UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

RESIDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF TOURISM IN BOBIRI FOREST AND BUTTERFLY SANCTUARY, ASHANTI REGION

BY

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DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

I hereby declare that this thesis is the result of my own original work and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this university or elsewhere.

Candidate's Name: Gloria Owusu Sarpong

Signature: …… Date: ……

Supervisors' Declaration

We hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of the thesis were supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of thesis laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

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ABSTRACT

As part of the efforts to sustain the tourism industry, tourism planners and developers are required to monitor and evaluate tourism projects, bearing in mind the perceptions of host communities in order to gain their support and goodwill. The study assessed residents' perceptions of tourism in Bobiri Forest and Butterfly Sanctuary. Both quantitative and qualitative methods were used for the data collection. Interview schedules were used to collect data from 200 household heads residing in communities around Bobiri Forest and Butterfly Sanctuary. Views of four (4) key informants were solicited through interview guide. Chi-square statistics, Factor analysis, T-test and ANOVA were used to analyses the data.

It was revealed that residents perceived both positive and negative impacts of tourism development, but were more inclined to the positive environmental impact than the socio-cultural and economic impacts. Respondents' were fairly well represented in tourism related decisions concerning the Bobiri Forest project. Residents' participation in the project was mainly coercive or induced form and preferred future tourism development to be on large scale.

It is recommended that the Forestry Research Institute of Ghana (FORIG) in partnership with the Ministry of Tourism, Culture and Creative Arts should manage the impacts of tourism and also encourage greater community participation in the Bobiri Forest project.

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DEDICATION

To my dear parents, Mr. Francis Nana Sarpong and Mrs. Agnes Sarfowaah Sarpong, who had hope in me and invested in my education.

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LIST OF ACRONYMS

ANOVA	One way Analysis of Variance
BFBS	Bobiri Forest and Butterfly Sanctuary
CBE	Community Based Ecotourism
CBEPs	Community Based Ecotourism Projects
FA	Factor Analysis
FORIG	Forestry Research Institute of Ghana
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
IDIs	In-Depth Interviews
KMO	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin
LDCs	Least Developed Countries
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
PCA	Principal Component Analysis
PPP	Public Private Partnership
SET	Social Exchange Theory
SPSS	Statistical Product for Service Solution
UN	United Nations
UNWTO	United Nations World Tourism Organization
WTO	World Tourism Organization
WTTC	World Travel &Tourism Council

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background of the Study

During the past few decades, tourism has become one of the world's most profitable industries but, at the same time, one of the most harmful human activities in terms of environmental degradation (Buckley, 2004; Cooper, Fletcher, Fyall, David & Wanhill, 2008). However, tourism itself depends largely on the existence of the natural environment, which stresses the growing need for tourism to find more sustainable paths of development in all aspects, that is, environmental, economic and socio-cultural (Gursoy, Chen & Yoon , 2000; Kuvan & Akan 2005).

Tourism has been viewed as an appropriate tool for achieving development in local communities (Godfrey & Clarke, 2000). Tourism is reckoned to offer an ideal alternative economic activity to primary and secondary industries, especially, if there is a lack of development choice of economic activity (Page, Brunt, Bushy, & Connell, 2001). For this reason many communities consider tourism as a promising venture for reducing problems of underdevelopment (Andriotis 2003; Andriotis & Vaughan, 2004).

The impact of tourism development has become a popular topic in tourism research (Ko & Stewart, 2002). During the past two decades, researchers have given increasing attention to the impacts of tourism (Ap, 1992; Tosun, 2000; Cooper et al., 2008). The principal reason for this attention

is that the sustainability of tourism development lies in making appropriate planning and policies which minimize the adverse effects while maximizing the positive effects **(**Ap, 1992; Kayat, Nurhazani, Mohd, & Pranom, 2013). Researchers such as Gursoy et al. (2000) and Kuvan and Akan (2005) have opined that residents' perceptions towards tourism are based on the economic, socio-cultural and environmental impacts.

The impacts of tourism arise from the exchange process of interaction between the tourist and the host environment. Mathieson and Wall (1982) define tourism impacts as a result of a complex process of interchange between tourists, host communities and destinations environment. This exchange could be beneficial or detrimental to the host, the environment or the tourists involved in the exchange process. The tourism sector has become a growing sector in the world with an estimated tourist arrivals reaching 1.6 billion and also generating over US $2 trillion by 2020 (United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO), 2010). With an increasing growth of tourism at new destinations and the increased intensity of tourist activity at many recognized destinations throughout the world, more and more communities are experiencing the impacts of this growth (Andereck, Valentine, Vogt & Knopf, 2007).

The origin of tourism impacts became more and more visible at the dawn of mass tourism in the late 1960's (Jafari, 1990; Ambroz`, 2008). Although the visits of tourists are transient, their impacts at the destination cannot be neglected. With an industry which is estimated to double from 2009 (880 million) to 1.6 billion tourists (UNWTO, 2010) by 2020, it is most likely that tourism will make even larger footprints on our societies. Nevertheless,

there are adverse impacts associated with mass tourism such as environmental degradation, leakages, bastardization of cultures, etc. There is the need for much attention to be paid to the impacts of tourism at the destination (Gurung & Seeland, 2008).

The impacts of tourism necessitated the works of Jafari (1990; 2003) on tourism platforms which are; the Advocacy, the Cautionary, the Adaptancy and the Knowledge-based platforms. However, the impacts of tourism gained much more attention in the 21st century after Macbeth (2005) added the Ethical and Sustainable development platforms to ensure the sustainability of tourism development.

Tourism is associated with economic, environmental and socio-cultural benefits (Kuvan & Akan 2005; Cooper et al., 2008), which can contribute to the revitalization of communities and the enhancement of residents' quality of life (Andereck & Vogt, 2000). However, tourism development may bring changes to communities that will negatively affect residents' lives. To achieve successful sustainable tourism development, community leaders and developers need to view tourism as a "community industry" (Jago, Fredline & Deery, 2006) in a way that enables residents to be actively involved in determining and planning future tourism with the overall goal of improving residents with quality of life (Fridgen, 1994).

Residents may be instrumental in discouraging tourism by opposing it or exhibiting hostile attitudes towards tourism advocates and tourists. Residents' hostility to tourists shortens the length of stay, diminishes the likelihood of repeat visits, reduces the amount of money spent in the community and creates negative word-of-mouth publicity about the sector

(Fridgen, 1994; Cooper et al., 2008; Kayat et al., 2013). Residents attitudes towards tourism have been linked to a number of factors such as community attachment, level of knowledge, proximity, power of decision making and the type of tourists' contacts (Lankford & Howard, 1994; Ambrò, 2008).

Community-Based Ecotourism (CBE) is a growing phenomenon throughout the developing world. It has become one of the most promising methods of integrating natural resource conservation, local income generation and cultural conservation in the developing world (Miller, 2008:3). Scheyvens (1999) posits that through CBE, local communities gain significant control over tourism development and management, and through that, greater proportions of the benefits will remain in the community. It is also argued that CBE helps to foster sustainable use of natural resources and also embrace individual initiatives within the local community (Denman, 2001). The Mountain Institute (2000) describes CBE as a variety of activities that encourage and support a wide range of objectives in economic, social development and conservation. The ultimate goal of CBE according to Scheyvens (1999) is to empower the host community at four levels: economic, psychological, social and political.

Most international environmental agreements and processes, such as, the Millennium Ecosystem Assessment aims to establish scientific basis for actions needed to enhance the conservation and sustainable use of ecosystems and their contributions to human well-being. Accordingly, De Groot (2006) asserts that, it is of interest to reconcile landscape conservation with changing human demands on land-use and natural resources. Subsequently he argues on the need to fully take into consideration the ecological, socio-cultural and

economic values of ecosystems in planning and decision making process. It is an undeniable fact that, assessments of the ecological, socio-cultural, and economical values will serve as important inputs in tropical rainforest management and decision making process. These however are not an end in itself. Folke, Fabricius, Cundill and Schulze. (2005a) asserted that, a community perspective is essential because communities are often neglected, but are essential parts of ecosystem management. Their roles, including knowledge, experience, institutions and organizational capabilities should be acknowledged and embedded in any governance system that aims at strengthening the capacity to manage ecosystems sustainably for human well-being.

The tropical rain forests of Africa lie within the Congo/Zaire basin, eastern Madagascar with a small area in western Africa. Ghana is one amongst the countries of Sub-Saharan Africa with tropical rainforest. Forest goods and services are extremely important for rural livelihoods, providing food, medicine, shelter, fuel and cash income (Kaimowitz 2003). Ghana considers tourism as a route to economic development. The aftermaths of the Rio World Summit as described in Agenda 21, identifies local communities and local authorities as key players in sustainable development. Agenda 21 claims that sustainable development could be achieved through planned democratic cooperative means including community involvement in decision making, planning and implementation (Carter, 2006). These rising concerns coupled with the failure of mass tourism gave popularity to an alternative approach - community based, which called for more participation by local communities in tourism development (Simmons, 1994; Page et al, 2001). For this reason, a

number of community-based ecotourism projects (CBEPs) have been commissioned to help reduce poverty in rural areas and also to sustain the tourism industry.

Bobiri Forest and Butterfly Sanctuary (BFBS) in Ashanti Region is among such few protected areas and also part of the fourteen (14) community-based ecotourism projects in Ghana (Nature Conservation Research Centre, 2008). The Forest is in its pristine state and has a good geographical location which is closer to the city of Kumasi. The aim of the establishment of BFBS is to produce forest products, conserve the environment as well as, enhance the economic and socio-cultural well-being of the people (Forestry Research Institute of Ghana (FORIG), 2012). For tourism in a destination to thrive, its adverse impacts should be minimized and it must be viewed favourable by the host population (Ap, 1992; Tosun, 2000; Ambroz`, 2008).

In addition, the exclusion of local inhabitants from forest utilization and decisions leading to forest management as well as readily available data about the values of the forest are elemental to the threat of forest belts which will eventually affect tourism development (Antwi, 2009). The study seeks to target residents surrounding the geographical location of BFBS, their social relation, social systems and the power levels among this group in order to obtain vivid information for the study.

Problem Statement

Tourism planning demands that there should be regular monitoring and evaluation of tourism projects in order to ensure their sustainability. Recognizing that, without coherent and comprehensive planning strategies and

appropriate tourism policies, the destination is bound to collapse (Hall, 2000; Cooper et al., 2008). Regular monitoring and evaluation are to ensure that the goals and objectives set by planners have been achieved or otherwise. In situations where there is no regular monitoring, the project is bound to collapse due to the negative effects.

In spite of this caution, the BFBS has been in existence for over sixteen (16) years without any detailed assessment of the project (FORIG, 2012). It has, therefore, become difficult to give an accurate report on the progress of the project with regard to its impact on the residents and ultimately its sustainability.

Despite the continuing research on tourism development and its related impacts, most of the studies conducted have only focused on 'Individual and Collective Impacts of Tourism'(Kayat et al., 2013),'Community Participation'(Mensah & Adofo, 2013),'Assessing the Livelihood Dependence of Local Communities on Ecosystem Services'(Antwi, 2009),'Pro-poor Tourism in Kakum National Park' (Akyeampong, 2011),'Host Attitudes and Concerns Towards Tourism Development in Lake Bosomtwe' (Amuquandoh, 2006) among others. However, there is limited information on residents' perceptions of tourism development in Bobiri Forest and Butterfly Sanctuary. It is against this backdrop that the study sought to address by responding to the following research questions:

Research Questions

- What are the challenges facing tourism development in BFBS?
- To what extent do residents participate in tourism in BFBS?

- What are residents' perceptions on the impacts of tourism in BFBS?
- What are residents' perceptions on the future of tourism in BFBS?

Objectives of the Study

The general objective of this study was to assess residents' perceptions of tourism in Bobiri Forest and Butterfly Sanctuary.

The specific objectives were to:

- Identify the challenges facing tourism development in BFBS;
- Examine residents' participation in tourism in BFBS;
- Analyze residents' perceptions on the impacts of tourism in BFBS; and
- Assess residents' perceptions on the future of tourism in BFBS.

Hypotheses

- **H_0:** There is no significant relationship between background characteristics of respondents (i.e. place of residence, sex, level of education, etc.) and involvement in tourism related decisions in the BFBS project.
- **H_0:** There is no significant relationship between background characteristics of respondents (i.e. place of residence, sex, level of education, etc.) and the preferred scale of tourism development; and
- **H_0:** Residents' perceived benefits of tourism do not differ by respondents background characteristics of (i.e. place of residence, sex, level of education, etc.)

Significance of the Study

Monitoring and evaluation are critical, since tourism development is dynamic as represented in tourism life cycle models like Butler's (1980) and Doxey's (1975). Each stage of the planning process comes with its effects; it is therefore the task of planners to develop strategies which can ensure the success of the project. The outcome of the study may also determine the stage of tourism development and the kind of relationship that exists between the host and the tourists in the BFBS project.

Again, the motive of establishing BFBS is for residents to benefit economically, socio-culturally and environmentally and as such their views on the assessment of the project will help determine whether the motive for institutionalizing this project has been met or not for adjustments to be made.

Furthermore, tourism planning requires the creativity of the entire community for a project to remain vital and attractive. The study envisages that, residents will be enlightened on the essence of community participation. The outcome of this study will alert government and tourism planners to recognize the important role residents can play in policy development and the need to allow them to become more involved in the policy-making process. Residents' participation in tourism development will ensure the long term sustainability of tourism in Bobiri Forest.

The study is envisaged to provide valuable information on residents' perceptions on the future of tourism development, thereby assisting tourism planners in selecting appropriate strategies that can enhance the sustainability of the project.

The study also conforms to national and global efforts to protect existing forests and wildlife. In Ghana, the Forestry Commission reports of the extinction of natural areas and the need to conserve forests and wildlife for tourism and scientific purposes. Since the study relates to the conservation of BFBS, it will, also, contribute to the general effort mobilized to protect forest belts in Ghana.

Delimitation of the Study

The study is delimited to assessing residents' perceptions of tourism in BFBS project to see the extent of how residents participate in the project as well as assessing the perceived benefits and costs of tourism development.

Limitations of the Study

The main issue limiting this study is the researcher's inability to have access to a document report on the BFBS project from FORIG. As such, the researcher could not assess the project based on the objectives set by FORIG but had to rely on the principles guiding sustainable CBEPs stipulated in the tourism literature. Thus, obtaining a baseline study was difficult. The researcher had to seek for respondents' perceptions on the project. The results of the study cannot be considered as the actual impacts of tourism in BFBS since the study is a cross sectional survey not a longitudinal survey.

Again, the fact that the research adopted the descriptive cross-sectional design makes it difficult to generalize the findings to other settings like other CBEPs in Ghana. Therefore findings from this study and the study's duplication must be done with great caution as some conclusions drawn may

not be valid for other projects because residents' perceptions and attitudes vary in time and space.

Organization of Chapters

The study is divided into five chapters. The first chapter consists of the introduction, background, problem statement, research questions, objectives, hypotheses, significance of the study, delimitation and limitations of the study. Chapter Two (2) consists of literature on residents and tourism development, impacts of tourism development, community participation in tourism development, challenges facing tourism development and residents' perceptions on the future of tourism development. The second part of this chapter presents the theories and conceptual framework for the study. Chapter Three (3) entails the methodology guiding the study. Chapter Four (4) consists of results and discussion of the main findings. Chapter Five (5) contains the summary of final results obtained, conclusion and recommendations of the study.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

This chapter presents a review of literature on tourism development and the community. The review is organized in two parts. The first part discusses residents and tourism development, impacts of tourism development, community participation in tourism development, challenges facing tourism development and residents' perceptions on the future of tourism development. The second part examines the theories and models that have been developed to explain tourism development and its impacts on host communities, their strengths and weaknesses, as well as, the conceptual framework guiding the study.

Residents and Tourism Development

Although the current literature on tourism development has noted that residents are central to sustainable tourism development, researchers seldom devote much attention to analyze the concept of residents or how the community affects the outcome of tourism development (Muganda, Sirima & Ezra, 2013). Residents can be described as a group of people with a common identity and who may be involved in an array of related aspects of livelihood (Scherl & Edwards, 2007). According to Aref, Ma'rof and Sarjit (2010) ''residents'' refers to a group of individuals living or working within the same

geographic area with some shared cultures or common interests. Dei (2000) also defines ‘‘residents’’ as a group of any size whose members resides in a specific locality and have a historical heritage.

Researchers including Pearce, Moscardo and Ross, (1996) have identified four (4) main approaches in defining residents. These are; the geographical area (specifically considering the location), interactional approach (which focuses on the regular interactions that occur among people), the critical approach (which considers the issue of power among groups of people, especially in the process of making decisions) and lastly, social systems approach which looks at the ordering of social relations within a group. In the field of tourism, Urry (1995) noted that the concept of ‘‘residents’’ can be used in these forms: belonging to a specific topographical location, defining a particular social system; a feeling of togetherness and an ideology; often hiding the power relations.

However, Western, Strum and Wright (1994) argue that the definition of ‘‘residents’’ varies with context. In support of this, Swarbrooke (1999) defines ‘‘residents’’ as a complex concept involving geography, governance, stakeholders, ethnicity, demography and the power structure that exist within the locality. Given the several definitions of ‘‘residents’’ by authors in a certain geographical location such as (Aref et al., 2010), nature of their interactions and community characteristics (Agrawal & Gibson 1999; Olsder & Van der Donk, 2006; Schrel & Edwards 2007) the researcher, for the purpose of this study adopted the various concepts raised by several authors but with specific reference to the four (4) main approaches used in the study

by Urry (1995) and Pearce et al. (1996). The use of ‘‘residents’’ refers to communities involved in tourism development.

Tourism development is a long-term process for preparing for the arrival of tourists (Fridgen, 1994). It entails planning, building and managing the attractions, transportation, accommodations, services and facilities that serve the tourist and the host. Development by its nature is a process of change and may be explained in a variety of ways (Ambroz`, 2008). In tourism, the approach to sustainable tourism development has become a major area of concern in recent times. As evidence clearly shows, tourism development often comes at a price and economic gains must be balanced against social and environmental costs (Sharpley & Telfer, 2002; Cooper et al., 2008).

Tourism development often does come at a cost to the physical environment in terms of destruction of resources, pollution and loss of cultural identity. For example, in Kenya's Maasai Mara National Park and the Ngorongoro Conservation Area in Tanzania, the heavy demand for firewood for use in lodges and camps for cooking and heating has severely depleted the small riverine forests (Akama, 1996). It is important, therefore, that the pursuit of tourism-based development is undertaken sensitively in order to ensure sustainability and to minimize negative impacts (Sharpley & Telfer, 2002). Questions must be asked concerning the costs and benefits of tourism and whether it truly can be an empowering development strategy for the host community from which it can derive sustainable long-term benefits (Kiss, 2004).

Tourism development can be linked and explained better using two concepts: sustainable tourism and sustainable development (Muganda et al.,

2013). The UN-led Commission on Environment and Development in 1987 led the way with a definition of sustainability as "sustainable development is development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs" (World Commission on Environment and Development, Brundtland, 1987). The World Tourism Organization defines sustainable tourism as "tourism which leads to management of all resources in such a way that economic, social and aesthetic needs can be fulfilled while maintaining cultural integrity, essential ecological processes, biological diversity and life supporting systems" (Shah, McHarry & Gardiner, 2002). Therefore, tourism development can be meaningless if its socio-economic and environmental benefits do not trickle down to the residents. Likewise, the sustainability of nature-based tourism development in Least Developed Countries (LDCs) in a way lies in the hands of residents.

According to Bushel and McCool (2007) residents have historically coexisted with the protected areas with key tourism attractions. Figgis and Bushell (2007) further assert that tourism development and conservation that denies the rights and concerns of residents is self-defeating, if not illegal. Therefore, the participation of residents in tourism development cannot be overlooked due to the crucial roles played by residents. Jamal and Stronza (2009) assert that involving the residents in tourism development within and around protected areas is crucial in bridging the gap between governance and the use of the resources in a tourist destination.

Much attention has been placed on the tourists as their expenditure is usually higher since the bulk of the revenue generated for tourism development comes from tourists. Residents have often shown their concerns

about tourism development in the area of pollution, traffic congestion, increase in living standards, extinction of cultures and the like (Fridgen,1994; Kayat, 2000). In order to ensure the growth and sustainability of tourism, an alternative form of tourism has emerged. Community-based ecotourism is considered as an alternative form of tourism. Community-based ecotourism is geared towards having less negative implications on host destinations and also empowering rural residents by providing a source of livelihood for them and also getting host communities involved in tourism development (Nelson, 2004).

To add to the above, residents remain one of the core stakeholders in ensuring the growth and sustainability of tourism development. However, residents have received few, if any, benefits from tourism (Kayat, 2002). Instead, residents have suffered a spectrum of negative impacts that have damaged their natural resources and changed their society and culture in multiple ways (Deery, Jago, & Fredline, 2011).

Impacts of Tourism Development

The academic literature has analyzed community reactions to the local development of tourism since the early writings of Young (1973) and Doxey (1975). A comprehensive review of recent research related to tourism impacts on the residents are found in the work of Easterling (2004) and more recently, in those of Deery et al. (2011). The literature suggests that each tourism impact category includes both positive and negative effects and, sometimes, residents' perceptions are contradictory (Cooper et al., 2008; Kayat et al., 2013). During tourism development planning, impacts (not including positive

economic projections) are often disregarded or have not received enough consideration (Blackstock, 2005). Yet impacts on residents are crucial enough since they determine the quality of life of host communities and the lasting viability of development plans (Blackstock, 2005).

Many studies have emphasized the economic benefits of tourism to communities (Fredline & Faulkner, 2000; Wait, 2003; Kim & Petrick, 2005). The focus then shifted to a more sociological stance with socio-cultural aspects of tourism as starting point, arriving at the sustainability issue as the third and present "paradigm" (Jafari, 2003; Macbeth, 2005). The shift is based on the complex impacts tourism leaves on host destinations; mostly, being either positive or negative but with the majority of them being negative impacts.

To clearly understand tourism impacts is necessary to identify the dimensions of tourism impacts. Several studies have highlighted the fact that the impacts of tourism on the host destination are economic, environmental and socio-cultural (among others Perdue, Long & Allen, 1990; Andereck & Vogt 2000; Kayat 2002; Andereck et al., 2007; Diedrich & Garcia-Buades, 2008; Ogorelc, 2009; Vargas-Sánchez, de los Ángeles Plaza-Mejía & Porras-Bueno, 2009).

Although tourism researchers have identified several types of impacts, categorizing these impacts could result in developing tourism into a community (Mensah & Adofo, 2013). This is to say that not all the impacts of tourism could be present at a particular destination depending on the level of tourism development. Reinforcing this, Douglas (2006) indicates that not every impact will be experienced by residents. The reason being that some

impacts may be dependent on particular natural resource features (mountains, coral reefs) or development and spatial patterns (special "tourist zones") whereas others will relate to the social condition of the community, particularly the ability to culturally or socially connect with tourists.

Economic Impact of Tourism

Positive Economic Impacts

Tourism has the potential to bring wealth and prosperity to countries and to regions within countries. The first most important reason for tourism development is its economic benefits to destinations involved. The main reason why governments, local authorities and private investors are willing to invest in tourism is the range of economic benefits which tourism can bring (Cooper et al., 2008). Among these positive economic impacts are employment creation, linkages with other sectors, generation of foreign revenue and many more.

The available evidence suggests that tourism creates employment for residents. The village of Maimafu in Papua New Guinea indicated that many employment opportunities were opened for many women in handicraft production for tourists (West, 2006). Again, Buckley (2004) observed that tourism employs about 10 per cent of the world's population. For some residents, their first employment was created as a result of tourism. Residents are persuaded to support tourism development mostly because of the economic benefits that evolve from tourism development. Tourism is seen as establishing both forward and backwards linkages with other sectors of the economy (World Tourism Organization (WTO), 2005). In constructing a

hotel for instance, a contractor needs to be hired, the farmer needs to produce more to feed the additional mouths, workers both permanent and temporary staff must be employed. This form of linkage is possible because of the nature of tourism development.

The tourism sector is considered as a growing sector since it is ranked 4th in the world's export (Ministry of Tourism, 2010). By 2023, the total economic contribution is forecast to rise to US$ 10.5 trillion in Gross Domestic Product (GDP) with almost 340 million in jobs, over US$ 1.3 trillion in investment and almost US$ 2.0 trillion in exports (World Travel &Tourism Council (WTTC), 2013). Despite the negatives impacts, the tourism sector will continue to grow. Host communities should embrace all the opportunities provided through tourism to enhance their living conditions.

Negative Economic Impacts

Tourism activity also involves economic costs, including the direct costs incurred by tourism businesses, government costs for infrastructure to better serve tourists, as well as congestion and related costs borne by individuals in the community (Douglas, 2006). Again, tourism development is associated with its own negative economic impact which includes inflation, seasonality of job, leakages, opportunity cost of development and many more. Similarly, on the negative side, residents seem to perceive an increase in the cost of living, i.e. in prices of goods and services and an unequal distribution of the economic benefits (Haralambopoulos & Pizam 1996; Andereck & Vogt 2000; Andriotis 2005).

For residents, the employment opportunities created through tourism are sometimes unable to achieve the expected economic outcomes. As such, residents return to their previous economic activities (Reid, 2007). Reinforcing this position was Barkin (2003) with the case of Monarch Butterfly Reserve, Mexico. When the reserve could not achieve much of the expected economic gains, residents went back to logging.

Leakages have been one of the costs associated with tourism development. In The Gambia, the evidence is clear as the local market could not supply most of the products needed in the accommodation sector and they had to import curtains, vegetables and plates. This situation rendered the sector losing billions to the outside world (Cooper et al., 2008). Leakages render most residents unemployed and often the indigenous industries find it hard to compete with their counterparts outside.

Socio-Cultural Impact of Tourism

Socio-cultural impacts have been defined by Nelson (2004) as the changes in social and cultural conditions, which can be positive or negative, which directly or indirectly result from an activity, project, or programme. Fredline, Jago and Deery (2003) define socio-cultural impacts as ‘‘any impacts that potentially have an impact on quality of life for local residents’’. Furthermore, Martin (2008) acknowledges that the concept of quality of life encompasses positive aspects of people lives. Interestingly, Reid (2007) claims that the word impact implies negative connotations. Reid (2007, p. 91) suggests using consequences instead of impacts and defines social

consequences as “quality of life issues, such as social stratification, attitudes, beliefs, values and lifestyles of host communities”.

To add to the above definitions, socio-cultural impact of tourism is not one sided, since it could be a benefit or a cost to the residents at the destination. This is so because tourists who visit the host destinations often come with their own cultural beliefs. They, however, immerse themselves in the values, norms and social systems they find themselves through their interaction which could result in a positive or negative outcome to the socio-cultural lives of residents at the destination.

A study by Martin (2008) indicated that tourism had led to an improvement in the quality of life in the host community and an improvement in the understanding and image of different cultures. Similarly improvement in living conditions of residents was also confirmed by (McGehee & Andereck, 2004). Also, about 64 per cent of residents in Kumily, India associated tourism to improvement in living standards in the community (Sebastian & Rajagopalan, 2009). Cooper et al. (2008) also, indicated that tourism promotes cultural exchange, preserves cultural identity of host population, increases demand for historical and cultural exhibits. Other scholars suggested that tourism development also exerts socio-cultural effects, such as increased intercultural communication, the modification of traditional cultures, increase in crime rate, costs of accommodation and the waiting time to deliver services (Ross, 1992; Haralambopoulos & Pizam 1996; Andereck et al., 2007; Martin 2008; Diedrich & Garcia-Buades 2008).

In addition, there are some negative outcomes associated with tourism development such as increased prostitution, increased alcoholism, smuggling

and the creation of phony folk culture (Harrill, 2004). Perdue et al. (1990) focus on the geographic relocation of residents due to the increase in second homeowners.

Environmental Impact of Tourism Development

The environment is a central theme of tourism since the 1980s and it continues to be an interesting topic at a time when the global policy is aimed at solving ecological problems, such as pollution, depletion of natural resources and deforestation (Kuvan & Akan 2005). In particular, the potential of tourism activities in achieving the objectives of environmental preservation and conservation have been widely studied (Stewart, Bronwyn, Devlin, & Kirby, 1998).

Tourism has evolved because of the quest to develop rural areas, involve residents' in development issues and the conservation of natural resources, which most rural dwellers depend or rely on (Arntzen, Buzwani, Setlhogile, Kgathi & Motsholapheko, 2007). Researchers have identified both the positive and the negative environmental impacts of tourism (Amuquandoh, 2009). Among the positive impacts of tourism, biodiversity has become an economic incentive for environmental protection and environmental education for all stakeholders in tourism development (Cooper et al., 2008).

Tourism has led to an improvement in the area's appearance, preservation of historic buildings and monuments (Perdue et al., 1990). A typical example is the on-going sea turtle conservation in Brazil (Stronza & Pegas, 2008) and whale shark conservation in Seychelles (Sebele, 2010). Tourism is also used as a rationale to preserve natural areas rather than to

develop alternative uses such as mining, agriculture and forestry (Master, 1998).

Reid (2007) observed that some negative impacts of tourism occur within the physical environment such as litter, increase in noise, environmental damage and loss of amenity. Though tourism development has some negative environmental impacts, some stakeholders have however cultivated the habit of preserving the environment rather than endangering the ecosystem and this is apparent in the Ghanaian context with specific examples including the Ankasa Forest, Mole National Park, Kakum Forest and Bobiri Forest and Butterfly Sanctuary.

Community Participation in Tourism Development

Community participation has been defined as designing development in such a way that intended beneficiaries are encouraged to take matters into their own hands, to participate in their own development process through mobilizing their own resources, defining their own needs and making their own decisions about how to meet them (Sanoff, 2000). The evolution of community participation came as a result of the failure of most top-down approaches to tourism development which called for the involvement of all stakeholders in the planning, implementation and controlling of developmental programmes (Tosun, 2000). The concepts of community involvement and community participation which are one and the same thing, have received considerable academic interests (Mensah & Adofo, 2013).

According to McIntyre, Hetherington, Inskeep (1993), Muhanna (2007), Niezgoda and Czernek (2008) and Matarrita-Cascante, Brennan,

Luloff (2010), to achieve sustainable tourism development, local communities need to participate in the decision making process. To achieve long lasting outcome, communities need to be active participants rather than passive observers (Mannigel, 2008). Pongponrat (2011) noted that more direct local involvement in decision-making, for example, may enable residents to request a specific portion of tax benefits from tourism to be allocated to community development and the protection of the tourism resource base. This is consistent with Sanoff (2000) who maintains that the main purpose of community participation is to involve people in the design and the decision making processes.

It is further argued that community participation in decision making increases people's trust and confidence in the tourism industry (Matarrita-Cascante et al., 2010). It also provides the host community with a voice in the design and decision-making in order to improve plans, service delivery, and finally, promote a sense of community by bringing together people who share common goals (Pongponrat, 2011). Theoretically, the role of host communities in tourism development in the context of policy and decision-making depends on the type and level of participatory approach within a tourist destination (McCool, 2009).

According to Mannigel (2008) there are different levels of participation ranging from simple sharing of information to a full transfer of power and responsibilities. The power of the host communities to influence decision making as well as policy making will, therefore, depend on the level of participatory approach being put in operation in a particular destination. For example, in most developing countries, the decision and policy making

process is typically top-down and is dominated by the government, private sector or Non-governmental organizations (NGOs) (Scherl & Edwards, 2007). In such an unbalanced scenario, the power of host communities to influence decision making and demand their legitimate stake is questionable (Pongponrat, 2011). Arguably, their participation can hardly go beyond mere consultation and information exchange (Scherl & Edwards, 2007).

However, there are some positive examples of partnership between host communities and other key stakeholders (Pongponrat, 2011). For example, in a study conducted in Costa Rica, Matarrita-Cascante et al. (2010) noted that participation was reflected in different levels ranging from local participation in community meetings (involvement) to ownership and management of local resources. Such varied participation provided host communities with the capacity to directly influence change in their region.

Arnstein (1969) identifies eight (8) rungs of citizen participation. Ranging from manipulation where participation is full of pretence, through consultation, to citizen control regarded as genuine participation. Arnstein's typology has come under some criticisms. Firstly, the ladder is criticized as having been developed in the context of developmental studies in general and not related to a particular sector of an economy (Tosun, 2006). Secondly, it does not specifically deal with tourism development (Leksakundilok, 2006); and it provides misleading results within a developing country context (Choguill, 1996).

Despite the above, the ladder of participation has been used as a source of reference for community participation in tourism development. Arnstein's (1969) participation ladder is useful not only to identify the current level of

community participation, but also to define the steps required to promote greater participation. Reid (2002) noted the applicability of this concept to tourism development. The ladder helps in understanding the situation of host communities and the current state of local participation in tourism development.

Tosun's (1999) model of community participation specifically falls within the context of tourism development. This has been categorized into three (3) levels of community participation in tourism namely; spontaneous participation, coercive participation and induced participation. According to Mensah and Adofo (2013) the model considers community participation as a categorical term that allows participation of people, citizens or a host community in their affairs at different levels (local, regional or national).

The researcher adopted both Arnstein's (1969) typology of participation and Tosun's (1999) model of community participation for the study which have been compiled by Tosun (2006). The ladder of participation by Arnstein (1969) gives a general view of the eight rungs of participation and the need for power redistribution as an important tool for participation, whereas the model of community participation directly relates to residents of the host destinations and also gives the extent of their involvement in tourism development. Below is the combination of the two models on community participation:

8. Citizen control 7. Delegated Power 6. Partnership	Degrees of citizen power	⇨	Spontaneous participation
5. Placation 4. Consultation 3. Informing	Degrees of Tokenism	⇨	Induced participation
2. Therapy 1. Manipulation	Non-participation	⇨	Coercive participation
Arnstein's (1969) Typology of community participation.			Tosun's(1999) Typology of community participation.

Figure 1: Normative Typologies of Community Participation

Source: Tosun (2006).

Arnstein (1969) emphasized that citizen participation has to be accompanied by power redistribution. The introduction of the ‘‘ladder of citizen participation’’ was to explain the essential steps, classified into three levels of gradual evolution: ‘non-participation’, ‘‘degrees of tokenism’’ and ‘‘degrees of citizen power’’. The first rung is ‘‘manipulation’’: Power holders utilize participation as a distorted means of public relations. The second is ‘‘therapy’’ where local citizens values and attitudes are adjusted to those of the larger society with power. At this stage non-participation is related to coercive participation by Tosun (1999).

Coercive participation is manipulated and contrived as a substitute for genuine participation. It represents the lowest echelon of the ladder of participation (Tosun, 2006). The aim is not to enable people to participate in

the tourism development process but rather, to enable those who wield power to educate or cure host communities so as to avert potential and actual threats to tourism development (Tosun, 1999). Nevertheless, some decisions may be taken to meet the basic needs of host communities by consulting local leaders. The actual motive is to reduce the potential socio-political risks associated with tourism development (Mensah & Adofo, 2013).

Third is ‘‘informing’’ where residents are informed of their rights, responsibilities and options (the first and most important step towards legitimate public involvement). The fourth is ‘‘consultation’’ where residents are encouraged to express their opinions (a legitimate step towards full participation). Fifth is ‘‘placation’’ in which public influence gradually grows, but it is still largely tokenism. Degrees of tokenism are equal to induced participation. Here residents are allowed to have a say in the tourism development process, but they do not have the power to ensure that their views are taken into account by more powerful actors such as governmental agencies, multinational companies and international tour operators (Tosun, 2006). This is the most common situation in most developing countries where host communities merely endorse decisions regarding tourism development made for them rather than by them (Tosun, 2006). Induced participation is top-down, passive and indirect (Mensah & Adofo, 2013).

Sixth is ‘‘partnership’’ where negotiation is conducted between citizens and power holders, thereby redistributing, in practice, the power and responsibilities for planning and decision-making. Seventh is ‘‘delegated power’’ where the public achieves dominant power over the decision-making. Eighth is ‘‘citizen control’’ where citizens are awarded full control and power

for policy and management. Degrees of citizen power in Arnstein's typology correspond with spontaneous participation. This represents the preferred mode of community participation as residents assume full managerial responsibility and power to influence and make policy.

Building on Arnstein's ladder, Rocha (1997) expands the ''ladder of empowerment'' to include a typology of empowerment theories that emerged in the 1980s. Empowerment is emphasized as a means and a goal to acquire basic human needs, education, skills and the power to achieve a certain quality of life (Parpart, Rai, & Staudt, 2002). Rowlands (1997:14) clearly states that '' 'empowerment' goes beyond participation in decision-making; it must also include the processes that lead people to perceive themselves as able and entitled to make decisions''. Conversely, participation underpins empowerment through an individual's inclusion in an organization and its organizational decision-making (Rocha, 1997). Real community empowerment should be obtained gradually, via all of the processes of achieving complete power, up to the top end of Arnstein's ladder.

In applying this concept to tourism, such empowerment would stipulate that tourist destination rather than governments or the multinational business sector, hold the authority and resources to make decisions, take action and control tourism development (Timothy, 1999). Thus, to realize sustainable tourism development, the empowerment of communities affected by tourism development is attached to the importance of political and socio-economic justice (Li, 2005). As a means to realizing public participation and empowerment, Reid (2002) highlights the necessity of communities'

awareness raising and transformative learning processes in understanding their situation and the need to confront problems themselves.

Barriers to Community Participation

Residents' participation in tourism development is essential but can be effective if there are legislations and opportunities for residents to get involved. Government and policy makers are beginning to recognize the important role communities can play in policy development and efforts are being made to allow them to become more involved in the policy-making process (Dukeshire & Thurlow, 2002). However, despite these efforts, there are still many barriers and challenges that can stand in the way of community involvement. Among these include lack of understanding of the policy process, lack of community resources, reliance on volunteers, inadequate access to information, absence of rural representation and certain community groups in the decision-making process, uncoordinated relationship between government and rural communities, time and policy timeline restrictions (Pearce et al., 1996; Dukeshire & Thurlow, 2002).

Conversely, these conditions are most often absent in host communities, due to a number of internal and external factors. Tosun (2000) states that the factors that act as barriers to active participation are often just a reflection of the socio-cultural, political and economic conditions prevailing in the host destination. He categorized the barriers under three (3) sections namely; operational, structural and cultural with specific reference to developing countries. At the operational level, the non-decentralization of

tourism administration from the national level prevents those at the bottom from making valuable contribution to it (Tosun, 2000).

Structural barriers where both government and rural communities can be frustrated by the lack of opportunity to communicate with one another. This limitation may be partially the result of an absence of "listening mechanisms" within the government structure itself (Dukeshire & Thurlow, 2002). Moreover, local communities are faced with cultural limitations which include limited capacity to effectively manage tourism, apathy and low level of awareness among local residents. This often results from their exclusion from the tourism development process for so long a time.

In addition to the above, community participation is a commendable idea however the mode of its implementation has long become a challenge. To overcome these barriers, there is the need for residents to have adequate access to information, partake in decision making and all structural barriers as a matter of urgency must be removed. Muganda (2009) puts it that the exploration stage of every tourism destination should be seen as the crucial point for community participation to begin. To him, the absence of tourism infrastructure at the destination at this stage will provide residents the opportunity to get involved in tourism development. This will give residents some sort of control over tourism development to cater for their needs, aspirations and capacities.

Challenges Facing Tourism Development

In developing a tourist site, there are a number of challenges that both government and local communities encounter but for the purpose of the study

area emphasis was placed on challenges facing community based ecotourism projects. According to Blackstock (2005, p. 39) community based ecotourism projects have their own set of challenges among which include access to capital, infrastructure, personnel, knowledge opportunities (Information), marketing, uneven power relationships resulting from differences in scale of production, governance, conflicts and excessive donor dependence.

Similarly, Autthapon and Suthida (2010) associate limited access of the poor to the tourism market, lack of commercial viability for their produce in terms of value and price, weak marketing capability, lack of intergovernmental suitable policy framework, inadequate knowledge about tourism and service skill, poor managing and implementing at the local level are among the major challenges hindering community-based ecotourism projects. Alexander (2000) found out that poor communication among parties was a key issue facing tourism development.

The challenges identified above raise concerns about what goes into the planning phase of these projects. In order to curb all these challenges, all stakeholders must be involved in the tourism planning process out of which appropriate planning strategies will be deployed to address the challenges so as to keep the growth of the industry.

Residents' Perceptions on the Future of Tourism Development

Concept of Perception

The term ''perception'' is better understood from the field of psychology which gives an in-depth knowledge in explaining how residents view tourism impacts. Perception is defined as one's ability to interpret

phenomenon through his/her senses (Romanov, 2011). Perception includes senses, feelings, ideas, thoughts and theories which allow a person to see differences. Perception is limitless, can be changed and develop over time.

Residents' perceptions about tourism development are needed in understanding their motives and values for entering into the exchange process. A number of studies have indicated that residents perceived equity in engaging in tourism development (Ap, 1992). One of the main motivations for conducting such studies is that negative attitudes among residents can hinder the success and sustainability of tourism destinations (Butler, 1980; Ap, 1992; Teye, Sonmez & Sirakaya, 2002; Harrill, 2004).

Factors Influencing Residents' Perceptions

The term factors or determinants are defined as variables or characteristics affecting residents' perceptions of tourism development (Kayat et al., 2013). Studies conducted, in the past decades, indicate that there are a number of variables which influence residents' perceptions and attitudes towards tourism development (Ap, 1992; Yoon, 1998; Kayat et al., 2013). Similarly, residents' views on tourism development and its effect on their quality of life are subjective, comprising personal feelings and the perception of the external phenomenon, i.e. the local tourism development (Andereck & Jurowski, 2006). Researchers have hypothesized that the perceptions of residents on tourism impacts may vary among different types or experiences of residents (Mason & Cheyne, 2000). Some studies, however, have examined residents' attitudes in terms of demographic characteristics but their

inconsistent results have been discussed by other reliable reviews of tourism studies (Ap, 1990; Perdue et al., 1990; Wyllie, 1998).

However, the perceptions of the impacts of tourism and tourism development differ among residents as a result of demographics as each segment has its own social exchange relations with other stakeholders (Chen & Hsu, 2001). The reason may be different due to the seasons and the level of tourism development in the study area. All the same, tourism scholars have studied and observed several determinants as being consistent with relationships or patterns of the impacts of tourism. Among the factors which influence residents' perceptions include residents' background characteristics/socio-demographics (Perdue et al., 1990; Weaver & Lawton, 2001; Teye et al., 2002), level of knowledge, community participation or power of decision making (Perdue et al., 1990), community attachment (Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004) and economic role of tourism (Perdue et al., 1990; Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004).

Similarly, the subjective view of locals has been seen to be influenced by several intervening factors such as length of residence, economic dependency, rate of community growth, proximity, perceived outdoor recreation, etc. (Lankford & Howard, 1994). All these intervening variables influence residents' perceptions of tourism impacts. For some residents, the impacts of tourism will be considered as beneficial while others may see them as a cost. Whether the impact is viewed as positive or negative depends on the individual and the interest group with which he or she is associated with (Gartner, 1996). These factors have been examined by several authors to

confirm how residents perceive the future of tourism development through their level of support and attitude towards tourism.

Theories and Models on Residents' Perceptions of Tourism

A number of theories and models have been put forward to help explain how residents perceive tourism development. These are: the famous Doxey (1975) Irridex model which is notable for understanding residents' attitudes towards tourism development, Social representation theory which looks at how and what people think about in their on-going everyday experiences and how a wider social reality influences these thoughts (Pearce et al., 1996). Other theories include the Play theory, the Conflict theory and the Social exchange theory which aids in understanding residents' perceptions and reactions to tourism impacts.

Social Exchange Theory (SET)

This theory has emerged as the most popular framework in explaining residents' perception and attitude to tourism (Harrill, 2004; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon 2010). This theory can be traced to the field of Social Psychology, Sociology, Anthropology and Psychology. The theory is concerned with the understanding of the exchange of resources between individuals and groups in an interactive situation. The major precept of the social exchange theory is that human behaviour is an essential exchange particularly of rewards or resources of primary material in character (wealth/power) (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005).

The theory states that an individual would value the outcome of an exchange or interaction in a social context by comparing their own benefits and costs from the exchange. Concerning the effects of tourism (economic, socio-cultural and environmental), this would imply that residents with a net benefit of their exchange with tourists would have a more positive attitude towards continued tourism development (Andereck & Jurowski, 2006). Residents with low or no benefit would have an indifferent or negative attitude towards tourism development. The theory comprises of five central elements:

Behaviour is predicated upon the notion of rationality. That is, the more behaviour results in a reward, the more individuals would behave that way. However, the more an individual receives a reward, the less valued it becomes and the individual seeks alternative rewards through other behaviours or from other sources (Andereck & Jurowski, 2006). The relationship is based on reciprocation; each individual in the relationship would provide benefits to the other so long as the exchange is equitable and the units of exchange are important to the respective parties (Ap, 1992). An exchange between two individuals must be seen as fair by both for the relationship to continue, or at least to continue as strongly.

Social exchange is based on a justice principle. In each exchange, there should be an element of fairness governing behaviours. That is, the exchange must be viewed as fair when compared in the context of a wider network or to the third and fourth parties. This notion of distributive justice goes beyond the equity between the two principal contributions. It involves each person comparing his or her reward to that of others who have dealt with this same individual and what they received for the same or a similar

contribution made (Ap, 1992; Andereck & Jurowski, 2006). Individuals would seek to maximize their gains and minimize their costs in the exchange relation. It is important to understand that the notion of costs does not relate exclusively to financial issues; in addition, costs can be incurred through the time and energy invested in a relationship. Individuals participate in a relationship out of a sense of mutual benefit rather than coercion.

Social exchange theory facilitates the understanding of residents' perceptions of tourism development and incorporates the four (4) basic elements which are: need satisfaction, exchange relation, consequences of exchange and the no-exchange outcome. The theory suggests that social relations involve an exchange of resources among social actors; social actors seek mutual benefit from the exchange relationship. The primary aim for initiating the exchange from the residents' perspective is to improve the community's social and economic well-being; residents' perceptions and attitudes are predictors of their behaviour toward tourism (Ap, 1992). The theory is based on the principle that human beings are reward-seeking and punishment avoiding and that people are motivated into action by the expectation of profits (Kayat, 2000). Residents are likely to have a positive attitude to tourism as long as the perceived benefits exceed the perceived costs. The diagram below illustrates the social exchange theory:

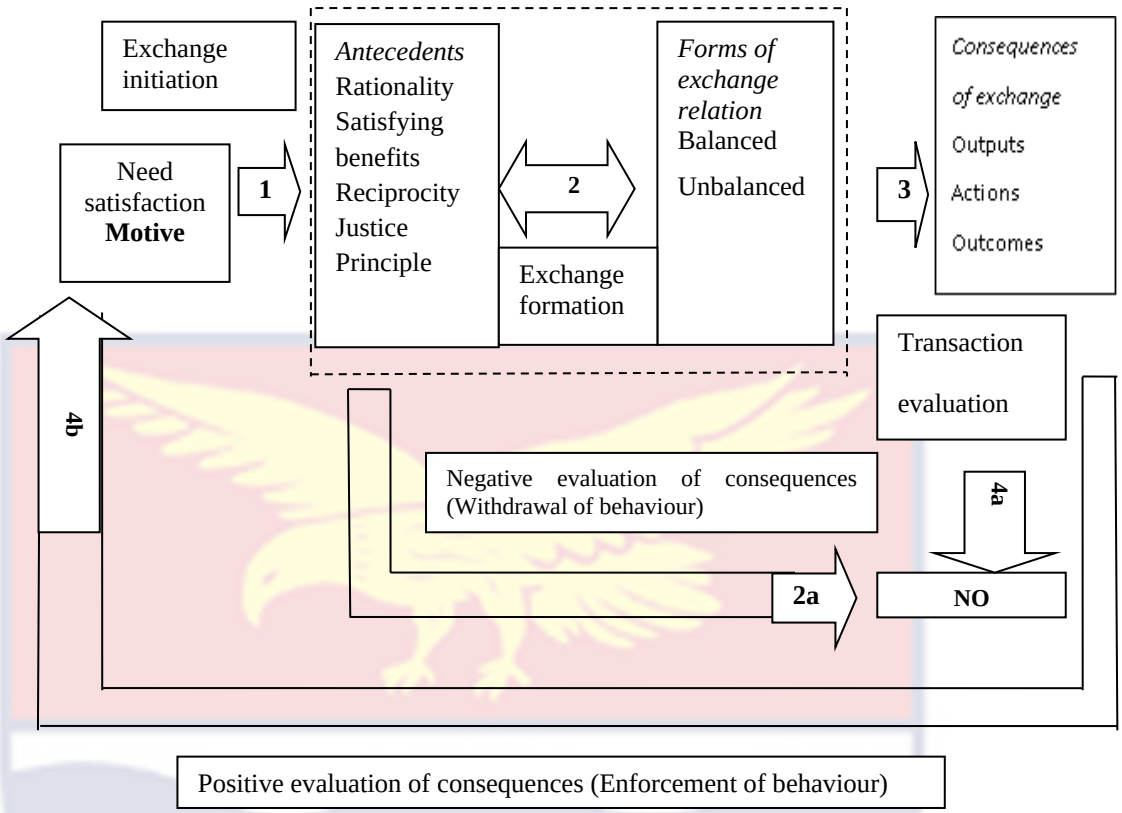

Figure 2: Social Exchange Process Model

Source: Ap (1992)

Social exchange theory has been adopted widely by tourism researchers since the 1990s. From a tourism perspective, the social exchange theory means that residents examine the benefits and costs that occur as a result of tourism and based on their assessments tourism could be positive or negative. A positive perception of tourism will influence their attitude towards the tourism industry. Therefore, residents perceiving more positive (benefits) than negative (costs) effects arising from tourism are more likely to support the exchange (Mensah, 2012) and are more likely to be inclined to be involved in the exchange.

In general, this category of residents displays positive attitudes and perceptions toward the tourism sector and, therefore, they encourage the future

local tourism development (Ap 1992; Gursoy et al., 2000). For example, in a study of rural residents' perceptions of tourism impacts of development in Colorado, support for additional development was positively or negatively related to the perceived positive or negative impacts of tourism (Ogorelc, 2009).

Social exchange theory has come against a number of critics as some authors like Cegielski and Mules (2002) say there are a number of factors influencing resident's perception towards tourism development related to its social, cultural and environmental implications that have not been examined using the social exchange theory. This theory is preferred over other competing models such as Doxey's irridex model, Stakeholders' theory, Conflict theory and Attribution theory because of the following reasons:

The Social exchange theory is a flexible theory which explains both the benefits (positive) tourism creates as well as costs (negative) it generates to host populations in tourism development areas. The theory can also examine the relationships at the individual and collective levels. This means the theory has the capability to express both within and between social group processes and relationships. In addition, the theory has the ability to take into account variations in economic and other exchanges across historical time and social space. For instance, the researcher can examine and compare variations between and within comparative exchange systems such as traditional and modern, developed and under-developed (Amuquandoh, 2009).

The theory also allows for the inclusion of a large set of variables such as environmental, economic, socio-cultural as well as determinants influencing perception. This aids in reducing lapses such as omitted variable bias which

affects reliability and validity of the outcome of the study. The theory has also become the cornerstone for this research approach for assessing residents' perceptions of tourism impacts.

Like most theories and models, the social exchange theory has some inherent weaknesses. For instance, the theory assumes that each individual has an equal influence on policy and planning in tourism development which does not exist in the real world.

Recently, researchers like King, Pizam, and Milman, (1993) and Vargas-Sanchez, Porras-Bueno and Plaza-Meija (2010) found that the negative impacts perceived by a resident may not necessarily affect his/her attitude towards tourism, indicating a deficiency of the theory in explaining residents' attitudes and perceptions of tourism development. Despite the weaknesses, the theory provides a clear understanding of residents' perceptions of tourism which are based on rewards (benefits) and costs which will be useful in the study.

Tourism Development Model

This model was developed by Ambroz` (2008) on a study on ''attitudes of local residents towards the development of tourism in Slovenia: The case of the Primorska, Dolenjska, Gorenjska and Ljubljana regions''. The model comprises length of residency, tourist type, residents' place of attachment, tourism impacts and attitudes towards tourism development. The model is founded on the hypothesis that tourism development is associated with the experiences of tourism impacts which could be positive or negative attitudes of residents towards tourism. The model is shown below:

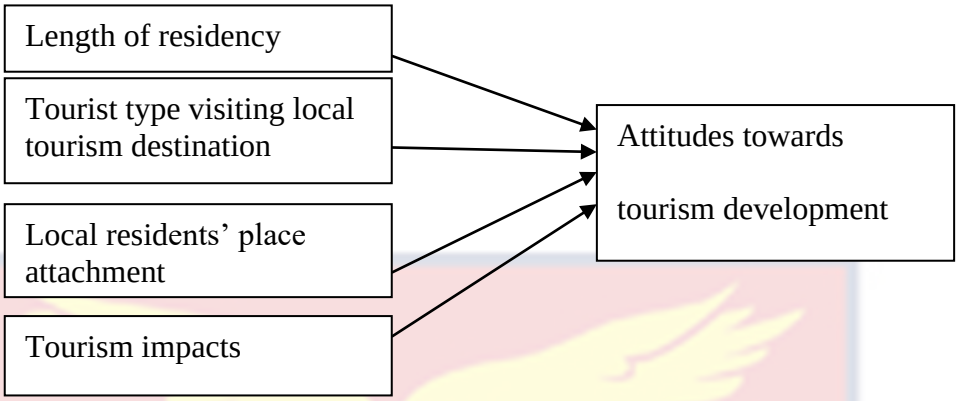

Figure 3: Tourism Development Model

Source: Ambroz` (2008)

The use of length of residency refers to the length of stay of an individual in an area. The closer a person is to tourism site the less likely the person will perceive tourism impacts to be positive (Faulkner & Tideswell, 1997; Weaver & Lawton, 2001). However, some authors also believe that the proximity of residents from the destination could vary since those closer to the attraction will perceive tourism positively and those far away from the attraction site will perceive tourism negatively (Mansfeld, 1992). The tourist type is of the highest importance in this process. There are different categories of tourists who trigger different tourism impacts, and in some regions some types of tourists are not wanted and tourism development is not based on their participation (Ambroz`, 2008).

Furthermore, it should be expected that the younger population is more confident with tourism development in comparison to the older population, who are more strongly attached to the places where they live and do not want the many changes that tourism brings (Ambroz`, 2008). Residents' uncertainty towards tourism development might be related to their perception of tourism

as a probable source of income and survival. The advantage of this model over other theories like the Social exchange theory, Stakeholders' theory and others is that the model goes further high on the determinants which influence residents' perceptions before entering into the exchange process which are not included in most of the theories. However, the Tourism development model fails to capture other determinants such as knowledge of tourism, perceived outdoor recreational activities, growth of community and others as developed by authors such as Perdue et al. (1990) and Lankford and Howard (1994). This model was reviewed since it has been tested over time and has been proven to be among the major determinants influencing residents' perceptions of tourism development.

Conceptual Framework for the Study

Based on the strengths and weaknesses of both models, the study adapted the model on residents' perceptions of tourism propounded by Perdue et al. (1990) which is also an example of the SET. The model comprises of seven (7) variables which are: residents' characteristics/socio-demographics, perceptions of tourism impacts, perceived positive impacts, perceived negative impacts, support for tourism development and lastly perceive future. This is shown below:

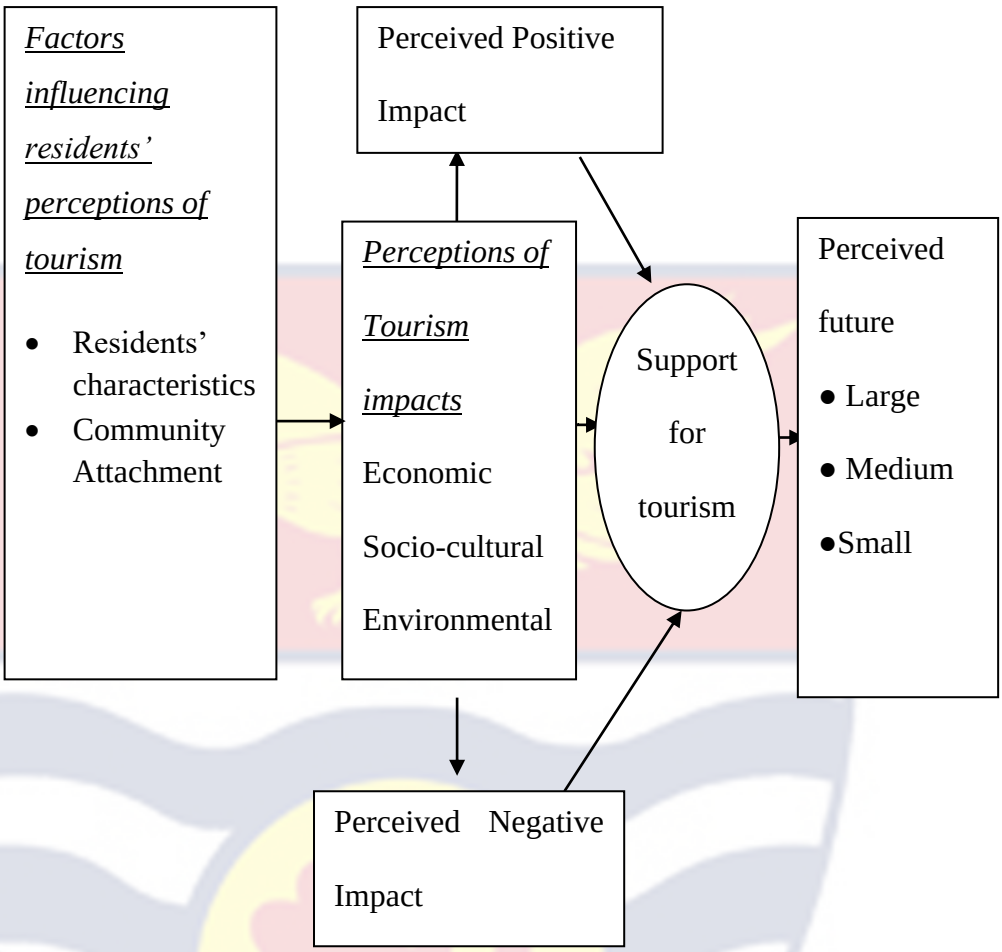

Figure.4: Extended Model of Residents' Perceptions of Tourism

Source: Adapted from Perdue, Long and Allen (1990)

Application of the framework in the context of the study relates that residents' have certain background characteristics such as age, sex and marital status which have an influence in residents perceptions of tourism impacts. Studies in Senegal showed that the elderly men perceived tourism negatively because the youth were occupying the higher ranked positions in their work places (Mensah, 2012).

Community attachment considers the natives and non-natives of the land and how they perceived tourism. Residents' dependency on tourism as an

economic factor will also determine their perception on tourism impacts. For example if an individual depends solely on tourism as a source of livelihood, his/her perception about tourism will be different from an individual who does not. All these factors are regarded as factors influencing residents' perceptions of tourism impacts. Based on these factors, residents will form their own perceptions about tourism development.

Perceived impacts are categorized under economic, socio-cultural and environmental which is either positive or negative. Researchers have observed that residents are likely to support additional tourism development despite the perceived benefits and costs (Kayat, 2002). Residents perceive that tourism development will be well managed when their needs are taken into consideration. Also, other socio-demographic factors have an influence on residents' support for tourism development. Residents' support for tourism development will influence their perceived future of the destination either they prefer large, medium or small scale of tourism development.

Summary

This chapter presented a review on the concept of residents and tourism development. It touched on the impacts of tourism and community participation in community-based ecotourism projects. A discussion of issues relating to residents participation in CBEPs and their challenges was done. The concluding part of this review examined notable models and theories on residents' perceptions of tourism development as well as the conceptual framework for the study. The literature suggests that residents are mostly affected when it comes to tourism development therefore, their views

concerning tourism development should not be over looked. This next chapter looks at the methodology guiding this study. It addresses issues on the study design, sampling techniques and procedures, data collection and analysis in addition to fieldwork and its related challenges.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This chapter presents the methodology adopted in carrying out the study. This begins with the profile of the study area (Bobiri Forest and Butterfly Sanctuary), the research design, sources of data, target population, sampling procedures and sample size, data collection instruments, recruitment, pre-testing and data analysis.

Study Area

Bobiri Forest and Butterfly Sanctuary is located in the Ashanti Region, specifically, in the Ejisu-Juaben Municipal Assembly of Ghana but under Juaso Forest District (Forestry Administration). It is enclosed by six (6) communities: Krofofrom, Kubease, Nobewam, Duampompo, Nkwankwaduam and Tsteteseakasum. The Forest is rich in biodiversity with about 80-100 plant species per acre, 120 bird species and about 340 butterfly species identified. Bobiri Forest and Butterfly Sanctuary is one of the tourist sites designated by the FORIG. Covering an area of 54.6 sq. Km (21.1 sq. Miles), it is the largest reserve in terms of total land area, administered by FORIG and is the only butterfly sanctuary in West Africa (FORIG, 2012). Tourists arrivals for 2011 was 4,510 with GH¢5000 as annual revenue generated (FORIG, 2012). The

area is predominantly visited by domestic tourists with about 28% being international tourists (FORIG, 2012).

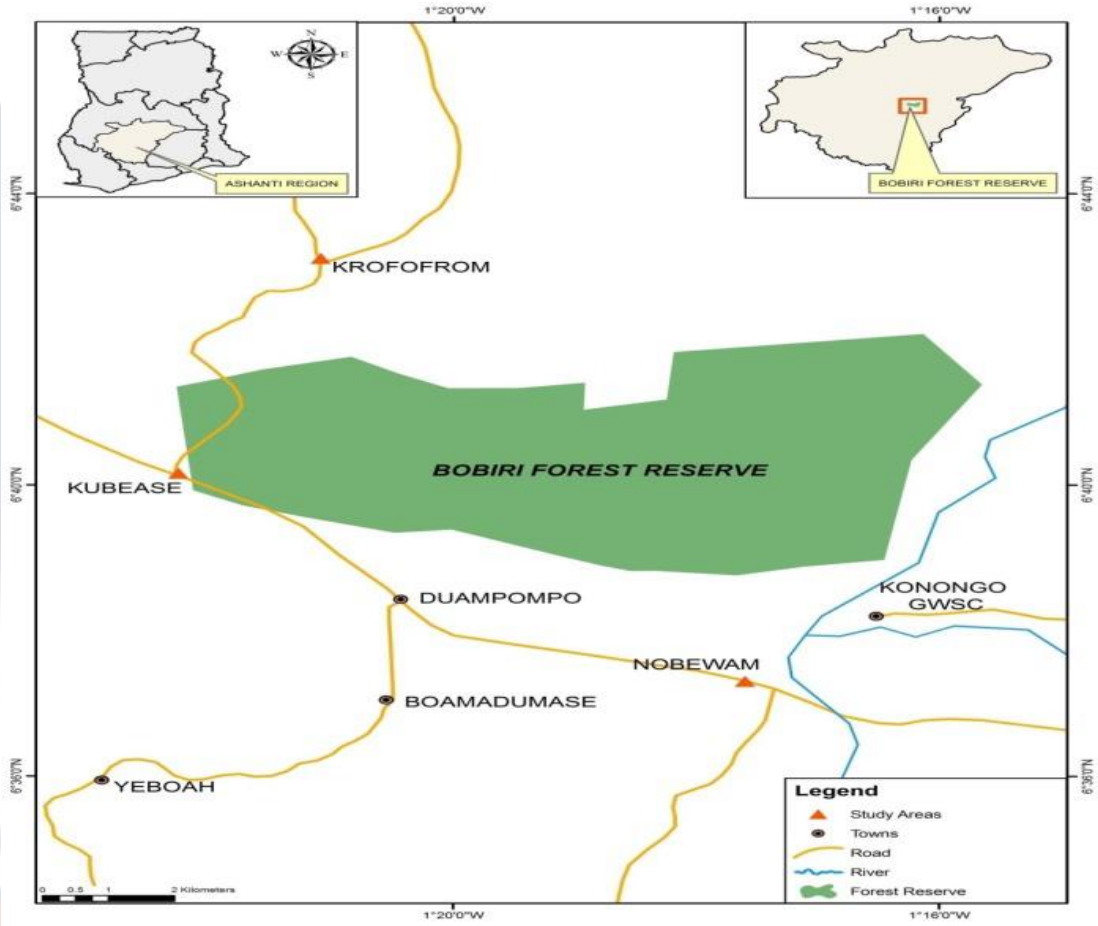

Figure 5: Map of Bobiri Forest and the Surrounding Communities.

Source: Remote Sensing and Cartographic Laboratory, Department of Geography and Regional Planning, University of Cape Coast, 2014.

The Reserve was created in 1939 but became a tourist site in 1997 as a result of the collaboration between the Ministry of Tourism, Nature Conservation and Reservation Center and FORIG. The Reserve is about 35 kilometers South-east of Kumasi and about 6 kilometers off the main Kumasi-Accra road at the village of Kubease.

Bobiri Forest and Butterfly Sanctuary is in the wet semi-equatorial climatic region with bimodal rainfall pattern. The bimodal rainfall seasons are March to June and September to November. The main dry season occurs between December and March whereas August is usually characterized by a short dry period. The relative humidity of the forest area is fairly moderate but usually high during early mornings and the rainy seasons. Annual temperature ranges from 20^0C in August to 32^0C in March. The west semi-equatorial climate is present in the area. Bobiri Forest lies between latitude 60 40'' and 60 44'' north of the Equator and longitudes 10 15'' and 10 22'' west of the Greenwich (FORIG, 2012). The Forest remains unexploited with a vegetation cover falling within the tropical moist semi-deciduous forest zone and has a wide variety of flora and fauna. The Forest reserve is home to varying economic timber species whereas the off-reserve areas are characterized by fallow lands, annual crops, riparian vegetation, cash crop etc.

The topography and the drainage pattern of the Forest falls within the forest dissected terrain region and is underlain by the pre-cambrian rocks of the Birimian and Tarkwaian formations (Ejisu-Juaben Municipal Assembly, 2006). The area which is undulating has a number of smaller rivers one of which the BFBS takes its root name from a river called 'Bobiri'. The area rises from 240 to 300 meters above sea level. The geology and soil types in the forest area offer vast opportunity for the cultivation of traditional and non-traditional cash crops and other staple foodstuffs. The primary activity of the inhabitants of Bobiri is farming mainly due to their location in the forest belt. Agriculture, animal husbandry and lumbering are the mainstay of these rural

economies, employing about 68.2% of the people (Ghana Statistical Service, 2003).

Traditionally, the communities fall under availability of and foraging group of Ashantis and other mixed tribes. The communities fall under the paramountcy of the Juaben Stool (the royal custodian of the land) and predominantly speak the Asante Twi (local dialect) of the people of Ashanti. Each village has a sub-chief (Odikro) who owes allegiance to the paramount chief of Juaben. Together with other traditional heads, the chiefs protect the traditional and cultural values of the people. The communities have an Assemblyman each (democratically elected person) who represents the people in the municipal district assembly (political administration). There are varying committees that see to the day to day administration of the people namely: unit committee members (oversee the developmental issues of the village), school management committees (oversight responsibility of school developmental activities) and village watchdog members (oversight responsibility of protecting people and property).

Compound and separate houses are predominant in the villages. The population growth rate of 2.5% in the district is highly attributed to expansion of peri-urban towns. Public toilets and pit latrines are commonly used, even as, households, usually, dispose off solid waste onto public dumps. Wood and charcoal are the two main sources of fuel for cooking in the three villages. Aside few hand pumping pipes, inhabitants go out to the rivers for water or use rain water during the rainy seasons.

Apart from the traditional community healing center at Nobewam, there are no clinics in the other five (5) villages. Inhabitants mostly travel long

distances to the peri-urban towns for health related issues. Kubease has 3 schools in all, that is, two primary schools (one private, the other public) and a junior high school. Nobewam has a primary school and a junior high school, whereas Krofofrom has only one primary school. None of these communities has a senior high school. Kubease and Nobewam enjoy a better road network and a relatively better telephone facility because of its location on the Kumasi-Accra road.

Bobiri Forest and Butterfly Sanctuary is considered one of the brightest spots in tourism development in the Ashanti Region and in recognition of this, it was awarded the Outstanding Tourist Support in 1999 and Visitors Attraction of the Year in 2001 by the Ashanti Regional Office of the Ghana Tourism Authority (FORIG, 2012). Bobiri Forest was selected as a result of it being one of the earliest community-based ecotourism projects in the region. BFBS is the closest natural forest reserve to the city of Kumasi and is about 45 minutes drive from the town. It has the potential of providing economic, socio-cultural and environmental impacts which when well developed will contribute to the country's tourism development.

The service sector employs 23.8 per cent of the population (Ghana Statistical Service, 2003). Municipal employment records indicate that the service sector contributes most to income (GH ₵56.5 per month) while the agricultural sector is the least contributor (GH ₵45.6 per month) (Ejisu-Juaben Municipal Assembly, 2006). The presence of the Forest reserve's (having production, conservation, research and ecotourism) status makes it a high interest area for many different stakeholders making it an interesting site for this work to assess residents' perceptions of tourism.

Study Design

In order to inquire about what was going on in the study area, the study was guided by descriptive cross-sectional design which gives a numeric description of trends, attitudes or opinions of a population by studying a sample of that population at a particular time. This type of design according to Kumar (2005, p. 23) is "very useful in obtaining an overall picture as it stands at the time of the study". This is a very simple design which allows for one time investigation of the target population. Its advantages are that it is less time consuming as compared to longitudinal and before-and-after studies and was deemed suitable for this study which sought to do a one-time assessment of residents' perceptions of tourism in BFBS.

Data and Sources

Data for this study were sourced primarily from the interview schedules administered and In-Depth Interviews (IDIs) conducted in the study area. Relevant and existing additional information such as information on the study area, figures on tourist arrivals and revenue generated on the BFBS project were sourced from Ejisu- Juaben Municipality Assembly Report 2004-2006, and FORIG.

Target Population

The target population for the study was household heads or their representatives (any household member over 18 years) who reside in the communities around the BFBS project. A household is defined as a person or group of persons, related or unrelated who live together in the same house or

compound, share the same housekeeping arrangement and are catered for as one unit (Ghana Statistical Service, 2000). The purpose for using household heads was dependent on the inception of the BFBS project. Household heads were in a better position to have stayed long enough with the project in order to give an insight on the project. A list of households and population size was compiled for the 3 key communities. This was obtained from the Ghana Statistical Service for the 2000 Population and Housing Census.

Sample Size Determination

The sample size for the study was derived from Fisher, Laing, Stoeckel and Townsend (1998) formula for determining sample size. The formula is used when the target population is less than 10,000. Data obtained from the Ghana Statistical Service (2000) suggested that the household population for the three (3) communities was at 1192. This figure suggested the suitability of using the formula in calculating the sample size for the study.

Fisher et al.'s formula is given as:

$$n_f = \frac{n}{1 + \frac{n}{N}}$$

Where:

n_f = the desired sample size (when population is less than 10,000),

n = the desired sample size (when population is greater than 10,000),

N = the estimate of the target population size.

In order to get 'n', Fisher et al. (1998) provided another formula, which is:

$$n = \frac{z^2 pq}{d}$$

Where:

n = the desired sample size when the population is more than 10,000

z = the normal standard deviation, usually set at 1.96 which corresponds to 95 % confidence level;

p = the proportion of the target population that has similar characteristics;

q = 1.0 minus 'p' and

d = the margin of error which is equal to 0.05. The use of this margin of error was based on Kumar, (2005) assertions that, a margin of error within the range of 0.01 to 0.05 is appropriate in social science. If the z-statistic is equal to 1.96, margin of error (d) equals to 0.05% and the proportion of the target population with similar characteristic (p) equals to 85% (0.85), then (n) is:

$$n = \frac{(1.96)^2 (0.85) (0.15)}{0.05^2}$$

$$= 196$$

A calculated n=196 was obtained. Substituting 'n' and 'N' into the formula, the sample size for the study was calculated as follows:

$$n_f = \frac{196}{1 + \frac{196}{1192}}$$

$$= 168$$

The (n_f) calculated was equal to 168. In order to address the issue of non-response, 15 per cent of the sample size which is equivalent to 25 was added

to the sample size which was 193. However the researcher increased the sample size to 200 households. Hair, Anderson, Tatham and Black (1998) stated that the issue of how large a sample size should be is unanswered. They are, however, of the opinion that based on a large sample distribution theory, reliable estimates can be obtained from samples between 100 to 150 respondents.

Sample Technique

A mixture of probability and non probability sampling techniques were used to select respondents for the study. Kubease was purposively selected because it serves as the gateway to the BFBS project. Simple random sampling was used to select Nobewam and Krofofrom. The lottery method was adopted to select the two communities. This was followed by proportional allocation of the sample size **(**200) households among the 3 communities. This was to ensure equal proportion of samples from each selected communities. Finally, a systematic sampling technique was used to select the (n^{th}) households however; the first household was randomly selected after which the (n^{th}) household was obtained to represent the survey. Systematic sampling was used to ensure fair representation of all household heads. This gave respondents an equal chance of been selected for the survey. The table below illustrates the sample sizes for each community.

Table 1: Summary of Sampling Procedures

Communities	2010 Population	Households Population	Proportional Allocation	Systematic Sampling (n^{th})
Kubease	1787	367	367/1192 *200 = 62	6^{th}
Krofofrom	525	105	105/1192 *200 = 18	6^{th}
Nobewam	3177	720	720/1192* 200 = 120	6^{th}
Total	5489	1192	200	

Source: Ghana Statistical Service (2012)

However, to cater for the qualitative section, key informants (one member each from the traditional council of the key communities and the manager of the BFBS project were interviewed using the interview guide. The purpose of this interview was to get detailed information on the lives of residents before the establishment of Bobiri forest and their perceptions of tourism development. The total sample size was 204.

Study Instrument

The study made use of interview schedules and interview guide. Interview schedules were used to solicit information from residents while interview guide was used to obtain information from key informants from the three communities and a staff of FORIG (the supervisor of BFBS). The interview schedule consisted of 6 main sections which were both closed and open-ended questions. The use of the closed-ended questions allowed respondents to choose from the options available while the open-ended questions gave room for respondents to freely respond to the questions posed.

The first section addressed residents' attachment to their community, length of residence, knowledge of tourism development and their contact with tourists. The second section consisted of a 5-Likert scale of thirty-four (34) variables which was used to assess residents' perceptions of tourism in the BFBS project. The third section looked at residents' forms of participation in tourism development. Measurement of this objective was based on Tosun (2006) ''Normative typologies of community participation'' which tried to indicate the various forms of residents participation in tourism development.

The fourth section dealt with the challenges facing the project using open-ended questions. The fifth section assessed residents' perceptions on the future of tourism development in the BFBS project by looking at residents' level of support for the project, expectations and preferred scale of tourism development. The last section focused on the background characteristics of respondents such as age, sex and marital status. This information was relevant because it had been noted to be among the factors which influenced residents' perception and support for tourism (Akyeampong, 2011; Teye et al., 2002; Weaver & Lawton, 2001; Kayat, 2000).

The interview guide was divided into six (6) main parts which were: general issues, tourism impacts, residents' participation in the project, challenges facing the project, residents' perception on the future of the project and lastly background information of respondents.

Training of Field Assistants and Pre-Testing of Instrument

Three (3) field assistants, who fluently speak the local language (Ashanti Twi), were recruited for the study. Two of them were graduates from

the polytechnic and one from the university. Field assistants were given two (2) day intensive training on the purpose of the research, how to conduct an interview and how to translate the content of the questionnaire into the local dialect (Ashanti Twi). With the help of a field assistant, a pre-testing of twenty (20) respondents was conducted on the 18th and 19th January, 2014 at Abrafo-Odumasi near the Kakum National Park. The reason for this selection was that Kakum represents a similar environment since is an ecotourism site. Therefore responses from residents helped to examine the potential responses from residents and also examine the applicability of the instrument for the study. This pre-testing helped to realize the feasibilities in administering the instrument and all possible challenges that could be faced were rectified before the actual fieldwork.

Community Entry

A preliminary survey was conducted in July, 2013 for enquires about the Forest. In the latter part of January, 2014, an introductory letter and drinks were sent to the chiefs (Odikuro) of the three communities. This was to seek permission from the chiefs to enter the communities under study. The researcher together with the field assistants were introduced to the chiefs together. The purpose of the study and the likely questions that would be posed to residents were discussed with the chiefs. Permission was also sought from FORIG as the manager of BFBS. The gong-gong beater informed the three communities about the up-coming exercise that would take place in their midst for a period of time and also to inform them to make themselves available when approached for the study.

Field work

The actual fieldwork started from the 4th to the 22nd February, 2014. The field assistants helped with the administering of the interview schedules, whereas the researcher conducted all IDIs. For the interview schedule, respondents were asked questions in Ashanti Twi and their responses were written in English. For the IDI, appointments were booked with the key informants at a time convenient for them. The conversations were recorded with the help of a recorder. Responses from respondents were encouraging as almost everyone was aware of the exercise that was going on as announced by the gong-gong beater. Prior to the administration of each instrument, verbal consent was sought from the respondent before the exercise proceeded. Each field assistant administered about 12 interview schedules in a day and a schedule lasted for not less than 15 minutes.

Challenges Encountered

A major challenge encountered was respondents' inability to respond fully to most of the open–ended questionnaires. Some respondents were not able to response fully to most of the open ended questions; like the challenges facing the project. However, upon further explanations some respondents were able to respond to the questions by giving at most two (2) responses.

Again, there was the issue of unwillingness of some respondents to participate in the survey. Those who participated wanted their names on the interview schedules with the hope of getting some future benefits. The researcher was able to resolve some of these issues by explaining further to convince respondents on the essence of the study.

Managers of the BFBS project (FORIG) were also demanding a bench fee of GH ¢50 per month before the research could be conducted since the forest is mostly used by students for scientific studies. However, upon several discussions permission was granted.

Data Analysis

The instruments used for collecting the quantitative data were edited and coded. After editing, a total of 185 questionnaires were found to be useful for the analysis representing a response rate of 92.5%. The data was analyzed with the help of Statistical Product for Service Solution (SPSS) version 16.

Factor analysis was used to identify the major factors of tourism impacts that contributed much to the total variance explained. T-test and One way analysis of variance (ANOVA) were used to compare the mean responses of respondents on issues of the benefits and costs of tourism in terms of residents background characteristics. The Chi-Square Test of Independence statistic was used to test significant relationships between respondents' background characteristics and issues on support for tourism development and tourism development preferences.

For the IDIs, recorded interviews were transcribed for manual analysis. Information gathered from the transcription was categorized under common themes and issues identified by the researcher. Photographs were taken so as to support some of the observation made.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Introduction

This chapter presents the analysis of the data collected and a discussion of the results. Issues covered were background characteristics of respondents, residents' perceptions of the impacts of tourism, community participation in tourism development at the BFBS project, challenges facing the project and residents' perceptions of the future development of tourism in the Bobiri Forest and Butterfly Sanctuary.

Background Characteristics of Respondents

The background characteristics considered in this research were; place of residence, native status, sex, age, marital status, educational level, length of stay, occupation, household income and household size. Respondents' background characteristics were pertinent for the study since researchers have found these factors to influence residents' perceptions and attitudes towards tourism development (Lankford and Howard, 1994; Chen & Hsu, 2001; Teye et al., 2002; Amuquandoh, 2009; Akyeampong, 2011; Mensah, 2012; Kayat et al., 2013). For example, a study conducted by Teye et al. (2002) in Cape Coast and Elmina observed that residents' background characteristics explained some of the disparities in their support for tourism development. The summarized results are presented in Table 2.

Table 2: Background Characteristics of Respondents (N= 185)

Background Characteristics	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Place of residence		
Kubease	57	30.9
Nobewam	112	60.5
Krofofrom	16	8.6
Native status		
Indigene	150	81.1
Non-indigene	35	18.9
Length of stay (years)		
<10	40	21.6
11- 30	64	34.6
> 31	81	43.8
Sex		
Male	94	50.8
Female	91	49.2
Age		
<30	45	24.3
31-50	73	39.5
> 51	67	36.2
Marital status		
Married	138	74.6
Unmarried	47	25.4
Educational level		
No education	37	20.0
Primary	40	21.6
Middle/JHS	65	35.1
SHS	36	19.5
Tertiary	7	3.8
Religious Affiliation		
Christianity	168	90.8
Islam	11	6.0
Traditional	3	1.6
Others	3	1.6
Household income		
<GH¢50	6	3.2
GH¢51 – 100	1	0.5
>GH¢201	8	4.3
Household size		
<10	115	62.2
11 – 30	57	30.8
>31	13	7.0

Source: Fieldwork (2014)

Residents' place of residence in relation to the area of tourism concentration has been found to influence their perception and attitude towards tourism (Amuquandoh, 2006). Respondents were selected from three communities out of the six surrounding Bobiri Forest. The results indicate that more than half (61%) of the respondents stayed at Nobewam, followed by Kubease (31%) and the rest (8%) at Krofofrom.

The literature suggests that birthplace influences residents' perceptions of tourism (Lankford & Howard, 1994; McCool & Martin, 1994). On the whole, the majority of the respondents (81%) were indigenes as against 19 per cent who were non-indigenes.

Closely related to native status is length of stay. The length of stay of the respondents ranged from 1 to 97 years with an average length of stay of 32 years. In terms of distribution: about 44 per cent of the respondents had stayed for over 31 years, 34.6 per cent had lived between 11 to 30 years while a little over one-fifth (21.6%) had stayed below 10 years.

Researchers including Mason and Cheyne (2000) have identified the sex of respondents to be a very important variable in studies relating to host communities. Both male and female participated in the study. As shown in Table 2, males constituted a little over half (51%) of the respondents compared to their female counterparts (49%).

Age is one of the powerful elements that has been explored in relation to host communities perceptions towards tourism development (Tomljenovic & Faulkner, 1999). The age of respondents ranged from 18 to 97 years with an average age of 47 years. The entire sample had an age distribution as follows:

below 30 years (24.3%), between 31and 50 years (39.5%) and above 51 years (36.2%).

Marital status is one of the family characteristics that influence host interactions, perceptions and attitudes towards tourism expansion (Amuquandoh, 2006). The study also revealed the marital status of respondents which was classified under married and unmarried. Overall, about 75 per cent of the respondents were married whilst about a quarter (25%) remained unmarried.

Like age and sex, the educational attainment of residents often shows some influence on their perceptions and attitudes towards tourism development. As it is evident from Table 2, the educational attainment of respondents was as follows: a little over one-third (35%) had attained Middle/Junior High School (JHS) education, followed by those with primary education (21.6%) while one-fifth (20%) had no education at all. Only 3.8 per cent of the respondents had acquired tertiary education.

Tourism has been associated with religious crisis in most parts of the world. Respondents from different religious backgrounds participated in the survey. The breakdown was as follows: Christianity (90.8%), Islam (6%), Traditional (1.6%) and others (1.6%).

Income is one of the variables that have been identified to influence residents' perceptions of tourism. The monthly household income of respondents was as follows: below GH¢ 50 (3.2%), between GH¢ 51 to 100 (0.5%) and above GH¢201(4.3%). It is significant to note that respondents' income derived from tourism related services were relatively low since only 8

per cent of the respondents had their monthly household incomes from tourism.

Household size of the respondents ranged from 1 to 60 members with an average of about 12 members per each household. The results indicate that more than half (62.2%) of the respondents had a household size below 10, about 31 per cent had a household size between 11 to 30 while less than a quarter (7%) had a household size above 31.

Occupation of Respondents

Residents' occupations have been found to influence their perceptions and attitudes towards tourism development. Often tourism developers, service providers and those employed in tourism related jobs are found to be more supportive of tourism development (Amuquandoh, 2006). Table 3 presents the range of jobs that existed in the area. Farming, trading, driving and hairdressing remained the common and popular occupation accounting for 58.2%, 24.3%, 3.6% and 3.2% respectively. From Table 3, it is obvious that the majority of the respondents were farmers due to their present location in the forest belt.

Table 3: Occupation of Respondents Surrounding BFBS

Occupation	Frequency	Percentage
Farmer	146	58.2
Trader	61	24.3
Driver	9	3.6
Hairdresser	8	3.2
Kente Weaver	4	1.2
Mason	3	1.2
Teacher	3	1.2
Tailor	2	0.8
Lumber man	2	0.8
Tour guide	2	0.8
Revenue Officer	2	0.8
Unemployed	9	3.5
Total	251*	100

Source: Field work (2014)

*Frequency exceeds 302 because of multiple responses

Residents' Participation in Tourism Development in Bobiri Forest

Since the early 1980s, numerous studies have been conducted on the importance of community participation in decision-making (Ap, 1992; Madrigal, 1993; Lankford & Howard, 1994), and all have concluded that host communities should participate in community-based tourism projects. It is believed that many of the negative effects of mass tourism are likely to be reduced when communities have a role in making decisions with respect to the

local growth of tourism (Key & Pillai, 2006). Respondents were asked on their participation in decisions relating to tourism development in the Bobiri Forest. Figure 6 displays the results of respondents' participation in decision making.

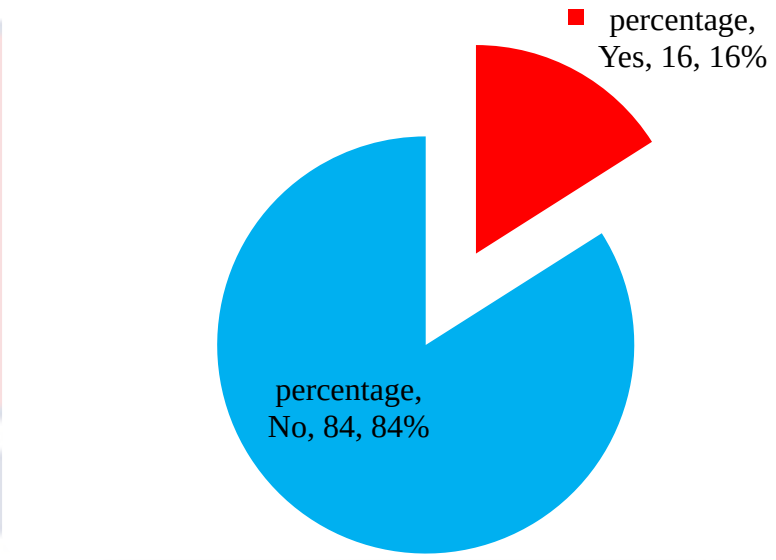

Figure 6: Respondents Participation in Tourism Related Decisions in BFBS

Source: Fieldwork (2014)

Evidence from figure 6 suggests that 16 per cent of the respondents participated in decisions relating to the Bobiri Forest tourism project. This finding was expected because, usually, only a few selected people can represent the entire community in the decision making process.

A further analysis was conducted on respondents involvement in tourism decision making process by their background characteristics. The results are presented in Table 4.

Tenets of sustainable tourism require that all key stakeholders are involved in the decision making relating to projects that affect them. The results suggest that the major communities around the BFBS participate in

decision making relating to the project. The nature of the distribution was Krofofrom (50%), Kubease (21.1%) and Nobewam (8%). The result indicates a significant relationship between place of residence and involvement in tourism decision making in the BFBS project.

Table 4: Respondents Involvement in Tourism Decision Making by their Background Characteristics

Background Characteristics	Involvement in Tourism Decision Making		X^2 Statistics
	Yes (%)	No (%)	(P-Value)
Place of residence			20.453
Kubease	21.1	78.9	(0.000*)
Nobewam	8.0	92.0	
Krofofrom	50.0	50.0	
Native status			1.684
Indigene	22.9	77.1	(0.194)
Non- indigene	14.0	86.0	
Sex			0.839
Male	18.1	81.9	(0.360)
Female	13.2	86.8	
Age			0.199
<30	17.8	82.2	(0.905)
31 – 50	15.1	84.9	
>51	14.9	85.1	
Educational level			
			0.898
No education	15.7	84.3	(0.925)
Primary	20.0	80.0	
Middle/JHS	14.3	85.7	
SHS	16.7	83.3	
Tertiary	13.8	86.2	
Marital status			0.086
Married	17.0	83.0	(0.769)
Unmarried	15.2	84.8	

Source: Fieldwork (2014)

Significance level = 0.05

As shown in Table 4, no significant relationship was established between involvement in tourism decision making and native status. The study reveals that both the indigene (22.9%) and non-indigene (14%) participated in decision making relating to tourism development. This confirms the finding by Afenyo (2011) who observed relatively less involvement of non-indigenes in the tourism decision making process at Tafi Atome Monkey Sanctuary. However, the results indicate that non-indigenes were fairly represented in tourism decision making process in the BFBS project. This suggests that the Bobiri Forest project offers voice to all those that are affected by the project irrespective of ethnic status.

Both male and female were noted to participate in decision making, with the males constituting the majority (18.1%). This suggests that the project is gender sensitive as there was a fair representation of both male and female.

With respect to age, the young, the middle aged and the elderly were found to participate in decision making relating to the project. Specifically; respondents below 30 years were the majority (17.8%), followed by those between 31-50 years (15.1%) and the rest were above 51 years were (14.9%). This suggests that members in all the age groups were fairly represented.

Individuals with diverse educational backgrounds were found to participate in the decision making that relates to the project. In terms of distribution: primary leavers recorded the highest (20%), followed by SHS leavers (16.7%), no education (15.7%) and middle/JHS leavers (14.3%). The least was tertiary leavers (13.8%). The low participation of individuals with tertiary education may be attributed to the high illiteracy rate in the area (Ghana Statistical Service, 2012).

Both the married and unmarried were noted to participate in the project. With the married individuals forming the majority (17%) while the unmarried (15.2%). This picture may be attributed to the fact that in the traditional African societies married people are accorded much more respect than their other counterparts.

Forms of Local Participation in the Bobiri Forest Project

Based on Tosun (2006) normative typologies of community participation three (3) categories of host participation were identified. These are spontaneous, induced and coercive participation as presented in Table 5.

Table 5: Forms of Local Participation in BFBS

Statement	Number	Percentage in Agreement	Mean
Spontaneous			
Residents' are directly involved in providing services/goods to tourists	185	50.8	2.70
Residents' have total control over all key management decision on the project	185	5.4	4.16
All groups in the community are represented on the management committee	185	24.3	3.65
Overall Score	*185*	*26.8*	*3.50*
Induced			
Information on the project is made available to residents' but avenues are not created for feedbacks	185	68.1	2.18
Residents' opinions are seldom used	185	61.6	2.61
Only a few residents' from the selected groups can represent in tourism related decisions in BFBS	185	71.9	1.44

Table 5 continued

Overall Score	185	67.2	2.08
Coercive			
Residents' do not have control over the form of tourism development in the BFBS project	185	78.9	1.92
Private investors are leading in the sale of souvenirs to tourists in the BFBS	185	50.3	2.61
Key decisions on the revenue generated from the project are always made by FORIG	185	93.5	1.60
Overall Score	*185*	*74.2*	*2.04*

Source: Fieldwork (2014)

Scale: 1- 1.49 = Strongly Agree, 1.5 – 2.49 = Agree, 2.50 – 3.49 = Uncertain, 3.50 – 4.49 = Disagree, 4.50 -5.0 = Strongly Disagree.

The results indicate that respondents in the area were yet to reach spontaneous participation (mean = 3.50). Specifically, less than a quarter of the respondents agreed to the statement that all communities were represented on the management committee (24.3%) and also, 5.4 per cent of them have total control over all key management decision on the project. On the other hand, they were divided (50.8%, mean= 2.70) on the statement that residents were directly involved in providing goods/services to tourists (Table 5).

As evident from Table 5, about 67 per cent of the residents were in agreement that their participation in the project was an induced one (mean = 2.08). Specifically, the respondents were in agreement that information on the project is made available to residents but avenues were lacking for feedbacks from them (68.1%, mean = 2.18) and residents opinions were seldom used (61.6%, mean = 2.61). This is consistent with Tosun (2006) who observed that induced form of participation is common in developing countries. Since most developing countries do not have the power to influence decision making.

In the same vein, the majority of the residents (74.2%, mean = 2.04) consider their participation in the BFBS project as been coercive in nature. Specifically; residents lack control of the utilization of revenue generated from the project (93.5%, mean = 1.60). Aside this, they were of the view that they do not have control over the form of tourism development in the area (78.9%, mean = 1.92). This may be linked to the fact that residents lack control of the utilization of revenue generated from the project which can be deduced from the remark made by one key informant that:

Issues on the revenue generated from BFBS are always done by FORIG. FORIG gives a royalty of about 20-25 per cent of the annual income (GH¢5000) to Juaben hene to be shared among the six fringe communities. (35 years old, Supervisor of BFBS).

The overall results indicate that respondents' participation in the BFBS project ranged between coercive and induced participation. A substantial body of literature on community participation has revealed that, there seems to be no evidence which shows that participatory tourism development practices have gone beyond induced or coercive participation in the developing world (Tosun, 1999). This situation can be attributed to the weak legal rights and lack of local communities' awareness about their responsibilities in community based ecotourism projects.

Barriers to Community Participation in the Bobiri Forest project

A number of factors act as barriers to local communities' active participation in community based ecotourism projects. According to Tosun (2000) these factors range from socio-political, economic to cultural structures

existing in the local communities. Respondents were asked to choose from a predetermined set of questions on barriers to community participation in BFBS project. Table 6 reveals the frequency distribution of the barriers to community participation in Bobiri Forest.

Table 6: Barriers to Community Participation in BFBS

Barriers	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Inadequate access to information on tourism development	46	31.9
Low educational background	39	27.1
Lack of requisite skills to work in the area	34	23.6
Meetings times are not always appropriate	9	6.2
Lack of interest in tourism development	7	4.9
Lack of insight into community participation	5	3.5
Discrimination	4	2.8
Total	144*	100

Source: Fieldwork (2014)

*Frequency is more because of multiple responses

Seven (7) barriers namely inadequate access to information on tourism development, low educational background, lack of requisite skills, meetings times not always appropriate, lack of interest in tourism development, lack of insight into community participation and discrimination were identified to limit tourism development in the area. Inadequate access to information on tourism development was the highest (31.9%) while discrimination among residents (2.8%) was the least. The findings on low education and lack of requisite skills substantiate findings by Timothy (1999) that low education and lack of requisite skills act as barriers to community participation.

The in–depth interviews conducted with key informants on the barriers to community participation, also, revealed that residents do not have adequate access to information concerning the project since the only information center

at Kubease was closed for the past five (5) years due to inadequate capital for running the office. One key informant revealed that:

The low level of education of residents often hinders their participation in the project (35 years old, Supervisor of BFBS).

Residents' Perceptions of Tourism Impacts in BFBS

Studies have identified both positive and negative impacts of tourism (Cooper et al., 2008; Kayat et al., 2013). The survey sought to ask respondents on their perceptions of the socio-cultural, economic and environmental impacts of tourism in the area. Table 7 presents the frequency distribution of the responses to each of the socio-cultural impact statements and the means.

Table 7: Respondents' Perceptions of Socio-Cultural Impact of Tourism in BFBS

Statement	Number	Percentage in Agreement	Mean
Socio-Cultural Benefits			
Tourism has led to an improvement of the image of my community	185	65.5	1.78
Tourism has provided me a learning experience	185	61.7	1.83
Tourism has led to the preservation of my culture	185	54.2	2.58
Tourism has provided a better appreciation of my traditional culture	185	53.0	2.61
Tourism has promoted my interaction with tourists	185	50.5	3.02
Tourism has strengthened my family-ties	185	45.4	3.43
Tourism has brought diversification in my recreational activities	185	42.9	3.18
Tourism has increased demand for historical and cultural exhibits in my area	185	41.4	3.14
Tourism has led to an improvement in social amenities in this area	185	35.3	4.06
Overall Score	*185*	*49.99*	*3.09*

Table 7 continued.

Socio-Cultural Cost			
Tourism has increased drug use and alcoholism in the area	185	14.6	3.97
Tourism has increased crime rates in the area	185	13.0	4.05
Tourism has created conflicts on land use in the area	185	12.4	3.93
Tourism has led to the destruction of my cultural heritage	185	8.6	3.95
Tourism has increased the rate of prostitution in the area	185	6.5	4.16
Overall Score	*185*	*11.0*	*4.01*

Source: Fieldwork (2014)

Scale: 1- 1.49 = Strongly Agree, 1.5 – 2.49 = Agree, 2.50 – 3.49 = Uncertain, 3.50 – 4.49 = Disagree, 4.50 -5.0 = Strongly Disagree.

Table 7 shows that the respondents were uncertain (mean = 3.09) about the socio-cultural benefits of tourism in the area. In specific terms, respondents were uncertain on the statements: tourism has provided a better appreciation of my traditional culture (53%) and tourism has promoted my interaction with tourists (50.5%). However, respondents agreed to statements like tourism has led to an improvement of my community (65.5%) and tourism has provided a learning experience (61.7%). One respondent remarked that:

Tourism has led to an improvement of the image of my community since Kubease has become the gateway to the forest. (45 years old, a member of the unit committee at Kubease).

The result confirms findings by Sebastian and Rajagopalan (2009) and Mensah (2012) that, it is difficult for residents to pinpoint the socio-cultural impacts of tourism development. The multifaceted nature of culture makes it difficult for residents to detect changes in their societal values, beliefs and cultural practices within the shortest possible time as a result of tourism.

In contrast, respondents were in disagreement (mean = 4.01) with the socio-cultural costs of tourism. In terms of the individual items, they disagreed with the statements such as tourism has increased drug use and alcoholism (14.6%) and increase in crime (13%). One respondent remarked:

I see nothing new that tourism has brought to this town and hence I cannot conclude that tourism has led to the destruction of our cultural heritage neither has it brought any socio-cultural cost. (50 years old, an elder from the Chief's palace at Nobewam).

Respondents' disagreement to the socio-cultural cost may be attributed to two reasons. Firstly, residents, hardly, interact with tourists and secondly, most of the tourists who visit the forest are domestic tourists who originate mostly from Ashanti Region due to the similarities in culture, the impact tends to be less. According to McGehee and Andereck (2004) impacts tend to be greater where the ''host'' and ''guest'' are both culturally and geographically far apart.

Economic Impact

Commonly, the first most important reason given by governments and other agencies for embarking upon tourism development is the associated economic benefits (Cooper et al., 2008). Table 8 presents the mean values and frequency distribution of the responses to each of the economic impact statements.

Table 8: Respondents' Perceptions of Economic Impact of Tourism in BFBS

Statement	Number	Percentage in Agreement	Mean
Economic Benefits			
Tourism has created employment opportunities	185	16.2	3.98
Tourism has increased investment opportunities in this area	185	10.3	4.08
Tourism has led to seasonal unemployment in this area	185	58.4	2.54
Tourism has led to an improvement in my living standards	185	18.9	3.77
Tourism has increased trade and business in this area	185	28.1	3.52
Tourism has promoted my local economy	185	21.6	3.72
Tourism has increased transport infrastructure in this area	185	5.9	4.23
Overall Score	*185*	*16.8*	*3.88*
Economic Cost			
Increased the cost of living in the area	185	61.1	2.34
Tourism has led to an increase in leakages in the area	185	67.6	2.30
Tourism has led to an increase in land prices	185	68.6	2.16

Table 8 continued.

Tourism has led to seasonal unemployment opportunities in this area	185	58.4	2.54
Overall Score	185	63.93	2.34

Source: Fieldwork (2014)

Scale: 1- 1.49 = Strongly Agree, 1.5 – 2.49 = Agree, 2.50 – 3.49 = Uncertain, 3.50 – 4.49 = Disagree, 4.50 -5.0 = Strongly Disagree.

The result indicates that tourism is yet to make significant contribution to the economy of the area. Overall, less than a quarter (16.8%, mean = 3.88) acknowledged some economic benefits in the area. Specifically, less than one-third agreed that tourism has increased trade and businesses (28.1%, mean = 3.52), improved living conditions (18.9%, mean = 3.77) and tourism has increased employment opportunities (16.2%, mean = 3.98). The mean ratings of respondents confirmed their disagreement levels to the economic benefits of tourism. This is in contrast with findings by Kayat (2002), Cooper et al. (2008) and Sebele (2010) that community based tourism project provides more economic benefits than the other impacts.

With regard to the negative economic impacts, about 64 per cent of the respondents were in agreement with the economic cost. Specifically, respondents agreed that tourism has resulted in an increase in land prices (68.6%, mean = 2.16), increase in leakages (67.6%, mean = 2.30) and tourism has led to seasonal unemployment (58.4%, mean = 2.54). This observation is similar to the findings by Joppe (1996) and Kayat et al. (2013) who individually in their study in Malaysia and Kenya respectively noted increase in the cost of land and housing, increased prices of goods and services as some

of the major economic costs associated with tourism development. The findings on increase in leakages also support the views of Honey (1999) and Lindberg, Andersson and Dellaert (2001) that increase in leakages is a major economic cost in rural areas. Results from the economic impact indicated that respondents were in disagreement to the economic benefits but in agreement to the economic cost.

Environmental Impact

The environment is considered as one of the main domains whereby residents assess the potential effects of tourism before they decide to embrace or reject it (Amuquandoh, 2006). Table 9 shows the mean values and frequency distribution of the responses to each of the environmental impact.

Table 9: Respondents' Perceptions of Environmental Impact of Tourism

Statement	Number	Percentage in Agreement	Mean
Environmental Benefits			
Tourism has broadened my awareness of environment issues	185	62.7	2.34
Tourism has led to the restoration of historical sites and relics in this area	185	45.4	2.76
Tourism has led to the beautification of the environment	185	61.1	2.42
Tourism has led to conservation of the forest	185	94.6	1.49
Tourism has led to conservation of wildlife	185	93.5	1.54
Tourism has improved sanitary conditions in my community	185	21.1	3.55

Table 9 continued.

Overall Score	*185*	*63.1*	*2.35*
Environmental Cost			
Tourism has led to the degradation of the environment	185	4.3	4.32
Tourism has increased the level of noise making in my community	185	10.8	3.95
Tourism has led to the generation of excessive litter in this area	185	13.5	3.99
Overall Score	*185*	*9.5*	*4.08*

Source: Fieldwork (2014)

Scale: 1- 1.49 = Strongly Agree, 1.5 – 2.49 = Agree, 2.50 – 3.49 = Uncertain, 3.50 – 4.49 = Disagree, 4.50 -5.0 = Strongly Disagree.

Evidence suggests that more than half (63.1%) of the respondents agreed to the environmental benefits as against about 10 per cent who admitted to negative environmental impacts. Among positive environmental impacts associated with tourism in the area were; conservation of the forest (94.6%, mean = 1.49), conservation of wildlife (93.5%, mean = 1.54) and awareness of environment issues (62.7%, mean = 2.34). The mean responses indicate that the majority of the respondents were in agreement with positive environmental impacts. This is consistent with findings by Nyaupane and Thapa (2004) and Amuquandoh (2009) who observed conservation of forest, wildlife and creation of awareness of the environment as the major environmental benefits for most local residents. One respondent remarked that:

I am very happy that FORIG is helping in the conservation of the forest, if not for their intervention our forest would have been degraded by now. I can boast that Bobiri Forest is the only forest in West Africa with a

Butterfly Sanctuary and still in its natural state. (70 years old, an elder from the Chief's palace at Krofofrom).

On the other hand, the majority of respondents disagreed to the environmental cost (9.5%, mean = 4.08). Less than one-fifth of the respondents agreed with the statements; tourism has generated excessive litter in the communities (13.5%, mean = 3.99) and increase in noise making (10.8%, mean = 3.95). The findings on excessive litter supports the views put forward by Nyaupane and Thapa (2004) that tourism is characterized by excessive litter generation in host communities.

Scholars have identified the protection and conservation of valuable ecosystems as one of the main goals of ecotourism (Stronza, 2008; Honey, 1999). Evidence gathered from the fieldwork suggests that stakeholders have placed stringent measures to minimize the negative impacts of tourism. One respondent remarked that:

The forest serves as a protector for our houses against strong winds and helps in giving abundant rainfall for our crops. (68 years old, an elder from the Chief's palace at Nobewam).

Factors Influencing Residents' Perceptions of Tourism in BFBS Project

After assessing residents' perceptions on the impacts of tourism it became necessary for a further look into the major components or factors that work together to influence residents' perceptions. In order to ascertain the main factors contributing to residents' perceptions on the impacts of tourism in Bobiri Forest and Butterfly Sanctuary, thirty-four (34) variables were subjected to Factor analysis (FA).

A principal component factor analysis with varimax rotation of the 34 impact items was conducted to determine which specific factors contributed most to residents' perceptions on the impacts of tourism in Bobiri Forest. The output is presented in Table 10.

The Kaiser-Meyer-Oklin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's test of shpericity were examined to determine the factorability of the data. The KMO result was 0.798 and the Bartlett's test of sphericity was 3.932 with a P-value of 0.000 which supports the factorability of the data.

According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) the Bartlett's test of sphericity should be significant at 0.05 for the Factor Analysis to be considered appropriate while the KMO index ranges from 0-1, with 0.6 recommended as the minimum value for a good Factor Analysis. The KMO value calculated exceeded the recommended minimum value of 0.6 (0.7) and the Bartlatt's test of shpericity was also significant at 0.05 significant level (0.000). It therefore confirms the suitability of the data for Factor Analysis.

The Cronbach's alpha was, also, used to test the internal reliability of the scale used. Pallant (2005) argues that a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.7 or more indicates a significant reliability of the scales used.

In order to explain the factors in an easy way, the Principal component analysis (PCA) adopted the varimax rotation to reduce the 34 items into five main underlying factors. The final five factors with eigenvalues greater than 1 emerged and explained about 52 per cent of the total variance as indicated in Table 10. This output therefore means that about 48 per cent of other unexplained factors (i.e native status, sex, educational attainment,etc.) might have accounted for residents' perceptions on tourism impacts in Bobiri Forest.

The factors identified, contributed to the explanation of the total variance differently as shown in Table 10.

Table 10: Factor Analysis on Respondents' Perceptions on the Impacts of Tourism

Variables	Factor loadings	Eigenvalue	% of variance	Cronbach's alpha
F 1: Socio-Cultural Benefit				
Learning experience	0.77	5.86	15.01	0.86
Increase interaction with tourists	0.72			
Demand for historical and cultural exhibits	0.63			
Strengthen my family-ties	0.58			
Preservation of my culture	0.57			
F 2:Economic Benefit				
Investment opportunities	0.76	5.01	12.85	0.82
Improvement in my living standards	0.69			
Employment opportunities	0.68			
Increase in trade	0.64			
Promoted my local economy	0.56			
Transport infrastructure	0.57			

Table 10 continued.
F3: Socio-Cultural Cos

Drugs and alcoholism	0.83	4.11	10.54	0.82
Increased Prostitution	0.78			
Increased crime	0.67			
Conflicts on land use	0.67			
Destruction of culture	0.52			
F4: Economic Cost				
Leakages	0.72	3.34	8.57	0.74
Increase land prices	0.65			
High cost of living	0.64			
F5:Environmental Impact				
Broaden my awareness of the environment	0.72	2.14	5.50	0.71
Generation of excess litter	0.64			
Beautification of the environment	0.62			
Noise making	0.60			
Restoration of historical sites	0.41			
Total variance explained			52.47	

Source: Fieldwork (2014)

Kaiser–Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy = 0.798; Barlett's test of Sphericity = 3.932; P = 0.000

Factor 1: Socio-Cultural Benefit

The first factor consists of five(5) items which measured residents' perceptions on tourism impacts. With an eigenvalue of 5.86, it contributed approximately 15 per cent towards the total variance explained. Among the varibles that contributed much to F1 were: tourism has provided me a learning

experience, which recorded the highest factor loading (0.77), followed by tourism has promoted my interaction with tourists' (0.72). The findings on learning experience confirms findings by (Ambrò, 2008; Cooper et al., 2008; Kayat et al., 2013) that tourism provides a learning experience for the host communities. This could be explained by the fact that respondents perceive tourism development as an opportunity to learn foreign culture.

Factor 2: Economic Benefit

Economic benefit as a factor was made up of six (6) variables. With an eigenvalue of 5.01, it contributed about 13 per cent to the total variance. Specifically, the variables that contributed much to F2 were: tourism has increased investment opportunities (0.76) and tourism has led to an improvement in living standards (0.69). This finding is consistent with the results by McGehee and Andereck (2004) that tourism creates investment opportunities to the host destination.

Factor 3: Socio-Cultural Cost

Socio-cultural cost was made up of five (5) variables. Factor 3 contributed about 11 per cent to the total variance, with an eigenvalue of 4.11. Tourism has increased drug use and alcoholism in the area recorded the highest loading variable of 0.83 while tourism has created conflicts on land use in the area had the lowest factor loading of 0.67. This is in line with the findings by Sebastian and Rajagopalan (2009) who revealed increase in alcoholism as one of the major contributing social effects arising from tourism development. Harrill (2004) also, confirmed increased alcoholism, drugs and

prostitution as some of the negative outcomes of tourism. Respondents explained that there has been an increase in drug use and alcoholism since most males spend their little money on drugs and alcohol. Some respondents also said there had been instances where there were conflicts involving the exact boundary between the Bobiri Forest reserve and their farmlands.

Factor 4: Economic Cost

The fourth factor seemed to measure more of the economic cost. Factor four was made up of three (3) variables. With an eigenvalue of 3.34 it contributed about 9 per cent to the total variance. Tourism has led to an increase in leakages (0.72) and tourism has led to an increase of land prices (0.65). This affirms the works of Haralambopoulos and Pizam (1996) Andereck & Vogt (2000) and Andriotis (2005) that increase in leakages and land prices are among the major economic costs associated with tourism development.

Factor 5: Environmental Impact

This factor was made up of five (5) variables which contributed approximately 5% of the total variance and an eigenvalue of 2.14. Specfically, tourism has broaden my awareness of the environment recorded the highest (0.72), followed by tourism has led to the generation of excessive litter (0.64) whereas tourism has led to the restoration of historical sites and relics (0.41) was the least. The result is in line with works by Puczko and Ratz (2000) and Amuquandoh (2009) that excessive litter generation and increase in noise level are among the relevant environmental impacts.

In summary, five factors emerged from the PCA varimax rotation factor analysis. All five factors together explained about 52 per cent of the total variance of factors accounting for residents perceptions on tourism impacts in Bobiri Forest and Butterfly Sanctuary. The factors eigenvalues decreased in magnitude from factor one (1) through to factor five (5) (Factor 1: 5.87, Factor 2: 5.01, Factor 3: 4.11, Factor 4: 3.34 and Factor 5: 2.14).

From Table 10, it can be concluded that FA technique provided five (5) essential factors that explained residents' perceptions of tourism impacts in Bobiri Forest and Butterfly Sanctuary. The total variance was relatively high as it was more than half (50%). This means that there could be other factors that might have accounted for respondents' perceptions of tourism impacts in Bobiri Forest and Butterfly Sanctuary that were not captured in this study.

Respondents' Perceptions of the BFBS Project

According to Harril (2004) residents perceptions of the impacts of tourism influence their support for tourism development. For tourism planners and developers, this is of great interest because community support is an essential element in ensuring the sustainability of tourism projects. Table 11 presents both t-test and one-way analysis (ANOVA) results employed to determine whether significant differences exist in the perceived benefits and costs of tourism in terms of respondents background characteristics.

Table 11: Respondents' Perceptions about Tourism by Background Characteristics

Background Characteristics	Benefits of Tourism			Cost of Tourism		
	N	Mean	Test Statistic (P-value)	N	Mean	Test Statistic (P-value)
Place of residence						
Kubease	57	2.77*	15.256 (0.000*)	57	3.44	4.409 (0.013*)
Nobewam	112	3.55*		112	3.43*	
Krofofrom	16	3.56		16	3.82*	
Native status						
Indigene	150	3.23	1.658 (0.099)	150	3.44	1.244 (0.215)
Non-indigene	35	3.00		35	3.56	
Sex						
Male	94	3.26	1.215 (0.226)	94	3.44	0.691 (0.490)
Female	91	3.12		91	3.49	
Age						
<30	45	3.18	0.007 (0.993)	45	3.51	1.511 (0.223)
31 – 50	73	3.19		73	3.52	
>51	67	3.19		67	3.38	
Marital status						
Married	138	3.21	0.647 (0.518)	138	3.47	0.203 (0.839)
Unmarried	47	3.13		47	3.45	
Educational level						
Tertiary	7	3.14	1.410 (0.233)	7	3.76	0.757 (0.554)
Senior High	36	3.00		36	3.47	
Junior High	65	3.31		65	3.42	
Primary	40	3.08		40	3.48	
Illiterate	37	3.30		37	3.48	
Household size						
<10	115	3.31*	5.586 (0.004*)	115	3.55*	8.746 (0.000*)
11 – 30	57	3.05		57	3.40	
>31	13	2.69*		13	2.98*	

Source: Fieldwork (2014)

Scale: 1- 1.49 = Strongly Agree, 1.5 – 2.49 = Agree, 2.50 – 3.49 = Uncertain, 3.50 – 4.49 = Disagree, 4.50 -5.0 = Strongly Disagree.

The t-test results indicate that there were no significant difference in the mean scores of the perceived benefits and costs of tourism with regard to native status, sex and marital status. This confirms finding by Amuquandoh (2009) who observed that there is no significant difference in residents' perceived benefits of tourism by native status, sex and marital status. The mean values indicate that respondents within the categories were uncertain about the benefits of tourism in the area.

With regard to native status, both indigene (mean = 3.23) and non-indigene (mean = 3.00) expressed uncertainty on the perceived benefits of tourism. However, under the perceived cost of tourism non-indigenes were in disagreement (mean = 3.56) while indigenes were uncertain (mean = 3.44). Researchers have indicated that indigenes are more negative towards tourism development than non indigenes (McCool & Martin, 1994; Lindberg et al., 2001). Respondents' uncertainty about the benefits of tourism may be attributed to their native status and length of stay, since about 80 per cent of the respondents were indigenes and had stayed for over 10 years as shown in Table 2. Probably, indigenes consider the environment as unique and the introduction of tourism has either degraded or led to an improvement in the natural environment.

The one-way analysis of variance indicated significant differences in the perceived benefits of tourism with regard to place of residence and household size. On the issue of place of residence, respondents were certain that tourism development comes with some benefits and costs. Whereas respondents from Nobewam and Krofofrom disagreed to the benefits of tourism, the residents from Kubease were divided on the perceived benefits of

tourism. Scholars have identified distance to influence residents' perceptions of tourism development (Mansfeld, 1992; Kayat et al., 2013). A possible indicator for this variation could be that Kubease is closer to the Bobiri Forest while Nobewam is farther from the Bobiri Forest. Hence, respondents of Nobewam consider tourism as a cost since they are not benefiting from it. The ambivalence expressed by the residents from Kubease may be linked to the fact that most of the benefits were more of environmental rather than economic benefits as expected.

On the contrary, the one-way analysis of variance indicated a wider difference in the perceived costs of tourism with regard to place of residence and household size. Respondents of Kubease (mean = 3.44) and Nobewam (mean = 3.43) were uncertain on the perceived costs of tourism while respondents from Krofofrom disagreed to the costs of tourism (mean = 3.82). A similar finding was identified by Amuquandoh (2009) that, there is a significant difference between the perceive cost of tourism in terms place of residence.

Challenges Facing Tourism Development in Bobiri Forest Area

Tourism development projects like any developmental initiatives are confronted by a number of challenges. Respondents were asked to mention some challenges they consider to hinder tourism in BFBS. Table 12 presents the frequency distribution of the identified challenges facing the success of tourism development in Bobiri Forest. Eight challenges namely: poor road network, lack of residents' support, illegal lumbering, poor marketing of site,

inadequate government support, inadequate skilled personnel, inadequate information on tourism development and natural hazards.

Table 12: Challenges Facing Tourism Development in BFBS

Challenges	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Poor road network	129	36.1
Lack of residents' support	81	22.7
Illegal Lumbering	52	14.6
Poor marketing of the Bobiri Forest	28	7.8
Inadequate government support	23	6.4
Inadequate skilled personnel	20	5.6
Inadequate information on tourism development	12	3.4
Natural hazards	12	3.4
Total	357	100

Source: Fieldwork (2014)

*Frequency exceeds sample size because of multiple responses

The in-depth interviews conducted with the key informants also confirmed these challenges. However, the most outstanding challenge was the poor nature of the road leading to Bobiri Forest. This is in line with observation by Holladay and Ormsby (2011) that poor road network is the major challenge hindering tourism development in the Five Blues Lake National, Belize. Similar finding was noted by Afenyo (2011) that poor road network limits tourism development. This was expected because often roads leading to community-based ecotourism sites in Ghana are usually in

deplorable state, perhaps to limit the number of visits. Although natural hazards, specifically, bush fires, thunder and lightening were the least (3.4%), it was noted to be major challenge facing tourism development in the Bobiri Forest. Key informants explained that these natural hazards often result in loss of plant species.

Key informants stated that the main road leading to Bobiri Forest from Kubease was in a deplorable state (Plate 1) and anytime it rained visitors found it challenging to visit BFBS. About 36 per cent of the respondents suggested that the poor nature of the road had resulted in low tourists arrivals (Table 12).

Plate 1: Main Road Leading to Bobiri Forest from Kubease

Source: Fieldwork (2014)

To further explain the effect of the poor roads on the project, a respondent commented that:

The poor nature of the road makes it difficult for more visits. There have been several instances where tourists had to return upon seeing the poor nature of the road, especially, during the raining season. Also, taxi drivers usually take advantage of this and charge exorbitant prices (GH¢ 15-20) for just about 6km drive to the forest. (30 year old, non indigene, Kubease).

Again, key informants revealed that some employees of FORIG connived with some private investors (the lumber men) to steal trees without obtaining the necessary permit (Plate 2). This has resulted in the extinction of trees like wawa, sapele, mahogany and odum. To further explain the effect of private investors on the Bobiri Forest, one respondent remarked that:

Recently, I went hunting and saw a timber truck loading the stolen logs at night. If illegal lumbering is encouraged, then why should we conserve BFBS? These heavy trucks do not only degrade our roads but also destroy fragile plant species (45 years old, a member of the unit committee at Kubease).

Plate 2: Illegal Lumbering by Some Private Investors

Source: Fieldwork (2014)

For this reason, some residents have also joined in illegal lumbering and this has accounted for most residents' reluctance to support the project (22.7%). Often, residents wished they could be given access to the forest to pick snails, herbs and firewood but since this is not allowed, their level of support have always been low. Similar to this, one key informant (the supervisor of Bobiri Forest) explained that some residents enter the Bobiri Forest usually without permit to fetch firewood and log. Upon confrontation with residents, they tend to retaliate by saying ''give back our forest so we can fetch snails for livelihood''.

Residents' Perceptions on the Future of Tourism Development in BFBS

Support for tourism development can be measured by the attitudes of the local residents, which can dictate the extent to which the local community would accept tourism (Andriotis, 2005). The conceptual framework guiding

this study (Fig 4) suggests that local residents' support for tourism development is based on what they expect to gain from tourism. Thus, local residents continue to support tourism development as long as tourism meets their needs. The study, therefore, investigated into respondents' support for the future tourism development by assessing their expectations and preferred scale of tourism development in the Bobiri Forest.

Respondents were first asked on their support for future tourism development in Bobiri Forest and figure 7 depicts their response.

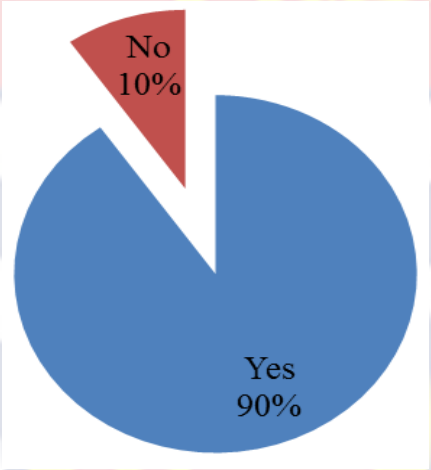

Figure 7: Respondents Support for Tourism Development in BFBS

Source: Fieldwork (2014)

The results indicate that the respondents were in support of tourism development. The majority of the respondents (90%) were in support of tourism continuity in their community. This is consistent with Afenyo (2011) who observed high support for tourism development in the Tafi Atome Monkey Sanctuary.

Respondents' Support for Tourism Development by their Background Characteristics

Respondents support for tourism was explored by their background characteristics. Table 13 shows the distribution across social groupings.

Evidence from Table 13 suggests a higher support for tourism development among all the key communities surrounding Bobiri Forest. In terms of distribution: about 95 per cent of the respondents from Nobewam, followed by 93.8 per cent from Krofofrom and the rest (80.7%) from Kubease. The result indicates a significant relationship between place of residence and support for tourism development (P = 0.014).

As shown in Table 13, no significant relationship was established between support for tourism development and native status. Both indigene (89.3%) and non-indigene (94.3%) were in higher support for future tourism development. The result indicates that non-indigenes' support for tourism was relatively higher than that of the indigenes.

Table 13: Respondents Support for Tourism by their Background Characteristics

Background Characteristics	Support for Tourism Development		
	Yes (%)	No (%)	X^2 Statistics (P- Value)
Place of residence			8.600
Kubease	80.7	19.3	(0.014*)
Nobewam	94.6	5.4	
Krofofrom	93.8	6.2	
Native status			0.792
Indigene	89.3	10.7	(0.373)
Non- indigene	94.3	5.7	
Sex			3.658
Male	86.2	13.8	(0.060)
Female	94.5	5.5	
Age			2.645
<30	88.9	11.1	(0.266)
31 – 50	94.5	5.5	
>51	86.6	13.4	
Marital status			0.661
Married	91.3	8.7	(0.416)
Unmarried	87.2	12.8	
Educational level			3.876
Tertiary	85.7	14.3	(0.423)
Senior High	86.1	13.9	
Junior High	90.8	9.2	
Primary	97.5	2.5	
Illiterate	86.5	13.5	

Source: Fieldwork (2014)

Significance level = 0.05

Both the female (94.5%) and male (86.2%) respondents were noted to support tourism expansion in the area, with the support being relatively higher among females. The result implies that, females were more likely to support tourism development than their male counterparts.

In the same vein, no significant relationship was detected between support for tourism development and age of respondents. On the whole, about 95 per cent of the respondents within the age group of 31 –50 years were in support for future tourism in Bobiri Forest. This was followed by those less than 30 years (88.9%) and the rest (86.6%) those above 51 years. This

outcome implies that all respondents within the various age categories were in support for future tourism development in Bobiri Forest.

Both the married (91.3%) and the unmarried (87.2 %) respondents were noted to support tourism development in the Bobiri Forest project with the support been relatively higher among the married.

Irrespective of educational attainment, respondents were in support for tourism development in Bobiri Forest. Specifically; 97.5 per cent of the respondents with primary education, followed by 90.8 per cent with junior high education and the least (85.7%) with tertiary education. Though all respondents with diverse educational background indicated their support for tourism, the response from primary and junior high respondents were relatively higher than the rest. This means that respondents with primary and junior high education anticipate more employment avenues in their support for tourism development. This outcome may be attributed to the finding by the International Labour Organisation (2001) report that the tourism industry is characterized by less skilled persons with only a few skilled workers occupying the managerial positions.

Residents' Expectations from Tourism Development in BFBS project

Residents' expectations from tourism development were countless. Respondents were asked to list some of the developmental projects they would like to experience from tourism in BFBS project. Table 14 presents the frequency distribution of respondents' expectations from tourism in the Bobiri Forest project. Four expectations namely: infrastructural development, employment creation, scholarships for children and market for produce were identified as residents' expectations from the Bobiri Forest project.

Table 14: Respondents' Expectations from Tourism in BFBS

Expectations	Frequency	Percentage
Infrastructural development	164	47.4
Employment creation	89	25.7
Scholarships for children	51	14.7
Market for produce	42	12.2
Total	346*	100

Source: Fieldwork (2014)

*Frequency exceeds sample size because of multiple response

Infrastructural development, specifically road, pipe-borne water, senior high schools and clinics (47.4%) rated highest. This may be due to the poor nature of their roads, the non availability of pipe-borne water in greater parts of the communities, the non-existence of any senior high school in all the communities and the non availability of clinics in greater parts of the communities.

Another expectation was that employment opportunities will be created through the opening up of tourism business (27.7%). Aside farming, there were limited job opportunities for the youths who were in the majority. Thus, many of them were looking forward to tourism development to open employment avenues for them. Other expectations were educational sponsorship for children (14.7%) and market for produce (12.2%).

Respondents Preferred Scale of Tourism Development

Local communities' preference for a particular scale of tourism development is often influenced by their previous experiences with tourism

development. The scale of tourism development was looked at from two main dimensions-the volume of tourists and the physical size of tourism infrastructure. Respondents were asked to state the volume of tourists they will prefer visiting BFBS in the future, as well as, the size of tourism infrastructure to support further tourism development in the community. They were, also, to give reasons to support their choices. This is shown in Table 15.

Table 15: Scale of Tourism Preference and the Underlying Assumptions

Scale	Total (%)	Reason	(%)
Large	74.1	For employment creation	44.5
		For community development	27.7
		For prestige	14.6
		The availability of resource	5.8
		To prevent deterioration	5.2
		To provide more farmlands	1.5
		To ensure effective management	0.7
Sub-total			100.0
Medium	19.5	To prevent deterioration	50.0
		For employment creation	22.2
		To ensure effective management	11.1
		For community development	8.3
		Availability of resources	3.8
		To provide more farmlands	2.8
		No benefit comes from the Forest	2.8
Sub-total			100
Small	6.5	To prevent deterioration	41.7
		No benefit comes from the Forest	33.3
		To provide more farmlands	8.4
		In order not to spend more money on tourism development	8.3
		For employment creation	8.3
Sub-total			100

Source: Fieldwork (2014)

On the whole, 74.1 per cent of the respondents were in favour of large scale tourism development, followed by medium scale (19.5%) and lastly small scale (6.5%). The preference for large scale tourism development confirms findings by Amuquandoh and Dei (2007) and Amuquandoh (2009) who observed that residents of Lake Bosomtwe preferred large scale tourism development. The fact that residents gave diverse responses to the scale of tourism preference indicates that the community is not homogenous as assumed by Doxey's irridex model (1975). In contrast the Bobiri Forest project can be described as heterogeneous, made up of nested communities (Buckley, 1998; Guijt & Kaul Shah, 1998).

Among the reasons advanced in favour of large scale tourism development were: for employment creation (44.5%), for community development (27.7%), for prestige (14.6%) and for deterioration prevention (5.2%).

In the same vein, some of the reasons put forward for the advancement of medium scale tourism development were: to prevent deterioration (50%), to create employment (22.2%) and to ensure effective management (11.1%). Finally, those in favour for small scale tourism development assigned the following reasons: to prevent deterioration (41.7%), no benefit comes from BFBS (33.3%) and to provide more farmlands (8.4%). Among the three scales identified, employment creation runs through all the reasons assigned for the preferred scale. It could be deduced that respondents preferred large scale tourism development with the expectation of tourism creating more employment avenues for them.

Table 15 indicates that respondents who preferred large scale tourism development were of the view that sustainable tourism development meant creation of more jobs, community development and attracting more tourists while those in favour of small scale tourism development were more concerned about the safety of the environment. This observation is consistent with the view put forward by Haley, Snaith and Miller (2005) and Mowforth and Munt (2006) that people, groups and organizations interpret the concept of sustainability to suit their interests and values. Although, the majority of the respondents preferred large scale (74.1%) tourism development, this could become a threat if conscious efforts are not taken to conserve the environment for future generations. It is of essence to note that the management of the BFBS (FORIG) has made arrangement to use other compartments of the Bobiri Forest in order to ensure that the carrying capacity of the environment is not exceeded.

Tourism development Preference by Background Characteristics

Tourism researchers like Amuquandoh (2006) have established that individuals' preference for items, systems and governance is influenced by background characteristics. The characteristics of individuals explored in this analysis include place of residence, sex, age and educational level. The chi-square statistics was employed to determine whether significant relationship exists between respondents' background characteristics and preference for tourism with the significance level set (0.05). Table 16 presents x^2 results of the variables.

The result indicates a significant relationship between place of residence and preferred scale of tourism development (P = 0.000). This

confirms studies by Amuquandoh (2009) and Akyeampong (2011) who observed a significant relationship between place of residence and preferred scale of tourism development. Table 15 suggests that respondents of Kubease, Nobewam and Krofofrom were all in favour of large scale tourism development, although the preference was higher among Krofofrom (93.8%), followed by Kubease (91.2%) and the least Nobewam (62.5%). Evidence gathered from the fieldwork indicated that Kubease represented the main entrance to Bobiri Forest and perhaps, respondents were in favour of large scale tourism development in order to create more employment avenues for them.

Table 16: Tourism Development Preference by Background Characteristics

Characteristics	Scale of Tourism Development			X^2 Statistics (P-value)
	Large (%)	Medium (%)	Small (%)	
Place of residence				22.736
Kubease	91.2	3.5	5.3	(0.000*)
Nobewam	62.5	30.4	7.1	
Krofofrom	93.8	0.0	6.2	
Sex				5.614
Male	8.9	30.0	61.1	(0.060)
Female	81.3	15.4	3.3	
Age				2.693
<30	73.3	24.4	2.3	(0.611)
31-50	75.3	17.8	6.9	
>51	73.1	17.9	9.0	
Educational level				8.907
No formal education	70.3	63.9	10.8	(0.350)
Primary	77.5	20.0	2.5	
Middle/JHS	67.7	21.5	10.8	
Senior High	86.1	13.9	0.0	
Tertiary	71.4	28.6	0.0	

Source: Fieldwork (2014)

Significance level = 0.05

Unlike the place of residence, no significant relationship was established between sex and preferred scale of tourism development (P =0.60). Similar results were found by Amuquandoh (2009) and Akyeampong (2011) who observed that there is no significant relationship between sex and preferred scale of tourism development. However, the male were more oriented to small scale (61.1%) to medium scale (30%) whereas 81.3 per cent female were more in favour of large scale to medium (15.4%) scale tourism development. Male preference for small scale tourism can be for the acquisition of more farmlands since in Ghana about 54 per cent of males are into farming (Ghana Statistical Service, 2012).

Similarly, no significant relationship was established between educational level and scale of tourism preference. This finding contradicts the findings by Amuquandoh (2009), that there is a significant relationship between education and the scale of tourism development but confirms findings by Akyeampong (2011) that no significant relationship exists between education and preferred scale of tourism development. From the results presented in Table 16, it was clear that all respondents within the various educational levels were in favour of large scale tourism development. In terms of distribution: senior high (86.1%) followed by primary (77.5%), tertiary (71.4%), illiterate (70.3%) and the rest middle/JHS (67.7%). Overall, the preferred scale of tourism development by respondents was large scale.

Summary

This chapter took a look at the Bobiri Forest and Butterfly Sanctuary, highlighting issues on the local residents' participation in the project and assessing the impacts of tourism on the locals. The study noted that although the project had generated benefits for the community, it had been faced by a number of challenges which had potentials of threatening its sustainability. There was community support for tourism development in the area and for further development, residents would prefer tourism to be developed on a larger scale. The conceptual framework guiding the study revealed that residents' background characteristics and community attachment have an influence on residents' perceptions towards tourism development. Residents' are likely to make an evaluation of the project which could turn out to be positive or negative. However, despite the outcome of the results residents are willing to support tourism development and perceive the future of tourism development to be on a large scale. Furthermore, there were no significant relationships between involvement in tourism decision making and background characteristics of native status. The next chapter summarizes the study's major findings, draws conclusions and make relevant recommendations.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

This chapter presents the summary, main findings, conclusions, recommendations and areas for further studies. It summarizes the main findings of the study and draws conclusions on the bases of the findings. The chapter also makes recommendations on residents' perceptions of tourism in the Bobiri Forest project.

Summary

The study sought to assess residents' perceptions of tourism in Bobiri Forest and Butterfly Sanctuary. The specific objectives aimed at:

a) identifying the challenges facing tourism development in BFBS:

b) examining residents' participation in tourism in BFBS:

c) analyzing residents' perceptions on the impacts of tourism in BFBS, and

d) assessing residents' perceptions on the future of tourism development in BFBS.

Descriptive cross sectional design was adopted for the study. A total of 200 household heads were sampled for the survey whereas 4 key informants from the key communities were interviewed.

Four statistical methods were applied on the data. Factor analysis was used to identify the factors that account for residents' perceptions of tourism. T-test and One-way analysis (ANOVA) were used to determine whether significant difference exist in the perceived benefits/cost of tourism by respondents' background characteristics. Chi-square (X^2) statistics was employed to determine significant relationship between preferred scale of tourism development by respondents' background characteristics. The IDIs were transcribed, put under major themes and presented in the narrative form.

Main Findings

Based on the specific objectives of the study, the main findings are as follows:

- Respondents were fairly represented in tourism related decisions (16%) concerning the Bobiri Forest project. Both indigene and non-indigene participated in the decision making process. It was observed that, the married participated more in the decision making process (72.4%) than the unmarried (27.6%).

- Local residents' participation in the project was mainly coercive (74.2%) or induced (67.2%) form. The majority (93.5%) of the respondents revealed that key decisions on the revenue generated from the project are always made by FORIG.

- Among the five topmost barriers that limit residents' active participation in BFBS were inadequate access to information on tourism development, low educational background, lack of requisite

skills, meeting times not always appropriate and lack of interest in tourism development.

- The two main challenges observed to hinder the smooth running of the Bobiri Forest project were poor road network (36.1%) and lack of residents' support (22.7%) for tourism development.
- Local residents acknowledged both positive and negative impacts of tourism in the area. However, the majority (63%) of the respondents were in agreement with the environmental benefits of the project. About 95 per cent of the respondents agreed that tourism had led to the conservation of the Bobiri Forest.
- Generally, respondents were uncertain (mean = 3.09) on the socio-cultural benefits of tourism, and were in disagreement with the economic benefits (mean = 3.88).
- A strong community support (90%) for further tourism development in the area was registered. Respondents' expect that further tourism development will bring infrastructural development to the community, create employment opportunities, provide sponsorship for children's education and establish a market centre for the community;
- The majority of respondents (74.1%) preferred future tourism development to be on a large scale.

Conclusions

Based on the main findings these conclusions were drawn:

- Local residents residing around the Bobiri Forest project are not left out in the decision making process. The result indicated that all categories of individuals in the Forest area were fairly represented in the decision making process concerning the project;
- Residents' perception about tourism is mixed. Respondents associate tourism with both positive and negative but were more inclined to the positive environmental impact than the socio-cultural and economic impacts;
- Residents associated scale of tourism development with its magnitude of benefits. Residents indicated that the project's current scale of development was small and consequently, yielding benefits which were not enough to meet the needs of everyone in the community. Therefore, their preference for large scale tourism development is based on the belief that a larger scale would bring about more jobs, community development and for prestige; and
- It can be concluded from the study that the local community's support for tourism development is based on their expectations of it meeting their individual needs, as well as, that of the community. Residents of BFBS were hopeful that tourism development would provide them with employment opportunities, educational scholarship opportunities and a wider market for produce. They were, also, expecting that it would lead to infrastructural development in the community, especially, in the area of roads, clinics and senior high schools. This

affirms the SET's assumption that local residents evaluate tourism development as a social exchange and hence were willing to engage in it in order for their needs to be addressed and their community's wellbeing improved (Ap, 1992).

Recommendations

Based on the main findings and the conclusion drawn, the following recommendations are made:

- Communities' participation in tourism development is essential for the sustainability of tourism development. Results from the study indicated that residents fairly participate in the BFBS project. The study, therefore, recommends that FORIG in partnership with Ministry of Tourism, Culture and Creative Arts as well as Friends of Bobiri Forest should take the initiative of organizing more community awareness programmes to help facilitate increased community participation and empowerment that will ensure sustainable management of the project. In addition, more transparency is needed in issues concerning the application of revenue generated from the project.
- Again, the project impacts should be well managed through regular monitoring and evaluation by all stakeholders. With specific reference to the District Assembly, FORIG and Ministry of Tourism, Culture and Creative Arts. This approach would help curb, especially, the positive socio-cultural and economic impacts of tourism and also ensure the sustainability of the project since residents prefer large scale tourism development.

- Furthermore, Public Private Partnership (PPP) approach is recommended. The study revealed that the project is managed solely by the government. The essence of PPP approach is to link and draw on the strengths of all the three parties: the community, the private partner and the public sector. The government could provide the necessary infrastructure such as roads and also, marketing the project whereas the private investors can build the hotels and restaurants. The community would be trained and granted the opportunity to participate in the project. The joint collaboration among these parties will enhance the growth of the project.

Suggestions for Further Research

The cross sectional nature of this study does not allow for the observation of subjects over a longer period of time, in order to assess the impacts of tourism on host communities. Hence, future studies should employ longitudinal design to assess the impacts of tourism using community based ecotourism projects as a case study. This will provide a baseline study for monitoring and evaluating the progress of CBEPs over time in order to better identify how changes in tourism impacts and community participation in general, affect residents perceptions of tourism.

Future research should focus on extending this research by conducting a comparative survey on residents from the six (6) communities around the Bobiri Forest project in an attempt to identify whether differences and similarities exist that may lead to the proposition that there are common characteristics between these communities, which will aid in policy making for the communities surrounding the Bobiri Forest.

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APPENDIX 1

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

DEPARTMENT OF HOSPITALITY AND TOURISM MANAGEMENT

Residents' perceptions of tourism in Bobiri Forest and Butterfly Sanctuary, Ashanti Region

Interview schedule for residents of Bobiri forest

This study is aimed at assessing residents' perceptions of tourism in Bobiri Forest and Butterfly Sanctuary. The researcher would appreciate if you kindly complete the questionnaire. Findings from this study would be used strictly for academic purposes. You are assured of the confidentiality and anonymity of your response.

Thank You.

MODULE A: General Issues

1. a. Are you a native of this community?

   1. Yes [ ] 2. No [ ]

   b. If no, state your place of birth.

   1. Town …… 2. Region ……..

2. How long have you been staying in this community?

   1 ……. Year (s) 2……Month (s)

3. What is your residential status in this community?

   1. Permanent resident [ ] 2. Seasonal resident [ ]

4. a. Are you aware of the existence Bobiri Forest and Butterfly Sanctuary?

   1. Yes [ ] 2. No [ ]

b. If yes, how long have you known of the existence of Bobiri Forest? …

5. Which organization is in charge of the forest? ……

6. Distance of your residence from the forest …… km

7. On the average how many times do you see tourists in the area per week.....

MODULE B: Residents' Perceptions of Tourism Impacts

8. Please indicate the extent of your agreement with each of the following statements on a scale of 1-5, with 1 representing ' Strongly Agree', 2 'Agree', 3, 'Neither Agree Nor Disagree', 4 'Disagree', 5, 'Strongly Disagree' **(Please tick only one)**

Statements	SA 1	A 2	NA/D 3	D 4	SD 5
Socio-Cultural Benefit					
1. Tourism has led to an improvement of the image of my Community.					
2. Tourism has strengthened my family-ties.					

3.Tourism has promoted my interaction with tourists.					
4.Tourism has led to the preservation of my culture.					
5.Tourism has brought diversification in my recreational and entertainment activities.					
6.Tourism has provided me a learning experience.					
7. Tourism has increased demand for historical and cultural exhibits in my area.					
8. Tourism has provided a better appreciation of my traditional Culture.					
9.Tourism has led to an improvement in social amenities in this area.					
Socio-Cultural Cost					
1 Tourism has increased crime rates in the area.					
2.Tourism has increased prostitution in the area.					
3.Tourism has increased drug use and alcoholism in the area.					
4. Tourism has created conflicts on land use in the area.					

5.Tourism has led to the destruction of my cultural heritage.					
Economic Benefit					
1.Tourism has created employment opportunities in this area.					
2.Tourism has increased investment opportunities in this area.					
3.Tourism has led to an improvement in my living standards.					
4.Tourism has increased trade and businesses in this area.					
5.Tourism has promoted my local economy.					
6. Tourism has increased transport infrastructure in this area.					
Economic Cost					
1.Tourism has increased the cost of living in the area.					
2.Tourism has led to an increase in leakages in the area.					
3.Tourism has resulted in an increase of land prices in this area.					
4.Tourism has led to the collapse of local enterprises in this area.					
5.Tourism has led to seasonal					

unemployment in this area.					
Environmental Benefit					
1.Tourism has broaden my awareness of the environment.					
2.Tourism has led to the restoration of historical sites and relics in this area.					
3.Tourism has led to the beautification of the environment.					
4.Tourism has led to conservation of the forest.					
5.Tourism has led to conservation of wildlife.					
6.Tourism has improved sanitary conditions in my community.					
Environmental Cost					
1.Tourism has led to the degradation of the environment.					
2.Tourism has increased the level of noise making in my community.					
3.Tourism has led to the generation of excessive litter in this area.					

9. a. Are you currently employed in the tourism sector?

1. Yes [ ] 2. No [ ]

b. If yes what work? ……..

c. Do you have any member of your family currently employed in the tourism sector?

1. Yes [ ] 2. No [ ]

d. What type of work? ……

10. How much household income comes from tourism per month?

1. Less than GH ¢50 [ ] 2. GH ¢ 51 – 100 [ ]

3. GH ¢ 101 – 200 [ ] 4. GH ¢201 and above [ ]

11. Mention 4 ways to help increase the benefits derived from tourism development in your community.

1…….. 2……

3……. 4……

12. Mention 4 ways to help reduce the costs associated with tourism development in your community.

1……..... 2……

3……..…..4……..

MODULE C: Residents' Participation in Tourism Development

13. a. Have you ever been participated in tourism-related decision for BFBS project?

1. Yes [ ] 2. No [ ]

14. Which people influence decision making most in Bobiri forest?

1. Traditional leaders [ ] 2. FORIG [ ]

3. Unit Committee [ ] 4. The Affluent [ ]

5. Political parties [ ]

6. Others (please specify) ……

15. Please indicate the extent of your agreement with each of the following statements on a scale of 1-5, with 1 representing ' Strongly Agree', 2 'Agree', 3, 'Neither Agree Nor Disagree', 4 'Disagree', 5, 'Strongly Disagree' (**Please tick only one**)

Statement (Forms of residents' participation)	SA 1	A 2	NA/D 3	D 4	SD 5
Spontaneous					
1. Residents' are directly involved in providing services/goods to tourists.					
2. Residents' have total control over all key management decision on the project.					
3. All groups in the community are represented on the management committee.					
Induced					
1. Information on the project is made available to residents' but avenues are not created for feedbacks.					

2. Residents' opinions are seldom used.					
3. Only a few residents' from the selected groups can be representatives on committee.					
Coercive					
1. Residents' do not have a control over the form tourism development.					
2. Private investors are leading in the sale of souvenirs to tourists in BFBS.					
3. Key decisions on the revenue generated from the project are always made by FORIG.					

16. a. Do you see any form of barrier in your level of participation in tourism in your community?

1. Yes [ ] 2. No [ ]

b. If yes, which of these is a barrier to your participation in tourism in your community? (**Tick as many as applicable)**

1. I do not have the practical skills to work in the area of the industry [ ]
2. I have a low educational background [ ]

3. Meetings times are not always appropriate [ ]

4. I do not come from any of the families that own land in the community [ ]

5. I do not have adequate access to information on tourism development [ ]

6. I do not have any interest in tourism development in my community [ ]

7. Others (please specify) …….

17. Suggest 4 ways in which the above barrier(s) can be resolved.

1…… 2…….

3…… 4……

MODULE D: Challenges Facing Tourism Development in BFBS

18. Mention 4 things you consider as a challenge facing tourism development in Bobiri forest.

1…… 2…….

3…….. 4……

19. Suggest 4 ways in which the above challenges can be resolved.

1…… 2……

3…… 4…….

20. Who should be responsible in resolving the challenges? (**Tick all that apply)**

1. FORIG [ ] 2. Friends of Bobiri Forest [ ]

3. Traditional Leaders [ ] 4. The entire community [ ]

5. Others (please specify) …….....

MODULE E: Residents' Perceptions on the Future of Tourism

Development in BFBS

21. a. Are you in support of tourism development in your community?

1. Yes [ ] 2. No [ ]

b. If yes, state 4 expectations you hope to see in the future of tourism development in your community

1…… 2…….

3…….. 4……...

c. If no, briefly explain your reason ……

22. a. What scale of tourism development do you prefer?

1. Large [ ] 2. Medium [ ]

3. Small [ ]

b. Please explain your answer ……

MODULE F: SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHICS

23. Sex of respondent

1. Male [ ] 2. Female [ ]

24. Age of respondent …….

25. What is your marital status?

1. Married [ ] 2. Single [ ]

3. Divorced [ ] 4. Separated [ ]

26. Occupation …….

27. Which religion do you belong to?

1. Christianity [ ] 2. Islam [ ]

3. Traditional [ ]

4. Others (please specify) ……

28. What is your level of education?

1. Tertiary [ ] 2. Senior High [ ]

3. Junior High [ ] 4. Primary [ ]

5. Illiterate [ ]

29. a. What is your household size? ……..

b. Number of males ……and Females ……

30. Other issues are welcomed below

…. …….

Thank you for completing this questionnaire. Your responses will be a valuable contribution to our understanding residents' perceptions of tourism in Bobiri Forest and Butterfly Sanctuary.

APPENDIX 11

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

DEPARTMENT OF HOSPITALITY AND TOURISM MANAGEMENT

Residents' perceptions of tourism in Bobiri Forest and Butterfly Sanctuary

In-depth interview guide for key informants

Introduction

The aim of this IDI is to at assessing residents' perceptions of tourism in Bobiri Forest and Butterfly Sanctuary. The researcher would appreciate if you aid in responding to the interview guide. Findings from this study would be used strictly for academic purposes. You are assured of the confidentiality and anonymity of your response.

Thank You

A. General Issues

- Community Attachment
- Length of Residency
- Knowledge of Tourism Development
- Contacts with Tourists

B. Assessment of tourism impacts from Bobiri Forest and Butterfly Sanctuary

- Socio-Cultural Impact of Tourism

- Economic Impact of Tourism
- Environmental Impact

C. Residents Participation in Tourism Development

- Forms of Participation
- Management of the Forest
- Revenue Sharing
- Bye Laws on the Sustainability of the Forest.

D. Challenges Facing Tourism Development in BFBS

E. Residents Perceptions on the Future of Tourism Development

- Expectations on the Future of Tourism
- Preferred scale of Tourism Development

F. Background Characteristics of Informants