

Understanding Tourists in Uganda: Exploring Motivation and Characteristics of Non-
Resident Visitors to Uganda

by

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Abstract

Uganda's tourism industry is a major source of foreign exchange income, creating much-needed employment and development opportunities. This study provided an overview of motivations and characteristics of non-resident visitors to Uganda.

This exploratory research was conducted in Uganda during July and August 2011. Information obtained includes the popular activities and places visited, visitor expenditures, demographic information, motivation for visiting Uganda, and motivation for traveling and volunteering in general.

This study concluded that the majority of non-resident visitors leaving Uganda were volunteers, with a majority being religious volunteers who did not represent a sustainable tourism market within Uganda.

Data provided in this study can allow tourism stakeholders to draw conclusions on what is needed in Uganda to help the tourism sector to continue growing more sustainably and to remain competitive amongst other East African tourist destinations.

Key Terms: volunteer tourism, sustainable tourism, motivation, Uganda, non-resident visitors, Leisure Motivation Scale, religious volunteer.

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To the people of Uganda – your country and culture are of utmost beauty.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

For many developing countries that have historically relied on subsistence agriculture and small-scale industry, sustainable tourism development can be a viable option for the country's all-too-often fragile economy. Sustainable tourism can also prove to be a consistent Gross Domestic Product (GDP) earner if developed successfully. Sustainable tourism has gained increased worldwide attention since the 1980s, and along with its many components, is increasingly important to the global tourism industry (Andereck, Valentine, Knopf, & Vogt, 2007). Sustainable tourism development refers to developing the type of tourism that works to meet the needs of the present tourists and host regions while protecting and enhancing the opportunity for the future (UNWTO, 2011). Across Africa, sustainable tourism is being promoted as a means to stabilize the economies of developing countries, as tourism has been one of the only industries in the world to remain resilient despite a global recession in recent years (Chuhan-Pole, Korman, Angwafo, & Buitano, 2010).

According to the World Tourism Organization (2010), tourism ranks fourth globally as an export category, after fuels, chemicals and automotive products. For many developing countries, their tourism industry is one of the main sources of foreign exchange income, creating much-needed employment and development opportunities (UNWTO, 2010). For many African governments, economic growth and independence continue to be a central struggle, and tourism can be a valuable catalyst in decreasing the vulnerabilities to the fluctuations in export receipts and to the economic instabilities in these nations (Brown, 1998).

As many developing countries are actively pursuing tourism growth, they are typically assuming more profits are earned by attracting the tourists that can afford luxury goods and services, so the substantial and growing sector of sustainable tourism remains relatively unnoticed and poorly documented (Brown & Morrison, 2003; Scheyvens, 2002). Sustainable tourism, as a form of alternative tourism, is seen as offering results contrary to the negative and detrimental effects of mass conventional tourism, and as focusing more on the tourist experience and host benefits, rather than profit margins and luxurious offerings (Wearing, 2001). Holidaymakers who volunteer on projects around the world are considered to be engaging in volunteer tourism. It is one of the fastest growing sectors of alternative tourism and has only recently begun to receive recognition from the academic world (Broad, 2003; Brown & Morrison, 2003; Campbell & Smith, 2006; Coghlan, 2008; Guttentag, 2009; Gray & Campbell, 2007; Harlow & Pomfret, 2007; McGehee, 2002; McGehee & Santos, 2005; McIntosh & Zahra, 2007; Mustonen, 2007; Scheyvens, 2002; Simpson, 2005; Sin, 2009; Smith & Holmes, 2009; Stoddart & Rogerson, 2004; Uriely, Reichal, & Ron, 2003; Wearing, 2001).

Macro-cultural trends, such as the increasing awareness of the well-being of the environment and the growing attractiveness of the “Other” in contemporary society, may help to shape the phenomenon of volunteering in the domain of tourism. Volunteer tourism may also be the result of an increased recognition of, and reaction to, the negative impacts that are so often attributed to mass tourism (Brown & Morrison, 2003; Uriely, Reichal, & Ron, 2003). Understanding alternative tourists’ motivations and behaviours can help shape the body of knowledge of various subtypes of alternative tourism, such as volunteer tourism, and can subsequently help nations and communities

to better prepare, market and develop successful tourism products for this emerging market.

In recent years, the East African country of Uganda has seen a steady increase in the number of foreign visitors entering the country (See Figure 1) (Uganda Bureau of Statistics, 2011).

Figure 1. Total Non-resident Visitor Arrivals to Uganda

Year	Resident Arrivals	Non-Resident Arrivals	Total
2006	231,067	538,595	769,662
2007	241,487	641,743	883,230
2008	319,504	843,864	1,163,368
2009	288,176	806,658	1,094,834
2010	328,795	945,899	1,274,694

As shown in Figure 1, out of 945,899 non-resident visitor arrivals in Uganda in 2010, 58.2% visited friends and relatives, 18.5% visited for the purpose of business, 15.4% were visiting for the purpose of leisure and holidays, 7.6% were in transit and 0.4% were visiting for ‘other’ reasons (Uganda Bureau of Statistics, 2011).

Understanding who a country’s visitors are can be a crucial step in beginning to understand the various complexities of its tourism industry. In 2006, Uganda reported under 539,000 non-resident visitor arrivals, while in 2010, this number jumped to almost 946,000 non-resident visitors entering the country (UNWTO Tourism Highlights, 2010; Uganda Bureau of Statistics, 2010). Over 58% of the tourist arrivals in 2010 claimed to be visiting friends and relatives in the country while only 15% of the non-resident visitor arrivals to Uganda in 2010 reported to be visiting Uganda for the purpose of leisure and holidays. Despite the vast differences in these numbers, the Uganda Ministry of Tourism, Wildlife and Antiquities, formally the Uganda Ministry of Tourism, Trade and Industry (MTTI), still identifies leisure tourism as one of Uganda’s key services in terms of both

employment and foreign exchange earnings (Uganda Bureau of Statistics, 2010).

Currently, the Uganda Ministry of Tourism, Wildlife and Antiquities is creating a policy framework to move leisure tourism into becoming a major economic sector in Uganda, with the intention of allowing Uganda to become a more prominent international holiday and leisure destination (Lepp & Harris, 2008; MTTI, 2008). Thoroughly understanding the country's tourists through planned research is a logical step in better classifying the tourists. When tourists are better classified and their activities while in a country are better understood, a policy framework that works towards developing a successful tourism industry can be created. This process will ensure that both a country's tourism objectives and the tourists' demands are met.

Research on leisure travel has received a great deal of attention in the academic world from a variety of disciplines, as well as in many different contexts. Leisure travel motivation is a significant area of leisure travel research and has been effective in developing an understanding of various kinds of travelers across various travel situations, as well as in developing and assessing various tools to measure leisure travel motivation (Anderson & Shaw, 1999; Bansal & Eishelt, 2004; Beard & Ragheb, 1983; Brown, 2005, Crandall, 1980; Crompton, 1979; Dann, 1981; Henderson, 1981; Ooi & Laing, 2010; Rehberg, 2005; Ryan & Glendon, 1998). Understanding leisure travel motivation can be a critical step in understanding the types of tourists who are attracted to a particular destination, the experiences that they are seeking, and how best to satisfy their needs from a marketing and industry perspective.

Research on various types of alternative tourism has gained significant academic interest, yet research on volunteer tourism has only recently begun to appear in academic

literature. Often a fusion of research on volunteerism and tourism, this area of research explores the motivations of volunteer tourists, it aims to grasp an understanding of this form of alternative tourism, and it studies the effects on the nations receiving this form of aid and service (Brown & Morrison, 2003; Campbell & Smith, 2006; Coghlan, 2008; Gray & Campbell, 2007; Harlow & Pomfret, 2007; McGehee & Santos, 2005; McIntosh & Zahra, 2007; Mustonen, 2007; Scheyvens, 2002; Simpson, 2004; Sin, 2009; Smith & Holmes, 2009; Stoddart & Rogerson, 2004; Uriely, Reichal, & Ron, 2003; Zahra & McIntosh, 2007).

Uganda possesses a wealth of tourism opportunities that could be expanded from the current state, subsequently increasing the country's GDP. Currently, Uganda is one of the poorest countries in the world, with approximately 50% of the government budget being funded by foreign aid (Briggs & Roberts, 2010; Mwenda, 2006). Uganda relies on an influx of bilateral aid from many countries, along with material donations and volunteers via non-governmental and faith-based organizations from around the world (Mwenda, 2006). Many volunteers that travel to Uganda find themselves helping with the construction of homes, schools, and churches, and assisting in the care and education of many orphans and those who are ill (Wearing, 2001). With so many volunteers traveling to Uganda each year, it is crucial to understand their motivations for traveling to, and volunteering in, Uganda, along with their visitor behaviour and their objectives, as these can surely affect the dynamics of Uganda's tourism industry.

Currently, the only data collected on non-resident visitor arrivals by the Uganda Bureau of Statistics is that reported on the Arrival Declaration Card, which asks the purpose of travel to Uganda: Leisure, Recreation and Holidays; Business and Conference;

Visiting Friends and Relatives; and Other (Uganda Bureau of Statistics, 2010). Of the 946 000 tourists who traveled to Uganda in 2010, only 15% stated that their reason for visiting the country was for leisure/recreation/holidays, begging the question of whether non-resident visitors to Uganda appeared to have alternative goals that could include volunteering and volunteer tourism activities.

If non-resident volunteers compose the majority of Uganda's current tourism sector, this raises questions about how they are utilizing tourism products and services within the country. Investments in various sustainable tourism initiatives may miss their intended targets completely if visitors to a country are not utilizing those investments in the manners intended. If a developing country such as Uganda discovers that more alternative tourists, such as volunteer tourists, are visiting the country than traditional holidaymakers, the country must thoroughly understand the implications of an alternative tourism industry and market their tourism products more effectively.

The overall aim of this study, therefore, is to identify the motivations of non-resident visitors to Uganda, to determine if there are differing motivations between leisure tourists and volunteer tourists who visit the country and, furthermore, to assess any behavioural differences that may exist (as measured in the tourists' activities undertaken while in Uganda). Information regarding the motivations and activities of non-resident visitors to Uganda will help the Uganda Ministry of Tourism, Wildlife and Antiquities, the Uganda Tourism Board, and other stakeholders, to reach their goals of making tourism one of the major economic sectors in the country, creating more employment opportunities, increasing foreign exchange, and increasing infrastructure and rural development. This study will also fill a gap in the academic knowledge surrounding

alternative tourism, mainly volunteer tourism, and this exploratory research will help serve as a necessary foundation for future research in this area.

Chapter 2: Background

This chapter highlights important definitions and outlines the background to the research. Various conceptual and theoretical frameworks are analyzed and travel, leisure, and volunteer motivation are all discussed in depth. Examining the concepts of sustainable tourism development in developing countries and of volunteer tourism allows both the reader and researcher to reach a common understanding of the various types of tourism that are currently evident in Uganda. Finally, having a solid understanding of the current tourism industry in Uganda and how the nation's history has helped to shape this industry is crucial for conducting research well on any facet of tourism in Uganda.

Definitions of Key Terms

Throughout this proposal, there are a number of key terms used. The following definitions will ensure that a common understanding is reached amongst all readers.

Sustainable tourism is defined as the type of tourism that works to “meet the needs of the present tourists and its host regions while protecting and enhancing the opportunity for the future” (UNWTO, 2011). Sustainable tourism aims to manage all resources in such a way that economic, aesthetic, and social needs can be met, while maintaining cultural integrity, essential ecological processes, life support systems and biological diversity (UNWTO, 2011). The development of sustainable tourism is sought in many developing countries that are rich in history, culture, wildlife and topographical features often unique only to that region. Uganda has a specific focus on developing tourism that allows for community development and the sustainable conservation and use of the environment (Lepp, 2007, 2008; MTTI, 2008).

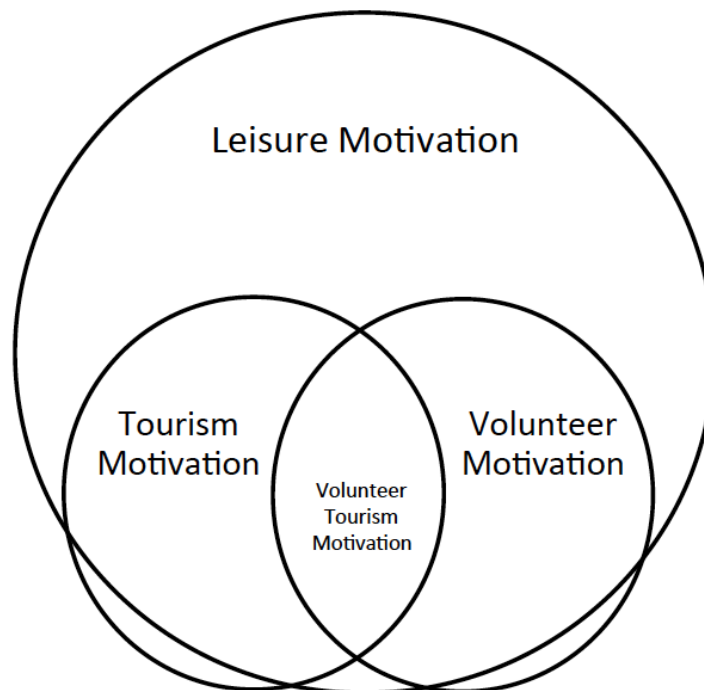
The World Tourism Organization (1995) defines a **tourist** as one who “travels to and stays in places outside their usual environment for more than twenty-four (24) hours and not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes not related to the exercise of an activity remunerated from within the place visited” (p. 14). Tourists can be package holiday tourists, backpackers, business travelers, people visiting friends and relatives, and also those traveling for health or religious reasons (MTTI, 2008). From here on, any non-resident visitor to Uganda in the country for the aforementioned reasons will be referred to as a **tourist**, as opposed to a non-resident visitor.

A **volunteer tourist** is classified as any “tourist who, for various reasons, volunteers in an organized way and undertakes holidays that might involve aiding or alleviating the material poverty of some groups in society, the restoration of certain environments or research into aspects of society or environment” (Wearing, 2001, p. 1). From here on, any non-resident visitor who undertakes any volunteer activity while in the country will be referred to as a **volunteer**.

A general definition of **motive** refers to something, such as a need, goal, or desire, that causes a person to act, and these are regarded as the driving forces behind all behaviour (Fodness, 1994). Within the basic theories of motivation, **motivation** is described as a dynamic process of internal psychological factors, including needs, wants and goals, that generate a level of tension within individuals’ minds and bodies, resulting in actions taken to release these tensions, therefore satisfying needs (Fodness, 1994).

Within this chapter, leisure, tourism and volunteer motivation will be discussed, referring to the various forms of motivation that influence people towards certain actions and preferences in all three of these fields. There are commonalities found throughout these three types of motivation, likely due to their foundation on leisure motivations (Anderson & Shaw, 1999; Bansal & Eiselt, 2004; Beard & Ragheb, 1983; Brown, 2005; Chen & Chen, 2011; Crandell, 1980; Crompton, 1979; Dann, 1981; Henderson, 1981; Lo & Lee, 2010; Ooi & Laing, 2010; Pearce & Lee, 2005; Rehberg, 2005; Ryan & Glendon, 1998; Yeung, 2004). The following diagram (Figure 2) describes the relationship between leisure, tourism and volunteer motivations as described in the aforementioned sources. It allows the complexities of volunteer tourism motivations to be visualized as a combination of all three types of motivations.

Figure 2. Interconnected Relationship between Leisure, Tourism, Volunteer and Volunteer Tourism Motivation



Leisure Motivation

The study of leisure motivation is important both for theoretical developments in leisure, as well as for practical service delivery (Crandall, 1980). In Crandall's (1980) exploratory study to attempt to identify the major motivations for leisure, 17 motivational categories and 33 related items were discovered, ranging from an "escape from mundane activity and boredom" all the way to altruism, the act of helping others.

Building upon previous leisure motivation studies and developments, Beard and Ragheb (1983) constructed the Leisure Motivation Scale (LMS), focusing on four subscales of leisure motivation: intellectual, social, competence-mastery, and stimulus avoidance. The intellectual component of the subscale includes 12 mental activities such as learning, exploring and discovering; and it assesses the extent to which individuals are motivated to engage in leisure activities as a result of these motivations (Beard & Ragheb, 1983). The social component consists of two motivations: the need for friendship and interpersonal relationships, along with the need for the esteem of others and includes 12 items such as building friendships, interacting with others, to be socially competent and skilful and to gain respect (Beard & Ragheb, 1983). Beard and Ragheb (1983) labeled the activities that are usually physical in nature as competence-mastery motivations; they assess the extent to which individuals are motivated to engage in these activities in order to achieve, master, challenge and compete. Lastly, the need for some individuals to avoid social contacts and to seek solitude and calm conditions, or to seek rest and unwind, is referred to by Beard & Ragheb (1983) as the stimulus-avoidance component of leisure motivation and include items such as relaxing mentally and physically, resting and avoiding the hustle and bustle of daily life.

Subsequent studies were able to reduce the number of leisure motivations from Beard and Ragheb's (1983) Leisure Motivation Scale, and Ryan and Glendon applied these motivations directly to tourists in 1998. In this study, Ryan and Glendon (1998) employed the use of the four subscales to propose the types of leisure travelers. Although this study did not evaluate the level of satisfaction after participation or examine the interactions amongst these motives, it is still considered a rigorous scale and has been shown to be reliable (Mannell & Iso-Ahola, 1987; Pearce & Lee, 2005; Ryan & Glendon, 1998).

A major strength of the Leisure Motivation Scale is that it studies leisure motivation in a general sense. This is important in the study of tourist motivation as it can be applied to a variety of leisure activities undertaken while on holidays and may offer greater insight into various types of travel, like that of volunteer tourism (Beard & Ragheb, 1983; Brown, 2005).

Leisure Travel Motivation

The study of leisure travel motivation is of primary importance to most tourism scholars since it offers insights into describing, explaining and predicting the motivations for pleasure travel (Snepenger, King, Marshall, & Uysal, 2006). The extensive amount of literature on leisure travel motivation provides a solid theoretical background for studying various aspects of tourism, such as the volunteer vacation phenomenon.

Dann (1981, p. 211) states that tourism motivation is "a meaningful state of mind which adequately disposes an actor or group of actors to travel, and which is subsequently interpretable by others as a valid explanation for such a decision." In a

broad sense, leisure travel motivations can be extremely complex across a variety of situations. Different activities can meet different needs for different people at different times, but it is possible to find substantial commonality in motivations, allowing us to make generalized assumptions on the reasons why tourists behave as they do (Crandall, 1980).

Foundational works by Dann (1977), Crompton (1979) and Iso-Ahola (1980, 1982) offer the results of much of the work done on tourism motivation and have served as the theoretical backbone of many tourism studies throughout the years. They continue to serve as the theoretical underpinning of many current studies. One of the predominant paradigms for formulating and testing motivations within the leisure context has been that of the push-pull theory (Crompton, 1979; Dann, 1977, 1981; Iso-Ahola, 1980; Snepenger et al., 2006). The push-pull theory operates on the premise that a person is pushed to participate in certain activities due to internal imbalances and the need to seek an optimal level of arousal, as well as due to being pulled by the offerings of a specific destination (Crompton, 1979). The pull motivations are thought to be specific to a destination and are those that attract the tourist to a particular destination, while push motivations are thought to be more general and have the possibility of being fulfilled by a variety of different activities, which ultimately cause the individual to leave the current situation. Examples of push motivations are the need to escape and the feelings of boredom (Crompton, 1979; Dann, 1977; Iso-Ahola, 1990).

Dann's (1977) study on the anomie and opportunities for ego-enhancement offers the view that travel is compensatory; the anomie is identified as the push factor and ego-enhancement as the pull factor. Anomie is seen as social instability resulting from a

breakdown of standards and values and can drive individuals to escape the feelings of isolation in such activities as those associated with one's job (commuting, time spent at work) and other various activities that may interfere with the interactions with family and friends (Dann, 1977). People have the desire to escape the routines of daily life, resulting in the push motivation.

The pull factors, or ego-enhancement motivations according to Dann (1977), relate to the need for recognition, and can be enhanced by things such as socio-economic status and activities such as leisure travel. Leisure travel can enhance the ego in different ways, such as when one takes a trip to a less-developed country; travelers may feel superior to the host community (Dann, 1977). Dann (1977) found push factors to be antecedent to pull factors as it was thought that people must be motivated to travel before they are motivated to select certain destinations (Snepenger et al., 2006).

In Crompton's study of tourism motivations (1979), seven socio-psychological push motives and two cultural pull motives were found to be consistent amongst thirty-nine individuals. Crompton's study dismissed the previous assumptions that destination-specific motives were the only pull factors, but that general, non-destination-specific motives are also major driving forces in a person's selection of when and where to travel (Crompton, 1979). Crompton (1979) suggests that cultural motives are aroused by the destination, and not from within the individual, and refer to the desire to see new places or to do things in a different environment. It was also suggested that for some people, the destination is not always an important factor; as long as one's socio-psychological needs can be met, wherever that may be possible (Crompton, 1979).

The seven socio-psychological motives identified by Crompton (1979) were: escape from a perceived mundane environment, exploration and evaluation of self, relaxation, prestige, regression, enhancement of or escape from kinship relationships, and facilitation of social interaction. The two cultural motives discovered were novelty and education (Crompton, 1979). Crompton's (1979) research differed from previous works in that it did not accept that the cultural motives were the explanatory factors as to why people traveled. Instead, Crompton (1979) suggested that the socio-psychological motives are useful in not only explaining the initial "push" to take a vacation, but they also may have the directive potential to "push" the tourist towards a particular destination (Snepenger et al., 2006). With the importance of the socio-psychological motives established, subsequent research followed that focused primarily on these "push" motives.

In 1982, Iso-Ahola proposed a social psychological theory of tourism motivation that, instead of using push and pull motivational factors, identified seeking and escaping as the descriptors of the motivations. Seeking refers to the interpersonal and personal rewards, while escaping refers to the interpersonal and personal environments (Iso-Ahola, 1982). In this four-dimensional theory, personal seeking, personal escaping, interpersonal seeking, and interpersonal escaping can all be experienced individually, simultaneously, or in any combination thereof (Iso-Ahola, 1982). Iso-Ahola's (1982) theory of tourism motivation emphasized the importance of recognizing that motivations are not isolated, but rather, they are interrelated and often co-dependent upon one another.

In 1981, Dann re-appraised tourist motivation, suggesting researchers balance their research with alternative views:

Having looked at the varieties of meaning and approaches to the study of tourist motivation, it should be recognized that the sheer complexity of the field makes firm conclusions extremely difficult...too often researchers in the area of tourism take a unilateral stance in defense of their own theories and methods without displaying a balanced appreciation of alternative hypotheses and procedures. (p. 211)

With tourism scholars exploring types of alternative tourism, considering only the leisure travel motivation would not represent a balanced approach and, as such, it is important to take into account the other approaches, such as volunteer motivation and volunteer tourism motivation. Moreover, recognizing that tourism is multi-dimensional, labeling all forms of vacation travel as “leisure” is questionable given the variable nature of the activities undertaken while on holidays, let alone limiting tourism research to only the theories developed upon leisure and leisure travel experiences.

Volunteerism, Volunteer Tourism and Associated Motivations

For most people, leisure means escaping our obligations for a period of time, escaping work and experiencing “non-work.” But what happens when one person’s leisure would be another’s work? Does this activity remain leisure or must we re-evaluate the definitions once more to ascertain whether there may be weaknesses within leisure theory and whether the logical connections may not always be clear (Henderson, Presley, & Bialeschki, 2004)? We must look beyond the obvious work and non-work dichotomy and realize that leisure remains an individually conceived notion.

One of the easiest ways to begin to understand why people may want to volunteer their time while on vacation would be to begin to understand why people are motivated to volunteer in the first place, whether at home or abroad. It has been noted that all over the world, people give their time and effort out of concern for others that are in greater need

than them and that volunteers take part in activities of their own choosing, for no remuneration (Uny, 2008). Quite often, the decision to volunteer can be an important and life-changing commitment for individuals (Fisher & Ackerman, 1998). Most literature relating to leisure and volunteering support the fact that volunteerism and leisure can help to fulfill such needs as self-esteem, self-actualization, and belonging, all while allowing for freedom of choice, civic engagement and local-level action to occur (Arai & Pedlar, 2003; Henderson, 1981; Wearing, 2001). The motivations to engage in volunteer tourism may help people meet all of these needs.

Many theories of motivation relating to volunteerism come from the theories of why people work and indicate that the reasons one volunteers are never completely altruistic or selfish. Rather, the theories focus on the statement that one will volunteer when primary interests, obligations and needs are met comfortably (Henderson, 1981). In the previous discussions of leisure travel motivations, many initial theories were not developed specifically for tourism, but were borrowed from other disciplines such as psychology, sociology and anthropology, amongst others. This point needs to be reiterated, taking into consideration that the last two decades of the 20th century should be remembered as the period when a number of social science disciplines developed their engagements with post-structural theory and experienced what has come to be known as the “cultural turn” – with leisure research being no exception (Aitchison, 2006). Early theories of motivation tended to view humans as reactive organisms that obeyed their internal and external forces, such as needs (Yeung, 2004).

Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs is one such theory of motivation that has made valuable contributions to both the social and psychological research worlds. Maslow’s

theory consists of five basic needs levels, forming a hierarchy (Mills, 1985). The first level of the hierarchy is physiological needs, consisting of the basic necessities of life (food, water, shelter, etc.). Once these needs have been met for an individual, the next level of the hierarchy is safety needs: a need for security and protection (Mills, 1985). The need for love and belonging represents the third level of the hierarchy, and the fourth level is termed “esteem needs,” which produce feelings of self-confidence, strength, worth and capability (Mills, 1985). Once all lower levels have been satisfied, Maslow’s theory claims that the fifth level, “self-actualization,” will be activated (Mills, 1985). Self-actualization can be defined as the desire to become what one has the potential of becoming and can include strongly emotional “peak experiences” (Mills, 1985). When someone meets the fourth level of Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs, they may be motivated to seek these “peak experiences” and search for opportunities, such as volunteering, where these strongly emotional experiences can evolve.

Another point that can help to explain why people may be motivated to volunteer is the conclusion that volunteerism is not specific to only a certain demographic of society, but includes people of various ages, ethnicities, religions, and socio-economic statuses, as indicated in studies by MacNeela (2008), Marta, Guglielmetti, and Pozzi (2006), Okun and Schultz (2003), Omoto and Snyder (1995), and Uny (2008).

Much research on volunteerism has focused solely on adult and elderly volunteers and has failed to recognize the emerging population of youth volunteers (Marta, Guglielmetti, & Pozzi, 2006). Wearing (2001) stresses that youth engaging in volunteer tourism in developing countries are experiencing an alternative form of leisure beyond those available in developed countries. This form of leisure allows youth to explore new

cultural paradigms and to create new identities that incorporate the community and natural environments visited. Youth volunteers are often motivated by alternative and additional factors as compared to those that typically motivate older persons, including helping the environment, learning, career opportunities and skill development (Bruyere & Rappe, 2007; Rehberg, 2005). Older volunteers focus less on environmental-focused, career-related, learning and skill development motivations, and shift to increased social motives for volunteering (Marta, Guglielmetti, & Pozzi, 2006). Henderson's (1981) study on volunteerism as a leisure activity concluded that volunteerism can have the qualities of a leisure or recreational experience, and when it is such an experience, volunteers will continue to be motivated.

In a study that looked at the motivations of young adults to volunteer internationally, Rehberg (2005) found that over half of all respondents had a relative or friend who already had experience in international volunteering or international cooperation. The recent growth in internationally volunteering has been matched by the increase in research dedicated to studying volunteer tourism (Bailey & Russell, 2010; Broad, 2003; Brown, 2005; Bruyere & Rapp, 2007; Chen & Chen, 2011; Lo & Lee, 2010; McGehee & Santos, 2005; Mustonen, 2007; Ooi & Laing, 2010; Rehberg, 2005; Sin, 2009; Wearing, 2001).

However, volunteer tourism can still be a difficult concept to understand when it is composed of different actions such as traveling and working for no remuneration or to help others. Traveling is understood as a form of leisure, while work can be quite the opposite, and then there is the notion of helping through volunteering, which is viewed as altruistic and aiming to reach a human good (Wearing, 2001). No matter how we choose

to examine leisure, even within the context of our own lives, little debate remains over the fact that leisure means being “free” and having discretion over what you do, and that most people identify travel as a leisurely experience (Iso-Ahola, 1980; Moore, Cushman, & Simmons, 1995). With travel commonly being considered a form of leisure and often regarded as a leisurely activity, travel can also be seen as a “sacred quest,” an activity where one searches for spiritual direction and personal meaning.

Volunteer tourists have been known to spend a substantial amount of discretionary time and income on volunteer vacations, yet little literature explores the motivations of such tourists (Bruyere & Rappe, 2007). Assuming that the major facilitators of travel are the same as those responsible for patterns and participation in other forms of leisure, it may also be concluded that vacations allow for the nurture and cultivation of human identity (Wearing, 2001). Understanding that volunteerism involves the satisfaction of altruism, social contact, personal interests, and emotional needs, it becomes evident that a volunteer vacation may satisfy many more needs than initially imagined (Yeung, 2004).

When examining Crompton’s (1979) motives for travel, Moore, Cushman and Simmons (1995) state that the motives for travel are very similar to the factors that influence participation in other forms of leisure, including volunteering as a leisure activity. Wearing’s (2001) research has also concluded that volunteer tourism can share many similar motivations to those of leisure travel: adventure, personal growth, cultural exchange and learning, and professional development. However, one pair of motivations discovered by Wearing (2001) that seems to differ from leisure motivations is altruistic motivations (unselfishly motivated by the concern for, or devoted to, the welfare of

others) and egoistical motivations (motivations concerned with the gratification of one's own desires).

Brown and Morrison's (2003) practical exploratory research on volunteer vacationers allowed for a subsequent classification of volunteer tourists based on their motive bases (Brown, 2005). Brown (2005) divulged that volunteer tourists are either "vacation-minded" or "volunteer-minded," bridging the altruistic motives of volunteering with general commoditized tourism experiences, to varying degrees. Volunteer-minded individuals devote most or all of their vacation time to volunteer activities at the destination and keep volunteerism as the central notion for them, while vacation-minded individuals spend only a small portion of their vacation time engaged in volunteer work at the destination (Brown, 2005; Mustonen, 2007).

Building on previous research, Mustonen (2007) was able to use Brown's (2005) motive bases and data from a previous study on the altruistic motivations of volunteer tourism to develop a model of tourists' motives (Mustonen, 2007). Recognizing that individuals' motivations may be well connected to more than one of the dimensions, it can still decipher between volunteer-minded and vacation-minded volunteer tourists (Mustonen, 2007). The model consists of four cells, and volunteer tourists that fall into the second cell possess mainly motivations that are egoistic in nature and volunteering is seen as merely an activity to gain status or prestige, while for altruistic volunteers (in the third cell), they are still considered consumers, but their volunteer-minded vacation could signify that they share in more altruistic motivations (Mustonen, 2007). However, egoism can be the driving force behind seemingly altruistic behaviour if the egoistic needs of

some volunteer-minded volunteer tourists are better met by immersing oneself in longer and more intense volunteer activity.

More recently, Ooi and Laing (2010) investigated the overlap between backpacker tourism and volunteer tourism and developed a useful set of 31 motivations for volunteer tourism participation. Defining 'backpacker tourism' can be diverse and complicated, with definitions relying on the choice of accommodation (budget, hostel, etc.) or being as complex as including young travellers seeking an alternative tourism experience that includes an informal itinerary, meeting new people and engaging in a range of activities (Ooi & Laing, 2010). For simplicity sake, Ooi and Laing (2010) chose the definition of a backpacker to be a tourist that spends one or more nights in a hostel or other budget 'backpacker' accommodation.

Building upon previous leisure and tourism motivation research, this study concluded that a majority of backpacker tourists shared the motivation to participate in volunteer tourism, indicating that backpackers, along with other alternative tourists, could be forming a new and increasingly sustainable market niche (Ooi & Laing, 2010). Ooi and Laing's (2010) proposal for the inclusion of volunteer tourism within other alternative tourism experiences suggests that a level of sustainability may be facilitated through the process of assisting the local communities and people upon which backpacking tourism, and other forms of alternative tourism, strongly rely upon, while at the same time providing authentic and meaningful experiences for the individual tourist.

When both travel and volunteerism are brought together, people may experience the ultimate satisfaction of their needs to help, explore and evaluate, leading to feelings of

personal satisfaction and self-actualization. In today's society, it is apparent that our help, whether it is in the form of charitable donations or the volunteering of our time, is needed nearly everywhere, even within the most developed countries. Our contributions not only help others but also may help ourselves just as much. Combining the altruistic and egoistic motivations of volunteerism with the desire to explore in travel seems to make a successful pair, but before any serious conclusions can be drawn about the sustainability of a market niche, much more research is needed.

Sustainable Tourism Development

Studies of sustainable tourism, the type of tourism that “meets the needs of the present tourists and host regions while protecting and enhancing the opportunity for the future” (UNWTO, 2011), have resulted in an established and significant discourse within tourism studies. Sustainable tourism is “envisaged as leading to the management of all resources in such a way that economic, social and aesthetic needs can be fulfilled, while maintaining cultural integrity, essential ecological processes, biological diversity and life support systems” (UNWTO, 2011).

When a country can develop sustainable tourism initiatives, they can be a dependable source of growth and export earnings where few other development options exist (Pro-Poor Tourism, 2004). Like many countries in the developing world, Uganda has a rapidly growing population that puts its biodiversity at risk (Lepp & Holland, 2006). Sustainable tourism can be a critical element in helping to alleviate poverty in developing countries and, with careful planning, tourism can be one of only a few industries in which many developing countries may actually have a comparative

advantage over more developed countries in terms of wildlife, climate, cultural heritage, and unique topographical areas (Kamamba, 2003; Sempebwa, 2008).

Developing wildlife can be a commercially viable land-use option to improve local residents' livelihoods, and educating them about this option can be a critical step to further developing sustainable tourism, as well as a step towards slowing environmental degradation (Mwima, 2005). Wildlife resources constitute important economic, social and cultural resources of a country and, when combined with great landscapes and cultures, a competitive sustainable tourism industry can emerge, whose economic contributions can have a significant impact on the entire nation (Hachileka, 2005). Sustainable tourism bridges the gap between economic development and environmental preservation and can influence many other forms of economic independence as the revenues from conservation and ecotourism development can move to different sectors of the economy (Mwagona & Okech, 2006; Scorse, 2007).

Volunteer Tourism as a Component of Sustainable Tourism

Often regarded as a component of sustainable tourism, volunteer tourism aims to provide services and products to tourists without requiring large amounts of start-up capital or sophisticated infrastructure, and most often, these are precisely the services and products most desired by alternative tourists since they offer them a more authentic and cultural experience (Scheyvens, 2002).

As a relatively new form of tourism in terms of research and academic literature, volunteer tourism can be considered a form of alternative tourism that “makes use of holiday-makers who volunteer to fund and work on social or conservation projects

around the world and aims to provide sustainable alternative travel that can assist in community development, scientific research or ecological restoration” (Wearing, 2001, p. 217). Additionally, volunteer tourism also encompasses those volunteers who engage in some holidaymaking and leisure travel experiences when volunteering in a tourism destination (Brown, 2003; McGehee, 2002; Simpson 2004, 2005; Stoddart & Rogerson, 2004).

One of the main objectives of both sustainable tourism and volunteer tourism is to empower local communities and let community members play an active part in the development of tourism within their community (Lepp, 2007, Wearing, 2001). Empowering local people and reducing leakage, and therefore keeping more tourism revenue in local hands, are the main objectives for developing sustainable tourism (Campbell, MacKay, & Dranzoa, 2011; Lepp, 2007; Mowforth & Munt, 2003). Volunteer tourism contributes to fulfilling more of these objectives by having tourists help communities to accomplish a development goal, and thereby providing even greater sustainability and stability within the community. Differing from the profit ethos of mainstream tourism, volunteer tourism focuses on what the tourist can put into the host community rather than how much profit can be made from these tourists (Coghlan, 2007).

In today’s fast-paced, technologically advanced and globalized world, people of the more developed world feel the need to escape, with travel often being a satisfying means to achieve it. Brown (2005) suggests that individuals are using travel, especially experiences with a strong spiritual notion, as a means to improve their lives at home, instead of merely to try to escape from them. Although luxurious vacations to exotic

destinations remain popular, volunteer tourism as an alternative form of tourism is quickly gaining pace, with over 4.7 million American volunteer tourists recorded in 2007 alone (CNCS, 2008). Volunteering while on vacation is gaining immense popularity and it is crucial to examine this form of tourism to better understand its implications for the countries that receive volunteer tourists and how it may affect their tourism industry.

The notion of tourism itself has changed dramatically throughout history. While it is now a fairly accessible activity for most people in developed countries, travel was once seen as an activity only for the privileged. In the time of the Middle Ages, when there were Christian pilgrimages, travel was seen as dangerous and uncomfortable, but this eventually changed to traveling for the purpose of education and social status, which in turn, began to give way to reasons of sight-seeing and pleasure (Wearing, 2001).

Pilgrimage, as a form of traditional religious or modern secular journey, is not the most dominant type of travel in the West as it once was in the Middle Ages, but has been experiencing resurgence throughout the world in more recent years (Collins-Kreiner, 2010).

As early as the sixteenth century, tramping became a popular, well-institutionalized travel pattern for working-class youth (Adler, 1985). Tramping, which is commonly associated with the search for employment, always involved touristic components, and vagabonds were not only motivated to travel in the search of work but also shared in the desire for sightseeing and adventure (Adler, 1985).

For the individual wanting to enter a higher educational institution after the completion of secondary school, a gap year can offer the opportunity to enhance one's

access to both social spaces and employment (Simpson, 2005). A gap year can be categorized as time spent abroad, quite possibly within a developing country, where the student offers various volunteer services in exchange for cultural immersion, sightseeing and travel opportunities. Simpson (2005) states that a person risks cultural impoverishment if they go to university without having obtained any capital from Third World travel, therefore establishing the need for the gap year. If practiced correctly, Simpson (2004) feels that a gap year can be a positive experience for both the traveler and the host communities visited, but caution must be taken so that the gap-year industry does not promote images of a “Third World Other” and where the public face of development can be dominated by the value of Western “good intentions.”

Aside from students experiencing a gap year, in today’s global tourism industry, people are looking for more unique experiences and chances to interact with different cultures, to explore different ways of life, and ultimately, to help others through offering to volunteer their time and services while on vacation. Similar to the notion that only a small percentage of the world’s population wants to, and can afford to, engage in sustainable tourism, volunteering is also an activity undertaken by a minority of the world’s population, even though it includes various demographics (McGehee, 2002; Omoto & Snyder, 1995). Conclusions have been drawn that volunteer service can be motivated by underlying values that dictate that one should make humanitarian contributions to society, that such unremunerated activity serves the function of satisfying volunteers’ intellectual curiosity about other people and their problems, and that it provides people with opportunities to make friends and to develop social ties through

their work (Omoto & Snyder, 1995). While on vacation, there is no better chance to satisfy these values than through volunteering.

The concept of volunteer tourism may reach as far back as the mid-20th century, when volunteers traveled abroad with such organizations as the Canadian University Service Overseas-Voluntary Service Overseas (CUSO-VSO) (McGehee & Santos, 2005). Only within the last ten to fifteen years has volunteer tourism expanded into the mainstream tourism marketplace, with both not-for-profit and for-profit organizations creating and marketing volunteer tourism opportunities in more countries and sectors than ever before (McGehee & Santos, 2005).

To better understand the rather complex image of volunteer tourism, one must first understand the type of person that partakes in volunteer tourism. As broad as the definition of volunteer tourism is, so can be the definition of a volunteer tourist. Simply put, volunteer tourists are “persons seeking a tourist experience that is mutually beneficial, that will contribute not only to their individual development but also positively and directly to the social, natural and economic context in which they are involved” (Wearing, 2001, p. 214).

Although volunteer tourism remains popular in terms of the gap year amongst young adults, volunteer tourism seems to reach a variety of demographics, which makes it even more difficult to pinpoint just what it is that makes people want to devote their time and efforts to “work” while on a holiday. Understanding volunteer tourist motivations is a logical step in deciphering the many reasons for tourists to choose a volunteer tourism experience as their next holiday.

Tourism in Uganda

The East African country of Uganda is situated on the Equator, surrounded by Sudan to the north, the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC) to the west, Kenya to the east, Rwanda in the southeast, and Tanzania in the south.

With over 80% of the country's population relying on subsistence agriculture, Uganda remains one of the poorest countries in the world (Lepp, 2007; UNWTO, 2010). Historically similar to many African countries, missionaries came to Uganda during the 19th century promoting Christianity, which has resulted in over 85% of the current population being Christian (Briggs & Roberts, 2010). With such a high Christian population, Uganda has received many visitors, volunteers and assistance from Christian organizations and communities attempting to relieve the many stresses and burdens of poverty on Ugandan citizens.

From its independence in 1962, Uganda has inherited an economy based on tourism, subsistence agriculture and cash crops, with exports being centered on coffee and tea. In the year 2001, tourism in Uganda ranked as the top service sector, bringing in \$115 million USD compared to the second largest earner, coffee, which only brought in \$107 million USD (MTTI, 2008). Low levels of industrial development, combined with high population growth, only enhance the multidimensional stress of poverty, which can lead to higher rates of disease, illiteracy, environmental degradation and infant mortality, amongst other implications (Mwagona & Okech, 2006). However, when a country begins to rely on tourism as a major economic force, tourism often becomes one of the only viable sources of growth and export as there seem to be few other economic development

options. Tourism also has the power to play a significant role in areas of a country where other commercial activities are limited (MTTI, 2008).

Uganda was seen as the premier tourist destination in Eastern Africa in the 1960s, and was coined the “Pearl of Africa” by Winston Churchill due to its magnificent landscape diversity and the rich beauty evident in its land, wildlife and people (Churchill, 2010). During nationwide turmoil in the 1970s and 1980s, Uganda’s tourism industry collapsed and practically became non-existent (Lepp, 2007; MTTI, 2008). During the Idi Amin regime from 1971 to 1979 and the subsequent Milton Obote years from 1980 to 1985, over 400 000 people are estimated to have been killed due to warfare and the abuse of human rights (Briggs & Roberts, 2010; Quinn, 2009). With political instability and civil war raging throughout the country, much of Uganda’s tourism infrastructure was looted and destroyed, and wildlife was hunted virtually to extirpation in many of the nation’s protected areas (Lepp, 2007; MTTI, 2008).

Since 1986, Uganda has been under the presidency of Yoweri Museveni, and during this period, relative stability has returned to the country (Quinn, 2009; Uganda Tourism Board, 2011). Uganda has experienced the rebuilding and expansion of communication, road and other vital infrastructures, which in turn, have revitalized its tourism industry (Uganda Tourism Board, 2011). Since 2008, there has been a significant reduction of the Lord’s Resistance Army’s activities in Northern Uganda, making the country much safer for travelers (Quinn, 2009). Proof of the revitalization of Uganda’s tourism industry can be found in the corresponding increase in international visitor arrivals and increasing attendance of national parks and protected areas (MTTI, 2008; Uganda Tourism Board, 2011).

Rich in biodiversity, Uganda houses 11% of the world's bird species and more than half of the world's endangered mountain gorillas, but Uganda's biodiversity is threatened by deforestation, population growth and human encroachment, along with poaching and poor agricultural practices (Duraiappah, Roy, & Wong, 2005). With 80% of its population dependent on subsistence agriculture, there is much competition between livestock, wildlife and crop cultivation (MTTI, 2008; Wearing, 2001). The mountain gorillas of Uganda form the cornerstone of the nation's leisure tourism industry, and that tourism revenue is integral to the survival of the mountain gorilla, just as the survival of the mountain gorilla is integral to the growth of Uganda's sustainable tourism industry (Briggs & Roberts, 2010).

The Uganda Ministry of Tourism, Wildlife and Antiquities and the Uganda Tourism Board, along with many other tourism stakeholders, have worked hard to make Uganda an international tourism destination but continued effort is still needed to realize tourism's full potential. The Uganda Ministry of Tourism, Wildlife and Antiquities (MTTI, 2008) states that tourism has not developed as expected, despite the fact that the country has many potential tourist attractions, and they have attributed this lack of tourism development to a poor image of the country and problems with insecurity. With Kenya and Tanzania as East African neighbours, Uganda faces stiff competition from these better-known African tourism destinations. Insufficient government funding and low-budget marketing activities aimed towards promoting Uganda as a tourism destination have also contributed to the poor development of the industry (MTTI, 2008).

According to a Tour Operators report conducted by the Uganda Ministry of Tourism, Wildlife and Antiquities in 2008, the most preferred and sought after tourist

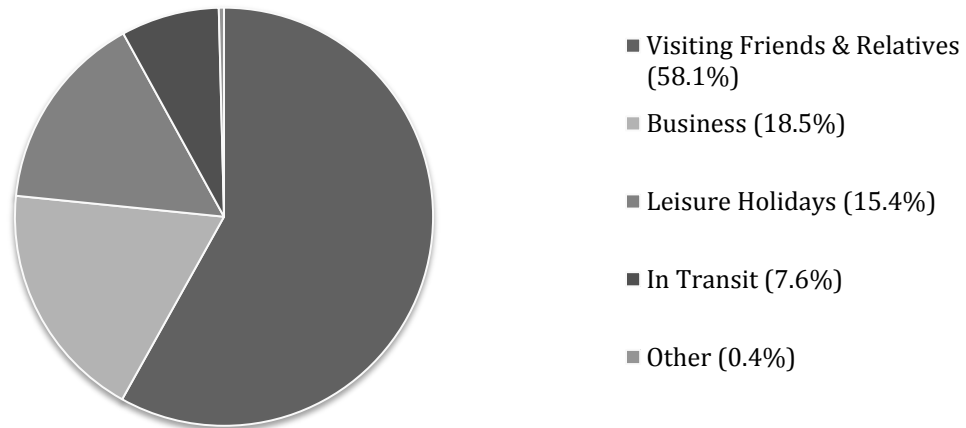
activities were gorilla tracking and game drives, with the warm hospitality and culture of Ugandans being other highlights enjoyed by the tourists (MTTI, 2008). The biggest obstacles faced by tourists, according to the tour operators, were the current state of roads (potholes, washouts, poor maintenance) in Uganda, followed by insufficient accommodation options to be found in or near the national parks and protected areas (MTTI, 2008).

Thirty-nine tour operators were interviewed for this report (MTTI, 2008), and all recommended various items to improve tourism services delivery, yet no one suggested that more research be conducted on non-resident visitor activity to gain a better sense of what is attracting almost 946 000 visitors into the country annually, let alone what their preferences are while in Uganda.

A majority of tourists entering Uganda for the purpose of leisure and holidays, as declared on the Arrival Declaration Card, are residents of the United States and Europe, with intentions of coming to Uganda to experience tracking the endangered mountain gorillas, or more recently, to engage in bird watching (Uganda Bureau of Statistics, 2010; MTTI, 2008). Many tour and hospitality companies have responded to these activities and their demand by building a variety of camps and lodges to accommodate the tourists. These accommodations are often built in rural communities and offer luxurious safari-style accommodations, complete with meal plans and curio shops on site. Still, with only 15% of tourists claiming to have visited the country for the purpose of leisure and recreation in 2010, it seems that holidaymakers to Uganda may form the minority of tourists to Uganda.

Figure 3. Percentage Distribution of Non-Resident Visitor Arrivals by Purpose of Visit

(Uganda Bureau of Statistics, 2011)



The only statistical data collected on the non-resident visitors (tourists) to Uganda are those reported on the Arrival Declaration Card (Uganda Bureau of Statistics, 2010). As can be seen in Figure 4, 58.1% of tourists declared that their reason for visiting Uganda was for the purpose of visiting friends and relatives, while only 15.4% declared that they were in the country for the purpose of recreation and leisure; 18.5% were in the country for the purpose of business, 7.6% were in-transit, and 0.4% stated “Other” as their reason for being in the country (Uganda Bureau of Statistics, 2011). No data in the 2010 Statistical Abstract further explains any of the “Other” reasons for tourists entering the country.

For the rest of the statistics, one can only make assumptions on the demographical data, activities undertaken and the expenditures made by these tourists. Several observations from the researcher and the researcher’s professors at the Entebbe International Airport in Uganda show a high proportion of tourists of European descent entering the country, yet many tourists claim to have relatives and friends situated within the country. Furthermore, they may not be clearly indicating the purpose, or the activities,

of their trip on the Arrival Declaration Card. As the literature has discussed, it is possible that many tourists may be using alternative descriptors and classifications for the reasons for traveling to Uganda. More research is needed to discover if, in fact, this is the case.

The Research Study

This study proposed to explore the motives of tourists to Uganda and assessed their basic nature as tourists, such as the activities undertaken, expenditures while in the country and basic demographical data, in order to better understand the current state of Uganda's tourism industry. Uganda was selected as the study destination because it is a developing country that has shown much interest in better developing its tourism industry, yet no current research in Uganda has sought any additional information on the non-resident visitors to the country, other than the statistical data collected on the non-resident entry cards by the Uganda Bureau of Statistics. The research was conducted to complement a Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA) project entitled "Enhancing Rural Livelihoods through Community-Based Tourism" (Campbell, MacKay, & Dranzoa, 2011).

Little research on tourists in sub-Saharan African countries currently exists. Foundational work on tourist motivation (see for example, Dann, 1977; Crompton, 1979; Iso-Ahola, 1980, 1982) has led to research on the motivations of volunteer tourists (Broad, 2003; Bruyere & Rappe, 2007; Chen & Chen, 2011; Lo & Lee, 2010; Mustonen, 2005, 2007; Ooi & Laing, 2010; Rehberg, 2005; Sin, 2009) but the author uncovered no research that explores the motivations of tourists while in Uganda.

To address the lack of research in the areas of tourism in developing countries, specifically those of Uganda, as well as about travel motivation and volunteer tourism, the following exploratory research question was proposed:

What motivates non-residents to visit Uganda?

By examining leisure travel and volunteer tourist motivations, we aimed to gain a better understanding of the motivations and behaviour of non-residents traveling to Uganda, with the hope of contributing to the current knowledge of both the volunteer travel market and sustainable tourism development. This research question was exploratory in nature and sought to explore the motivations of tourists in Uganda. The objectives of this research included:

1. To determine the motives of non-residents to visit Uganda and to compare them to their reason to visit Uganda as stated upon arrival;
 2. To explore the relationships of Uganda-specific travel motivations with demographics and other travel characteristics, including travel behaviours;
 3. To provide direction for future Uganda tourism sector marketing and development efforts;
 4. To stimulate further research on the volunteer tourism market in general and in developing countries such as Uganda, specifically;
 5. To provide a foundation for future research on the sustainable travel market in Uganda;
- and,

6. To contribute to the literature and general knowledge base on volunteer tourism as a component of sustainable tourism.

Chapter 3: Methods

When conducting research in a developing country, it is important to take multiple variables into account. Although most respondents in this research were predicted to be of North American or European descent, it was crucial that the host country's guidelines and concerns were met with professionalism and respect. The methodology chosen for this study was not only chosen because it was deemed as being the most appropriate, but also because it would arrest any concerns that the host country may have had regarding the study's impact on its tourism industry or on guests' experiences while in Uganda. It is hoped that the findings of this study will assist the Uganda Tourism Board and other major stakeholders within the country's tourism industry to better understand the motivations of the country's rising visitor arrivals, which reached almost 946 000 in 2010 (Uganda Bureau of Statistics, 2011).

This chapter explains the research design and methodology deemed most suitable for this particular study. The overall research design will be discussed, followed by a description of the data collection technique and instrument. The context and participants of the study will then be discussed, followed by the data analysis technique.

Research Design

Choosing the most appropriate research design and methodology is a critical step in any proposed research. The chosen methodology of a research project describes the ways in which the research will be conducted, whereas the research design describes the author's research strategy and provides justification for the chosen research design and methods for the particular topic (Altinay & Paraskevas, 2008).

A variety of factors lead to the adoption of a chosen methodology. The most important factor in a chosen methodology is that it is most relevant to the questions being asked to the target population. Other significant factors in a chosen methodology include the time required for the research project, the financial costs, the availability of the researcher, and the setting or place where the research is proposed to be conducted. For this research project, there was the challenge of finding a method suitable to reach the respondents prior to them leaving Uganda.

The most commonly used research design in studying motivations in tourism, volunteer activity, and volunteer tourism is a non-experimental design (Bailey & Russell, 2010; Bansal & Eiselt, 2004; Beh & Bruyere, 2007; Broad, 2003; Brown, 2005; Brown & Morrison, 2003; Bruyere & Rappe, 2007; Campbell & Smith, 2006; Chen & Chen, 2011; Coghlan, 2007, 2008; Crompton, 1979; Fodness, 1994; Gray & Campbell, 2007; Henderson, 1981; Lepp, 2007, 2008; Lepp & Holland, 2006; Lo & Lee, 2011; MacNeela, 2008; McGehee, 2002; McGehee & Santos, 2005; McIntosh & Zahra, 2007; Marta, Guglielmetti, & Pozzi, 2006; Mustonen, 2005; Omoto & Snyder, 1995; Ooi & Laing, 2010; Pearce & Lee, 2005; Rehberg, 2005; Ryan & Glendon, 1998; Simpson, 2004; Sin, 2009; Smith & Holmes, 2009; Snepenger et al., 2006; Stoddart & Rogerson, 2004; Uny, 2008; Yeung, 2004; Zahra & McIntosh, 2007).

Non-experimental research design can include the use of surveys, case studies, focus groups and ethnographies, all of which are descriptive and correlational in nature (Altinay & Paraskevas, 2008). True experimental design compares an experimental and control group, commonly seen in clinical studies, whereas the quasi-experimental design involves similar groups chosen by the researcher in order to test and compare for

differences (Altinay & Paraskevas, 2008). Both true experimental and quasi-experimental designs are non-applicable for exploratory research on tourist motivations in Uganda; however, surveys, case studies, focus groups and ethnographies have been shown to be effective non-experimental designs in tourism and volunteer research.

Case studies involve an empirical investigation of a particular contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context using multiple sources of evidence, as described by Altinay & Paraskevas (2008), and are often used when research is to be conducted involving an individual, organization, company or destination. They can often confirm the occurrence of something, but not always supply the reason for the occurrence. Ethnographies offer the chance to develop a holistic understanding of a society, group, community or organization from an insider's point of view by immersing the researcher into the group under study for a period of time, which often requires lengthy periods of study, increased funding and potential research bias from the researcher living within the research environment (Altinay & Paraskevas, 2008). Focus groups are a type of exploratory survey. They are popular in tourism studies for their seemingly unstructured nature and their use in facilitating an open discussion on a topic of interest to the researcher in order to gain information on the topic through carefully selected and moderated discussion topics (Altinay & Paraskevas, 2008; Vaske, 2008). McGehee and Santos (2005) warn that although the potential for researcher bias exists in all types of data collection, the moderator involved in the focus group session(s) in particular may influence the group's responses.

Finally, survey research, including exploratory, descriptive and explanatory approaches, offers a researcher the opportunity to better explain the attitudes, perceptions

and behaviours of various groups, and offers the chances to find relationships amongst the characteristics of participants and to test various theories (Altinay & Paraskevas, 2008). Exploratory surveys are useful when the researcher does not have a basic understanding of what kinds of topic-related concerns are of importance to individuals, when the research is exploring the feasibility of a larger study, or when the researcher wants to develop a methodology that is broader in scope (Vaske, 2008). Descriptive surveys describe the characteristics and reported behaviours of a sample or population of individuals, whereas explanatory surveys attempt to answer the questions of why things happen. They are undertaken to identify possible causal variables of a given situation or event, thereby contributing to understanding (Vaske, 2008). Vaske (2008) states that although it is important to understand the difference between the goals of these three types of surveys – exploration, description, and explanation – many research projects will include all three.

Within this study, descriptive information was collected in order to form a basis of descriptive data that can, in the future, be compared to another collected set of descriptive data by another researcher. This study also explores potential relationships between non-resident visitor motivations and other respondent characteristics. Therefore, it was decided that an exit survey was the most appropriate method of obtaining this information. Additionally, because data currently extracted from the Arrival Declaration Cards attempts to capture the intentions of the non-resident visitor's stay in Uganda, it is hoped that an exit survey would capture the actual activities experienced during the visit to Uganda, providing insight on actual tourism activity within the country.

Survey administration can take many forms. On-site, mail, telephone and electronic surveys are all common forms of survey used in tourism research. The data collected from surveys are used to describe and/or to explain relationships among variables of theoretical or applied interest and, given that many questions can be asked, the measurement reliability and measurement validity of the data can be examined empirically (Vaske, 2008). Another advantage is that with the use of standardized questions, comparisons of groups within the sample as well as between studies can be made, thereby facilitating the ability to generalize the findings (Vaske, 2008). However, survey research is not without limitations. Standardized questions can be a disadvantage when self-administered and mailed surveys become inflexible once they are written and printed (Vaske, 2008). Changing the instrument can become costly and any changes to the instrument during a study can potentially compromise the ability to compare respondents' answers between the different versions of the survey (Vaske, 2008).

On-site survey research is useful when lists of potential respondents are unavailable. This is common in tourism and recreation settings, where visitor contact information is unavailable (Vaske, 2008). Researchers approach individuals in person and either read survey questions to respondents and ask them to answer (interviewer-completed), or ask the respondent to read and respond to the questions themselves (respondent-completed) (Vaske, 2008). Vaske (2008) notes that on-site surveys usually yield exceptionally high response rates because the researcher is present to explain the rationale and importance of the survey, encourage people to complete all questions, and give the respondents the ability of asking the researcher for clarification if questions are confusing. Weaknesses of on-site survey research are that they cannot be too lengthy

because people do not want to be interrupted for an extended period of time, and they can be costly in terms of time and money, especially if travel and accommodation to the study site is required (Vaske, 2008).

Mail surveys require an address list from a sample population residing in a particular area of interest and can be an efficient method that is less sensitive to interviewer bias or distortion, but can be susceptible to lower response rates than on-site surveys (Vaske, 2008). The survey lists for mail surveys can be obtained in a variety of ways: from government agencies, from private firms, or from earlier surveys that have been conducted (Vaske, 2008). Mail surveys generally require fewer resources because personnel are not needed to be on-site to talk with respondents, but weaknesses lie in having little control over what happens to the survey after it is mailed out to potential respondents (Vaske, 2008). Given that the researcher would be conducting the proposed research in an international location and the respondents would be selected based upon their exit from Uganda to their respective countries, a mail survey was not an option because it would have been impossible to determine who the respondents were prior to them being asked to complete the survey.

Telephone surveys are much like mail surveys in that they require a potential respondent list generated from a telephone directory or using random number techniques (Vaske, 2008). Telephone surveys offer the researcher a high level of control over the questions asked and chances for clarification, but when researchers conduct research in diverse geographical areas, administering telephone surveys can be costly due to long-distance charges (Vaske, 2008). Like mail surveys, telephone surveys were not a feasible option for this proposed research as respondents were likely to be residents of many

different countries. Further, in order to identify tourists in Uganda, the researcher needed to be in the country.

Electronic and internet-based surveys are a cost- and time-effective survey research method but can be affected by many variables, including respondents' access to and familiarity with the Internet, as well as various computer system issues (resolution, connection speed, screen configuration, operating systems, etc.) (Vaske, 2008). Just as with the mail and telephone survey methods, internet surveys generally require access to a list of potential respondents, via email addresses or the notification of potential respondents to visit a website (Vaske, 2008). An online survey could have been feasible for this research, but it is likely that the survey would not have reached many volunteers and would most likely have reached only those tourists who sought tourist information about Uganda.

Qualitative studies have dominated the field of volunteer tourism in an attempt to better understand this form of alternative tourism (Broad, 2003; Brown, 2005; Brown & Morrison, 2003; Chen & Chen, 2011; Coghlan, 2007, 2008; Fodness, 1994; Gray & Campbell, 2007; Lo & Lee, 2011; McGehee & Santos, 2005; McIntosh & Zahra, 2007; Rehberg, 2005; Ryan & Glendon, 1998; Sin, 2009; Smith & Holmes, 2009; Yeung, 2004; Uny, 2008; Zahra & McIntosh, 2007). However, it has been suggested by McIntosh & Zahra (2007) that more quantitative research is needed in order to validate the potential difference between volunteer vacationers and traditional tourists. As a result of conducting research on the motivations and activities of tourists, especially volunteer tourists, a descriptive and explanatory analysis of volunteer tourists to Uganda through the administration of on-site surveys could provide useful information for both future

researchers interested in volunteer tourism and those interested in the tourism industry in Uganda and other developing countries.

Even though international volunteering has a long history and is relatively well documented, only limited attention has been given by tourism scholars to the phenomenon of volunteer tourism, and no particular study has investigated the difference between leisure tourists and volunteer vacationers to a developing country (Brown & Morrison, 2003; McGehee, 2002; Stoddart & Rogerson, 2004; Wearing, 2001). Given the aim of this study, a survey was deemed as the most appropriate research method for evaluating the motivations of tourists to Uganda.

Data Collection Technique and Instrument

Survey research is one of the most popular methods of collecting data amongst hospitality and tourism researchers. It is a very effective in systematically collecting information from a large number of people, at a low cost, in order to produce summaries and quantitative descriptions (Altinay & Paraskevas, 2008).

Based upon the literature review, it was determined that the Leisure Motivation Scale (LMS) developed by Beard and Ragheb (1983) has been a key scale used in the study of tourism motivations. Ooi and Laing's (2010) motivational scale for volunteer tourism has been used within the context of ascertaining motivations for volunteer tourism and has borrowed the concept of the Leisure Motivation Scale. It has also proven beneficial to the field of volunteer tourism. For this study, the rigour of these motivational scales and their successful use in previous studies indicated that these were the best scales to be used as the basis for this study. Given the proposed objectives and

the exploratory nature of this research study, the ease of administration and the strength of the Leisure Motivation Scales and similar borrowed concepts outweighed any weaknesses. These scales were modified for use with tourists to Uganda, in order to examine motivations for visiting the country and visitor behaviour while in Uganda.

Sampling Method

The main goal of sampling is to be able to select part of a larger group with the intent of generalizing from the smaller group (the sample) to the larger group (the population) (Morgan & Harmon, 1999). Because the literature suggests that both tourists and volunteers can be of varying demographics, the only target population set for this study was non-resident visitors. This broadly based target population allowed for a more diverse sample, representing the various types of tourists to Uganda.

The researcher was in Uganda collecting data during July and August of 2011. This time was chosen because June to August remains the peak time for visitor arrivals and correlates with having the highest number of tourist arrivals (Briggs & Roberts, 2010; MTTI, 2008). Collecting data during this period increased the likelihood that a representative sample would be obtained, with minimal bias.

For this research design, probability sampling was chosen because it minimized the chances of a non-representative sample and potential bias. Because the researcher was at the airport where most visitors, regardless of their purpose of visit or their activities while in Uganda, must enter and exit the country, this ensured that a fair sample was chosen. The only potential respondents that may have been missed were the overlander

tourists - the type of tourists that choose to drive a vehicle across many countries and, often, do so throughout a large part of the continent.

Potential respondents were recruited by the researcher being in the International Departures Lounge during different times of day, according to flight schedules (See Appendix D). Individuals were asked to participate on an average of once every 45 minutes, as this allowed for simple random sampling amongst different people who had entered the Departures Lounge.

Probability sampling is a type of sampling that strives for representativeness and is based on randomness; it also uses descriptive statistics from the sample to describe the population (Morgan & Harmon, 1999; Vaske, 2008). Simple random sampling (a popular type of probability sampling) was chosen for the study because it required relatively few observations and allowed results to generalize to the larger target population. This was ideal for a study involving tourists in a setting such as an airport departure lounge in a foreign country (Morgan & Harmon, 1999). Morgan and Harmon (1999) state that a probability sample will be representative of the population from which it was selected if all members of the population have a known nonzero chance of being selected. It has the advantages of allowing the researcher to estimate the accuracy or representativeness of a sample and to avoid biases (Vaske, 2008). A degree of bias may have existed when the researcher conducted the research in English as participants could have been excluded when they could not communicate in the language that the research was presented in. However, given that Uganda's official language is English and all signage and documents within the Entebbe International Airport were presented in English, it was decided that

conducting the research in English offered the smallest amount of bias compared to conducting the research in another language.

Convenience, judgmental, quota, snowball and self-selection sampling are other popular sampling methods used in tourism research (Altinay & Paraskevas, 2008).

Convenience sampling refers to a type of sampling whereby the researcher selects participants based on their convenient accessibility (Altinay & Paraskevas, 2008).

Conducting the research during Uganda's peak tourist season, when the most tourists and volunteers are in the country, could have allowed for convenience sampling. However, in some tourism research, convenience sampling may indicate that the sample chosen was non-representative and included a degree of bias from the researcher visiting only certain tourist-oriented venues (such as an airport) because not all of the tourists visit the same venues (Altinay & Paraskevas, 2008).

Judgmental sampling is where potential respondents are handpicked from the accessible population and can be very biased as it is subject to the researcher's preconceptions (Altinay & Paraskevas, 2008).

Non-probability sampling is the most effective sampling method in tourism and hospitality research because it is nearly impossible to specify the probability that any person on whom the survey research is based will be included in the sample (Altinay & Paraskevas, 2008). Non-probability sampling includes various sub-types of sampling that ensure that the best method is chosen for the proposed research design.

Altinay and Paraskevas (2008) describe quota sampling as a technique to ensure equal representation of participants in each layer of a stratified sample grouping. It does

not meet the basic requirement of randomness, as the population under study is divided into mutually exclusive subsets. This sampling technique cannot be used for the group of tourists in Uganda due to the inability to group the tourists into subsets due to their transient nature.

Snowball sampling is used to identify potential respondents when appropriate candidates for the study are hard to locate. It involves referrals from initial participants (Altinay & Paraskevas, 2008). Self-selection sampling is a non-probability sampling technique in which individuals identify their wish to participate in the study through responding to advertisements and postings, but the volunteers' decision to participate can make the sample non-representative and/or the findings exaggerated (Altinay & Paraskevas, 2008).

Study Area

Study participants were recruited inside the Departures Lounge at Entebbe International Airport. The reason for choosing the airport as the location to administer the surveys was because it is the single largest point of arrival and departure for the country and it afforded the researcher relatively easy access to study participants. Over 369 000 tourists arrived through the Entebbe International Airport in 2010 alone (Uganda Bureau of Statistics, 2011). Using the airport as a base for the research allowed the research to be conducted in a timely manner that was much more financially viable than having the researcher travel to various communities in search of tourists. In addition, the long waits at airports presented an ideal opportunity to gain information without interrupting the respondents' vacations.

Aside from being more time and cost efficient, the main advantage of using Entebbe International Airport to administer the survey was the large sample size available at that location. Being such exploratory research, a self-completed survey allowed for a variety of information to be gathered on tourists and laid a foundation on which future research could address specific findings from the data collected in this research.

Context and Participants

The self-completed surveys addressed the visitors' motives and their behaviours and attitudes. They also included various attributes in order to develop a better understanding of tourist and volunteer motivations in Uganda, as well as the activities and expenditures they undertook while in the country (See Table 5).

Because Uganda's official language is English and the researcher chose to conduct the research in English, it was anticipated that English would be spoken by most visitors to Uganda, therefore eliminating the potential bias of excluding non-English speakers.

In order to communicate the researcher's objectives to the research participants, an information sheet (See Appendix A) was provided with the survey discussing the purpose of the research and explaining how the data was to be analyzed and used in this research. A small incentive of a cold beverage was provided in order to obtain more respondents.

Because this was a survey that was completed by willing adult individuals, a consent form was not necessary. On the information sheet, a paragraph stated that if the respondent had read and understood all of the presented information and agreed to

participate, consent was automatically given from the participant if they chose to return the completed survey to a closed response box near the researcher. The drop box was sealed at all times while the researcher was in the study area. The drop box was only opened to allow the researcher to obtain the completed surveys and to organize them for easier transport back to Canada once the research period ended. Once a respondent completed the survey and deposited it into the provided secure drop box, they were given a small token that they could then exchange for a prepaid beverage from the Crane Cafeteria located in the Departures Lounge of the Entebbe International Airport.

Because of the difficulties of conducting a pilot test in a country other than where the survey was designed for and where there were no research participants, the researcher did not conduct a pilot test for the survey. Instead, the researcher's colleagues thoroughly examined the survey structure and content, offering suggestions to reorder some questions and survey modules. The survey was edited to allow the reader to maintain maximum interest in the survey and to read it easily due to clear wording and font.

Instrumentation

Based upon the literature review and the various methods that researchers have previously used in the evaluation of volunteer and leisure travel motivation, the Volunteer Tourism Motivation Variables developed by Ooi and Laing (2010) and the Leisure Motivation Scale (LMS) developed by Beard and Ragheb (1983) were used as the basis for this survey. The previous use of these scales to study travelers of various natures, including volunteer tourists (Beh & Bruyere, 2007; Broad, 2003; Brown & Morrison, 2003; Bruyere & Rappe, 2007; Coghlan, 2008; Ooi & Laing, 2010; Pearce & Lee, 2005; Rehberg, 2005; Ryan & Glendon, 1998; Sin, 2009), indicated that using these

scales in this research was the most logical choice. The strengths of these scales far outweighed the potential weaknesses for this exploratory research, and their ease of administration benefitted the collection of data in the proposed setting. Additionally, while motivations are seen to be critical in understanding tourist behaviour (Crompton, 1979; Fodness, 1994), little information had been collected and documented about the travel motivations to sub-Saharan Africa, creating an opportune chance to use these scales in order to explore this area of study (Beh & Bruyere, 2007).

Respondents answered a variety of statements indicating their motivation leading to the decision to travel to Uganda, their motivation to accomplish certain tasks while in Uganda, and important personal motives for why they chose to travel to Uganda specifically. Deriving the motivations from Beard and Ragheb's (1983) and Ooi and Laing's (2010) research led to 36 motivation items being chosen, based upon intellectual/competency factors (15), altruistic/religious factors (10) and social/attraction factors (11). The motivations were presented in three sections, based upon how important the factors were in the decision to travel to Uganda, how important it was to accomplish certain factors while in Uganda, and how important the factors were in the reasoning why the respondent chose to visit Uganda.

The questionnaire asked respondents to rate the importance of a variety of these motivations (e.g., travel with a purpose, relax physically, assist communities in a developing country), and all 36 motivation indicators were operationalized on a seven-point rating scale: 1) Not at all important 2) Very unimportant 3) Slightly unimportant 4) Neither unimportant or important 5) Slightly important 6) Very important 7) Extremely important (adapted from Beard & Ragheb, 1983; Beh & Bruyere, 2007) (See Table 1).

Additional information obtained from the questionnaires included popular places visited in Uganda, popular activities undertaken and approximate expenditures incurred while in the country, demographic information, motivation for visiting Uganda, and motivation for travel and volunteering in general. Trip characteristic and demographic information questions used mostly close-ended responses where respondents checked the most appropriate answer, and some questions were open-ended, utilizing blank lines where respondents wrote their most appropriate answer.

Table 1. Motivational Variables used in Survey

Motivations used in survey to explain respondent's decision to travel to Uganda	
(1) Not at all Important (2) Very Unimportant (3) Slightly Unimportant (4) Neither (5) Slightly Important (6) Very Important (7) Extremely Important	
Intellectual & Competency Factors	
1. Experience something different and new	19. Do something for a cause that is important to me
2. Learn more about other cultures	20. Help preserve natural areas for future generations
3. To satisfy my desire to travel	21. Working for Reformation and praying for Revival
4. Learn valuable life skills	22. Sharing the message of God's love for humankind
5. To learn about specific wildlife and plants	23. To serve God through prayer, preaching, healing and ministry
6. Learn more about myself	24. To enhance the quality of life for the disadvantaged
7. To satisfy my curiosity	25. To provide spiritual and emotional support to communities
8. Increase self-development	Social & Attraction Factors
9. Re-evaluate personal values	26. Interact with the local people
10. Travel with a purpose	27. Build new friendships
11. Enhance my self-image	28. Immerse myself in the local culture
12. Learn more about the natural environment	29. To meet new and different people
13. To gain other's respect	30. Authentic experience
14. To gain valuable career experience	31. To relax physically
15. To become socially competent and skillful	32. To relax mentally
Altruistic & Religious Factors	33. To avoid the routine of my daily life
16. Assist communities in a developing country	34. Enjoy the natural environment
17. Give back to the less privileged	35. Once in a lifetime opportunity
18. To influence others	36. To go on a real life adventure

Conducting the Research

After calculating the potential population sample size (See Figure 5), and calculating with a confidence interval (margin of error) of 5% and a confidence interval of 5, the minimum number of surveys to be completed was determined to be 353 (Sample Size Calculator).

Figure 4. Sample Size Calculator

Calculating Sample Population Size
Total non-resident visitor departures Uganda from July-September, 2009 = 77,708
Total divided by 12 weeks = 5,978 departures per week
5,978 divided by 168 hours in a week = 36 departures per hour
36 multiplied by the number of hours the researcher planned to be collecting data (120) = 4320 non-resident visitors as a potential sample population.
Sample Size Calculator with 95% confidence level, a confidence interval of 5 and population of 4320 = Sample Size of 353

In order to meet the optimal number of respondents and to account for any loss/damage of the printed surveys during transport, the researcher had 500 surveys printed.

The research was conducted in Uganda, at the Entebbe International Airport, from 14 July to 3 August 2011 at varying times throughout the week, based upon international flight schedules (See Appendix D). The Ugandan Civil Aviation Authority, in cooperation with the Uganda Tourism Board and the Uganda Ministry of Tourism, Wildlife and Antiquities, granted access to the Departures Lounge to the researcher. Once inside the Departures Lounge area, potential respondents were asked if they would like to complete the survey, and upon completion, they were given a token, which could be exchanged for a prepaid bottle of water or soda at a nearby cafeteria. Once they agreed to participate in the survey, respondents had the option to terminate their involvement in the study at any time. Respondents could end their involvement in the survey by returning the uncompleted survey to the researcher for disposal. Respondents also had the option of not replying to any question that they did not wish to answer. The response rate was determined based on the number of completed surveys the researcher obtained.

Analysis of Data

Data collected from the self-completion surveys were sorted into variables, coded appropriately using a numerical scale, and entered into a SPSS data file. The descriptive statistics of the data were explored and relationships between variables were explained using pivot tables. Pivot tables are a non-complex way of creating un-weighted cross-tabulations. They allow for comparisons to be made between different groups of respondents and according to different characteristics.

The 36 motivation items were analyzed using a Principal Component Analysis (PCA). A Principal Component Analysis (PCA) is one type of exploratory factor analysis that is commonly used in the social sciences to uncover a cluster of related variables in a larger set of variables, ultimately reducing a large number of variables into a small number of factors that can be used to cluster respondents into distinct typologies (Keng & Cheng, 1999; Vaske, 2008).

Chapter 4: Results

The results of the survey are divided into four sections. The first section describes how the data were analyzed, the second section explains the survey response, and the third section provides a respondent profile based upon the demographic and tourist characteristic data that was obtained. The fourth and final section provides the factor analysis results, addressing how motivations, demographic and tourist characteristics are correlated.

Survey Response

A total of 476 surveys were completed between 14 July and 3 August 2011. Surveys that were largely incomplete were excluded, resulting in 472 surveys being used in the initial data analysis. Subsequently, respondents that were visiting the country for business and/or study reasons (n=43), as indicated in their responses to the questions on their self-declared reason on the Arrival Declaration Card and on the principal reason for their travel to Uganda, were also excluded. Therefore, the total number of surveys used for data analysis was 429. During the entire duration of the research, 62 people refused to complete the survey, with 57 people not having enough time to complete the survey before they had to board their plane and 5 people refusing because they were not fluent in English. Because the research was undertaken in a foreign destination, and all respondents were anonymous, a follow-up test for non-response bias was not possible.

Descriptive Statistics

Socio-demographic characteristics of respondents.

As evident in Table 2, the proportion of female respondents (57.0%) was higher than males (43.0%). Those under the age of 40 represented 70.7% of total respondents, with 26.3% of respondents being between the ages of 18 and 24.

Table 2

<i>Socio-demographic Characteristics of Respondents</i>		Frequency	Percent (%)
Gender (n=426)	Male	183	43.0
	Female	243	57.0
Age (n=426)	18-24	112	26.3
	25-29	101	23.7
	30-34	40	9.4
	35-39	48	11.3
	40-44	46	10.8
	45-49	29	6.8
	50-54	22	5.2
	55-59	18	4.2
Continent of Residence (n=429)	60+	10	2.3
	North America	145	33.8
	Europe	218	50.8
	Asia/Middle East	41	9.6
	Australia/New Zealand	16	3.7
	Africa	9	2.1
Education Level (n=425)	No formal schooling	0	0
	Some formal schooling	6	1.4
	Completed secondary school	103	24.2
	Some post-secondary	113	26.6
	Completed post-secondary	133	31.3
	Graduate school or higher	70	16.5
Occupation (n=425)	Student	163	38.4
	Self-Employed	48	11.3
	Professional	131	30.8
	Management	37	8.7
	Trades	13	3.0
	Service	33	7.8

A total of 27 different nations were represented as countries of residence for respondents. The researcher then sorted the countries according to continent. European respondents represented 50.8% of total respondents, while North American (Canada & U.S.) residents accounted for 33.8% of total respondents. 9.6% of respondents were from

Asian countries, 3.7% of respondents were from Australia and New Zealand, and only 2.1% of respondents were from other African countries (See Table 2).

When comparing levels of education, Table 2 shows that 74.4% of respondents (n=425) had at least some post-secondary education, with 31.3% of respondents having completed post-secondary education. Respondents who had completed secondary school (or less) accounted for 25.6% of the total respondent population. When exploring respondents' occupations, 38.4% of respondents were currently students. The next highest occupational group was professionals, totalling 30.8% of respondents. Self-employed respondents accounted for 11.3%, occupations in management were held by 8.7%, respondents who had service-oriented occupations represented 7.8%, and tradespeople accounted for 3% of total respondents.

General travel characteristics of respondents.

As shown in Table 3.1, 79.2% of all respondents were visiting Uganda for the first time, and 98.3% said that they would travel to Uganda again. The mean length of stay in Uganda amongst all respondents was 20.2 days and the mode was 14 days. When asked what they reported on the Arrival Declaration Card upon entry into Uganda at the beginning of their trip, over half of all respondents (57.0%) stated that they were visiting Uganda for the purpose of holidays, recreation and leisure, while 27.1% reported that they were visiting friends and relatives. A small amount (4.7%) of respondents were in Uganda for the purpose of business, meetings and conferences according to what they reported stating on the Arrival Declaration Cards (this differed from their self-declared reason and thus they were not omitted from the study), 6.5% were seeking permanent residence, and 4.7% were seeking temporary residence (See Table 3.1).

When asked what their principal reason for travel to Uganda was, 31.5% of respondents recorded that they were in the country for religious, missionary or outreach purposes, while 30.1% claimed that they traveled to the country for nature, cultural and/or adventure tourism purposes. The third largest segment (19.8%) of respondents stated that they visited Uganda for the purpose of general tourism activities, and 18.6% were in the country for volunteering purposes (See Table 3.1). Only 9.1% of respondents stated that they were in the country for business or study reasons, and they were omitted from further analysis if they also declared to be in the country for business purposes on the Arrival Declaration Card (ADC).

A large proportion (81.4%) of respondents were traveling as part of a group (more than two people). Religious, outreach and missionary tourists were most likely to be traveling as part of a group, with 45.8% of all group travelers being in this category. Only 22.9% of non-resident visitors were traveling in Uganda as part of a tour or organized travel group, 17.9% were traveling as part of a group of friends and/or family, 7.7% claimed to be part of a general volunteering group, and 5.7% were part of a work or study group (See Table 3.1).

Table 3.1

<i>Travel Characteristics and Travel Reasons of Respondents</i>		Frequency	Percent (%)
First trip to Uganda? (n=429)	Yes	374	79.2
	No	55	20.8
Would travel to Uganda again? (n=429)	Yes	462	98.3
	No	8	1.7
Mean length of stay	20.2 days, Standard Deviation (σ) = 31.8 (Mode = 14 days)		
Arrival Declaration Card (ADC) (n=428)	Holidays, Recreation & Leisure	244	57.0
	Visiting Friends & Relatives	116	27.1
	Business/Meetings/Conference	20	4.7
	Seeking Permanent Residence	28	6.5
	Seeking Temporary Residence	20	4.7
	In Transit	0	0
Self-Declared Reason* (n=429)	Mission/Outreach/Religious	135	31.5
	Nature/Culture/Adv. Tourism	129	30.1
	Tourism (General)	85	19.8
	Volunteer (General)	80	18.6
Travelled as a group (n=429)	Yes	349	81.4
	No	80	18.6
Type of group (n=349)	Religious/Outreach/Missionary	160	45.8
	Tour/Travel Group	80	22.9
	Family/Friends	62	17.9
	Volunteer (General)	27	7.7
	Work/Study	20	5.7

Note. *Respondents that claimed both Business/Meetings/Conference on the ADC and Business/Study for their self-declared reason were omitted from further analysis.

Table 3.2

<i>Travel Characteristics and Travel Reasons of Volunteer Respondents</i>		Frequency	%	Tourist	%	Volunteer	%
Undertook volunteer activities (n=429)	Yes	242	56.4	0	0	242	56.4
	No	187	43.6	187	43.6	0	0
Type of volunteer activities* (n=242)	Religious/Outreach/Missionary	159	65.7				
	Education/Teaching	74	30.6				
	Health/Aid	36	14.9				
	Nature/Conservation/Animal	30	12.4				
	Other	13	5.4				
	Governance	5	2.0				
Mean length of stay	26.2 days, Standard Deviation (σ) = 35.9 (Mode = 21 days)						
Mean days spent volunteering	22.9 days, Standard Deviation (σ) = 36.1 (Mode = 10 days)						
Arrival Declaration Card (ADC) (n=428)	Holidays, Recreation & Leisure	244	57.0	163	38.0	81	19.0
	Visiting Friends & Relatives	116	27.1	14	3.3	102	23.8
	Business/Meetings/Conference	20	4.7	9	2.1	11	2.6
	Seeking Permanent Residence	28	6.5	1	0.2	27	6.3
	Seeking Temporary Residence	20	4.7	0	0	20	4.7
	In Transit	0	0	0	0	0	0
Self-Declared Reason (n=429)	Mission/Outreach/Religious	135	31.5	4	1.0	131	30.5
	Volunteer (General)	129	30.1	50	11.7	79	18.4
	Tourism (General)	85	19.8	69	16.1	16	3.7
	Nature/Culture/Adv. Tourism	80	18.6	64	14.9	16	3.7
Travelled as a group (n=429)	Yes	349	81.4	144	33.6	205	47.8
	No	80	18.6	43	10.0	37	8.6
Type of group (n=349)	Religious/Outreach/Missionary	160	45.8	6	1.7	154	44.1
	Tour/Travel Group	80	22.9	78	22.3	2	0.6
	Family/Friends	62	17.7	50	14.3	12	3.4
	Volunteer (General)	27	7.7	5	1.4	22	6.3
	Work/Study	20	5.7	5	1.4	15	4.3

Note. *Some respondents chose more than one category; therefore this amount will be higher than 100%

Travel characteristics of volunteers.

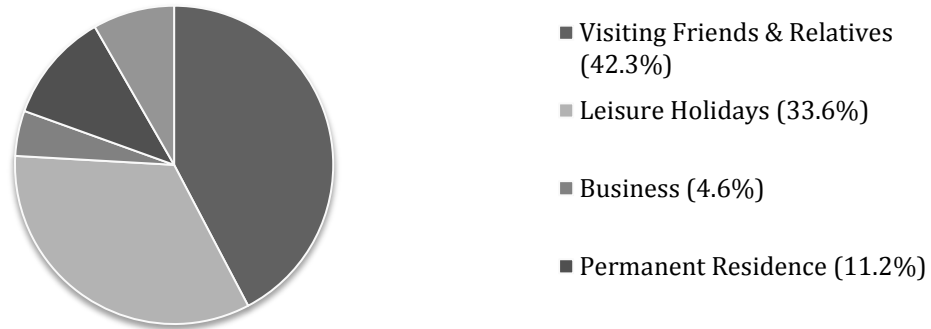
Fifty-six percent of all respondents undertook some sort of volunteer activities during their time in Uganda. Of all these volunteers (n=242), 65.7% participated in religious, missionary or outreach volunteer activities, 30.6% were education-oriented volunteers, 14.9% were volunteering for health or aid efforts, 12.4% volunteered for nature, conservation and/or animal welfare, 5.4% of respondents undertook volunteer activities they categorized as “Other,” and 2% of the total volunteers were in the country for governance efforts (See Table 3.2). Responses used in this analysis are not mutually exclusive of each other, as respondents were able to check more than one category of volunteer activities. Therefore these percentages equal 131%. On average, volunteers stayed in Uganda for 26.2 days (mode length of stay was 21 days), volunteered for 22.9 days while in Uganda, and the mode length of volunteering was 10 days.

As Figure 5 displays, when separated from all survey respondents (n=241), a majority of volunteers (42.3%) claimed to be visiting friends and relatives while in the country. The second largest segment of volunteers (33.6%) declared that they were in Uganda for the purpose of holidays, recreation and leisure on the Ugandan Arrival Declaration Card, 4.6% reported that they were in the country for business purposes (and reported a different self-declared reason), 11.2% claimed to be seeking permanent residence, 8.3% were seeking temporary residence, and no one was in-transit.

As shown in comparisons in Table 3.2, the self-declared reasons for being in Uganda differed greatly between volunteers and tourists. Volunteers in the country for mission, outreach and/or religious reasons totalled 30.5% of total respondents (n=429), while unspecified, general volunteering accounted for 18.4% of volunteers’ self-declared

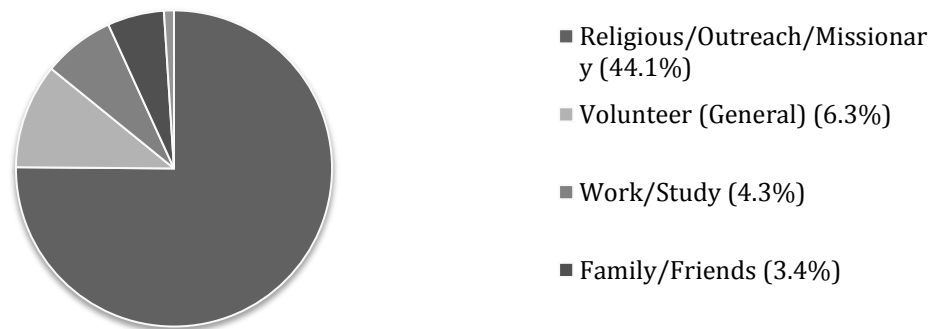
reasons. Volunteers in the country for general tourism reasons were 3.7% of total respondents, and nature, cultural, and/or adventure tourism was also 3.7%.

Figure 5. Percentage Distribution of Volunteers' Purpose of Visit on Arrival Declaration Card (ADC)



Of the 56.4% (n=242) of total respondents that undertook volunteer activities when in Uganda, 84.7% (n=205) were traveling as part of a group. As shown in Figure 6, when compared against all group travelers (n=349), 44.1% were volunteers traveling in a religious, outreach and/or missionary group, 6.3% were volunteers in unspecified general volunteering groups, 4.3% were in work or study volunteer groups, 3.4% of group travelers were volunteering with friends or family members, while volunteers in a tour or travel group were only 0.6% (See Figure 6).

Figure 6. Percentage Distribution of Volunteers' Type of Group



Popular Places Visited and Activities Undertaken by Respondents

When asked what places they visited during their time in Uganda, the Equator was the most visited by all respondents (n=425), with 43.5% of respondents having crossed the Equator at some point during their stay in Uganda (See Table 4). Volunteers and non-volunteers almost equally visited the Equator, with 22.3% and 21.2% visiting this attraction, respectively. Queen Elizabeth National Park, Uganda's most popular and accessible savannah reserve, known for its crater lakes and diverse population of birds, was the next most visited place, with 37.2% of total respondents visiting the national park, with close numbers of 20.2% tourists and 17% volunteers (Briggs & Roberts, 2010). Bwindi Impenetrable National Park, known most for its population of endangered mountain gorillas, was the third most visited place in Uganda, with 30.1% of all respondents visiting the park (Briggs & Roberts, 2010). A stark contrast is worth noting between the volunteer and non-volunteer visitors to Bwindi Impenetrable National Park, with only 4% volunteers and 26.1% tourists having visited the park (See Table 4).

Another popular destination visited by respondents was Jinja (The Source of the Nile), most notable for its close proximity to Kampala and adventure sports such as whitewater rafting and kayaking, with 29.2% of total respondents visiting Jinja. With this destination, volunteers formed the majority of visitors over tourists, with 20.2% and 9% visiting, respectively. Ishasha (within Queen Elizabeth National Park), famous for tree-climbing lions, was only visited by 16.9% of total respondents, but it was visited much more by tourists than volunteers, with 14.3% and 2.6% having visited this attraction, respectively (See Table 4). It is worth noting that 21.4% of total respondents recorded having visited "Other" places. Most of these places were rural areas and villages, and

they were most visited by volunteers, with 18.4% reporting “Other” places compared to the 3% tourists that listed “Other” places.

When asked to check any popular activities undertaken while in Uganda, photography and film was the most popular activity, with 86.6% of total respondents (n=425) having captured Uganda’s diverse scenery and unique personal experiences through photography and/or film activities. Experiencing local cultures through community walks, exhibits and museums was undertaken by 49.4% of total respondents, with more than double the amount of volunteers (33.2%) taking part in this activity over tourists (16.2%).

Lake and river cruises constituted the third most undertaken activity in Uganda, with 47.5% of respondents experiencing this water activity. Guided safaris/game views were an almost equally popular activity amongst both volunteers (21%) and tourists (20.4%), with 41.4% of total respondents viewing Uganda’s wildlife (See Table 4).

Ranked as one of the absolute highlights of any African travel, tracking the endangered mountain gorillas of Uganda was an activity undertaken by only 32.5% of respondents, with 28.5% tourists having tracked gorillas versus only 4% volunteers. A slightly larger proportion (37.4%) of total respondents undertook the increasingly popular activity of bird watching (twitching), with 27.3% tourists and 10.1% volunteers having gone bird watching when in Uganda. Interestingly, over seven times as many volunteers (17%) visited sacred and religious places while in Uganda, as opposed to only 2.3% tourists (19.3% of total respondents) (See Table 4).

Pearson chi-square tests were run to show any significant differences between tourists’ and volunteers’ decisions in the places they visited and the activities they

undertook. Bwindi Impenetrable National Park showed the greatest difference between tourists and volunteers, corresponding with tracking the endangered mountain gorillas as being the most significantly different activity between the two groups.

Table 4

<i>Places Visited, Activities Undertaken, Accommodation and Expenditures</i>		Frequency	%	Tour.	%	Vol.	%	X ²
Places Visited* (n=425)	The Equator**	185	43.5	95	22.3	90	21.2	14.39
	Queen Elizabeth National Park**	158	37.2	86	20.2	72	17.0	18.45
	Bwindi Impenetrable National Park**	128	30.1	111	26.1	17	4.0	147.22
	Jinja (Source of the Nile)**	124	29.2	38	9.0	86	20.2	16.20
	Other (villages, rural areas, etc.)**	91	21.4	13	3.0	78	18.4	40.34
	Murchison Falls National Park	89	20.9	41	9.6	48	11.3	5.64
	Ishasha**	72	16.9	61	14.3	11	2.6	66.42
	Bujagali Falls	47	11.0	21	4.9	26	6.1	5.28
	Kibale National Park	44	10.3	18	4.2	26	6.1	5.32
	Lake Bunyoni	37	8.7	18	4.2	19	4.5	5.74
	Lake Mburo National Park**	37	8.7	23	5.4	14	3.3	11.24
	Ngamba Island	35	8.2	16	3.7	19	4.5	5.34
	Rwenzori National Park**	18	4.2	4	0.9	14	3.3	8.54
	Mabira Forest**	17	4.0	13	3.1	4	0.9	13.27
	Mt. Elgon**	11	2.6	2	0.5	9	2.1	8.07
	Mgahinga National Park	10	2.3	4	0.9	6	1.4	5.26
	Kidepo**	8	1.9	6	1.4	2	0.5	8.61
Ssesse Island**	4	0.9	0	0	4	0.9	8.27	
Kasubi Tombs	3	0.7	2	0.5	1	0.2	5.91	
Semiliki National Park**	2	0.5	0	0	2	0.5	6.74	
Activities* (n=425)	Captured scenery through photography/film	368	86.6	160	37.6	208	49.0	5.42
	Experienced local culture (walks/museums)**	210	49.4	69	16.2	141	33.2	22.80
	Went on a lake or river cruise**	202	47.5	92	21.6	110	25.9	6.19
	Went on a guided game view (safari)	176	41.4	87	20.4	89	21.0	10.19
	Went on a forest walk**	160	37.6	87	20.4	73	17.2	18.59
	Engaged in bird watching**	159	37.4	116	27.3	43	10.1	97.57
	Tracked the endangered mountain gorillas**	138	32.5	121	28.5	17	4.0	170.71
	Tracked chimpanzees/other primates	82	19.3	30	7.1	52	12.2	6.96
	Visited sacred and religious places**	82	19.3	10	2.3	72	17.0	44.59
	Other (volunteering, outreach projects, etc.)**	69	16.2	8	1.9	61	14.3	32.13
	Went whitewater rafting and/or kayaking	66	15.5	26	6.1	40	9.4	5.65
	Visited historic sites**	56	13.2	29	6.8	27	6.4	7.22
Went mountain climbing**	39	9.2	10	2.3	29	6.8	10.52	
Accommodation* (n=425)	Budget Motels/Guesthouses**	157	36.9	36	8.5	121	28.4	43.03
	Modest Motels/Guesthouse**	149	35.1	89	21.0	60	14.1	24.56
	Staying at a friend's or family's residence**	137	32.2	17	4.0	120	28.2	79.70
	Luxury Resorts & Lodges**	119	28.0	103	24.2	16	3.8	124.50
	Camping	76	17.9	29	6.8	47	11.1	1.15
Other (Dorms, Org. Guesthouse, etc.)**	15	3.5	0	0	15	3.5	12.01	
Total	0 - 500	32	7.7	3	0.7	29	7.0	
Expenditures (\$USD) (n=418)	501 - 1000	201	48.0	47	11.2	154	36.8	
	1001 - 2000	60	14.4	32	7.7	28	6.7	
	2001 - 4000	78	18.7	60	14.4	18	4.3	
	4001 - 8000	41	9.8	37	8.9	4	0.9	
	More than 8000	6	1.4	3	0.7	3	0.7	
Total Souvenirs (\$USD) (n=421)	0 - 50	70	16.6	20	4.7	50	11.9	
	51 - 100	147	34.9	42	10.0	105	24.9	
	101 - 250	130	30.9	64	15.2	66	15.7	
	251 - 500	49	11.6	37	8.7	12	2.9	
	501 - 750	18	4.3	16	3.8	2	0.5	
More than 750	7	1.7	5	1.2	2	0.5		

Note. *Some respondents chose more than one category; therefore this amount will be higher than 100%

** Significant differences amongst tourists and volunteers ($p < 0.05$)

Accommodation Choices and Expenditures of Respondents

Table 4 shows that the greatest number of all respondents (36.9%) stayed in budget accommodations (shared rooms, no running water, fans, or electricity), with nearly three times as many volunteers (28.4%) choosing budget accommodations over tourists (8.5%). Modest accommodations were categorized as private enclosed rooms with amenities such as air-conditioning/fans; they were the choice of 35.1% of respondents. The third most popular category, luxury accommodations, were frequented by 28% of total respondents, with significantly more tourists (24.2%) than volunteers (3.8%) choosing to stay in luxury resorts and lodges, which are usually located in or near parks and popular tourist areas, and often include all the modern comforts such as electricity, running water, private rooms and/or bandas (traditional Ugandan roundhouses constructed of concrete, stone and grass-thatched roofs), and even amenities such as a television and wireless internet. Respondents who chose to stay at a friend's or family's residence accounted for 32.2% of respondents, with 28.2% volunteers choosing this type of accommodation over only 4% tourists.

Nearly half (48.1%) of all respondents spent between \$501-\$1000 USD while in the country, with 36.8% volunteers and 11.2% tourists having spent this amount. When asked about souvenir purchases while in the country, 34.9% of respondents spent between \$51-\$100 USD on souvenirs, and 30.9% of respondents spent between \$101-\$250 USD; the latter group of respondents was almost equally divided between volunteers (15.7%) and tourists (15.2%).

Pearson chi-square tests were run to show any significant differences between tourists' and volunteers' choices of accommodation. All types of accommodation, with

the exception of camping, showed significant differences, with luxury resorts and lodges showing the greatest statistical difference between the two groups.

Leisure, Travel, Volunteer and Religious Motives

Leisure, travel, volunteer and religious motives were rated by respondents on a seven-point rating scale where 1=Not at all Important, 2=Very Unimportant, 3=Slightly Unimportant, 4=Neither Unimportant or Important, 5=Slightly Important, 6=Very Important, and 7=Extremely Important. Table 5 shows the motive items ranked according to mean and also shows the standard deviation for each item.

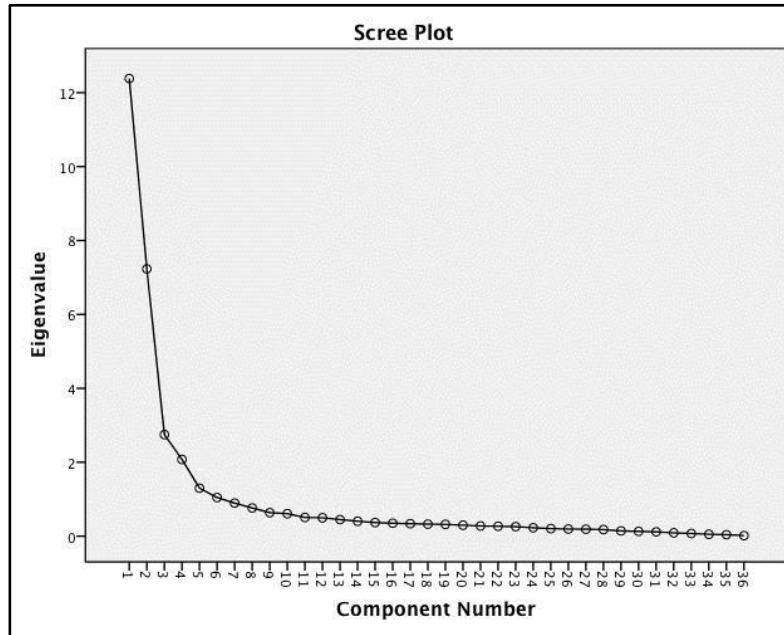
Principal Component Analysis (PCA).

A Principal Component Analysis (PCA), a popular type of exploratory factor analysis, was conducted in order to identify specific motivation factors among the respondents. The principal components analysis (PCA) of the motivation items generated six factors, which explained 73.94% of total variance. In a factor analysis, an eigenvalue represents the variance amongst factors and because the common rule of “eigenvalues greater than 1” is a default option in SPSS and should generally be avoided, the researcher used the scree plot as reference for how many factors to extract (Preacher & MacCallum, 2003; Vaske, 2008). A scree plot plots the magnitude of the eigenvalues of a specific correlation matrix, helping visualize the relative importance of the factors (Vaske, 2008). From the scree plot, the researcher determined that instead of the six factors that were generated by the PCA, only five factors should be recognized as only five factors are present before the relatively continuous and stable line of factors (See Figure 7).

The resulting five-factor PCA had a Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy of .932, which is within the most desirable range for factor analysis, indicating “superb” or “marvelous” results, demonstrating that factor analysis is the appropriate analysis technique for this data set (Field, 2005; Preacher & MacCallum, 2003).

Table 5

<i>Mean and Standard Deviation of Motive Items</i>		
Motive Items	Mean	SD (σ)
Learn more about other cultures	6.00	1.14
Interact with the local people	5.93	1.21
Enjoy the natural environment	5.74	1.35
Once in a lifetime opportunity	5.68	1.63
Travel with a purpose	5.47	1.69
Immerse myself in the local culture	5.47	1.46
Experience something different and new	5.41	1.33
Give back to the less privileged	5.36	1.89
To go on a real life adventure	5.35	1.67
Assist communities in a developing country	5.30	1.95
Learn about the natural environment	5.29	1.56
Do something for a cause that is important to me	5.21	2.11
To meet new and different people	5.21	1.72
To learn about specific wildlife and plants	5.21	1.72
To influence others positively	5.20	1.95
To enhance the quality of life for the disadvantaged	5.08	2.09
To satisfy my desire to travel	4.94	1.58
To avoid the routine of daily life	4.90	1.71
Authentic experience	4.76	1.81
To relax mentally	4.57	1.98
Build new friendships	4.50	1.86
To provide spiritual and emotional support to communities	4.48	2.27
Help preserve natural areas for future generations	4.44	1.85
To relax physically	4.42	2.02
Share the message of God’s love for humankind	4.34	2.40
To satisfy my curiosity	4.34	1.77
To serve God through prayer, preaching, healing and ministry	4.20	2.46
Work for Reformation and pray for Revival	4.04	2.40
Learn more about myself	4.04	1.85
Increase self-development	3.93	1.95
Learn valuable life skills	3.80	1.90
To gain valuable career experience	3.76	2.02
To become socially competent and skillful	3.72	1.78
Re-evaluate personal values	3.62	1.86
To gain other’s respect	3.57	1.82
Enhance my self-image	3.09	1.68

Figure 7. Principal Component Analysis Scree Plot

The five factors that were generated explained 71.5% of total variance and had eigenvalues above 1 (See Table 6). Varimax rotation was used and Cronbach's coefficient alpha measured the internal consistency between the items in the factors. This is the most generally used reliability measure to estimate the degree to which items on a measure are representative of the domain being measured and a coefficient alpha greater than 0.70 is considered reliable (Pearce & Lee, 2005; Ryan, 1995; Veal, 1997). All factors had a coefficient alpha greater than 0.75, indicating strong consistency among the variables in each factor. Russell (2002) states that in a Principal Component Analysis (PCA), at least 3 variables are required per factor and that four or more variables per factor should be included in the analysis. In this PCA, the smallest factors contained 5 variables, and the other factors contained 6, 9 or 11 variables, meeting these criteria (See Table 7). No variables were excluded from the PCA.

Table 6

<i>Principal Component Analysis (PCA) Motivation Factors</i>			
Motivation Factor	Eigenvalue	% of Variance	Cumulative %
Religious Volunteer	8.392	23.310	23.310
Personal Growth	6.513	18.090	41.401
Nature	3.821	10.613	52.014
Cultural	3.687	10.242	62.256
Escape	3.324	9.235	71.491

Table 7

<i>Reliability Analysis for an Index of Motivation Factors</i>				
Motivation Factors*	Overall Mean	Item total correlation	Alpha if item deleted	Alpha
Religious Volunteer	4.835			.964
Serve God through prayer, preaching, healing and ministry		.852	.959	
Share the message of God's love for humankind		.866	.959	
Work for Reformation and pray for Revival		.832	.960	
To provide spiritual and emotional support to communities		.904	.957	
To enhance the quality of life for the disadvantaged		.894	.958	
Influence others positively		.863	.959	
Do something for a cause that is important to me		.874	.958	
Give back to the less privileged		.830	.960	
Assist communities in a developing country		.793	.961	
Build new friendships		.705	.964	
Travel with a purpose		.671	.964	
Personal Growth	3.764			.930
Learn valuable life skills		.827	.917	
Re-evaluate personal values		.832	.917	
Increase self-development		.798	.919	
Become more socially competent and skillful		.821	.918	
Enhance my self-image		.755	.922	
Gain valuable career experience		.740	.923	
Learn more about myself		.746	.922	
Gain other's respect		.609	.930	
Satisfy my curiosity		.565	.933	
Nature	5.124			.794
Learn more about the natural environment		.708	.713	
Learn about specific wildlife and plants		.693	.714	
Enjoy the natural environment		.700	.725	
Help preserve natural areas for future generations		.432	.809	
Satisfy my desire to travel		.410	.805	
Cultural	5.607			.819
Immerse myself in the local culture		.714	.752	
Interact with the local people		.645	.778	
Meet new and different people		.655	.777	
Experience something different and new		.449	.828	
Learn more about other cultures		.651	.778	
Escape	4.947			.851
Avoid the routine of my daily life		.630	.827	
Have a once in a lifetime opportunity		.462	.855	
Go on a real adventure		.578	.836	
Relax mentally		.726	.807	
Have an authentic tourism experience		.717	.810	
Relax physically		.700	.813	

Nota. *Overall means cores are rated on a Likert scale ranging from 1=Not at all important to 7=Extremely important

The first factor consisted of 11 variables related to religious and altruistic volunteer motivations. The Religious Volunteer factor had a mean score of 4.8 and a Cronbach's alpha (reliability coefficient) of .96. The second factor consisted of 9 variables, all related to Personal Growth motivations, had the overall lowest mean of 3.8, and had a reliability coefficient of .93 (See Table 7).

The Nature factor contained 5 variables, with a mean of 5.1 and a reliability coefficient of .79, and was related to nature and environment motivations. The fourth factor, Cultural, had the highest mean of 5.6 and a reliability coefficient of .82, and its five variables were all related to culture and interaction (See Table 7). The fifth factor, Escape, contained 6 variables all related to escape and relaxation, and it had a mean of 4.9 and a reliability coefficient of .85.

Differences in Motive Items between Tourists and Volunteers.

A series of t-tests were run to determine if there was any significant difference between tourists' and volunteers' motivations. Using the common p-value of 0.05, statistical rules indicate that with 36 motivations, the p-value would need to be $0.05/36$, which gave a new p-value of 0.0014.

Once all tests were run, 30 of the 36 motive items showed a significant difference between tourists and volunteers ($p < 0.0014$) (See Table 8). With these differences, the thought that tourists and volunteers are two very different groups in terms of motivations and preferences while in Uganda stands true.

The six motive items that did not show significant differences amongst tourists and volunteers were either common leisure motives or were some of the lowest ranking motive items in the factor analysis. All six motive items that were not significantly

different were too general to be of any utility in drawing conclusions between the two groups.

Table 8

<i>Differences in Motive Items between Tourists and Volunteers</i>								
Factor	Motive Item	t	df	p-value	95% conf. int.		Tour. \bar{x}	Vol. \bar{x}
Religious Volunteer	Serve God through prayer/preaching/healing/ministry*	-14.00	425.89	<2.2e-16	-3.09	-2.33	2.67	5.38
	Share the message of God's love for humankind*	-14.35	426.53	<2.2e-16	-3.06	-2.33	2.82	5.51
	Work for Reformation and pray for Revival*	12.89	425.00	0.00001	-2.86	-2.10	2.64	5.12
	To provide spiritual/emotional support to communities*	-17.37	427.00	<2.2e-16	-3.27	-2.61	2.82	5.76
	To enhance the QOL for the disadvantaged*	-20.29	287.84	<2.2e-16	-3.34	-2.75	3.36	6.41
	Influence others positively*	-17.91	267.91	<2.2e-16	-2.98	-2.39	3.69	6.37
	Does something for a cause that is important to me*	-20.74	250.83	<2.2e-16	-3.42	-2.83	3.45	6.57
	Give back to the less privileged*	-17.04	289.29	<2.2e-16	-2.80	-2.22	3.94	6.45
	Assist communities in a developing country*	-18.87	279.13	<2.2e-16	-3.03	-2.45	3.75	6.50
	Build new friendships*	-14.34	327.17	<2.2e-16	-2.50	-1.90	3.26	5.45
Travel with a purpose*	-12.79	291.99	<2.2e-16	-2.16	-1.58	4.42	6.29	
Personal Growth	Learn valuable life skills*	-9.89	427.00	<2.2e-16	-1.98	-1.32	2.87	4.52
	Re-evaluate personal values*	-9.19	426.53	<2.2e-16	-1.80	-1.17	2.78	4.26
	Increase self-development*	-8.95	427.00	<2.2e-16	-1.91	-1.22	3.05	4.61
	Become more socially competent and skillful*	-9.27	427.00	<2.2e-16	-1.78	-1.16	2.89	4.36
	Enhance my self-image*	-4.34	424.22	1.766e-05	-0.99	-0.37	2.71	3.39
	Gain valuable career experience*	-10.35	425.99	<2.2e-16	-2.13	-1.45	2.75	4.54
	Learn more about myself*	-9.26	427.00	<2.2e-16	-1.85	-1.20	3.18	4.71
	Gain other's respect	-2.99	427.00	0.002977	-0/87	-0.18	3.27	3.80
Satisfy my curiosity	-1.72	427.00	0.08663	-0.63	0.043	4.18	4.47	
Nature	Learn more about the natural environment*	4.98	426.99	9.366e-07	0.43	0.99	5.69	4.98
	Learn about specific wildlife and plants*	9.29	411.85	<2.2e-16	1.07	1.64	5.97	4.62
	Enjoy the natural environment*	8.96	425.65	<2.2e-16	0.82	1.28	6.33	5.29
	Help preserve areas for future generations	-2.22	427.00	0.02724	-0.75	-0.04	4.21	4.61
	Satisfy my desire to travel*	3.37	427.00	0.0008142	0.21	0.79	5.22	4.72
Culture	Immerse myself in the local culture*	-6.43	341.64	4.286e-10	-1.18	-0.63	4.96	5.86
	Interact with the local people*	-7.58	318.96	3.847e-13	-1.10	-0.64	5.44	6.31
	Meet new and different people*	-8.95	301.03	<2.2e-16	-1.75	-1.12	4.40	5.84
	Experience something different and new	-0.99	423.82	0.3246	-0.37	0.12	5.34	5.47
	Learn more about other cultures*	-4.30	427.00	2.148e-05	-0.68	-0.25	5.74	6.21
Escape	Avoid the routine of my daily life	3.15	427.00	0.001756	0.19	0.84	5.19	4.67
	Have a once in a lifetime opportunity	0.34	427.00	0.7329	-0.26	0.37	5.71	5.66
	Go on a real adventure*	3.82	427.00	0.000155	0.30	0.93	5.70	5.08
	Relax mentally*	13.99	423.11	<2.2e-16	1.90	2.52	5.82	3.61
	Have an authentic tourism experience*	10.90	421.42	<2.2e-16	1.38	1.98	5.71	4.03
	Relax physically*	12.97	427.00	<2.2e-16	1.84	2.49	5.64	3.48

Note. * Significant differences amongst tourists and volunteers ($p < 0.0014$).

Chapter 5: Discussion

Uganda's tourism industry is the fastest growing tourism industry in all of Africa and is a major source of foreign exchange income, creating much-needed employment and development opportunities (Uganda Tourism Board, 2012). With a steady increase in non-resident visitor arrivals and little data on the characteristics of visitors to Uganda, it is important to understand how tourists may be utilizing Uganda's tourism products and services.

As previously discussed, many developing countries are actively pursuing tourism growth, yet the substantial and growing sectors of sustainable tourism and volunteer tourism remains relatively unnoticed and poorly documented in countries such as Uganda. Understanding the country's tourists more thoroughly through planned research is a logical step in better classifying the tourists, and it can work towards ensuring that both the country's tourism objectives and the demands of tourists can be met as well as allowing sound marketing decisions to be made in the country.

The purpose of this study was to identify the motivations of non-resident visitors to Uganda and to determine if there was a difference between leisure tourists and volunteers. This study also highlighted behavioural differences as evidenced in the places visited, activities undertaken, accommodation choices, expenditures and travel preferences of non-resident visitors to Uganda. It will assist the Uganda Ministry of Tourism, Wildlife and Antiquities, the Uganda Tourism Board, and other stakeholders to reach their goal of making tourism one of the major economic sectors in the country.

Demographics

When comparing respondents to previous studies, many respondents' characteristics were similar to those found in the literature on volunteer tourism. Non-resident visitors to Uganda were almost evenly split between females (53.0%) and males (47.0%), they were reported to be younger (18-30), with exactly 50% of respondents being under the age of 30, and most had some post-secondary education or higher (Broad, 2003; Bruyere & Rappe, 2007; Mustonen, 2005; Ooi & Laing, 2010; Zahra & McIntosh, 2007). For most respondents, this was their first visit to the country, and the majority came from either North America or Europe (Broad, 2003; Chen & Chen, 2011; Mustonen, 2005; Ooi & Laing, 2010; Stoddart & Rogerson, 2004; Zahra & McIntosh, 2007).

This research differed from previous studies in that it encompassed both volunteers and tourists. Previous research on volunteer tourism focused exclusively on volunteers (Broad, 2003; Brown & Morrison, 2003; Brown, 2005; Bruyere & Rappe, 2007; Chen & Chen, 2011; Mustonen, 2005; Simpson, 2004; Stoddart & Rogerson, 2004; Zahra & McIntosh, 2007). Including respondent data from both volunteers and tourists in Uganda allows for a wider comparison to be done between this research and previous studies on both volunteer tourism and sustainable tourism development.

Comparison of Arrival Declaration Card (ADC) Choices for Purpose of Visit to Uganda

The Uganda Bureau of Statistics is the government body responsible for compiling the data obtained from the Arrival Declaration Cards (ADC). According to data from the 2012 Statistical Abstract, only 6.6% of non-resident visitors to Uganda in

2011 claimed to be in the country for Holidays, Recreation and Leisure, while 52.4% of non-resident visitors claimed to be in the country to be Visiting Friends and Relatives, as compiled from the data listed on the ADC (Uganda Bureau of Statistics, 2012) (See Figure 8). Because these data were unavailable to the researcher at the time this survey research was being conducted in Uganda, the researcher attempted to capture this data through the survey by asking respondents what they declared on their ADC upon entry into Uganda.

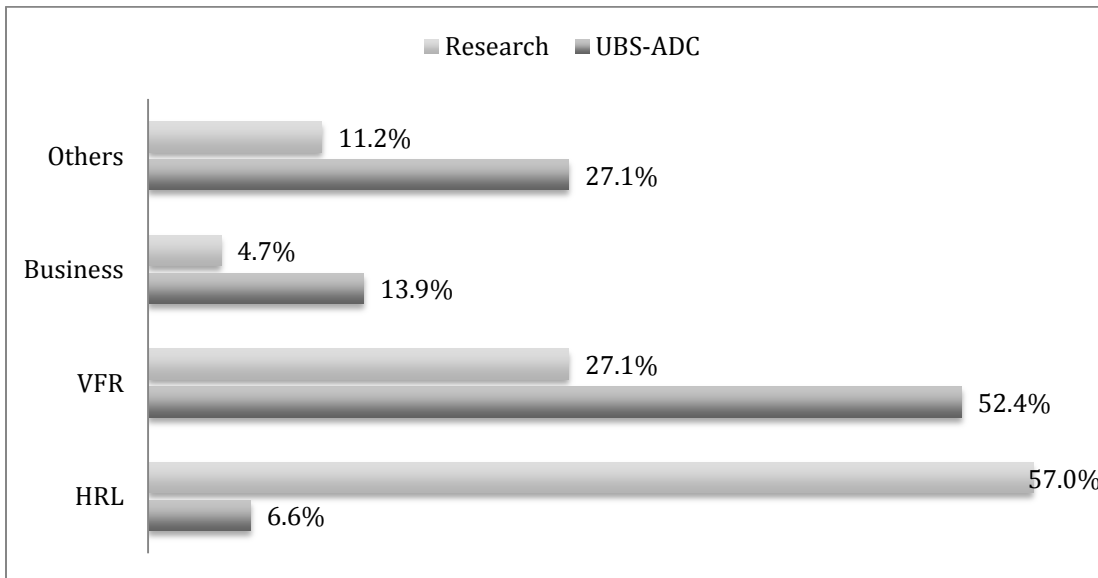
In stark contrast, as shown in Figure 8, a majority (57.0%) of respondents claimed to be in the country for Holidays, Recreation and Leisure, and the next highest segment was 27.1% claiming to be Visiting Friends and Relatives. This difference in numbers between the 2012 Statistical Abstract and this research may be due to the respondents not understanding the wording of this question fully, or that some respondents may not have remembered what they claimed upon entry into the country, thus answering the question differently from its intended purpose. Regardless, the number of visitors claiming to be Visiting Friends and Relatives was higher than what would be expected in both instances. Given that 79.2% of respondents were visiting Uganda for the first time and the researcher's observations at the Entebbe International Airport showed a high proportion of visitors of European descent entering the country, questions arise as to how tourists to Uganda are indicating the purpose of their trip on the Arrival Declaration Card.

According to the 2012 Statistical Abstract (2012), the number of tourists entering the country for Holidays, Recreation and Leisure dropped to 76 000 from 149 000 in 2010, representing a 48.3% decline, but what the Statistical Abstract failed to mention is that 357 000 tourists claimed Visiting Friends and Relatives in 2010, versus 603 000 in

2011, indicating a 168% increase in this purpose of visit (Uganda Bureau of Statistics, p. 57).

If more tourists are declaring Visiting Friends and Relatives as their reason for visiting Uganda, but they are in fact undertaking tourist activities for most of their trip, then these numbers are not accurately reflecting the number of non-resident visitors participating in tourism activities in the country, drawing significance away from tourism. When tourism activity is underestimated in a country, then resources such as marketing campaigns and budgets and various tourism infrastructure developments and improvements may not be the highest priority for the country, potentially missing an opportunity for the sustainable and continued growth of the tourism industry within the country.

Figure 8. Comparison of Arrival Declaration Card Data and Research Data



Comparison of Travel Characteristics between Leisure Tourists and Volunteers

Amongst respondents who were in Uganda for the purpose of volunteering, group travel was prominent, with 84.7% of all volunteers (n=242) traveling in groups and almost half (44.1%) of this segment traveling in a religious-oriented group. When compared to the entire number of respondents, 35.9% of total respondents (154 of n=429) were volunteering in Uganda as part of a religious-oriented group. The significance of over one-third of all respondents who were traveling as a volunteer in a religious-oriented group greatly overshadows the 10% of total respondents who were not traveling as part of a group and did not undertake any volunteer activities.

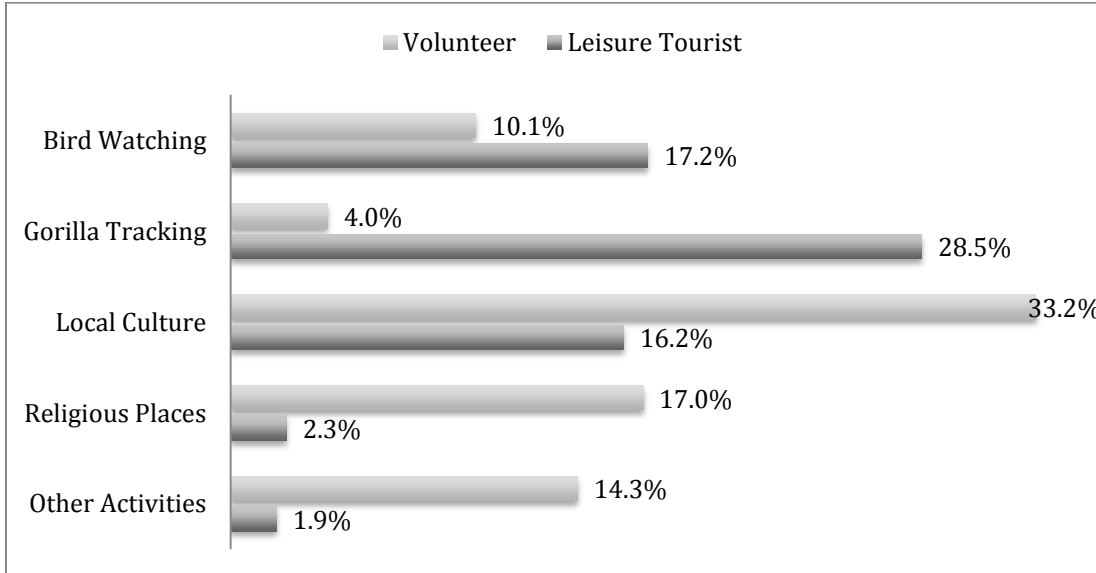
It is interesting to explore the similarities and differences between volunteers' and tourists' choices of accommodations, expenditures and activities within the country. The three most visited places in Uganda amongst both groups were the Equator (43.5%), Queen Elizabeth National Park (37.2%), and Bwindi Impenetrable National Park (30.1%). Comparable numbers of tourists and volunteers visited both the Equator and Queen Elizabeth National Park, but a large difference can be seen between the two groups in terms of visiting Bwindi Impenetrable National Park (BINP), where 26.1% of the total visitors were tourists to BINP compared to only 4% volunteers. This difference between leisure tourist's and volunteer's preference to visit BINP may be due to BINP being almost exclusively advertised for its population of mountain gorillas and for gorilla tracking. Gorilla tracking permits cost \$500 USD, and with only 6.7% of volunteers spending over \$1000 USD during their entire stay in Uganda, this may be an activity that is neither affordable nor desirable to volunteers. Because none of the reviewed literature compared tourists' and volunteers' activities, accommodation choices and expenditure

within a country, it is impossible to compare these research results against previous research.

In terms of local engagement, many more volunteers traveled to villages and rural destinations in comparison to tourists (18.4% compared to 3%), and this may have to do with volunteering trips offering experiences in places fewer general tourists approach, having the time and means to access these places and having the intention to work in small rural destinations (Chen & Chen, 2011).

As seen in Figure 9, when comparing activities undertaken in the country, five activities showed very distinctive differences between tourists and volunteers. Tourists tracked mountain gorillas and engaged in bird watching much more than volunteers; with almost double the amount of tourists having bird watched than volunteers, and while 32.5% of total respondents went gorilla tracking, 28.5% were tourists, and a mere 4% were volunteers that tracked the endangered animals in Bwindi Impenetrable National Park. Volunteers experienced local culture through community walks and by visiting local museums, over double the percentage of tourists (33.2% compared to 16.2% being tourists), by visiting sacred and religious places seven times more than tourists (17% compared to 2.3% being tourists), and by participating in other activities (most were related to volunteering and outreach projects, as listed on the survey by respondents) much more than tourists (14.3% compared to 1.9% being tourists). The differences in activity choices between these two groups were dependent on their trip purpose, expenditures and visitor motivations.

Figure 9. Comparison of Popular Activities between Leisure Tourists and Volunteers



The Tour Operators Survey done by the Uganda Ministry of Tourism, Wildlife and Antiquities (2008) concluded that visitors to the country found a lack of accommodation choices in and near national parks and protected areas, usually giving the visitor a choice between a luxury resort or rather dismal budget accommodations. However, since 2008, many new accommodation choices have been built along the perimeters of protected areas and within rural communities, offering visitors a better choice of accommodation when in Uganda. Comparable numbers of tourists and volunteers stayed in modest accommodations while in Uganda, with 21% of total respondents being tourists and 14.1% being volunteers who stayed in private, air-conditioned rooms. Tourists stayed in luxury resorts and lodges much more frequently than volunteers, with 24.2% of all respondents being tourists who chose luxurious accommodations over only 3.8% who were volunteers. Volunteers chose to stay most often in budget accommodations or at a friend's or family's residence, with 36.9% of total respondents (28.4% volunteers versus 8.5% tourists) staying in budget, shared

rooms with little or no amenities like electricity, a private bathroom, or running water; and 32.2% of total respondents (28.4% being volunteers versus only 4% tourists) who chose to stay at a friend's and/or family's residence. Only 17.9% of respondents chose to camp while in Uganda, with this total being comprised of 6.8% tourists and 11.1% volunteers, and volunteers were the only respondents to claim "Other" accommodation choices, which included dorm rooms, organization guest houses and private apartments (3.5% of total respondents).

The respondents' expenditures while in Uganda are reflective of their choices of accommodation and duration of stay. Almost half (48.1%) of total respondents spent between \$501-\$1000 USD while in the country, not including travel to and from Uganda. Of this largest category of respondents, 36.8% of the total were volunteers while 11.2% were tourists. Only 7.7% of total respondents spent less than \$500 USD while in Uganda (7% being volunteers and 0.7% being tourists), and almost equal amounts of tourists and volunteers, 7.7% and 6.7% respectively, incurred between \$1001-\$2000 USD total expenditures. Tourists dominated the categories higher than \$2000 USD, with 23.3% of total respondents being tourists who spent between \$2001-\$8000 USD compared to only 5.2% volunteers. Only 1.4% of total respondents claimed to have spent more than \$8000 USD while in Uganda, and this total was divided equally between tourists and volunteers.

The sale of curios and handicrafts in areas frequented by tourists provide income-generation opportunities for Ugandans who may have few other opportunities to generate a reliable source of income in order to provide for their families. Wood carvings, paper bead jewellery, textiles and other imported curios from neighbouring countries are prevalent in gift stands lining the roads that carry tourists to their destinations. Almost all

(94%) respondents spent less than \$500 USD on souvenirs, with 51.5% of total respondents spending less than \$100 USD. This small amount being spent on souvenirs while in Uganda may be indicative of the tourists' budgets, the attractiveness of the items available to the consumer, and the visitors' unwillingness to spend money on crafts without knowing if they were buying from the crafter themselves. Researching non-resident visitors' consumer preferences while in Uganda could be a future research opportunity that would be helpful to Ugandans who rely on these income-generating opportunities.

When looking at all respondents, the average length of stay in Uganda was 20.2 days (mode = 14 days) fitting with the common assumption that most visitors to Africa would travel for 2-3 weeks. When volunteers were analyzed separately from all respondents, volunteers stayed in Uganda for an average of 26.2 days (mode = 21 days) and volunteered for an average of 22.9 days (mode = 10 days).

However, when looking at the difference between days stayed in Uganda versus days spent volunteering in Uganda, the average was 3.3 days (mode = 0 days). This suggests is that a few volunteers may have volunteered for a much longer period of time, therefore increasing the averages, but when considered in light of the mode of 0 shows that 38% (n=92) of volunteers volunteered for their entire time while in Uganda, leaving no additional time to visit popular tourist attractions in Uganda or to undertake popular tourist activities. Additionally, if we consider the volunteers who spent two days or less in the country between their volunteering activities, this accounted for 63% (n=153) of volunteers. With volunteers travelling to more rural areas than tourists, it can be assumed

that they are volunteering for most of their time in Uganda, leaving only a day or two for travel to and from their volunteering destination.

Looking at the 92 volunteers that spent their entire time volunteering while in Uganda, 61% (n=56) of these volunteers were religious volunteers. What this implies then, is that a majority of religious volunteers spent their entire time in Uganda undertaking volunteer activities. From an economic perspective, religious volunteers who are not spending any (or very little) additional time or money in the country undertaking tourist activities cannot be considered an economically viable form of tourism in a country.

With the significant differences between activities and places visited, as well as expenditures within the country, between tourists and volunteers, volunteers are not choosing to take the time to see and do more in Uganda, therefore they may not be contributing as much economically to Uganda's tourism industry as tourists do.

Comparison of PCA Factors, Motive Items and Previous Research

The motivation scale items used in this study were derived from multiple sources based upon leisure, travel, volunteer tourism, volunteer and religious motivations (Beard & Ragheb, 1983; Beh & Bruyere, 2007; Ooi & Laing, 2010). Initially, the motive items used in the survey were categorized into three categories: 1) Intellectual/Competency, 2) Altruistic/Religious, and 3) Social/Attraction/Stimulus Avoidance; however, once the Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was conducted, five factors were generated, explaining 71.5% of the total variance. Three of the five factors bore a resemblance to three of the factors generated in Beh and Bruyere's (2007) research on the segmentation

by visitor motivation in Kenyan national reserves. All factors contained a mixture of at least two of three sources of motive items, bringing together the Leisure Motivation Scale (LMS), Ooi and Laing's (2010) motives, and the motives unique to this study (Beard & Ragheb, 1983; Ooi & Laing, 2010). The five factors were named after the motive items that each factor contained: Religious Volunteer (religious and altruistic motivations); Personal Growth (personal values and self-actualization motivations); Nature (motivations related to learning, enjoying and preserving the natural environment); Cultural (motivations pertaining to interactions within another culture); and Escape (motivations related to escape and adventure).

Factor 1: Religious volunteer.

Items loading on the first factor, Religious Volunteer, were all related to religious and altruistic volunteer motivations, and included all of the most dominant motives. This was also the factor with 11 motive items, making it the largest grouping of motive items. Seven of the motives were developed for this study, three were from Ooi and Laing's (2010) study, and one, "*Build new friendships*," is from the LMS and falls into the Social category developed by Beard and Ragheb (1983).

The enforcement of the idea indicated in previous research, that volunteer tourists are motivated by altruistic motives, is also embedded within this research (Brown, 2005; Chen & Chen, 2011; Mustonen, 2007; Ooi & Laing, 2010; Simpson, 2004; Uriely, Reichal, & Ron, 2003; Zahra & McIntosh, 2007). In Stoddart and Rogerson's (2004) study on Habitat for Humanity volunteers in South Africa, many respondents were religious volunteers and were in the country for projects linked with faith-based organizations. A commitment to Christian ideals afforded the backdrop to the projects

and provided a common foundation for many volunteers in Stoddart and Rogerson's research (2004). Such a faith-based commitment also bears resemblance to the most prevalent motives in this research – the ones pertaining to religious and altruistic desires and gestures.

Factor 2: Personal growth.

The second factor, Personal Growth, contained nine motive items relating to personal values and self-actualization. Five of these motive items were from Ooi and Laing's (2010) research, and the other four items were from the Leisure Motivation Scale, specifically from the Intellectual and Social subscales (Beard & Ragheb, 1983). These first two factors are good indicators of the motivations associated with volunteer tourism and may offer the greatest insight into what motivates the majority of non-resident visitors to travel to Uganda.

With most of the respondents being under the age of 30, parallels can be drawn between the study and previous research that looks at the popular gap-year phenomenon (Simpson, 2004). With Simpson's (2004) study on the gap year and volunteer tourists, it is explained that many young people from Western developed countries engage in a gap year, a year most commonly between high school and post-secondary studies, where young adults participate in a variety of work, travel and volunteer opportunities in order to increase self-development and personal growth. Cautiously, Simpson (2004) notes that gap-year projects can create a publicly accepted "mythology" of development that promotes the image of a "Third World Other," enabling the volunteers to explore and develop the "self" through altruistic efforts while enhancing their self-image and utilizing

their volunteer activity and travel for self-presentation purposes (Ooi & Laing, 2010; Uriely, Reichal, & Ron, 2003).

With Simpson's (2004) cautions noted, there is a possibility that young visitors to Uganda may be utilizing their visit to the country as an opportunity for self-image enhancement and self-development. The parallels drawn between this research and Simpson's (2004) could be due to it being summer break in North America and Europe when the research was conducted. This would prove to be an opportune time for young people to come to Uganda as they are free from the obligations of study and would be returning to secondary school or post-secondary studies at the end of their break.

Factor 3: Nature.

Nature was the third factor and contained the lowest number of motives. The five motives characterized the motivations to learn, enjoy and preserve the natural environment. Three of the motives were adopted from Ooi and Laing's (2010) study and the remaining two were developed for this study.

Even with the popularity of Uganda's endangered mountain gorilla population and the recently increased attention towards birding in the country, the proportion of respondents in the country who were specifically there to engage in activities related to nature, wildlife and sustainable tourism was lower than might be expected. Surprisingly, the second least dominant motive for travel to Uganda, before "*Satisfy my desire to travel*," was to "*Help preserve natural areas for future generations*." The lower interest in this motive may be due to the very small number of nature and conservation-based volunteers (12.4% of volunteers) captured in this study. As indicated by Broad (2003),

most nature and conservation-based volunteers are often long-term volunteers (more than 2 months), and there is a possibility that due to the timing of the research (high tourism season associated with summer breaks in North America and Europe), the visitors to Uganda for the purpose of preserving natural areas were not present in the study location as they might have been in the midst of their volunteering efforts, or this was not the ideal time of year for their work. A less desirable reason for the lack of visitors in the country dedicated to preserving areas for future generations could be because there seemed to be a lack of urgency surrounding Uganda's need to preserve and protect their protected areas that would be visible to visitors in the country (i.e., lack of public campaigns about, or exposure to, Uganda's environmental needs).

The Nature factor was similar to what was seen in Beh and Bruyere's (2007) study on visitors to Kenyan national reserves in that this group wanted to learn more about nature and enjoy the natural environment but with motive items relating to preserving the natural environment so low, this suggests that Uganda may be attracting less nature tourists and volunteers than expected. With some environmental programs being maintained by outside organizations and their volunteers, Uganda could be facing a shortage in helping hands dedicated to the preservation and conservation of natural areas in the country. Unfortunately, no research in the literature review can be compared to the activities, expenditures and accommodation choices amongst respondents who were in the country for sustainable tourism opportunities because previous data do not exist.

Factor 4: Cultural.

The Cultural factor contained five scale items, and all the motives related to interactions within another culture. Three of the factors were from Ooi and Laing's study

on backpacker and volunteer tourism, and two were from the Leisure Motivation Scale and represented both the Intellectual and Social subscales (Beard & Ragheb, 1983; Ooi & Laing, 2010).

Cultural interaction is a prominent motivation in volunteer tourism and leisure tourism in general (Beh & Bruyere, 2007; Broad, 2003; Brown, 2005; Chen & Chen, 2011; Ooi & Laing, 2010). Experiencing a new culture and interacting with local people are some of the most dominant motivations in volunteer tourism research. They are often highlighted as benefits over more conventional, mass tourism as it may be more difficult to experience intense cultural interactions through mass tourism (Broad, 2003; Brown, 2005; Chen & Chen, 2011).

Uganda's culture is rich in tradition and can offer visitors unique experiences, yet concerns may be raised over the prevalence of cultural tourism in Uganda and how to better market these experiences for tourists. In this study, many volunteers travelled to rural areas and interacted with local people more often, which suggests that cultural tourism may be prevalent in Uganda, but "*Experiencing something different and new*" is not a high-ranking motive item in this study. Exploring the sensitivities of visitors concerning new experiences within a new culture may be useful to Uganda with regards to how cultural tourism is marketed in the country.

Factor 5: Escape.

The last factor, Escape, contained six motives directly related to the notions of escape and adventure, "once in a lifetime opportunity," and relaxation motivations associated with leisure travel. Only one motive, "*Go on a real adventure*," was developed

for this research, two were from Ooi and Laing's (2010) study, and three were from the Leisure Motivation Scale Stimulus Avoidance subscale (Beard & Ragheb, 1983). Iso-Ahola (1982) described the social psychological theory of tourism motivation as seeking and escaping, with one being motivated to travel on the premise of escaping personal and interpersonal environments.

The Escape factor shares characteristics found in Brown's (2005) research, recognizing that individuals are driven by a sense of adventure, novelty and desire for exploration, even when a volunteer tourist. Additionally, Broad's (2003) research on volunteer tourists in Thailand indicated that some respondents shared motivations related to gaining an authentic tourism experience.

Comparison of Factors to a priori Motive Groupings.

Initially, the motive items used in the survey were categorized into three groups: Intellectual & Competency, Altruistic & Religious, and Social & Attraction (See Table 1). Similarities occur between the five factors to their a priori motive categories. Of all the items in the Religious Volunteer factor, all but two of the 11 motive items can be found in the Altruistic & Religious category, with the exception of "*Travel with a purpose*" from the Intellectual & Competency category and "*Build new friendships*" from the Social & Attraction category.

For the Personal Growth factor, all motive items are from the Intellectual & Competency category. Three out of the five motive items from the Nature factor were from the Intellectual & Competency category with one motive item being from each of the other two categories.

“Experience something different and new” and *“Learn more about other cultures”* were two motive items from the Cultural factor that can be found in the Intellectual & Competency category while the additional three motive items for this factor are in the Social & Attraction category. All motive items for the Escape factor can be found in the Social & Attraction category.

Most Dominant and Least Dominant Motive Items

The dominant motives in this study were altruistic in nature and are not directly comparable to other studies that looked at leisure travel or volunteer tourism motivation because the researcher developed these items. *“To provide spiritual and emotional support to communities”* was the most dominant motive, followed by *“To enhance the quality of life for the disadvantaged”* and *“To do something for a cause that is important to me.”* For studies relating to sustainable tourism in a developing country, this is the first glimpse of what motivations pertain to a general population of non-resident visitors, rather than a specific target population (i.e., Safari tourists or volunteers).

When these dominant motive items are compared with respondent’s self-declared reason for travel, activities undertaken, accommodations and expenditures, what emerges from research that does not focus on a specific population of non-resident visitors (i.e., nature or cultural tourists specifically), many visitors to Uganda do not fit the stereotypical safari tourist description common to Eastern Uganda. Instead, many non-resident visitors to Uganda are religious individuals concerned about social issues in the country, rather than tourism. However, it is interesting to note that many visitors to Uganda make an effort to undertake some, or in some cases, many tourist activities while

in the country but will not claim to be in the country for reasons related to travel and leisure.

Motive items related to religious motivations were some of the strongest in the study, suggesting that there may be a need to further research these motives in other tourism settings, particularly in developing countries. “*Sharing the message of God’s love for humankind,*” to “*Influence others positively*” and to “*Serve God through prayer, preaching, healing and ministry*” were the most dominant religious and altruistic motive items. Uganda is a predominantly Christian nation, which could explain the high prevalence of Christian volunteers to the country; however, with a large proportion of religious-oriented volunteer tourists in the country, it would be interesting to further research the dynamics of the interactions between volunteers and locals.

Two of the least dominant motives in this study were “*Help preserve natural areas for future generations*” and “*Satisfy my desire to travel.*” The motive related to preservation of natural areas was created by the researcher and was hoped to decipher between conservation-based tourists and volunteers versus faith-based volunteers. The least dominant motive of satisfying one’s desire to travel was modified from Ooi and Laing’s (2010) study on backpacker tourism’s overlap into volunteer tourism, where it was stated as “*Desire to travel.*” Surprisingly, this motive in Ooi and Laing’s (2010) study was the second-most dominant motive item, and one would think that this motive item would have ranked higher for respondents in Uganda that were classified as tourists (43.6%). The study done by Ooi and Laing (2010) was conducted in central Melbourne, Australia and may reflect the difference in motive items related to the desire to travel –

Australia is a popular backpacking destination whereas Uganda remains more of a specialized travel destination.

Comparison with Previous Research on Volunteer Tourism Motivation

It has been shown that identifying tourist motivations can be a useful and effective approach for determining visitor opportunities and for helping to adequately provide a positive tourism experience for visitors (Beh & Bruyere, 2007). Many of the motivations uncovered in this study relate to previous research on volunteerism and volunteer tourism, but one motive differs from research done on volunteer tourists in Thailand (Broad, 2003). In both studies, experiencing a different culture was a positive aspect, along with the altruistic desire to help and gaining relevant career experience, but in Broad's (2003) study, the most frequently identified motivation was to travel, which was the least represented motive in this research. In Chen and Chen's (2011) case study on international volunteer tourists in China, altruistic desire, adventure, personal growth, cultural exchange and learning, and organization goal or mission were also prevalent motivations, relating very much to the dominant motives of this study.

The findings of this study are very comparable to Brown's (2005) research on understanding the motives and benefits of volunteer vacationers. Brown's (2005) qualitative research consisted of focus groups and semi-structured, in-depth interviews. The commonalities between their research and this quantitative study supports that motives can be consistent amongst different sized research populations and across different methodologies, further strengthening the foundation of volunteer tourism motivations of which so many researchers have explored within the past decade (Broad, 2003; Brown, 2005; Brown & Morrison, 2003; Bruyere & Rappe, 2007; Chen & Chen,

2011; Mustonen, 2005; Simpson, 2004; Stoddart & Rogerson, 2004; Zahra & McIntosh, 2007). Being able to physically and emotionally immerse oneself in the local culture, being able to reach out to the less privileged, and being motivated by a chance to experience a new culture are all similar motivations identified in this study and Brown's (2005). Additionally, recognizing that the "volunteer-minded" vacationers devote most or all of their vacation time to volunteer activities at the destination is referred to as a mission or service trip by Brown (2005), which reflects the response of the mission/religious/outreach volunteers, 65.7% of all volunteers in this study. Religious motivation, one of the most significant underpinnings in this research, cannot be directly compared to any previous research relating to sustainable tourism in a developing country and suggests that further research on religious-oriented volunteer tourism may be a valuable area of study for determining new visitor opportunities.

Mustonen (2007) has stated that volunteer tourism does not only involve volunteerism, and that without exception, volunteers want to include some element of tourism for their holidays. This point brings forth that volunteer tourism within Uganda is still a form of tourism and should receive recognition from tourism stakeholders within Uganda. Even though volunteers tend to be distinct in profile from other tourists (younger, primarily motivated by altruistic motivations), Mustonen (2005) also notes that volunteer tourists can fluctuate between conventional and altruistic tourists, further emphasizing the fact that they may be just as impactful to a developing country's tourism industry as conventional tourists and therefore should not be ignored by tourism stakeholders (Zahra & McIntosh, 2007).

The following diagram (Figure 10) is a reconfigured version of Figure 2 from Chapter 2 that describes the relationship between religious, leisure, tourism, volunteer and volunteer tourism motivations post-research. This research has shown that religious motivation is an integral component in volunteer tourism motivation for non-resident visitors to Uganda – more than the previous three types of motivation: tourism, leisure and volunteer.

It is important to realize that volunteer tourism motivation can be very complex and may involve religious motivation to a high degree. Religious motivation should not continue to be omitted from discussions surrounding volunteer tourism motivation as it can impact the reasons why one chooses to travel and volunteer in a country, and can dramatically affect the levels of interaction between the visitor and host community. Previous research has concluded that religious volunteers report almost twice as much volunteering time than non-faith-based volunteers and that volunteering with a religious motive in mind can enhance the sense of religious belonging (Littlepage et al., 2007; Ozorak, 2003).

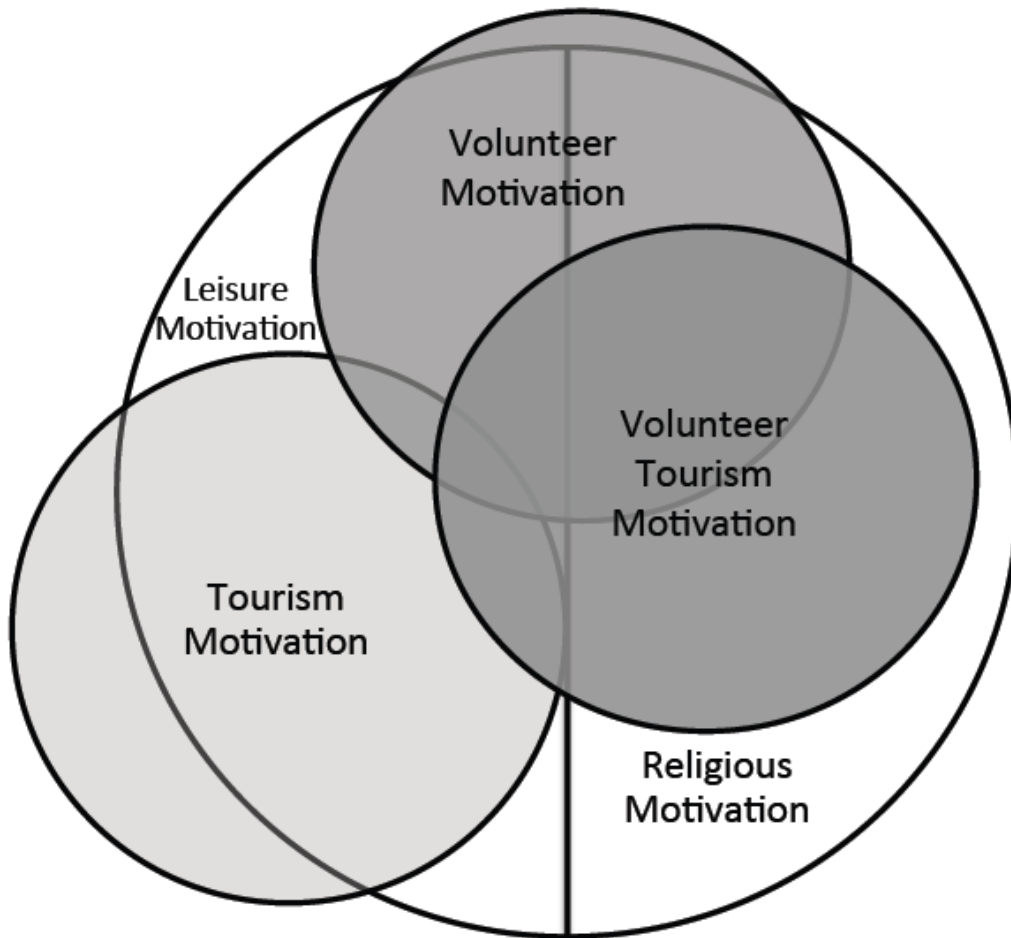
Figure 10 emphasizes that religious motivations can be just as influential on one's motivation to volunteer as leisure motivation. Religious socialization has an impact on one's propensity to volunteer and religious organizations can provide direct opportunities for volunteer work, leading to the acquisition of both social and cultural capital (Oesterle et al., 2004; Park & Smith, 2000).

With the dominance of the Religious Volunteer factor and the strong correlation between religious motivations and volunteers in this study, volunteer tourism motivation

is shown as having an underpinning of religious motivation, some leisure motivation, volunteer motivation (which has been shown to be influenced by religious involvement) and some tourism motivation.

The following figure allows the complexities of volunteer tourism motivations to be visualized as a combination of all five types of motivations.

Figure 10. Interconnected Relationship between Religious, Leisure, Tourism, Volunteer and Volunteer Tourism Motivation



Chapter 6: Implications & Conclusion

This study has provided an overview of the demographics, travel characteristics, and motivations of non-resident visitors to Uganda. This research has provided insight into the characteristics of these non-resident visitors, including demographic information, places visited, activities undertaken, accommodation choices, expenditures and their motivation for visiting Uganda. The relationships among these characteristics and motivations provide valuable information as to how non-resident visitors to a country can impact its sustainable tourism industry.

Contribution of Research

To the best of our knowledge, this study provided the first quantitative assessment of the motivations and travel characteristics of non-resident visitors to Uganda. It assessed the relationship between demographics, travel preferences and motivations, which allowed the research to be of use and apt for giving guidance to the further development of the sustainable tourism industry within a developing African country and more specifically, Uganda. Previous research has studied volunteer tourists and associated motivations (Broad, 2003; Brown & Morrison, 2003; Bruyere & Rappe, 2007; Campbell & Smith, 2006; Chen & Chen, 2011; Coghlan, 2008; Guttentag, 2009; Harlow & Pomfret, 2007; McGehee, 2002; McGehee & Santos, 2005; Mustonen, 2005; Scheyvens, 2002; Simpson, 2004; Stoddart & Rogerson, 2004; Zahra & McIntosh, 2007), the overlap of motivations between volunteerism and tourism (Ooi & Laing, 2010), and the motivations of tourists in sustainable tourism (Beh & Bruyere, 2007; Broad, 2003). Leisure and tourism motivations have been studied from various perspectives, including one of the most predominant paradigms for formulating and testing motivation, the push-

pull theory (Crompton, 1979; Dann, 1977; Iso-Ahola, 1980; Snepenger et al., 2006), as well as the Leisure Motivation Scale (LMS) (Beard & Ragheb, 1983; Ooi & Laing, 2010). The characteristics and dominant motives found by previous researchers were compared to the responses in this study.

Implications for Tourism Practice in Uganda

The first two objectives of this study were, first, to determine the motives of non-residents to visit Uganda and compare these motives with the reason stated on the respondents' Arrival Declaration Cards, and, second, to explore relationships of Uganda-specific travel motivations with demographics and other travel characteristics, including travel behaviours. Both of these objectives have been accomplished. Four other objectives were to provide direction for future Uganda tourism sector marketing and development efforts, to stimulate further research on the volunteer tourism market, both in general and in developing countries such as Uganda, to provide a foundation for future research on the sustainable travel market in Uganda, and finally, to contribute to the literature and general knowledge base on volunteer tourism as a component of sustainable tourism.

One of the main objectives of this study was to provide direction for future Uganda tourism sector marketing and development efforts. The results of this study may have direct or indirect implications for a developing country's tourism sector, specifically Uganda's. The Uganda Ministry of Tourism, Wildlife and Antiquities has stressed the importance of further understanding the complexities of their country's tourism industry, and have put some effort into marketing and working with tourism stakeholders in the country to allow the tourism industry to become a significant contributor to Uganda's

Gross Domestic Product (GDP) (Uganda Tourism Board, 2011). With the knowledge of the motives that drive both tourists and volunteers to visit Uganda, and their preferences (and ultimately, expenditures) as non-resident visitors in the country, tourism stakeholders can work towards developing marketing plans, tourism products and sustainable tourism frameworks that will ensure that Uganda's tourism opportunities and products can satisfy the motives of both general tourists and volunteers to the country, while being beneficial to the country and its people.

Identifying a new and unique market segment that is neither a pure leisure trip nor a pure volunteer experience and that includes a "mini-mission" (short-term volunteer experience that offers a cultural exchange component with local people) can seem like a desirable and naturally fitting addition to tour packages in Uganda, especially considering the dominant motives of "*Doing something for a cause that is important to me*" and "*Enhancing the quality of life for the disadvantaged,*" but the tour operator must understand the characteristics and needs of the people who are most likely to opt for volunteer vacations over traditional tours (Brown & Morrison, 2003; Brown, 2005). Any tourism operator can enhance their tourism products by offering short volunteer opportunities as part of a tour package, but one must take into account that 42.3% of volunteers in this study did not choose to identify with being in the country for holidays, recreation and leisure, and instead chose to claim that they were visiting friends and relatives (Guttentag, 2009; Ooi & Laing, 2010). Additionally, 86.8% of the volunteers' self-declared reasons were related to religious or general volunteering, when only 13.2% of volunteers claimed to be in the country for tourism reasons. Promoting volunteer opportunities as part of organized tourist experiences may not be a successful strategic

marketing move on the tour operator's behalf and may detour volunteers from choosing these packages in fear of being labeled a "tourist" over an "altruistic and respectable do-gooder." Additionally, volunteering experiences as part of organized tourist experiences may encourage a "beggar" economy, undermining the efforts of development agencies that are fully committed to the development and sustainability of local economies.

Volunteer Tourism: A Prominent and Unsustainable Tourism Segment in Uganda

The results of this study indicate that there are at least five prominent types of visitors to Uganda, with a majority being altruistically motivated to help and assist various populations within the country. With a high proportion of visitors undertaking volunteer activities while in Uganda, it is very important that tourism stakeholders in Uganda adopt market-based volunteer tourism opportunities with caution, even though it is evident that it is very popular in the country.

Volunteer tourism certainly brings some advantages to a developing country. The very nature of non-resident visitors being drawn to the country to help those in need and contribute to the country's economy and tourism industry are inarguably obvious benefits. Independent tourists, including volunteers, have been known to spend more money than any other tourist category due to longer stays spread out over a wider geographic area, bringing benefits to remote, economically depressed regions where few other tourists may venture. Further, these tourists' expenditures stay local as the more structured nature of package tours can limit contacts with locals and suppress tourism leakages to local groups and organizations (Scheyvens, 2002).

Volunteers are known to have less expectations of luxury and are more accepting of differences in amenities in developing countries (food, accommodation, transportation

methods), as indicated in this study, with many volunteers having stayed in friend's and family's residences and/or budget accommodations. Commonly, when communities control their own tourism enterprises, they often provide for the budget sector without the need for large amounts of start-up capital or sophisticated infrastructure. They are also in a better position to participate in local business or tourism organizations through which wider development goals and the well-being of local people can be promoted (Scheyvens, 2002). Additionally, Scheyvens (2002) notes that local communities may not always possess the skills, experience or resources to provide luxury services, and this can allow them to completely miss out on the benefits of tourism ventures in their own communities. However, volunteer tourism can allow these local communities to progress and flourish by supporting their grassroots and community-led business ventures.

With the aforementioned benefits aside, volunteer tourism has been praised by a relatively uncritical approach in most literature, but it should be analyzed just like any other form of tourism by looking closely at the benefits, disadvantages and implications of this form of tourism in the country (Guttentag, 2009). It may seem straightforward that volunteers in the country are potentially a large market that is participating in tourist activities and visiting tourist attractions just as much (or more) than general tourists to the country and that marketing efforts should be directed towards this group. Nonetheless, simply acknowledging this group in this matter may not be particularly beneficial to either party for a number of reasons.

According to the World Tourism Organization (UNEP & UNWTO, 2005), in order to guarantee long-term sustainability in tourism, sustainable tourism should:

- 1) Make optimal use of environmental resources, maintain essential ecological processes and help to conserve natural heritage and biodiversity;
- 2) Respect the socio-cultural authenticity of host communities, conserve their built and living cultural heritage and traditional values as well as contribute to intercultural understanding and balance; and
- 3) Ensure viable, long-term economic operations which provide socio-economic benefits to all stakeholders, including stable employment and income-earning opportunities and social services to host communities, contributing to poverty alleviation.

Given these pillars of sustainability, volunteer tourism is not a sustainable form of tourism in Uganda.

Gorilla and primate tracking, birding and game views (safaris) fund conservation and sustainable development projects within Uganda, helping to conserve the natural heritage and biodiversity of Uganda (Uganda Wildlife Authority, 2013). With “*Help preserve natural areas for future generations*” being one of the least dominant motive items in this study and “*Sharing the message of God’s love for humankind*” being the third most dominant motive item (only after “*Provide spiritual and emotional support to communities*” and “*Enhance the quality of life for the disadvantaged*”), some volunteer’s objectives could completely omit any concern for environmental issues. Additionally, with volunteers’ expenditures being quite low while in the country and with very little volunteers undertaking regulated animal tracking and viewing opportunities, they are not contributing to the resources needed to fund these conservation and sustainable development projects within the country. Furthermore, volunteers tend to stay in private

residences and visit more rural areas than tourists, leaving their activities while in these areas unmonitored and potentially harmful to natural areas, wildlife and ecosystems.

With reference to the second criteria for sustainable tourism, even though volunteer tourism can allow for intense cross-cultural interactions that can lead to an increased awareness of global issues and equalities, volunteer tourism can just as easily reinforce the negative stereotypes and romanticize the notion of “the Other” (Guttentag, 2009; Ooi & Laing, 2010). Volunteering in a developing country may be a self-serving attempt to boost one’s self-image, it can inadvertently reinforce power inequalities, thus representing a form of imperialism, and it may have an implicit or even explicit goal of imparting certain religious beliefs on the host community (Guttentag, 2009; Ooi & Laing, 2010).

Missionary work undertaken by religious organizations may purposefully disregard, and even attempt to abolish, the cultural heritage and traditional values as a means to convert host communities or to strengthen their existing belief systems. The complexities of African history in a colonized country such as Uganda, along with its rich cultural heritage, stand as a strong attraction of the country and as an invaluable historical resource.

Third, volunteer tourists generally perform work that could be performed by local community members, and are actually paying for the opportunity to work for free, undercutting local labourers (Guttentag, 2009). Volunteers may lack full dedication to a project, as most volunteers will only participate for a short duration of the project, assuming the roles of experts and authority on the project in a local community and then leaving the project whenever they wish, which can be detrimental to the project’s success

and the community's ability to carry out the work after the volunteers have left (Guttentag, 2009; Mustonen, 2007).

To assume that a certain volunteer project will be beneficial to a community without prior consultation with the local community and stakeholders would be ignorant of the fact that the needs and desires of host communities vary, and that one type of tourism or a certain volunteer venture in collaboration with tourism stakeholders, may not be culturally, socially, economically and ecologically acceptable for the host community (Beh & Bruyere, 2007; Guttentag, 2009). Additionally, if volunteers are travelling to Uganda with such all-encompassing religious motives as "*Sharing the message of God's love for humankind*", then once they feel that they have fulfilled this objective in Uganda, then they will simply move on to another area in order to do the same – illustrating the very ill-sustainability of this form of tourism in one geographic area.

Volunteer tourism, with the intention of doing good, may cause negative impacts, but a greater awareness of the possible impacts will allow tourism stakeholders and project managers to manage volunteer tourism in a manner that is most beneficial to both the volunteer and the host community (Guttentag, 2009). Currently, it can be concluded that the volunteer tourism identified in this research is not a sustainable form of tourism for Uganda.

Suggestions for Ugandan Tourism Policy and Development

The Uganda Ministry of Tourism Wildlife and Antiquities (MTWA) has a vision of 'harnessing tourism, wildlife and cultural heritage as a primary growth sector contributing to the transformation of the Ugandan society from a peasant to a modern and prosperous Country' and a mission to 'develop and promote tourism, wildlife and

heritage resources of Uganda into a highly competitive and preferred tourist destination...’ (p. 1, 2012).

Uganda’s recent tourism growth can be verified by the increase in Uganda’s Gross Domestic Product (GDP), the number of total visitor arrivals to the country and national park arrivals. However, it is important that the Uganda Ministry of Tourism Wildlife and Antiquities examines the strength and sustainability of its tourism industry from all angles, including a closer look at who its non-resident visitors are and why they are in the country.

It has been shown that a large proportion of non-resident visitors to Uganda undertake some form of volunteer activity while in the country. The cautions surrounding the acknowledgement and marketing of volunteer tourism opportunities within a developing country have been outlined in the previous section but it is trusted that the following suggestions may help tourism stakeholders in Uganda to better prepare and adapt to its growing tourism industry and ensure that tourism in the country remains as sustainable as possible:

1. Using Uganda’s tourism industry as a transformer from a ‘peasant’ to a ‘modern and prosperous’ society will require the continued involvement of tourism stakeholders in all levels of industry. This includes, and is not limited to, the national ministries responsible for policy and development, higher education institutions and the bodies responsible for the public education of the importance of the preservation of Uganda’s cultural and natural landscape, the various stakeholders involved in the delivery of tourism services in the country, and, the

- grassroots organizations comprised of Ugandan citizens who remain the faces of Uganda to many non-resident visitors annually;
2. Caution, discretion and careful planning must be practiced when tourism infrastructure is developed in or near the protected areas of Uganda. The majority of non-resident visitors prefer budget to modest accommodations when in Uganda, opposed to luxurious offerings. Comfortable and affordable accommodations are most desirable amongst both leisure and volunteer tourists.
 3. Obtaining a balanced approach to marketing tourism services is critical. Volunteer tourists undertake many general tourism activities but tend to highlight their experiences that deal with their volunteering efforts in Uganda, rather than their experiences as a 'tourist'. Marketing activities geared to both leisure tourists and volunteers could see an increase in participation amongst both groups, leading to increased revenues to stakeholders. Affordable tourism activities that showcase minimal environmental impact and maximum community benefit may prove to be a valuable gain for Uganda's tourism industry;
 4. Gathering relevant information and statistics on visitors to the country can continue to guide and inform future policies and developments related to tourism. Adding the category of 'volunteer' to the Arrival Declaration Card (ADC), or a related category, may capture the intentions and activities of non-resident visitors to the country much more accurately than the current ADC does.
 5. Local empowerment through the cooperation of creating and delivering tourism services, the support of grassroots organizations and the recognition of Ugandan culture and heritage as a valuable draw for visitors to the country will keep

Uganda at the forefront of offering an authentic and desirable tourist experience. These relationships contribute to economic sustainability, increasing national pride and identity, while enhancing the quality of life for Ugandan citizens and reducing the negative stereotypes often associated with a developing country – thereby reducing the perceived need of the unsustainable volunteer tourism market.

Study Limitations and Future Research

Having a strong response rate and very minimal missing data supports the conclusion that this study was successful in gathering the data as intended. Conducting the research overseas and keeping all respondents anonymous has eliminated the chances of calculating a non-response bias, which makes it difficult to know if there could be any major differences among the responses of those who chose to respond and those who did not.

Because the researcher distributed the surveys during the times before and between major international flight departures at the Entebbe International Airport, a limitation could be that the researcher was not able to target non-resident visitors who chose to leave Uganda via ground transportation (continuing their trip to another African country) or those who chose to fly out of Uganda using smaller, low-cost carriers out of a different terminal.

This research addressed Mustonen's (2005) concern that collecting statistical information and conducting quantitative surveys on volunteer tourists would be difficult, if not impossible, due to only a few volunteers being in any one destination at a certain time, by devising a research method that allowed for a large amount of data to be

collected from a relatively large sample in a location that was both accessible and cost-efficient to conduct the research: the International Departures Lounge of the Entebbe International Airport.

Across all disciplines, several aspects of volunteerism have been insufficiently researched and very little research has been conducted on the “vacation-minded” volunteer tourist; it appears that the motivational factors for a volunteer vacation can intertwine with multiple layers of general leisure vacation motivation (Brown, 2005; Bruyere & Rappe, 2007). Future research should continue to compare the characteristics of both tourists and volunteers in a tourism destination in order to gain a better sense of the commonalities, differences and demands of these two groups of non-resident visitors. Much research on volunteer tourism has included small sample sizes and qualitatively explored the motivations of volunteers, but if a country such as Uganda is looking to develop and expand their tourism industry, then it is important that these groups of tourists are understood not only by their motivations, but by their demographics, activities and places visited within the country, expenditures and tourist preferences.

With religious and altruistic motives being so prominent in this study, it is encouraged that future research on volunteer tourism incorporate, or at least recognize, a religious aspect in the research. It is hoped that this research has spurred interest and curiosity into why so many religious and faith-based volunteers and volunteer groups are drawn to projects in developing countries, particularly Uganda. To date, very little volunteer research recognizes this characteristic of volunteers.

Additionally, volunteer tourism should continue to be researched from a more critical standpoint, rather than the positive stance taken by many researchers on volunteer

tourism. It is crucial to understand the impacts and effects that volunteer tourists may have in a developing country in terms of affecting cultural and social traditions, religious beliefs and affiliations, economic stimulants and/or suppressors brought to the host communities by volunteer projects, and the overall willingness and acceptance of host communities to have non-resident visitors “helping” them with a project for a short duration.

Conclusion

Not knowing a visitor’s actual underlying reason for travel to Uganda by use of insufficient self-declaration categories may mislead tourism stakeholders within the country. If a majority of visitors possess religious, volunteer and/or personal growth motivations to visit the country, the Ugandan tourism industry must analyze these market sectors and their specific needs directly.

Organized group travel focusing on the natural and cultural aspects of Uganda is also a prominent sector, but Uganda seems to be quite prepared for these visitors, as opposed to the sector of budget-minded individuals who undertake both volunteer and tourism activities in the country. The second main objective of this research was to provide direction for future Uganda tourism sector marketing and development efforts, and it is hoped that the results of this study may have direct or indirect implications for the Uganda tourism sector. Major tourism stakeholders in Uganda are noticing a need for market information as tourism infrastructure is increasing within the country. Using the data provided in this study can allow for stakeholders to draw conclusions on what is needed in the country to allow for the tourism sector to continue growing and to remain competitive amongst other East African tourist destinations.

Ultimately, it is important to note that because of the exploratory nature of this study, it is anticipated that this study should encourage further research into not only the basic characteristics of the tourism in a developing country such as Uganda, but into volunteer tourism as well.

In conclusion, this study successfully explored the motivations and characteristics of non-resident visitors to Uganda. This study indicated that the respondents shared characteristics most like those of volunteers and nature tourists, which brought conflicting theories and suggestions to light. This study supported the findings of the majority of previous research on volunteer tourism and offered new insight into the characteristics and motivations of both volunteers and tourists to Uganda.

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Appendix A: Survey

A STUDY OF NON-RESIDENT VISITORS TO UGANDA

A Masters of Arts (M.A.) Research Project
The University of Manitoba



The purpose of this research project is to identify the reasons why non-resident visitors have chosen Uganda as a tourism destination and will aim to describe non-resident visitor characteristics according to demographics, activities undertaken while in the country and average expenditures. Your participation in this research will provide Uganda with a better understanding of tourist activity and guidance on how to better develop a sustainable tourism industry.

Responses should come from a person who is of non-resident visitor status in Uganda (international and visiting for 24 hours or longer) and is of 18 years of age or older.

Your participation in this survey is entirely voluntary and will involve answering a number of questions regarding your travel, your reasons for travel, and some questions about yourself. The survey will take approximately 15-20 minutes to complete.

All individual responses will be anonymous and kept strictly confidential. You may refrain from answering any questions that you prefer to omit. You have the right to ask the researcher any questions at anytime that you may have regarding this research. You may also withdraw from this research at any time by simply not completing the survey and discarding it.

The Education & Nursing Research Ethics Board at the University of Manitoba has approved this research. If you have any questions or concerns about this project, you may contact the Human Ethics Secretariat at Margaret_Bowman@umanitoba.ca or either of the project coordinators:

- Meagan Halowaty (Masters Student): umhalowa@cc.umanitoba.ca
- Dr. Michael Campbell (Academic Advisor): campblm@cc.umanitoba.ca

A summary of the results of this research may be viewed on the following website after December 1, 2011:
www.umanitoba.ca/outreach/uganda_cida_sustainable_tourism

To indicate that you have read and understand the above information and agree to participate in this survey, please answer the following questions and return the completed survey to the drop box which is located beside the researcher.

Many questions in this survey make use of rating scales with 7 choices. Please check the box that best describes your opinion. For example, if you were asked to rate "The weather in Uganda" on such a scale, the 7 choices should be interpreted as follows: 1 = Extremely poor, 2 = Very poor, 3 = Slightly poor, 4 = Neither, 5 = Slightly good, 6 = Very good, 7 = Extremely good.

Example:

	Extremely Poor	Very Poor	Slightly Poor	Neither	Slightly Good	Very Good	Extremely Good
The weather in Uganda is:	1	2	3	4	5	✓	7

In making your ratings, please remember the following points:

- Be sure to answer all items - do not omit any.
- Never check more than one number on a single scale.
- Be sure to check number that best describes your opinion.

over ▶▶

Part I: Places Visited and Tourist Activities Undertaken While in Uganda

In this section, please check each item based on the places you visited and your activities undertaken while in Uganda.

While in Uganda, I visited: (Check all that apply)

<input type="checkbox"/>	Bujagali Falls
<input type="checkbox"/>	Bwindi Impenetrable National Park
<input type="checkbox"/>	Ishasha
<input type="checkbox"/>	Jinja (Source of the Nile)
<input type="checkbox"/>	Karinju Forest
<input type="checkbox"/>	Kasubi Tombs
<input type="checkbox"/>	Kibale National Park
<input type="checkbox"/>	Kidepo
<input type="checkbox"/>	Lake Bunyoni
<input type="checkbox"/>	Lake Mburo National Park
<input type="checkbox"/>	Mabira Forest
<input type="checkbox"/>	Mgahinga National Park
<input type="checkbox"/>	Murchison Falls National Park
<input type="checkbox"/>	Mt. Elgon
<input type="checkbox"/>	Namugongo
<input type="checkbox"/>	Ngamba Island
<input type="checkbox"/>	Rwenzori National Park
<input type="checkbox"/>	Semiliki National Park
<input type="checkbox"/>	Ssesse Island
<input type="checkbox"/>	The Equator
<input type="checkbox"/>	Queen Elizabeth National Park
<input type="checkbox"/>	Other: (Please Specify) _____

While in Uganda, I: (Check all that apply)

<input type="checkbox"/>	Tracked the endangered mountain gorillas
<input type="checkbox"/>	Engaged in bird watching (birding/twitching)
<input type="checkbox"/>	Tracked chimpanzees and other primates (not including mountain gorillas)
<input type="checkbox"/>	Went on a guided game view (safari)
<input type="checkbox"/>	Went on a forest walk
<input type="checkbox"/>	Went whitewater rafting and/or kayaking
<input type="checkbox"/>	Experienced local cultures through community walks, museums and exhibitions
<input type="checkbox"/>	Went mountain climbing
<input type="checkbox"/>	Captured scenery through photography and/or film
<input type="checkbox"/>	Visited sacred and religious places
<input type="checkbox"/>	Visited historic sites
<input type="checkbox"/>	Went on a lake or river cruise
<input type="checkbox"/>	Other: (Please Specify) _____

over ▶▶

Part II: Reasons for Travelling to Uganda

What reason for travel did you declare on the Arrival Declaration Card presented to you before you entered Uganda? (Please check only one)

- | | |
|---|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Holidays, Recreation & Leisure | <input type="checkbox"/> Seeking Permanent Residence |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Visiting Friends & Relatives | <input type="checkbox"/> Seeking Temporary Residence |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Business/Meeting/Conference | <input type="checkbox"/> In Transit |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Other: _____ | |

In this section, please answer each item based on how important it was to your decision to travel to Uganda, with 1 = Not at all Important and 7 = Extremely Important.

I made the decision to travel to Uganda, because I wanted to be able to:

	Not at all Important	Very Unimportant	Slightly Unimportant	Neither	Slightly Important	Very Important	Extremely Important
Experience something different and new	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Satisfy my desire to travel	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Learn more about myself	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Travel with a purpose	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Gain other's respect	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Satisfy my curiosity	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Increase self-development	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Become more socially competent and skillful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Learn more about the natural environment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Learn more about other cultures	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Gain valuable career experience	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Enhance my self-image	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Learn valuable life skills	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Re-evaluate personal values	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Other: _____							

over ▶▶

In this section, please answer each item based on how important it was to accomplish these items, with 1 = Not at all Important and 7 = Extremely Important.

I chose to travel to Uganda, because I wanted to:

	Not at all Important	Very Unimportant	Slightly Unimportant	Neither	Slightly Important	Very Important	Extremely Important
Build new friendships	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Have an authentic tourism experience	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Relax physically	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Relax mentally	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Enjoy the natural environment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Interact with the local people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Learn about specific wildlife and plants	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Meet new and different people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Avoid the routine of my daily life	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Have a once in a lifetime opportunity	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Immerse myself in the local culture	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Go on a real adventure	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Other: _____							

In this section, please answer each item based upon how important each of these items were for the reason you chose to visit Uganda, with 1 = Not at all Important and 7 = Extremely Important.

I chose to travel to Uganda, because I wanted to:

	Not at all Important	Very Unimportant	Slightly Unimportant	Neither	Slightly Important	Very Important	Extremely Important
Assist communities in a developing country	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Help preserve natural areas for future generations	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Influence others positively	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Give back to the less privileged	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Do something for a cause that is important to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Share the message of God's love for humankind	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To provide spiritual and emotional support to communities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To enhance the quality of life for the disadvantaged	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To serve God through prayer, preaching, healing and ministry	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Work for Reformation and pray for Revival	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Other: _____							

over ▶▶

Is this your first trip to Uganda? (Please check one)

<input type="checkbox"/>	Yes
<input type="checkbox"/>	No

Would you travel to Uganda again? (Please check one)

<input type="checkbox"/>	Yes
<input type="checkbox"/>	No

What was the principal reason for your travel to Uganda? (Please state below)

E.g. Nature tourism, adventure tourism, volunteer opportunity, religion and/or mission, cultural tourism

Did you undertake any volunteer activities while you were in Uganda? (Please check one)

<input type="checkbox"/>	Yes
<input type="checkbox"/>	No

If you volunteered while in Uganda, what type of volunteer were you?

- | | |
|---|---------------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Nature/Conservation | <input type="checkbox"/> Healthcare |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Education | <input type="checkbox"/> Governance |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Religious/Missionary | <input type="checkbox"/> Other: _____ |

For how many days did you volunteer in Uganda? (Please state below)

For how many days did you stay in Uganda? (Please state below)

Part III: Accommodations and Expenditures While in Uganda

In this section, please check each item based on the places you stayed and your expenditures while in Uganda.

While in Uganda, my accommodations consisted of: (Check all that apply)

<input type="checkbox"/>	Camping
<input type="checkbox"/>	Budget Motels/Guesthouses (Shared facilities, no amenities)
<input type="checkbox"/>	Modest Motels/Guesthouse (Private facilities, air conditioning, etc.)
<input type="checkbox"/>	Luxury Resorts & Lodges
<input type="checkbox"/>	Staying at a friend's or family's residence
<input type="checkbox"/>	Other: (Please specify) _____

over ▶▶

While in Uganda, my total expenditures (\$USD) within the country (not including travel to and from Uganda) were: (Check one)

<input type="checkbox"/>	0 - 500
<input type="checkbox"/>	501 - 1000
<input type="checkbox"/>	1001 - 2000
<input type="checkbox"/>	2001 - 4000
<input type="checkbox"/>	4001 - 8000
<input type="checkbox"/>	More than \$8000

While in Uganda, my expenditures (\$USD) on souvenirs, handicrafts and curios were: (Check one)

<input type="checkbox"/>	0 - 50
<input type="checkbox"/>	51 - 100
<input type="checkbox"/>	101 - 250
<input type="checkbox"/>	251 - 500
<input type="checkbox"/>	501 - 750
<input type="checkbox"/>	More than \$750

Have you been traveling as part of a group while in Uganda? (Please check one)

<input type="checkbox"/>	Yes
<input type="checkbox"/>	No

If you answered **YES** to the question above, please list what type of group you are with:
(E.g. family, tour, overlander, religious, school, etc.)

over ▶▶

Part IV: Demographic Information

The following information is important to better understand and utilize the information gathered in this survey.

In what age category do you belong?

<input type="checkbox"/>	18 - 24
<input type="checkbox"/>	25 - 29
<input type="checkbox"/>	30 - 34
<input type="checkbox"/>	35 - 39
<input type="checkbox"/>	40 - 44
<input type="checkbox"/>	45 - 49
<input type="checkbox"/>	50 - 54
<input type="checkbox"/>	55 - 59
<input type="checkbox"/>	60 & Older

Sex:

<input type="checkbox"/>	Male
<input type="checkbox"/>	Female

Your country of current residence: _____

What is the highest level of education you have completed:(Check one)

<input type="checkbox"/>	No formal schooling
<input type="checkbox"/>	Some formal schooling
<input type="checkbox"/>	Completed secondary school
<input type="checkbox"/>	Some university/college
<input type="checkbox"/>	Completed university/college
<input type="checkbox"/>	Graduate degree or higher

What best describes your occupation: (Check one)

<input type="checkbox"/>	Student
<input type="checkbox"/>	Self-Employed
<input type="checkbox"/>	Professional
<input type="checkbox"/>	Managerial
<input type="checkbox"/>	Trade
<input type="checkbox"/>	Service

Thank you for your input.

Your opinions are very valuable and will make a difference!

Appendix B: Research Poster used During Research

Are you a:
Non-Resident Visitor to Uganda?
Over 18 Years of Age?
Would you like a

FREE BEVERAGE

before you board your flight?
Upon completion of a survey for Non-Resident Visitors to Uganda, you will receive your choice of a bottled water or soda.

◆ ◆ ◆

Your participation is greatly appreciated!
Thank you!

This research has been approved and is supported by the Uganda Tourism Board and the Uganda Civil Aviation Authority.

Appendix C: UCAA Letter of Permission for Research



CIVIL AVIATION AUTHORITY

Head Office Building
Entebbe International Airport
P.O. Box 5536, Kampala, Uganda

Our Ref: **CAA/04/TMD/81D**

Your Ref:

24th June 2011

Ms. Meagan Christine Holowaty
University of Monitoba,
CANADA.

Dear Ms. Meagan,

RE: INDUSTRIAL TRAINING

You have been offered a place for Industrial Training with Civil Aviation Authority in the Corporate Directorate (Marketing & Commercial department) for the period of 4 months from 1st July 2011 to 31st October 2011 and note that this will be at no financial cost to Civil Aviation Authority.

Please you will report to the **Manager Marketing & Commercial** for further instructions.

By copy of this letter, the Aviation Security Manager is requested to enable you get an airport pass for said period.

Yours faithfully
CIVIL AVIATION AUTHORITY

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Rose Penelope Namukwaya'.

Rose Penelope Namukwaya (ACIS)
For: DIRECTOR HUMAN RESOURCE & ADMINISTRATION

c.c. Manager Marketing & Commercial

c.c. Aviation Security Manager

Head Office Tel: 256-41-4352000, 31-2352000
Airport Tel : 256-41-4353000, 31-2353000
Fax : 256-41-4321401, 256-41-4320571 or 4320964
For Aircraft / Flight Clearance requests
Fax : 256-41-4321452, Tel:256-41-4321173,4321016

E-mail : aviation@caa.co.ug
Telex : 61508 CAA UGA
Website: www.caa.co.ug
Telex : 61182, 61460

Meagan Halowaty

Appendix D: Flight Schedule

Airline	#	Time	Mon	Tues	Wed	Thurs	Fri	Sat	Sun
British	BA062c	09:05	✓	✓	✓		✓		✓
Kenyan	KQ411	10:05	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Kenyan	KQ413	14:30	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Kenyan	KQ559	15:20		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Emirates	EK724	16:20	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Ethiopian	ET810	17:15	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Kenyan	KQ415	19:55	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Brussels	SN465	22:45		✓		✓		✓	
KLM	KL0535	23:30			✓		✓	✓	✓
KLM	KL0537	23:30		✓		✓			
Turkish	TK601	02:00	✓		✓			✓	

The researcher was in the Departures Lounge of the Entebbe International Airport for most of all departures that are shaded on this table during the 20 days in which the research was conducted, from July 14 – August 3, 2011.