

# UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

## COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF ECOTOURISM: A CASE STUDY OF THE MOLE NATIONAL PARK

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A THESIS PRESENTED TO THE DEPARTMENT OF GEOGRAPHY  
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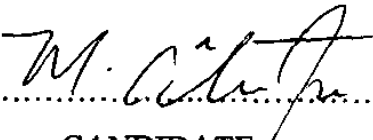
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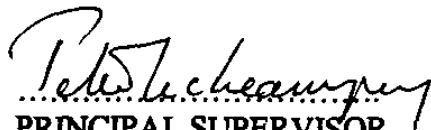
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DATE *6th Feb 2008*  
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### SUPERVISORS' DECLARATOION

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

  
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## **ABSTRACT**

**Government acquired the Mole Park and its surrounding region from the rural dwellers for protection, over three decades ago. The present generation of local residents (i.e. the descendants of those who released the land to government) are disgruntled and strongly feel that they have become victims of an inappropriate and unpopular acquisition of their land.**

**The main objective of the study was to assess the extent and nature of community involvement in the rural development initiatives of the Mole National Park.**

**To generate data for the study, different sets of structured and non-structured questionnaires were used to collect data from 280 local residents (including 27 community Elders), 39 tourists and 30 park employees. The local residents and the Park employees were randomly sampled, while the tourists (both foreign and domestic) were purposively chosen to answer the questionnaires. Participatory techniques such as Focused Group Discussions (FGDs), Community Interviews (CIs), and direct observations were also used to generate data from relevant organisations, including the Park Management, West Gonja District Assembly, Ghana Tourist Board, and from a number of distinguished individuals.**

The study revealed that government legally acquired the land of the Mole National Park from the chiefs and people of the area, and that the local chiefs received compensation on behalf of their subjects. The study however identified that the deliberate exclusion of the 'landlords' from the management and administration of the Park was the principal cause of discontent and occasional conflicts in the area. The study found out also that the local people were unhappy with the Park's presence because it failed to address their socio-economic needs.

Based on the findings, the study recommended that the Park Management should involve the local residents in all aspects of the Park's development to ensure their full cooperation. This means that the residents must be consulted before the implementation of major policy decisions, and should as much as practicable form part of the Park's decision making mechanism. Secondly government should institute and operate a compensation scheme particularly for peasant farmers whose property is at times destroyed by some of the protected wildlife. Finally, all of the Park's development initiatives should address the socio-economic needs of the communities that surround the Park to ensure peace and development in the area.

## **DEDICATION**

**This thesis is dedicated to all sons and daughters of Paga who have committed themselves to the exploration and acquisition of knowledge.**

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## CHAPTER ONE

### INTRODUCTION

#### 1.1 Background

Governments of most developing countries frequently acquire lands, particularly in pristine areas, for public development projects such as national parks. According to Sindiga (1995), it is not very clear whether proper consultations are ever arranged between governments who acquire such lands and the indigenes and local residents who own the lands. This also raises the question as to whether the consent of those who dwell on and utilise the lands for their living has ever been appropriately sought. What is certain is that the local inhabitants are often hurriedly evicted from their traditional homes to give way to the establishment of projects of public interest such as national parks. Lands thus acquired by ruling governments for such purposes, and the properties of residents so often destroyed in consequence, are hardly adequately compensated for. The indigenous people or landlords, together with those who till the land, receive (at best) very paltry compensation or nothing at all for relinquishing their land.

Whelan (1991) has however observed that in most of the cases involving the creation of national parks, the issue of discontent commonly expressed by people living close to the parks is about their exclusion from the planning, administration, and management of such projects whose implementation would later affect the livelihood of their communities, and neighbouring ones. Perhaps



the phenomenon underlying the practice is the assumption that government owns all lands in the country. On the contrary, as Kludze (1973) points out, in Africa and in Ghana in particular, every parcel of land has an owner. The land tenure system in Ghana usually vests community lands in descent groups, and sometimes in certain clans or in individual families. In centralized political systems, the portions of land that are not so vested are regarded as 'skin' or 'stool' lands, which are normally entrusted to a chief who administers them on behalf of his subjects. Dei (2000) adds that this is the case among the Akan, Dagomba, Ga and the Gonja ethnic groups.

According to Ghana's customary law, as observed by Sarpong (1974) and Nukunya (1992), the living members of a community are not the actual owners of the community's land; they are the land's custodians who are expected to use it and then pass it on to the next generation. The foregoing implies that all land in Ghana is the property of the ancestors of the living inhabitants since, as Chambers (1985:190) puts it, "they acquired and occupied it first before bequeathing it to the present generation ...". Similarly, Abane *et al* (1999) have said that the traditional view of Ghanaians about natural resources (such as land and forests) gives recognition, honour and respect to the ancestors. They further explained that the general Ghanaian concept of ownership is that land belongs to three generations, namely the ancestors, the living or the present occupiers, and future generations or those yet to be born. Hence, the appropriation of land in any way by the living family members should not conflict in any way with the

interest of the ancestors and the future generations. That is the reason why rural communities view modern approaches to land conservation with suspicion.

## **1.2 Statement of Problem**

If development is “change that is desirable”, then community development can simply be described as “desirable change in a community”. In his attempt to improve upon a World Bank Sector Paper (1995) definition, Chambers (1983:147) portrayed community development as a strategy that enables people “to gain for themselves and their children more of what they want and need”. What is considered desirable, however, differs from country to country, from community to community, from person to person and from time to time. In developing countries the community development agenda is often not initiated by the inhabitants themselves, but by powerful outsiders resident in urban areas. Very frequently the development strategy determines the facilities for the improvement of the socio-economic life of the community. In the rural setting the strategy involves those projects that will increase agricultural production as well as the supply of “services for basic needs such as health, education, transport and water supply” (Chambers, 1983:146). Problems normally arise when the affected communities are not involved in determining the type of facilities that the people really need, and the strategy adopted for rural development rather leads to a prohibition of access to vital rural resources such as land, forest, or some water body. This, in the opinion of Abakerli (1999), is what happens when a national park or some other form of nature reserve is

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created by a top-down fiat. While a nature reserve so created benefits the country as a whole (through bio-diversity conservation and tourism promotion), communities that own the land on which the reserves are created, are very often not only denied access to park or forest, but may also not be involved in the day-to-day operations of the reserves which are their major sources of livelihood.

By way of compensation, communities whose lands have been appropriated by the state receive royalties as well as promises of a fair share in basic amenities. In many developing countries, however, the compensation itself may become a source of discontent and conflict in the affected communities. Either the promises by the state are not fulfilled, or community leaders misappropriate royalties. In the face of growing population, discontent among younger generations manifests itself in various forms such as poaching, open confrontation with park authorities, and hostility towards tourists. Such setbacks endanger not only the conservation project, but also the tourism component, because the successful implementation of such community-based projects is usually premised on the cooperation of host populations (Diatta *et al*, 1986).

### **1.3 Research Questions**

The situation described above generally generates some disturbing questions that need to be investigated. Such questions include the following: To what extent are rural communities involved in conservation and tourism projects? How do host populations who feel 'alienated' from the land of their ancestors perceive conservation projects? Do elders and 'commoners' in the community

have the same perception about such projects? Does distance from the project affect people's perception? Using the Mole National Park as a case, this study attempts to find answers to these questions.

#### **1.4 Objectives of the Study**

The main objective of this thesis was to investigate the nature and importance of local community participation, particularly in rural development initiatives, at the Mole National Park. The specific objectives were to:

- (1) assess the extent and nature of local community involvement in the administration and management of the Park;
- (2) examine the expectations, perceptions and attitudes of the local people with regard to on-going activities in the Park;
- (3) examine the nature of visitor-host relationship;
- (4) assess the effects of the establishment of the Park and, especially, ecotourism activities, on the socio-economic lives of the communities fringing the Mole Park; and,

(5) recommend *strategies* for facilitating local community participation in administering and managing the Park's conservation initiatives, and in the practice of ecotourism activities there.

### **1.5 Rationale of the Study**

Despite its rich stock of animal species, the Mole National Park has not been accorded due attention in national discourse as regards research and its application to principles of rural development, as compared to other protected areas in Ghana. Nature reserves such as Kakum National Park and Assin-Attandanso Forest Reserve (both in the Central Region of Ghana) have been given much publicity in the works of several people such as Abane *et al* (1999), Mensah-Ntiamoah (1989) and Dei (2000). The remoteness of Mole probably accounts for the very little attention accorded it by writers and scholars. This thesis is therefore intended to bring the history of Mole to the attention of the country's development planners and policy makers who often take decisions on rural development initiatives without reliable facts about the affected rural communities.

The choice of the Mole National Park was neither accidental nor far-fetched; the decision was prompted by a number of factors, including (a) that it is the least known of Ghana's protected areas, and (b) it is also the country's largest national park whose fortunes have probably never been fully discovered and tapped for national development. The fact that the Mole Park is the remotest of Ghana's national parks invariably means that very little research work has yet

been done on it. The findings of this study shall hopefully provide the key to technocrats and development think tanks to focus their attention on opening up the area for development.

Chambers (1985) has observed that rural development initiatives such as the creation of national parks have usually had both positive and negative effects on rural communities. An assessment of the extent and nature of the Mole Park's influence on the socio-economic life of the surrounding communities may provide government with the necessary tools for solving the area's problems. A timely exposition of the Park's negative effects on the residents, especially, may alert government to provide solutions timely enough before problems assume alarming proportions in the area. Also, an elaborate analysis of the extent of local community involvement in policy formulation and implementation at the Park will likely contribute to conflict resolution in the rural setting. In sum, the outcome of this work may attract the attention of government and that of relevant NGOs to conscientiously and appropriately develop the Mole region as an integral park of the country.

### **1.6 Hypotheses**

The research was based on the following hypotheses:

- (i) There is no difference between males and females on the socio-economic expectations of the communities surrounding the Mole National Park.

(ii) There is no difference in the perceptions of males and females with regard to the enjoyment of the Park's tourist attractions by the local residents.

### 1.7 The Study Area

The study area was the Mole National Park (MNP) and its surrounding communities (Figure 1.1). Officially, according to Remy (1992), the Park's area is about 2,330 square kilometres and lies largely in the West Gonja and the West Mamprusi Districts of the Northern Region, and partly in the Wa District of the Upper West Region of Ghana (Figure 1.2). It is located between Latitudes  $9^{\circ} 12'N$  and  $10^{\circ} 6'N$ , and Longitudes  $1^{\circ} 25'W$  and  $2^{\circ} 17'W$ . According to the Mole Feasibility Study Report of 1997, the Mole Park is the largest and most prestigious protected area in Ghana. Together with the Kenikeni and Yikambo reserves, it constitutes about 30% of the total land area of the West Gonja District.

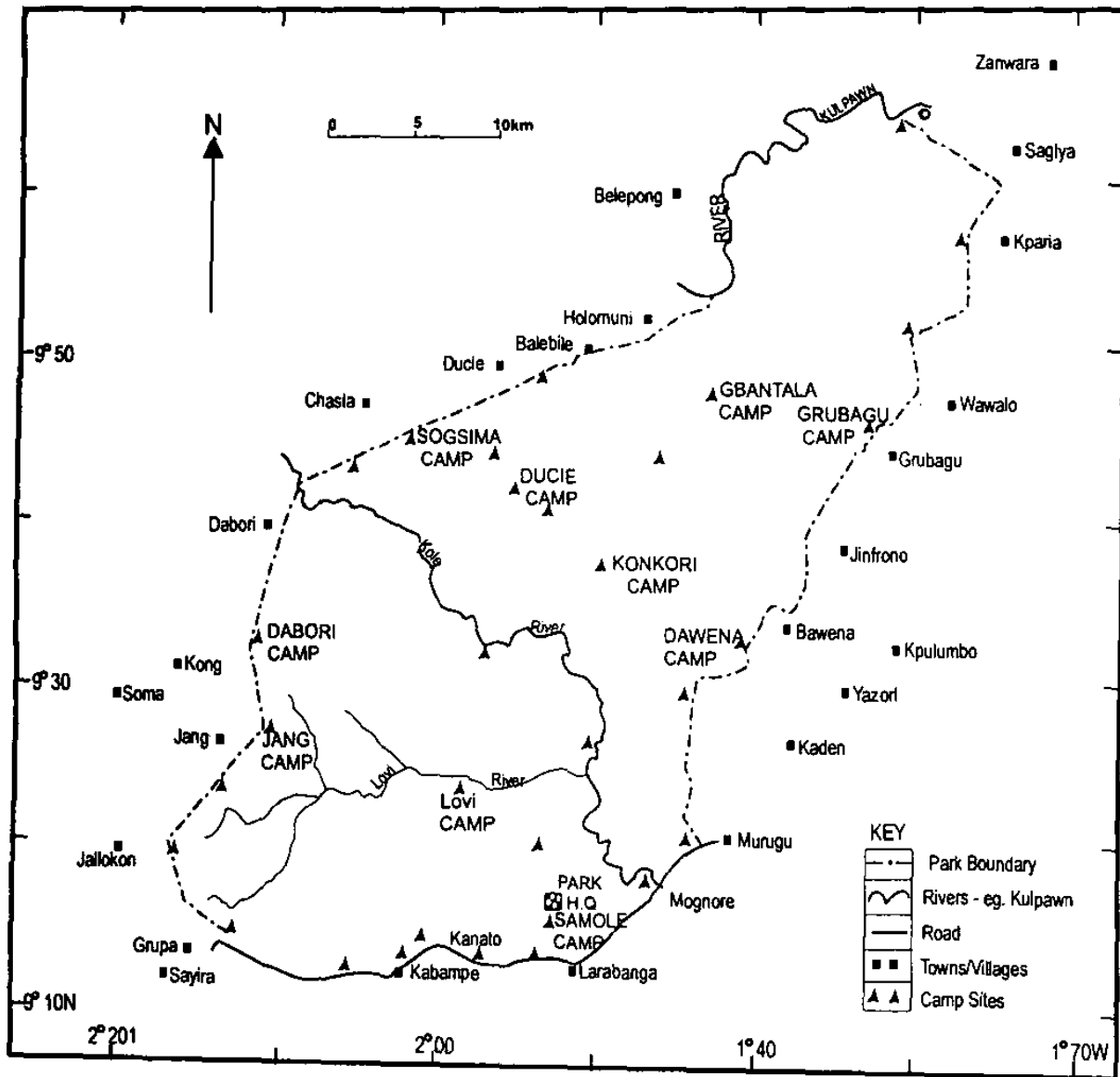
The Mole National Park (MNP) and its surrounding woodlands were part of an area of land mapped out for a tsetse fly control programme in the early 1950s and, because of its unique variety of wildlife, government formally acquired the area's southern portion for conservation. With the passage of time, successive conservation managements have 'unofficially' extended the Park's boundaries. For example, as recorded in an annual report of the Ghana Wildlife Division (1994) the Park occupied 4,840 square kilometres of land in the early 1990s; presently it occupies a total land area of approximately 5,198 square kilometres (Mole Feasibility Study Report, 1997). Consequently, it has encroached upon



**residents' farmlands and settlements, and has often led to the relocation of entire settlements.**

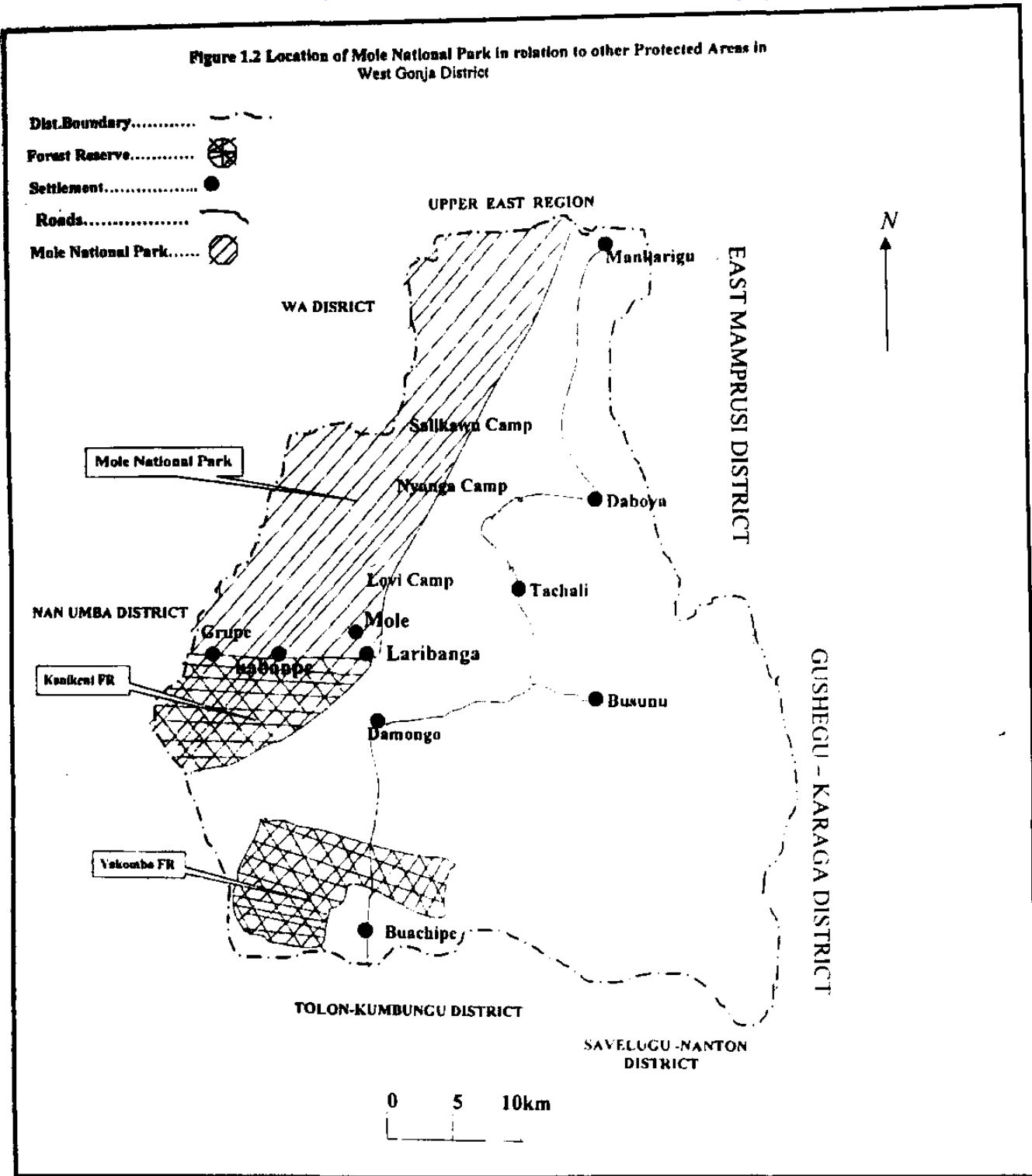
The Mole National Park has somehow survived as a nature reserve and has over the years become home to a number of plant and animal species. Remy (1992) describes it as a diversified ecotourism site, with a reasonable stock of wildlife species. Its geographic remoteness and isolation have probably contributed to the development of complex bio-diversity dynamics. Current wildlife includes a few varieties of antelope (e.g. defassa bucks, buffon bucks, guibas, reeboks and bubales) warthogs, and monkeys (e.g. cercopithecus, baboons, red patas, blue and black colobus). Some 300 species of birds live permanently in the Park, while about 150 species of migratory birds regularly touch down as they journey to new destinations. Remy further observes that Mole offers good opportunities for viewing carnivores such as lions, hyenas and leopards, the large African elephants and dwarf hippopotamuses, because of its open natural setting. As described by Boo (1990), Mole's elephants, wild pigs and warthogs are tame and move about conspicuously and harmlessly through human settlements, while baboons and red *patas* (monkeys) are frequently seen receiving hand-outs such as bread, biscuits and sweets from tourists.

Map 1.1: Local Communities Around Mole National Park



Source: Ghana Wildlife Division, 1994

Figure 1.2 Location of Mole National Park in relation to other Protected Areas in West Gonja District



Source: Ghana Wildlife Division, 1994

Scores of antelopes are also openly seen grazing close to settlements and visitors can watch dozens of crocodiles of different ages, sizes and colours as they bask in the sun or float in the pond. The Park's remoteness, relative tranquillity and scenic beauty, coupled with its reasonable number of wildlife species, make it an attractive place for ecotourism, recreation and research.

### **1.8 Chapter Organization**

This work has been organized into five chapters. Chapter One introduces the study with some background information about protected areas and national parks, as well as the problem statement and the study's objectives and a statement of its hypotheses. Also contained in this chapter is the rationale of the study, its hypotheses which the study sought to either confirm or disprove, and a brief introductory discussion of the study area. Chapter Two contains literature search relevant to the study, and the conceptual framework that directed the study. Methods adopted for the study, including sampling procedures, data collection, research instrumentation and measuring techniques are provided in Chapter Three. Chapter Four covers an analysis and discussion of the data collected from the field, while Chapter Five provides a summary of the research, its major findings, recommendations and conclusion of the work; suggestions for further research are also indicated here.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE AND THE CONCEPTUAL MODEL**

#### **2.1 Introduction**

This Chapter reviews relevant literature on the creation of protected areas, especially national parks. Topics particularly reviewed are: (i) trends of tourism development in Ghana, (ii) the importance of protected areas, (iii) local resistance to the development of national parks, and (iv) the benefits of national parks. Also captured in the Chapter is the conceptual framework which directed the study.

#### **2.2 Trends of Tourism Development in Ghana**

According to the World Tourism Organization (1998), tourism in Africa is growing faster than the global average. While travel of all types in the world has declined by 3 per cent, the number of visits to Africa has increased by over 9 per cent. In the West African sub-region, the rate of tourist arrivals is 11% of Africa's total tourism package.

Among her West African neighbours, Ghana has the potential to reap more benefits expected to accrue to the tourism industry in the near future. The possibility of achieving this feat can be observed in the country's continuously improving position among African nations. The Ghana Tourist Board (2000) has observed, for example, that in terms of tourist destinations and income earnings

on the African continent, Ghana ranked number 19 in 1975, 16 in 1990, and number 14 in 2000.

State awareness of the economic significance of tourism in Ghana dates back to the 1960s, evidence of which includes establishment of Ghana Tourist Corporation in 1962, Ghana Tourist Control Board and Ghana Tourist Development Company (1973), Ghana Tourism Board (1977) and a Ministry of Tourism (1992). Another evidence is the widespread encouragement and sponsorship of tourism development projects throughout the country.

Like other less developed and less endowed countries which are saddled with seemingly insurmountable economic and development problems, the Ghana Government has sought to exploit the economic fortunes of tourism for national development, hence its focused determination to expand the industry, sometimes at prohibitive cost. In tune with government policy to consciously expand tourism, tourist arrivals and receipts since the 1980s have been expanding at remarkable rates, both in terms of number of arrivals and receipts.

Table 2.1 illustrates the trend of Ghana's expanding tourism industry since 1988. In 1995, for example, tourism provided direct employment to 17,000 people while 45,300 others were engaged in indirect and tourism-induced employment. The country's total number of international tourist arrivals in 1999 was 372,653, and receipts registered in the same year amounted to US \$304.12 million. These figures

have been projected to increase to 1,062,000 arrivals and US\$1.562 million by the year 2010 (GTB, 2000; Wildlife Development Plan, 1997)

**Table 2.1 Ghana's International Tourist Arrivals and Receipts: 1988-2010**

YEAR	ARRIVALS	RECEIPTS (US \$ 'M')
1988	113,784	55.34
1989	125,162	72.09
1990	145,780	80.83
1991	172,464	117.70
1992	213,316	166.90
1993	256,680	205.62
1994	271,310	227.60
1995	286,000	33.20
1996	304,860	248.80
1997	325,438	265.59
1998	347,952	283.96
1999	372,653	304.12
2000	399,000	386.00
2010*	1,062,000	1,562.00

\*Projection

Source: Ghana Tourist Board (Tourism Statistical Fact Sheet), 2000

### **2.3 Ecotourism and Environmental Protection in Ghana**

Environmental conservation by means of protected areas has been the major approach adopted by Ghanaian policy makers for environmental care within a

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### 2.3 Ecotourism and Environmental Protection in Ghana

Environmental conservation by means of protected areas has been the major approach adopted by Ghanaian policy makers for environmental care within a



context of environmental disruption related to agriculture and large-scale development schemes. Increased attention to conserve Ghana's physical environment, particularly her fauna and flora, dates back to the early 1950s. It was introduced to promote environmental conservation, as well as to derive economic benefits from the protected areas. Although ecotourism is a relatively new concept in Ghana, today the country can boast of a number of conservation initiatives, as indicated by the presence of several nature reserves, parks and RAMSAR sites. According to a publication by the Ghana Wildlife Division in 1994, there are fifteen (15) protected areas, six of which are national parks. Specific examples include Nini Suhien and Bia National Parks (in the tropical forest vegetation belt in southern Ghana), Bui and Mole National Parks in the northern savannah region.

Since the mid-1970s, ecotourism has emerged as a desirable form of tourism (alternative to traditional or mass tourism) leading to the creation of additional reserves, notable among them being Kakum National Park. Tourism, based on nature conservation and cultural attractions, has become a top foreign exchange earner in Ghana. Given its economic power, nature tourism provides powerful incentives to tourism policy makers and local people to conserve, particularly, natural resources which attract several millions of nature lovers annually.

#### **2.4 Importance of Protected Areas**

Today, there are thousands of protected areas in the world. According to Wells and Brandon (1995:1) about "five per cent of the earth's surface (made up of

approximately 7,000 protected areas) is legally protected in 130 countries". Maintenance of bio-diversity and protection of environmental resources from wanton destruction by the public are the reasons that are generally given to rationalize governments' acquisition of land for protection, including the creation of nature reserves and national parks. Thus, the conservation of flora and faunal resources, by state legislation, is based on a *deterrence* theory which is often used by governments to justify why individuals or communities must be restrained from pursuing short-run selfish interests, as expected under the rational choice theory. Anonymous (1996) emphasises the significance of this motive with an illustration from the work of Hopkins, a seventeenth century poet, that without proper preservation of nature, "...*after-comers cannot guess the beauty been*". Even celebrated politicians and renowned statesmen have tried to rationalize the concept of nature conservation and the creation of national parks. Sellars (1997:14) records, for example, a declaration made by President Roosevelt of the United States of America in 1905, that the preservation of nature by means of national parks should be considered as "essentially a democratic movement" that benefits a country's citizens. This political rationalisation or justification for the creation of national parks has deeply influenced environmental policies in developing countries. Chubb and Chubb (1981) have similarly asserted that an important reason for state maintenance of environmental bio-diversity is the provision of public recreational facilities which leads to an improvement of the quality of life and well being of its citizens.

The *democratic* and *deterrence* concepts of protecting nature notwithstanding, Sellars (1997) argues that environmental policies of most governments in the developing world frequently present a paradoxical model in the history of nature preservation. National parks are normally created, not merely to maintain environmental bio-diversity, but to serve *de facto* corporate profit interests based on tourism. Butler (1991) and Young (1992) have supported Sellars' argument with several examples where governments tended to over-emphasize the economic benefits of nature protection rather than its non-economic values such as environmental development. Hunter and Green (1995) have also added that many areas are particularly protected to serve as tourist attractions and have become an integral part of national governments' economic development policies for the promotion of ecotourism. The national parks of East Africa have been cited by Smith (1990) to illustrate natural areas that have been developed almost exclusively for their ability to attract international tourists who contribute to the foreign exchange earnings of the countries. Kenya, according to Manning (1980) is one country that particularly earns so much in foreign revenues from her 15 national parks, 19 game parks and marine reserves. Manning further states that even some developed countries also benefit from ecotourism. He cites, for example, the United States where a number of national parks such as the Yosemite and the Grand Canyon are prime destination points for foreign visitors. Lending support to Manning's examples, Heyman (1988) says that the

**United States' foreign exchange earnings from her parks were more than US \$3.2 billion in 1986.**

In his contribution to buttress the economic importance of environmental protection, Clegg (1994) identifies ecotourism as a powerful economic force particularly in the development of rural community-based economies. It is the largest industry in the less developed world, and accounts for billions of dollars in revenue earnings.

### **2.5 Local Resistance to the Development of National Parks**

Despite its economic significance, however, Lea (1988) observes that there is yet a lot of debate on whether ecotourism at national parks truly benefits all involved, especially the local communities. Established in 'isolated' regions, according to McNeely (1995), policies on protected areas have been implemented often by top-down approaches, disrupting resident peoples' livelihood strategies through conflicts over the control of natural resources. Such environmental development and conservation policies have often promoted tensions and environmental disruption under the prevalent rhetoric of nature protection and tourism development. It is not surprising therefore that, in spite of the numerous references made to the overall benefit from protected areas (particularly national parks) Jafari (1997) and Parris (1997) say that efforts made by many governments to conserve lands have often been resisted by the host communities.

During the last decade, several scholars, including Boissevain (1996), Boonzaier (1994), Canan and Hennessy (1989), Dogan (1989), McKercher (1996) and Richez (1996), focused their attention on cases of local resistance against tourism-related projects. Collective local resistance sometimes developed against particular models of park development and administration, especially where the people were excluded from the on-going operations at the Parks. In his contribution to the issue of community involvement in local development projects, Whelan (1991) explains that local people generally have the feeling that the practice of deliberately excluding them from environmental matters is an attempt by governments to relocate affected communities. Such development practices have consequently been confronted with strong resistance. Similarly, Sindiga (1995) and O'Grady (1991) observe that the local people's inability to enjoy the beauty of their environment significantly foments fertile grounds for conflict between hosts and facilitators at national parks. As part of the residents' direct participation in the administration, management and control of national parks, Cater (1992) and Akyeampong (1996) have suggested that local participation or involvement should be considered when tourist attractions (products) are being developed. They opine that local people's inability to enjoy tourist attractions could be attributed to poverty.

The local people often resist activities that particularly tend to impact adversely, directly or indirectly, on their lives or livelihoods. Lusiola (1992) and Berger (1993) have provided independent, but similar, conflict situations with

observations made in some national parks in Kenya. Prior to 1988, Kenyan conservation authorities were paying little attention to the local communities in wildlife areas. No attempt was made to draw the local people's attention to the economic benefits that accrued from wildlife and natural resource management; moreover, there was hardly any collaboration between park authorities and the people living in the neighbourhood of the protected areas. This point is well noted by Diegues (1994:2-3) in what he calls "a top-down manner" in which protected areas are usually designated and managed by governments. He observes that most nature reserves are created 'without consulting the local people whose way of life is eventually affected.

Inappropriate land acquisition by Government has also been observed by Dei (2000) as one of the major causes of community opposition or aversion to the development of nature reserves. Local rural people, according to Weaver (1991), often perceive protected areas as an alien concept that tends to deny them access to resources which are fundamentally vital for their survival.

Zimmermann (1964) and Anonymous (1996) similarly recognize the seizure of resources as the principal source of local community discontent and resistance to governments' environmental protection initiatives. Rural communities, according to the writers, see their environmental resources as the foundation of their security, opulence or power and wealth; hence the seizure of such resources by the state for public use constitutes a violation of their fundamental rights. Akama *et al* (1995) have described as most unfortunate the manner in

which local inhabitants are usually forced to vacate their traditional dwelling places in order to give way to the establishment of ecotourism projects such as national parks. In his contribution, Dei (2000) observes that local residents become so much disgruntled and begin to resent national parks especially when they are no longer permitted to use the resources of the protected areas.

Glasson *et al* (1995) have noted that loss of local autonomy is certainly the most negative long-term effect of nature tourism. A local resident may suffer a loss of sense of place, as his or her environment is transformed to satisfy the needs and interests of non-citizens. Mbaiwa (1999) has recorded a number of interviews with some local people in Ngamiland the results of which indicated that there was a general assumption by the people that their land had been taken from them by government for the satisfaction of public interest; as a result, they perceived the domination of the tourist attractions by non-citizens as 'selling out' of their resources. To forestall such ill feelings, Glasson *et al* (1995) and Ceballos-Lascurain (1996) have cautioned that tourism should be sensitive to the needs and aspirations of the host population, and that any intervention at a national park that fails to provide for local participation in decision-making and the employment of local people will be strongly resisted by the local communities.

Other writers including Brochum and Dearden (1990) tend to lay much emphasis on inadequate compensation for the people's land and for their crops that are often destroyed by the protected wildlife as the root causes of conflicts between the host communities and Park Management in developing countries.

The authors have observed that in most of the national parks in the developing world, local communities are not compensated for any loss of life or property caused by wildlife. Governments frequently pay little attention, for example, to the subsistence needs of the local people, and little thought is ever given to ensuring that they enjoy benefits from the protected areas. Dearden (1991) further observes that even the security of the people and their property is hardly guaranteed by governments. The practice is apparently at variance with an observation made by several authors, such as Diatta *et al* (1986), and Konsolas and Zacharatos (1992) that, to be sustainable, tourism development in protected areas must not undermine the environmental freedoms of indigenous peoples. They maintain that it is very essential for governments and tourism policy makers to always regard the maintenance of the rights and privileges of the traditional occupiers of protected environments as paramount in policy formulations.

Tolba and Mustafa (1992) have pointed out that the deliberate exclusion of local residents from the administration and management of socio-economic activities in protected areas, particularly at national parks, constitutes a major source of conflict between host communities and conservation authorities. Staudt (1990) and Whelan(1991) conceive that the problems and conflicts frequently experienced in protected areas are at times exacerbated by the policy of most Park Management authorities to consciously disregard or underestimate the importance of local involvement in the administration and management of the



**Parks.** This has been corroborated by Marks (1996) who said that, to a large extent, the people of Zanzibar were not given the opportunity to be directly involved in the planning, implementation and monitoring of ecotourism development projects on the island; they did not participate in decision-making and were denied access to the resources in the protected areas. The approach made the indigenous people very bitter against the ecotourism projects, and this often produced numerous conflicts between the conservation authorities and the landowners; some of such conflicts were at times violent enough to temporarily hold up tourist activities at the Parks. Diatta *et al* (1986) have observed, however, that local people's involvement in the management of tourist activities in Senegal created a more harmonious relationship between local inhabitants and conservation managers on the one hand, and between local inhabitants and visitors on the other.

## **2.6 Need for Review of Land Acquisition Agreements**

The signing of land acquisition agreements between governments and owners or custodians of the land normally precedes the creation of nature reserves. While not disputing the documentary importance of the agreements, Williams and Shaw (1991) lament the fact that several of such agreements arranged between local communities and governments in connection with lands acquired as protected nature reserves have been signed between governments and local rulers, most of whom are illiterate and may not be well informed about the implications of land acquisition. Generally the agreements do not anticipate any

negative socio-economic and physical developments, especially problems that are normally associated with land shortage, such as (a) rapid population growth and (b) the evolvement of better land-use opportunities due probably to improved education of local residents.

Collins (1998) also observes that it is not known whether both parties usually clearly understand the agreements before signing them, and that there are few instances where governments have reviewed such agreements with later generations of landowners. Reviews of some sort sometimes take place following the occurrence of serious conflicts between the current owners or occupiers of the land and park conservation officials representing government. The residents frequently bring much pressure to bear on conservation authorities, compelling the latter to address pertinent problems such as the granting of concessions to the local communities to obtain fuel-wood or mushrooms from the protected areas. Instances of such occurrences have been reported by Ndlovu and Mashumba (1998) in Zimbabwe where the Shangaan people were poaching extensively from the Gonarezhou National Park. Hostilities towards the protected wildlife and conservation authorities ceased in the 1990s when the latter negotiated special reform packages which included employment opportunities and compensation schemes for victims of wildlife attacks. In addition, community members became involved more than ever before in Park Management and administrative activities. Similar review packages in Zimbabwe are cited by Dhliwayo (1998) who says that Communal

**Areas Management Programme for Indigenous Resources (CAMPFIRE)** was explicitly set up to empower local communities by allowing them to manage wildlife resources in their respective areas, and to determine their own economic benefits. The initiative was successful because funds generated by the local residents were made available for the development of local clubs and community cultural events such as traditional ceremonies, all of which raised feelings of self-confidence and community self-reliance and pride, culminating in the enhancement of community cooperative spirit.

The experiences of the Gonarezhou National Park and the success story of Zimbabwe's CAMPFIRE have both been acknowledged and given credence in the works of other writers such as Diegues (1994) and Scheyvens (1999a) who inferred that ecotourism development would continue to generate conflicts, unless governments regularly reviewed land acquisition agreements. To forestall any negative and violent responses from local people, Dei (2000) suggests that local populations and indigenous people should always be involved in nature conservation decision-making processes, and that opportunities for the control of ecotourism must be in their hands. Weaver (1991) has also recorded how some ecotourism initiatives such as the Maasai Mara and Tortuguero National Parks in Kenya have succeeded through involvement of the local communities. Conflicts between local residents and nature conservation authorities, in the opinion of Berry and Ladkin (1997), will persist until governments recognize the need to continuously review land acquisition agreements with surviving

generations of landowners; such reviews must be carried out in a manner that would enable the people to realize positive benefits from the projects.

Quaye (1996) suggests that the best way to save tropical forests (or ecosystems) is not by the show of brute force or by resorting to the use of abstract legislative instruments, but rather by directly involving the forest (local) people themselves in the management and care of their environments. Acknowledging the efforts of Ryan (1995), Quaye concludes that a nature protection movement that promotes the participation of the local people in the protection process has brighter chances of success than the one that excludes them. The implication is that conservation authorities of parks (acting on behalf of government) must involve direct local participation right from policy development to implementation, in order to win the full cooperation of the local people.

## **2.7 Benefits of National Parks**

Researchers such as Ashton (1991), Emmons (1991) and Cater (1994) have argued that the success of a protected area development is measured basically in terms of the extent to which nature is effectively conserved. This argument re-emphasizes the notion that governments create nature reserves primarily for the purpose of conserving natural resources such as wildlife (i.e. forests and undomesticated animals) in order to maintain the bio-diversity of the environment. In addition to this role some protected areas, particularly national parks, are established to serve multi-purpose functions. Tolba (1992) cites recreation and ecotourism as the major reasons for the establishment of national

parks and other types of protected areas by governments of the less developed countries. Tolba's ideas are supported by Hunter (1997) who posits that national parks have now become major tourist attractions, and indeed constitute the basis for nature and ecological tourism. In his opinion, ecological tourism potentially holds the key to sustainable development in developing countries. The writer further observes that, for a growing number of countries, this new type of tourism has become a leading foreign exchange earner. Governments of many countries have thus acquired large tracts of land for development into nature reserves, purposely to attract ecology-minded tourists. Other writers (Eagles, 1995; Lindberg and Hawkins, 1993) have also indicated that ecotourism is one of the fastest growing sectors of the tourism industry. The World Tourism Organisation (WTO) has estimated that ecotourism is worth some \$20 billion a year and, together with nature-based tourism, accounts for 20% of global international travel (WTO, 1998). Ecotourism has therefore come to signify an attractive investment proposition. According to Dowling (1993), the promise of ecotourism is that financial benefits accruing from the influx of foreign tourist income may be utilised in financing the provision and management of national parks to conserve the natural resources that ecotourists so willingly pay to experience. This means that ecotourism confers economic value on the conservation and protection of natural areas, thus representing a potential for a sustainable development approach to development.

Lane (1991) conceives that the practice of ecotourism satisfies jobs without dominating the local economy; moreover, it does not abuse the natural environment. Konsolas and Zacharatos (1992) and Cater (1992) have shown how ecotourism activities can yield dividends for local residents and other stakeholders at national parks if conservation authorities handle operations properly. They have observed that the presence of visitors always provides opportunities for the hosts to sell their goods and services. Similarly, Dei (2000) says that the impact of tourism on resident communities can be positive if, first of all, there is local participation in the administration of the Park, which must promote the development of income generating activities to increase the people's purchasing power and improve their standard of living. These observations confirm the view of Scheyvens (1999a), that local community involvement in rural development projects, particularly in ecotourism, can be very positively rewarding in economically marginalized regions, if it encourages the sustainable use of natural resources and enhances the people's control over development in their surrounding area. Public involvement is not simply a way of responding to pressure groups, but (more positively) of recognizing that local people are experts in their own areas and have much to offer in the understanding of local situations and activities (Green and Hunter, 1992a). This suggests that a development programme that does not involve the 'local experts' is doomed to fail. Public participation in the planning system, according to the Skeffington Report (MHLG, 1969) should include the use of public meetings, formal exhibitions and public inquiries.

Several writers have identified ecotourism as an important tool for rural development. Referring to the Okavango Region of north-western Botswana, Mbaiwa (2002) notes that ecotourism has stimulated the development of a variety of allied infrastructure and facilities such as hotels, lodges and camps, airport and airstrips. The writer particularly attributes the development of tarred roads and other communication facilities in the Ngamil District to ecotourism at the national parks. Whereas the infrastructural facilities have promoted tourism development in the area, ecotourism in the Okavango Delta has provided employment opportunities to the local communities. Ecotourism has thus become a significant source of foreign exchange for Botswana. Mbaiwa's (2002) observation directly supports similar studies made by Tolba (1992) and O'Connor (1990). Tolba (1992) has opined that ecotourism stimulates employment and rural development in surrounding areas, while O'Connor (1990) citing examples from Madagascar, says that the establishment of the Beza Mahalaly Nature Reserve has improved the social lives of the surrounding people. Benefits from the reserve include the construction of schools and access roads, the establishment of market gardening projects and the distribution of farm seeds and tools to farmers.

Writing about the region of Lencois Maranhenses National Park in Brazil, Diegues (1992) observe that certain government conservation policies succeeded in instituting compensation schemes, promoting income generation projects, and substituting traditional management practices with modern techniques. Such

policies were intended to empower the local communities economically by reducing the costs of conservation to the resident people, and making them less dependent on the forest resources for their livelihood. Writing about protected parks in Zambia, Li (2000) described how the huge earnings from game management areas are distributed: first, 50% is set aside for wildlife management cost, half of this is used in hiring the services of local residents; second, 35% is allotted to community development, and third, 15% is reserved for the management needs of the Parks. Tolba and Mustafa (1992) have noted that ecotourism stimulates employment, hence local people cooperate with conservation authorities in protecting reserves. Some important socio-political benefits of ecotourism have been mentioned by Barnett (1994) who has observed, for example, that ecotourism brings about development and also unites the local communities socially and politically.

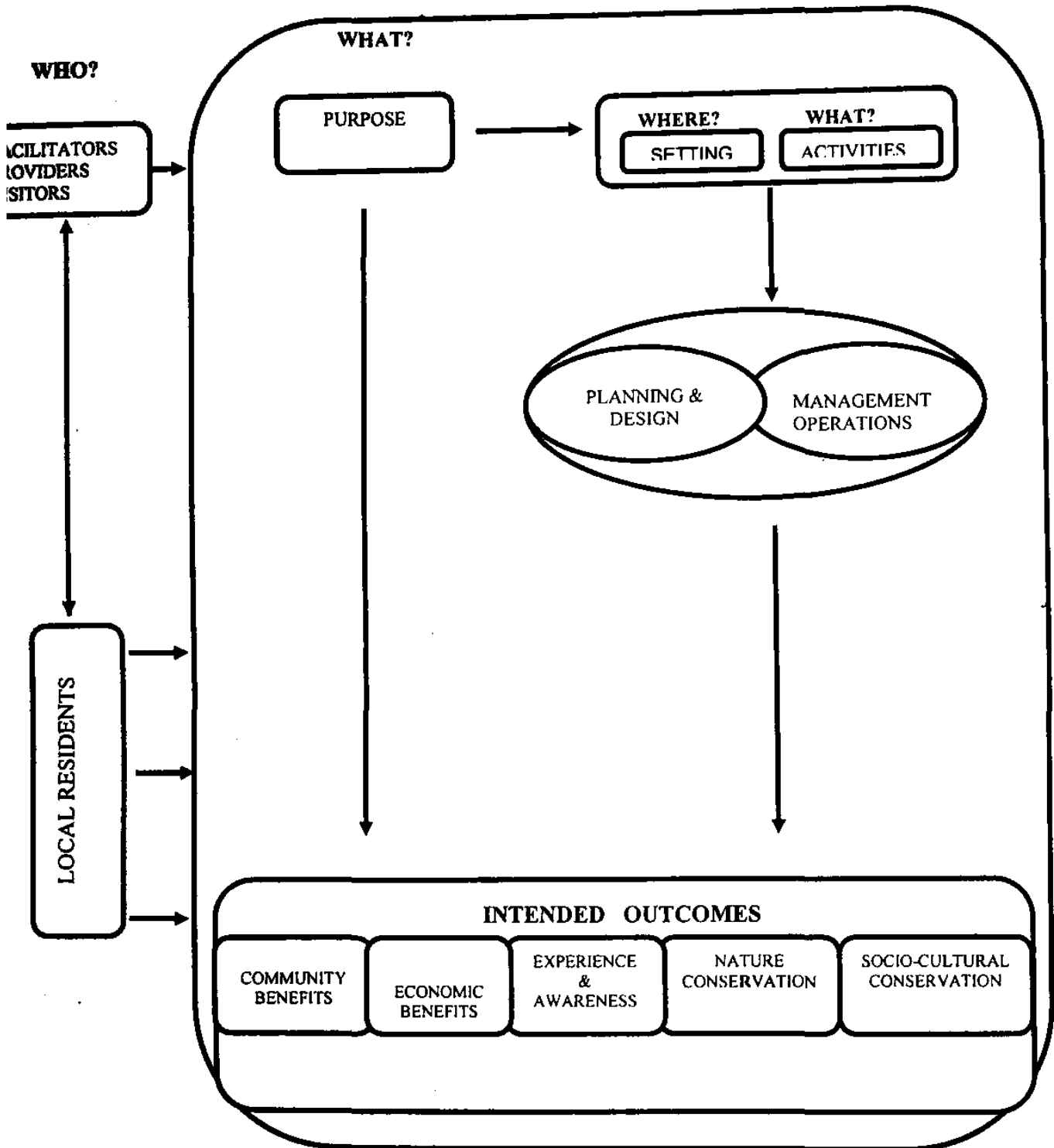
The implication of the Literature Review is that national parks are good socially and economically, but the success of the Parks depends on the full participation of the local people in the planning and the running of the Parks.

## **2.8 Conceptual Framework**

A modified Definitions-Based Model of Ecotourism (Figure 2.1), developed by Professors Ham and McLaughlin in 1999, has been adopted for the study. The choice was based on the fact that the model provides a comprehensive framework within which all facilitators, providers, hosts and visitors play appropriate roles to achieve desired results or “intended outcomes”.



**Figure 2.1: A Modified Definitions-Based Model of Ecotourism**



Source: Adapted from McLaughlin and Ham (1999)

### **2.8.1 Structure of the Definitions- Based Model of Ecotourism**

The Definitions-Based Model of Ecotourism identifies the stakeholders in ecotourism development in protected areas. Stakeholders are persons or groups with legitimate interests in communal activity; they are facilitators, providers, visitors and hosts. Facilitators are those who directly influence every aspect of the development programme; they include governments, non-governmental organisations (NGOs), investors, funding agencies and managers of the protected area. Providers on the other hand are those who provide or supply ecotourism products such as attractions and special services (e.g., hospitality care). Visitors are outsiders most of whom come to the area as tourists. All the categories of stakeholders engage in interactive exchanges among themselves, and with the local residents or hosts (who must be regarded as the true owners of the attractions).

To achieve the aims and objectives of a rural development project (such as a national park) the key players must operate under what is outlined in the conceptual framework or model as “guiding principles” which are ethical issues and rules of conduct that direct the way in which the *purpose, setting* and related *activities* at the Park should be approached. The guiding principles also prescribe and direct the planning, design, management and operations of the programme so that the intended objectives are realized. The principles therefore emphasize *authenticity, ethics, harmony, delivery, respect, sustainability, responsibility, consultations* and *periodic review of policy*. Rules aimed at

minimizing the negative impact of the various operations on the environment are also provided.

The Model directs that the stakeholders of every ecotourism programme must evolve 'purposes' for engaging in whatever they do. Purpose in this regard refers to the reasons why tourists (visitors) visit a national park, the interests of the local communities (hosts) and their reasons for showing such interests in the programme, why tour operators (providers) run tours and provide hospitality and other services at national parks, and why non-governmental organizations (facilitators) advocate ecological or nature tourism rather than the traditional mass tourism. The reasons of other facilitators, such as governments, for funding ecotourism projects are also included in the purposes.

The tourism product that visitors would want to see in the environment is designated as the 'setting' in the Model. In this context, "setting" refers to the natural and man-made environment. Actors involved in controlling the setting are the hosts, providers and facilitators. Sometimes certain nature-loving visitors play protective roles at national parks, such as voluntary services. An important aspect of the setting is 'delivery'- that is, the manner in which the tourism products and services at the Park are packaged and provided to visitors. While the natural and man-made environment must be ideally tourist-oriented, the Model recommends that the activities of tourists should be controlled and guided by well-formulated protective principles at national parks. The activities are either consumptive such as hunting, or non-consumptive like hiking, biking,

bird and butterfly watching or safari trips; they are activities that tourists frequently engage in when visiting pristine areas. The protective principles provide strategies, ways of working, and specific identifiable efforts taken to monitor, control, and regulate tourist and ecotourism development activities in general.

Also prescribed by the Model are 'planning and design' as essential tools of a national park development programme. Planning and design determine the scale or size of facilities, and how they should be integrated into the environment's development set-up without compromising the bio-diversity of the environment through any negative impacts of tourists. To achieve desirable outcomes, the model directs that all management activities should focus on the sources of services such as transportation, the Park's carrying capacity and ease of accessibility, that would not endanger plant and animal life. Positive outcomes (benefits) outlined in the modified model include community benefits, economic benefits, experience and awareness, socio-cultural and environmental conservation. The positive outcomes can be realised when all the parties concerned such as facilitators, providers, visitors and the local residents, play their respective roles well. Inappropriate execution of roles would produce unsatisfactory results, such as environmental degradation and conflicts.

Community benefits are community-oriented development expectations, which include general well-being, welfare, and community development packages.

They are benefits that go to the community as a whole. The term 'community' refers to local populations or residents.

A successful ecotourism programme produces economic benefits for the local communities (hosts) and the providers of ecotourism attractions and services; the facilitators will also derive benefits at some levels of the programme's development.

Apart from the socio-economic gains that will be enjoyed by the stakeholders of an ecotourism development project, a successful national park development programme must also promote the protection of host environment and respect for the culture. Expected benefits to be achieved and experiences to be realised by the stakeholders include the development of general awareness, enlightenment, responsibility, appreciation, education, enjoyment and positive acculturation. For example, visitors are educated to appreciate and enjoy the environment (tourist products) very responsibly, while the host communities are also educated to become aware of the importance of their natural resources and their expected role in the ecotourism development process. Staudt (1990: 91) says that the local people are '... empowered in several ways to acquire the ability to manage their lives well by their involvement in managing their own development'.

Socio-Cultural Conservation in the context is the act of safeguarding, promoting and facilitating the preservation of society, its history and culture. This principle

directly enhances the development of ecotourism or travelling to relatively undisturbed or uncontaminated natural areas to understand the culture and natural history of the environment (Miller, 1991). Specific benefits expected from successful park development programmes include the conservation of socio-cultural systems, artefacts, symbols, physical sites, or social events such as traditional dance types.

The most outstanding contribution of the key players in an ecotourism development programme is conservation of the environment; all other benefits are secondary to nature protection which includes the establishment of protected areas or the act of encouraging the conservation of nature, even by means of economic returns from ecotourism. All the actors are beneficiaries of nature conservation.

### **2.8.2 Merits of the Definitions-Based Model of Ecotourism**

It is possible to evaluate the *Definitions-Based Model* (of ecotourism) based on its strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats (SWOT). From the description of the model's structure and operational elements, for example, a number of merits are apparent. First, a major strength of the model is its ability to facilitate concurrent observation of actions and thought processes of all the stakeholders in an ecotourism development project. A study of ecotourism as a strategy for rural development truly involves the study of the behaviours of a number of interdependent categories of actors, namely facilitators, providers, visitors and hosts. The model shows the appropriate way stakeholders should

interact in order to facilitate and enhance a strategic, proactive or practical development process for the mutual benefit of all.

Second, the importance of local communities (i.e. the indigenes) in an ecotourism scheme is highlighted in the model; their involvement or participation is central to the successful operation of the project. In other words, the model strongly recommends the complete cooperation of local communities service providers (such as tour operators and their agencies) and facilitators (i.e. governments, NGOs, investors, funding agencies and managers of the protected areas) in order to achieve constructive and sustainable results.

Thirdly, the model emphasizes the importance of human factor in all rural development projects, with particular reference to nature protection sites. Western (1982a, 1982b) and Berger (1993) have observed that principles of cooperation at national parks in most developing countries are not followed. Hence, the degree of cooperation existing among facilitators (e.g. park conservation management) and the other key players and stakeholders in a few parks depends to a large extent on the personality, professionalism and individual skills of wildlife officers in charge of national parks or protected areas.

Finally, the Model enumerates the benefits expected to be realised from operations at a national park if all stakeholders have played their roles

satisfactorily; the expected results include economic and community benefits, experience and awareness creation and, nature and socio-cultural conservation.

### **2.8.3 Limitations of the Definitions-Based Model of Ecotourism**

Hvenegaard (1994) has observed that the Definitions-Based Model of Ecotourism faces a number of limitations, the first being its inability to hold other factors constant. Secondly, the model does not prevent the possible effects of excluded variables from influencing its practical application. For example, the high illiteracy level of local population (Table 2) could be a factor that would possibly deny them the opportunity of enjoying full benefits of ecotourism. Similarly, the nature of Ghana's micro-economic climate (characterised by high inflation and high prices of petroleum products, and hence high transport fares), for example, could adversely affect the volume of tourist inflow and the total income earnings. These are some of the external factors which could adversely affect the activities in the Mole National Park.

Another limiting factor of the model was its inability to eliminate subjectivity, as far as the assessment of respondents' perceptions and expectations were concerned. This perception was based on Smith's (1988) observation that human behaviour is at times erratic and unpredictable; hence, the use of the model in assessing respondents' perceptions and expectations (both of which are human behavioural concepts) could not be assumed. The model's inability to control human nature (e.g. behavioural influences) could weaken its predictive capability. Some of the communities surrounding the national park, for



example, sometimes responded very violently to even simple and straightforward enquiries.

In spite of its observed limitations, the Definitions-Based Model was helpful in the study. With a few modifications, it was found to be a very useful and appropriate tool for directing the research. To minimise the natural and social problems associated with it, there was the need to distinguish between indigenes (landowners) and users of the land. A direct interaction between the facilitators (e.g. government) and separate components of the host communities (such as farmers other than owners or custodians of the land) was found to be an effective and, probably a better, approach to compensating people who suffered various losses through the establishment of community development projects.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **METHODS OF DATA COLLECTION AND ISSUES FROM THE FIELD**

#### **3.1 Introduction**

This Chapter discusses primarily the research methodology which incorporates sources of data collected for the study, as well as the data collection procedures. The application of the research instruments, both in the preliminary and main surveys, is also discussed. The Chapter contains also how the samples for the study were derived, problems encountered during the fieldwork and how they were circumvented or overcome.

#### **3.2 Research Methodology: Data and Sources**

The primary data for the study were derived from the socio-economic activities of the local residents. The social activities in the communities centred on the few available educational and health institutions, access roads and the people's traditional and cultural activities. Data on the residents' economic activities, on the other hand, focused on the material benefits that members of the communities derived directly or indirectly from the Park. Direct benefits were money which the people obtained through their participation in on-going activities at the Park. Examples of such activities included services like tour guiding, interpretation, sale of souvenirs to visitors, and the provision of home-stay facilities. Indirect benefits, on the other hand, were those that were enjoyed

by the communities, due to their proximity to the Park rather than their participation in park-prescribed and planned exercises of some sort; for example, health and educational services meant for workers whom the Park had officially employed were extended to the local residents as well.

Primary data were also sourced for the study from the Park's employees and visitors. The latter referred to both tourists and excursionists. The information requested centred on the visitors' socio-demographics, their perceptions and expectations of the Park, as well as their suggestions that could help transform Mole into one of the most popular tourist attractions in Africa. The Park's employees were people officially employed by the Park's management to render various services inside the Park as game guards; others were employees of the Mole Motel who were also engaged to offer hospitality services to the visitors.

Additional primary information for the study was obtained by organising Focus Group Discussions (FGDs) with some members of the target communities and with certain workers at the Park. Also, scheduled interviews were arranged with the following personalities at their offices: the Regional Manager of the Ghana Tourist Board, the Acting West Gonja District Coordinating Director, the Senior Wildlife Officer, the Mole Motel Manager, and a Dutch Wildlife Development Adviser.

Secondary data were sought from both published and unpublished documents, which included journals, magazines, periodicals, bulletins, articles and reports.

### **3.3 Research Instruments**

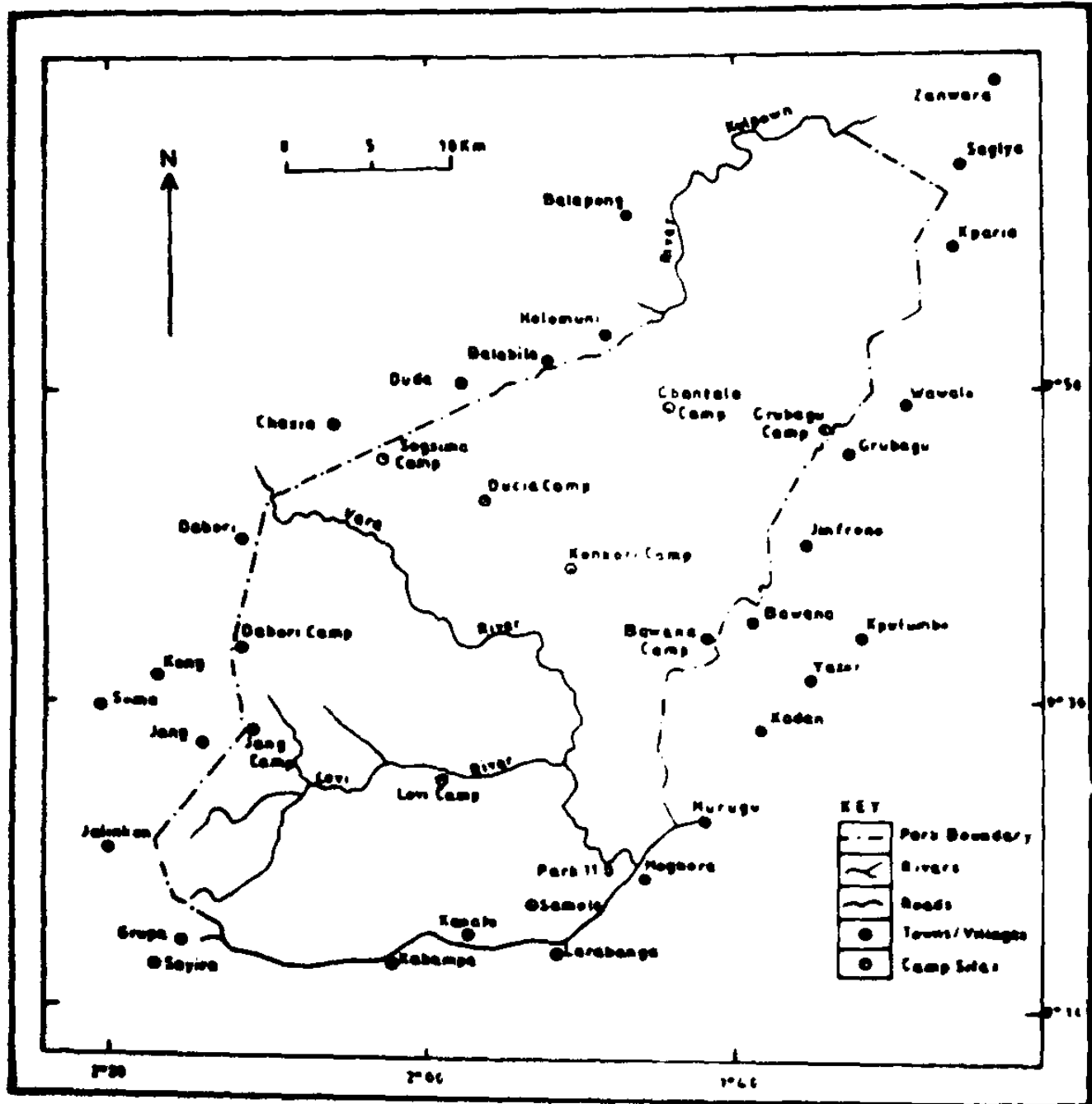
Instruments adopted for the study consisted of three self-administered questionnaires (APPENDIX 2), supplemented by informal discussions, interviews and personal observations. Basically they consisted of questions intended to explain respondents' expectations and perceptions about the establishment and operations of the Park.

The questionnaires were administered to three sets of respondents, namely local residents, park employees, and visitors to the Park during the field exercise. From the local residents the questions sought information on the extent and nature of local participation at the Park, and the socio-economic benefits that the local people have derived from the national park since its inception. Apart from the questions that were directed to the ordinary citizenry, another set of questions was administered to twenty-seven elders (who comprised 20 males and 7 females) obtained from all the nine local communities (APPENDIX 1A). The questionnaires were designed to elicit relevant information from the traditional authorities, with regard to the actual documentation that preceded the leasing of the Parkland. Two other sets of questionnaire (APPENDIX 1B and 2C) were administered to local and foreign visitors, and the Park's employees respectively. The questions sought information about the respondents' impressions about the local communities and the Park, problems encountered at the Park, and their suggestions for improvement.

### 3.4 Sample derivation: Local Residents

There are about eighteen (18) communities located along the eastern boundary of the Mole National Park (Figure 3.1); these are under the political jurisdiction of the West Gonja District Assembly. For a number of reasons, the inclusion of some particular communities such as Larabanga, Kabampe, Murugu and Bawena in the study was considered to be very crucial for the research. For example, information gathered during the pilot survey revealed that the Larabanga community is the oldest and largest of all the communities in the area; it has popular attractions such as the *Mystery Stone* and the *Ancient Mosque*, both of which have been visited by several thousands of tourists over the years (Ghana Wildlife Annual Report, 1994). Kabampe and Murugu are also popular places for visitors, while Bawena is the largest of the communities situated to the north-east of the Park. The four communities were therefore deliberately selected for the study. Three other communities (Jinfrono, Grubagu and Wawato) were purposively selected because of their proximity to the Park, while Kaden and Mognore were chosen for the contrary reason. The sampling of the communities was purposive or deliberate because of the special role that each of them played in the study. In the final analysis, the sampled communities were *Kabampe, Larabanga, Mognore, Murugu, Kaden, Bawena, Jinfrono, Grubagu* and *Wawato* (Figure 3.1).

Figure 3.1: Local Communities of Mole National Park



Source: Ghana Wildlife Division, 1994

### 3.4.1 Population and Housing

According to the 2000 Population and Housing Census, the 9 target communities had a total of 1011 households, and a total population of 6,880, while the average size per household was about eight (8) people (Table 3.1).

**Table 3.1 2000 Population and Housing**

Community	2000 Population and Housing Statistics			
	No. of Households	Males	Females	Total Population
Larabanga	499	1508	1524	3032
Murugu	135	424	405	829
Mognore	50	208	197	405
Kabampe	50	233	174	407
Jinfrono	46	201	173	374
Wawato	42	197	136	333
Bawena	115	484	434	918
Kaden	33	171	101	272
Grubagu	41	153	157	310
<b>Total</b>	<b>1011</b>	<b>3579</b>	<b>3301</b>	<b>6880</b>

Source: Ghana Statistical Service, 2000

### 3.4.2 Categorisation of Households in the Target Communities

One problem was notable, judging from the number of households in each of the sampled communities and the significant disproportion of their populations. The range between the number of households in the smallest community (Kaden, with 33 households) and the largest (Larabanga, with 499 households) was so wide that care needed to be taken to prevent the eclipsing of the very small communities by the very large ones. The nine communities were therefore grouped under three ranges based on the total number of households in each community (see Table 3.2). Table 3.2 presents a summary of how numbers of households were sampled from each of the communities under study.

**Table 3.2 Categorisation of Households in the Sampled Communities**

Range of numbers of households	Communities	Number of households selected per community	Category
1 – 99	Mognore Kabampe Jinfrono Wawato Kaden Grubagu	6	1
100 – 199	Murugu Bawena	9	2
200 - >300	Larabanga	18	

Source: Field Survey, 2003

From each of the communities which fell under the first range of household numbers (1 – 99), 6 households were sampled; 9 were sampled from each of the



communities in the second range of households (100 – 199); finally from Larabanga, the only community with nearly 500 households, 18 were sampled. In each case, selection of the households was done by means of the raffle method.

### **3.4.3 Samples Derived from the Communities**

To further reduce the possibility of the large communities overshadowing the small ones in the final sample, the three ranges of household total numbers were grouped into two categories. From Category 1, four (4) respondents aged 18 years and above were both purposively and accidentally sampled from every household. For a similar reason, 3 respondents aged 18 years and above, were purposively and accidentally sampled from every household in Category 2. Following the procedure outlined in Table 3.2, a total of 253 local residents were sampled (Table 3.3). Accordingly, the largest number of 55 respondents was assigned to the Larabanga community which had the largest number of households (499), and 27 respondents each to Murugu and Bawena with 135 and 115 households, respectively.

**Table 3.3 Samples Derived from the Communities**

Community	Number of Households	No. of Sampled Households	No. of Sampled Persons		
			Male	Female	Total
Larabanga	399	18	29	23	55
Murugu	135	9	18	9	27
Mognore	50	6	16	8	24
Kabampe	50	6	15	9	24
Jinfrono	46	6	16	9	24
Wawato	42	6	16	10	24
Bawena	115	9	13	14	27
Kaden	33	6	13	11	24
Grubagu	41	6	11	13	24
<b>Total</b>	<b>911</b>	<b>72</b>	<b>147</b>	<b>106</b>	<b>253</b>

Source: Field Survey, 2003

**3.5 Sample Derivation: Visitors**

Thirty-nine (39) visitors, comprising 29 foreign and 10 domestic visitors, were both accidentally and purposively selected for the study (Table 3.6). The sampling was accidental because only those visitors who were there at the time of the data collection were interviewed. It was also purposive because only one member from each group of visitors was sampled to answer the questions in a questionnaire designed for tourists. This approach was adopted to avoid the duplication of responses that might be obtained from different members of the same group of tourists. Some of the questions probed the reasons why tourists chose to visit Mole, while others sought information on the respondents' socio-

**economic background.** The latter was considered very important because of the notion that only the affluent can afford to travel to remote, especially pristine places such as Mole (Boo, 1990); it was intended to verify how applicable the observation is in the situation at the Mole Park. Other questions probed visitors' interpretations of their experiences, their views on their interactions with their hosts, as well as their perceptions and expectations of the Park as a growing tourist attraction in a developing country.

### 3.6 Composition of Employees of the Mole Park

The official total figure of the Park's employees (i.e. workers who were officially engaged to provide various services at the Park) was 235; they were 200 employees of the Game and Wildlife Division and 35 workers of the Mole Motel (Table 3.4).

**Table 3.4 Composition of Employees of the Mole Park**

Employer	Employees					
	Male		Female		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Ghana Wildlife Division	199	93	1	5	200	85
Mole Motel	15	7	20	95	35	15
<b>Total</b>	<b>214</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>21</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>235</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Field Survey, 2003

### 3.7 Sample Derivation: Park Employees

The two categories of employees were identified for purposes of sampling. Thus, out of the 200 game guards of the Game and Wildlife Division 10% were randomly sampled, and 29% of the 35 motel workers were similarly sampled.

### 3.8 Sampled Local Residents, Tourists and Park Employees

A summary of the composition of the various categories of respondents who were variously sampled for the study is provided in Table 3.5.

**Table 3.5: Sampled Local Residents, Tourists and Park Employees**

Sample type	Description	Sample size		Total
		Male	Female	
Local residents	Ordinary Citizens	151	102	253
	Elders	20	7	27
Tourists	Non-Africans	14	15	29
	Africans	7	3	10
Park Employees	Game Guards	19	1	20
	Motel Staff	4	6	10
Total		222	127	349

Source: Field Survey, 2003

### 3.9 Preliminary Survey

Preliminary work on the research commenced with formal and informal negotiations for permission from the leadership of the targeted communities, as well as from the Park's management. The first contacts were made with the first-

line political representatives of the communities, the assembly members, who then led the researcher to the various community chiefs and their elders. It was the latter group that granted permission for the commencement of the fieldwork in the local communities. Similar formal and informal negotiations were made with the Park Management for the preliminary survey to be started inside the Park.

After the initial contacts were made with the community leaders and the Park Management, the assembly members assisted the researcher to recruit and train five young men as field assistants to help administer the research instruments in the local communities. Pre-testing of the research instruments designed for the study was then conducted in order to: (i) assess their appropriateness and reliability, and (ii) identify any problems that were likely to be encountered during the actual field operations. The pilot exercise produced far-reaching results; repetitive questions were deleted from the list, while irrelevant or doubtful ones were either deleted or reframed. Thus the total number of questions was reduced from 109 to 88. It was also discovered that due to the heterogeneity of the ethnic groups in the study area, there was the need to recruit several multi-lingual field assistants for the exercise.

### **3.10 Main Survey**

The main survey of the study was carried out in December 2002 and January 2003. The exercise incorporated Focus Group Discussions (FGDs), interviews,

**personal observation, and the administration of structured and non-structured research instruments.**

**The FGDs were arranged with selected male and female adults of the target communities, and also with some of the Park employees. In each of the nine target communities not more than twelve male and female adults were invited to participate in a discussion. Also, in every community separate group discussions were organised for the two sexes, males and females. The arrangement was intended to ensure that both male and female participants expressed themselves freely at every sitting. The composition of the participants included mostly peasant farmers, some foodstuff vendors and petty traders, many of whom were leaders in their respective communities.**

**Scheduled interviews also assisted the researcher to obtain information on the socio-economic benefits that the local people had derived, and continued to derive, from the Park. For example, information on the number of local people employed at the Park, either as game guards or motel staff (Table 3.3), their salaries, the amount of money spent on the local people in the provision of social amenities such as health facilities, school buildings, electricity, water supply and recreational facilities. Focus group discussions (FGDs) were also held with a number of individuals and groups of people, in the communities and inside the Park.**

### **3.11: Problems Encountered During Data Collection**

The main problem that was encountered during the data collection was the numerous languages spoken in the area; less than ten thousand inhabitants spoke about ten dialectically different languages. This meant that the questionnaires had to be translated into the various local languages. Hence, additional expenditure was incurred in securing the services of multi-lingual assistants, and the period for the data collection was also unduly stretched to cover a period of seven weeks, instead of the anticipated five weeks. As observed by Strauss (1987), interpretations are time-consuming and may sometimes fail to elicit logical and accurate responses from the respondents. Inaccuracies in the research were however prevented by the appointment of very competent multi-lingual assistants to help administer the questionnaires.

Another problem was that many of the females refused to offer themselves to be interviewed. The option was therefore to interview as many females as was humanly possible to supplement the number of males who readily offered themselves to be interviewed. The result was the skewness of the sample in favour of the males.

A third problem was also observed during the data collection; some local residents and park employees were unwilling to cooperate because they thought that the exercise was mere rhetoric, time wasting and bogus. Such people said they did not anticipate any monetary benefits from the research, since previous researches produced no rewards. Also, for fear of being victimised by the Park

**authorities, some of the Park employees refused to be interviewed. The alternative, in each case, was to interview only those residents and employees who were willing to answer questions.**



## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION OF DATA**

#### **4.1 Introduction**

In this chapter, the demographic and socio-economic characteristics of all the categories of respondents sampled for the study are discussed. The expectations and perceptions of the local communities, the Park's employees and visitors regarding the presence of the Park, as well as the extent to which its activities have affected the local people's socio-economic livelihoods, are also covered in the Chapter. Also discussed here are tests of the research hypotheses.

#### **4.2 Demographic and Socio-Economic Characteristics of the Respondents**

In this section the socio-demographic characteristics of all the categories of respondents are discussed. Variables such as age, marital status, education, occupation and incomes of the respondents have been analysed.

##### **4.2.1 Demographic and Socio-Economic Characteristics of Local Residents of the Mole National Park**

Table 4.1 shows that out of the 253 people interviewed, 58% were males and 42% were females. One hundred and forty-three (57%) respondents were below 40 years of age, while 43% were above 40 years. The majority (79%) had no formal education; 10% had primary school education, 8% had middle or junior secondary school education, and about 2% had secondary school education. Less than 1% had post-secondary education. The implications of the demographic and socio-economic characteristics are far reaching. The majority (nearly 80%) being above 30 years of age, suggests that a larger proportion of the local

population were old enough to have witnessed the acquisition of their land by government. Also, many of the respondents (about 21%) being 30 (or less) years old is suggestive of the presence of many young people in the local communities. The youthfulness of the population implies that in an average of 10-15 years' time, there would be increased demand for physical and socio-economic infrastructure necessary to satisfy a mature youth. This, therefore, entails the provision of more health facilities (clinics), schools, access roads and employment opportunities. The effects of these expectations on the Park, especially in a predominantly illiterate (80%) and agrarian (about 70%) population, are easily predictable. More land would be needed by the people for both housing and farming, and other socio-economic activities.

Majority of the respondents (94%) were self-employed. Most of the male respondents ((93%) were farmers, while 61% of the female respondents engaged in petty trading. Since the majority of them were self-employed peasant farmers, whenever developments in the Park were not in their favour, they would refuse to recognise the importance of the Park; hence, they would not hesitate to work into the reserve and poach the animals under protection, or fell trees for fuel-wood.

In a focus group discussion with some inhabitants of the local communities, many females said that they did not engage much in farm work, but did mostly retail, petty trading; they also processed agricultural produce into *sheabutter*, *gari*, and *dawadawa*, while others gathered fuel-wood for domestic use and for

sale in the local market. Majority of their male counterparts engaged principally in peasant farming, cultivating mostly annual crops such as maize, yam, millet, sorghum, groundnuts, cassava and cowpeas; in addition they reared some local birds, sheep, goats and cattle. They also engaged in hunting, particularly during the months of November-May.

**Table 4.1 Demographic and socio-economic characteristics of local residents of the Mole National Park (N=253)**

Factor	Response	Respondents					
		Male		Female		Total	
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Sex	-	147.0	58.0	106.0	42.0	253.0	100.0
Age	18-20Yrs	11.0	8.0	8.0	7.0	19.0	8.0
	21-30Yrs	20.0	14.0	14.0	13.0	34.0	13.0
	31-40Yrs	52.0	35.0	38.0	35.0	90.0	36.0
	41-50Yrs	41.0	28.0	30.0	28.0	71.0	28.0
	51-60Yrs	16.0	11.0	12.0	11.0	28.0	11.0
	>60Yrs	6.0	4.0	7.0	6.0	11.0	4.0
Educational status	No formal education	117.0	80.0	84.0	80.0	201.0	80.0
	Primary	15.0	10.0	11.0	10.0	26.0	10.0
	Middle/JSS	12.0	8.0	9.0	8.0	21.0	8.0
	Secondary/SSS	2.0	1.0	2.0	2.0	4.0	2.0
	Post-secondary/college	1.0	0.0	-	0.0	1.0	0.0
Employment status	Self-employed	138.0	93.9	99.0	93.4	237.0	93.7
	Unemployed	2.0	1.4	3.0	2.8	5.0	2.0
	Retired	5.0	3.4	-	-	5.0	2.0
	Employed full time	2.0	1.4	2.0	1.9	4.0	1.6
	Homemaker	-	-	2.0	1.9	2.0	0.8
Occupational distribution	Farmer	136.0	92.5	35.0	33.0	171.0	67.6
	Trader	2.0	1.4	65.0	61.3.0	67.0	26.5.0
	Not applicable	7.0	4.7	5.0	4.7	12.0	4.7
	Social worker	1.0	0.7	1.0	0.9	2.0	0.8
	Teacher	1.0	0.7	-	-	1.0	0.4

Source: Field Survey, 2003

**4.2.2 Demographic and socio-economic characteristics of visitors to the Mole National Park during the study period**

The visitors who toured Mole National Park during the survey period were 54% male and 46% female. Majority of them (80%), who were above 30 years of age, constituted 94% females and 67% males (Table 4.2). Also, a high proportion of them were mostly professionals (44%); others were civil servants (15%), students (15%), and retirees (13%). The remainder were mostly self-employed and homemakers.

**Table 4.2 Demographic and Socio-Economic Characteristics of Visitors to the Mole National Park (N=39)**

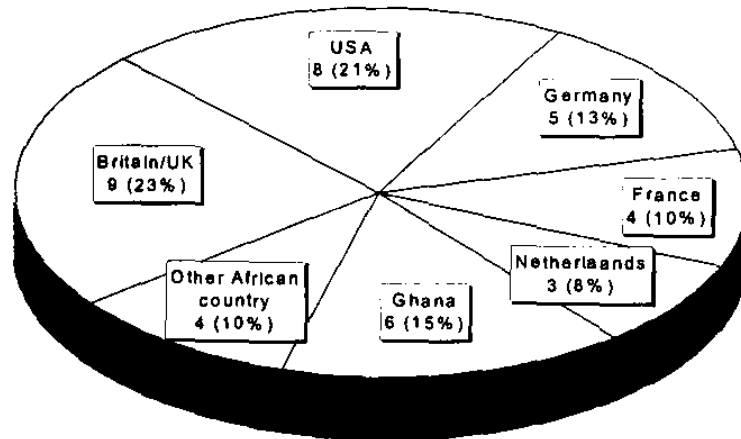
Factor	Response	Respondents					
		Male		Female		Total	
		Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Age Distribution of Tourists	16-20Yrs	3	14	1	6	4	10
	21-30Yrs	4	19	-	-	4	10
	31-40Yrs	7	33	3	17	10	26
	41-50Yrs	4	19	7	38	11	29
	51-60Yrs	2	10	4	22	6	15
	>60Yrs	1	5	3	17	4	10
Occupational Distribution of Tourists:	Professionals	9	42	8	44	17	44
	Civil servants	4	19	2	11	6	15
	Students	6	29	-	-	6	15
	Retirees	1	5	4	22	5	13
	Self-employed	1	5	3	17	4	10
	Homemakers	-	0	1	6	1	3

Source: Field Survey, 2003

### 4.2.3 Nationalities of visitors to the Mole National Park during the study period

An attempt was made to find out the nationalities of the visitors and their impression of the on-going activities at the Park. The survey covered 39 visitors comprising 10 Africans and 29 non-Africans (Figure 4.1). Ghanaian visitors (both domestic and from the diaspora) constituted 60% of the total number of African visitors. Most of the non-African tourists came from the United Kingdom (23%) and the United States of America (21%). Others came from Germany (13%), France (10%), and The Netherlands (8%).

**Figure 4.1 Nationalities of visitors to the Mole National Park during the study period (N=39)**



Source: Field Survey, 2003

#### **4.2.4 Demographic and Socio-Economic Characteristics of Employees of the Mole National Park**

There was a total workforce of 235 employees at the Mole National Park, who were in the services of two main organisations. The larger of the two was the Game and Wildlife Division (GWD) of the Department of Forestry which engaged 200 workers, while the second employer, the Mole Motel, had 35 employees. Official statistics indicated that less than 5% of the Park's employees came from the communities surrounding the Park.

Information about the socio-demographic characteristics of employees of the Park is shown in Table 4.3. Thirty-five workers, made up of 25 Ghana Wildlife Division employees and 10 workers of the Motel were selected randomly and interviewed. Most of the respondents were males (68.6%). Majority of the respondents (74.3%) were above 30 years of age, and 74.3% were married. The large proportion of married couples among the workers probably implies that sufficient dwelling houses appropriate for raising children, and basic schools for educating the children, are obligatory and indispensable facilities at the Park.

**Table 4.3 Demographic and Socio-Economic Characteristics of Employees of the Mole National Park (N=35)**

Factor	Response	Respondents	
		Frequency	Per cent
Sex	Male	24	68.6
	Female	11	31.4
Age	18-20yrs	5	14.3
	21-30yrs	4	11.4
	31-40yrs	13	37.1
	41-50yrs	8	22.9
	51-60yrs	5	14.3
Marital status	Single	5	14.3
	Married	26	74.3
	Separated	1	2.9
	Divorced	3	8.6
Occupation	Game Guard	25	71.4
	Hospitality Service	10	28.6

Source: Field Survey, 2003

#### **4.2.5 Educational Background and Income Earnings of Park Employees**

Majority of the respondents (62.9%) were either middle school or junior secondary school graduates, while 20.0% had attended primary school, and only 17.1% had received secondary school education (Table 4.4). The majority of workers (57.1%) at the Park received paltry wages of less than ₵2,000,000 per



annum, probably owing to their poor educational background, while only 17.1% received wages above ₵4 million per annum.

**Table 4.4 Educational background and income earnings of park employees (N=35)**

Educational status	Annual Income (₵)							
	<2,000,000		2,000,000-3,999,999		4,000,000-9,999,999		Total No. of Earners	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Primary	6	17.1	1	2.9	0	0.0	7	20.0
Middle/JSS	14	40.0	7	20.0	1	2.9	22	62.9
Secondary/SSS	0	0.0	1	2.9	5	14.3	6	17.1
Total	20	57.1	9	25.7	6	17.1	35	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2003

### 4.3 Problems Following the Creation of the Mole National Park

#### 4.3.1 Community Involvement in Land Acquisition Negotiations

Information about the extent of local community involvement in negotiations that preceded the creation of the Mole Park is shown in Table 4.5. Almost three out of every five respondents were aware that their chiefs and elders were involved in the negotiations for the release of the land on which the Park was established. Eighty-three per cent (83%) male and 72% female respondents were definite about the involvement of their chiefs and elders. In a focus group discussion, majority of the residents (including some elders) said, although

government legally acquired the land from the traditional leadership, details of the negotiations were not disclosed to the ordinary citizens of the communities. The fact that more female respondents (21%) had no idea about the land negotiations implies that women, according to the local tradition, were generally excluded from issues concerning land.

**Table 4.5 Community Involvement in Land Acquisition Negotiations (N=253)**

Factor	Response	Respondents				Total	
		Male		Female		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%		
Extent of community involvement in land negotiations	Not Involved	10	7	7	7	17	7
	Chiefs/elders only	122	83	77	72	199	78
	No idea	15	10	22	21	37	15
Payment of compensation for land/property	Yes	110	75	63	59	173	68
	No idea	37	25	43	41	80	32
Recipients of compensations	Chiefs/Elders	94	64	61	57	155	61
	Chiefs and a few subjects	12	8	1	1	13	5
	No Idea	41	28	44	42	85	34

Source: Field Survey, 2003

When asked whether government paid compensation for the land that was acquired, and for any property that was destroyed in the process of creating the Park, 173 (68%) respondents said yes, while 80 (32%) had no idea. More

females (41%) than males (25%) had no idea about the payment of compensation in connection with land acquisition. In an interview with the Senior Wildlife Officer in-charge of the Park on January 19, 2003, he mentioned that government paid full compensation for the land. In focus group discussions with some local inhabitants, it was revealed that most of the people who lost some property were settler-farmers who left the area shortly after it was declared a national park in 1971. The few that remained received no compensation for the loss of their property because the compensation was presumed by the traditional leadership to have been paid in respect of the land only. This notion probably explains why 61% of the respondents said only the chiefs benefited from the payment. Five per cent (5%) of the respondents said that their chiefs and a few subjects benefited from it, while 34% (mostly females) had no idea at all about the actual beneficiaries.

#### **4.3.2 Involvement of the local residents in the Park's development initiatives**

According to Ashley (1995), the success and sustainability of a rural development project depends on local people's participation in both the planning and implementation phases of the project. Table 4.6 shows the extent of community involvement in on-going activities at the Mole Park.

Each and every one of the 253 respondents knew, at least, about one activity going on in the Park. Thirty-six per cent of the respondents said they were aware of the operations of wildlife and forest protection committees. About two out of

every three respondents, however, were not involved in any activity related to the Park; about 62% female and 61% male respondents were not involved. Of the 40 female respondents who were involved, 69% were engaged in activities that only had indirect links with the Park's operations; they were mostly retailers of foodstuffs and souvenirs. Activities that were done exclusively by the male respondents for income were tour guiding and interpretation. Wildlife and forest protection committees (16) and wildlife societies (15) were perhaps the most popular voluntary activities at the Park that involved the respondents.

**Table 4.6 Involvement of the local residents in the Park's development initiatives**

(N=253)

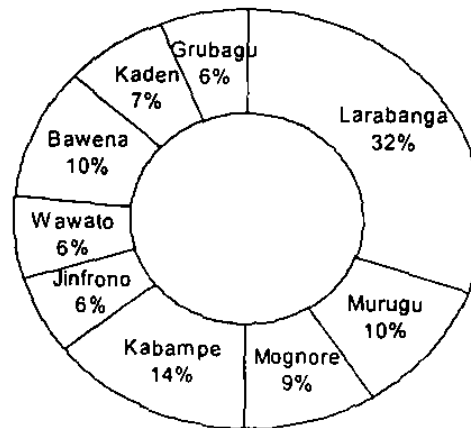
Factor	Response	Respondents					
		Male		Female		Total	
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Known park activities	Wildlife clubs	15	10	7	7	22	9
	Wildlife societies	13	9	13	12	26	10
	Wildlife/forest protection committees	49	34	42	40	91	36
	Tour guiding/ interpretation	36	24	15	14	51	20
	Fire volunteers	13	9	10	9	23	9
	Provision of accommodation/catering services	9	6	10	9	19	8
	Selling foodstuffs/souvenirs	2	1	8	8	10	4
	Cultural displays	10	7	1	1	11	4
Involvement?	Yes	57	39	40	38	97	38
	No	90	61	66	62	156	62
Nature of involvement	Wildlife clubs	4	7	2	5	6	6
	Wildlife societies	10	17	5	13	15	15
	Wildlife/forest protection Committees	15	26	1	3	16	16
	Tour guiding/interpretation	8	14	0	0	8	8
	Fire volunteers	11	19	2	5	13	13
	Provision of accommodation/ catering services	1	2	0	0	1	1
	Selling foodstuffs/souvenir	2	3	28	69	30	32
	Cultural displays	7	12	2	5	9	9
	Not Applicable	90	61	66	62	156	62

Source: Field Survey, 2003

#### 4.3.3 Participation of the Local Communities in Activities of the Mole Park

Since less than 40% of the respondents participated in the activities directly or indirectly connected with the Mole National Park (see Table 4.6), it became necessary to assess the extent to which the respondents from each community were participating in the activities. Figure 4.2 shows the proportion of each community's respondents who were involved in doing some of the Park's activities.

**Figure 4.2 Participation of the local communities in activities of the Mole Park (N=253)**



Source: Field Survey, 2003

Among the communities that were sampled for the survey, the Larabanga community had the highest percentage of respondents (32%) participating in several activities in the Park. Kabampe came next with 14% rate of involvement. Murugu and Bawena had 10% each, while each of the remaining communities

had less than 10% of their respondents involved in the Park's operations. It appeared that respondents from the communities located to the north and away from the Park's headquarters, such as Kaden, Jinfrono, Grubagu and Wawato had the least number of participants, averaging about 6.3%. On the whole, the average participation rate per community was less than 10%.

It is interesting to note that the local communities that indicated the highest levels of participation at the Park (e.g. Larabanga, Kabampe, Mognore and Murugu) are located south of the Park, and close to its administrative headquarters and the Mole Motel. This is the main area of tourist activity. Other communities such as Grubagu, Jinfrono and Wawato (all situated to the north-east of the Park, and farther away from the Park's headquarters and hospitality service centre) were not much involved in many of the on-going activities at the Park. The situation can be reasonably explained by means of the gravity model which postulates that the shorter the distance between any community and the centre of tourist activity, the greater would be the rate of interaction between the two locations. Conversely, the greater the distance between the two locations, the lower the rate of interaction between them as a result of 'distance decay'.

#### **4.3.4 Involvement of the Local Communities in Specific Activities at the Mole Park**

A detailed list of the activities which respondents from the local communities were variously involved in at the Park is shown in Table 4.7. The most popular income-earning activity was selling of foodstuffs and souvenirs (30) mostly to

tourists, while voluntary park activities such as wildlife committees (16), wildlife societies (15), and fire volunteers (13) were the most popular among the respondents. No respondent mentioned any participation in the Park's administrative or managerial activities. On the whole, the Larabanga community indicated the highest level of participation (31).

**Table 4.7 Involvement of local communities in specific activities at the Mole Park**

Community	Wildlife Clubs	Wildlife Societies	Wildlife & Forest Protection Committees	Tour Guiding & Interpretation	Fire Volunteers	Accommodation & Catering Services	Selling Foodstuffs/Souvenirs	Cultural Displays	Total Involvement	Not Applicable
Larabanga	-	5	5	4	1	1	11	4	31	21
Murugu	1	2	2	1	3	-	1	-	10	17
Mognore	1	-	1	2	1	-	3	1	9	15
Kabampe	1	3	2	-	3	-	6	-	15	9
Infrono	1	-	1	-	1	-	2	1	6	19
Nawato	-	2	-	-	1	-	3	1	7	19
Bawena	1	1	3	1	1	-	-	2	9	18
Kaden	-	2	1	-	2	-	2	-	7	17
Arubagu	1	-	1	-	-	-	2	-	4	20
Total	6	15	16	8	13	1	30	9	98	155

Source: Field Survey, 2003

The least rate of involvement of the respondents was in accommodation and catering services. The researcher's personal observation revealed that the Mole Motel, located inside the Park, was the only standard tourist accommodation facility in the Park region. Other communities that engaged in doing one activity



or another were Kabampe (15), and Murugu (10); both Mognore and Bawena registered equal levels of participation (9). Generally, less than half the total number of the respondents took part in the Park's activities.

#### **4.4 Benefits Expected From the Park by the Local Residents**

Table 4.8 shows the expectations of the local residents from the Park. All the respondents said that their fathers released the land to government with the hope of receiving certain benefits.

As regards the socio-economic expectations, 30% male and 19% female respondents said they hoped that the Park's conservation authorities would involve the local people in the Park's administrative and decision-making functions. Some 22% female and 20% male respondents expected employment for the growing youth population, and compensation for any damage to property (and at times loss of life) caused by the protected animals.

**Table 4.8 Benefits expected from the Park by the local residents (N=253)**

Factor	Response	Respondents					
		Male		Female		Total	
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Socio-economic concessions needed	Participate in administration & management of park	44	30	20	19	64	25
	Employment & Compensation for damaged property	29	20	23	22	52	21
	Develop community tourism	34	23	14	13	48	19
	Harvest economic resources at park	9	6	28	26	37	15
	Access to water sources	6	4	10	9	16	6
	Opportunity to visit attractions	8	5	5	5	13	5
	To hunt for bush meat on occasions	10	7	2	2	12	5
	Harvesting grass, termites & clay for cultural activities	7	5	4	4	11	4
Income generating projects needed	Rabbit & grasscutter rearing	53	37	28	37	81	32
	Poultry keeping	43	29	28	29	71	28
	Vegetable gardening	27	18	21	18	48	19
	Pottery (especially ceramics)	13	9	27	9	40	16
	Charcoal production	11	7	2	7	13	5

Source: Field Survey, 2003

In a focus group discussion with some inhabitants from the Mognore community, the study was informed that no compensation had ever been paid for any destruction of their crops which was a common occurrence in the area. Nineteen per cent (19%) of the respondents expected the entire area to experience total development through the introduction of community tourism projects; this, according to them, would enable the local people to obtain direct economic benefits from the Park. In addition to the economic gains, it was

hoped that community tourism would occupy the youth and prevent them from migrating to the urban centres in search of non-existent jobs.

One other important expectation expressed by 15% of the respondents was the opportunity to harvest fuel-wood, sheanuts and *dawadawa* fruits in the protected area. In a closer interaction with many of the local residents, it was learnt that the extraction of sheabutter and *dawadawa* is an important economic activity exclusively for women in the area; the main raw materials of the industry are sheanuts and *dawadawa* (locust) beans. In the opinion of the present author, if human beings were permitted to compete with the protected wildlife for the same wild fruits, this might pose grave consequences for human beings. The fact is that, leaving the animals with very little food reserves in the wild would compel them to resort to alternative means to survive; that is by doing greater damage to cultivated crops.

Six per cent (6%) of the respondents mentioned easy access to potable drinking water. Some wished to visit the Park's attractions (5%), while another 5% expressed the desire to practise their traditional activities without hindrance. The traditional activities highlighted included the harvesting of termites for feeding poultry and tall grasses for roofing local buildings. Permission to visit some of the tourist attractions, and hunting for bush meat were mentioned by a few.

When asked to specify the types of income generating projects that they expected to benefit from the establishment of the Park, 37% each of male and

female respondents said they wanted rabbit and grasscutter rearing, while 29% wanted poultry projects. A few of them expressed interest in vegetable gardening (19%), pottery (16%) and a sustainable charcoal industry (5%) as the income generating projects needed in the communities. Surprisingly, no respondent expected that the protection of the area would lead to an appreciable improvement of the local environment, particularly the flora, fauna and climatic conditions of the area.

#### **4.4.1 Development Projects Anticipated by Male and Female Local Residents at the Mole Park**

Prior to the creation of the Park, promises that were made to the local communities by government and the people's own anticipations were expressed by the respondents. The statistics contained in Table 4.9 indicate that about 39% female and 26% male respondents said they expected that the creation of the Park would contribute to improving the general health delivery in the communities, through the provision of clinics. About 27% males and 22% females expected potable water to be provided as the Park was developed. The study was informed through group discussions arranged with some community members that a number of water bodies from which the local residents obtained their drinking water were located in the area now protected by the Park. The inhabitants, however, did not only expect access to the water in the Park, but also wished for the provision of piped water in the area.

The importance of potable water can not be over-emphasised since the area is designated by the Ghana Health Service as one of the endemic guinea worm

infested areas in the country. About 18% males and 13% females expected that the area would see development through the introduction of income-generating projects for the local inhabitants. Of particular interest to them were rabbit and grasscutter rearing, poultry and vegetable gardening; others were improved pottery (especially ceramics) and sustainable charcoal production (see Table 4.8). In the opinion of the present author, it will be very difficult for government to compel the inhabitants around the Park to change from what they are used to doing without making available any substitutes or alternative sources of livelihood for them.

**Table 4.9 Development projects anticipated by male and female local residents at the Mole Park N=253)**

Expected Project	Respondents					
	Male		Female		Total	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Clinics	38	25.9	41	38.7	79	31.2
Potable water	39	26.5	23	21.7	62	24.5
Income Generating Projects	26	17.7	14	13.2	40	15.8
Improved Transport / Roads	26	17.7	12	11.3	38	15.0
Schools	18	12.2	16	15.1	34	13.4
Total	147	100.0	106	100.0	253	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2003

The provision of sustainable income generating projects is therefore appropriate because it is one sure strategy that can effectively halt poaching and other trespasses that are frequently committed by the local inhabitants in the Park.

Viable animal raising and the introduction of fast growing woodlots would provide for the nutritional needs of the inhabitants and halt poaching, as well as the illegal manner in which many local inhabitants (mostly females) wander into the protected area to gather firewood. Income-earning projects including vegetable gardening would attract the youth of the area, who have migrated to the urban centres in search of non-existent or menial jobs, to return home and contribute to the development of their communities.

An average of 15% of the respondents (comprising about 18% males and 11% females) expected that their communities would be made more accessible to the outside world through the provision of access roads and buses. Accessibility is undoubtedly a key to the area's development, as access roads would contribute significantly to the promotion of crop cultivation as well as the local craft industry; farmers would produce more for local consumption and for sale to outside consumers. Buyers from the urban areas, for example, would be able to reach every community to purchase their needs. Fifteen per cent female and 12% male respondents said they expected schools to promote basic education in the area.

A chi square ( $X^2$ ) test on *no difference* between male and female respondents, with regard to the expectations of development projects at the Mole Park, was carried out. The calculated chi-square is 6.649, while the test statistic at 4 degrees of freedom at 0.05 alpha level is 9.488. (See Appendix 2a)

Since the calculated  $X^2$  (6.649) is less than the test statistic (9.488) at the alpha level 0.05 at 4 degrees of freedom, we fail to reject the null hypothesis that *the expectations of the male and female residents are not significantly different*. This implies that sex and gender differences did not influence the expectations of the male and female respondents, with regard to the development needs of their communities.

#### **4.4.2 Effects of the Park on the Socio-Cultural Activities of the Local Residents**

The effects of the Park on the socio-cultural activities of the surrounding communities were investigated (Table 4.10). Thirty-eight per cent female and 37% male respondents said visitors to the Park did not ridicule the cultural practices of the surrounding communities. About 48% male and 47% female respondents thought that the Park boosted the pride of the communities, while another 48% male and 47% female respondents said that activities at the Park enabled outsiders to have first-hand knowledge of the local culture of the local communities.

**Table 4.10 Effects of the Park on the socio-cultural activities of the local residents (N=253)**

Perception	Response	Respondents					
		Male		Female		Total	
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Park promotes unity	Agree	40	27	26	25	66	26
	No opinion	43	29	31	29	74	29
	Disagree	64	44	49	46	113	45
Visitors ridicule our cultural values	Agree	42	29	30	28	72	28
	No opinion	50	34	36	34	86	34
	Disagree	55	37	40	38	95	38
Park promotes Community Pride	Agree	71	48	50	47	121	48
	No opinion	39	27	30	28	69	27
	Disagree	37	25	26	25	63	25
Outsiders learn about local culture	Agree	70	48	50	47	120	47
	No opinion	40	27	30	28	70	28
	Disagree	37	25	26	25	63	25
Opportunity to meet people	Agree	70	48	65	61	135	53
	No opinion	47	32	21	20	68	27
	Disagree	30	20	20	19	50	20
Interaction with visitors is cordial	Agree	66	45	44	42	110	44
	No opinion	40	27	31	29	71	28
	Disagree	41	28	31	29	72	28

Source: Field Survey, 2003

Many more female respondents (61%) than males (48%) agreed that the Park offered the local people an opportunity to meet many visitors, while an average



of 44% male and female respondents said that the local residents showed no resentment to the presence of visitors.

Judging from the foregoing responses, tourist-host relationship at the Park is not yet suffering any strain. In other words, going by Doxey's (1976) irritation index ('irridex'), despite the disaffection, conditions at Mole have not deteriorated to the 'irritation' stage yet; residents' discontent is still merely at the 'apathy' stage.

#### **4.4.3 Perceptions of Male and Female Respondents Regarding Enjoyment of the Park's Tourist Attractions**

The statistics shown in Table 4.11 indicate the responses of the male and female respondents on their perceptions of the attractions of the Park. When asked if they were patronizing the tourist attractions at the Park, 49% male and about 51% female respondents said they were not enjoying the tourist attractions at the Park. Twenty-seven per cent and about 26% male and female respondents, respectively, had no opinion to express, while a minority comprising 24% male and 24% female respondents said that everybody enjoyed the Park's tourist attractions. The fact that the majority of the male and female respondents did not enjoy the tourist attractions at the Park probably implied that the local residents could not consume the products because as self-employed, peasant farmers, the majority of them were earned too little incomes to enable them indulge in such a luxury item as tourism or sight-seeing. Such people could not afford to enjoy the attractions, even though they expressed their desire to do so.

**Table 4.11 Perceptions of Male and Female Respondents Regarding Enjoyment of the Park's Tourist Attractions (N=253)**

Sex	Patronage of tourist attractions by local residents						Total	
	Agree		Not sure		Disagree		No.	%
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%		
Male	35	23.8	40	27.2	72	49.0	147	100
Female	25	23.6	27	25.5	54	50.9	106	100
Total	60	23.7	67	26.5	126	49.8	253	100

Source: Field Survey, 2003

A chi square test on the perceptions of the male and female respondents, with regard to their patronage (enjoyment) of the tourist attractions at Mole was conducted to ascertain any significant differences. From Table 4.11 the  $X^2$  calculated was 0.119, while the test statistic at 2 degrees of freedom at alpha level 0.05 was 5.99. (See Appendix 2b)

Since the calculated  $X^2$  (0.119) is less than the critical  $X^2$  value (5.99) at alpha level 0.05 at 2 degrees of freedom, we fail to reject the null hypothesis that *there is no significant difference in the perceptions of the male and female residents of the communities surrounding the Mole National Park*. This implies that there was a direct statistical association between the perceptions of the male and female respondents, regarding access to the tourist attractions inside the Mole

**Park by the local inhabitants. The results of the test have thus confirmed that sex had no influence on the respondents' perceptions of the Park.**

#### **4.4.4 Local Residents Perception of the Park's Effects on the Local Economy**

Table 4.12 shows the responses of male and female respondents to five statements made on economic matters in the Park region. About 51% females and 49% males said operations of the Park did not promote tourism in the local communities, while 48% male and 47% female respondents accepted the fact that activities at the Park promoted trading in the area through the purchase of local goods and services by visitors to the Park. Most respondents (56% female and 47% male) agreed that tourism had neither caused price increase in foodstuffs nor in housing rents in the communities.

**Table 4.12 Local residents perception of the park's effects on the local economy (N=253)**

Perception	Response	Respondents					
		Male		Female		Total	
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Park promotes tourism in communities	Agree	37	25	25	24	62	25
	I'm not sure	38	26	26	25	64	25
	Disagree	72	49	55	51	127	50
Park promotes trade in the area	Agree	70	48	50	47	120	47
	No opinion	46	31	30	28	76	30
	Disagree	31	21	26	25	57	23
Visitors purchase local goods & services	Agree	64	44	49	47	113	45
	No opinion	43	29	28	26	71	28
	Disagree	40	27	29	26	69	27
Tourism has increased local food prices	Agree	29	20	28	26	57	23
	No opinion	48	33	19	18	67	26
	Disagree	70	47	59	56	129	51
Tourism has increased local rent	Agree	30	20	24	23	54	21
	No opinion	45	31	27	25	72	28
	Disagree	72	49	55	52	127	51

Source: Field Survey, 2003

#### **4.4.5 Local Residents' Perception of the Mole Park as a Source of Employment**

Majority of the respondents, comprising 51% males and 50% females, said the Park was not serving as a satisfactory source of employment for the local communities, while a total of about 24% (male and female) said that its contribution to employment in the area was noticeable. Twenty-five per cent of

both male and female respondents failed to express their opinion on the issue (Table 4.13).

**Table 4.13 Local residents' perception of the Mole Park as a source of Employment (N=253)**

Sex	Response							
	Agree		No opinion		Disagree		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Male	34	23	38	26	75	51	147	100
Female	27	26	26	25	53	50	106	100
Total	61	24	64	25	128	51	253	100

Source: Field Survey, 2003

There is evidence that in each case, especially on disagreement, the responses of both sexes were quite balanced (averaging 50.5%). In a focus group discussion with a number of inhabitants from the Mognore community, it became clear that very few local inhabitants were employed at the Park. This was confirmed by official figures obtained from conservation authorities at the Park which indicated that, out of the Park's total workforce of nearly 250 employees, only about 5.1% were from the local communities. (See Table 3.5)

Chi square statistics were used to test the hypothesis that *the perceptions of male and female residents of the Mole Park as a major source of employment for local inhabitants are not different*. The focus was on the Park's contribution to the development and economic well-being of the surrounding communities. The

perception of the respondents, with regard to the Park's contribution to employment in the area, was therefore statistically assessed. (See Appendix 2c)

The results of the test based on the information in Table 4.13 indicate that the  $X^2$  (calculated) was 0.195, while the test statistic at 2 degrees of freedom, at alpha level 0.05 was 5.99. Since the  $X^2$  calculated is less than the test statistic for 2 degrees of freedom of 5.99, we fail to reject the null hypothesis that *the perceptions of male and female residents of the Mole National Park were not different*. This implies that both the male and female respondents hold similar perceptions of the Park, regarding its contribution to employment of the local inhabitants; in other words one can say that there is a direct statistical association of the perceptions of male and female respondents.

#### **4.4.6 The Park's Effects on the Local Environment as Perceived by Local Male and Female Residents**

The Park's contribution to environmental protection in the study area was discussed with the respondents whose responses are shown in Table 4.14. Majority of the male respondents (50%) said that bush burning had not decreased in the area. In their opinion, the phenomenon was rather on the increase, especially inside the protected area. The observation of the males was supported by 47% of their female counterparts. On the other hand, an average of 29% male and female respondents believed that bush burning had reduced, while an average of 22.5% male and female respondents (mostly those below 20 years of age) did not express any opinion.

**Table 4.14 The Park's effects on the local environment as perceived by local male and female residents (N=253)**

Perception	Responses	Respondents					
		Male		Female		Total	
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Bush burning is decreasing	Agree	44	30	30	28	74	29
	No opinion	30	20	26	25	56	22
	Disagree	73	50	50	47	123	49
Number of trees has increased	Agree	46	31	30	28	76	30
	No opinion	37	25	27	25	64	25
	Disagree	64	44	49	47	113	45
Number of animals has increased	Agree	44	30	34	32	78	31
	No opinion	43	29	19	18	62	25
	Disagree	60	41	53	50	113	44

Source: Field Survey, 2003

Similarly, 47% of female respondents said that bush burning had not decreased. About 28% said that bush burning had decreased, while 25% expressed no opinion. When contacted on the issue, the Park authorities confirmed that bush burning at the Park was an authorized annual 'ritual'. They explained that each year the villagers, whose intention had been to excite early sprouting of grasses in their communities, initiated the practice. Their motive had been to entice protected animals to graze in unprotected areas where they could be killed. To counter the selfish interests of the local residents, the Park officials authorized a

replication of the practice at the Park in order to keep the animals within the protected area.

Forty-five per cent (45%) of the respondents disagreed with the statement that tree population in the protected area had increased. Some 47% female and 44% male respondents (about 80% of whom were above 30 years) claimed that the area was more wooded some 30 years ago when the place was declared a protected area. They stressed that the regular bush fires (calculatedly executed by the Park's management) had permanently destroyed some wildlife in the protected area. About 30% however opined that the number of trees in the area had apparently increased. This view was based on the fact that compared with the unprotected areas the Park appeared to have a much higher plant population.

Similarly, with regard to the current animal population at the Park, 41% of the male and 50% of the female respondents also reasoned that the constant occurrence of bush fires in the area had adversely reduced the population of the animals. Some 30% male and 32% female respondents, however, agreed that the animal population at the Park had been increasing since 1971. They believed that the creation of the Park had resulted in the protection of the Park area, and hence the preservation of many animal and tree species that would have otherwise been destroyed. A few respondents (25%) expressed no opinion.

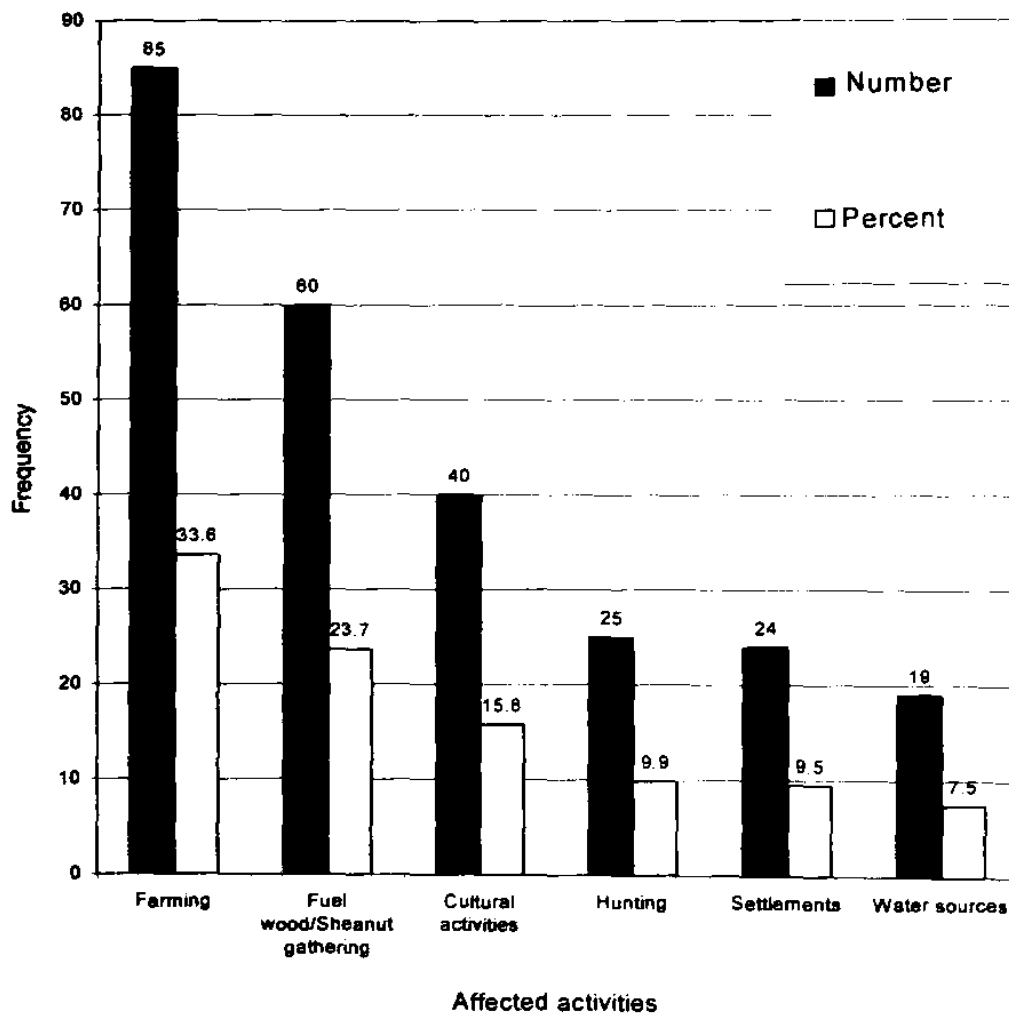
The claims of the respondents were, however, refuted by the Park's management. In an interview with the Senior Game Warden, for instance, he



said the people's claim that flora and fauna populations were on the decline was based on mere speculations, not on facts. He lamented that no scientific research had ever been conducted on the Park to ascertain the actual state of flora and fauna. He anticipated that studies such as this present work would serve as a prelude to scientific research on the area in the near future.

#### 4.4.7 Adverse Effects of the Park on the Socio-Economic Activities of the Local Communities

**Figure 4.3 Adverse effects of the Park on the socio-economic activities of the local communities (N=253)**



Source: Field Survey, 2003

The local communities practised certain socio-economic and cultural activities before the Park was established. The researcher attempted to investigate the extent to which such practices had been affected by the establishment of the Park. Figure 4.3 contains a summary of the negative effects of the Park on the socio-economic activities of the local inhabitants. About 34% of the respondents said farming and farmlands were the worst affected by the establishment and operations of the Park. During the fieldwork, for example, in personal communications with Mr Sugri, a farmer from Wawato, he angrily asked the present author: 'Don't you know that the Park sits on our most fertile land?' In the communities, farming is regarded not as a mere economic activity, but as a way of life. Many residents, therefore, said the communities had lost a large part of their fertile land to the Park.

About 24% said they were prevented from acquiring economic resources such as firewood, sheanuts and *dawadawa* beans, while 16% mentioned that cultural and traditional economic practices (such as cutting tall grasses for roofing and collecting termites for poultry feed) have also been adversely affected. Some other respondents said hunting (10%), settlements (10%) and water courses (about 8%) were also adversely affected by the presence of the Park.

In a focus group discussion, many respondents protested against what they called the expansion or 'constant outward shifting' of the Park. For example, a spokesman for the Bawena community (Personal communication, 2003), complained that such continuous expansion caused their settlements to often

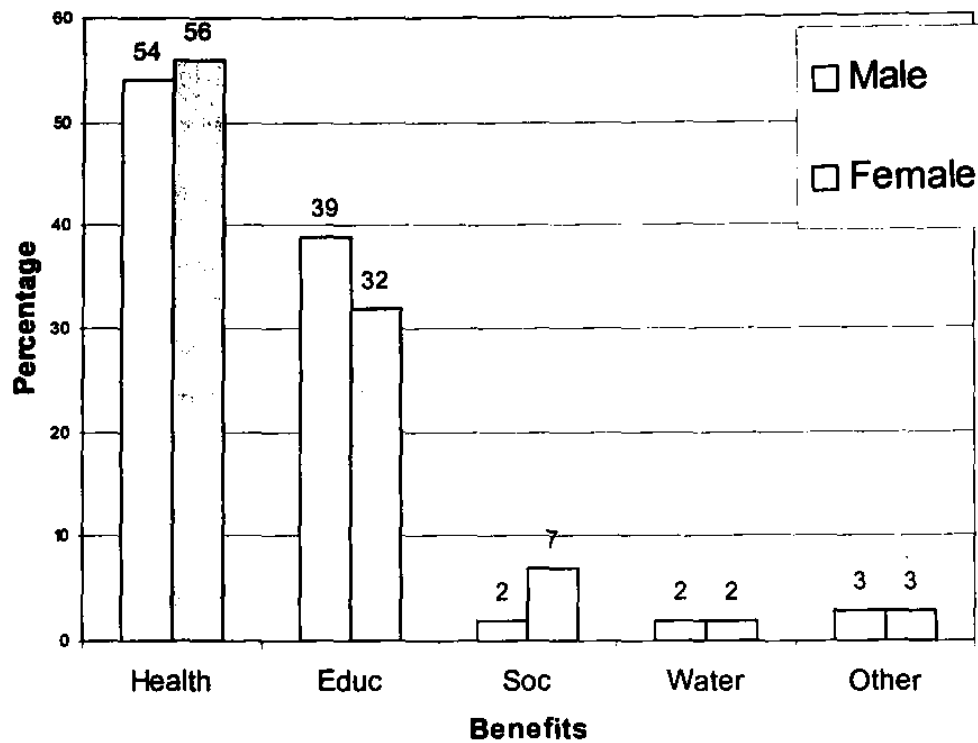
relocate. The Senior Wildlife Officer (Personal communication, 2003) explained that the expansion of the Park was necessary to ensure security for the protected wildlife.

All the respondents interviewed said that the Park Management did not pay any compensation for occasional destruction of residents' property. This perception was confirmed when the present author asked the Senior Wildlife Officer whether compensations were paid to farmers for any loss of their properties, and the latter answered in the negative

#### **4.4.8 Local Communities' Perception of Benefits of the Mole Park**

There was the need to take a look at the benefits which the communities derived, directly or indirectly from the Park. Figure 4.4 shows that about 56% female and 54% male respondents mentioned health as an important benefit that their communities derived from the Park. The recognition of health service as the Park's most important contribution was the result of the presence of a health clinic which was the only health facility that served the health needs of all the communities surrounding the Park, and beyond.

**Figure 4.4 Local communities' perception of benefits of the Mole Park (N=253)**



Source: Field Survey, 2003

The second important benefit was education, as indicated by 39% and 32% female and male respondents respectively. Basic educational needs of the communities were catered for by one primary school and a junior secondary school, both located at the Park's headquarters. Seven per cent male and 2% female respondents said an opportunity to socialize with visitors was an indirect benefit which could be associated with the Park's establishment.

A group discussion with some of the residents revealed that people from various walks of life and of different nationalities visited Mole daily, and many more did

so annually. Some of the visitors were often received by the local residents into their communities and homes, and that afforded both visitors and the hosts the opportunity to interact with one another. Some 3% of both male and female respondents mentioned others such as the opportunity offered to the residents to sell their wares as souvenirs to tourists as indirect benefits derived from the Park by the residents. Many residents agreed that the Park had promoted trade in the local handicrafts, and other services to tourists. A few others (2% male and female respondents) said some residents sometimes fetched potable water from the Park.

#### **4.5 Consultations between the Local Residents and the Park Management**

When asked whether the Park's management consulted the communities before any major decisions were implemented, about all the respondents said that the communities were not consulted. None of the respondents described any direct involvement by the local people in decision-making at the Park. In an interview with the Acting West Gonja District Coordinating Director in January 2003, it became clear that the wildlife officers did not consult the local communities before implementing major policy decisions. For example, he confirmed the existence of a communication gap between the landlords and the conservation authorities. Major activities such as the 'early burning' of the vegetation inside the Park and re-demarcation of the Park's boundaries (often intended to create more space to ensure greater safety for the protected wildlife) were unilaterally

planned by the Park's conservation management. The Director admitted that the practice did not inspire peaceful co-existence in the area.

#### **4.6 Perception of Conflicts at the Mole National Park**

Conflicts at national parks are results of local resistance to on-going activities at the parks. As demonstrated in the Definitions-Based Model of Ecotourism, the main framework directing this study, communities near national parks often have pre-project expectations that include beneficial outcomes such as employment, development projects, income from ecotourism activities, certain socio-economic concessions, and the creation of an indigenous tour operator service. They would, therefore, resist any attempt to prevent them from realising such expectations. Following the principles of the Model, an attempt was made to solicit and compare opinions of the ordinary local citizens with those of their traditional leaders (all male) on conflicts and conflict resolution at the Mole Park.

##### **4.6.1 Local Residents' Perception of Conflicts at the Mole National Park**

Table 4.15 shows opinions of respondents (ordinary local citizens) on the occurrence of conflicts at the Mole Park. When asked if conflicts did occur at the Park, almost nine out of every ten respondents said yes; eighty-nine per cent (89%) of them said yes, while 11% said no. Of those who said yes, 34% male and 31% female respondents blamed the occurrence of conflicts on the absence of compensation packages for damages inflicted by protected animals on the properties of residents. This perception was confirmed in an interview with the

Senior Wildlife Officer who said the Park was not operating any compensation scheme. An average of 21% respondents (comprising 24% male and 15% female) believed that exclusion of the local people from the Park's administration, policy formulation and implementation, was an important cause of conflicts. Many more males (18%) than females (9%) attributed the occasional occurrence of conflicts between the surrounding communities and the Park Management to paucity of local development projects anticipated by the former, while an average of 10% mentioned the Park's inability to employ many local residents as another factor.

**Table 4.15 Local Residents Perception of Conflicts at the Mole National Park (N=253)**

Perceptions	Respondents					
	Male		Female		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
No Compensation for Damaged Property	48	34	33	31	81	31
Exclusion From Park's Adm. Activities	36	24	16	15	52	21
No Community Development t Projects	27	18	10	9	37	15
No Employment	11	7	14	13	25	10
No Income From Park's Earnings	14	10	5	5	19	8
Continuous Expansion Of The Park	6	4	2	2	8	3
Exclusion From Tourism Activities	2	1	1	1	3	1
Not Applicable	3	2	25	24	28	11
<b>Total</b>	<b>147</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>106</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>253</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Field Survey, 2003

**Table 4.16 Elders perception of conflicts at the Mole National Park (N=27)**

Perception	Responses/Causes of conflicts	Respondents	
		Number	Per cent
Occurrence of conflicts	Yes	19	70
	No	8	30
Causes of conflicts	Exclusion from park's admin.	6	22
	No compensation for damages	4	15
	No community development projects	3	11
	No employment	2	7
	Uncontrolled park expansion	2	7
	No income from park's earnings	1	4
	Exclusion from tourism activities	1	4
	Not applicable	8	30
Total		27	100

Source: Field Survey, 2003

Supporting the opinions of their subjects, 15% of traditional leaders (elders) cited lack of compensation packages for people who suffered property losses due to activities of some wildlife, while 11% mentioned rarity of community development projects as some important causes of conflicts in the park region. Continuous outward push of the Park's boundaries, and its inability to fulfil the employment dreams of the people, were each mentioned by 7% respondents as other causes of discontent. Some 30% respondents, however, said no conflicts ever occurred in the area. As narrated by one elder from Murugu (Personal communications, 2003), conflicts did actually occur at the Park "... whenever men wander into the Park in search of bush-meat to supplement the nutritional



requirements of their families, when women attempt to fetch dry wood as fuel, or when they attempt to harvest wild fruits for the production of *dawadawa* or *sheabutter*.”

#### **4.6.3 Local Residents’ Suggested Solutions to Conflicts at the Park**

Much has been said about conflicts and their causes at the Mole Park. Table 4.17 shows opinions that were expressed by the local residents for resolving prevailing conflicts and preventing or abating the occurrence of others in future. Compensation for residents’ damaged properties was mentioned by 33% male and 30% female respondents as a most important factor in conflict resolution at the Park. A review of the land lease agreement reached between government and the then custodians of the land over 30 years ago was suggested by 31% male and 16% female respondents. A periodic review of the agreement, they explained, would regularly make provision for the inclusion of local people (including present day generations) in the Park’s administration and decision-making machinery. Provision of community development projects, creation of employment opportunities at the Park for local residents, and enabling the local communities to share in any income accruing from economic operations at the Park (including unrestricted rights to enjoy popular tourist products) were variously recommended by 11%, 10% and 7% respondents respectively. A few others (3%) expected the Park’s administrators to halt their expansionist designs in order to abate residents’ fears of being relocated or losing any more of their land to the Park.

**Table 4.17 Local Residents' Suggested Solutions to Conflicts at the Park**

Solutions	Respondents					
	Male		Female		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Compensation for Damaged Property	49	33	32	30	81	33
Review Land Lease Agreement	46	31	17	16	63	25
Provide Community Devt. Projects	17	12	9	8	29	11
Employ Many Natives at The Park	13	9	16	15	26	10
Sharing Park's Earning/Enjoying Tourist Products	13	9	5	5	18	7
Halt Expansion of Park	6	4	2	2	8	3
Not Applicable	3	2	25	24	28	11
Total	147	100	106	100	253	100

Source: Field Survey, 2003

#### 4.6.4 Local Elders' Suggested Solutions to Conflicts at the Park

Table 4.18 shows opinions that were expressed by 70% of the 27 traditional rulers (elders) as regards conflict prevention and resolution between community members and the Park's administrators. About 31% of the respondents said inclusion of the communities in the Park's administration was a fundamental step towards conflict prevention. They explained that if the residents were involved in decision-making at the Park, they would be committed to ensuring that peace prevailed in the entire area.

**Table 4.18 Local Elders' suggested solutions to conflicts at the Park (N=27)**

Suggested Solution	Respondents	
	Frequency	Per cent
Involve communities in park administration	6	31
Compensation for damaged property	4	21
Introduce community development projects	3	16
Employ more natives	3	16
Halt park expansion	2	11
Share park's earnings with communities	1	5
Not applicable	8	30
Total	27	100

Source: Field Survey, 2003

Compensation for damage caused to residents' property by the protected wild animals was the second solution cited by 21% of respondents, while 16% suggested the introduction of development projects and employment of local residents. According to the respondents, development projects in the area would offer employment to the youth, most of who frequently got involved in conflicts; local employment facilities would also prevent the youth from migrating to the urban centres in search of non-existent jobs. Putting a halt to the policy of extending the Park's boundaries (allegedly for security reasons), and sharing the income earned from operations at the Park with the local communities, were recommended by 11% and 5% respondents respectively, as measures for preventing conflicts in the area.

Apparently, three issues have been commonly expressed by the 'ordinary' local residents and their leadership. Perceptions or views of both groups of respondents on conflicts and conflict resolution exhibited very slight contrast almost in all cases. For instance, the leadership (elders) opined that getting the communities purposefully involved in policy implementation and administration could be the first step in resolving all conflicts at the Park, while the common citizens considered compensation for their damaged properties as paramount. The suggestion of the ordinary citizens is realistic, considering the fact that the local communities are mostly (over 90%) dependent on peasant farming and agro-processing industries for their livelihood (see Table 4). A perception similarly expressed by both groups of respondents was paucity of employment opportunities. The observation is important since official records of the Park confirm that less than 5% of the Park's employees come from the local communities.

According to the Definitions-Based Model of Ecotourism (1999), local populations near protected areas (particularly national parks) should be guaranteed full benefits of such projects. The Model explains that "Community benefits are community-oriented development experiences which include general well-being and community development packages. These are benefits that must go to all the affected communities". The Model, therefore, strongly recommends complete cooperation of all stakeholders of rural projects as central

to the achievement of positive and sustainable development outcomes. The concept gives credence to the work of Weaver (1991) on how conflict resolution initiatives at the Maasai Mara and Tortuguero National Parks in Kenya succeeded through the involvement of the local communities in various on-going socio-economic activities at the parks.

#### 4.7 Other Perceptions and Expectations of the Traditional Leadership

##### 4.7.1 Local Community Elders' Perceptions of Beneficiaries of Compensations Paid by Government for Land and Property

Although the elders are also local residents, they were given a separate attention because of their special function as a segment of the traditional leadership. The elders were closer to the common people than the local chiefs, and were therefore able to assist the chiefs to reach out to their subjects more effectively.

**Table 4.19 Local community elders' perceptions of beneficiaries of compensations paid by government for land and property (N=27)**

Perception	Response	Respondents	
		Number	Per cent
Payment of Compensation	Yes	19	70.4
	No	1	3.7
	No idea	7	25.9
Beneficiaries of the Compensation Package	Chiefs & some elders	13	48.1
	Chiefs & some subjects	5	18.5
	No idea	9	33.3

Source: Field Survey, 2003

The elders provided information on the official acquisition of the land on which the Park is established. In addition, their opinions were sought on the payment of compensation and the beneficiaries, as indicated in Table 4.19. All the elders said a formal agreement (document) was signed by both the landowners (represented by the chiefs and elders) of Mole, and the Government of Ghana, before the land was given out. Seventy per cent (70%) of the respondents said government paid some compensation that was received by the paramount chief on behalf of the landowners and those whose properties were affected by the project. About 30% said they had no knowledge about the payment of compensation.

Forty-eight per cent (48%) respondents recalled that compensation paid by government never reached the intended beneficiaries. Others (about 19%) recalled that the chiefs and a few of their subjects actually benefited from the package; however, about 33% had no idea about the true beneficiaries.

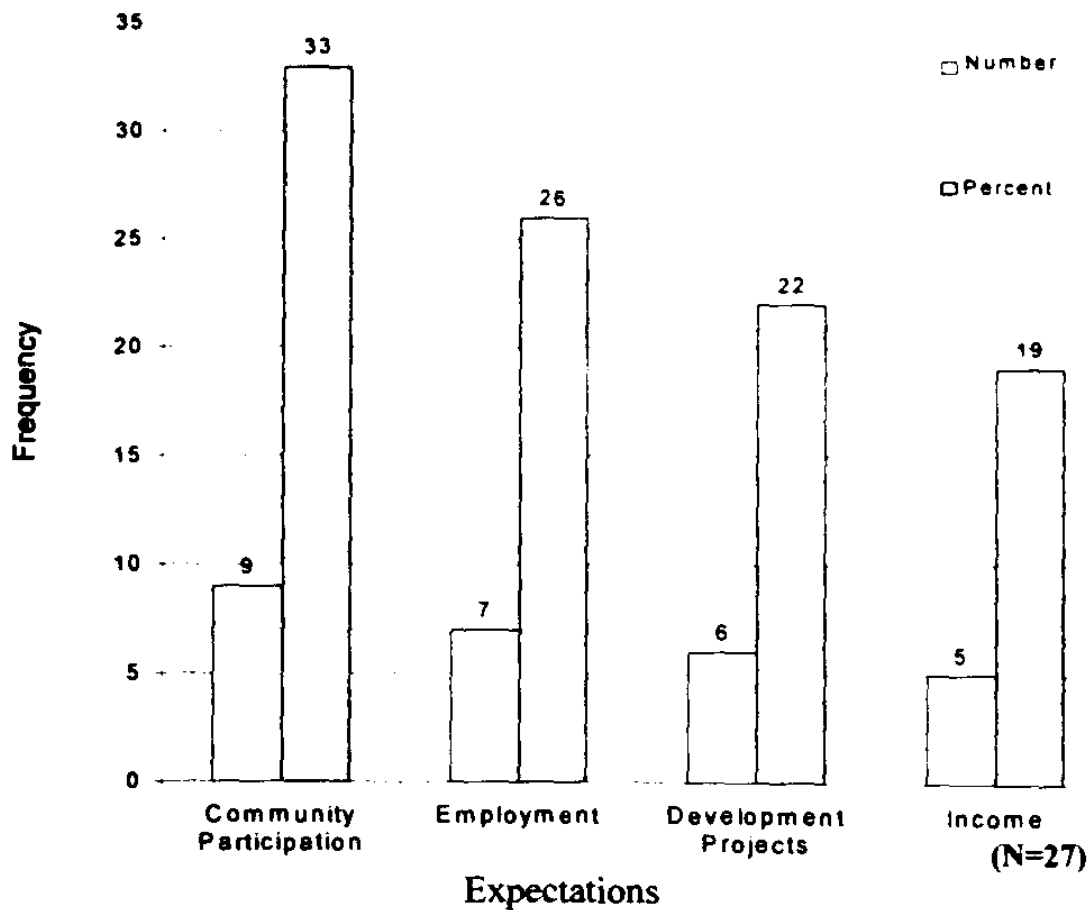
Other members of the communities confirmed these views in focus group discussions (FGDs). The results indicated that some compensation was actually paid to the chiefs but they failed to disburse it to the people who lost their properties. The investigation revealed that the chiefs, who received the compensation on behalf of their subjects, failed to make a distinction between land and other forms of property. The traditional leadership reasoned, for instance, that the compensation that was paid was in respect of the land that

government acquired for the Park; and, since chiefs were custodians of the land, the payment was their entitlement. Hence very little was paid to property owners, and nothing was given to migrant farmers.

#### 4.7.2 Benefits Expected from the Mole Park by the Local Elders

The elders discussed the benefits which their various communities expected to enjoy following the establishment of the Park. Their expectations are indicated in Figure 4.5.

Figure 4.5 Benefits Expected from the Mole Park by the Local Elders



Source: Field Survey, 2003

Considering the residents' long attachment to their environment and their awareness that mismanagement of resources could be disastrous to their lives and property, 33% respondents said that they and their communities expected primarily to participate in the Park's administration. Because of the generally low incomes, and the need to supplement such incomes with other means, 26% said that their people expected employment opportunities that might check the drift of the youth to large towns in search of non-existent jobs. More than 22% expected development projects, while 19% indicated their preference to receive a part of the Park's income earnings as compensation for their lost farmlands.

#### **4.8.1 Tourists Travel Characteristics and Purpose of Visit to the Park**

The information contained in Table 4.20 is about respondents' group characteristics and purpose of visit to the Moe Park. Referring to visitors' group characteristics at the Park, 70% of the respondents said they came to Mole in the company of family members or friends, while 15% were members of groups of foreign students or workers. About 10% were members of groups of local students or workers, and 5% came there as individual visitors. The implication of these statistics is that more tourists visit the Mole National Park in groups than as single individuals.



**Table 4.20 Tourists Travel Characteristics and Purpose of Visit to the Park (N=39).**

Factor	Response	Respondents	
		Frequency	Per cent
Travel party, e.g. Alone	Group of families or friends	27	70
	Group of foreign students or workers	6	15
	Group of local students	3	10
	Alone	2	5
Purpose of visit	Holiday/leisure	26	66
	Family	5	13
	Study	3	8
	Voluntary service	3	8
	Business/confab	2	5

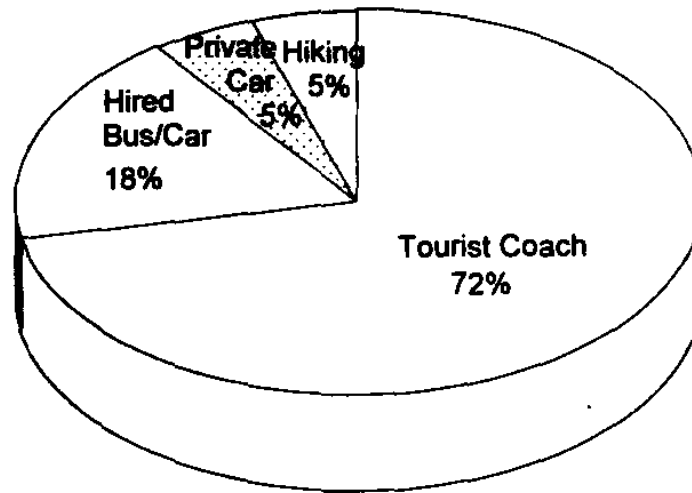
Source: Field Survey, 2003

Discussing the purpose of their visits, 66% of the tourists said they visited Mole purposely to spend their holiday; 13% said they came to visit their families, and only took some time off to visit Mole. Others were either studying (8%) or rendering voluntary services (8%) in the area, while the rest (5%) went there to attend business conferences.

#### 4.8.2 Tourists Mode of Travel to the Mole Park

Ease of mobility to tourist sites is essential for the facilitation and enhancement of tourism. That was why the issue of transportation was discussed with the visitors. Figure 4.6 shows the means by which the 39 visitor-respondents made it to Mole. The majority (72%) arrived at the Park in tourist coaches, 18% by means of hired buses or cars, while 5% performed their journeys in private cars; an equal proportion (5%) got there by hiking.

**Figure 4.6 Tourists mode of travel to the Mole Park (N=39)**



Source: Field Survey, 2003

This pattern of tourist mobility has far reaching results. Private sector transport system would be tremendously boosted, should the Park achieve further international recognition.

#### **4.8.3 Tourists Stay and Accommodation Needs at the Mole Park**

The visit during the fieldwork was the first by the majority (72%) of the respondents (Table 4.21). Of the 28% who made repeat visits, 18% said they enjoyed their previous visits; others were either leading newcomers (5%) or visiting friends (5%).

The Mole Motel, which is situated in the heart of the Park, was the place where 67% of the visitors lodged. About 10% were accommodated at the Damongo

Catholic Guest House, while 5% sought lodging in private houses near the Park.

Others (18%) lodged outside the Park.

**Table 4.21 Tourists stay and accommodation needs at the Mole Park (N=39)**

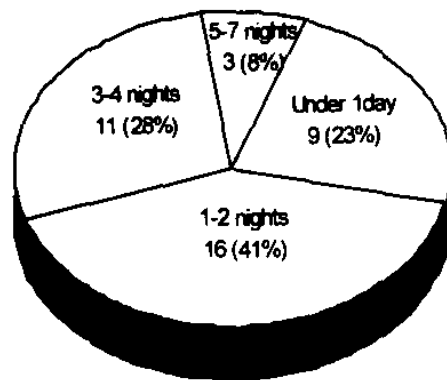
Factor	Response	Respondents	
		Frequency	Per cent
Number of visits	First-time visitors	28	72
	Repeat visitors	11	28
Reasons for repeat visit	Enjoyed first visit	7	18
	Leading fresh visitors	2	5
	Visiting friends	2	5
	Not applicable	28	72
Accommodation of tourists	Mole Motel	26	67
	Damongo Catholic Guesthouse	4	10
	Private home near the Park	2	5
	Other	7	18

Source: Field Survey, 2003

#### 4.8.4 Length of Stay at the Mole Park at the Mole Park

Nearly 90% of the respondents stayed for more than a day at the Mole Park (Figure 4.7). Longer stay of visitors at the Park implies that more money was spent which went to support rural development, as prescribed by the Definitions-Based Model of Ecotourism (1999). For example, more money was paid for hospitality services, viewing wildlife, and also in purchasing goods and services offered for sale by the host communities. The information also suggests that the visitors never stayed too long.

**Figure 4.7 Length of stay at the Mole Park (N=39)**



Source: Field Survey, 2003

#### **4.8.5 Visitors' Perception of Problems and Solutions**

Table 4.22 illustrates some problems that 90% of the respondents encountered at the Mole Park. Thirty-two per cent (32%) complained about sub-standard hospitality services rendered to visitors, while 23% bemoaned the paucity of tourist attractions in the area. The scarceness of popular attractions, according to them, was a disincentive to nature-lovers who would decide to visit other places instead. Inadequate or absence of technical information on the Park, and poor transport and communication services were mentioned by 10% respondents. Some 10% were, however, satisfied with their visit.

In an interview with a Dutch Wildlife Development Adviser at Mole, he said "... compared with the East African and Latin American parks, Mole faces several disadvantages." He mentioned particularly the Park's difficult terrain,

poor viewing sites due to the presence of thick bushes and numerous shrubs (in the rainy season), and low populations of available animals. Poor and sub-standard accommodation and hospitality services were also mentioned as problems of the Park.

**Table 4.22 Visitors' perception of problems and solutions (N=39)**

Factor	Response	Respondents	
		Frequency	Per cent
<b>Problems Encountered</b>	Unsatisfactory hospitality services	12	32
	Too few attractions	9	23
	Unsatisfactory Sanitation	6	15
	Inadequate Technical information	4	10
	Poor transport & communications	4	10
	Not applicable	4	10
<b>Suggested Solutions</b>	Improve hospitality services	12	32
	Encourage community tourism	9	23
	Improve sanitation	6	15
	Upgrade roads	4	10
	Improve technical information	4	10
	Not applicable	4	10

Source: Field Survey, 2003

Also shown in Table 4.22 are the respondents' solutions to the Park's perceived problems. Thirty-two per cent (32%) said "providers" should improve hospitality services at the Mole Motel to internationally acceptable standards. Of particular concern to the respondents were lodging facilities, sanitation, electricity and water supplies. About 23% others suggested that community tourism in the area should be developed. Indeed, sites of local attractions such as the Mystery Stone and the Ancient Mosque at Larabanga should be properly

developed to attract more nature-loving tourists to the area; this would also offer employment to many of the residents. Provision of improved sanitary facilities was suggested by 6 (15%) respondents. Other services mentioned for improvement were the Park's technical information service (10%) and its transport and communication system.

During the survey period, there was one pond located near the Motel that served as the main source of water to the motel and visitor centre, resident park employees, as well as the protected animals. For human consumption, water from the pond was lifted and transported to a treatment plant by means a small motorized pumping machine that experienced frequent mechanical breakdowns. Connecting the Park to the national electricity grid and dredging the pond would probably ensure uninterrupted electric power and, hence, continuous water supply.

#### **4.9 Employees of the Mole National Park**

Among the employees of the Park were the head of the management staff, the wildlife officer and his deputy; who were in charge of the entire reserve. Other employees included 200 game guards and some 31 workers of the Mole Motel; all but one of the guards were males, while the majority of the Motel's staff were females.

##### **4.9.1 Problems of the Mole Park Employees**

When asked if employees sometimes encountered problems on their jobs, nearly 70 per cent of the Park employee-respondents said they encountered problems

(Table 4.23). The majority (10) mentioned low remuneration as their biggest problem. In a focus group discussion, it was revealed that workers at the Park were paid low salaries; more than 71.4% earned between 2,000,000 and 3,999,999 per annum (see Table 4.4). Other problems mentioned were absence of communication gadgets (14.3%), low morale of workers (11.4%) due to unqualified people holding certain positions, and the high-risk nature of the job (8.6%) which was exacerbated by lack of communication gadgets. Poor camp accommodation for workers was mentioned (5.7%) as an important problem.

The camps are located at vantage positions from where surveillance is mounted to check activities of poachers; they also serve as homes of the game guards and their families.

**Table 4.23 Problems of the Mole Park Employees (N=35)**

Problem Type	Respondents	
	Frequency	Per cent
Low salary/remunerations	10	28.6
No communication gadgets	5	14.3
Low morale	4	11.4
High risk of job	3	8.6
Poor camp accommodation	2	5.7
No problem	11	31.4
<b>Total</b>	<b>35</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: Field Survey, 2003

#### **4.9.2 Employees' Perception of the Park's Effects on the Environment**

Table 4.24 shows responses of the Park employees to questions related to the protected area itself. More than 74% opined that bush burning in the protected area was on the increase. Eleven per cent (11%) disagreed with the majority view, while 14% expressed no opinion on the issue. One fact is that, the local people and the Park authorities encouraged the practice of bush burning. To enable them see well and poach the protected animals, a number of local inhabitants indulged in an annual ritual of burning the bushes around the Park. The Park authorities in turn routinely set the bushes ablaze, in order to excite early sprouting of plants inside the Park. According to the residents, the practice often produced inadvertent negative consequences on both tree and animal populations. About 66% of the respondents alleged that bush fires often combined with other human and natural phenomena to reduce the number of trees in the Park. Similarly, 22 (63%) other respondents alleged that the combined forces of bush fires and the activities of poachers caused a reduction in the number of animals. Over 74% respondents said poaching was on the increase because poachers possessed weapons that were more sophisticated than those being used by the game guards for patrolling the Park. Eleven per cent (11%) said they had no opinion about the issue of poaching at the Park.



**Table 4.24 Employees' perception of the Park's effects on the environment (N=35)**

Perception	Response	Respondents	
		Number	Per cent
Bush Burning	Increasing	26	74.3
	Decreasing	4	11.4
	No opinion	5	14.3
Number of Trees	Increasing	7	20.0
	Decreasing	23	65.7
	No opinion	5	14.3
Number of Animals	Increasing	6	17.1
	Decreasing	22	62.9
	No opinion	7	20.0
Poaching	Increasing	26	74.3
	Decreasing	5	14.3
	No opinion	4	11.4

Source: Field Survey, 2003

#### **4.9.3 Employees' Perception of the Park's Negative Effects on the Local Communities**

Table 4.25 shows the impressions of some employees of the Park about the creation of the Park. All the respondents admitted that the creation of the Park had caused displeasure to the local residents. Thirty-four per cent (34%) of them observed that many of the local inhabitants were dissatisfied with activities of the Park's management for their failure to acknowledge the importance of the owners of the land. The occupation of residents' farmland (26%) and a ban imposed on harvesting of forest resources (23%) were mentioned as important sources of community displeasure. The forest products specified by the respondents included sheanuts, *dawadawa* beans and dead trees as fuel-wood.

The Park's check on hunting expeditions (5%) and the frequent invasion of residents' farms by some wild animals were cited by the respondents as factors of community discontent.

**Table 4.25 Employees' perception of the Park's negative effects on the local communities (N=35)**

Perception	Cause/Suggested solution	Respondents	
		Number	Per cent
Negative impacts of park	Not respected as landlords	12	34
	Occupied farmland	9	26
	No harvesting of forest resources	8	23
	No hunting	5	14
	Damage to property by wildlife	1	3
Suggestions for improvement	Compensation for damaged property	9	25
	Community education	7	20
	Involving locals in park administration	4	11
	Adequate supply of rifles	3	9
	Introducing development projects in communities	2	6
	Provision of intercom gadgets	2	6
	Improve camp accommodation	1	3

Source: Field Survey, 2003

The respondents made suggestions for improving relations at the Park. Payment of compensation for damaged property was mentioned by the majority of the respondents as the most important ingredient of peace in the area. Some of the responses to questions on the sort of concessions requested from the conservation authorities to improve their relations with the communities and the

Park workers appeared the same. For instance, while 20% called for an intensification of community education, 11% suggested that the local people should be involved in the Park's administration. According to the respondents, if the communities were made to participate in the Park's administrative activities and decision-making process, the residents would be more willing to assist the guards to check several malpractices at the Park. Other respondents (9%) suggested that adequate rifles should be supplied to the game guards to enhance their surveillance; 6% each suggested the introduction of development projects in the communities and the provision of inter-com gadgets. Some 3% suggested improvement of camp accommodation. This suggestion is important in view of the fact that several families are housed in many of the camps.

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS, AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH**

#### **5.1 Introduction**

The final chapter provides a summary of the study. Especially highlighted here are the main findings of the study, and recommendations based on the findings. A general conclusion to the research and topics suggested for future investigation are also included here.

#### **5.2 Summary of the Study**

This write-up is about the establishment of Mole National Park in the West Gonja District of northern Ghana.

The main objective of the research was to investigate the nature and importance of local community participation, particularly in rural development initiatives, at the Mole National Park.

Primary data for the study was obtained by administering both structured and non-structured questionnaires to samples of the local communities, park employees and visitors to the Park during the study period. Sampling of the respondents was done mainly by means of random, purposive and, sometimes,

accidental techniques. Additional primary information was obtained through scheduled interviews with personalities from a number of relevant organisations, and through FGDs held with some groups organised in the target communities and among the Park employees. Secondary data was got from published and unpublished works.

Literature search on how similar problems of national parks have been solved elsewhere was also conducted. Important areas thus reviewed included (i) local resistance to the development of national parks, (ii) general causes of conflicts at some parks, and (iii) benefits of protected areas, particularly national parks.

### **5.3 Adaptability of the Definitions-Based Model Conceptual Framework in the Study**

A modified version of the Definitions-Based Model of Ecotourism served as a framework that gave the study a sense of direction and purpose. It was from the model that the major stakeholders in an ecotourism setting were identified. The categories of stakeholders found relevant to the study included facilitators (e.g., funding agencies such as governments, NGOs and investors), providers (i.e. other investors who offer hospitality care services), visitors (i.e. tourists) and hosts (i.e. local residents). It enabled the research to focus on the true relationship and dynamic interaction among the identified groups, and also helped in the collection of relevant data for the study.

The present author identified a number of strengths and merits in the application the modified Model to the study. For example, it sought to explain the

importance of the welfare of the parties (or stakeholders) as well as the sustainability of the environmental attractions. It introduces guidelines, referred to as “guiding principles” that should direct the purposes, expectations and conduct of the stakeholders. Guiding principles would also ensure the rights and privileges, as well as the fulfilment of obligations of the various interest groups or stakeholders, in terms of the type of natural attraction that is conserved or protected. Finally, the model stressed the importance of recognizing the position and role of host communities in nature tourism settings.

Observed weaknesses of the Model (in its modified form) included its inability to (i) hold other factors constant, (ii) prevent any possible effects, and (iii) prevent possible effects of excluded variables from influencing its application. Also, the practice of ecotourism at the Park has not necessarily led to small scale locally owned tourism enterprises, as expected in the Model. The analysis has shown, nevertheless, that ecotourism development in the area has drawn attention to the role of local people in biodiversity conservation.

#### **5.4 Main Findings of the Study**

Analysis of the data collected from a cross-section of the local residents, tourists and employees of the Mole Park on the field led to the following findings:

1. Records on the establishment of the Mole National Park did not exist in the archives of the West Gonja District Assembly. The reason was that (according to the Acting West Gonja District Coordinating Director, in personal communication) all arrangements on issues of land acquisition and

compensation were conducted directly between government on the one side, and the Paramount Chief on the other. It is also not on record that the land acquisition agreement had ever been reviewed.

2. The land on which the Park has been established was legally acquired by government in 1971. Government paid compensation (for both the land and the property that was destroyed as a direct consequence of establishing the project); the compensation was received by the local chiefs on behalf of their subjects. However, individual subjects (especially migrant farmers) received no compensation for the loss of their properties.

3. More than 85% of the local residents were self-employed, low-income peasant farmers whose crops (such as maize, groundnuts and cassava) were occasionally destroyed by the protected wild animals. No compensation was paid to residents whose properties were destroyed by the wild animals. The Park's policy of non-payment of compensation to the peasant farmers sometimes generated conflicts between the local people and the Park's conservation authorities.

4. There was a limited local community involvement particularly in the administration and management of the Mole National Park. The local people played a low profile role in policy implementation at the Park, since they were not part of the Park's decision-making body, and were never consulted before the adoption of major policies.

5. There was much disparity in the levels of involvement in the Mole Park activities by the various local communities. The statistics indicated that the communities located to the south and close to the Park's headquarters (e.g. Larabanga, Kabampe and Murugu) participated more in the Park's activities than the communities such as Jinfrono, Grubagu and Wawato, located to the north and farther away from the administrative offices of the Park (see Figure 4.1). The phenomenon is explained by the 'Gravity Theory' which holds the view that the shorter the distance between any community and the centre of interaction (tourist activity), the greater would be the rate of interaction between the two locations; conversely, the greater the distance between the two locations, the lower the rate of interaction between them as a result of 'distance decay'.

6. Very few members of the local communities were formally employed at the Park. For example, out of the extra workforce of about 235 men and women employed at the Park, about 5% were local residents (see Table 3.5). Several offences committed at the Park by the local residents (e.g. bush burning and poaching) were the people's attempt to compensate themselves for their unfulfilled dreams.

7. The socio-economic activities at the Park did not promote unity between the local communities and the Park Management; the Park was not directly involved in any community development activities. According to the Senior Wildlife Officer (in personal communication), the Park's conservation policy did not



address issues of community development, and this has given rise to public discontent.

8. Due to poverty the local residents could not enjoy the tourist products of the Park. To improve their income position therefore, they expected to be granted access to the Park to harvest economic fruits such as sheanuts and *dawadawa* beans for the local industry. They expected also to be permitted to hunt for bush meat on approved days to supplement their diet.

9. Although the Park was fast becoming an internationally recognised ecotourist attraction, the surrounding communities were not encouraged to develop community tourist attractions in order to reduce poverty.

10. The local residents said they interacted cordially with visitors to the Park and that they did not in any way resent the presence of tourists. According to most of the respondents (about 80%), the presence of visitors was quite tolerable in the area. Interaction between visitors and hosts was done mainly through visitors contact with residents in their homes, or during commercial transactions between the two stakeholders.

11. All the respondents indicated that the presence of the Park (particularly its function as a tourist attraction) boosted the image of the area; they observed that it was a source of pride to the local communities.

12. The majority of the visitors to the Mole Park arrived there by means of hired buses, tourist coaches and cars. Yet, the roads leading to the Park were structurally poor and impassable throughout the year (see Figure 1.2).

13. Most of the tourists who made it to Mole were first time (73.3%) or repeat visitors (26.7%) most of whom spent an average of 2 - 4 nights there (see Figure 4.4). The long stay of the tourists at the Park implied that there was longer interaction between them and their hosts.

14. Compared with the East African and Latin American parks, Mole faces the disadvantages of difficult terrain and poor wildlife viewing sites.

15. Hospitality services at Mole, apart from being inadequate, were quite below international standards. The only 'standard' tourist accommodation facility in the area was the Mole Motel (One Star) which had fewer than 60 tourist beds.

### **5.5 Recommendations**

Based on the findings of the study, the present author suggests the following recommendations to be considered for possible action:

❖ The Mole National Park conservation management should involve the local communities in all issues of the Park's development to ensure the residents' full cooperation. The fact that the local people are masters of their environment cannot be disputed; they have much to offer in the understanding of local

situations. Intensive consultations with the affected communities should always precede the implementation of any policy decisions on development schemes particularly in protected areas, in order to enlist and retain local cooperation.

❖ The Mole National Park should, in long term planning, emphasize the Recruitment of a reasonable number of the local people as employees. This would justify the people's expectation of employment opportunities from the Park as recommended by the Definitions-Based Model of Ecotourism.

❖ A policy for reviewing land acquisition agreements to be signed between government and every future generation of landowners (i.e. at about 30 years interval) is recommended. Such reviews will hopefully address the socio-economic needs of all future landlords or generations, and foster cooperation and support for all development projects in rural areas.

❖ The operation of a compensation scheme to take care of property destroyed by wild animals should be given a serious thought. Compensation to the peasant farmers for any crops destroyed will reduce the rate of conflicts that have often bedevilled rural development initiatives.

❖ Distinction should be made between the payment of compensation to indigenous people in respect of land acquired, and to local residents whose property is affected by the establishment of any public project. Compensation paid in

respect of any movable property must reach those who are actually affected.

This means that all compensation should be paid direct to the right people.

- ❖ Poaching and other offences committed at the Park can be effectively checked

The local people should be economically empowered through the provision of community development projects and the introduction of income generation projects such as animal rearing and gardening; the provision of irrigation facilities will promote all-year-round farming to eradicate poverty in the area.

Poaching and other offences committed at the Park can be effectively checked by reasonably empowering the surrounding communities economically.

- ❖ Also, alternative energy sources should be provided, since the communities are

prevented from fetching fuel-wood from the Park. Residents may be encouraged to plant fast-growing commercial plants in their communities for firewood.

- ❖ The Mole National Park Management should liaise with other stakeholders such

as Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) to provide functional education to the local residents on the importance of nature conservation.

- ❖ The local people should be educated and encouraged to get involved in community tourism development. Community development projects may include the provision of restaurants and home-stay facilities. Residents should

be guided to package their cultural and historical products in such a way that would make them attractive to visitors. These initiatives, it is hopeful, will reduce any negative socio-cultural effects of the Park on the residents. The socio-economic benefits envisaged in the Definitions-Based Model of Ecotourism will thus be achieved. The development of numerous tourist attractions could also induce tourists to stay longer and spend more money in the Park and in the communities; this will very likely promote return visits which are an indication of the popularity of the Park as a tourist attraction.

- ❖ Tourist facility providers should emphasize the provision of 'value for money'

facilities and services in order to attract higher spending tourists to Mole. For example, shopping centres where local goods such as crafts, cloths and clothes can be purchased by tourists should be provided at the Park and in the communities.

- ❖ Conservation authorities (acting for and on behalf of government) should always

plan, design and manage their activities in such a way as to elicit full cooperation of hosts, visitors and facility providers. As directed by the Definitions Based Model, this initiative should include effective socio-cultural conservation efforts.

- ❖ Local residents as well as school pupils should be permitted to visit the Park and

see the wildlife, either free of any charge or at reduced fees.

## **5.6 Conclusion**

The thesis has investigated the extent of community participation in the activities of the Mole National Park, and how the local people's livelihoods have been affected by the Park's on-going activities.

The research findings have established that the basic development problem of governments of less developed countries should not be limited to the mere consultations with leaders of indigenous landowners and a few local residents when land is required for establishing public projects. The focus should be on how to involve and direct affected peoples to target their actual development goals in order to abate any adverse effects on their socio-economic livelihoods. If governments involve local communities in executing all the stages of rural development projects (from decision-making to implementation), there would be harmony between affected peoples and governments, and the projects would be successfully executed and remain sustainable for a long time.

According to Amoako (1997: 143), "... developing economies face a number of fundamental challenges to improving management and community participation (especially in rural development endeavours). They include the institutionalisation of mechanisms for conflict prevention and peace building, transforming the relationship between administrators and managers (of protected areas and the local indigenous people), and improving the capacity of local

community institutions and people for proper participation". Institutionalising mechanisms for conflict prevention and peace building is a major challenge to improving project administration and community participation in development.

The research has examined the expectations and perceptions of the respondents, and this revealed that the frequent occurrence of conflicts in the protected area has adversely affected the smooth development of the Park. The implication is that, to be successful in a community development project, government must be mindful of introducing rewarding or profitable development projects that would not only offer employment to the local people, but also assist them in diverse ways to reduce poverty. Such initiatives would give the affected people, in the view of Barnett (1994: 33), a sense of pride rather than a bitter feeling of "loss of local autonomy". This explains why the Definitions-Based Model (1999) emphasises the offer of development opportunities to host communities (especially in protected areas of the world) to enable them take reasonable control of their own development. The Model is supported by the opinion of Ashley (1995: 73) that, when host communities share in the administration, management and control of their natural resources, they would be prepared for all outcomes; hence, conflicts that frequently threaten the existence and proper development of national parks in developing countries "would become a thing of the past".

### **5.7 Suggestions for Further Research**

A number of issues have been identified for further study.

➤ **The paradox of bush-burning at the Park :**

The communities surrounding the Park burned the bushes in their environment immediately after harvesting the annual food and cash crops. Although bush burning was observed by the present author as a sign of lack of community cooperation (and a potential source of conflict) between the local communities and the Park Management, it was intended by the local inhabitants to stimulate early sprouting of annual grasses and leafy herbaceous plants during October and November each year. The sprouted plants served as feed for domestic animals in the dry season. According to the Park Management (who recommended the practice) the local residents used the freshly sprouted plants to lure protected herbivores to graze outside the protected area where they can be poached. The Park Management therefore instituted a similar practice, referred to as “early burning” inside the Park, aimed at keeping wildlife safe within the boundaries of the protected territory. Although the Park Management might have good reasons for embarking on early burning, the practice, according to the present author, was not good because it destroyed both plants and animals. The solution to the problem of poaching required a more tactical approach than early burning which would destabilize the bio-diversity of the area to defeat the purpose of conservation.

- The possibility of assisting the local residents to develop woodlots and rear small ruminants (e.g. grasscutters and rabbits) for local consumption and for sale to outsiders;
- The development of other tourist services, such as home-stay facilities, in the local communities;
- The possibility of developing community tourism in the entire study area.



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- d. Secondary/SSS  e. Post Secondary/College   
f. University/Higher

6. Employment status a. Employed full time  b. Employed part time   
c. Homemaker  d. Self-employed   
e. Unemployed  f. Retired

7. If you are employed, please state your occupation:.....

8. Which of the following ranges describes your approximate gross annual income in cedis as at now?  
a. Less than ₵2,000,000  b. ₵2,000,000 - ₵3,999,999   
c. ₵4,000,000 - ₵9,999,999  d. ₵10,000,000 or more

## **B. RESIDENTS EXPECTATIONS AND PERCEPTIONS OF THE PARK**

9. To what extent was your community involved in the creation of the Park?  
.....

10. Was compensation paid in respect of the land/property acquired by Government? Yes  No

11. To whom was the compensation paid?

- (a) Chiefs  
(b) Chiefs and elders  
(c) No idea

12. Several activities are going on at the Park. Please mention any two of them.

- (a).....  
(b).....

13. Are you involved in any one of them? Yes [ ] No [ ]
14. If yes, please mention the activity in which you are involved:.....
15. If no, will you like to be involved in some of the activities?  
a. Yes [ ] b. [ ]
16. In which one of the activities will you like to participate?.....
17. Has the presence of the Park adversely affected your community's traditional and economic activities? Yes [ ] No [ ]
18. If yes, please mention any two of such practices:  
a.....  
b.....
19. Do members of your community receive compensation for any damage caused to their property by wildlife? Yes [ ] No [ ]
20. What two special concessions should be introduced at the Park to make the local people happy?  
a. ....  
b.....
21. Mention any specific benefit that your community is presently enjoying due to the presence of the Park. a.....  
b.....
22. State any community development project that you would wish to have in your community.



a.....

b.....

23. Mention any two income generating projects that you wish should be introduced in your community. a..... b .....

24. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement regarding the establishment of the Park, using the following scale:

[1 =Agree; 2 =No opinion; 3 =Disagree]

- |    |  |   |   |   |
|----|--|---|---|---|
| a. | Activities at the Park promote unity among the local communities.  | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| b. | Activities at the Park expose our cultural values to public ridicule.  | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| c. | Activities at the Park offer us the opportunity to teach outsiders about our culture through well organized cultural shows | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| d. | The Park provides employment opportunities to local residents.   | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| e. | The Park promotes trade in local handicrafts.  | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| f. | Activities at the Park promote the entire area as a major tourist destination.   | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| g. | The number of trees has increased since the creation of the Park.  | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| h. | The number of animals has increased since the creation of the Park.  | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| i. | The creation of the Park has brought some pride to the local residents.  | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| j. | The creation of the Park has led to the provision of new facilities which are enjoyed (used) by the local communities.     | 1 | 2 | 3 |

**C. RESIDENTS' EXPECTATIONS AND PERCEPTIONS OF VISITORS**

25. Referring to Questions a – f, indicate your opinion using the scale provided.

[1 =Agree;      2 =No opinion;      3 =Disagree]

- |    |   |   |   |   |
|----|---|---|---|---|
| a. | The Park gives residents the opportunity to meet new people.                      | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| b. | Residents interact very nicely with visitors.                                     | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| c. | Visitors to the Park buy local goods and services.                                | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| d. | The demand for food by tourists leads to higher prices of foodstuffs in the area. | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| e. | The demand for accommodation by visitors leads to higher rents in the area.       | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| f. | Generally, my community resents the presence of tourists                          | 1 | 2 | 3 |

26. Have there been occasions of conflict between members of your community and the conservation authorities?    Yes [ ]    No [ ]

27. If yes, mention any two causes of conflict.

- a. Damage to property due to the activities of wildlife (without compensation);
- b. Severe punishment meted out to poachers and other offenders;
- c. Prohibiting the harvesting of commercial plants and fuel-wood;
- d. Forbidding residents from wandering at the Park.

28. Suggest any two ways of resolving conflicts at the Park.

- a. Review periodically land agreements and pay compensation for the land acquired;
- b. Pay adequate compensation for damage to property;
- c. Permit occasional hunting for bush meat to supplement residents'

**nutritional needs;**

- d. Assist residents to develop income-generating projects;
- e. Permit the harvesting of fuel-wood and commercial trees;
- f. Permit local residents to visit and enjoy tourist products at the Park.

**D. QUESTIONNAIRE FOR ELDERS**

29. Was any agreement ever signed between the Government and the chiefs and people of this area before the establishment of the Mole National Park?  
Yes [ ] No [ ]
30. If yes, who actually released the land for the establishment of the Park?
31. In your opinion, were the local residents consulted before the land was released to the government? Yes [ ] No [ ]
32. Was any compensation ever paid by government for acquiring the land?  
Yes [ ] No [ ]
33. If yes, state the name of the person who received the compensation.
34. Who were the actual beneficiaries of the compensation?
35. Was the land leased to the government permanently or for a period?  
a. Permanent leasehold [ ] b. Temporal leasehold [ ]
36. Mention any three benefits that your community expected to derive from the creation of the Park.
37. Mention any two of your expectations that have been satisfied by the Park.
38. Have there been occasions of conflict between members of your community and the Park conservation authorities? Yes [ ] No [ ]
39. If yes, mention any two causes of conflict between the local residents and

**the conservation authorities.**

40. Suggest any two ways of resolving conflicts with the conservation authorities at the Park.

### **APPENDIX 1B: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TOURISTS AT THE MOLE NATIONAL PARK**

#### **A. SOCIO-ECONOMIC INDICATORS OF TOURISTS/VISITORS**

1. Sex:           a) Male [ ]   b. Female [ ]
2. Age:   a. 16-20 years [ ]    b. 21-30 years [ ]    c. 31-40 years [ ]  
          d. 41-50 years [ ]    e. 51-60 years [ ]    f. 61 and above [ ]
3. What is your nationality? .....
4. What is your occupation?   a. Civil Servant [ ]  
                                  b. Self-employed [ ]               c. Student [ ]               d. Homemaker [ ]  
                                  e. Professional [ ]               f. Retired [ ]
5. What is your highest level of education?  
    a. No formal education [ ]       b. Primary [ ]       c. Middle/JSS [ ]  
    d. Secondary/SSS               e. Post Secondary/College [ ]  
    f. University/Higher [ ]
6. Which of the following best describes your total annual household income?  
    a. Under \$25,000 [ ]               b. \$25,000 – under \$35,000  
    c. \$35,000 – under \$50,000       d. \$50,000 – under \$70,000 [ ]  
    e. \$70,000 - under \$75,000       f. \$75,000 or more       g. Not applicable

**A. TOURIST TRAVEL INDICES AND PERCEPTIONS OF THE MOLE NATIONAL PARK**

7. What is your main purpose of visit to Mole?  
a. Business/conference [ ]    b. Holiday/leisure [ ]    c. Study [ ]  
d. Family [ ]    e. Other (please, specify).....
8. Please state your mode of transport to the Park?  
a. Private car [ ]    b. Hired car/bus [ ]    c. Tourist coach [ ]  
d. Omnibus service [ ]    e. Bus/mini-bus (tro-tro) [ ]    f. (Motor) bicycle [ ]  
g. Hiking [ ]
9. If you are not travelling alone, how will you describe your group?  
a. Not applicable  
b. Family/friends of 2-5 persons [ ]  
c. A group of local students/workers (please specify number) [ ]  
d. A group of foreign students/workers (please specify number) [ ]  
e. A group of about 10 foreigners led by a tour guide/operator [ ]  
f. A local organization/club (please specify number) [ ]

**C. TOURISTS' STAY/ACTIVITIES IN THE PARK AREA**

10. Is this your first time of visiting the Park?  
a. Yes [ ]    b. No [ ]
11. If you are a repeat visitor what has motivated your return?  
a. Satisfaction from last visit [ ]    b. Accompanying others [ ]  
c. Attending conference/business in the Park [ ]    d. Other (specify) [ ]
12. Where are you putting up during this trip to the Mole National Park?  
a. Mole Motel [ ]

- b. Damongo Catholic Guest House [ ]
- c. Private home near the Park-[ ]
- d. Other [ ]

13. For how long will you be visiting the Mole National Park? [ ] Days

14. Will you like to visit the Park again in future?

Yes [ ]

No [ ]

15. List two activities you undertook or will undertake in the Park.

a .....

b.....

16. Have you observed any problems confronting the Park?

Yes [ ]

No [ ]

17. If yes, please mention any two problems.

a.....

b.....

18. Please suggest any two possible solutions to the problems you have observed. a..... b.....

#### **D. TOURISTS' IMPRESSIONS ABOUT THE LOCAL COMMUNITIES**

19. How do you consider your interaction with the local residents?

a. Open and cordial [ ]    b. Lukewarm [ ]    c. No comment [ ]

20. In what manner are you able to interact with the local residents?

a. Visiting their homes [ ]    b. Patronizing their goods and services [ ]

c. Participating in celebrating their festivals and in their cultural shows [ ]

#### **APPENDIX 1C: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR EMPLOYEES IN AND AROUND THE RESERVE (GAME & WILDLIFE AND MOTEL STAFF)**

#### **SOCIO-ECONOMIC INDICATORS OF PARK EMPLOYEES**

1. If you are a local resident, please state the name of your community:  
.....

2. Sex:                      Male [ ]                      Female [ ]

3. Which of the following best describes your age?

- a. 16 – 25 years [ ]      b. 26 – 30 years [ ]      c. 31 – 40 years [ ]  
d. 41 – 50 years [ ]      e. 51 – 60 years [ ]      f. Above 61 years [ ]

4. Marital status: a. Married [ ] b. Single [ ] c. Separated [ ] d. Widowed [ ]

5. What is your highest level of formal education?

- a. No formal education [ ]      b. Primary [ ]      c. Middle/JSS [ ]  
d. Secondary/SSS      e. Post Secondary/College [ ]  
f. University/Higher [ ]

6. Employment status: a. Employed full time [ ]      b. Employed part time [ ]

7. If you are employed full time, please state your (a) occupation, and (b) employer.      a .....      b .....

8. For how long have you been employed? State service in complete years. [ ]years

9. Have you been trained for the job you are presently doing?      Yes [ ]      No [ ]

10. Which of the following ranges describes your estimated gross annual income

in cedis?

- a. Less than ₵2,000,000 [ ]      b. ₵2,000,000 - ₵3,999,999 [ ]  
c. ₵4,000,000 - ₵9,999,999 [ ]      d. ₵10,000,000 or more [ ]





- a. ....  
 b. ....
22. In your opinion, what concessions should be introduced at the Park to make the local people happy?  
 a. .... b. ....
23. Suggest two ways of improving upon activities at the Park.  
 a. .... b. ....

## APPENDIX 2

### Chi-Square Tests

**APPENDIX 2a: Relationship between the expectations of the male and female respondents, with regard to development projects at the Mole Park**

	Value	Degrees of Freedom (Df)	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	6.649	4	0.156
Likelihood Ratio	6.672	4	0.154
Linear-by-Linear Association	4.342	1	0.037
Number of Valid Cases	253		
Critical X <sup>2</sup> Value			9.488
$X^2 (4, 253) = 6.649, P > 0.05.$ $X^2 = 6.649$ Df = 4 Sig. = 0.156 $X^2$ (Critical) = 9.488			

The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

**APPENDIX 2b: Relationship between the perceptions of the male and female respondents with regard to the enjoyment of the Park's tourist attractions by the local residents**

	Value	Degrees of Freedom (Df)	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	0.119	2	0.942
Likelihood Ratio	0.120	2	0.942
Linear-by-Linear Association	0.044	1	0.834
Number of Valid Cases	253		
Critical X <sup>2</sup> Value			
$X^2 (2, 253) = 0.119, P > 0.05$ $X^2 = 0.119$ Df = 2 Sig. = 0.942 Critical X <sup>2</sup> = 5.99			

The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

**APPENDIX 2c: Relationship between the perceptions of the male and female respondents with regard to the Mole Park as a source of employment for the local people.**

	Value	Degrees of Freedom (Df)	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	0.195	2	0.907
Likelihood Ratio	0.195	2	0.907
Linear-by-Linear Association	0.102	1	0.749
Number of Valid Cases	253		
Critical X <sup>2</sup> Value			5.991
<p><i>X<sup>2</sup> (2, 253) = 0.195, P&gt;0.05.</i></p> <p>X<sup>2</sup> = 0.195                      Df = 2                      Sig. = 0.907                      Critical X<sup>2</sup> = 5.991</p>			

The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

## APPENDIX 4

### REFERENCED BULLETINS AND JOURNALS

Bulletin/Journal	Volume	Page(s)	Year
Tourism Management	18	435	1997
Tourism Research	16	216-236	1989
Annals Of Tourism Research	18	414-432	1991
Annals of Tourism Research	21(4)	50-67	1994
Annals of Tourism Research	26	100	1998
Annals of Tourism Research	27(1)	115-131	2000
Ghana Geographical Association	21	21-30	1999
Journal of sustainable Tourism	8 (1)	22-29	2000
Journal of sustainable Tourism	8 (4)	288-291	2000
Journal of sustainable Tourism	8 (3)	232-237	2000
Journal of sustainable Tourism	7 (2)	108-127	1999
Journal of sustainable Tourism	5 (3)	213-235	1997
Journal of Arid Environments	54	447-467	2003
Environmental Conservation	3 (1)	27-31	1976
Sierra Club Bulletin	60 (5)	5	1976
World Leisure and Recreation	31 (4)	29-39	1989
Science No. 178, 1255 - 1263	178	1255-1263	1972
Leisure Studies	10 (3)	207-217	1991

Source: Field Survey, 2003

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