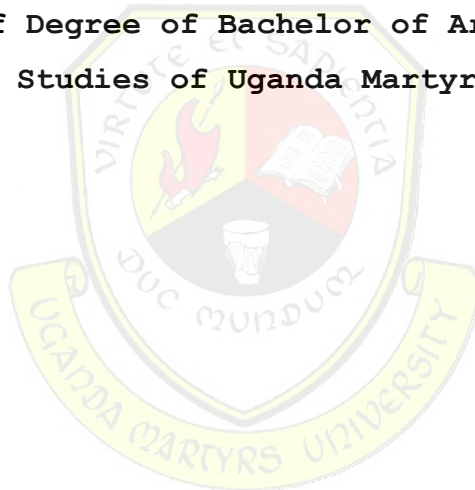


**IMPROVING COMMUNITY LIVELIHOODS THROUGH PARTICIPATORY
MANAGEMENT OF NATIONAL GAME PARKS: FACTORS AFFECTING ACCESS
TO SOCIO-ECOLOGICAL BENEFITS OF MGAHINGA NATIONAL PARK IN
KISORO DISTRICT**

**A DESSERTATION submitted to the Institute of Ethics and
Development Studies in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirement
for the Award of Degree of Bachelor of Arts in Ethics and
Development Studies of Uganda Martyrs University**



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DEDICATION

To my beloved lovely parents Mr. Nkurunziza Pius and Mrs. Nkurunziza Demtra, who have always encouraged me with their knowledge, advice and words; to my dear uncles Mr. Hashaka Jacob and Steven, Mr. Mbonye James and my aunt Mrs. Nyiransaba Merida that always direct my life with great and special love, care and responsibility; to my supervisor Dr. John Mary who has done a lot in helping me accomplish this work; and to all my dear brothers and sisters in Christ. Finally I dedicate it to all those who have managed to share with me their life experiences. I am so grateful to Bridget, Peace, Beatrice, Davence, Florence, Charity and Betty, for the fact that I met them in Uganda Martyrs University.

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LIST OF ACRONYMS

MGNP:	Mgahinga Gorilla National Park
NEMA:	National environmental management authority
NRM:	Natural resource management
UWA:	Uganda wild life authority
DRC:	Democratic republic of Congo
IFRI:	International forestry and institution
UBoS:	Uganda bureau of statistics

ABSTRACT

The study was about improving community livelihoods through participatory management of National Game Parks: Factors affecting access to socio-ecological benefits of Mgahinga National Game Park in Kisoro district. The specific objectives included: to identify the activities the local community engages in the national game parks management, to identify the barriers communities face in accessing the socio-ecological resources in National Game Parks and to identify the benefits of local community participation in the national park's social ecological resource management. The study was mainly qualitative, but the researcher also used quantitative methods. Data was collected through interviews, questionnaires and observation. A sample size of forty respondents was conducted whereby the researcher interviewed 10 key informants these are: five local leaders, five game park managers, and also interviewed thirty participants in the villages of Kabande, Nzogera, Mubuga, Ndego and Mataba. The findings revealed that most people who live around Mgahinga National Park benefit a lot in that they are able to access social ecological resources like bamboo, firewood, water, honey among others however on the other hand there is a problem of corruption, restriction of accessing the resources, lack of cooperation among local people and game rangers. It concluded that community conservation at Mgahinga is therefore far from self-sustaining. It has achieved a remarkable job of finessing the controversial park boundaries, and buying time for the development of institutional mechanisms that can meet legitimate local economic needs and conservation goals.

CHAPTER ONE

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

The research was about how community livelihoods can be improved through participatory management of national game parks. The focus was on the analysis of factors affecting community access to the socio-ecological benefits of the Mgahinga National Park. Chapter one covered the back ground of the study, the statement of the problem, objectives of the study, research questions, conceptual frame work, scope of the study, significance of the study, justification for the study and the definition of key terms.

Chapter two covers the literature review. Chapter three covers research design, area of the study, population of the study, sample size and sampling techniques, data collection methods and instruments, quality control methods, data analysis techniques, ethical considerations and limitations of the study. Chapter four covers data presentation and discussion. Chapter five covers the summary, conclusion and recommendations.

1.2 Back ground to the Study

According to Western and Wright (1994) "Participatory approach aims at involving local people not only in sharing the financial gains of a project but also in total process of natural resource management." In South Africa, for instance, political changes fundamentally changed the attitude of protected area management agencies and owners Environmental Affairs, (not dated). Today, people are becoming share holders and new practices for conservations are being created-allowing rural people to play a critical role. Laws are replaced with

Highly progressive legislation. The National Environmental Management says protected areas Act now makes provision for inter-governmental co-operation and participation of local communities in the declaration and management of protected areas. It also makes provision for sustainable utilization of protected areas for the benefit of the people. Section 42 of the Act provides for innovative governance of protected areas through their co-management by conservation authorities and local communities. The co-management frame work developed under the Act provides a harmonized uniform guideline for conservation authorities and successful restitution claimants who want to enter into a structured co-operation arrangement for the management of protected areas.

At the regional level mainly in Kenya, according to Kenya Wildlife Service (2015), the Wild life Conservation and Management Act No 47 of 2013 assented on 24 December 2013 became operational on 10 January 2014. This repealed the Act of 1975 and culminated a more than half a decade's effort to protect Kenya's Wildlife heritage using a new law. In Kenya, most of our national parks and reserves are reliant on surrounding community and private land owners as migratory and dispersal areas as part of the larger land and seascape. Larger ecosystems are already under threat with significant loss of biodiversity and have attracted wide range of competition and conflicting land use activities. The result is in loss of wild life habitat, unviable land fragmentations, blockage of wildlife corridors and increasing wildlife conflict. Since the land outside protected areas is largely under the control of private owners and communities. Their good will and cooperation is essential for the success of wild life conservation and management in Kenya.

The reality is that there is need to streamline the wild life industry outside the parks and reserves system through institutional development to enhance pro-active local

community participation in sustainable conservation and adopt wildlife resource as a viable option compared to the other competing uses. Wild life conservation and management is closely linked with economic development particularly in relation to tourism. It is therefore envisaged that Nature Based Enterprises shall promote socio-economic livelihoods of the local people in community wild life areas. The department employs multi-sect oral approach in working with communities living with wildlife to incentive wildlife resource conservation and management as a land use option within laid down procedures, regulations, standards, processes and in the process realize sustainable benefits through nature based enterprises.

At the national level, Uganda Wildlife Authority in Uganda (2012) recognizes the local community as a key stake holder in ensuring the protection of wild life both inside and outside Uganda's protected areas. Traditional conservation approaches largely excluded the communities from protected areas. In contrast, community conservation which has been employed since the 1990's aims at harmonizing the relationship between park managers and neighboring communities, allowing these communities access to protected area resources. It encourages dialogue and local community participation in planning for and management of these resources. Uganda Wildlife Authority's Community Conservation Unit Implements a number of activities, some of which are detailed below.

Conservation Education and Awareness aims at raising awareness of the value of conservation and how communities can benefit from the conservations. In order to facilitate visits by school children and organized groups to some of the parks, low cost accommodation has been created to enable pupils to spend a weekend viewing and learning about wild life. Facilities currently exist in Lake Mburo Conservation Area, Queen Elizabeth National park, Murchison falls conservation

area and Mountain Elgon National park. Resource Access for example communities have regulated access to some key resources that may not be found outside the protected areas like firewood, medicinal herbs, papyrus, vine for hand crafts, fish, bamboo, beehives, water access in the dry season or drought.

According to Uganda Wild Life Authority (2012) in Kisoro, for many generations Mgahinga's dense forests were homes to the indigenous Batwa-hunter-gatherers and fierce warriors who depended on the forest for shelter, food and medicine. They lead visitors through the forests and introduce them to their old home and the techniques they used to survive in it. Mgahinga National park is located in the southwestern Uganda on the border with Congo and Rwanda covering an area of about 33.7squarekilometres, the park is a habitat for man's closest, the mountain gorillas which roam about the whole forest in search for food. This park is of the few places in the world where the endangered mountain gorillas live and it attracts people from different countries to come on Uganda Gorilla safari. Mgahinga is one of the leading tourism sites in Uganda since it harbors these rare primates, it has a thick rain forest with a wide variety of tree species and gorillas which are known to be vegetarians, there is enough food for them in the park and this is the reason why some even migrate from Congo and Rwanda to this place but not in large numbers, gorillas of Mgahinga are easily seen in their natural habits and this makes tracking more easy compared to other parks.

In Nyarusiza sub county particularly area around Mgahinga national park there has been allocation of opportunities among the local communities to participate effectively in development activities, empowering people to mobilize their own capacities, manage their resources make decision and control the activities that affects their lives.

1.3 Statement of the Problem

Although Uganda Wild life Authority (UWA) (2012) encourages dialogue and local community participation in planning and management of the resources in and around Mgahinga National Park, the local community do not easily access the socio-ecological benefits such as accessibility to water sources, inequitable sharing of revenue, accessibility to medicinal herbs, firewood, vine for hand crafts and honey harvesting. On the one hand, Uganda Wildlife Community Conservation Unit implements a number of activities seeking to facilitate the community's access to park's ecological resources; on the other hand, communities have regulated access to some key resources that may not be found outside the regulated area. According to western and Wright (1994), there is shift, globally, from the classical approach whereby indigenous people are forcefully removed from their indigenous home and stripped of their possessions and human dignity, towards participatory approaches that integrates the ecological concerns with the need of communities living within the neighborhood of protected area. This research is therefore carried out to assess the factors affecting the local community's access to the social-ecological benefits of Mgahinga National Park in Kisoro District.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

1.4.1 General Objective

To assess factors affecting community access to the socio-ecological benefits of the Mgahinga National Park - improving community livelihoods through participatory management of national game parks.

1.4.2 Specific Objectives

1. To identify the activities the local community engages in the national game parks management.
2. To identify the barriers communities face in accessing the socio-ecological resources in National Game Parks.
3. To identify the benefits of local community participation in the national park's social ecological resource management.

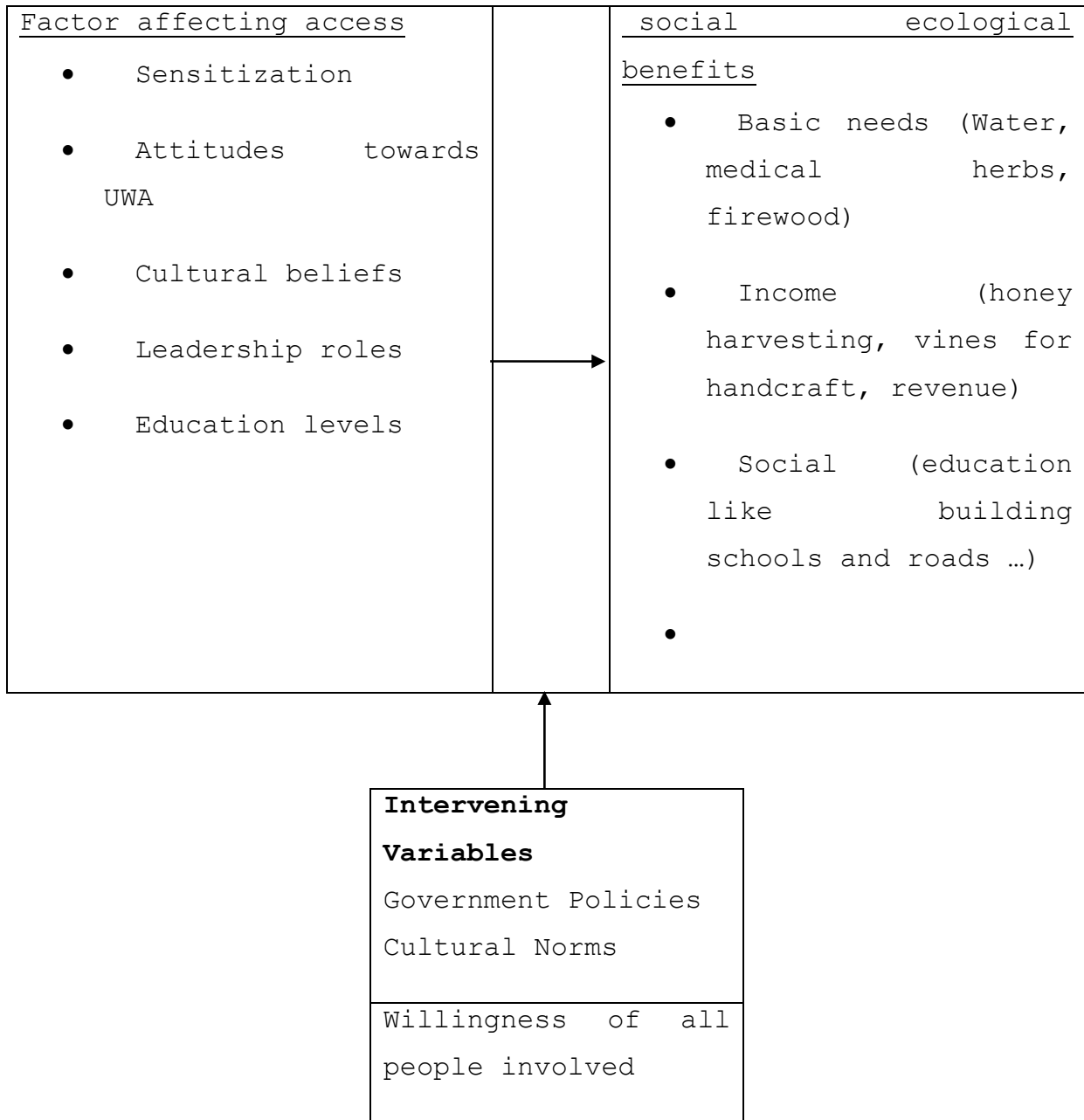
1.5 Research Questions.

1. What activities do the local community engages in the national game parks management?
2. What are the barriers communities' faces in accessing socio-ecological resources in National Game Parks?
3. What benefits does the community get from participating in National park's social ecological resource management?

1.6 Conceptual Frame Work

Independent variables

Dependent variables



The conceptual frame work above shows the relationship between the different variables as shown in order to understand the factors affecting access to socio-ecological benefits. The independent variable is factors affecting access that act as a root causes while the dependent variable, benefits of the socio-ecological benefits of Mgahinga National

Park that act as a stem causer and the intervening variables are those that cut across both independent and dependent variables.

1.7 Scope of the Study.

1.7.1 Context scope:

The study was limited to investigating factors affecting community access to the socio-ecological benefits of the Mgahinga National Park- Community participation in management of the game park resources as one way of ensuring improvement of community livelihoods.

1.7.2 Geographical scope

The study was carried out in Nyarusiza Sub County kisoro district around Mgahinga national park. Mgahinga gorilla national park is located in south western corner of Uganda. The park covers the northern slope of three northern most virunga volcanoes which are mountain Muhavura which is (4127metres), mountain Gahinga which is (3474metres) and mountain Sabyinyo which is (3645metres).The park is about 10kilometres from kisoro town and is bordered to the south by the republic of Rwanda and to the west by Democratic Republic of Congo. The three parks together form 434squarekilometres "virunga conservation area (VCA) Mgahinga is 33.7squarekilometres just 8% of the virunga conservation area".The entire park is in Bufumbira county kisoro district and the reason for its choice is that I had a feeling after seeing how things are happening in other places like Lake Mburo, Queen Elizabeth national game parks and not things going on the way I expected like in other mentioned places, I had the interest in carrying out the research based on my topic because it is my home land place, I have grew up seeing what

the community members are facing in order to access the resources needed and lastly it is where I can get the information needed to do the research about my topic.

1.7.3 Time scope

The study collected the data within a period of five years, from 2009 to 2015. The reason for its choice was that during that time it was when the Wild Life Authority and the government began to implement the policy and also it was during that time that people began to get involved in participating in resources in the National game parks.

1.8 Significance of the Study

The research provides the information to different people like the community members, tourism operators, policy implementers (government), academicians especially those doing research and other stake holders with the roles of local community participation in national game parks management of Mgahinga national park in Kisoro, Uganda, East Africa and African community in particular.

The finding of the study adds on the existing body of knowledge in the libraries which helped other students doing research on similar topics.

The study findings helps the policy makers to formulate the policies that can be used to hold government workers (officials) and agency more accountable to the resources they are meant to conserve and protect.

1.9 Justification of the Study.

The research was for the fulfillment of the award of a degree in Bachelors of Arts in Ethics and Development studies.

The study helps to improve the livelihoods of the people, exposed the barriers that the local community people faced in the access of the resources and also the gaps that prevented the people from participating.

1.10 Definitions of Key Terms and Concepts

Community

Community is defined as self- organized network of people with common agenda, cause or interest who collaborate by sharing ideas, information and other resources. It can also be defined as a group of people living in the same place or having a particular characteristic in common.

Participatory

Participatory is providing the opportunity for the people to be involved in deciding how something is done. It can also be defined as allowing or providing for the participation of all members of a group.

A game park

A game park is a large area of country set aside as a reserve for wild animals.

National park

National park is an area of land that is owned and protected by a national government because of its natural beauty or its importance.

A livelihood

A livelihood is a means of making a living. It encompasses people's capabilities, assets, incomes and activities required to secure the necessities of life.

Socio-ecological benefits

Socio-ecological benefits are benefits people obtain from ecosystems.

Participatory management

Participatory management is the practice of empowering employees to participate in organizational decision making. It can also be a system in which employees of a business organization take an active role in the decision-making process as it relates to the way the business operates.

In conclusion chapter one has covered the general introduction, the back ground of the study, the statement of the problem, objectives of the study, research questions, conceptual frame work, scope of the study, significance of the study, and justification for the study and the definition of key terms as discussed above.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

Chapter two presented the existing literature from different sources like journals, online e-books, reports, and text books in order to understand the analysis and the context of the problem under investigation. It looked at an overview of local community participation in national game parks management, the activities the local community engages in the management of natural resources, the barriers that communities face in accessing the resources, the community benefits from participating in National park's social ecological resource management.

2.2 Activities the local community engages in the National game park management.

The local community around the National game park engages in both legal and illegal activities. On the part of legal activities the people carry out an activity of collecting vines used for hand crafts whereby they weave baskets, mats and chairs that are sold to tourists. In addition they make granaries that they use in storing agricultural products.

The local people also act in entertaining the tourists especially the Batwa that direct them to their oldest home because it is where they used to live and also direct the tourists to different places within especially where the gorillas stay. In addition they entertain them by singing and dancing for them traditional Batwa dances.

In the new vision (2016) reported by Patson, communities around Queen Elizabeth National park carry out an

activity of keeping bees 1km inside the park where by Uganda Wildlife Authority has signed a memorandum of understanding with the beekeepers to allow them to access the park to harvest and also (Uganda Wildlife Authority) started goat rearing projects as an activity to the people around Queen Elizabeth National park.

On the other hand the illegal activities carried out by people in the national game park include poaching or hunting of wild animals in the park where by people go to the park and kill animals in order to get meat and also earn a living through selling it which is being practiced in National parks like Mgahinga, Queen Elizabeth, Bwindi, Liwonde and other National parks and has led to conflicts among the local people, the Wild life Authority and the government at large in that it is not accepted by the above mentioned bodies (bird life international 2011).

Vodoule et al.(2010) argues that, 92% of the people practice agricultural activities like farming within park boundaries for example around Pendjara National game park and also animal rearing within the park for example they collect pasture like the grass that domestic animals feed on which is an illegal activity.

2.3 Barriers local communities face in accessing socio-ecological resources in National Game Parks.

Gordon (2013) indicates that, the biggest problem people have around Bwindi Impenetrable National Park is just poverty. The income generating activities are minimal. Many will get income from surplus crops, and productivity is not so promising, so usually that they get a very low income. In addition communities living around the park are restricted in the natural resources and their agricultural crops crucial for

supporting their families are susceptible to raiding by wild animals such as baboons or even mountain gorillas. This makes the promotion of both development and conservation highly challenging.

Displacing local People in order to establish National Parks: Kiringe et al. (2007), Hoole and Berkes (2010) all argue that, the displacement of people from their traditional lands led to unsuccessful conservation of biodiversity in National Parks was reported in 35 (28.5%) publications and said that displacement involves the involuntary physical removal of people from their historical or existing home as a result of actions by governments or other organizational actors.

Displacement of people from their traditional lands caused a negative attitude among local residents towards the existence of the park, and negative attitudes were responsible for conflicts between local people and the park staff. A study by Kideghesho et al.(2007) among communities neighboring the Serengeti National Park, found that people who had been evicted when the park was created more strongly opposed the existence of the park than those who were not evicted. Similar findings were reported in studies by Hoole and Berkes (2010) that described how Herero communities were ousted from Etosha National Park. Salafsky et al. (2001) states that creation of protected areas not only causes conflicts between park managers and local people but also results in killing highly prized wildlife species by local people.

Restriction of local People against access to resources in Parks for example in 48 (39%) of the publications, unsuccessful conservation of biodiversity in National Parks was attributed to restricting local people neighboring the park from accessing resources in the park. Shackleton et al.

(2002) attributes the failure of conserving biodiversity in three National Parks in Uganda to restricted access to park resources. Restricted access caused negative attitudes amongst local communities towards the existence of the park and resulted in some people conducting the prohibited activities illegally in the park.

Also Kideghesho et al. (2007) states that, negative attitudes towards the protected areas in Western Serengeti correlated with restrictions over access to pasture and water for livestock. Similarly, a study by Vodouhê et al. (2010) found out that, 92% of the people (mainly farmers) who were asked about their attitudes towards the conservation of Pendjari National Park said that the decision of the park management staff to ban agricultural activities within the park boundaries generated a strong negative opinion of the park management. In the same study, 98% of people involved in livestock production commented negatively on the Pendjari National Park staff's decision to ban animal rearing within the park (Vodouhe, et al, 2010).

Lack of adequate compensation, or failure to take into account the needs, of local People who initially depended on resources in the area Occupied by the Park for example Boyde et al. (1999) argues that, in 39 (31.7%) of the publications, unsuccessful conservation of biodiversity was attributed to the failure of the park staff to adequately compensate local people who initially depended on resources in the area where the park was created. This compelled local people to go against park rules and to harvest resources in the park. Also a study by Vodouhê et al. (2010) showed that, nearly 37% of the people neighboring Pendjari National Park said that 30% of total revenues generated through hunting activities distributed to the population were insufficient to compensate for having no access to resources in the park that they

initially depended on. For this reason, it was said that some people continued going into the park to harvest resources so as to meet their livelihood needs.

A similar a study by Holmern et al.(2002) on hunting in Serengeti National Park showed that providing adjacent villages with incentives to abstain from illegal hunting indicated that the incentives given did not lead to economically sustainable activities and they made only a minor economic contribution compared to illegal hunting.

On the issue of asking local people to pay fees to access resources in the Park: In 17 (13.8%) of the publications, it was reported that the local people neighboring the park were asked to pay fees to access resources in the park. This hampered successful conservation because local people could not see the point of asking them to pay for resources that they thought belonged to them for instance, negative attitudes towards Kgalagadi Tran frontier National Park in South Africa were as a result of neighboring indigenous groups being required to pay regular access fees to the park unless they were entering for a cultural purpose thus this led some local people to feel that they were being treated like tourists Timko and Satterfield(2008).

On the issue of Lack of consultation with and involvement of the local People before establishing the Park: Lack of consultation with the local people before the park was created was reported in 58 (47.2%) of the publications as responsible for unsuccessful conservation of biodiversity in parks.

According to Mbile et al. (2005), Korup National Park was created without any form of prior negotiations with any of the local people and for that reason, access to resources remained a de facto reality. Also Gibson and Marks (1995) reported that

in many National Parks in Africa, local people have been neglected in the processes of negotiations regarding the use of the resources within National Parks. This resulted in people not taking up the conservation objectives of the park.

Vodouhê et al. (2010) found that, the former management of the Pendjari National Park in Benin did not include communities living adjacent to it and this caused local people to have a feeling of injustice and they thought that the central government had stolen their resources. This resulted in frequent conflicts between the park staff and local communities who defied the rules against accessing the park to hunt animals or to do agriculture. In some cases, due to lack of involvement of the people, local people who were expected to implement some of the project activities did not know much about some projects that the park was implementing to conserve biodiversity.

Failure to give the promised incentives to local people and failure of local People that received the incentives to change their behavior. In 5 (4.1%) of the publications, failure to conserve biodiversity in National Parks especially where the park was implementing community-based conservation initiatives was attributed to not giving the promised incentives to local people that were meant to keep them from going to the park . In that situation, local people saw no benefit in their engagement with the park administration and continued going against park rules to access resources in the park Kasperek (2008).

In the analysis of the effectiveness of the Sustainable Forest Management and Conservation Project in Botswana, Malawi, Mozambique, and Namibia, Kasperek (2008) a gain attributed the relatively low performance of the project in Mozambique to the project failing to deliver the promised

incentives that were meant to motivate people against charcoal burning in protected areas. In some cases, where the incentives were given to the people, they did not cause the expected positive change amongst local people to prevent them from accessing resources in the park.

This was because the differences in age, gender, and wealth of local communities neighboring the park were not taken into account while implementing the community-based conservation approaches. Wainwright and Wehrmeyer (1998), for instance, attribute the failure of Luangwa Integrated Resource Development Project in Zambia to the exclusion of women from the project activities, and yet women play an important role in resource harvesting from National Parks. Kasperek(2008) in the assessment of the effectiveness of Sustainable Forest Management and Conservation Project in Botswana, Malawi, Mozambique, and Namibia observed that natural resource management, and specifically forest management, is quite gender sensitive, an aspect that was not considered in the project. Men and women do not benefit to the same extent from forest products, and yet gender issues were not treated by the project team either as a separate output or as a cross-cutting issue Kasperek (2008).

Similarly, Malleson (2000) attributed the failure of conserving biodiversity in the Korup National Park to the failure of the Korup project officers to realize that communities in Korup Forest area consist of socially heterogeneous groups of people. Most settlements in Korup Forest area were socially diverse, and communities consisted of a very complex mesh of different types of institutions, households, and individuals whose rights of access to land and forest resources were differentiated along the lines of political power, wealth, ethnicity, gender, and marital

status. Such diversity leads to a failure in consensus and in providing incentives to satisfy every member of the community.

Creation of the Park in an area with high levels of biodiversity and not degraded. In 10 (8.1%) of the publications, failure to stave off biodiversity loss in protected areas was ascribed to creating the park in an area that had high biodiversity and was not degraded. Because of this, local people perceived the creation of the park as unwarranted claiming that their good practices concerning resource use had kept the area under graded that is why it attracted the attention of conservationists. However, Bruner et al. (2001) and Dudley et al. (2004) also noted that in the communities where people were claiming that creation of the park was unwarranted, local communities kept on encroaching on park land because of lack of a buffer zone. In this case, local people (especially) those near the park claimed that they did not know where the border between their gardens and the park was Dudley (2004). This was because the biodiversity on the private land was relatively homogenous with that in the park. This means that the park needed a clear boundary.

On lack of consideration of ecological factors in the area where the Park was created: The failure to conserve biodiversity in National Parks was also attributed to the lack of consideration of the past and current human ecology of the area before the park was created. This factor was reported in 13 (10.6%) of the publications reviewed. Mbile et al. (2005) for instance argue that in Africa, human ecological interactions are important in shaping forest health. Hunters in the Korup Forest area are said to have evolved with wildlife and shaped the ecosystem there, so eliminating them from the area when the park was created meant disrupting the ecological balance Mbile et al. (2005) related to the human ecological factor is the size of the park.

According to some studies, if the size of the park created was small, there cannot be successful conservation of biodiversity in that park. Roe et al. (2000) claimed that the manageable scale of National Parks needed to be sufficiently large to warrant collective action and revenue generation to sustain them. Dudley et al. (2005) attributed the failure of National Parks in Kwazulu-Natal in South Africa to inadequate design. According to them, over half of Kwazulu-Natal protected areas were not designed to optimize biodiversity conservation, were surrounded by landscapes that did not enable effective park management, or were too small to maintain viable populations. Dudley et al. (2005) made a similar observation on Kyabobo Range National Park in Ghana.

Lack of clear communication channels between Park staff and leaders: Lack of clear communication channels between park staff and leaders at the local and national level was also attributed to failure of conserving biodiversity in National Parks in 20 (16.3%) of the publications. For instance, Mallya (2006) found that miscommunication amongst stakeholders of the Serengeti National Park coupled with the conflicting laws and regulations from local and national leaders and park staff led to improper investment agreements that resulted in inadequate benefits from investors to local communities.

Similar findings were also reported where rural district councils, the local people, and park staff debated how tourism revenue should be shared Derman (1950). Local people wanted local communities at the village or village development committee level to benefit from wildlife management programs, yet the park staff and district councils argued for the district at large to benefit.

Limited number of park staff and paying Park staff low salaries. Related to limited enforcement of policies governing

parks was a factor of unskilled park staff. A study by Dudley et al. (2004) reported that many National Parks in Africa had staff that faced serious shortfalls of skills and capacity to effectively perform. In addition to limited skills, the park staff was paid low salaries. For example, a study by Archabald and Naughton (2001) in three National Parks in Uganda reported that wardens in charge had revealed that park staff were not only getting a low salary but had frequently gone without pay for months. Under such circumstances, park staff found it difficult to share money accruing from tourism revenue with the community in the implementation of benefit sharing schemes.

On failure of previous conservation initiatives: Another factor that caused failure of the conservation of biodiversity in National Parks was that previous initiatives to conserve biodiversity in a particular park had failed. This factor was reported in 6 (4.9%) of the publications reviewed. Ormsby and Kaplin (2005) found that in Masoala National Park in Madagascar inconsistency in past and present park management goals led to confusion among the community regarding the park programme. The community was aware of the existence of the park but was unfamiliar with its goals. Ormsby and Kaplin(2005) also reported that the park staff had raised high and unrealistic expectations among some communities which were not met. Similar findings are reported in a study that investigated the attitude of communities adjacent to the Chobe National Park in Botswana and the South Luangwa National Park in Zambia Musumali et al. (2007). After two decades of implementing the programme, there appeared to be confusion among communities regarding community-based natural resource management. They also attributed this to unfulfilled expectations and frustrations Musumali (2007). These factors highlight inadequacies in implementation with regard to

outreach and inclusion of local people in conservation programmes.

On lack of land, lack of secure land tenure, and contested ownership of land in the Park: Connected to the factor of dependence on park resources by local people for livelihood and survival by the local people was a factor of lack of land and secure land tenure. For example, in the case of Korup National Park, the local people neighboring the park had little and others no land for other activities and as a consequence were compelled to harvest park resources. This also explains why in 14 (11.4%) of the publications, it was reported that local people contested the ownership of the park because they wanted to have access to resources therein due to lack of land. Maiiya(2006).

On economic and cultural differences and variation in expectations among community members: In 13 (10.6%) of the case studies, economic and cultural differences among community members curtailed successful conservation of biodiversity in parks. In a study in the Korup National Park, Malleson (2000) reported that, wealthy, self-interested and politically powerful individuals were in a strong position to take control of the exploitation of the most profitable forest-related enterprises, such as timber exploitation, ivory, and game meat trades, and to acquire prime land for agricultural production usually associated with community-based conservation programmes.

The majority who were poor could not engage in such enterprise and hence did not feel that they were benefiting from the park. These imbalances made it difficult for marginalized and politically weak communities on the forest edge to contest the appropriation of forest resources by politically powerful elites from the same area or by

conservation projects. Cultural differences among community members also led to failure of conserving biodiversity in National Parks because initiatives such as benefit sharing were not satisfactory to all members of different cultural backgrounds in the community. Vodouhê et al. (2010) found that people who perceived that they benefited from the Pendjari National Park were from tribes whose traditional activities like hunting were associated with the park contrary to those who lived far away from the park whose economic activities were not linked to the park resources.

A study by Shackleton et al. (2002) also reported similar findings. This indicates that people who benefit and are aware of how they benefit from parks are more likely to support the conservation of parks than those who do not or are not aware of how they benefit. Other than the economic and cultural differences, there was variation in expectations among different community members for the benefits from the park that led to failure in conserving biodiversity in National Parks. This was reported in 22 (3.4%) of the case studies reviewed. For instance, a study by Archabald and Naughton-Treves (2001) in three National Parks in Uganda found that there were numerous stakeholders with differing priorities on how to put tourism revenue to use. For example, some respondents including implementers and beneficiaries at all levels argued that individuals who suffered direct costs from conservation, such as eviction from park land or high levels of crop raiding should receive a larger share of revenue-sharing benefits.

On Corruption among community leaders: Corruption among community leaders was another factor that indirectly resulted in failure to conserve biodiversity in the park. This factor was reported in 13 (10.6%) of the publications reviewed. For example, a study by Archabald and Naughton-Treves (2001) found

that in one parish bordering Bwindi National Park, a local council chairman was corrupt which limited the success of a tourism revenue scheme because he had embezzled the tourism revenue sharing funds. Similarly, in Mgahinga a community neighboring Mgahinga National Park, one community refused to contribute to their project because they thought that the local representative to the park protection committee was corrupt. These studies are indicative of the problem of corruption that could hinder successful conservation of biodiversity in National Parks.

On Lack of National Policies to support management decisions of the Park: In 26 (21.1%) of the publications, lack of national policies to support the management decisions of the park staff was reported to be responsible for unsuccessful conservation of biodiversity. According to Malleson(2000) in the absence of national policies, local people challenged the actions of the park staff. For example, in Cameroon, the Korup Project team worked with six villages around the Korup National Park to establish natural resource management committees to facilitate effective conservation of the park; however, these committees are not legally recognized under Cameroon's new forest law. Such a situation had earlier been reported by Williams et al.(1992) pointing out that policy constraints and bureaucracy resulted in some by-laws agreed upon amongst local people and park staff to remain unapproved and therefore impossible to implement.

In Uganda, a study by Archabald and Naughton-Treves (2001) showed that unclear revenue sharing policy and institutional support resulted in some park wardens using preservation approaches in parks where they were supposed to implement community-based initiatives. Also, Mallya (2006) in a study conducted in Serengeti National Park reported that due to conflicting laws and regulations, there were investment

agreements that resulted in inadequate benefits given to local communities.

2.4 Benefits community get from participating in National park's social ecological resource management.

Tourism earnings provide the development opportunities to the rural areas especially to the communities neighboring the protected area. Over 600000 Ugandans living in parishes surrounding the national park have enjoyed a number of benefits including sharing of revenue accruing from tourism. The Uganda wild life Authority provides 20% of all entry fees collected to flow the directed to the relevant community. So far the total collected since 2000 has been US\$1.8millions of thisUS\$1.2 has been disbursed to the communities neighboring to the protected areas. These funds were used for roads, clinics, schools and water sources the Uganda wild life act also provide for granting of wild life use rights among which is sport hunting. (Uganda Wildlife Authority 2008)

Biodiversity resource if utilized well can contribute to the economic development like the gross return to the national economy from biodiversity is estimated at US\$63.9 billion per year. The agriculture, tourism, forest, art and craft sector are all directly dependant on the biodiversity resource base. For instance wild life is the main stays for the tourism development which is currently the country's leading foreign exchange earners. Tourism revenue has risen from US\$ 113 million in 2000 to over US\$400 million in 2007.The average tourism per capital expenditure in the country from 2003 to 2007was US\$720 up from US\$449 in the 1990 to 1997 period(UBOS 2008) provision of the ecological services(Barrow et. al 2002).

The state of the environment report for Uganda (2008) indicated that, different ecosystems provide ecological

services that contribute to human welfare and livelihood. Forest for instance contributes to the protection of the water catchments, control of soil erosion, moderation of the local climate and is reservoir for diversity these are increasingly receiving greater attention especially in the light of the climate change. Deforestation on previously forecasted steep terrains has led to soil erosion, salutation of the river and lakes and loss of water catchments area. This has affected areas such as Mbale, Apchorwa, Kisoro and Kabale. In Uganda the forest water shed catchments value has been calculated as US\$13.2 million per year(Moyini et al 2002).Thus the sustainable utilization is important and should be based on then opportunity for investment in the more degraded land as part of water catchments protection.

The benefits to the public from Uganda wild life authority are economic, ecological and recreational. They include the following; revenue for the government from tourism sector, employment opportunities in wild life, tourism related business, research, education opportunities because institutions use protected areas for education purposes, income for the local communities directly through revenue sharing like sale of hand craft, food, other products, ,favorable climatic conditions that supports agriculture, live stock, ecological balances such as soil fertility in mountain areas, control of landslides, soil erosion and flooding as indicated by (Uganda Wild Life annual report2007/2008).

Moyini et al (2002) reports that, the attitudes of the neighboring communities towards the protected areas are increasingly being considered in the establishment of management of the national parks. In South Africa more inclusive policies have been introduced which seeks to improve neighboring communities in policy formulation of Kruger

national park. The park has benefited people through generation of the employment to the house hold members, age and dejure traditional authority affiliation influenced more positive attitude towards Kruger national park.

On Kitavi national park in Tanzania that areas within the park are deeply integrated in the local, national culture and economics; the land scope and ecosystem of the national park are results of long co-existence of the nature and human activities(farming),tree growing, cattle keeping, mineral extraction and building activities. National parks are included in local and regional economies. It is the central goals of management of each park to let neighboring villages benefit from positive effects of the park in order to increase the acceptance and compensation for the loss of access to valuable natural resources(Moyini et al 2002).

Threatened kingdom (note dated) reports that, the story of mountain gorilla by international gorilla conservation program the forest provides a number of resources for the local communities that is tree from both inside and outside the parks are used for lumbers, fire wood, vegetation is used for animal feeds and shelter. Maintaining health forest important to sustaining productive water shade which in turn provides important resources such as medicinal plants, better soil fertility buffer for potential diseases to domestic animals and human.

The research carried out from different people around national parks like Bwindi, Elgon and Kibale national parks, the proximity to protected area has also enabled some communities to start their own community ecotourism initiatives. Local communities normally work in community groups to establish campsite and Band as for the tourist accommodation whereby they gain income from them. They also

organize community tourism activities where the tourists visit community, observe the activities there and are exposed to several cultures .this has especially been successfully at Buhoma in Bwindi impenetrable national park, Magombe swamp (bigodi) in Kibale national park and mountain Elgon national park. There is also new public private partnership program that has been developed in Nkuringo in land neighboring Bwindi impenetrable national park.

Maclean (2013) states that, the Akagera Management Company has been successful in creating employment opportunities for local communities, and the 59 people employed in the park prior to 2010 have now increased to 173 permanent staff, of which all but four are Rwandan Nationals.

The Rwanda Development Board has established a scheme where 5% of the total revenue generated by its three national parks is devoted to revenue-sharing with local communities. The communities surrounding Akagera receive 30% of these revenues. Park management receives project funding proposals from the surrounding districts, which are reviewed by established committees including representation from the park management, and grants are allocated for programmes, such as social infrastructure (schools, health centre, local associations or small enterprises (Maclean 2013).

Tanya(2014) argues that, the virunga Park as part of Mgahinga National Park has taken small steps toward encouraging development in surrounding communities, focusing heavily on small hydroelectric plants that draw on rivers in and around the park to provide power and jobs without negatively affecting the pristine environment.

National parks act as natural values for example they form the cornerstone of biodiversity conservation in Australia

containing vital habitat that provides safe havens in which animals and plants can survive and thrive. Together with other protected areas, they provide a 'backbone' of core conservation areas that can be linked by conservation efforts across different tenures, supporting a diverse, healthy and resilient environment. In addition our protected areas provide life-sustaining services vital for the wellbeing of our environment and society, such as protection of urban water catchments and climate amelioration. (National Park Association2015)

National Parks provide a major economic value to Australia's economy, with nature-based tourism bringing \$23 billion into the country every year. Regional communities in particular benefit from the 35.5 million people who visit national parks each year, through job creation and money spent on accommodation, fuel and food. The Great Barrier Reef alone attracts more than \$6 billion a year in tourist-spending and supports over 63,000 jobs. Intact natural areas also provide a variety of resources and processes vital for human life and the economy. For example protected areas provide water catchments and filtration service, improving the quality of the water we use for drinking, agriculture and industry. By one analysis these 'ecosystem services' are worth US\$33 trillion a year. (National Park Association2015)

National parks are alive with history and culture. From ancient aboriginal rock-art sites, to the buildings left over from early European settlements, our national parks serve as a natural history book dating back thousands of years. Our national parks protect these vital and fragile places; areas where the traces of a history extending back more than 22,000 years can remain undisturbed. Today our protected areas are still used by Aboriginal people in a number of ways, such as a source of food, tools, medicine and trade, as well as in

ceremonial and spiritual activities. In this way national parks provide an opportunity in for people to establish and continue their connections with the land and to share their irreplaceable cultural knowledge with the wider community. (National Park Association2015)

Natural areas have a profound effect on our physical and emotional health and wellbeing. In our increasingly frenetic world, our national parks are important sanctuaries where people can take time out, enjoy nature, get fit, relax and revitalise, whilst nature's inherent beauty serves as a source of artistic, creative and spiritual inspiration. Research on the benefits of contact with the natural environment show that it is likely to have a significant positive psychological effect, serving to reduce stress, anger, frustration and aggression, providing an opportunity for social bonding, and serving as a place for learning and mental stimulation. Children in particular display long-term benefits of playing outdoors. In addition to the obvious health and wellbeing benefits our national parks bring, they also assist us in less obvious ways, such as acting as natural buffers against extreme weather events, helping to control our climate, providing us with clean water, improving food security and serving as an important resource for the pharmaceutical industry (National Park Association 2015).

For human life and the economy: For example protected areas provide a water catchments and filtration service, improving the quality of the water we use for drinking, agriculture and industry. By one analysis these 'ecosystem services' are worth US\$33 trillion a year. (National Park Association2015)

In new vision of (2016) reported by Paston who says the Uganda Wild life Authority has signed a memorandum of

understanding with beekeepers living around Queen Elizabeth National Park to allow them to access the park it was signed on Feb one between Queen Elizabeth National Park Community Conservation Warden Olivia Biira, on behalf of (UWA) and two bee keeping Associations from Kihiihi Sub-county in Kanungu district. According to Biira, the registered bee keepers will be allowed 1km inside the park, where they will put their beehives in a regulated manner. The move is aimed at strengthening resource conservation through collaborative resource management that will provide a sustainable livelihood to the communities bordering the park and also creating a good working relationship between the communities bordering the park and to reduce poaching. Also the memorandum of understanding will go a long way in improving the lives of the people living around the park because they will be benefiting from it.

In conclusion, Chapter two has presented the existing literature from different sources like journals, online e-books, reports, and text books in order to understand the analysis and the context of the problem under investigation. It has looked at an overview of local community participation in national game parks management, the activities the local community engages in the management of natural resources, the barriers that communities face in accessing the resources, the community benefits from participating in National park's social ecological resource management.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

This chapter described how the study was carried out. It highlighted the research design , the area of the study, the population of the study, sample size and sampling techniques, data collection methods and instruments, quality control methods, data analysis techniques, ethical considerations and limitations of the study or anticipated constraints.

3.2. Research Design

A research design guides the researcher in planning and implementing the study with the aim of solving the research problem (Burns and Grove 2001).The research was qualitative in method. Even where quantitative method was necessary, the interpretation was qualitative. The research design that the researcher used was a case study. A case study refers to a fairly intensive examination of a single unit such as a person, a small group of people or a single company. It was the appropriate design for the study because it enabled the researcher to explore and understand the problems, issues and relationships.

3.3 Area of the study

Mgahinga gorilla national park is found in Nyarusiza sub county, Kisoro district and located in south western corner of Uganda. The park covers the northern slope of three northern most virunga volcanoes which are mountain Muhavura which is (4127metres), mountain Gahinga which is (3474metres) and mountain Sabyinyo which is (3645metres).The park is about

10kilometres from Kisoro town and is bordered to the south by the republic of Rwanda and to the west by Democratic Republic of Congo. The three parks together form 434squarekilometres "virunga conservation area (VCA) Mgahinga 33.7squarekilometres just 8% of the virunga conservation area" .The entire park is in Bufumbira county Kisoro District.

3.4 Population of the study

Population refers to all the members of a particular group. A target population is the actual population to whom the researcher would like to generalize. Thus the study involved local community people, game park people (staff), community leaders and it involved both male and female. The researcher targeted five villages which included Kabande, Nzogera, Mubuga, Ndego and Mataba and in each village dealt with three families each family comprised of two people.

3.5 Sample Size and Sampling Techniques.

A sample is a subset or portion of the total population or it can be any part of a population of individuals on whom information is obtained.

3.5.1 Sample size.

The number of respondents who took part in the study was forty from Kabande, Nzogera, Mubuga, Ndego and Mataba within Nyarusiza Sub County. Five participants were drawn from game park staff, thirty participants from local communities and five from community leaders.

3.5.2 Sampling techniques.

Sampling techniques are the methods of selecting samples from the population. The researcher used a combination

of cluster sampling and simple random sampling techniques while dealing with the local community members in order to give equal chance to respondents.

A cluster random sample is one obtained by using groups as the sampling unit rather than individuals. The researcher got groups of people in each village that shared known characteristics and phenomenon. In that case, these were communities that relied heavily on socio-ecological resources found in the game park.

The research enumerated the units within the clusters and then chose the participants whereby it used simple random sampling. A simple random sample is a sample selected from a population in such a manner that all members of the population have an equal chance of being selected. In this case the researcher used the lottery simple random sampling method whereby had to transfer each person's name from the list and put it on a piece of paper, the pieces of paper were placed in a container and thoroughly mixed, the required numbers were selected by the researcher without looking and the names selected were the simple random sample.

Purposive sampling technique was also used by the researcher especially when she selected five participants from Game Park as staff members and five community leaders. The reason was that they had experience, special qualifications and information based on management of game parks.

According to Frank forte- Nachmias and Nachimias (1997) cited in Kisoga, (2012:64), purposive samples, also referred to as "judgmental samples", researchers select participants subjectively. In other words, judgment is made in line with the research purpose and a sample is drawn depending on one's knowledge and preference.

3.6 Data Collection Methods and Instruments

3.6.1 Sources of data

Both primary and secondary sources of data collection were used by the researcher during the study. For the secondary data collection method the researcher read text books and online e-books. This was done to understand the nature of the problem that was being researched about and also this enabled the researcher to discuss the gaps that existed between literature and the study itself.

3.6.2 Primary sources

The researcher used Interviews, Questionnaire and Observation as the research tools. The selection of these tools was guided by the nature of the information to be collected and the objectives of the study.

3.6.3 Personal interview

This was face to face discussions between the researcher and the respondents about particular subject or matter. Under this method, the researcher asked the questions and the responses were noted down. The merit of the method was that the interviewer was able to keep the respondents focused on the subject matter, it also created an opportunity for explanation that was, the researcher had to ask again the question if not understood by the respondents and also it helped respondents who were not able to read and write.

3.6.4 Use of questionnaires

The questionnaires were prepared and pretested before being distributed to the relevant respondents within Nyarusiza Sub County for actual data collection. The researcher then distributed them to the people and requested the people to return after filling them. The rationale for this method was that the respondents had enough time to give well thought answers and they applied to the people who can only read and write.

3.6.5 Observation

Under this, the researcher used her eyes to see the subject or matter in its natural setting. The purpose of this method was that the researcher was able to point out her comments and was also able to make the comparison from her observation and response from different respondents.

3.7 Quality Control Methods

The researcher ensured methodological reliability and validity. In this case reliability meant that the findings would be consistently the same if the study was to be carried out again where as validity meant the truthfulness of one's findings.

To establish validity, the instruments were designed in accordance to the research objectives. The instruments were then given to my research supervisor to evaluate the relevance of each item in the instruments of the research who then judged and guided me on how to go ahead and to establish reliability, the instruments were tested whether they could measure the true score of the attribute under investigation thus the interview guide and questionnaire guide will be tested and retested in order to assess their consistence.

3.8 Data Analysis Techniques

Qualitative methods of analyzing and presenting data were employed for the purpose of statistical information. Data from the field was analyzed for proper accuracy and completeness and the researcher based on the research objectives. Data from open-ended interviews and questionnaires was grouped and converted into frequency accounts. The results of the study was presented and discussed in the form of bar graphs and tables expressed in percentages. Also Microsoft Excel was used to analyze data and to illustrate field data using relevant figures.

3.9 Ethical Considerations

The researcher followed the following ethical procedures while conducting the study for example introduced her to the respondents with an utmost confidentiality. The information was used for study purposes only, under this she was also able to keep the secrets, names and private life of the respondents and used them with authority from respondents.

The researcher used the appropriate language in the whole process of research for example avoided use of abusive language in order to leave in good terms with respondents and valued ethics as well. The researcher also respected the respondents as a sign of encouragement in order to give her the information needed.

The researcher avoided the practice of copying in order to respect the university rules and regulations at all levels and did not give any money to the people who gave her the information.

The researcher was polite and showed total discipline to her respondents in order to motivate or encourage them to give her information needed and lastly the researcher thanked or appreciated the respondents after giving her the data or information needed for the great work well done.

3.10 Limitations of the study

Bad weather in terms of heavy rains during the time of data collection was an obstacle where by the researcher kept on postponing because the rain disturbed the respondents from attending the researcher but the researcher was patient in that she met the respondents immediately after the rains stopped in order to carry out the research.

Language barrier in that the researcher used English while meeting the respondents yet most of them like community members knew only Rukumbira as a common language used in Kisoro but to overcome it, the researcher had a translator to interpret for the people what she was talking in order to get the information needed and for the people to understand her.

Time was a problem in that it was not enough for the researcher and had again to travel to Kisoro for data collection which was a challenge because the time given was little to collect the data also the researcher was to miss lectures but what the researcher had to do was to use the little time given well so as to be back at the university in time in order for her not to miss the classes any more.

It was also not easy to meet the game staff people in order to give the researcher available data needed in that they were on and off, post ponded to another day which did not favor the researcher but the researcher made appointments with them on days or hours when they are free so as to access from them the information and again the researcher was too patient in all the circumstances because she really wanted the information.

The researcher also anticipated the respondents not being cooperative in giving the fast hand information that was needed in order to collect data which created delays but the researcher cooperated with them by being patient in order for them to participate actively so as for her to be able to access the data /information needed.

In conclusion, Chapter three has discussed the research design that the researcher used, the area of the study, the population of the study , sampling size and sampling techniques, data collection methods and instruments, quality control methods, data analysis techniques, ethical considerations and limitations of the study or anticipated constraints.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

Chapter four looked at a presentation, analysis and discussion of the research findings from the field in relation to the research objectives and research questions. Data was got from interviews, questionnaires and observation.

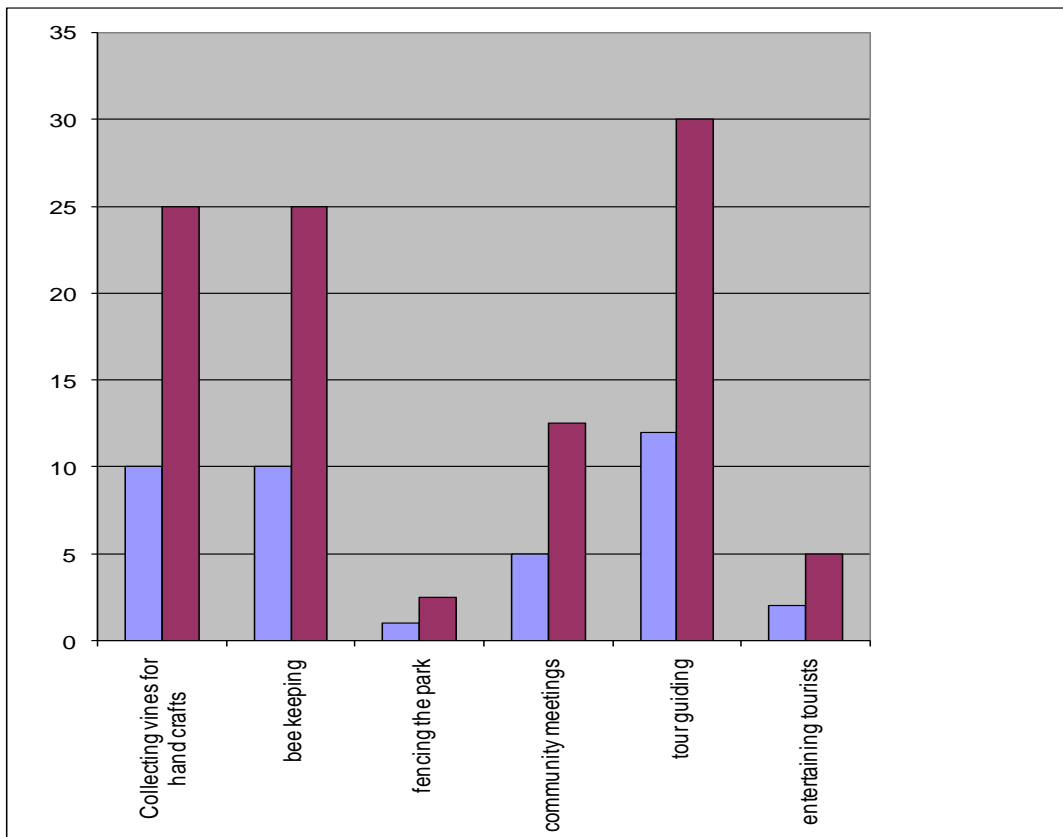
4.2 Activities the local community engages in the National game park management.

4.2.1 Table 1: showing legal activities the local community engages in the management of the park

Activity	Frequency (no of responses)	Percentage
Collecting vines for hand crafts	10	25
Bee keeping	10	25
Fencing the park	1	2.5
Community meetings	05	12.5
Tour guiding	12	30
Entertaining tourists	02	5
Total	40	100

Source: data from the field

4.2.2 Figure 1: Showing legal activities the local community engages in the management of the park



From both the table one and graph one, the major activities local community engaged in managing the National park were guiding tourists for example Out of 40 respondents, 30% stated believed that people especially the youth around the park (Kisoro Nyarusiza in particular) engaged in tourism related activities such as tour guiding, mountain climbing, gorilla trekking. This was so because Mgahinga National park is a home of mountain Gorillas which attracts tourists/ people from all over the world.

Community meetings for instance 12.5% of the 40 respondents also stated that they at times hold meetings with UWA to discuss matters related to social-ecological resource management. For example, through meetings residents are encouraged to call the responsible body (UWA) in case they see

animals escape from the park, so that they can be taken back rather than killing them. UWA has established a Park Management Advisory Committee (PMAC), which brings together various governmental, non-governmental and local interests to discuss major issues from time to time. Meetings occur when external donors (particularly CARE) manage to make them happen. Each Parish adjoining the Park has a Park Parish Committee which approves revenue-sharing projects, and then sets up a Project Committee to oversee them. In practice, there is currently only one project in each Parish (Adams 1998).

Entertaining tourists; 5% out of 40 respondents stated that (Batwa) group of people who live in the protected areas (forests) entertain the tourists through singing and dancing traditional songs to the tourists during the night where tourists are camping hence promoting tourism.

Fencing the national park for example Out of 40 respondents, 2.5% stated that they built a fence along the park boundary. This was similar to the responses record from face to face interviews. Residents were asked to state the solutions put in place to control crop raiding. One of the farmers said *"we have tried to built a temporally wall made of stones so as to prevent the animals from escaping from the park"*.

Similar finding were also revealed by Adams (1998), a lava-block wall has been constructed along the northern two thirds of the Park boundary (approximately 9 km) as a protection for park neighbors against crop raiding. The wall was built by local people using local materials (stones), on payment of money for 'lunch' (2500 Ugx per meter for supervision by the LCI Chairmen, and 1500 Ugx per meter for the builders). The wall was funded by CARE. The wall serves both to demarcate the park boundary, and to stop buffalo from

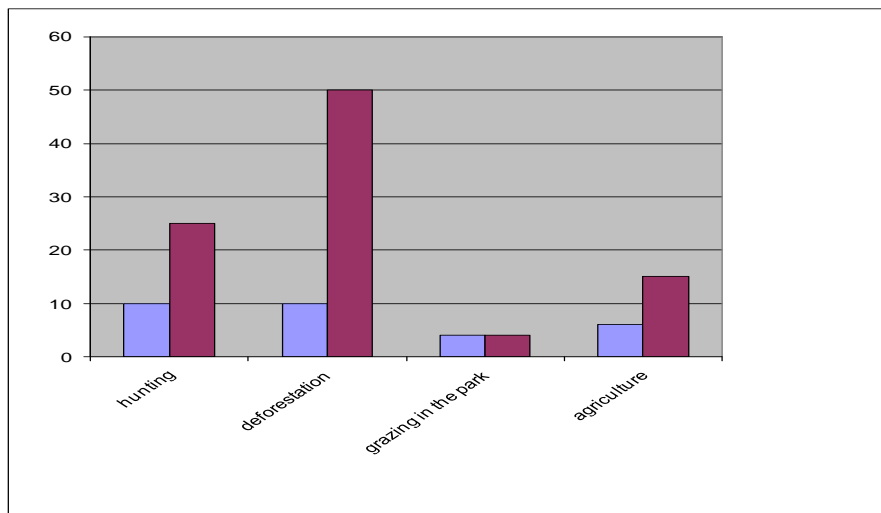
raiding crops (which it does successfully, although it is no barrier to porcupines; or indeed people). The final 2km was not built because the money ran out, but in this sector the problem of buffalo is small, because gullies prevent buffalo gaining access from the forested area. Completion of the wall would cost Ugx 3m.

4.2.3 Table 2: showing illegal activities the local community engages in the management of the park

Activity	No of responses	Percentage
Hunting	10	25
Deforestation	20	50
Grazing in the park	4	10
Agriculture	6	15
Total	40	100

Source: data from the field

4.2.4 Figure 2: showing illegal activities the local community engages in the management of the park



The game (preservation control Act 1964 stipulated that no one should reside, cultivate land or graze in a game warden. No hunting was allowed without a special permit (werikhe 1991) in practice, people near the park still practice these activities. Such activities include;

Deforestation in that 50% of the 40 respondents stated that, local people around Mgahinga enter into the park to cut down trees for fire wood and bamboos which are used as bean poles. In addition to this people collect grass for covering Irish potato sacks and all this leads to the destruction of the park.

Also 25% out of 40 respondents agreed that, hunting /poaching is done especially if the animals escape from the park, people hunt them; kill them because they have also been eating their crops.

Live stock was confined to lower degree (10%) and agriculture encroachment at 15% on the lower steps of the park boundaries, despite of the existence of forest officers and game wards, illegal activities have remained because bribes are offered for grazing.

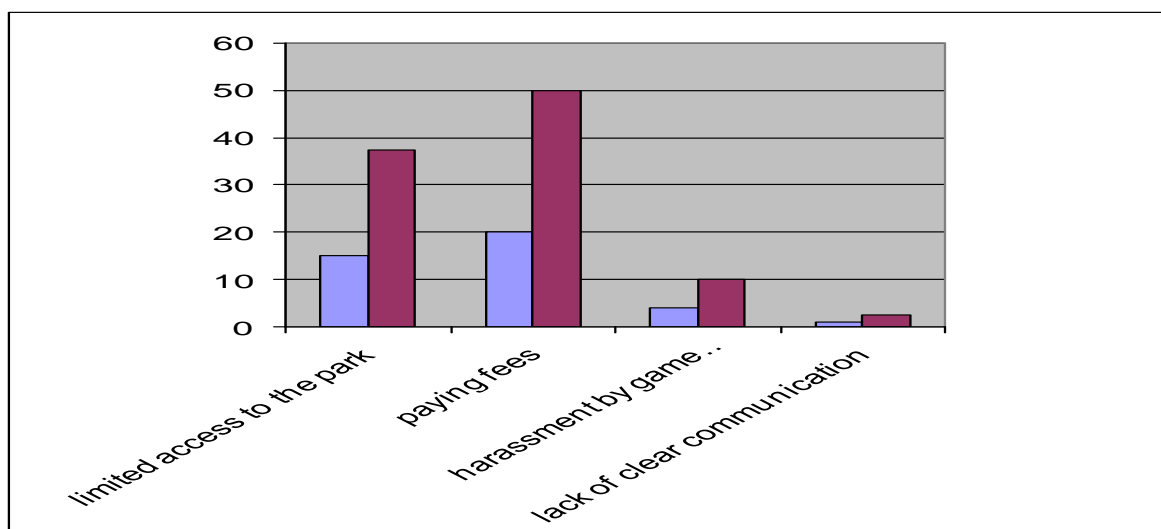
4.3 Barriers local communities face in accessing socio-ecological resources in the National Game Park.

4.3.1 Table 3: showing obstacles the local communities face in accessing social-ecological resources

Barrier	No of responses	Percentage
Limited access to the park	15	37.5
Paying fees	20	50
Harassment by game rangers	4	10
Lack of clear communication	1	2.5
Total	40	100

Source: data from the field

4.3.2 Figure 3: showing barriers local communities face in accessing socio-ecological resources in the National Game Park



Limited / denied access to resources within the park for instance from the table and graph above, findings reveal that ever since the area was gazetted and declared as a National park, 37.5% of the surrounding people stated that they have always had denial/ limited access to the resources within the park, resources such as medicine herbs, bamboo rhizome used as poles, fire wood are now had to find.

Paying fees in addition to having denied access, local residents also pay a fee in order to enter into the park. This was reported by 50% of the respondents. Similar findings were revealed through interviews. Residents were asked to state the obstacles they face while accessing the national park's resources. A big number of them would say: *"If a person wants such resources like fire wood, bean poles, placing bee hive in the park, grass for covering Irish potato sacks, he/she has to pay fees, to game rangers in form of money or food (Irish potatoes) so as to access to the park"*

While a smaller number of respondents replied with paying entrance fee for gorilla tracking, bird watching, mountain climbing. As such the local residents feel that they are treated as foreigners on the land which originally belonged to them.

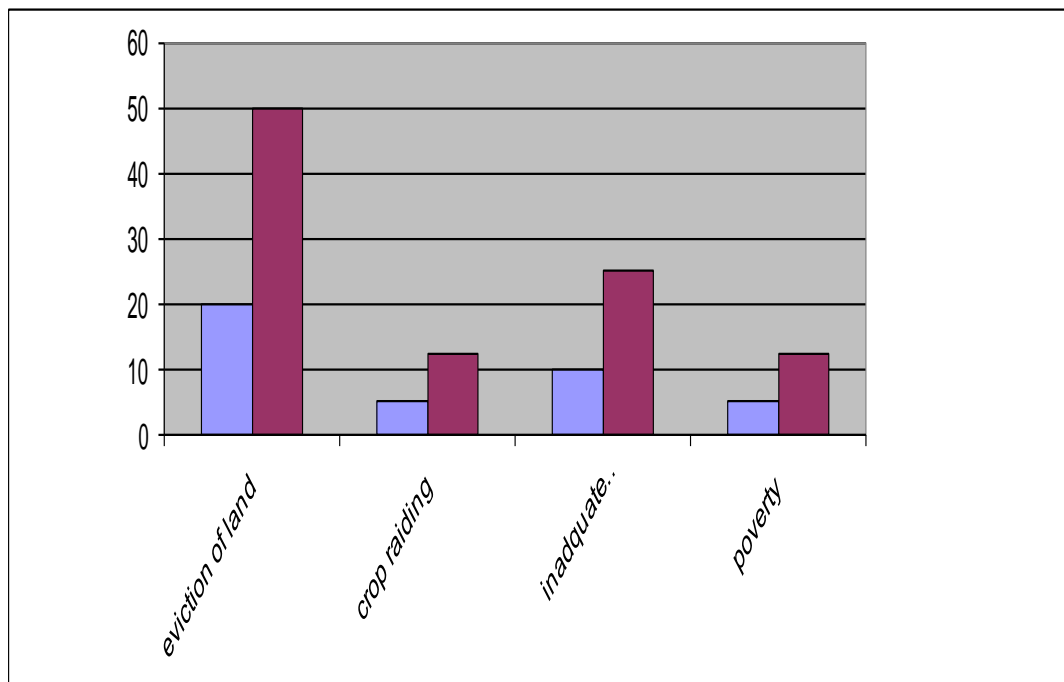
Lack of clear communication between the game wardens, Lc1 leaders and the residents was reported at a slower rate (2.5%) out of 40 respondents.

Harassment by game rangers whereby out of 40 respondents 10% of the Residents also stated that they are harassed by Rangers in that they prevent people from entering the Park (as indeed their jobs required them to do), regular law enforcement activity (number of patrols) are carried out particularly because of the international borders and of illegal activity.

4.3.3 Table 4: Other problems created by the park

	Frequency	Percentage
Eviction of land	20	50
Crop raiding	5	12.5
Inadequate compensation	10	25.
Poverty	5	12.5
Total	40	100

4.3.4 Figure 4: showing other problems created by the park



Residents were interviewed to state the problems they experience as a result of the park's existence, 50% agreed that the biggest challenge was eviction of land, people were forced to evacuate their farm lands a factor that led to loss

of land hence low agricultural production. 25% also stated that there was inadequate compensation, *those whose land was taken were promised to be compensated but the compensation was not enough, while others were not compensated at all.* Residents also demand compensation from UWA in case animals raid their crops but they are not compensated. While an equal number of respondents (12.5%) agreed that the park contributed to poverty levels to the surrounding communities as well as animal crop raiding. Respondents were asked how the existence of the park contributed to poverty one old man replied *"before the park was gazzeted we used to harvest a lot of wheat, but when Uganda Wild Authority took our fertile lands and agricultural production reduced. We cannot harvest much as we used to harvest in those days. He lamented"*.

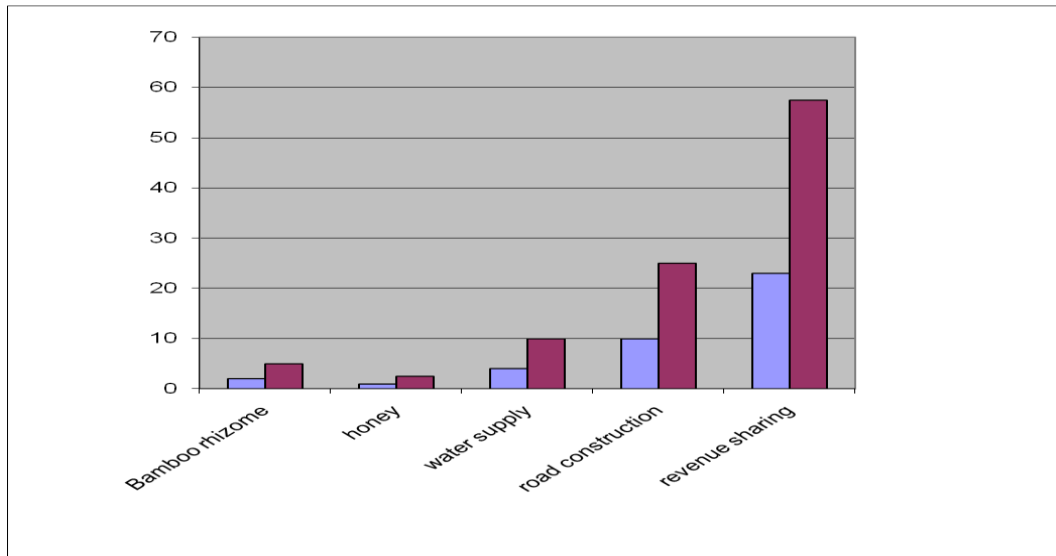
4.4 Benefits of the community participation in Mgahinga National resource management.

4.4.1 Table 3: showing the benefits of the community participation in natural resource management

Benefit	No of responses	Percentage
Mbamboo rhizome	2	5
Honey	1	2.5
Water supply	4	10
Road construction	10	25
Revenue sharing	23	57.5
Total	40	100

Source: data from the field

4.4.2 Figure 5: Showing the benefits of the community participation in natural resource management.



Findings of the study reveal that the major benefits people get as a result of being near the park is revenue sharing 57.5%. UWA has revenue sharing program stipulating that 20% of revenue gate receipts delivered from gorilla trekking visitors should be distributed into revenue sharing projects. The revenue sharing money is supporting the construction of a class room block in a primary school in each of the parishes bordering the park. In 2001 2.312million was allocated to Rurebwe primary school, ugx 0.87m to Rukongi primary school and 1.92m to Gisozi primary school.

Road construction: Study findings also indicate that surrounding communities benefit from road construction 25%. Two roads to the MGNP for example the road from Kisoro to the park entrance at Ntebeko, and a second from Kabindi to Kabiranyuma (muhavura) on Kisoro- Ntebeko road. The habilitation of these roads, made easy access and currently the Kisoro -Kabindi-Ntebeko road is under plans to be tarmac ked by the government.

Water supply: Study findings show that communities benefit from water supply 10% for instance the Mgahinga area has a seasonal rainfall, with raining periods in February-April and October-December. June -July is dry. There is no water table accessible for hand-dug wells, a part from 2 springs in Gisozi parish. Water in parishes obtained from streams draining from the park. These however, do not run through it year. In dry season it has long been necessary to collect water from swamps within the park (Rwamise, Nyagiheta and Kabiranyuma). In 1950 to 1997 an attempt was made to extract water from Kabiranyuma swamp on the ridge of Mt Muhavura using ditches / pipes to bring water to a large tank in Rukongi parish (chamahano) but the water scheme was ineffective. It fell into disrepair as maintenance declined. An important objective of the park management plan was therefore to re-establish water supplies for lower villages below the park with minimal environmental disruption.

Honey: Also study findings indicate that people benefit from honey in the park 2.5% for example Mgahinga beekeepers cooperative met on 10 January 1997 met and resolved; to place hives in three agreed spots within 500m, to identify members to supervise the hives.

Findings show that people around the park like 5% out of 40 benefit from the park the Bamboo rhizomes whereby they say that extractive use of bamboo has taken place legally from the land now within the MGNP. Bamboo cutting was unrestricted in either the Forest Reserve or the Game Reserve before 1951 (Cunningham et al. 1993). Cutting was stopped on creation of MGNP to stop 'over cutting'. Uganda National Parks (1996) proposed a programme that should include provision of bamboo rhizomes, harvesting of water from the park through a water scheme, beekeeping, harvesting of medicinal plants and collection of spear grass. A series of four extractive coupes

were designated with view to their being cut in rotation every four years. Farmers from the neighboring parishes/villages were given seven days to enter the park and collect rhizomes- these are used as bean poles, used in making granaries for storing agricultural produce, and in weaving baskets.

In conclusion, Chapter four has showed presentation, analysis and discussion of the research findings from the field in relation to the research objectives and research questions. Data was got from interviews, questionnaires and observation

CHAPTER FIVE

Summary, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

Chapter five presents the summary, the conclusion and recommendations as explained below.

5.2 Summary of the findings

5.2.1 Local community participation in the national game parks management.

Early conservation efforts supported the separation of humans from natural resources under a strict protectionist strategy code named "fortress conservation" or the fences and fences approach (Adams, M. William & Hulme 2001; Namara 2006; Wells, M. 1992). Criticisms later emerged about the disregard for human rights and wellbeing in pursuit of more protection for nature as it became clearer that protectionist approaches deprived rural people of resources they so much depended on for their livelihoods.

The main argument is that community based resource management is characterized by empowerment and control of forest resources by the community, which in turn leads to efficient, effective, equitable and sustainable forest management (Namara & Nsabagasani 2003). This however in some schools of thoughts is seen as the weakness of the discourse because in most cases traditional methods fail to define issues beyond the wildlife and its habitat. The socio-economic value of the resource is rarely known due to technical incapability. Kiss (1990) observed that wildlife management and utilization (beyond informal hunting) may require various types of knowledge, skills and capabilities which the people

do not have, and investment which they cannot make. They also may not be aware of the real value of wildlife particularly the recreational values

5.2.2 Barriers communities' faces in accessing socio-ecological resources in National Game Parks

Conservation policy typically excludes people from national parks and manages encroachment by law enforcement. However, local people continue to extract resources from protected areas by boundary encroachment. Enforcement of regulations in the Park is done by the Law Enforcement Warden and Rangers. Because of the international borders, regular patrols are done particularly to safeguard the border and prohibiting people from entering the park. Restriction of local People against access to resources Parks for example (12%) of the unsuccessful conservation of biodiversity in National Parks was attributed to restricting local people neighboring the park from accessing resources in the park. Shackleton et al (2002). Restricted access causes negative attitudes amongst local communities towards the existence of the park and resulted in some people conducting the prohibited activities illegally in the park.

5.2.3 Benefits of local community participation in the national park's social ecological resource management

The question about the perceived benefits of being close to the park generated mixed responses with half of the group agreeing that being close to the park was beneficial while the other half disagreed. The people who reported being close to the park as beneficial were those located nearest to the tourist camp because they could get additional income from working as tourist guides and also selling handcrafts. Among other benefits reported was

- Money directed by the Uganda Wildlife Authority to revenue sharing. This money is used in various development projects such as construction of classroom blocks and community water tanks.
- The road from Kisoro to the Park entrance in Gisozi Parish.
- Bamboo rhizome which is used as bean poles, used in weaving baskets, granaries for storing agricultural produce.

5.3 Conclusions

Community conservation at Mgahinga is therefore far from self-sustaining. It has achieved a remarkable job of finessing the controversial park boundaries, and buying time for the development of institutional mechanisms that can meet legitimate local economic needs and conservation goals.

On the other hand, local people recognize the park's boundaries, aims and objectives, and know the identity of all the various actors involved in community conservation Programmes. They recognize the potential economic benefits of the gorilla-related tourist industry, although also recognize that these benefits are focused on the main access road, and mostly captured by those with investments in infrastructure. Local people also recognize the value of the benefits of 'revenue sharing' in the form of investment in classrooms, and appreciate other investments (for example in the road and water schemes) and the value of the DTC agricultural advice.

5.4 Recommendations

Rangers should occasionally allow communities access some key resources that may not be found outside the protected areas like medicinal herbs, papyrus, vine for hand crafts,

fish, firewood, bamboo, beehives and water access in the dry season or drought since even UWA its self allows communities to access these resources thus extraction of firewood from the park should be socially acceptable to people.

Policies should be put in place and implemented both in theory and in practice along park boundaries that are in line with development options and illegal off-take should be monitored in order to determine if these initiatives are reducing illegal extraction while meeting the needs of the community people.

Implementation of community conservation is needed that aims at raising a awareness of the value of conservation and how communities can both participate in and benefit from it as to facilitate visits by school children and organized groups to some of the parks also in line with this low cost accommodation should be created to enable pupils spend a weekend viewing and learning about wildlife.

The Uganda Wild Life Authority should work hand in hand with government agencies **at all times in order to stop** restricted access of resources that causes negative attitudes amongst local communities towards the existence of the park and results in some people conducting the prohibited activities illegally in the park thus people should be sensitized and educated about the importance of the park so as to create in them a positive attitude towards the park.

All people should be involved in the meetings that take place not only those near the park and also all should benefit equally ecological resources because the park belongs to them not only those near it

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APPENDICES

**APPENDIX I: QUESTIONNAIRE FORM FOR THE LOCAL COMMUNITY PEOPLE
IN NYARUSIZA SUB-COUNTRY.**

Dear Respondent,

I am Nyiramucyo Juliet, a third year student in the school of arts and social sciences at Uganda Martyrs University-Nkozi. Iam kindly requesting for your help in answering the questions asked in order to help me carry out a research on how participatory approach in the management of the Mgahinga National Game Park can help in bettering access to the socio-ecological benefits. This is in partial fulfillment of the requirement for the award of the Degree in Bachelor of Ethics and Development Studies. Personal privacy and confidentiality will be respected.

Thank you all for your time and cooperation given to me please.

SECTION A: BIO DATA

Name of the respondent.....

Am requesting you to tick in the box where necessary please.

Gender:

1. Female

Male

Age:

1. 14-20

2. 21-30

3. 31-40

4. 41-50

5. above 50

• **Marital Status.**

1. Single

2. Married

3. Divorced

4. Widowed

• **Level of Education.**

1. Primary

2. Secondary

3. Tertiary

4. University

5. None

Occupation.

1. Employed

2. Unemployed

SECTION B.

Activities the local community engages in the National game park management.

- Are there activities local community is involved in the National game parks management?

1. Yes

2. No

If yes, write down any of those activities?

.....
.....
.....

Is there any punishment given to local community members who carry out illegal activities?

Yes

No

If yes what punishments are given?

.....
.....
.....
.....

List down illegal activities that community people are involved in.

.....
.....
.....
.....

SECTION C

Barriers local communities face in accessing socio-ecological resources in National Game Park.

Are there challenges communities faces in accessing the National park's resources?

Yes

No

If yes, list down those challenges you face.

.....
.....
.....
.....

Are the concerned bodies doing anything to solve these challenges?

Yes

No

If yes, give the solutions that the concerned bodies have put in place.

.....
.....
.....

If no support you answer.

.....
.....
.....

SECTION D

Benefits the local community gets from participating in National park's social ecological resource management.

Is the community benefiting from taking part in the resource management?

Yes No

If yes, explain benefits the community gets in taking park in the resource management.

.....
.....
.....
.....

Are some villages benefiting more from the National park than other villages?

Yes No

If yes, give reasons why?

.....
.....
.....

If no, support you answer.

.....
.....
.....

Below are some villages that are found in Nyarusiza sub-county, tick those ones you know that are benefiting more than the others.

Kabande

Nzogera

Mubande

Ndego

Mataba

Rukongi

**APPENDIX II: INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR THE LOCAL PEOPLE IN NYARUSIZA
SUB-COUNTY COMMUNITY.**

Dear Respondent,

I am Nyiramucyo Juliet, a third year student in the school of arts and social sciences at Uganda Martyrs University-Nkozi. I am kindly requesting for your help in answering the questions asked in order to help me carry out a research on how participatory approach in the management of the Mgahinga National Game Park can help in bettering access to the socio-ecological benefits. This is in partial fulfillment of the requirement for the award of the Degree in Bachelor of Ethics and Development Studies. Personal privacy and confidentiality will be respected.

Thank you all for your time and cooperation given to me please.

- **General information**

- **Name**

- **Occupation**

1. Do you know anything about Mgahinga National Park?

..... 2. When was it gazetted and declared as a National park?

2. What are cultural beliefs that affect socio-ecological benefits?

3. What is the attitude towards Uganda wild Life Authority when people are accessing socio-ecological benefits.

4. Are there activities communities around the park that are involved in?

5. What are some of the activities they are involved in?
6. What are the challenges communities faces around National Game Park?
7. What are concerned bodies doing to solve the challenges?
8. Are all the villages in Nyarusiza sub-county benefiting from the Park?

**APPENDIX III: OBSERVATION GUIDE FOR THE LOCAL PEOPLE IN
NYARUSIZA SUB-COUNTY COMMUNITY.**

Dear Respondent,

I am Nyiramucyo Juliet, a third year student in the school of arts and social sciences at Uganda Martyrs University-Nkozi. I am kindly requesting for your help in answering the questions asked in order to help me carry out a research on how participatory approach in the management of the Mgahinga National Game Park can help in bettering access to the socio-ecological benefits. This is in partial fulfillment of the requirement for the award of the Degree in Bachelor of Ethics and Development Studies. Personal privacy and confidentiality will be respected.

Thank you all for your time and cooperation given to me please.

- **General information**

1. Any sensitization activities.
2. Activities taking place by people around the National Game Park.
3. Cultural belief influence on people.