

**FACTORS AFFECTING DOMESTIC TOURISM IN UGANDA: INSIGHTS FROM
THE UGANDA NATIONAL HOUSEHOLD SURVEY 2019/2020**

BY

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DECLARATION

I, declare that this research dissertation is a result of my original work, and no part of this work has been presented for another degree in Kyambogo University or elsewhere.

Signature..... Date.....

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APPROVAL

We as University supervisors confirm that the dissertation titled ***“FACTORS AFFECTING DOMESTIC TOURISM IN UGANDA: INSIGHTS FROM THE UGANDA NATIONAL HOUSEHOLD SURVEY 2019/2020”*** has been done by the candidate under our supervision.

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this body of work to my wife, Diana Esule Kabuleta and our three daughters, Cora, Ruby and Zoe. I, am grateful for the emotional support and encouragement that you gave me throughout this endeavor.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

BLUE	Best Linear Unbiased Estimator
CPI	Consumer Price Index
EPRC	Education Policy Review Commission
FY	Financial year
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
ICT	Information Communication and Technology
MTWA	Ministry of Tourism Wildlife and Antiquities
NGOs	Non-Government Organizations
RESET	Ramsey's regression specification error test
UBOS	Uganda Bureau of Statistics
UNECA	United Nations Economic Commission for Africa
UNHS	Uganda National Household survey
UNWTO	World Travel and Tourism Council
USD	United States Dollar
UWA	Uganda Wildlife Authority
VAR	Vector autoregressive
WTTC	World Travel and Tourism Council

OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS

Tourism: Tourism refers to the movement and economic activity of people for every purpose other than their regular employment and normal day-to-day activity.

Domestic Tourism: refers to activities that a resident visitor engages in while travelling domestically within the country of reference.

Visitor: A visitor is a person who travels for less than a year to a major destination outside of their normal surroundings for any primary reason (business, pleasure, or personal), excluding employment by a resident entity in the nation or location visited.

Domestic visitor: is one who makes a trip within his/her country of residence and his/her activities are part of domestic tourism.

Head of Household: A person who, either by virtue of age or social standing in the family, is recognized by the other members as the head. The leader of the household is in charge and has primary authority over all matters.

Household: individuals who typically reside together and eat from the same pot.

Household Size: The number of people residing within a household in a particular area.

Tourist: An overnight visitor who is not a resident is referred to as a tourist.

Excursionist: an excursionist is a same day visitor. S/he takes a domestic tourism trip and returns to her/his area of residence on the same day.

Trip: A trip refers to the travel by a person from the time of departure from a usual residence until he/she returns. Trips taken by visitors are tourism trips.

Usual environment: is described as the location or geographical area, where a person carries out his or her typical daily activities.

ABSTRACT

This study investigates the effects of individual, socioeconomic and technological factors on domestic tourism in Uganda. The aim of the study was to fill the gap on domestic tourism literature and provide information on key variables that affect domestic tourism in Uganda. The study estimated a logit model to establish and quantify the effect of individual characteristics, socio economic factors and technological factors on domestic tourism participation in Uganda. The source of data for this study was the Uganda National Household survey 2019/20. Results of the study showed that education level, household size, employment status, access to internet, access to mobile phones, and disability status positively and significantly affected participation in domestic tourism. Further, residence in urban area negatively and significantly affected participation in domestic tourism. As a key recommendation based on this study findings, Government should continue to invest in education for all which will in turn enhance appreciation for domestic tourism. The Government should also consider incorporation of tourism education in the National curriculum. Further, the Government should invest more in Information Communication and Technology (ICT) infrastructure as this would enhance participation in domestic tourism.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the study

Tourism is big business globally, contributing tremendously to gross domestic product and employment. Tourism contribution to the global economy in 2019, was estimated at 10.3% by the World Travel and Tourism Council (2020a). The sector also contributed 330 million jobs in 2019 which translated into approximately 1 in 10 jobs globally (WTTC 2020a).

According to Zhao and Xia (2019), travel and tourism is crucial in alleviating poverty in many least developed countries. Tourism helps in the creation of job opportunities, improvement in terms of trade, promotes investment and the generation of foreign exchange earnings, that in turn increases household incomes thus reducing poverty (Njoya & Seetaram, 2018). It is therefore no surprise that tourism is a recognized vehicle for poverty reduction in many countries.

Huge foreign exchange earnings from international tourist arrivals have led many countries to focus on international tourism promotion. Governments and private sector players position their destinations as an attractive proposition to potential international tourists through the hire of marketing firms in foreign countries and through participation in International Tourism Expos and Fairs. It's therefore no coincidence that greater importance of tourism development plans of least developed countries has placed emphasis on increasing international tourist arrivals as a key indicator of tourism growth.

However, it is domestic tourism that contributes more to the global economy. For instance, the World Travel & Tourism Council report (2020a) states that, the majority of global travel and

tourism expenditure in 2019 was generated by domestic travel. Domestic travel and tourism made up 71.3% of total global spending in tourism, while about 28.7% of global tourism expenditure came from international visitors. It is therefore clear to see that domestic tourism is a powerful global tool for generating employment, distributing wealth, and promoting economic growth.

The Global Covid-19 pandemic demonstrated the importance of domestic tourism to the global tourism economy. Due to the Covid-19 epidemic, foreign visitor arrivals worldwide fell by approximately 74% in 2020, resulting in a USD 1.3 trillion loss in international tourism receipts (UNWTO, 2021). As indicated in Pham et al. (2021), in addition to having a direct impact on the travel and hospitality sector, the Covid 19 epidemic resulted in job losses in numerous other industries along the tourist value chain. A rise in the trade balance deficit was another consequence of the pandemic. (Mariolis et al., 2021).

For some destinations, domestic tourism helped to minimize the impact of the pandemic at least partially by protecting jobs and businesses in some destinations. In Duro et al. (2021), destinations that were most vulnerable to Covid-19 were those with a high dependence on international tourism. While destinations that showed resilience were those that had a strong inclination towards domestic tourism. Domestic tourism therefore offered a more sustainable alternative in revitalizing the tourism industry in the face of Covid 19 (Arbulú et al., 2021). The UNWTO (2020a), forecast the recovery of domestic tourism markets to happen faster than International Tourism demand.

On the African stage, the World Travel and Tourism Council (2020a), estimated the contribution of travel and tourism to the African Economy in 2019 at USD 168.5 billion. Africa's share of global tourism was the lowest in absolute terms when compared to the other regions of the World. For instance, travel and tourism contributed USD 3.0 trillion to the Asia

Pacific in 2019, Americas gained USD 2.5 trillion, Europe forked in USD 2.0 trillion, and the Middle East benefitted USD 245.5 billion.

Further, the UNWTO (2020b) estimated that sub-Saharan Africa received 56 million inbound visitations in 2019. In the same year sub-Saharan Africa receipts from international tourism totaled to USD 34.9 billion representing about 8.7% of total exports by Sub Saharan African countries. These figures paint a daunting picture for sub-Saharan African Countries which combined earn about 20.7 percent of the total estimated contribution of travel and tourism to the African economy. Nevertheless, the travel and tourism sector contributed a whopping 24.6 million jobs on the African continent helping communities and individuals escape poverty in the process.

The Government of the Republic of Uganda through the National Development Frameworks has long highlighted the significance of the Tourism industry as a key growth sector for socio economic transformation of the country. Over the last decade, the sector has consistently been a stalwart in significantly contributing to the country's gross domestic product (GDP), foreign exchange earnings and employment. In the past ten years, the tourism industry has continuously been a mainstay, making a substantial contribution to the GDP, foreign exchange earnings, and employment. According to the National Planning Authority (2020), Uganda's exports increased in value from USD 4.9 billion in the financial year 2013/14 to USD 5.4 billion in the financial year 2017/18 over the duration of National Development Plans I and II. Particularly among the service exporting sectors, tourism continued to prosper best. WTTC (2020b) report on Uganda, estimates that the tourism industry generated 6.2% of the country's overall GDP in 2019 and employed 589,300 people, the majority of whom were young people and women.

United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (2023) shows how the country mostly benefits from international tourism as compared to domestic tourism. International travelers to

Uganda spent approximately UGX 5.0 trillion on travel-related services in 2019, while domestic travelers spent approximately UGX 2.6 trillion. Although the level of international tourism in Uganda surpasses that of domestic tourism, the potential for domestic tourism is largely untapped.

Prior to the pandemic, data from the Uganda Wildlife Authority (UWA, 2022), shows how domestic visits to national parks, increased by 188% from 57,827 in 2004 to 166,396 in 2019. Additional evidence from data from the Uganda Wildlife Education Center (UWEC) demonstrates that domestic visitors, increased by 55% from 90,763 in 2016 to 140,657 in 2019.

The tourism sector in Uganda over the years has been affected by different shocks most recently by effects of the Covid 19 virus outbreak. Ministry of Tourism, Wildlife and Antiquities (MTWA, 2020) estimated that the country lost approximately 1 million visitors due to the pandemic. Additionally, 7 in 10 Jobs in the Tourism were lost during the same period due to the pandemic. With international tourism closed due to restrictions on international travel, the focus for most stakeholders switched to domestic tourism for much needed revenues.

Domestic tourism plays a significant role in Uganda's overall tourism industry and is vital for the resilience of the tourism sector. Domestic tourism acts as a buffer against external shocks that may impact international tourism, such as global economic downturns or travel restrictions.

According to Uganda Bureau of Statistics (2021) annual migration and tourism report, Uganda attracted 1.5 million visitors as of 2019. This number dropped to 473,085 in 2020 due to the effects of the Covid 19 pandemic. As of end of 2022, international tourist arrivals to Uganda have not recovered to pre-pandemic levels of 1.5 million visitors. Uganda attracted 814,508

tourists in 2022 suggesting that the country is still on the recovery path when it comes to international tourist arrivals.

In contrast, available data from the Uganda Wildlife Authority (2022), tends to suggest that domestic tourism has already surpassed the pre-pandemic levels. In 2019, domestic visitation to National Parks stood at 151,186. Visitations to National Parks dropped to 45,243 in 2020 due to the effects of Covid 19. But by end of 2022, about 216,346 had visited National parks surpassing the pre pandemic levels on domestic tourism. In contrast, international visitations to National parks were 172,675 in 2019 which dropped to 56,088 in 2020 due to the Covid 19 pandemic. By 2022 there were 151,523 International visitations to National parks a figure lower than the pre pandemic levels.

According to the above data, the domestic tourist sector in Uganda appears to have recovered from the effects of the Covid 19 outbreak more quickly than the international tourism market. This is further demonstrated in figure 1 below.



Figure 1. 1: Comparison of International and Domestic visitors to National Parks in Uganda

Source: Developed from MTWA datasets 2023.

1.2 Statement of the Research Problem

Economies all over the world rely on tourism as a social and economic activity. In many parts of the world, a significant share of the demand for tourism comes from local markets. In 2019, Domestic travel and tourism made up 71.3% of total global spending in tourism, while about 28.7% of global tourism expenditure came from international visitors.

In Uganda, data from the Uganda Bureau of Statistics (UBOS, 2021) showed that international tourism to Uganda is highly seasonal with two peak periods of June to September and December to January annually. This creates disruptions to businesses that solely rely on International Tourism for their revenues.

Further, International tourist arrivals is very vulnerable to international shocks such as the recent Covid-19 pandemic. During times of shock, domestic tourism plays a crucial role of providing much needed revenue to businesses. Data from the Uganda Wildlife Authority (2022) shows that domestic visitation to the National Parks as of 2022 have surpassed the pre-pandemic levels. In 2022, Uganda registered 216,346 domestic visitations to the National Parks as compared to 151,186 in 2019. Uganda Wildlife Authority (2022), further show that international arrivals to the National parks have not yet recovered to the pre-pandemic levels. Uganda registered 151,523 International arrivals to National parks in 2022 compared to 172,675 in 2019. The above evidence suggests that domestic tourism is quicker in recovering from shocks as opposed to international arrivals.

However, despite the importance of domestic tourism to Uganda, limited research has been undertaken on the drivers of domestic tourism. Most research and statistical data on the nature and progress of tourism in Uganda is mainly based on international visitor arrivals, overnight stay statistics, and visitors to key attraction sites, which are insufficient in explaining economic

variables related to domestic tourism. Consequently, stakeholders that include businesses, government, and citizens may not have access to accurate information on factors affecting domestic tourism that is necessary for effective business operations, policy formulation and implementation.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The overall objective of this study was to investigate the factors affecting domestic tourism in Uganda. The specific objectives of the study include.

- i) To assess individual characteristics that affect domestic tourism in Uganda.
- ii) To examine the social and economic factors that affect domestic tourism in Uganda.
- iii) Examine the technological factors that affect domestic tourism in Uganda.

1.4 Research questions and hypothesis

The study was guided by the following research questions.

1. Which individual characteristics affect domestic tourism in Uganda?
2. What are the social and economic factors that affect domestic tourism in Uganda?
3. To what extent do technological factors affect domestic tourism in Uganda?

Three hypotheses were considered for this study, and they include.

1. Individual characteristics do not significantly affect domestic tourism in Uganda
2. Social and economic factors do not significantly affect domestic tourism in Uganda.
3. Technological factors do not significantly affect domestic tourism in Uganda.

1.5 Scope of study

1.5.1 Content Scope

The study utilized Uganda National Household survey (UNHS) 2019 datasets to find out the effects of individual, socioeconomic and technological factors on domestic tourism in Uganda. UNHS 2019 dataset, dedicated a section on domestic tourism that sought to investigate domestic tourism consumption at household level.

1.5.2 Geographical scope

The UNHS 2019/2020 covered all districts of Uganda, and the study utilized the entire Uganda National Household survey (UNHS) 2019 /2020 data set. The coverage was essential for National wide analysis and inference on the effects of individual, socioeconomic and technological factors on domestic tourism in Uganda.

1.5.3 Time Scope

The study was based on the Uganda National Household survey (UNHS) that was conducted in financial year 2019/2020. By the time of the study, this was the most current and available countrywide dataset on domestic tourism participation drawn from a representative sample.

1.6 Justification of the Study

There was an existing gap in knowledge and literature on domestic tourism in Uganda. From the literature review it was established that limited research has been conducted on the drivers of domestic tourism in Uganda. The modelling of factors affecting domestic tourism has been limited in the Ugandan context. This study was designed to bridge both the knowledge and literature gap on domestic tourism in Uganda.

1.7 Significance of the study

The study is significant in establishing effects of individual, socioeconomic and technological factors on domestic tourism in Uganda. This is beneficial for tourism policy making institutions such as the Ministry of Tourism Wildlife and Antiquities in informing domestic tourism policy decision. The Uganda Tourism Board, a government agency responsible for marketing domestic tourism could use findings of this study to shape its domestic marketing strategy and targeting of domestic visitors. The study is important in contributing to domestic tourism literature in Uganda. And finally, the Ugandan Tourism private sector could use the findings of this study to inform business operations and investments targeting the domestic tourism market.

1.8 Definition of terms

Key terms adopted from this study were adopted from the United Nations World Tourism Organization.

Tourism: According to the United Nations World Tourism Organization (2008), Tourism refers to the movement and economic activity of people for every purpose other than their regular employment and normal day-to-day activity.

Domestic Tourism: United Nations World Tourism Organization (2008) defines Domestic Tourism as activities that a resident visitor engages in while travelling domestically within the country of reference.

Visitor: A visitor is a person who travels for less than a year to a major destination outside of their normal surroundings for any primary reason (business, pleasure, or personal), excluding employment by a resident entity in the nation or location visited.

Domestic visitor: The United Nations World Tourism Organization (2008), defines a domestic visitor as one who makes a trip within his/her country of residence and his/her activities are part of domestic tourism.

Tourist: United Nations World Tourism Organization (2008) defines a tourist as an overnight visitor who is not a resident.

Excursionist: United Nations World Tourism Organization (2008) defines an excursionist as a same day visitor. S/he takes a domestic tourism trip and returns to her/his area of residence on the same day.

Trip: As to the United Nations World Tourism Organization (2008), a trip is defined as an individual's journey from the moment of departure from their usual place of residence until they return.

Usual environment: According to the United Nations World Tourism Organization (2008), the usual environment is the location or geographical area, where a person carries out his or her typical daily activities.

1.9 Summary to the introduction and background of the study

Tourism is a significant global business, contributing to GDP, employment, and poverty reduction. In 2019, it was estimated to be 10.3% of the global economy and 330 million jobs. Domestic tourism generates 71.3% of global spending, while international tourists account for 28.7%. The Covid-19 pandemic highlighted the importance of domestic tourism, with a 74% drop in international tourist arrivals and a 1.3 trillion loss in international tourism receipts. Domestic tourism offered a sustainable alternative to international tourism during the pandemic.

The United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (2023) reveals that Uganda's tourism sector is primarily influenced by international tourism, with international travelers spending around UGX 5.0 trillion in 2019. Domestic tourism, however, has shown potential, with domestic visits to national parks increasing by 188% and 55% respectively.

When the Covid-19 pandemic negatively impacted Uganda's tourism sector, with the country losing approximately 1 million visitors and 7 in 10 jobs, domestic tourism played a crucial role for the country's tourism industry, acting as a buffer during the period of external shock. Despite the importance of domestic tourism, limited research has been conducted on the drivers of domestic tourism, limiting stakeholders' access to accurate information on factors affecting domestic tourism.

This study investigates the factors affecting domestic tourism in Uganda, focusing on individual characteristics, social and economic factors, and technological factors. The study used the Uganda National Household Survey (UNHS) 2019 datasets to analyze domestic tourism consumption at the household level. The study aims to bridge the knowledge and literature gap on domestic tourism in Uganda, benefiting tourism policy-making institutions, and the Ugandan tourism private sector.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This chapter presents a review of the theoretical and empirical literature on factors that affect domestic tourism. Section 2.1 presents the theoretical literature review while section 2.2 presents the empirical literature review. Finally, section 2.3 presents synthesis of literature summarizing key variables that help explain participation in domestic tourism based on the works of various scholars.

2.1 Theoretical literature review

Two theories are discussed because of their ability to explain participation in domestic tourism. These theories include; Maslow's hierarchy of needs and the classical utility theory.

2.1.1 Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

Participation in domestic tourism is borne out of motivation for individuals to travel. Motivation therefore plays a crucial role in triggering the chain of events in the tourism process. We can learn more about the variables influencing domestic tourism participation by examining the diverse motivations that drive domestic tourists within a country.

Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs is one of the most broadly used theories used by studies seeking answers to human behavior. The theory has been used in the field of tourism to clarify visitors varied motivations and explain visitor travel behavior. This theory classifies individual needs into five hierarchical categories, including physiological needs, safety needs, social needs, esteem needs, and self-actualization needs.

A person's desire to satisfy various needs drives behavior, according to Maslow's hierarchy of needs hypothesis. The next requirement at the next level must emerge once each of these wants is largely met. As each of these needs is satisfied, it forces the subsequent need in the next level to emerge.

The five hierarchy of needs and how they affect participation in domestic tourism can be explained below.

Physiological Needs: These are the basic survival needs, such as food, water, and shelter. In the context of domestic tourism, individuals may engage in travel to fulfil their physiological needs by exploring new destinations for basic needs such as cuisines and seeking comfortable accommodations.

Safety and Security Needs: Once the physiological needs are met, individuals seek safety and security. Domestic tourism can provide opportunities for individuals to escape from their everyday routines, seek a sense of safety and security in new environments, and engage in recreational activities that promote relaxation and well-being.

Social Needs: Humans have a fundamental need for belongingness and social interaction. Travel and tourism offer opportunities for people to connect with others, form new relationships, and experience different cultures and social dynamics. Participating in group tours, attending festivals or events, and interacting with locals are examples of how social needs are fulfilled through tourism.

Esteem Needs: Esteem needs involve the desire for self-respect, recognition, and achievement. Tourism can contribute to fulfilling these needs by providing individuals with a sense of accomplishment, personal growth, and the opportunity to showcase their knowledge, skills, or abilities during travel experiences. People may seek recognition from others by sharing their

travel experiences through social media or by gaining prestige from visiting renowned landmarks or destinations.

Self-Actualization Needs: Self-actualization represents the highest level of Maslow's hierarchy and refers to the fulfillment of one's full potential and personal growth. In the context of tourism, self-actualization can be achieved through transformative travel experiences, cultural immersion, and engaging in activities that facilitate self-discovery, reflection, and personal development.

When tourists at any stage of Maslow's hierarchy of need are satisfied with the services, this prompts referrals to friends and family which in turn induces more travel. According to Swarbrooke and Horner (2001), when a destination's tourism products are well-received by friends and family, it may result in positive word-of-mouth recommendations, which in turn attracts additional tourists. The word of mouth is amplified by technological factors such as social media access and telephone conversations with friends and family.

2.1.2 Classical utility theory

According to Moscati (2016), Utility in economics was first introduced by Daniel Bernoulli in the 18th century and over the years, the economic theory has undergone numerous modifications. Utility is viewed by economists like Bernoulli and others as a measurable or fundamental characteristic of the economic commodities that a person consumes. Economists use a unit called a "util" to represent the amount of psychological satisfaction that a certain good or service creates for a subset of people in different circumstances in order to aid in this quantitative measurement of satisfaction.

Classical utility theory can provide insights into understanding individuals' participation in domestic tourism. By examining how individuals make decisions based on their utility maximization, we can analyze the factors that influence their decision to participate in tourism activities. Below is an explanation how classical utility theory relates to participation in tourism:

Utility Maximization: According to classical utility theory, individuals seek to maximize their utility or satisfaction when making consumption choices. Given financial limitations, it is presumable that a rational consumer will rate products and services in order to select combinations that produce the best value (Disegna et al., 2013). Within the realm of tourism, people engage in travel and tourism-related activities with the hope of deriving some utility or benefit from the encounter. They select destinations, accommodations, and activities that they believe will provide the highest level of satisfaction, considering factors such as their preferences, interests, and previous experiences.

Preferences and Trade-Offs: Classical utility theory assumes that individuals have consistent preferences and make trade-offs when making consumption decisions. In the context of tourism, individuals have different preferences for types of destinations (e.g., beach, cultural, adventure), activities (e.g., hiking, shopping, sightseeing), and travel styles (e.g., solo, group, luxury). They make trade-offs based on factors such as cost, time, convenience, and personal interests to select the tourism options that align with their preferences and provide the highest utility.

Budget Constraint: Classical utility theory recognizes the presence of a budget constraint, which implies that individuals have limited financial resources to allocate among different goods and services. In the case of tourism participation, individuals have a budget for travel and tourism activities. They allocate their resources by considering the costs associated with

transportation, accommodation, meals, and activities, while aiming to maximize their utility within their budgetary constraints.

Income and Price Effects: An individual's participation in tourism may be impacted by changes in pricing and income. Classical utility theory recognizes that a rise in income has the potential to stimulate demand for goods and services, including travel. As individuals' income rises, they may have more financial resources available for travel, which can increase their participation in tourism activities. Similarly, changes in the prices of tourism-related goods and services, such as airfares, hotel rates, or admission fees, can influence individuals' decisions to participate in tourism. Price reductions or discounts may encourage greater participation, while price increases may deter individuals from participating.

Substitution and Complementarity: Classical utility theory recognizes the concept of substitution and complementarity among goods. In tourism, individuals may substitute one destination or activity for another if they perceive similar utility or satisfaction from the alternatives. For example, if the cost of a particular destination becomes too high, individuals may opt for a more affordable alternative that offers similar experiences. Additionally, individuals may perceive certain tourism products or services as complementary, such as combining a visit to a theme park with a stay at a nearby hotel. The combination of these complementary offerings may enhance their overall utility and encourage participation.

2.2 Empirical literature review

The sheer number and breadth of empirical research describing the causes of and features of tourism demand reflect the growth of the industry globally. These studies focus on the macroeconomic and microeconomic levels of tourism demand. The preceding presentations gives domestic tourism demand literature review at a global scale, Continental Africa literature

on tourism demand and lastly the East African and Ugandan contexts. The review focuses on the significant variables that explain domestic tourism in each of the studies and methodologies adopted.

2.2.1 Global context of factors affecting domestic tourism

Studies at macro levels rely on aggregated factors such as total tourism spending and tourist arrivals; most of these studies present their findings as elasticities. On the other hand, firms, people, and households are used as the analytical units in micro-economic studies on the demand for tourism (Wang & Davidson, 2010). Research that examines demand from a macroeconomic level have discovered a variety of factors that affect tourism demand and have helped to identify, measure, and analyze the primary determinants of tourism demand.

Income, the cost of tourism-related items, and transportation costs are all important economic considerations (Crouch, 1994). According to studies on the demand for tourism, exchange rates and the relative costs of places that compete with one another are key factors. Domestic tourism is significantly influenced by a number of non-economic variables, including consumer tastes, advertising and marketing budgets, and special events.

Bimal et al. (2022) studied the factors affecting domestic tourism spending in India using an unconditional quantile regression. Higher Education, age and visitor's location were positively significant variables in explaining domestic tourism expenditure. On the other hand, household head's gender was a negatively significant variable in explaining domestic tourism expenditure. The study found that households with female heads spent less on domestic travel than those with male heads, indicating the importance of masculinity in managing resources.

Bui and Jolliff (2011) utilized factor analysis in the investigation of travel and motivation for Vietnamese domestic tourists. The study revealed that an employer sponsoring the trip positively affected participation of individuals in domestic tourism. Travel promotions, favorable weather and family also positively increased participation in domestic tourism. The family factor was measured in three dimensions that includes, strengthen family togetherness, children having school holidays, and family suggestion.

Yap (2010) using an autoregressive (VAR) model notes that household incomes negatively affected domestic tourism demand in Australia. The study also noted that households will not take domestic trips when income increases, preferring mostly to travel abroad as incomes increase. However, Jong et al. (2020) found incomes in Sabah in Malaysia to have a positive relationship with domestic tourism participation.

According to Yap (2010), consumer sentiment index which is a measure of the consumers' confidence about their future economy was an important factor that positively affected domestic tourism demand.

Yap (2010) notes that current prices of domestic tourism negatively affected domestic tourism demand. As prices of domestic tourism increased the demand for domestic tourism dropped. Additionally, Volkan (2015) stresses that small increases in consumer prices or transportation prices will result in more than proportionate declines in the domestic tourism demand suggesting that demand for domestic tourism is price elastic. Jong et al. (2020) further noted that transportation costs and tourism prices adversely influence tourism demand in Sabah in Malaysia.

Yap, (2010) reports that an increase in household debt would lead to a decline in domestic tourism demand in Australia. However, these findings contradict David and Yap (2009) who found out that increases in household debt encouraged more Australians to travel domestically.

Hengyun et al. (2015) used binary logit regression and comparative analysis in analyzing factors that influence non-participation in domestic tourism in China. Their findings indicated that tourism affection/interest, tourism cognition/awareness, and tourism behavior intention, can explain individuals not participating in domestic tourism while economic constraints like family financial condition negatively affect non-participation. As family financial conditions improve, individuals became more willing to engage in domestic tourism.

Khalik et al. (2007) used a linear regression model in modelling of demand for domestic and international tourism in Sweden. The empirical results of their paper suggested that weather and the Consumer Price Index (CPI) can be used to explain the demand for domestic travel in Sweden. Weather conditions positively affected domestic tourism demand while consumer price index had a negative relationship with domestic tourism demand. Further, their study surprisingly noted that exchange rate, income, and the Chernobyl nuclear disaster were not statistically significant in explaining domestic tourism demand.

Devanto (2016) in his study on domestic tourism in Indonesia notes that people in urban areas were more likely to take tourism related trips. Gender was also a significant factor in explaining domestic tourism. Male individuals were more likely to take trips for business compared to females. Individuals who had a job were more likely to take trips for business purposes, while persons of school going ages were most likely to engage in holiday travel as noted by Devanto (2016). In Yap (2010), goes further than having a job to look at working hours which was significant in explaining domestic tourism demand. Working hours had a negative relationship

with domestic tourism implying that increase in working hours reduced participation in domestic tourism.

Devanto (2016) also looked at the size of the household which was found to have a negative significant relationship with domestic tourism. As the household size increased, the likelihood of individuals in that household to engage in domestic tourism dropped.

Disability status among individuals was among the significant variables in explaining tourism participation. Studies indicated that Persons with Disability (PWDs) travel less frequently than the general public (Darcy, 2010; Pagán, 2012; Tutuncu, 2017). Due to a lack of trustworthy information, a lack of cash, past bad experiences, or both, about 50% of PWDs do not travel or travel less frequently than they would want (Darcy, 2010).

However, according to Bergier et al. (2010) individuals with disabilities have a significant amount of free time, which is usually spent with family and friends. Among the specific benefits of participation in physical activities and tourism are well-being, health improvement, and making new acquaintances. The main factors determining participation in tourism and recreation for persons with disability were price, a friendly group, and doctor recommendations.

For Rowiński et al. (2017), they were inconclusive on differences in tourism participation between persons with and without disability. Rowiński et al. (2017) reported more physical activity and engagement in tourism among male persons without disability as compared to males with disability. However, their findings were not conclusive as there were no differences observed for females with and without disability.

2.2.3 African literature review on the determinants of domestic tourism.

Ndambuki (2017) used a discrete choice logistic model in determining the factors that influence domestic tourism participation in Kenya. This study showed that variables such as age, income, education levels, awareness on tourism information, employment status, sex, location of household and ownership of vehicle had a positive relationship with participation in domestic tourism.

However, Ajibola and Adekunle (2019) show that domestic income has a negative relationship with domestic tourism in Nigeria. As individuals earned more income, they preferred to travel abroad instead of consuming domestic tourism products.

Kangu et al. (2019) indicate that the affordability, distance to tourism sites, and transportation costs were significant in explaining domestic tourism. Participation in domestic tourism was enhanced when travel experiences were affordable. However, distance and transportation costs had a negative relationship with domestic tourism.

Kojo (2020) use quantile regression models in modelling of domestic tourism expenditure in Ghana. The study showed that household heads age, household income level, and educational level of household head had a positive relationship with domestic tourism. He further noted that household loans and price of tourism products had negative relationships with domestic tourism for some categories of study participants.

It's interesting to note that Kojo (2020) classifies participants of the study as light spenders, medium spenders and heavy spenders. He further notes that household loans positively affect domestic tourism expenditure when it came to the category of light spenders. However, domestic tourism expenditure is constrained by household loans for medium and heavy spenders.

When it came to the analysis of how prices affect domestic tourism expenditure, Kojo (2020), states that the demand for tourism-related goods in Ghana is price elastic and unitary income elastic over the long term, but price inelastic and income elastic over the near term. Kojo (2020) also showed that ownership of digital devices like mobile phones and access to Internet are not statistically significant in explaining domestic tourism expenditure.

Odeny (2019) uses a tobit regression model in modelling domestic tourism expenditure in Kenya. She presents variables such as age, gender of household head, marital status, place of residence, employment status, sponsorship of trip and advertising as variables that have a positive relationship with domestic tourism expenditure. However, the household size and education levels had a negative relationship with domestic tourism expenditure. For education levels in particular, only categories of primary and secondary level education had a negative relationship with domestic tourism expenditure. Tertiary education was not statistically significant in explaining domestic tourism expenditure.

Mato and Mosoma (2022) in their descriptive study note that relatively high tax rate in Tanzania, the cost charged for tourism services, cost for food and drinks at attraction sites, and the low awareness of the available tourists' attractions were some of the factors that affected domestic tourism.

Kihunde (2021) studied the factors affecting demand for domestic tourism in Uganda using a multivariate logistic regression model. This study indicated that information, prices, and tourist attractions were statistically significant in explaining the demand for domestic tourism in Uganda while income was statistically not significant.

2.3 Synthesis of literature review

Kihunde (2021) studied the factors affecting demand for domestic tourism in Uganda using a multivariate logistic regression model. The study utilized the 2013 Pilot Household Survey on Domestic Visitors (HSDV) data from the Ministry of Tourism, Wildlife and Antiquities (MTWA). The use of pilot data of 2013 that was not comprehensive and representative in this study negatively affects the ability to generalize findings on domestic tourism demand and factors that affect domestic tourism in Uganda.

Odeny (2019) in her study of determinants of domestic tourism expenditure in Kenya explored the effects age, gender of household head, marital status, place of residence, employment status, sponsorship of trip, advertising, household size, and education levels on domestic tourism expenditure in Kenya. However, factors such as technological factors that include ownership of mobile phones and access to internet are important factors that were not explored in her study. Additionally, disability status of individuals has also been known to affect participation in tourism activities.

By using the UNHS 2019/20 dataset which is comprehensive and representative, the researcher will mitigate the problem of inability to generalize findings to the Ugandan setting. The researcher also sets out to explore the effects of technological factors and other individual factors such as disability status on domestic tourism in Uganda.

2.4 Conceptual framework

Throughout this study, key international definitions in the field of tourism were applied. Tourism is defined by the United Nations World Tourism Organization (2008) as the pursuits of a person who travels to and stays in locations other than their typical surroundings for a period of not more than 365 days for business, leisure and other purposes other than paid

employment within the area visited. On the other hand, a domestic visitor is one who makes a trip within his/her country of residence and his/her activities are part of domestic tourism.

The study focused on establishing the effects of individual, socioeconomic and technological factors on domestic tourism in Uganda. In this context, the dependent variable was domestic tourism. Domestic tourism in this study was measured by participation in a domestic trip outside the usual environment within the country for all purposes other than the purpose of receiving remuneration in the place visited.

The explanatory variables for this study were individual factors, social economic factors and technological factors.

Individual factors are demographic characteristics of the household head and they included, education level of the household head, sex of household head, marital status of household head, disability status of household head and age of the household head.

The social economic factors for this study were characteristics of the household and they included, household income, household size, residence of household, and employment status of household head.

The technological factors that included access to internet, ownership of mobile phone.

The study identified two intervening variables that facilitate the causal relationship between the dependent variable and the explanatory variables. The two intervening variables are peace and security, and government policy on tourism. Peace and security is essential in promoting the migration of people from one location to another. Government policy on tourism is equally important in driving investments and demand in the tourism sector. Figure 2.1 below presents the conceptual frameworks underpinning this study.

EXPLANATORY VARIABLES

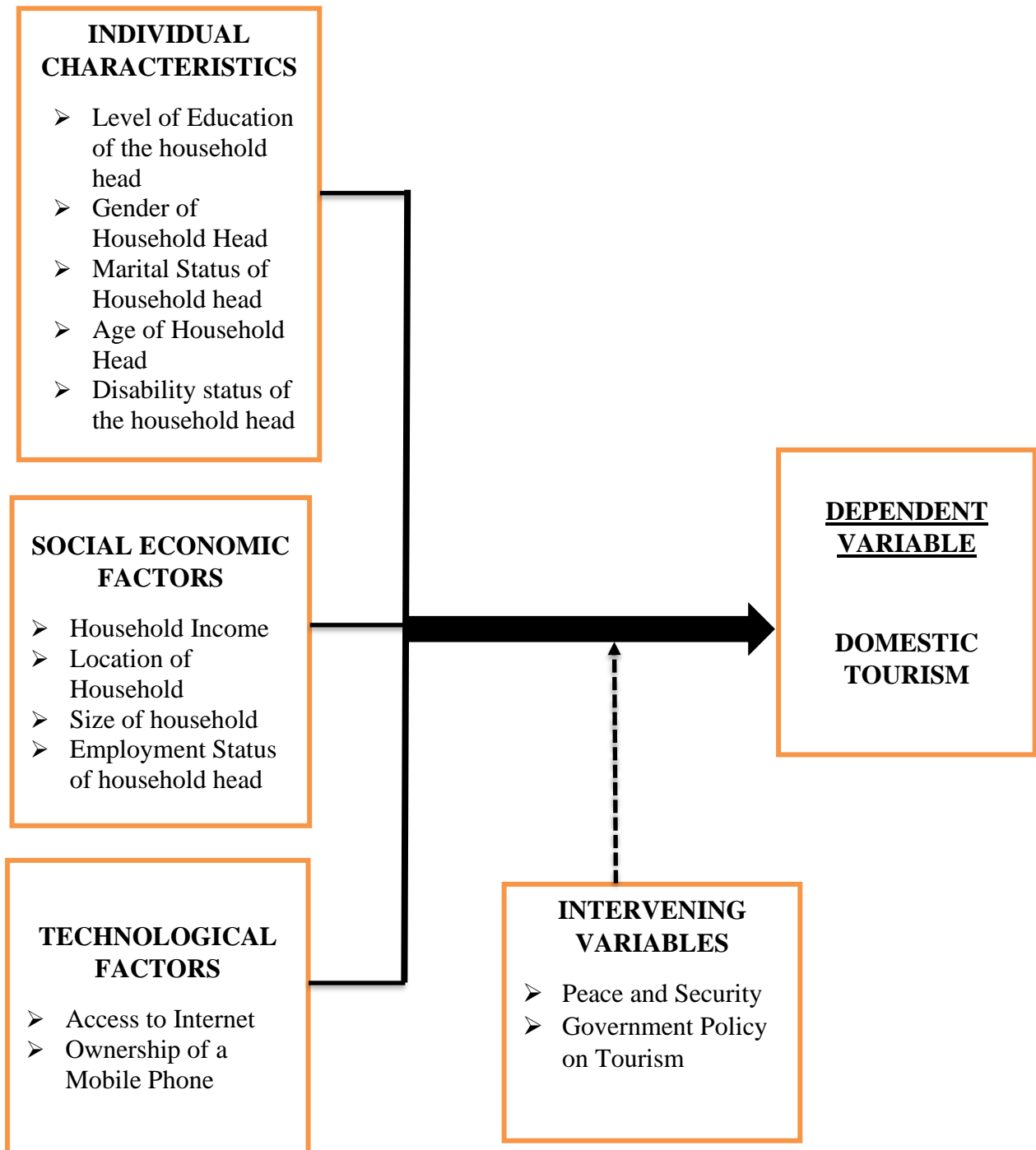


Figure 2. 1: Conceptual Framework

Source: Constructed from Literature review

2.5. Summary to the literature review

This study is anchored on two theories i.e. Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory and the classical utility theory. Maslow's theory is used to study human behavior and in this study's case motivation to travel is a human behavior. On the other hand, the classical utility theory postulates that consumers are rational agents who aim to derive maximum satisfaction from a set of goods and services consumed. In the context of domestic tourism, individuals choose levels of participation in domestic tourism based on their expectation of derived utility and budget constraints.

Studies on factors that influence domestic tourism have taken on numerous regression models such as logit, probit, linear regression, Vector Autoregressive models, factor analysis, logistic regression, and quantile regression models. The commonest models used are the probit, logit and tobit models. Most studies reviewed modeled cross-sectional data in the analysis of domestic tourism participation. It's no coincidence that time series data is not common in the analysis of domestic tourism and factors that may affect it. In developing countries such as Uganda, time series presents problems of appropriate sample size because of a lack of data over a long period of time. Furthermore, the majority of research on domestic tourism was conducted in developed nations, meaning that least developed nations were mostly ignored in the literature on domestic travel.

From the literature review it can be noted that the following factors positively influence domestic tourism, education levels, sex, marital status, age, ownership of a vehicle, employment status, favorable weather, and tourism awareness. Persons that were also located in urban areas were most likely to take a domestic trip than their rural counterparts. Availability of sponsorships especially from workplaces influenced participation in domestic tourism positively.

Domestic tourism is also negatively influenced by, household heads gender, prices of domestic tourism, size of the household and the distance to tourism attractions. In some instances, increase in income was associated with individuals being able to travel abroad thereby affecting negatively their participation in domestic tourism. Also, households that were indebted were most likely to participate in domestic tourism.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter includes a summary of methods used in the study, the models estimated, descriptions of variables used in this study and the data sources for this study.

3.1 Research design

This study adopted an analytical cross-sectional survey design primarily because it's based on secondary datasets from the UNHS 2019/20. The UNHS was a typical cross-sectional survey that looked at the population at a point in time. A quantitative analytical approach was adopted to model the effects of individual, socioeconomic and technological factors on domestic tourism in Uganda using the Uganda National Household survey dataset.

3.2 Model specifications

The dependent variable for this study was participation in domestic tourism. It took on two values i.e. 1 if the individual participated in domestic tourism and 0 for non-participation in domestic tourism. The model of choice for this study was a logit model which were preferred over other models such as the linear probability model and the probit model. Unlike the linear probability model where probabilities can lie outside the admissible range of zero and one, this weakness is nonexistent in the logit model.

The logistic function is expressed as:

$$f(DT) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-DT}} \dots \dots \dots i$$

With $0 \leq f(DT) \leq 1$, DT is the probability of domestic tourism participation

Domestic tourism is a function of individual characteristics, social economic factors, technological factors and an error term. Therefore, the study set out to estimate the model below;

$$DT = f(X_1, X_2, X_3, U) \dots \dots \dots (iii)$$

Where; DT is the probability of domestic tourism participation

X_1 are individual factors

X_2 are social economic factors

X_3 are technological factors

U Is the error term

where DT is a linear function of explanatory variables such as:

$$DT = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{LogAgH}_i + \beta_2 \text{HHm}_i + \beta_3 \text{PRI}_i + \beta_4 \text{SEC}_i + \beta_5 \text{Psec}_i + \beta_6 \text{MAR}_i + \beta_7 \text{divor}_{\text{HH}_i} + \beta_8 \text{URB}_i - \beta_9 \text{LogHHsz}_i + \beta_{10} \text{EMP}_i + \beta_{11} \text{LogINm}_i + \beta_{12} \text{WIFI}_i + \beta_{13} \text{PHON}_i - \beta_{14} \text{DISA}_i + U \dots \dots \dots (ii)$$

DT = the probability of a participating in domestic tourism which takes on the values between 0 and 1.

LogAgH = Natural logarithm of Age of the household head

HHm = Dummy for male household head

PRI = Primary Education dummy

SEC = Secondary Education dummy

Psec = Post-secondary education dummy

MAR = Marital status dummy (married or cohabiting)

- DIVOR_HH = Dummy for Marital status (divorced / separated / lost partner)
- URB = Location of household dummy
- LogHHsz = Natural logarithm of Household size
- EMP = Employment status dummy
- LogINm = Natural Logarithm of Household Income
- WIFI = Internet access dummy
- PHON = Mobile phone ownership dummy
- DISA = Disability status dummy
- U = Error term

The probability that a household head will participate in domestic tourism is given by:

$$p = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-DT}} \dots\dots\dots iii$$

And the probability that a household head will not participate in domestic tourism is given by

$$1 - p = 1 - \frac{1}{1 + e^{-DT}} \dots\dots\dots iv$$

Dividing expressions (iii) and (iv) yields:

$$\frac{p}{1-p} = e^{DT} \dots\dots\dots v$$

Taking logs on both sides

$$\ln\left(\frac{p}{1-p}\right) = \ln(e^{DT}) \dots\dots\dots vi$$

Finally, the logit probability model used for this study is given by,

$$\ln\left(\frac{p}{1-p}\right) = DT$$

$$\ln\left(\frac{p}{1-p}\right) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{LogAgH}_i + \beta_2 \text{HHm}_i + \beta_3 \text{PRI}_i + \beta_4 \text{SEC}_i + \beta_5 \text{Psec}_i +$$

$$\beta_6 \text{MAR}_i + \beta_7 \text{divor}_{HH}_i + \beta_8 \text{URB}_i - \beta_9 \text{LogHHsz}_i + \beta_{10} \text{EMP}_i + \beta_{11} \text{LogINm}_i +$$

$$\beta_{12} \text{WIFI}_i + \beta_{13} \text{PHON}_i - \beta_{14} \text{DISA}_i + U \dots\dots\dots vii$$

The researcher first tested the relevance of the logit model using the normality test for residuals and the ROC curve. The ROC curve in particular shows the goodness of fit and appropriateness of the logit model. (see discussion of results in section 4.2)

3.3 Data sources for the study

The main source of data for this study was the Uganda National Household survey (UNHS) 2019/2020 that was conducted Uganda Bureau of Statistics. The Uganda National Household Survey 2019/2020 is the seventh in a series of household surveys conducted since financial year 1999/2000.

One advantage of using UNHS for this study is the fact that there is a section on domestic tourism participation in Uganda. The questions related to domestic tourism include whether individuals visited any place outside their usual environment within the country, the number of such trips made, number of nights spent, mode of transport used and the expenditure of the individuals while on that trip.

According to the Uganda National Survey Report 2019/2020, a total of 13,732 households underwent interviews, yielding a nationwide response rate of 83%.

3.3.1 Sample Selection

According to the Uganda Bureau of Statistics (UBOS, 2021b), the Uganda National Household Survey 2019/2020 used a stratified two stage sampling design to ensure the representativeness and accuracy of the collected data. Below is the detailed approach that was used to determine the sample for the Uganda National Household Survey 2019/2020.

Using a probability proportional to size (PPS) approach, Enumeration Areas (EAs) were first chosen in the first stage. The size of the EAs was based on the number of households registered

in the 2014 Uganda Population and Housing Census. By ensuring that larger Enumeration Areas (EAs) had a higher selection probability, this method allowed for a more equitable representation of various regions and population densities. To ensure comprehensive geographic coverage and for in-depth investigation of regional differences, the EAs were stratified by urban and rural areas within each district.

In the second stage, households within the selected enumeration area were randomly chosen for the Uganda National Household Survey 2019/2020. To generate a sample frame, a comprehensive listing of all the households in each chosen EA was done. To attain the required sample size, a predetermined number of households were systematically sampled from this frame using random start points and intervals. With this approach, selection bias was reduced, and every household had an equal chance of inclusion. Various socio-economic factors were covered by the final sample size, which was planned to yield accurate estimates at the regional and national levels. Structured questionnaires were utilized to conduct in-person interviews, guaranteeing the consistency and precision of the data gathered. Uganda's socio-economic aspects, living conditions, and household characteristics can all be thoroughly examined based on the thorough sampling methodology adopted by UBOS for the UNHS 2019/2020.

3.4 Variable selection

The process for variable selection involved the review of the survey questionnaire to understand the type, nature and scope of the questions asked during the UNHS 2019/20. The second step was to map out all the questions and relate to the variables used in this study.

Some of the variables were directly related to the questions asked in the questionnaire while others required computation from a set of questions. For example, variables such as domestic tourism participation, education level, marital status, location of the household, employment

status, access to internet, and mobile phone ownership were directly obtainable from a single variable in the UNHS data set.

Variables that required computation from two or more variables in the data set included, age of the household head, sex of the household head, household size, Household income, and disability status.

3.4.1 Description of Variables and Measurement

Table 3.1 below shows the description of each of the model variables. It provides the variable abbreviation as provided in the model, the definition and measurement of the variable, the expected sign after regression, and the variable name as stated in the UNHS 2019/20 dataset. Where two or more variables from the UNHS 2019/20 dataset are used to compute or generate a variable used for this study, the combinations are also stated.

Table 3. 1: Showing Description of Model Variables

Variable Abbreviation (As stated in the model)	Definition & Measurement	Expected sign	Variable names /Question number/code in the UNHS 2019/20 dataset
DT	Domestic tourism participation (=1 if participated in domestic tourism, otherwise zero)	N/A dependent variable	DT2
LogAgH	Natural logarithm of age of the household head	Positive (+)	Computed from R03 and R07
HHm	Dummy for male household head (= 1 if household head is male, and 0 otherwise.)	Positive (+)	Computed from R02 and R03

NOEDUC	Dummy for no education (=1 no education, 0 otherwise) Reference category for education level	Negative (-)	E05
PRI	Dummy for primary Education (=1 primary level of education, 0 otherwise)	Positive (+)	E05
SEC	Dummy for Secondary Education (=1 secondary level of education, 0 otherwise)	Positive (+)	E05
Psec	Dummy for post-secondary education (=1 Post secondary level of education, 0 otherwise)	Positive (+)	E05
Nevermar	Dummy for never married (=1 if never married, otherwise zero) Reference category for marital status	Indeterminate	mstat
MAR	Dummy for Married or Cohabiting (=1 if married or cohabiting, otherwise zero)	Indeterminate	mstat
DIVOR_HH	Dummy for divorced, separated and lost partner (=1 if divorced / separated / lost partner, otherwise zero)	Indeterminate	mstat
URB	Dummy for residence of household head (=1 if urban, otherwise zero)	Positive (+)	S1aq3 (Substratum)
LogHHsz	Natural logarithm of Household size.	Negative (-)	Computed from Household ID/ serial number

			and R00/ person ID
EMP	Employment status dummy (=1 if employed, otherwise zero)	Positive (+)	CB01
LogINm	Natural logarithm of Household Income	Positive (+)	Section 11 (summation of all questions in the section)
WIFI	This is dummy for internet access (=1 if household head had access to internet, otherwise zero)	Positive (+)	S26
PHON	Mobile phone ownership dummy (=1 if household head owned mobile phone, otherwise zero)	Positive (+)	HA02 -010
DISA	Disability status dummy (=1 if household head had disability, otherwise zero)	Negative (-)	Computed from S31, S35, S38, S40, S45, S46 All in S44
U	Error term		

3.5 Data Analysis

Data analysis for this study involved descriptive statistical analysis and regression analysis. Descriptive analysis involved cross tabulations between each of the explanatory variables and the dependent variable. This provided a snapshot of the likely association between the dependent variable and each of the explanatory variables. Regression analysis involved the estimation of the logit model and diagnostic tests for normality and goodness of fit of the logit model. Marginal effects tables were obtained to estimate the effects of the explanatory

variables on the dependent variable. STATA software was used to perform data analysis and statistical tests for this study.

3.6 Summary to the methodology

This study uses an analytical cross-sectional survey design based on secondary data from the UNHS 2019/20 to model the effects of individual, socioeconomic, and technological factors on domestic tourism in Uganda. The dependent variable is participation in domestic tourism, with a logit model chosen for its non-negative predictive power. The study uses the Uganda National Household Survey (UNHS) 2019/2020 as the main source of data, as it includes a section on domestic tourism participation. The UNHS involved 13,732 households, with a nationwide response rate of 83% making the dataset comprehensive and adequate for undertaking nationwide studies.

CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSIONS OF RESULTS

4.0 Introduction

This chapter provides the study findings and discussions of key results. The overall objective of this study was to investigate the effects of individual, socioeconomic and technological factors on domestic tourism in Uganda. The first part of the chapter presents descriptive statistics which are basically cross tabulations between the dependent variable and the explanatory variables. The second section of this chapter presents the normality test results, the marginal effects table and the study discussions.

4.1 Descriptive analysis

This section presents descriptive statistics and cross tabulation of the key variables identified in the literature review and domestic tourism participation. Discussions to data analysis output is also provided after each data presentation. Sample weights were applied during analysis for all the tables under descriptive statistics. This enabled the presentation of nationally representative results.

Participants of domestic Tourism

Population weights were applied to the UNHS sample dataset to estimate the total number of individuals that participated in domestic tourism in Uganda. Table 4.1 presents the weighted domestic tourism participation in Uganda. Approximately 5.91% of Ugandans participated in some form of domestic tourism in the FY 2019/20 which translates to about 2.42 million domestic visitors as shown in table 4.1.

Table 4. 1: Weighted Domestic Tourism participation in Uganda

Domestic Tourism	Freq.	Percent.	Cum.
Non-Participants	38,524,098	94.09%	94.09%
Domestic Tourism Participant	2,421,702	5.91%	100%
Total	40,945,800	100%	

Source: Author's own Computation

Cross tabulation of household head and participation in Domestic tourism

In total the UNHS 2019/20 collected data on 64,796 household members which when weighted translated to a population of 40,945,800. From the data, about 22.05% of the household members were household heads, in numerical terms 9,027,372 household heads.

Table 4.2 below shows 2,421,702 persons participated in domestic tourism in Uganda. Among the persons that participated in domestic tourism, 56.94% of them were household heads while 43.06% were other household heads. The table also further shows that amongst the non-participants of domestic tourism only 19.85% were household heads while 80.15% were other household members. The study of effects of individual, socioeconomic and technological factors on domestic tourism in Uganda, zeroed down to the household heads to provide a representative sample for analysis.

Table 4. 2: Household head participation in domestic tourism

Household Authority	Domestic Tourism		Total
	Non-Participant	Participant	
Not Household head	30,875,647	1,042,781	31,918,428
	80.15%	43.06%	77.95%
Household Head	7,648,451	1,378,921	9,027,372
	19.85%	56.94%	22.05%
Total	38,524,098	2,421,702	40,945,800
	100%	100%	100%

Source: Author's own Computation

Household heads often have a significant say in decision-making within the household according to Dorrit (2001). The powers for decision making could include matters related to travel and tourism. Household heads have the authority to decide when, where, and how the family participates in tourism activities. Their preferences, priorities, and financial considerations can therefore shape the family's travel decisions.

Additionally, according to Dorrit (2001), the head of the household and the household's biggest earner have a strong correlation. In most cases the household head makes the most income within a family but in instances where they are not the highest earners, they have the final say over decisions. The household head typically manages the household finances and budgeting. Therefore, their control over financial resources can impact the family's ability to participate in tourism. This is because they determine the allocation of funds for travel expenses, such as transportation, accommodation, and activities.

Cross tabulation of sex of Household head and domestic tourism participation

Table 4.3 below shows that 1,378,921 household heads participated in domestic tourism. Out of the household heads that participated in domestic tourism, 70.01% were male while 29.99% were female.

Table 4. 3: Sex of Household head and Domestic tourism participation

Domestic Tourism			
Sex HHead	Non-Participant	Participant	Total
Female	2,398,612	413,475	2,812,087
	31.36%	29.99%	31.15%
Male	5,249,839	965,446	6,215,285
	68.64%	70.01%	68.85%
Total	7,648,451	1,378,921	9,027,372
	100%	100%	100%

Source: Author's own Computation

Historically, women were (and still are) primary care givers in charge of the majority of food production, taking care of the children and elderly at home (Ruvimbo, 2010). Women often take on primary caregiving roles within families, including caring for children, elderly parents, or family members with disabilities or chronic illnesses (Cancian and Oliker, 2000 as cited in Schatz and Seeley, 2015). This responsibility can involve a wide range of tasks, such as providing physical and emotional support, managing medical appointments and treatments, coordinating daily activities, and addressing household needs.

Care activities such as feeding, bathing, dressing, nurturing, and educating children are usually time consuming and demanding which in turn affects women's ability to engage in other activities including work and personal pursuits (Philippa et al., 2017). Moreover, the

responsibilities of being primary care provides apart from being time consuming, restricts women to the homestead environment thereby making them less likely to travel frequently.

Cross tabulation of age of household head and domestic tourism participation

Generally, an increase in age of the household head increased their likelihood to participate in domestic tourism up to the age of 54 years where participation starts to drop. The most active age group was 36-54 years contributing 43.10% of participants in domestic tourism while the second most active age group was household heads aged 18-35 years with 34.16% of all domestic tourism participation. The age group 55 years and above contributed about 20.19% of domestic tourism participation. Household heads aged between 0-17 years only contributed 0.14% of total domestic tourism participation as shown in table 4.4 below.

Table 4. 4: Age of household head and participation in domestic tourism

Household Head Age Categories	Domestic Tourism		
	Non-Participants	Participant	Total
0-17	33,071 0.43%	1,911 0.14%	34,982 0.39%
18-35	2,591,515 33.88%	504,317 36.57%	3,095,832 34.29%
36-54	3,055,446 39.95%	594,335 43.10%	3,649,781 40.43%
55 and above	1,968,419 25.74%	278,358 20.19%	2,246,777 24.89%
Total	7,648,451 100%	1,378,921 100%	9,027,372 100%

Source: Author's own Computation

According to Taft et al. (2013), age has a positive relationship with an individual's financial wellbeing. Younger individuals may have limited financial resources due to early career stages or educational commitments, while older adults may have more financial stability or retirement savings that can support their travel plans and ability to participate in domestic tourism.

Younger individuals aged 18 years and above, such as students or those in early career stages, may have more flexibility in terms of time off and travel opportunities. They may be more likely to take longer trips or engage in spontaneous travel. On the contrary, older individuals aged 55 years and above although they could be wealthier than younger adults, could have family responsibilities and other constraints that affect their travel frequency and availability. According to Akintola (2004), as cited Schatz and Seeley (2015), older persons especially women provide primary care for grandchildren and orphans. Care giving responsibilities coupled with deteriorating health as people tend to age, affects the ability of older persons to travel.

Cross tabulation of education level and domestic tourism participation

Table 4.5 below shows generally that, household heads with some education tended to travel more than those with no education at all. Household heads with primary education were the most active participants in domestic tourism contributing 49.25% of the total domestic tourism participation. With further education, participation in domestic tourism tended to drop. Household heads with secondary education contributed 28.86% of domestic tourism participation while household heads with post-secondary education contributed 12.53%.

Table 4. 5: Education level and participation in domestic tourism

Education Level	Domestic Tourism		
	Non-Participants	Participant	Total
No Education	1,364,155 17.96%	128,041 9.36%	1,492,196 16.65%
Primary Education	3,788,340 49.88%	673,923 49.25%	4,462,263 49.78%
Secondary Education	1,743,435 22.95%	394,989 28.86%	2,138,424 23.86%
Post-Secondary Education	699,737 9.21%	171,477 12.53%	871,214 9.71%
Total	7,595,667 100%	1,368,430 100%	8,964,097 100%

Source: Author's own Computation

According to Buckler and Creech (2014), education is one of the key pathways to development. In relation to travel, education broadens people's horizons and enhances their cultural awareness which can increase interest in participation in domestic tourism. Education and prior knowledge fosters curiosity for leaning and experiencing new things (Wade & Kidd, 2019). Out of curiosity, individuals are more inclined to seek out travel opportunities to new destinations to quench their thirst to learn and experience new locations.

Additionally, Education is credited for increase in people's disposable incomes (Zia et al., 2015), this in turn contributes to a greater ability to finance and engage in domestic tourism. Higher education levels often correlate with higher income levels, allowing individuals to allocate more resources towards domestic travel and recreation activities.

Cross tabulation of disability status and domestic tourism participation

Table 4.6 below shows that, among the household heads that engaged in domestic tourism, 81.84% of them were not physically challenged while 18.16% of them possessed some form of disability. Computed from the table, about 16.2% (250,252) of the total number of persons with disabilities were able to undertake a domestic trip.

Table 4. 6: Disability status and domestic tourism participation

Disability Status	Domestic Tourism		
	Non-Participants	Participant	Total
Not physically Challenged	6,350,325	1,127,781	7,478,106
	83.09%	81.84%	82.90%
Physically Challenged	1,292,558	250,252	1,542,810
	16.91%	18.16%	17.10%
Total	7,642,883	1,378,033	9,020,916
	100	100	100

Source: Author's own Computation

Traveling can be a fulfilling and enriching experience for people with disabilities according to (Chikuta, 2017), but it also presents unique challenges such as accessibility, lack of specialized services, discrimination and stigma, limited awareness among persons living with disability and safety concerns (Loi & Kong, 2017). This could explain why a small fraction (11.8%) of the household heads with disability participated in domestic tourism activities.

Cross tabulation of marital status and domestic tourism participation.

Household heads that lived together with their partners were more likely to engage in domestic tourism. From table 4.7, we can see that 69.18% of domestic tourism participants were

married/cohabiting, 24.57% of the participants were divorced or separated or had lost partner, and 6.25% were never married.

Table 4. 7: Marital status and domestic tourism participation

Marital Status	Domestic Tourism		
	Non-Participants	Participant	Total
Married/Cohabiting	5,242,993 68.55%	953,940 69.18%	6,196,933 68.65%
Divorced/Separated/ lost partner	1,994,242 26.07%	338,747.00 24.57%	2,332,989 25.84%
Never Married	411,216.00 5.38%	86,234 6.25%	497,450.00 5.51%
Total	7,648,451 100%	1,378,921 100%	9,027,372 100%

Source: Author's own Computation

Marital status can influence domestic tourism patterns and participation in various ways. Couples staying together may often engage in family-oriented travel for the entire family. Apart from the family-oriented travel, couples could also have getaways without their children. Because of increase in social and economic demands on working adults, time allotted for family bonding has decreased (Durko & Petrick, 2013). Therefore, travel is a means to use the limited time between couples to improve on communications and reduce the possibilities of separation (Durko & Petrick, 2013). Couples and families will tend to travel more because of the need to strengthen lifelong family bonds.

Cross tabulation of household size and domestic tourism participation

Table 4.8 below shows that household heads from very large households tended to participate less in domestic tourism. The table shows that 41.45% of domestic tourism participants were household heads from mid-sized families of 4-6 persons, 33.71% of domestic tourism participants were household heads from small families of 0-3 persons and 24.84% of domestic

Table 4. 8: Household size and domestic tourism participation

Household Size	Domestic_Tourism		
	Non-Participants	Participant	Total
"0-3"	2,796,869	464,873.00	3,261,742
	36.57%	33.71%	36.13%
"4-6"	3,353,001	571,559.00	3,924,560
	43.84%	41.45%	43.47%
"7-25"	1,498,581	342,489.00	1,841,070
	19.59%	24.84%	20.40%
Total	7,648,451	1,378,921	9,027,372
	100%	100%	100%

Source: Author's own Computation

Financial resources available within a household are a crucial factor in determining the ability to participate in domestic tourism. According to Babalola and Isitor (2014), larger households may have higher expenses related to daily needs such as food, accommodation, and utilities. Because of higher expenses, larger households have limited disposable incomes for participation in domestic tourism and travel. Larger families will therefore face more financial constraints and find it difficult to allocate resources for domestic tourism activities.

Cross tabulation of residence of household and domestic tourism participation

Table 4.9 shows that 70.12% of household heads reside in rural areas. Equally, about 73.58% of domestic tourism participants were household heads from the rural areas while 26.42% of domestic tourism participants were household heads from urban areas.

Table 4. 9: Residence and domestic tourism participation

Residence	Domestic Tourism		
	Non-Participants	Participant	Total
Rural	5,315,362 69.50%	1,014,613 73.58%	6,329,975 70.12%
Urban	2,333,089 30.50%	364,308.00 26.42%	2,697,397 29.88%
Total	7,648,451 100%	1,378,921 100%	9,027,372 100%

Source: Author's own Computation

The Uganda Bureau of Statistics (UBOS, 2023) estimates that the population of Uganda as of 2023 is 45.5 million people. About 62.6% of Ugandans (28.5 million people) reside in rural areas. Because most of the population resides in rural areas, more rural-urban travel is bound to happen.

Rural residents take domestic tourism trips for various reasons. The first being that urban areas often provide a more vibrant social and cultural environment. Urban areas offer greater variety of social activities, entertainment options, cultural events and diverse communities (Mercandalli & Losch, 2017). As a result, individuals in rural areas may feel a stronger desire to travel to urban locations.

Secondly, rural areas often have tight-knit communities, and individuals may have relatives and friends living in different urban places. People in rural areas thus may travel more frequently to visit their loved ones who have moved to urban areas (Gugler, 1991 as cited in Ajaero & Onokala, 2013).

Cross tabulation of internet access and domestic tourism participation

Table 4.10 presents internet access for household heads in Uganda. A whopping 90.36% of household heads did not have access to internet in Uganda. Further, about 85% of domestic tourism participants were household heads who did not have access to internet services while only 15% of domestic tourism participants had access to internet services.

Table 4. 10: Internet access and domestic tourism participation

Internet Access	Domestic_Tourism		
	Non-Participants	Participant	Total
No Access to Internet	6,985,256 91.33%	1,172,063 85%	8,157,319 90.36%
Have Access to Internet	663,195.00 8.67%	206,858.00 15%	870,053 9.64%
Total	7,648,451 100%	1,378,921 100%	9,027,372 100%

Source: Author's own Computation

According to World Bank time series data, individuals using the internet as a percentage of the population in Uganda stood at only 10.34% in the year 2021. This could explain why the majority of household heads did not have access to the internet. Internet access is important for domestic tourism because it increases access to information, resources and booking platforms for travel which in turn increases participation in domestic tourism (Adeola & Evans, 2019). The internet enables potential domestic visitors to research about destinations, attractions,

accommodation facilities and activities online which empowers them to make informed decisions on their travel choices.

Cross tabulation of ownership of mobile phone and domestic tourism participation

Table 4.11 shows that about 69.85% of household heads in Uganda had access to mobile phones. Among the household heads that are classified as domestic visitors, 81.13% owned a mobile phone while 18.87% did not own a mobile phone.

Table 4. 11: Ownership of mobile phone and domestic tourism participation

Mobile Ownership	Domestic Tourism		
	Non-Participants	Participant	Total
Don't Own Mobile phone	2,461,747	260,189.00	2,721,936
	32.19%	18.87%	30.15%
Own Mobile phone	5,186,704	1,118,732	6,305,436
	67.81%	81.13%	69.85%
Total	7,648,451	1,378,921	9,027,372
	100%	100%	100%

Source: Author's own Computation

According to World Bank time series data, there were 30.13 million mobile cellular subscriptions in Uganda as of 2021. This explains why most household heads owned a mobile phone. According to Dickinson et al., (2016), mobile phones facilitate communication and social interaction while traveling. Travelers can stay connected with family, friends, and fellow travelers through messaging apps, social media platforms, and video calls. They can share their experiences in real-time, seek recommendations, and connect with locals or other travelers, enhancing the social aspect of their travel experiences. This can provide a sense of security and peace of mind during their tourism activities.

Cross tabulation of employment status and domestic tourism

Table 4.12 below shows that 58.56% of household heads in Uganda were in some form of employment. Further the data shows that among the household heads that participated in domestic tourism, 68.89% of them were in employment while 31.11% were not in employment.

Table 4. 12: Employment status and domestic tourism participation

Employment Status	Domestic_Tourism		
	Non-Participants	Participant	Total
Not in employment	3,312,081 43.30%	429,023.00 31.11%	3,741,104 41.44%
In Employment	4,336,370 56.70%	949,898 68.89%	5,286,268 58.56%
Total	7,648,451 100%	1,378,921 100%	9,027,372 100%

Source: Author's own Computation

Employment provides individuals with the means to finance their travel experiences. According to Khalid et al. (2020), having a stable income allows individuals to allocate funds for travel expenses such as transportation, accommodation, meals, and attractions. The level of employment income and financial stability can influence the extent to which individuals can afford to participate in tourism and the types of experiences they can engage in.

Further, some individuals may have the opportunity to participate in tourism through work-related travel. Organizations in an effort to increase productivity provide employees with incentive tour packages (Olubusayo et al., 2014). These incentive packages can include, fully paid leisure safari, attending conferences, business meetings, or training programs that take place in different locations. While these trips may be primarily work-focused, they can still

offer opportunities for individuals to explore the destination, engage in leisure activities, and experience local culture.

4.2 Verification of the research Hypotheses

In modelling the effects of individual, socioeconomic and technological factors on domestic tourism, the researcher estimated the model with robust standard errors that makes the model free of heteroscedasticity.

Thereafter, residuals were obtained and tested for normality. The null and alternative hypothesis for the normality test is given below.

H₀: The residuals are normally distributed.

H₁: The residuals are not normally distributed.

If the probability of the chi-square is greater than 0.05, we accept the null hypothesis and conclude that the residuals are normally distributed. If probability of the chi-square is less than 0.05, we reject the null hypothesis conclude that the residuals are not normally distributed.

Table 4. 13: Showing test for Normality of the residuals

. sktest resid						
Skewness/Kurtosis tests for Normality						
Variable	Obs	Pr (Skewness)	Pr (Kurtosis)	adj chi2 (2)	joint	Prob>chi2
resid	12,926	0.0000	0.0000	.	.	0.0000

Source: Author's own Computation

Results in table 4.13 show that the probability of the chi-square is less than 0.05. Therefore, the residuals are not normally distributed hence further tests were conducted to ascertain the appropriateness of using a logit model.

Regression Diagnostics for Logistic Regression: Graphical

A logit model was then estimated proceeded by generation of a ROC curve. Evidence of goodness of fit is reflected in an ROC curve that lies above the 45-degree line reference. Figure 4.1 below shows that the ROC curve is above the 45-degree reference line. The area under the ROC curve = .6360 indicating that 63.6% of the observations in the logit model estimated are correctly classified.

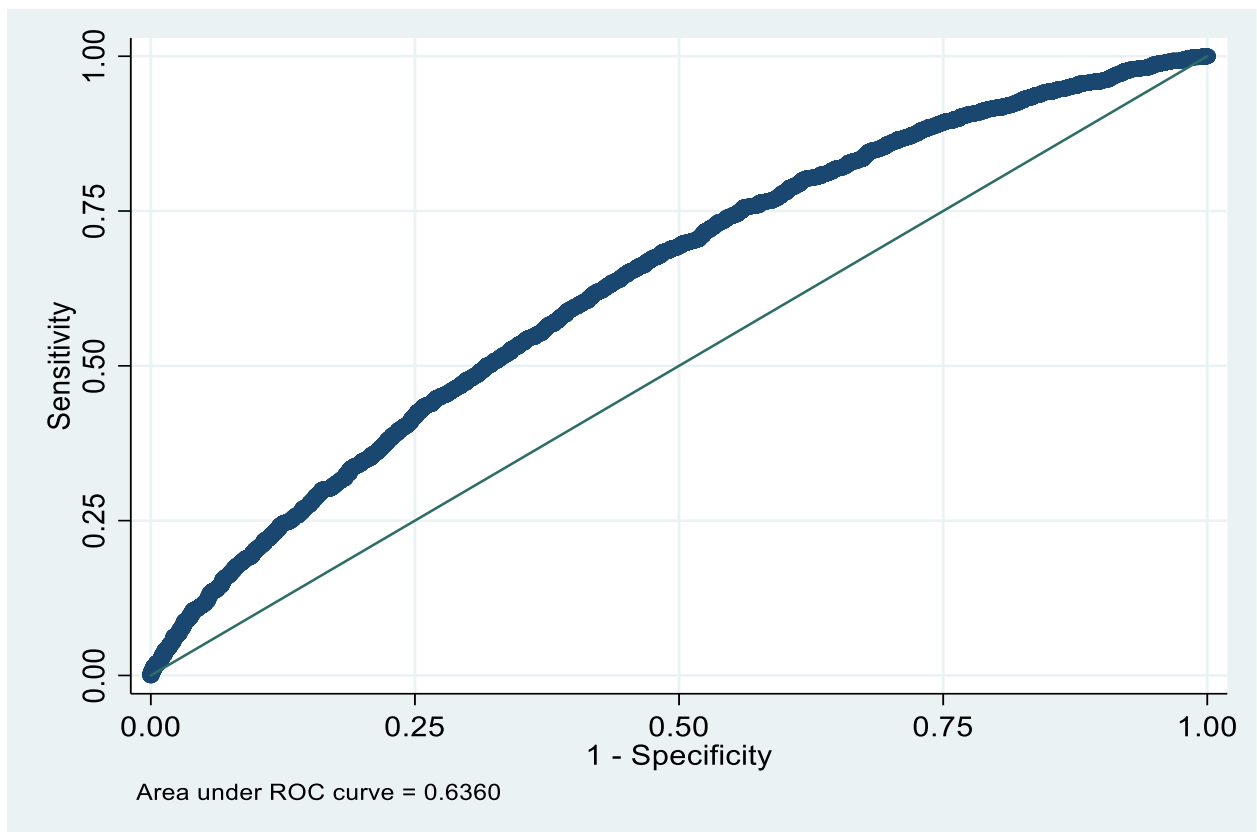


Figure 4. 1: Plot of ROC Curve using lroc

The next step involved the estimation of a logit model with robust standard errors that makes the model free of heteroscedasticity. Marginal effects of the logit model were estimated to provide the probabilities for model interpretation.

Table 4.14 displays the marginal effects after logit and shows that the explanatory variables displayed that include, education, disability status, married and cohabiting household heads, household size, urban residence, internet access, mobile phone ownership, and employment status, significantly explain participation in domestic tourism at a 5% significance level.

The following factors were found not significant in explaining domestic tourism participation, age of the household head, sex of the household head, household income.

Table 4. 14: Showing Marginal effects after logit modelling

Marginal effects after logit

$y = \text{Pr}(\text{DT})$ (predict)

= **.1468733**

Variable	dy/dx	Std. Err.	z	P > z
HHm *	-0.01498	0.01169	-1.28	0.200
LogAgH	-0.01665	0.01336	-1.25	0.213
PRI*	0.05289	0.01329	3.98	0.000
SEC*	0.07367	0.01856	3.97	0.000
Psec*	0.06230	0.02565	2.43	0.015
DISA*	0.04912	0.01296	3.79	0.000
MAR*	0.03447	0.01469	2.35	0.019
DIVOR_HH*	0.03013	0.02699	1.12	0.264
LogHHsz	0.02044	0.00805	2.54	0.011
URB*	-0.06524	0.00863	-7.56	0.000
WIFI*	0.07781	0.01947	4.00	0.000
PHON*	0.05894	0.00877	6.72	0.000
EMP*	0.04737	0.00846	5.60	0.000
LogINm	0.00613	0.00357	1.72	0.085

(*) dy/dx is for discrete change of dummy variable from 0 to 1

Source: Author's own Computation

The significance levels of the estimated parameters is at 5% level this $\text{Prob} > Z < 0.05$.

Table 4. 15: Description of model variables.

Variable	Definition & Measurement
DT	Domestic tourism participation (=1 if participated in domestic tourism, otherwise zero)
LogAgH	Natural logarithm of age of the household head
HHm	Dummy for male household head (= 1 if household head is male, and 0 otherwise.)
NOEDUC	Dummy for no education (=1 no education, 0 otherwise) Reference category
PRI	Dummy for primary Education (=1 primary level of education, 0 otherwise)
SEC	Dummy for Secondary Education (=1 secondary level of education, 0 otherwise)
Psec	Dummy for post-secondary education (=1 Post secondary level of education, 0 otherwise)
nevermar	Dummy for never married (=1 if never married, otherwise zero) Reference category
MAR	Dummy for Married or Cohabiting (=1 if married or cohabiting, otherwise zero)
DIVOR_HH	Dummy for divorced, separated and lost partner (=1 if divorced / separated / lost partner, otherwise zero)
URB	Dummy for residence of household head (=1 if urban, otherwise zero)
LogHHsz	Natural logarithm of Household size.
EMP	Employment status dummy (=1 if employed, otherwise zero)
LogINm	Natural logarithm of Household Income
WIFI	This is dummy for internet access (=1 if household head had access to internet, otherwise zero)
PHON	Mobile phone ownership dummy (=1 if household head owned mobile phone, otherwise zero)
DISA	Disability status dummy (=1 if household head had disability, otherwise zero)
U	Error term

4.2.1 Discussion on study results

This section discusses the results on effects of individual, socioeconomic and technological factors on domestic tourism in Uganda.

Effects of individual factors on domestic tourism

The study tested the effect of five individual factors on domestic tourism. These factors included, the level of education, the sex of the household head, marital status of the household head, age of the household head and disability status of the household head. Two factors i.e. age of the household and sex of the household head were not significant in explaining domestic tourism participation. Below is a discussion of the significant individual factors.

Effect of education level on domestic tourism

The household head's education level positively and significantly explains participation in domestic tourism. From the data analysis, household heads with some educations were more likely engage in domestic tourism than those without any form of education.

Primary education attainment increases the probability of household head participating in domestic tourism by 0.05289. Similarly, the probability of a household head participating in domestic tourism increased by 0.07367 if the household head had secondary education. The study findings also show that attainment of post-secondary education by the household head increased the probability of participation in domestic tourism by 0.06230.

The finding on the effect of education on domestic tourism are in agreement with Kojo (2020), Ndambuki (2017) and Bimal et al. (2022) who show that education had a positive relationship with domestic tourism. However, the findings are in contrast with Odeny (2019) who found higher education not to be significant in explaining domestic tourism.

Effect of disability status on domestic tourism

The disability status of an individual is significant explaining participation in domestic tourism at 5% significance level. Data analysis results show that the probability of a household head participating in domestic tourism increased by 0.04912 if the household head was living with physical disability. Implying it's more likely for a person living with disability to take a domestic trip than a person without physical challenges.

This finding is contrary to findings by Darcy, (2010); Pagán, (2012); and Tutuncu, (2017) who showed that persons with disability travelled less than the general public. However, this study's findings support Bergier et al. (2010), who show that individuals with disabilities have a significant amount of free time and therefore could engage in more travel activities.

According to Article 35 of the Constitution of the Republic of Uganda, people with disabilities have a right to respect and human dignity, and the state and society must take the appropriate actions to ensure that they attain their full potential, both mentally and physically. The Constitution also allows for the creation of legislation and regulations to solve their issues. The Persons with Disabilities Act 2020 is an important tool that the government designed to protect the rights of people with disabilities. The government has also started social protection initiatives like the Special Grant for Persons with Disabilities to better the wellbeing of those who are weaker, including those who have disabilities. Through encouraging effective involvement and engagement, the government is committed to mainstreaming disability in development. This could partly account for the reasons why participation of persons with disability in domestic tourism was found to be greater than for persons without disability.

Effect of marital status on domestic tourism

Married and cohabiting partners were more likely to engage in a domestic tourism trip. The probability of participation by household heads in domestic tourism increased by 0.03447 if the household head was married or cohabiting with the partner. This finding is in agreement with Odeny (2019), who shows that married individuals were more likely to take domestic trips.

Effects of socioeconomic factors on domestic tourism

The second objective of this study was to examine the effect of four socioeconomic factors on domestic tourism. These factors included household income, residence of the household, size of the household and employment status of the household head. From the analysis, only household income was found to be non-significant in explaining participation in domestic tourism. Below is a discussion of the significant socioeconomic factors.

Effect of household size on domestic tourism

Household size is significant in explaining household head participation in domestic tourism at a 5% significance level. An additional household member positively boosts the probability of a household head participating in domestic tourism by 0.02044.

This finding is in contrast with Devanto (2016) who found that, as the household size increased, the likelihood of individuals engaging in domestic tourism dropped.

However, possibility for increase in household size influencing higher participation in domestic tourism could be explained by the fact that about 62.6% of Ugandans (The Uganda Bureau of Statistics, 2023) reside in rural areas. Because of the higher poverty levels and bigger family

sizes in the rural areas (Klasen & Lawson, 2007) household heads in rural areas could have made more trips to urban areas in search for opportunities to support their larger families.

Effect of residence on domestic tourism

Residence of the household head is significant in explaining participation in domestic tourism. The probability of a household head participating in domestic tourism decreases by 6.52% when he/she resides in urban areas.

This finding is contrary to available literature that supports the notion that urban residents travel more than their rural residents. Devanto (2016) and Odeny (2019) who show in their studies that urban individuals were more likely to make domestic tourism trips. People in urban areas generally earn better incomes than people in rural areas (Young, 2013). Urban dwellers therefore will likely have more travel opportunities than their rural counterparts.

However, because the bulk of Ugandans live in rural areas, more rural-urban travel is bound to happen. Rural residents take domestic tourism trips for various reasons. The first being that urban areas often provide a more vibrant social and cultural environment. Urban areas offer a greater variety of social activities, entertainment options, cultural events and diverse communities (Mercandalli & Losch, 2017). As a result, individuals in rural areas may feel a stronger desire to travel to urban locations. Secondly, rural areas often have tight-knit communities, and individuals may have relatives and friends living in different urban places. People in rural areas thus may travel more frequently to visit their loved ones who have moved to urban areas (Gugler, 1991 as cited in Ajaero & Onokala, 2013).

Effect of employment status on domestic tourism

The employment status of the household head is significant in explaining participation in domestic tourism at a 5% significance level. The probability of domestic tourism participation increases by 0.04737 if the household head is employed. The study's finding is in agreement with Ndambuki (2017) and Odeny (2017) who showed that persons in employment were more likely to make a domestic trip than unemployed persons.

Effects of technological factors on domestic tourism

The third objective of this study was to examine the effect of two technological factors on domestic tourism. These included having a cell phone and having access to the internet. From the analysis, all the technological factors were found to be significant in explaining participation in domestic tourism. Below is a discussion of the effect of technological factors on domestic tourism participation.

Effect of Internet access on domestic tourism

Internet access is significant in explaining household head participation in domestic tourism at a 5% significance level. The probability of domestic tourism participation increases by 0.07781 if the household head had access to the internet. The study findings are in contrast with Kojo (2020) who showed that Internet access does not significantly affect domestic tourism participation. However, Adeola and Evans (2019) show that internet access is important to domestic tourism because it enhances individual access to information on travel, resources and booking platforms for travel.

Effect of Mobile phone ownership on domestic tourism

Mobile phone ownership is significant in explaining household head participation in domestic tourism. The probability of domestic tourism participation increased by 0.05894 if the household head owned a mobile phone. The study findings are in contrast with Kojo (2020) who showed that mobile phone ownership does not significantly affect domestic tourism participation. However, according to Dickinson et al., (2016), mobile phones facilitate communication and social interaction while traveling which increases a sense of security among travelers. Travelers can stay connected with family, friends, and fellow travelers through messaging apps, social media platforms, and video calls.

4.3 Summary to the presentation and discussion of findings

This study investigates the effects of individual, socioeconomic, and technological factors on domestic tourism in Uganda using the UNHS 2019/20 dataset. The study found that approximately 5.91% of Ugandans participated in domestic tourism in FY 2019/20, resulting in 2.42 million domestic visitors.

The results showed that education level positively and significantly explains participation in domestic tourism. Household heads with some education were more likely to engage in domestic tourism than those without any form of education. Primary education attainment increased the probability of a household head participating in domestic tourism by 0.05289. Post-secondary education attainment increased the probability of participation in domestic tourism by 0.06230. The findings are in agreement with previous studies showing a positive relationship between education and domestic tourism.

Disability status also played a significant role in domestic tourism, with individuals with physical disabilities more likely to participate. Married and cohabiting partners were found to

be more likely to engage in domestic tourism trips. The probability of participation increased by 0.03447 for married individuals. This finding supports previous studies, who found that married individuals were more likely to take domestic trips.

Socioeconomic factors, such as residence, size of the household, and employment status, also play a role in domestic tourism. Household size is significant at a 5% significance level in explaining domestic tourism participation. Residence also played a role in domestic tourism, with the probability of a household head participating in domestic tourism decreasing by 6.52% when residing in urban areas. This contradicts previous literature suggesting that urban residents travel more than their rural counterparts. However, rural-urban migration is inevitable due to the vibrant social and cultural environment in urban areas in Uganda prompting rural populations to seek services in Urban areas.

Technological factors, such as internet access and mobile phone ownership, also play a role in domestic tourism participation. Internet access increases the probability of participation in domestic tourism by 0.07781, while mobile phone ownership increases it by 0.05894.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Introduction

This chapter summarizes study results in relation to objectives, key variables that determine participation in domestic tourism and literature reviewed. The chapter also presents key policy recommendations that are drawn from study findings and conclusions. Finally, areas for further research are also provided.

5.1 Summary of study

Domestic tourism is highly significant in economies worldwide by accounting for almost three quarters of total global spending in tourism. Least developed countries such as Uganda could tap domestic tourism potentials to fill the highly seasonal international tourism. Domestic tourism is also important in cushioning tourism businesses from international shocks such as Covid-19. In an effort to provide stakeholders with information of factors that affect domestic tourism, this study was set out with three specific objectives in mind that included to find out how individual factors, social and economic factors, and technological factors affect domestic tourism in Uganda. The study utilized the Uganda National Household survey 2019/20 dataset and estimated a logit model to establish and quantify relationships between study variables.

Individual factors such as education levels, disability status, and marital status were found to be significant in explaining domestic tourism participation. As Education levels increased, the chances of individuals participating in domestic tourism increased. Persons that were married or cohabiting were also more likely to travel than single people and couples that had separated.

The study also reveals that persons with disability were more likely to take a domestic tourism trip than persons without physical disabilities.

The second objective was to find out the social economic factors that affect domestic tourism. The study reveals that factors such as household size, residence of households, employment status and household income were significant in explaining participation in domestic tourism. Employed individuals were more likely to undertake domestic tourism trips than unemployed counterparts. Data from this study also reveals that urban residents were more unlikely to engage in domestic tourism as compared to rural residents while bigger household sizes were more likely to contribute to domestic tourism participation.

Technological factors such as ownership of a mobile phone and access to internet were found to be significant in explaining domestic tourism participation. Both having access to internet and owning a mobile phone raised the likelihood of engaging in domestic tourism.

5.2 Conclusions

This study empirically explored the effects of individual, socioeconomic and technological factors on domestic tourism in Uganda based on the Uganda National Household Survey 2019/20 dataset. Employing a logit model, the study found out that the factors that positively and significantly affected domestic tourism were education level, disability status, household size, internet access, mobile phone ownership, and employment status. Presented below is the conclusions for each specific objective.

Effects of individual factors on domestic tourism

The study examined the effect of five individual factors on domestic tourism participation. Education level significantly influenced participation, with higher education levels increasing

the probability of participation in domestic tourism. Disability status also played a role, with individuals with physical disabilities more likely to participate in domestic tourism. Married individuals and cohabiting partners were also found to be more likely to engage in domestic tourism trips. Overall, the study highlights the significance of education, disability status, and marital status in influencing domestic tourism participation.

Effects of socioeconomic factors on domestic tourism

The impact of socioeconomic factors on domestic tourism in Uganda was investigated in this study. The study shows that key elements in the explanation of domestic tourism included the employment status of the household head, household size, and residence. The study also found out that the bigger the household, the more likely the household head will participate in domestic tourism. However, rural residents were found to be more likely to participate in domestic tourism trips due to the vibrant social environment and amenities in urban areas. Employment status also played a significant role in explaining domestic tourism participation. Persons in employment were more likely to participate in domestic tourism.

Effects of technological factors on domestic tourism

This study examines the impact of technological factors on domestic tourism, specifically internet access and mobile phone ownership. It found that internet access significantly increases household head participation in domestic tourism. Mobile phone ownership also played a positive significant role in domestic tourism participation.

5.3 Policy Recommendations

Evidence from this study suggests that education level has a positive and significant effect on domestic tourism. The policy recommendation is that Government should continue to invest in

education for all as this will enhance appreciation for domestic tourism. The ongoing Education Policy Review Commission (EPRC) should consider integration of tourism education in the curriculum.

Information Communication and Technology access (proxied by access to internet and mobile phone ownership) have a positive and significant effect on participation in domestic tourism. The policy recommendation is that the government should invest more in ICT infrastructure that includes the broadband infrastructure. This involves the improvement of the fiber optic network and the establishment of wireless networks.

5.3.1 Limitations of the study

The study had the following limitations:

The lack of longitudinal data: The Uganda National Household Survey (UNHS) 2019/20 is a cross-sectional study and therefore does not capture changes in effects of individual, socioeconomic and technological factors on domestic tourism over time. Therefore, the study could not analyze trends and seasonal variations in the effects of the explanatory variables on the dependent variables.

The recovery of domestic tourism in the post Covid-19 period: The study does not adequately capture the factors that affect domestic tourism in the post Covid 19 period. According to Uganda Bureau of Statistics (2021b) the data collection process was carried out between June 2019 and November 2020. This period was characterized by the onset of covid - 19 Pandemic in December 2019 and the subsequent restrictions on travel and tourism in Uganda starting March 2020 and with some Covid-19 restrictions lasting up to January 2022.

5.3.2 Areas for further research

Opportunities for further research lie in the study of domestic tourism trends, seasonality's, preferences, and behaviors using longitudinal data to further inform policy decisions and marketing strategies.

Given that this study does not cover the period after the Covid-19 pandemic, there are opportunities to study the effects of individual, socioeconomic and technological factors on domestic tourism in the post Covid-19 period.

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