community togetherness fosters unity and stability of a community and affords development to thrive. Here, respondents were supposed to indicate their opinion on the level of communal sense due to the development of tourism in the area. Table 5.22

gives a summary of the results analyzed which showed no variation in the opinion of the local people on the issue. The data also showed that a slightly higher percentage (32.8% in tourism, 23% in farming, and 21.5% in other sectors disagreed that tourism development is responsible for an increase in communal sense in the area.

Table 5.22: Tourism has Led to an Increase in Community Solidarity Across the Main Occupations of Respondents (N=100)

Occupation of respondent	Scale			Total
	AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	
Tourism sector	54.7%	12.5%	32.8%	100%
Farmer	61.8%	15.2%	23%	100%
Other sectors	53.5%	25.0%	21.5%	100%

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

In general terms however, majority of respondents refuted the suggestion that tourism had increased communal solidarity in the community with 58% standing in that category, 34% agreeing and 8% neutral (see table 5.23)

Table 5.23: Tourism Has Increased Community Solidarity (N=100)

Statement	Percentage
AGREE	34
NEUTRAL	8
DISAGREE	58
TOTAL	100%

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

It is widely believed among respondents that this phenomenon had been in existence before the growth and development of tourism in the area as one community leader captured this in the following way;

“Most of the communal services that exist in this community have been instilled in us by our forefathers. In the past we used to be each other’s keeper so that when one faced difficulties all the others help out. It will therefore be inappropriate to say tourism has brought or increased this”.

Personal observation and interviews also revealed that the local language (Kasem) is the main language in the area and majority of about 99% of the population understands and speak it. It might therefore be right that this has brought the people together. Of all the respondents 14.7% in tourism, 61.8% in farming, and 23.5% in other sectors in table 5.22 agreed that tourism actually increased the level of communal sense in area.

However, when the researcher looked at the three communities and their views on the above item, only respondents from Zenga agreed that tourism development increased

community solidarity with 19 respondents representing 63.3% indicating their support for this argument. The rest including 20(50%), 19 (63.3%), and 9 (30%) (see table 5.24) from CCP area, Nania, and Zenga respectively disagreed.

Table 5.24: Tourism and Community Solidarity by Community (N=100)

Community	Scale			Total
	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	
CCP Area	17 (42.5%)	3 (7.5%)	20 (50%)	40 (100%)
Nania	9 (30%)	2 (6.7%)	19 (63.3%)	30 (100%)
Zenga	19 (63.3%)	2 (6.7%)	9 (30%)	30 (100%)

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

5.2.4 Tourism and Women Empowerment

As part of one of the social outcomes, the study looked at the opinion of the local people as regards the status of women empowerment as a result of the development of tourism in the area. The current study gives a differing view concerning women empowerment from that conducted by Kuuder and Manu (2012) which revealed that a high number of women were participation in the decision making of tourism development in Sirigu. This variation could be that the main tourist attraction in Sirigu is local pottery which is dominated by women but in Paga, the attractions are diverse and men tend to dominate in all aspects including participation and decision making. Respondents were therefore asked to indicate their level of agreement if tourism had improved the status of women of which the results were summarized in table 5.25. None from the tourism sector, 40% in farming sector, and 60% (see table

5.23) were neutral on this item. This means that they neither agreed nor disagreed. It could be that they were not aware of the situation or they were not in a position to stand.

Table 5.25: Tourism and Women Empowerment by Occupation (N=100)

Occupation of respondent	Scale			Total
	AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	
Tourism sector	63.0%	18.5%	18.5%	100%
Farmer	60.0%	40.0%	0.0%	100%
Other sectors	60.0%	20.0%	20.0%	100%

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

A look at the data on table 5.25 indicate that 18.5% in tourism, 0.0% in farming and 20.0% in other sectors disagreed that tourism has improved women empowerment in the area. These could those who see women as inferior compared to their men counterparts or could those rural women who have resigned their status to the kitchen or housewives and therefore could not protest that they are equal with men.

Several respondents (63.0% in tourism, 60.0% in farming and 18.5% in other sectors) however agreed that tourism development in the area has improved the status of women in terms of women empowerment. They had the notion that all humans deserved equal treatment and rights working in any sector including the tourism industry. When interviewed, the owner of a bicycle safari remarked as follows;

“Tourism has created avenues for women nowadays. Most women now own big restaurants and lodges here. Some are also involved in tour agency work. All these are because of tourism development in the area”.

While statistically the results indicate no significance difference in the local people’s opinion on the influence of tourism to the status of women, table 5.26, it indicates that the opinion of males and female respondents did not also vary on the same issue.

Table 5.26: Tourism and Women Empowerment by Sex of the Respondents (N=100)

Gender of respondent	Statement/percentage			Total
	AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	
Male	59.3%	12.0%	28.7%	100%
Female	50.7%	20.0%	29.3%	100%

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

The involvement of women in the tourism industry is still very low as evidenced from results from the three communities. All the communities indicated that women empowerment is still very low as expected with as high as 27 respondents from Zenga representing 90% disagreeing with the assertion that tourism development empowers women. In Nania, 22 (33.3%) disagreed and CCP area, 26 (65%) also disagreed with only 10 (25%) (see table 5.27) from the same area agreeing.

Table 5.27: Tourism and Women Empowerment by Community (N=100)

Community	Scale			Total
	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	
CCP Area	10 (25%)	4 (10%)	26 (65%)	40 (100%)
Nania	6 (20%)	2 (6.7%)	22 (33.3%)	30 (100%)
Zenga	2 (6.7%)	1 (3.3%)	27 (90%)	30 (100%)

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

5.3 Environmental Outcomes

Two main issues were discussed here concerning the opinion of local people on environmental related outcomes as a result of tourism development at Paga. They were again asked to rank their opinion if they agree, disagree or neutral on the statements provided.

5.3.1 Tourism and Attractiveness of the Landscape

Respondents were asked if tourism had made the local landscape look neat and their opinion did not vary. Majority of the respondents (23.7% in tourism, 25.7% in farming and 31.8% in other sectors) disagreed that tourism had made the local environment neat. Few of the respondents were either neutral or they agreed (see table 5.28).

Table 5.28: Tourism and Environmental Cleanliness against Occupation of Respondents (N=100)

Occupation of respondent	Statement/percentage			Total
	AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	
Tourism sector	58.0%	18.3%	23.7%	100%
Farmer	57.6%	16.7%	25.7%	100%
Other sectors	46.5%	21.7%	21.8%	100%

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

The possible explanation for agreeing could be that locals do not want their area to be seen as a dirty environment by foreigners and do from time to time undertake cleaning exercises. Other reasons as observed were the nature and manner in which the immediate environs of lodges, hotels, and restaurants were spotlessly clean. People would also want their environment to look same so they copy their behaviour.

At Zenga community area, 10 respondents representing 33.3% agreed that tourism development in the area made the local environment attractive by claiming that people are tasked to undertake clean-up exercises every month though patronage was low sometimes. Still at the same community, 19 respondents (63.3%) disputed that claim by also stating that tourism has not made any difference to the local environment in terms of its attractiveness. Other respondents made up of 31 (77.5%) from the CCP area and 20 (66.7%) (see table 5.29) from Nania agreed with the above claim.

Table 5.29: Tourism and Attractiveness of the Local Environment by Community

(N=100)

Community	Scale			Total
	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	
CCP Area	7 (17.5%)	2 (5%)	31 (77.5%)	40 (100%)
Nania	8 (26.7%)	2 (6.7%)	20 (66.7%)	30 (100%)
Zenga	10 (33.3%)	1 (3.3%)	19 (63.3%)	30 (100%)

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

5.3.2 Tourism and Environmental Pollution

Tourism can have tremendous impact on the environment negatively if done unplanned and uncontrolled way. According to Holden (2008 cited in Njole, 2011; Sunkar et al, 2013) noise, air and aesthetic pollution are some of the negative environmental consequences of tourism to the destination area. In this survey, respondents were asked to rank their level of agreement if tourism had resulted into environmental pollution. Here, the local environment area excluded those outside the main tourist sites. This was necessary because a few people visit the sites and might not be fully aware of what went in there. Interviews with tour guides and the local management revealed that they had serious pollution challenges guided by Limits and Acceptable Use (LAU) (Njole, 2011).

Table 5.30: Tourism and Environment Pollution (N=100)

Occupation of Respondent	percentage			Total
	AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	
Tourism sector	34.6%	28.4%	37%	100%
Farmer	32.0%	18.8%	49.2%	100%
Other sectors	24.0%	15.4%	60.7%	100%

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

As indicated in table 5.30, 37.0% in tourism, 49.2% in farming, and 60.7% in other sectors disagreed that tourism caused local environmental pollution. Their reason could be that people are careful of the possible outbreak of cholera and malaria so they do not intentionally pollute the environment. Their main concern was about air and aesthetic pollution. One shop owner commented on this as follows;

“Tourists in general are usually careful about pollution. For instance, when foreign tourists buy sachet water and after drinking, they ask for a dustbin to dispose them. The only problem we have here is about the local people whose attitude is different because they just throw rubbish anyhow”.

Those who agreed that tourism caused local environmental pollution justified their assertion by pointing to the nature of the crocodile ponds (see figure 5.8) which had been badly littered. One tour guide commented on this as follows;

“Inside the crocodile pond one can find a lot of wrappers and empty cans left over by visitors. Where do all these come from? Definitely they are for people who visit the pond”.

Figure 5.8: Animals Wandering Inside the Chief Crocodile Pond



Source: Fieldwork, 2015

Though some tour guides blamed the local authorities for not setting up rule and regulations and by allowing animals to enter the pond and defecate in it making the area not nice. Also indicated in table 5.28, several of the respondents were neutral as they were not in a position to either agree or disagree.

At the community level, all of the three disagreed that tourism caused environmental pollution in the community with many of the respondents as high as 28 (70%) from CCP area, 19 (63.3%) from Nania, and 20 (66.7%) (see table 5.31) from Zenga disagreeing on this item. It shows that pollution is not yet a major issue caused by the tourism industry in the area.

Table 5.31: Tourism and Environmental Pollution by community (N=100)

Community	Scale			Total
	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	
CCP Area	10 (25%)	2 (5%)	28 (70%)	40 (100%)
Nania	10 (33.3%)	1 (3.3%)	19 (63.3%)	30 (100%)
Zenga	7 (23.3%)	3 (10%)	20 (66.7%)	30 (100%)

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

5.4 Institutional and Policy Outcomes

There are some tourism organizations both public and private which are involved in the development of tourism at Paga. These include the Ghana Tourist Authority, the Paga Community-Ecotourism Project, lodges and a few other individuals. The study tried to look at how the local people participated and involved in decision making process concerning tourism development which affects their livelihoods and also reveal mechanisms put in place to ensure equitable and fair distribution of tourism related economic benefits.

5.4.1 Tourism and Local Participation in Decision Making

This research looked at the opinion of the local people concerning their involvement and participation in the tourism decision making process in the area. Respondents were tasked to rate their level of agreement or otherwise if they actively involved in decision making concerning tourism development in the area.

Some respondents were neutral regarding this item because they were not able to agree or disagree if tourism development in the area has encouraged local

participation in decision making process which in a way affects their livelihoods. They did not however indicate as to why they took this stance. A slightly higher percentage (17.6% in tourism, 57.4% in farming, and 25% in other sectors) disagreed that local participation and decision making has been encouraged due to tourism development as table 5.32 indicates. To them a few individuals who control the tourist sites take all the major decisions and sometimes with the District Assembly and locals are only informed of any final outcome. They also stressed that meetings concerning tourism issues are usually held in camera and the local people do not get to know what is going on until decisions are made and they need approval from the public. A retired educationist argued this way;

“The local people are always left wondering what decisions are made concerning tourism in the area. People are sometimes given only passive information. The authorities are normally concerned about the monetary rewards and when they need the local people to back their decisions they now see the need to inform us”.

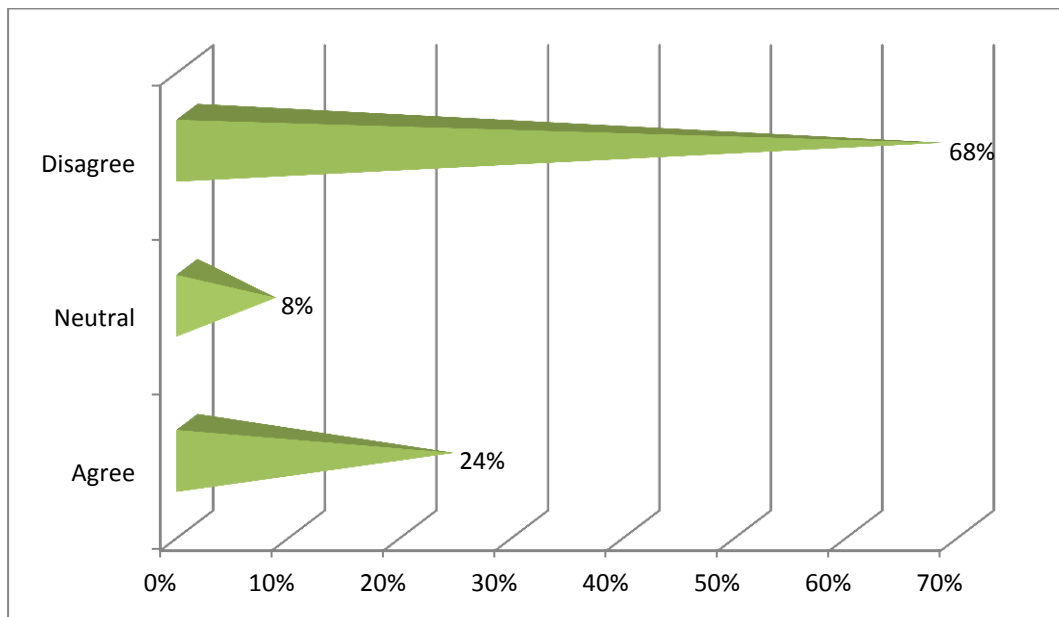
Some respondents also lamented about the fact that they were not involved simply because they were not working in the tourism sector.

Only a few respondents except those in the farming sector (70.8%) agreed that they are encouraged to take part in the decision making process regarding tourism development in the area. When asked to comment on how they take part in the decision making process, several of them indicated that the Chief through the assemblyman of the area convenes periodic meetings and everybody is encouraged to participate. An elderly woman had to say on this issue;

“I can remember they organize meetings every year to discuss issues about the tourist sites in this community. The problem is that majority of the local people do not attend

most of these meetings so how can they complain now that they are not involved in the any decision making process? Of course the authorities cannot go from house to house to organize these meetings”.

Figure 5.9: Tourism Development has Increased Local Participation in Decision Making (N=100)



Source: Fieldwork, 2014

Table 5.32: Tourism has Encouraged Local Participation in Decision Making by Occupation (N=100)

Occupation of respondent	Percentage			Total
	AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	
Tourism sector	32.5%	12.5%	35.0%	100%
Farmer	40.0%	10.0%	50.0%	100%
Other sectors	37.5%	15.5%	47.0%	100%

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

The study also revealed that there is no defined mechanism in place for involving the local people in any major decision making concerning tourism development in the area. Citing the recommendations by Zhao and Ritchie (2007), Muganda (2009 cited in Njole, 2011) argues that local community leaders must be involved in decision making process because it becomes cumbersome and time consuming for every single person to take part and he underlined this assertion in the following paragraph;

“The approach used by leaders to involve people in the decision-making process does not seem to be working well as local people do not feel involved. One barrier to this is that while leaders use village general meetings as venues for communication, receive feedback, and to collect people’s views on a particular issue, their attendance of ordinary people at such meetings is poor and erratic. This in turn, created ‘communication breakdown’ between the two groups so that it becomes hard for the people to air their views, get feedback from their leaders, and know what development issues there are in their area. This eventually creates poor coordination and a negative perception of generally, ‘not feeling involved’ ... (p. 196)”.

Concerning local participation in decision making among the three communities, the CCP area recorded the highest number of local people who participate actively in decision making with a total number of 16 respondents representing 40% who agreed that local people participate in decision making processes in the area. However only 10% of respondents in Zenga participate in decision making and about 33.3% from Nania agreed to this item. All the same though, participation across the three communities still fell short of expectations as showed in table 5.33.

Table 5.33: Tourism and Local Participation by Community (N=100)

Community	Percentage			Total
	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	
CCP Area	16 (40%)	4 (10%)	20 (50%)	40 (100%)
Nania	10 (33.3%)	5 (16.7%)	15 (50%)	30 (100%)
Zenga	3 (10%)	7 (23.3%)	20 (66.7%)	30 (100%)

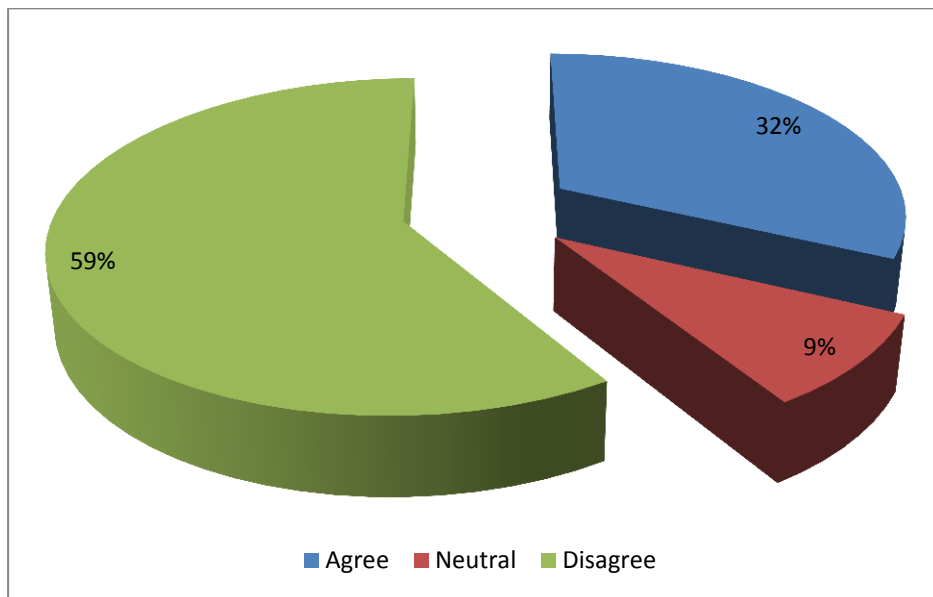
Source: Fieldwork, 2014

5.4.2 Tourism Development and the Distribution of Economic Benefits to Local People

As indicated in table 5.34, 16.9% (tourism sector), 59.3% (farming sector), and 23.7% (other sectors) disagreed there is a fair distribution of tourism related economic benefits among the local people. They reason could be that most of those working in the tourism sector are not from the community so any economic benefits generated are repatriated to their hometowns. It could also be that a few elite people who control the tourist sites and its revenue share or distribute it among themselves so the local people do not get anything from the tourism sector. In so far as economic benefits are concerned this was what one respondent had to say;

“Most of the hotels and lodges in the area are owned by people outside the community. Even majority of their staff are not natives so the wealth they generate from the tourism industry go back to their own hometowns and the local get nothing”.

Figure 5.10: Tourism Benefit Sharing is Fair (N=100)



Source: Fieldwork, 2014

Table 5.34: Tourism and the Distribution of Economic Benefits to the Local People (N=100)

Occupation of respondent	Scale		
	AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE
Tourism sector	32.6%	22.1%	44.3%
Farmer	39.4%	20.3%	40.3%
Other sectors	35.0%	2.0%	42.8%

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

A semi-structured interview conducted with a restaurant operator supported this claim because out of the 15 workers, 5 were from Navrongo, 2 each from Kandiga and Bolgatanga, 3 from Mirigu and the rest from the area. This goes to say that there was an economic leak in the tourism industry in the area

Several of the respondents remained neutral in their response to this issue (see table 5.34) while others agreed that the distribution of tourism economic benefits among the local people were fair.

Nania and Zenga communities recorded 66.7% each representing their level of disagreement concerning the sharing of economic benefits among the local people and a total number of 25 respondents from the CCP area representing 62.5% (see table 5.33) also disagreed. However, in the CCP area a slightly higher percentage of respondents 12 (30%) agreed as compared to the other two areas as shown in table 5.35.

Table 5.35: Tourism and Sharing of Economic Benefits by Community (N=100)

Community	Scale			Total
	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	
CCP Area	12 (30%)	3 (7.5%)	25 (62.5%)	40 (100%)
Nania	8 (26.7%)	2 (6.7%)	20 (66.7%)	30 (100%)
Zenga	4 (13.3%)	6 (20%)	20 (66.7%)	30 (100%)

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

5.5 Major Challenges Facing the Tourism Industry

There are certain challenges that any tourism industry face and Paga is no exception. As a rural tourism destination and still developing, it comes with a lot of issues that needs to be addressed. A questionnaire survey, semi-structured interviews, and personal observations were conducted to solicit the views of the local people concerning their opinion on the challenges that face this nascent industry. The survey

was conducted with stakeholders of the tourism industry in the area and the hosts (the local people of the area) since the assumption were that they might have differing views concerning this contentious issue. By stakeholders we mean the Ghana Tourist Authority, tour guides, tour agents and owners of lodges and restaurant or bars.

The result indicated that the major challenge of tourism development in the area was that there is inadequate marketing and publicity about the tourism potential of the area. For instance, in table 31, majority of respondents in the tourism sector (70%) indicated that there was a serious challenge of marketing Paga as tourism hub of the Upper East Region. For those in the tourism sector, their possible reasons could be that they are directly involved in the business and most of them do not even know some of the tourist sites apart from where they work. Again, it could be that how to even relate with tourists and the local people were poor and the area as a tourism destination had not had a fair representation in media outlets in the region. An owner of a guest house speaking about the lack of a marketing strategy had this to say during an interview:

“I have been in this business for over six years now and there has not been any advert in a newspaper or radio commercials about the tourism industry in Paga. This is killing the industry because as a business you need to market yourself for people to know what you are selling. My idea about the lack of marketing is not just about the lack of funds to do so but I think the local people and even the authorities have become complacent; assuming that everybody knows Paga as a place where there are friendly crocodiles. What we should think is that there are equally competing destinations all over the country and if you don't priority on marketing, then you will be left behind”.

Personal observation and checks supported this suggestion because though internet facilities are readily available, the area had no website on its own. This is a serious challenge especially for foreign tourists who would want to check on the web to grasp an idea about the products of the destination area before embarking on a trip. Most visitors would therefore rely on the word of mouth by those who have visited the area.

The next major challenge was the lack of coordination between the owners of the tourist sites and the District and Regional authorities. If the tourism industry is to prosper and its benefits realized, these actors must act in concert to realize the mandate of the destination as they strive to reduce poverty and enhance livelihoods through tourism. They should engage each other especially in planning, decision making and participation. A District Assembly official suggested as follows;

“The problem we have here is that those who run the tourist sites are separate from the District Assembly. They always argue that it is for the community so they would not want an outsider dictating to them how they should operate their business. What they failed to understand is that the assembly is equipped with some resources and skills to help them develop the area. For instance, revenue generated from the tourism sector goes to individual pockets without reinvestment. Again if they would allow the Assembly to step in, we will set up some rules and regulations concerning the usage of the Chief Crocodile Pond. As you can see people think it is a community common property so even animals are allowed inside making the place unattractive. I tell you if this trend continues we will experience the tragedy of the commons soon”.

Majority of respondents (60% in tourism, 30% in farming, and 10% in other sectors) as table 5.36 indicates thought pollution is another challenge facing the tourism industry whilst the same number of respondents (40%) each from the tourism and

farming sectors said there was no proper training for workers of the tourism industry especially tour guides.

Table 5.36: Major Challenges Facing the Tourism Industry

Occupation of respondent	Major challenge facing the tourism industry				
	Inadequate marketing	Lack of coordination	Inadequate training and education	Lack of facilities	Pollution
Tourism sector	70%	45%	50%	80%	30.0%
Farmer	10%	5%	10%	10%	30.0%
Other sectors	20%	50%	40%	10%	40.0%
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

Going each community it was realized that they had different challenges they face with pollution the major challenge in the CCP area where 12 (30%) of the respondent expressed dissatisfaction. In Nania, lack of marketing and inadequate facilities seemed to be their major challenge with about 8 (26.77%) saying there is lack of marketing of the site as a tourism attraction and the same number of respondents also stating there were inadequate facilities At the site (see table 5.36). In Zenga, lack of marketing, inadequate training and education of tour guides, and inadequate facilities received the same attention and was earmarked by the respondents as a major challenge facing the tourist site there (see table 5.37)

Table 5.37: Major Challenges Facing the Tourism Industry by Community (N=100)

Community	Major Challenge					Total
	Marketing	Coordination	Training and education	Facilities	Pollution	
CCP Area	6(15%)	8(20%)	8(20%)	6(15%)	12(30%)	40(100%)
Nania	8(26.7%)	4(13.3%)	8(26.7%)	8(26.7%)	4(13.3%)	30(100%)
Zenga	8(26.7%)	2(6.7%)	8(26.7%)	8(26.7%)	4(13.3%)	30(100%)

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

5.8 Summary

The chapter discussed issues concerning tourism development and the improvement or the enhancement of the local economy of Paga as spelt out in chapter one of the research which was objective two of the study

The chapter looked at some the livelihood opportunities that were connected to the tourism industry and how some the people take advantage of those opportunities to enhance their livelihoods

Financial capital comprising individual's monthly incomes were assessed to determine how local people performed in terms of their income generation. Ownership of assets was also taken into consideration to determine if people actually possess and own some of these assets which they could use to pursue livelihood opportunities.

The tourism industry was also analyzed to get a fair idea as to whether it improved the local economy in terms of job creation, business opportunities, diversification of the

agricultural sector among others. Socio-logical issues especially criminality, prostitution, and alcoholism were also looked at.

Environmental and policy issues were used to assess if there were issues concerning the environment that needed to be looked at. In this case the neatness of the local environmental landscape and pollution were looked at. Local participation in decision making and women empowerment elements used to form part of the policy and institutional debate.

Finally, some major challenges facing the tourism industry were revealed and subsequently analyzed. They ranged from lack of marketing, inadequate facilities, inadequate training and education especially for tour guides and those engage directly in the industry, insufficient coordination between the owners of the tourist resources and the relevant authorities like the District Assemblies.

CHAPTER 6

SUMMARY OF KEY FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.0 Introduction

Tourism is considered one of the fastest growing sectors in the world and has continued to be the focus for socio-economic development in many countries. In the Upper East Region of Northern Ghana, Paga is noted for the Crocodile sanctuary. It is among the most popular tourist destinations in the Region. This research was conducted at Paga concentrating on the main tourist sites targeting the crocodile ponds and the Pikworo slave camp. The study aimed at understanding the influence of tourism on the enhancement of rural livelihoods in the area. As argued by the advocates of millennium development goals (MDGs) 1 and 7, if carefully and properly planned and managed, tourism can be a positive tool for poverty alleviation, local and regional social-economic development and rural livelihood enhancement.

6.1 Summary of Key Findings

Based on a survey carried out in 100 households, this study identified farming or agriculture as the main livelihood economic activity in Paga with 73.3% of the local area engaged in farming of especially millet, maize, rice, and tomatoes including a small number of farmers who are into animal and poultry. The presence of natural and cultural resources in the area make the tourism sector another important livelihood activity which provides employment opportunities to nearly 15.1% of the local people working in campsites and lodges, tour guiding, bar/restaurant operators as the major areas of the local people's involvement in tourism and 9.6% of the local populations are working in other sectors including the public sector.

The research findings established that on average every household has three people (household labourers) engaged in income generating activities and that many households were made up of at least two people. A large number of the local residences, especially those in the farming sector, had a primary school level of education. Those in the public and tourism sectors had a relatively high level of education especially high school and college education.

The study revealed that both tourism and non-tourism related activities were perceived equally important in influencing the livelihood access to educational and basic health services. However, tourism is perceived to have increased the social network to a large number of the people, especially those working in the tourism and public sectors in terms of the number of people they know and been connected to worldwide.

Tourism related establishments like campsites and lodges have also played a role in improving infrastructure and local people's access to health and education services. The study also revealed that several people especially those working in tourism industry has received educational opportunities from tourists and individual Philanthropists in the area.

Financially it was revealed that farming contributed the least of individual monthly income, while the tourism sector contributed slightly higher in individual monthly incomes with the majority of employees in tourism sector (40%) earning between 1000 and 2000 Ghana cedis per month. This amount of money is relatively high compared to the monthly salary earned by some of the lowest paid public sector employees in Ghana. However, it is worth remembering that income from agriculture and tourism depends on the seasons. The research findings established that the majority of the local people have their own houses, means of transport and own

mobile phones although the types of these physical assets varied among different occupation sectors. It is worth realizing that while all people who are working in tourism and public sector who own houses have their houses made up of cement blocks and iron sheet roofs. There was a variation in the types of houses owned by other local people working in other sectors especially agriculture.

Although media like television, radio, magazines, and internet played a big role for the locals in getting valuable livelihood information, it was also realized that tourism sector employees especially drivers and local guides also played a significant role in this.

Almost every household surveyed have access to clean and safe water. While some local people depend on firewood and charcoal as their main sources of energy used for cooking, others depend on wood material for constructing their houses. However, it was realized from the study that only natural resources accessible to the local people are those found outside the tourists' sites as no consumptive utilization is allowed for the resources found within the sites. Therefore, tourism development has not influenced the local people's access to natural resources found within the tourists' sites. Tourism is perceived to bring economic benefit for the community and households level. The sector is credited for provision of employment and job opportunities especially to young local people who are working as full time or casual labourers in the sites and lodges, or as tour guides. Those working in the tourism sector receive direct economic and financial benefits like salary, tips or the money paid by tourists upon purchase goods and services. Tourism also has an indirect economic contribution even to those not working in the sector. For instance, this study revealed a high money circulation in the peak tourism season as compared to low season. However, it was realized that tourism and other factors like the failure of the

government to control prices as well as the global economic crisis has been responsible for the increase in prices of goods and services at Paga.

Socio-culturally the research findings established that apart from tourism there are several other factors like personal behaviour and poverty which accounted for increased levels of prostitution, criminality and alcoholism in the area. However, based on the reports from the local authorities the level of criminality was found to be low as compared to prostitution and alcoholism because of community policing and strategic positioning of the study area. It was further observed that tourism is responsible for negatively affecting the local culture especially when the local people decides to copy the western style of living and abandoning their traditional lifestyle. Meanwhile, tourism was also credited for strengthening local culture especially when the locals preserve their cultural integrity and identity in order to attract more tourists. Although tourism was appreciated for being responsible in increasing communal sense among the people working in the sector, the kasem language was recognized to have played a major role in increasing communal sense. The study also revealed in some cases tourism is perceived to have improved and in other cases has downgraded the status of women although the majority of local people were not aware of the impact of tourism on the empowerment and status of women.

The research findings revealed that tourism is perceived to have increased the neatness of the local environment, and did not cause the pollution of the local environment although in several occasions it creates noise pollution. While local people didn't feel like they were involved in decision making regarding tourism development, the study revealed that they were represented in the process by either their leaders or the committee selected by them. The study also revealed that the

perception of the majority of local people was that there was no fair distribution of tourism related economic benefits among them.

Lastly the study identified several factors such as drought and global climate change, seasonality of tourism, global economic crisis. These factors were found to be out of control by actors and threaten the entire tourism industry and in turn livelihood conditions of the local people at Paga.

The research has made an important practical contribution to understanding rural tourism in Ghana, particularly in relation to the key concepts discussed in this research linking rural tourism and the enhancement of rural livelihoods. The findings and recommendations of this research are expected to be useful to policy-makers, academicians, and other key players in terms of the priority areas needing urgent attentions if rural tourism has to positively contribute to sustainable enhancement of local livelihood. Although the study was limited to Paga, it is expected that the findings can be used and applied in other destinations in the country. Finally it is the hope of the author that the study will contribute to further research.

6.2 Conclusions

The current study concludes that sharing revenue and benefits derived by tourism, the improvement of the local economy through rural tourism development, the improvement and enhancement of local livelihoods and the support of the local authorities towards rural tourism development in Paga will lead to an increased the peoples' support for rural tourism development and enhance their livelihoods and the local economy. This overall indicates that tourism development in Paga has the potential to contribute positively towards sustainable local livelihood.

6.3 Recommendations and Avenues for Future Research

The study recommends the following measures for positive effects to be realized from the tourism industry in Paga.

1. The authorities involved in the Paga eco-tourism project should make conscious efforts to actively involve the local people in decision-making concerning tourism development in the area. This would propel all and sundry in the community to identify some opportunities in the tourism sector that will help them to diversify their livelihood opportunities.
2. There should be a policy or mechanism for tourism benefit sharing among the local people. It was realized from the study that most people were disenchanted by the lack of benefits trickling down to them which to them could improve their household livelihood incomes.
3. Moreover, there is the need to establish a system that can check the leakage of tourism generated income from the community which makes the area impoverished despite the huge rural tourism potential of the area. This can be done effectively by encouraging farmers in the community to produce and sell products suited for the industry. It will go a long way to diversify their livelihoods and also generate an additional income for them.
4. In addition, the District Assembly should take steps to create awareness for the need to coordinate with the Paga eco-tourism project officials. This will help the assembly provide expertise which is vastly lacking with those taking care of the project. The assembly should step up aid in the form of infrastructure development especially at the main tourist attraction sites.

The study was mainly based on the perception of local people on how tourism contributes to sustainable local livelihood and the enhancement of livelihoods of the

people. Therefore, an empirical study is needed to know the real issues facing the people and to know the extent of it in the community and if possible how to measure that extent.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1: HOUSEHOLD QUESTIONNAIRE

I am a student of the University of Ghana, Legon. I am undertaking a research into 'Rural Tourism as a Means of Enhancing Rural Livelihoods at Paga' towards the partial fulfillment of the Master of Philosophy Degree.

You are kindly entreated to complete this questionnaire and return to me as soon as possible. Your timely response to the questionnaire is necessary and essential for me to conclude this research in time.

Information provided here would be treated confidentially in accordance with the ethical considerations of all research activities. As a researcher, I will protect your privacy at all times and the findings will only be used for the purpose of this study.

ROBERT AYAMGA (Researcher).....

DATE.....

PART ONE: DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

Please respond to the following questions by circling or filling in appropriately

1. Gender (a) Male (b) Female
2. Age (a) 15-20 (b) 21-25 (c) 26-30 (d) 31-35 (e) 36 and above (f) cannot disclose
3. Level of education (a) Primary (b) JHS (c) SHS (d) Tertiary (e) None
4. Marital status (a) Married (b) Single (c) Divorced (d) Widow
5. Occupation and employment status (a) working (b) not working (c) retired
6. What is your main occupation?.....

7. What are your other sources of income.....
8. Are those other sources of income mentioned above related to tourism? (a) Yes (b) No
9. If yes which ones are they.....
10. Any previous occupation? (a) Yes (b) No
11. If yes which ones were they.....
12. Have you ever migrated? (a) Yes (b) No
13. If yes have you returned with some new ideas for the tourism industry and have these new ideas helped you?.....
14. Do you have any household member working in the tourism sector (a) Yes (b) No
15. What kind of livelihood activities influences the household skills and level of education (a) Tourism related activities (b) Non-tourism related activities (c) Both
16. What livelihood activities influence the household access to basic health services (a) tourism related activities (b) Non-tourism related activities (c) Both
17. How many labourers are there in your household.....
18. Do you think tourism has increased your social network in terms of the number of people you know and connected to them? (a) Yes (b) No (c) I don't know
19. Are you a member in any non-tourism related organization (a) No (b) I don't know (c) Yes(mention them.....
20. Are you a member in any tourism related organization (a) No (b) I don't know (c) Yes (please go to qn. 21)

21. What are the advantages of being a member in the organization.....
22. Do you own a transport (a) No (b) Yes (please go to qn. 23)
23. What type of transport do you own (a) car (b) truck (c) motorbike (d) Bicycle
24. What is the estimated value of your transport (a) less than 500 cedis (b) between 500 and 1000 cedis (c) between 1000 and 1500 cedis (d) above 1500 cedis
25. Do you own a house (a) No (b) Yes (please answer qns. 26 and 27)
26. What type of house do you have (a) Cement block with iron sheet roof (b) mud with iron sheet roof (c) mud with grass/thatch roof (d) Mud with soil roof (e) Other (please explain.....)
27. Does your house or the one you are living in have electricity (a) No (b) Yes
28. If yes how much electricity bill do you pay per month (a) less than 20 cedis (b) between 20 and 30 cedis (c) above 30 cedis
29. Do you have access to clean and safe water (a) Yes (b) No (if yes go to qn. 30)
30. Where do get your water from (a) well (b) borehole (c) Pipe borne (d) lake (e) Other please specify.....
31. What type of energy do you use for cooking (a) fuel wood (b) charcoal (c) electricity (d) Gas (e) kerosene (f) other (please specify.....)
32. Do you own a mobile phone (a) No (b) Yes (please go to qn. 33)
33. What is its value (a) less than 50 cedis (b) between 50 and 100 cedis (c) more than 100 cedis
34. Do you have access to internet facilities (a) No (b) Yes (please answer qn. 35)

35. From where do access your internet services (a) Mobile phone (b) internet café (c) connection from my pc (d) office where I work
36. Do you possess any other household assets (a) No (b) Yes (please go to qn. 37)
37. Do you think your possession of the above assets is related to tourism (a)No (b) Yes (c) I don't know
38. What is your average monthly income (a) less than 500 cedis (b) between 500 and 1000 cedis (c) between 1000 and 2000 cedis (d) above 2000 cedis
39. What is the average total household monthly income (a) less than 1000 cedis (b) between 1000 and 2000 cedis (c) between 2000 and 3000 cedis (d) above 3000 cedis
40. Do you save money (a) No (b) Yes
41. If yes what is the average annual household savings (a) less than 2000 cedis (b) between 2000 and 4000 cedis (c) between 4000 and 6000 cedis (d) above 6000 cedis
42. What is the annual income from tourism related activities (a) less than 1000 cedis (b) between 1000 and 2000 cedis (c) between 2000 and 3000 cedis (d) above 3000 cedis
43. What is the annual income from non-tourism related activities (a) less than 1000 cedis (b) between 1000 and 2000 cedis (c) between 2000 and 3000 cedis (d) above 3000 cedis
44. Do you take loan from the bank or other people (a) No (b) Yes (please go to qn. 45)
45. What is an estimated amount (a) less than 1000 cedis (b) between 1000 and 2000 cedis (c) between 2000 and 3000 cedis (d) above 3000 cedis
46. Do you have any other means of getting money (a) No (b) yes (mention them)

47. If you are not working in the tourism industry do you think tourism has indirectly impacted your livelihood (a) Yes (please answer qn. 48) (b) No (c) I don't know

48. In what ways do you think tourism has influenced your livelihood.....

PART B: LOCAL PERCEPTIONS TOWARDS TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

49. To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements about tourism.

Place a cross (x) in the appropriate box.

Codes						
SA=Strongly Agree; A=Agree; N=Neither Agree nor Disagree; D=Disagree; SD=Strongly Disagree						
No.	Statements	S	A	N	D	S
		A				D
49. 1	Tourism in Paga can empower local people to manage resources					
49. 2	Tourism can create a number of development synergies to help reduce poverty through job creation					
49. 3	Tourism development in Paga offers labour intensive and small scale business opportunities					
49. 4	Tourism accommodation, transportation and restaurant services can generate employment					
49.	Tourism development in Paga can drive the local economic					

5	growth					
49. 6	Tourism development in Paga can diversify the local economy					
49. 7	Tourism can be a major player in combating the menace of poverty in the area					
49. 8	Tourism development can expand the local economic base of Paga through its linkages with agriculture					

Please rate the level of your agreement with the items using the following 3 scale criteria (**1= agree or yes, 2=neutral, 3=disagree or no**)

50. Tourism brings more economic benefits to the households and community level (a) 1 (b) 2 (c) 3 comments.....

51. Tourism has diversified household and community livelihood choices and opportunities (a) 1 (b) 2 (c) 3 comments.....

52. Tourism development has created more job opportunities for the local community (a) 1 (b) 2 (c) 3 comments.....

53. Tourism development has resulted into increased prices of goods and services (a) 1 (b) 2 (c) 3 comments.....

54. Tourism development has resulted into better social infrastructure (a) 1 (b) 2 (c) 3 comments.....

55. Tourism development has resulted into more availability of educational opportunities (a) 1 (b) 2 (c) 3 comments.....
56. Tourism development has resulted into more educational opportunities (a) 1 (b) 2 (c) 3 comments.....
57. It is easier to access information valuable to our livelihoods because of tourism development (a) 1 (b) 2 (c) 3 comments.....
58. Tourism development has increased the level of social vices (a) 1 (b) 2 (c) 3 comments.....
59. Tourism development has negatively influenced local tradition and culture (a) 1 (b) 2 (c) 3 comments.....
60. Tourism development has increased communal sense (a) 1 (b) 2 (c) 3 comments.....
61. People has become less trusting because of tourism development (a) 1 (b) 2 (c) 3 Comments.....
62. Tourism development has caused a lot of people to immigrate to our community (a) 1 (b) 2 (c) 3 comments.....
63. Tourism development has improved women empowerment (a) 1 (b) 2 (c) 3 Comments.....
64. Tourism development in the area has made the local environment neat (a) 1 (b) 2 (c) 3 Comments.....
65. Tourism development has caused pollution to the local environment (a) 1 (b) 2 (c) 3 Comments.....

66. Tourism development has increased people's awareness of the essence of rural tourism (a) 1 (b) 2 (c) 3 Comments.....
67. Local participation is encouraged in decision making regarding tourism development in the community (a) 1 (b) 2 (c) 3 Comments.....
68. Distribution of economic benefits generated by the tourism sector is fair among the local people (a) 1 (b) 2 (c) 3 Comments.....
69. Tourism development has resulted into easy access to natural resources available in the area (a) 1 (b) 2 (c) 3 Comments.....
70. Tourism development and sharing of tourism revenue has changed my behavior and attitude to support rural tourism in the community 9a) 1 (b) 2 (c) 3 How and why.....
71. What are some of the measures you suggest should be put in place for tourism to thrive in the near future in Paga

APPENDIX 2: INTERVIEW GUIDE-TOUR GUIDE

1. What is your main occupation?
2. Which other income sources are you engaged in apart from your main occupation?
3. Are those other sources of income related to tourism?
4. Comparing those related to tourism and those which are not, which of them brings in more income?
5. Do you employ others?
6. Do your activities (activity) relate to other sectors like the manipulation and use of local resources?
7. Which areas of the tourism sector do you think need improvement?
8. Which other suggestions would you propose to promote tourism in Paga?

APPENDIX 3: IN-DEPTH INTERVIEW GUIDE**These questions are to be answered by the Kassena-Nankana West District Assembly**

I want to thank you for taking your time off to meet me today.

My name is Robert Ayamga, an MPhil student of University of Ghana and I would like to talk to you about tourism and poverty reduction in Paga. This interview should take less than 30 minutes and I would be taping the session since I don't want to miss any of your comments. Although I would be taking notes, I cannot possibly write fast to capture all that you might say. Since we are on tape please be sure to speak up so that I don't miss your comments.

All responses would be kept confidential. This means that your responses would be only be used purposely for this study and destroyed thereafter. Remember you don't have to discuss something you don't want to and you may end the interview at any time

Are there any clarifications you might want me to? Are you willing to participate in this interview?

Interviewee..... Witness.....

Date.....

1. What are some of the tourism potentials of Paga?
2. What are the various plans and strategies put in place to promote tourism development at Paga and by whom?
3. Which of these plans or strategies has the most beneficial effect in the community?

4. Who are those benefiting the most apart from those involved in tourism directly?
5. What are the strengths in terms of tourism development in Paga?
6. What are the weaknesses in the community in terms of tourism development?
7. What is the contribution of the District Assembly/state in tourism development here?
8. Could you please suggest necessary improvements that can be implemented to initiate rural tourism development in the area?

APPENDIX 4: INTERVIEW GUIDE- Managers of accommodation facilities

1. How many employees are in your establishment?
2. How many are permanent and how many are not?
3. How many are from the local community and how many are not?
4. What criteria do you consider when deciding on the employment of your staff ?(Hint: education level, experience, local recruitment)
5. Have new skills been learnt and new jobs created?
6. What is the total capacity of your outfit? (Hint: number of beds, prices of beds if different beds)
7. Where do you get foodstuffs for your kitchen?
8. What challenges do you face a manger of your facility?
9. What measures do you suggest?

APPENDIX 5: INTERVIEW GUIDE- RESTAURANT/BAR OPERATORS

1. What is the human strength of your facility (Hint: number of workers, equipment and tools)
2. What are the divisions between local and non-local employees in your company?
3. What can you say about the patronage of your services by tourists?
4. How much do you on average make in a day?
5. What challenges do you face in your restaurant/bar business?
6. What do you propose should be done to improve your situation?