Public Attitudes Towards Domestic Tourism in Protected Areas: A Case of Nakuru Town Residents.

BY
Jackson Kimutai Kiplagat

A THESIS SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF MASTER OF ENVIRONMENTAL STUDIES DEGREE OF KENYATTA UNIVERSITY

SEPTEMBER 2004
DECLARATION

This thesis is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other university or any other award.

STUDENT

Jackson Kimutai Kiplagat

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

We confirm that this thesis has been submitted for examination with our approval as university supervisors.

Prof. Wellington N. Wamicha
Department of Environmental science
Kenyatta University.

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

Dr. Ibrahim M. Ali
Wildlife Clubs of Kenya
Nairobi.

Signature........................................Date.................................................................
DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my Family, especially dad for his encouragement and commitment to education.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to acknowledge and thank my supervisors Prof. Wellington N. Wamicha, of Kenyatta University and Dr. Ibrahim. M. Ali the National Coordinator of Wildlife Clubs of Kenya (WCK) for their constant guidance throughout my study period. I wish to appreciate the support provided by Wildlife Clubs of Kenya (WCK) and especially the National Coordinator towards the success of this project.

I wish to recognise the contribution of other WCK staff especially the teaching staff, my predecessor as Head of Training Mrs Dorothy Ng’ang’a, the then Programmes Officer Irene Njumbi, for the support during the trying moments of my study.

I am also grateful to the following people; Nakuru DO 1 Mr. Lamalo, Nakuru District Inspector of Schools, Deputy Director - KWS Mr. Muhanga, Dr. Bagine – KWS Research Department and Ann Kahihia Senior Warden in charge of LNNP for granting me the authority to undertake this study. I am indebted to my family and especially my dad for being a driving force behind my education. Finally, I want to recognise Julius, Kaplelach, and Chesire for our cooperation in striving to achieve our long desired goal.

May God bless you all.
ABSTRACT

The study was conducted in Nakuru Town situated in the Rift Valley Province of Kenya and focused on public attitudes towards domestic tourism in protected areas. The town is adjacent to Lake Nakuru National Park which covers an area of about 188 square kilometres. It lies at an altitude of about 1759 metres above the sea level. It is a wetland of international importance (Ramsar site), especially as waterfowl habitat as well as a rhino and a Rothschild giraffe sanctuary. The park was first declared a bird sanctuary in 1960 and was gazetted as a National Park in 1968.

Nakuru town has a population of 231,262 people. Its location and status as a town adjacent to Lake Nakuru National Park made it an ideal study area for public attitudes towards domestic tourism in protected areas. It is also a leading park in terms of domestic tourist numbers compared to other parks in the country.

The study used secondary and primary data to achieve the objectives of the study. Secondary data on the number of domestic tourists were obtained from the Kenya Wildlife Service (KWS) park entry records and Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS). Through these records domestic tourist trends to the protected area between 1991 and 2000 were assessed.

Primary data was obtained by use of random and systematic random sampling techniques. Random sampling was used to select 20 residential areas in Nakuru town. Systematic random sampling was employed to select five households in every residential area. The heads of the selected households responded to the questionnaires.

The data collected was analysed with the help of the Statistical Package for Social Scientists (SPSS). Multi-way cross tabulation with Chi-square, means and percentages were used to analyse the respondent’s data to meet the objectives of the study. Factor analysis was used to identify groups of important factors that play an important role in influencing domestic tourism in protected areas.
From the results of the study, there is an indication of a positive attitude towards domestic tourism in protected areas. The use of protected areas for biodiversity conservation had strong public support, as shown by strong disagreement on the issue of converting protected areas to farmlands. There was a strong disagreement on the idea of converting protected areas to farmlands among the general public irrespective of education level.

Education was identified as playing a role in influencing public attitudes with level of positive of attitudes increasing with the increase in the levels of education and the need for use of protected areas to conserve biodiversity. Cost, transport and awareness factors showed high factor loadings indicating the important role they play in influencing public attitudes towards domestic tourism in protected areas among the Kenyan public.

Domestic tourism should be coordinated at national and local authority levels to provide travel information to the local public. There is also need to develop ecotourism activities within and outside protected areas, which will ensure direct benefits to the local communities. This will make conservation meaningful to the Kenyan public. Professionalism in tour guiding should be enhanced by park authorities. Doing so will provide information and understanding to the local public on the importance of protected areas as domestic tourist attractions.
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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS & ACRONYMS

ILO International Labour Organisation
IUCN World Conservation Union
KATA Kenya Association of Tour Agents
KATO Kenya Association of Tour Operators
KTB Kenya Tourist Board
KTDC Kenya Tourism Development Corporation
KTF Kenya Tourism Federation
KWS Kenya Wildlife Service
LNNP Lake Nakuru National Park
SBSTTA Subsidiary Body on Scientific, Technical and Technology Advice
SPSS Statistical Package for Social Scientists
UNEP United Nations Environment Programme
WCK Wildlife Clubs of Kenya
WCPA World Commission on Protected Areas
WTO World Tourism Organisation
WWF World Wide Fund
CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the problem

Tourism is one of the fastest growing industries in the world. It facilitates inter-cultural exchange, fosters understanding between nations and contributes significantly to the balance of payments in developing countries especially those that lack other major natural resources like minerals and agricultural potential. Kenya is one such developing country. It is very popular destination for tourists from all over the world. Unfortunately, Kenyan domestic tourism has not maximised its potential.

Kenya’s tourism industry is nature-driven. By 1988, the industry had become the highest foreign exchange earner ahead of the traditional agricultural exports such as coffee, tea and horticultural produce GOK (1988;1989). According to the Kenya Tourist Board, the tourism industry earned Kenya Kshs 23.9 billion in the year 2000, being the second largest foreign exchange earner after tea, although with domestic tourism contributed insignificantly to the economy. Unlike Kenyan’s, most of the European, American and Canadian tourists travel within their own countries with developing countries receiving the overspill from domestic tourism in these countries.

Attitudes towards travelling to protected areas has partly been attributed to protectionist regulations introduced by the colonial government in establishing a system of protected areas to ‘protect’ wildlife from the Kenyan people who on the contrary had lived with wildlife harmoniously over decades. This excluded the need for local public support and a positive attitude towards domestic tourism in protected
areas. At present domestic tourism contributes only approximately 10% of the visitors to parks and reserves in Kenya GOK (2000).

Unlike in Kenya, Western Europe and the North America public have a widespread perception that tourism is essential to life; “that getting away” is a symbol of socio-economic status and that it is healthy hence contributing to shaping a positive attitude to travel within and outside their countries Shaw & Williams (1994). For example, the majority of Americans and Europeans see life as consisting of alterations of these two modes of existence: Living at home and working for longish periods followed by taking vacations away from home for shorter periods Graburn (1977).

This perception has led to a desire by citizens of these countries to aspire to go for holidays at least once a year a situation that lacks in Kenya. The positive attitude by Americans and Europeans towards tourism has been encouraged not only by the increase in income, mobility and leisure time but also an extraordinary transformation of western society by automation and technology. People are able to work faster thereby leaving them with large amount of discretionary time for leisure Nelson and Butler (1974). Unlike Kenyan employees who are merely potential players in domestic tourism, employees in western countries recognise that periodic getting away from work in pursuit of leisure and recreation activity enhances productivity and for this reason, some employer’s pay for holidays for their workers as part of their employment package. Such strategies are yet to be developed in Kenya to encourage domestic tourism especially to the protected areas within the country.
1.2 Statement of the problem

Tourism is often thought of in the context of legally protected areas set aside both for conservation purposes and for economic development (Giongo et al. (1993). They have been determined by nature conservation priorities Leader – Williams et al. (1990) and the trend in developing tourism in natural settings has continued in both developed and developing countries for the last century. Protected areas remain perhaps the prime sites for international and domestic tourism today.

In Kenya the tourism industry has been and continues to remain as a rationale for protected area conservation. Most of the country’s tourism is based on nature attractions (sandy beaches and wildlife) Sindiga (1995); Akama (1996) most found in protected areas (parks and reserves). Wildlife tourism in Kenya is mainly practiced in protected areas which apart from being havens for biodiversity conservation remain a driving force for the tourism industry which generates foreign exchange that justify the existence of these protected areas. The industry has continued to develop and position itself as a leading foreign exchange earner GOK (1979; 1989;1994).

However, the industry is very fragile Rogalskey (1980). For more than a decade Kenya’s tourism industry has almost collapsed following the destruction of the countries infrastructure by the El nino rains, general rise in insecurity in some parts of the country and more recently the outbreak of SARS virus, the terrorist threats and consequent issuance of travel advisories by the main tourist source countries.
The declining numbers of tourists has resulted into decreased revenue and subsequently revenue to manage protected areas. This therefore calls for a review of strategies to make up for the lost revenue and continuing to justify the existence of protected areas by involving the local public through domestic tourism in protected areas. Unfortunately, the establishment of protected areas during the colonial era displaced local communities from their land for example; Maasai pastoralists have been displaced from traditional grazing lands in Kenya and Tanzania through the creation of national Parks Parkipuny (1996). This has partly contributed to a less supportive attitude towards protected area conservation. Changing trends in conservation has seen the involvement of communities in the management of protected areas and consequent sharing of accrued revenue both directly and indirectly by the local communities and protected area management.

Understanding the present public attitude towards domestic tourism in this areas is a key factor in determining the future of protected areas and hence biodiversity conservation in them. Public attitudes among communities are reflected by decisions made by community or opinion leaders who play a significant role in designing policy directions on if protected areas will be sustained or not. The future of protected areas and biodiversity conservation will depend on local people's (public) attitudes towards domestic tourism in these areas.

Western (1984) states that the major question of wildlife conservation (for tourism and biodiversity conservation) in Kenya is: How can wildlife and wildlife habitat be
conserved adequately when changing land usage, changing attitudes and diminishing open spaces compress wildlife species into small parks?. This study sought to establish the present attitudes among the public towards domestic tourism in protected areas, and the effects of these attitudes towards domestic tourism. Understanding the attitudes of Nakuru town residents will therefore for a basis for the Kenya Wildlife Service to design park plans that will be able to address the expectations of the community and at the same time secure the park’s biodiversity. There has been very little effort in Africa and Kenya in particular to study public attitudes in relation to domestic tourism in protected areas. This study sought to understand public attitudes towards domestic tourism in protected areas as well as providing important information towards the relationship between public attitudes and biodiversity conservation by using public support to sustain protected areas.

1.3 Objectives of the study

The objectives of the study were to: -

i) Determine the attitudes of Kenyan public towards domestic tourism in protected areas.

ii) Assess the trends of domestic tourism in Lake Nakuru National Park.

iii) Establish factors that influence domestic tourism in protected areas.

1.4 Research hypotheses

i) There are negative attitudes towards domestic tourism in protected areas.

ii) Domestic tourist trends have not varied over time.

iii) There are no factors influencing domestic tourism in protected areas.
1.5 Conceptual framework

Conscious and unconscious attitudes are adopted by the public towards ideas, people and things based on their cultures and traditions, education, experience and both formal and non-formal media. Attitudes are not based simply on facts but are formed by ideas, fears and aspirations which are held by people. Attitudes have been found to be influenced by the following factors Tolba et al (1992):
1.5.1 Traditions and beliefs

Attitudes towards our environment and hence domestic tourism in protected areas are moulded by tradition and beliefs conveyed through parental influence and personal observation and have evolved as an integral part of history of human interaction with nature Tolba et al (1992). Conservation measures began with religious sanctions that protected some species of animals and certain plants. Traditions and beliefs will determine a person’s like or dislike of an idea or an activity and hence influence his/her attitudes towards domestic tourism in protected areas. The evolution of the increasingly self-reliant urbanised cultures, especially in urban areas seems to be accompanied by alienation from nature and even hostility towards it Wong-Leonard (1992). Traditions and beliefs of the Kenyan public will therefore be important in the determination of public attitudes towards domestic tourism in protected areas.

1.5.2 Education

Education is a very sensitive indicator of appreciation, concern, affection, knowledge, and respect for nature Tolba (1988). These indicators increase with more education, especially with the college experience. People’s misconceptions about hunting, wildlife management techniques, domestic tourism, the importance of habitat and vegetative diversity, wildlife renewability, and ecological processes such as succession, fire, and predation can be understood and appreciated more with increased levels of education. Anthropomorphic tendencies also remain strong in children and young adults despite their knowledge of wildlife Wong-Leonard (1992). Although people may understand ecological or biological processes, many attribute human characteristics to individual animals.
These attributes include: motives, hatred, love, and morals among other factors shaping their thinking and response to wildlife perception.

Education increases levels of understanding of the need to travel as domestic tourists among the public. The higher the level of education achieved, the greater the need and understanding to travel and the higher the purchasing power Tolba (1988), hence enticing the public to have attitudes that promote domestic tourism in protected areas.

1.5.3 Formal/informal media and experience

Formal communication channels or the media do persuade individuals through advertising, brochures, sales promotions and public relations to travel to previously unknown attractions or unopened areas for public enjoyment.

Individuals encounter and learn about wildlife and travelling to wildlife protected areas in three ways:-

i) Direct natural experiences (encounter with natural habitat),

ii) Direct artificial experiences (zoos, museums, circuses, nature study at school), and

iii) Vicarious experiences.

Today, the public's primary contact with wildlife is through the media, a vicarious or indirect encounter. Media include pictures, reading, watching movies (especially in school), videos, computers, the internet, and television. Television in Kenya is can actually influence public attitudes toward wildlife protected areas and hence tourism.
Although the public does learn factual information from the media, research shows that vicarious experiences can generate inaccuracies and misconceptions about wildlife ecology, biology and management Wong-Leonard (1992).

The media has been suggested as one of the main sources and influences of environmental knowledge and awareness Blum (1987); Lead (1988) studied a Brazilian newspaper in the state of Bahia to see the coverage of environmental education (EE). The number of letters, telephone calls and other written communications that the editor received showed the interest created. Lead suggests that the simplicity and clarity of the articles had an important influence on the readership.

Informally, family, friends and groups of people can influence attitudes of the individuals as they interact and socialise. Informal channels have been identified as the most influential on an individual’s attitude Tolba (1988).

Experience exerts upon an individual a direct influence on their response to objects, situations, ideas, and things affecting their lives. Individuals with more direct contact with wildlife through activities like tourism exhibit a broader knowledge base and fewer misconceptions about the resource. For example, rural residents generally know more about wildlife than those living in urban areas. Individuals involved in recreational activities or numerous encounters with wildlife (trapping, hunting, bird identification, animal clubs, etc.) have fewer misconceptions about wildlife species than those who do not.
Greater direct contact with wildlife also appears to encourage a more positive attitude towards animals. Thus, rural residents show a higher interest in wildlife and participate more in wildlife-related activities than do urban residents. The latter are more concerned about individual animals and their moral treatment. Anglers, hunters, and bird identifiers show a greater appreciation for the resource, with lower sentimental affection for individual animals. They are also less opposed to hunting and have stronger utilitarian and ecological orientations Kellerts (1976).

Children have been known to show distinct changes in their knowledge and attitude towards wildlife as they grow. They progress from a general affection for animals to a cognitive understanding of ecosystems and stewardship Wong- Leonard (1992). Children appear to know different information about wildlife than do adults. Youngsters know more about invertebrates and basic biological characteristics of animals, while adults are more knowledgeable about domestic animals and situations with strong practical significance, e.g. human injuries inflicted by animals. Traditions, experience, education and the media will therefore impact on public attitudes towards Lake Nakuru National Park a domestic tourism recreational facility.

1.6 Justification of the study

Tourism plays a very important role in Kenya’s national economy both directly and indirectly. Domestic tourism in Kenya is less developed compared to foreign tourist numbers, especially in protected areas GOK (2000). Travel within one’s country helps to shape positive attitudes towards domestic tourism and enhance a sense of
nationalism among a people of a country Sindiga (1992). It also has the potential to stimulate interest and positive action for biodiversity and wildlife conservation that is a driving force of the tourism industry.

Current tourism programmes in the country are still dominated by foreign tourists who pay to visit these attractions whereas domestic tourism plays little role in contributing to these ventures. While it is important to note the significant role that can be played by domestic tourism in safeguarding the biodiversity in these, there is no doubt that returns from foreign tourists are important, but the future of protected area conservation of Kenya's biodiversity and domestic tourism is largely a Kenyan issue. Domestic tourism can also raise income that can be ploughed back for conservation and can act as an alternative to the current falling trends to international tourism in Kenya as a result of negative travel advisories from the west and international terrorism threats, hence providing a cushion to the costs of managing the protected areas and tourist facilities in these areas.

Nakuru town offers a basis for understanding public attitudes due to its proximity to the National Park. The town has a population of 231,262 CBS (2000b). People from all walks of life, local communities and other parts of the country occupy the town. With such a diverse population, Nakuru town provides an opportunity to study attitudes of Kenyans towards domestic tourism in protected areas. The park is also known to receive the highest numbers of domestic tourists compared to other parks CBS (2003). The results of this study will be made use of by the stakeholders in the tourism industry and add to the knowledge available on the relationship between
protected areas and domestic tourism in Kenya. Kenyans may use such knowledge to determine a policy direction towards promotion of domestic tourism in Kenya, which can act as a basis for sustainable tourism development.

Protected areas have a long and worthy tradition as beautiful places and refuges of biodiversity. They are vital reservoirs of biological diversity and a driving force of tourism. In turn, tourism earns very essential income for protected area management and therefore biodiversity conservation.

1.7 Limitations of the study

During the course of this study, the researcher encountered some limitations.

i) There was respondent fatigue. This required a lot of time to convince the respondents to respond to any questions posed to them. This has been attributed to a claim that previous studies have been of no benefit to the respondents and hence they see no reason to respond to them.

ii) Some respondents did not appreciate the need to respond to the questionnaires due to their inability to find tangible and immediate benefits of the study result and hence not spending sufficient time to respond to the questions appropriately.

iii) The other important shortcoming was on data collected in 1991–1998. The data had figures of adult domestic tourists as well as those of adult residents and adult citizens.
This may give a wrong impression of domestic tourist numbers. However, efforts have been made to give adult resident and adult citizen statistics since 1999.

1.8 Operational definition of terms

- **Attitude** - A predisposition to act in a certain way. A mental process combining beliefs and values that guides behaviour toward an object, attribute or event.

- **Domestic tourism** - Tourism involving Kenyan residents travelling within Kenya for the purpose of spending their leisure time.

- **Protected Area** – Area dedicated for protection and enjoyment of natural heritage, maintenance of biodiversity and ecological study. For the purposes of this study, a protected area refers to a park and or reserve.

- **Recreation** – Activity engaged upon during leisure time

- **Tourism** – Activities of persons travelling to places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure.

Developing and shaping public attitude towards domestic tourism in protected areas will develop a national support towards protected area conservation and hence biological diversity in them. The next chapter discusses the literature review pertaining to the establishment of protected areas and domestic tourism.
CHAPTER TWO
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter will be discussing the establishment of protected areas at global, regional and national levels. Apart from tourism activities in protected areas in Kenya, the country also has other forms of attractions which include beach tourism, cultural and physical landscapes. Nakuru town and its surroundings have apart from Lake Nakuru National Park other attractions which include the Menengai crater and Mt Longonot. This literature review will look at the development of protected areas at global, regional and local level and their role in international and domestic tourism in Kenya.

2.2 Establishment of protected areas and global tourism.

Globally, the land area covered by the world’s parks and protected areas has increased dramatically in the last 30 years. In 1996, there were 30,361 parks covering an area of about 13,245,527 km$^2$ in 225 countries. This is about 8.84% of the total land area of the planet Green & Paine (1997). Protected areas apart from being havens of biodiversity have been centres of attraction to humanity. Tourism in protected areas has been practised over one hundred years. It began in the historic campfire in Yellowstone in USA in 1870 by a group of explorers who decided that the area had such a beauty that it should be made a public park or pleasuring ground for the benefit of the people. This led to the passing of a bill authorizing such a use in 1872 Nyeki (1992). The establishment of the first protected area in the world was driven by local public positive attitude towards the protection of nature, hence the establishment was purely meant for domestic tourism.
Many other countries followed this example; Canada protected the area around its Hot Springs at Banff in 1885, and then later made it a National Park. Another country was Great Britain where the National Trust of Great Britain was founded in 1895 to conserve places of national interest. Laponia National Reserve in Sweden was later established in 1909 IUCN (1999). The protection of these areas was necessitated by the need for pleasuring grounds leading to the present concept of world tourism. The World Conservation Union (IUCN) has classified protected areas into six types/categories depending on their objectives.

**Category I:** Protected area managed mainly for science or wilderness protection (Strict Nature Reserves/ Wilderness Area).

**Category II:** Protected area managed mainly for ecosystem protection and recreation. (National Park).

**Category III:** Protected area managed mainly for conservation of specific natural features (Natural Monument)

**Category IV:** Protected area managed mainly for conservation through management intervention (Habitat/Species Management Area);

**Category V:** Protected area managed for landscape conservation and recreation (Protected Landscape/Seascape);

**Category VI:** Protected area managed mainly for the sustainable use of natural ecosystems (Managed Resource Protected Area).
In Africa, Category II is the traditional form of protection, in the form of national parks, but increasing this is being blended with forms of category VI, to allow for sustainable use by local people of some of the products. In the Caribbean, protected areas are of many types but because of the pressures on land, a closely zoned mixture of categories is a usual approach. The Pacific region is pioneering a new approach, the community-based Conservation Areas that are innovative examples of VI but with a protective element IUCN (1999).

The concept of protected areas to conserve biological diversity is an alien concept to the African continent. This is because African communities have lived with wildlife for centuries. The introduction of a system of parks and reserves was brought by the colonial governments in the pretext of protecting them and wildlife in them from Africans who were thought to have threatened their existence and the use of these areas for recreation by the few well-to-do individuals. The concept of utilizing parks and reserves for tourism for all was just mooted after most African states got their independence.

In Kenya, the British colonial authorities that previously used the country as a paradise for hunters mooted the idea of protected areas. Hunting mainly by the settler community caused a great loss of wildlife numbers in Kenya. This aroused a lot of concern resulting in the London and Bukavu International Conferences on wildlife conservation and management of 1933 and 1953 respectively. These two conferences recommended the establishment of a system of National Parks in East Africa. The main aim of these protected areas in Kenya was to preserve by protection the wild
flora and fauna and objects of aesthetic, geological, prehistoric, archaeological or scientific interest. This was cited by the National Parks Ordinance No.9 of 1945, through which Nairobi National Park was established by its proclamation on the 16th December, 1946 Nyeki (1992). Other National Parks and reserves were established later giving Kenya about 60 parks and reserves today. These are spread all over representative ecological zones bringing a total of 44,928 square kilometres approximately 8% of the Kenya’s land area under parks and reserves.

Wildlife is the main driving force behind the Kenyan tourism industry. The government of Kenya is currently launching programmes to encourage tourism amongst its citizens through the Kenya Tourist Board, Kenya Wildlife Service (KWS) and the private sector with the aim of making Kenyans aware of the need to conserve, maintain their wildlife heritage and travel as domestic tourists. This would also help to keep the tourism industry busy and profitable especially in times when international tourist numbers are low, encourage ethnic integration and equal development in all areas of the country. Mwangi B. H & Young E. (1990).

Over the last 50 years, tourism has gained increasing recognition as an important sector with enormous potential for generating economic growth and employment. The sector generated directly and indirectly 11.7% of World Gross Domestic Product and provided nearly 200 million jobs. This is forecasted to rise by more than five million jobs over the next decade World Travel and Tourism Council (1999).
It is also estimated that, tourism revenues rank third among all world export industry accounting for 6 per cent of total world export and representing 25% of the international travel services Sindiga (1999). Spending in both domestic and international travel combined contributes to approximately 10 – 12% of world gross product or about 2 trillion dollars D'More (1988). In 1988, there was an expectation of some 400 million international tourist arrivals worldwide most of which targeted visiting protected areas. Tourism to protected areas of outstanding natural beauty, extraordinary ecological interest and wilderness has increased over decades Boo (1990).

International tourist arrivals have been increasing steadily from 394 million people in 1988 to 458 million in 1990 and to 612 million in 1997 (Table 2.1). During the 1988 – 1997 decade international tourist arrivals grew by an average of 5.2 % Sindiga (1999).

Table 2.1: International tourist arrivals and receipts worldwide (1988 – 1997)

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<td>Arrivals (millions)</td>
<td>394</td>
<td>426</td>
<td>458</td>
<td>463</td>
<td>502</td>
<td>518</td>
<td>549</td>
<td>563</td>
<td>595</td>
<td>612</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% Annual growth</td>
<td>8.5</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>5.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Receipts (US $thousands)</td>
<td>204</td>
<td>221</td>
<td>268</td>
<td>277</td>
<td>313</td>
<td>321</td>
<td>353</td>
<td>401</td>
<td>434</td>
<td>443</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% Annual growth</td>
<td>15.6</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>21.5</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>9.8</td>
<td>13.8</td>
<td>8.2</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Should these trends continue, World Tourism Organisation (WTO) projected that global tourism will reach 937 million international arrivals by 2010 (Sindiga, 1999). The aggregate figures provided above gives a picture about tourism patterns at a global scale. Therefore, countries endowed with more tourism resources than others stand to benefit a great deal from them. There is however, a large domestic tourism activity within individual countries especially in the developed world. The data for such internal travel, which generates much revenue and employment, are not reflected well in regional statistics.

2.2 Protected areas and tourism in Africa

The first national park to be established in Africa was Lake Albert (now Virunga) National Park in 1925 in Belgium Congo, now Democratic Republic of Congo. This was soon followed by a game reserve established by President Kruger of South Africa in 1892. This was to become the world famous Kruger National Park in 1926. Many more parks followed throughout colonial Africa.

The establishment of national parks and reserves in East Africa created what was seen as safe havens for the last remnants of the region's large mammal diversity (Mwangi, 1995). These areas exemplify natural areas developed almost exclusively for their ability to attract tourists thereby contributing to the foreign exchange earnings to the countries. The establishment of parks in Africa is nature-driven. In this way, the tourism industry supports the conservation of protected areas and at the same time tourist facilities found in these areas.
Africa’s share of world tourism market is small due to the geographical size of the continent and its population. International tourist arrivals increased from about 13 million in 1988 – 23 million in 1997 (Table 2.2)

Table 2.2 International tourist arrivals and percentage shares of Africa

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Global</td>
<td>394</td>
<td>426</td>
<td>458</td>
<td>463</td>
<td>502</td>
<td>518</td>
<td>549</td>
<td>563</td>
<td>595</td>
<td>612</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% share</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Africa</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% share</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


2.3 Protected areas and Tourism in Kenya

In Kenya, wildlife in protected areas is the basis for tourism success. The Kenyan government’s commitment to protected area conservation is demonstrated by its land reservation and strict wildlife conservation legislations and policies (Figure 2.1). Despite all these efforts, protected area conservation in Kenya is confronted by persistent, complex and overwhelming socio-economic and ecological factors. These include an increased destruction of wildlife habitat, decreasing habitat diversity, conflicts between wildlife and local people Burnett (1990); Myers (1972); Yeager & Miller (1986). These have in turn affected local people’s feelings attitudes and views towards wildlife and domestic tourism in protected areas.
Land use and tenure in areas within or around protected areas are changing rapidly with consequent problems of environmental degradation. Kenya is the most developed tourism destination in sub-Saharan Africa Williams (1976); Economist Intelligence Unit, (1991) and the second highest foreign exchange earner after tea. This position reflects some decline in tourism, which was the leading foreign exchange earner for the country for about a decade since 1987. In 1996 Kenya attracted 4.5 per cent of the 20 million tourist arrivals in Africa WTO (1997). This formed about 0.15 per cent of international arrivals of tourists in the world in that year. Kenya’s tourist arrivals declined to 3 per cent of Africa’s share of arrivals from abroad in 1997 (Table 2.2) reflecting the deterioration of the country’s tourist products. Despite this Kenya continues to struggle to remain one of the top African tourist destinations after South Africa, Tunisia, Morocco, Zimbabwe and Botswana. This struggle has effectuated tourism numbers and hence revenue accrued from it. (Table 2.3)

Table 2.3 Tourism earnings (1988-97)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEAR</th>
<th>K.POUNDS MILLION</th>
<th>K.SHILLINGS MILLION</th>
<th>US$ MILLION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1988</td>
<td>249</td>
<td>6986</td>
<td>376</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1989</td>
<td>432</td>
<td>8640</td>
<td>420</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990</td>
<td>533</td>
<td>10660</td>
<td>466</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1991</td>
<td>594</td>
<td>11880</td>
<td>432</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1992</td>
<td>713</td>
<td>14260</td>
<td>442</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1993</td>
<td>1222</td>
<td>24440</td>
<td>421</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1994</td>
<td>1405</td>
<td>28100</td>
<td>501</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1995</td>
<td>1230</td>
<td>23000</td>
<td>486</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1996</td>
<td>1280</td>
<td>25600</td>
<td>448</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1997</td>
<td>1132</td>
<td>22640</td>
<td>388</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: CBS (Economic Surveys and Statistical Abstract for various years).
There was however a sharp reduction in tourism earnings from Kshs 24,256 million in 2001 to 21,734 million in 2002 despite a marginal increase in visitor arrivals and average length of stay CBS (2003).

In recent years, there has been an influx of small scale cultivators to the environs surrounding protected areas in Kenya due to landlessness, poverty and hunger Burnett (1995); Campell (1996); Wisner (1989). Nakuru has also faced a similar problem of rural-urban migration resulting in development of unplanned housing systems around the park. Most of the protected areas surrounded by farming communities have suffered a great deal from human-wildlife conflicts. Lake Nakuru National Park is completely fenced off and the urban community is engaging more in non-farming activities, hence reducing the conflict between them and wildlife significantly.

Wildlife is directly linked to the tourism sector Kingoriah (1995). For example, tourism receipts rose substantially between 1988 to 1994 from 376 to 501 million US$ (Table 2.3) and by 22.1 % from K£ 875 million recorded in 1998 to K£ 1,068 million in 1999 CBS (2000b).
Figure 2.1 Kenyan parks and reserves
Source: Sindiga (1995)
The growth of tourism in Kenya has led to the growth of local organizations to coordinate the provision of infrastructure and services to tourists. Unfortunately, most have been targeting international tourism.

Endeavours to develop the tourism industry date back to late 1930s. In 1938, the East African Publicity Association was formed and was succeeded in 1948 by the East African Tourist Travel Association (EATTA). The idea was to indigenise the tourism industry to increase Kenyan people’s participation, which was also encouraged by the formation of a Tourism Development Corporation (KTDC) through the Kenya Tourist Development Act, which commenced its operations in 1967 Nyeki (1992). In 1984, the then Ministry of Tourism and Wildlife teamed up with the private sector to setup the Domestic Tourism Council whose duty was to collect and organise information on domestic tourism Sindiga (1999).

Recently, the tourism sector in Kenya has seen the private sector playing an important marketing role leading to the development of tourism promotion organisations. The Kenya Association of Tour Operators (KATO), The Kenya Association of Tour Agents (KATA), The Kenya Tourism Federation (KTF) and the government sponsored parastatal bodies such as the Kenya Tourist Board (KTB) and Kenya Tourism Development Cooperation (KTDC) have been given a greater level of independence and autonomy than the traditional government agencies, especially in relation to their ability to make decisions regarding development of the industry and especially as regards maintaining Kenya as a tourist destination. They also have the responsibility to promote domestic tourism.
Unfortunately, most of these bodies target their efforts towards the promotion of tourism outside the country due to its importance of earning foreign exchange for the country. Less attention has been paid to domestic tourism in protected areas.

2.3.1 Domestic tourism and government policy development in Kenya

Kenya’s domestic tourism contributes only approximately 10% of the tourist numbers to parks and reserves according to the Kenya Wildlife Service report. International tourism in Kenya has provoked the need to have a vibrant domestic tourism especially in protected areas. Kenya’s seasonality in international tourism led to the establishment of domestic tourism policy in 1984 to encourage residents to travel locally, especially during the low seasons for international tourism. Although domestic tourism is supported for a variety of reasons, the central objective has been to even the seasonality of international tourism.

To give force to the new policy, the government established the Domestic Tourism Council (DTC) in 1994 with membership drawn from the public and private sectors. This was aimed at receiving significant policy attention and hence improving participation among all stakeholders and to provide travel incentives to local people Sindiga (1999). Other objectives of promoting domestic tourism included promotion of unity and integration through knowledge and understanding and allowing local people to share in the investment from domestic tourism; redistribution of income across the country; Sinclair (1990). It has been argued that a country must have a culture of domestic tourism as a basis for international tourism sector Sindiga (1999).
In Kenya, beach tourism developed from vibrant domestic tourism that has led to the creation of infrastructure using local resources and personnel upon which international tourism was established. Another advantage of domestic tourism is the absence of barriers such as language, currency, immigration procedures that are characteristic of foreign travel. Domestic tourism can provide an opportunity for meeting the recreational needs of the citizens and supporting national resource conservation through public knowledge Sindiga (1996a) that will shape positive attitudes towards protected areas in Kenya.

A number of strategies have been developed and implemented to promote domestic tourism. A combination of incentives involving reduced tariff rates during the low seasons and discounted rates were put in place to encourage domestic tourism Sinclair (1990). Although, some Kenyans have taken these offers, many Kenyans have not been able to, thus significantly failing to make an impact compared to international tourism. Other strategies have included the lowering of entrance fees to parks and reserves, use of Agricultural Society of Kenya Shows to provide information on internal travel. Tour companies have also organised domestic tourist exhibition in Nairobi sometimes even using the mass media. The Wildlife Clubs of Kenya movement has been credited for encouraging young people to travel around the country to protected areas.
An assessment by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) and WTO indicates that Domestic tourism is beginning to develop with holiday visits made by some Kenyans to parks, reserves and the coast as well as elsewhere to visit friends and relatives. Many hotels and lodges offer low room rates for residents which encourage some domestic travel UNDP (1993); WTO (1997)

Figure 2.2 Hotel beds – nights occupied by Kenyan Residents (‘000s)


Using hotel bed night’s data for the three years 1995 to 1997, Kenyan residents occupied some 13.6 %, 15.5 % and 15.8% respectively of the total bed nights in the country (Figure 2.2). These data indicate that a relatively small proportion of Kenya
residents go to the tourist lodges and to the coast. Some authors have interpreted this in racial categories and attributed domestic tourism to European and Asian residents and not Africans Bachmann (1988).

Public attitudes towards domestic tourism in protected areas have been inherited from colonial periods in Kenya. The government inherited not only the legal and policy regimes, but also the attitude of tourism as a ‘white’ man’s activity. This led to the reservation of protected areas for wealthy colonial masters and emphasis on international tourism after independence Mwangi & Young (1990). Therefore, the attitude of domestic tourism as a white man’s activity can be attributed partly to the colonial history and inconsistent programmes by government and private sector agencies to correct this notion for many years.

In Kenya, domestic youth tourism has been spearheaded by the Wildlife Clubs of Kenya (WCK), a non-governmental organisation whose aim is to promote wildlife and Environmental Education (EE) all over the country. Since its formation in 1968, the organisation has been taking the largest number of Kenyan youth to parks and reserves in Kenya. The organisation has also influenced the establishment of Wildlife Clubs in Africa and Asia hence, spawning domestic youth tourism in their respective countries. Youth tourism has therefore grown partly due to the attitudes the organisation has been promoting since its inception. Efforts to promote domestic tourism especially in protected areas have continued to bear little fruit despite efforts by both the government and the private sector.
2.3.2 Attitude and influence on public opinion

Attitude is an underlying disposition which enters along with other influences into the determination of a variety of behaviour towards an object or class of objects. Attitudes determine individual’s statements of beliefs and feelings about an object as well as actions. Individual’s attitudes are usually dormant and are expressed in speech or behaviour only when the object of the attitude is perceived. People may have strong attitudes for or against travel, but these become aroused and expressed only when some issues connected with travel arises Oppenhein (1992). Attitudes are reinforced by beliefs (the cognitive component) and often attract feelings (the emotional component) which may lead to a particular behavioural intents (the action tendency component). Moyer (1977) argues that the effective domain is perhaps more important and valuable (than the cognitive aspects).

Attitudes are given labels such as liberalism, pacifism, vegetarian, democrat among others. Most attitudes are parts of a wider compound of values, beliefs and feelings and are themselves made up of several components of sub areas. Some attitudes are more enduring than others Oppenhein (1992). Attitudes have different latitudes that can be seen among the public. These are:

*Latitude of acceptance* – This is where person voluntarily states his view on a topic, and is acceptable to him or her. It is the most acceptable position plus other positions acceptable to the individual.

*Latitude of rejection* – This is the position most objectionable to the individual. The thing one most detests in a particular domain, plus other positions also objectionable to the person define the latitudes of rejection.
**Latitudes of non-commitment** – While accepting some and rejecting others, the individual may prefer to remain non-committal in regard to certain positions. Ordinarily, these are the “don’t know” or “no comment” “no opinion” responses in public opinion surveys. Individuals are asked to indicate the most acceptable and objectionable positions, being free to accept or reject others but not forced to do so. The position that an individual does not evaluate as either acceptable or objectionable under these circumstances constitutes his latitude of non-commitment.

### 2.3.3 Methods of attitude measurement

Various methods have been used to measure attitudes most of which use questionnaires. Summers (1970), admits that attitude measurement is difficult. However, it is a complex social factor because it cannot be measured in any numerical terms. Attitudes can therefore be measured indirectly by use of a specific variable and should be stated in terms of how one can speak of it in terms of “more” or “less” by use of set of opinions as landmarks.

Most of the environmental attitudes measurements were developed in the 1970s. Many of these attitude measurements are self-report measures. The most used methods are Thurstone and Likert scale Ali (1999). These two methods above present measurements of scale for graduate opinions. These are then arranged in equal steps or intervals to represent equally noticeable shifts of attitude. In comparison the Likert scale has been identified as faster, more reliable and more valid than Thurstone scale. The Likert scale of scoring an attitude scale of any given number of items consistently produces more reliable results than the Thurstone method.
Ali (1999) used the Moyer’s Unobtrusive Survey of Environmental Attitudes (MUSEA), to find out students views on parks as instruments for encouraging tourism especially international tourism. The study gave the attitudes and perceptions of Kenyan pupils view the role of protected areas as a driving force behind the successful tourism industry in Kenya. Using the MUSEA, he found out that the view of Kenyan pupils about parks and wildlife as something capable of contributing to their economic wellbeing and creating equity in society. This is modelled by their attitudes and perceptions. Protected areas need increased support among the Kenyan public at all levels and need for change of attitudes towards the tourism industry to be seen as a credible sector in communicating the many values and benefits that protected areas offer to society.

A survey using Kellert’s (1976), typology indicates that there are nine attitudes the public can have towards wildlife and hence associated activities. The attitudes are: ecologistic, naturalistic, moralistic, humanistic, utilitarian, negativistic, scientistic, aesthetic, and dominionistic are also important in determining domestic tourism in protected areas.

**Kellert’s (1976) attitude typology**

- **Naturalistic** Primary Interest and affection for wildlife and the outdoors

- **Ecologistic** Primary concern for the environment as a system, for interrelationships between wildlife species and natural habitats

- **Humanistic** Primary interest and strong affection for individual animals, principally pets
• Humanistic  Primary interest and strong affection for individual animals, principally pets

• Moralistic  Primary concern for the right and wrong treatment of animals, with strong opposition to exploitation or cruelty towards animals

• Scientistic  Primary interest in the physical attributes and biological functioning of animals.

• Aesthetic  Primary interest in the artistic and symbolic characteristics of animals

• Utilitarian  Primary concern for the practical and material value of animals or the animal's habitat

• Dominionistic  Primary interest in the mastery and control of animals typically in sporting situations

• Negativistic  Primary orientation an active avoidance of animals due to indifference, dislike or fear.

Although the validity of Kellert's theoretical model and original instrument are suspect, his proposal of different public orientations towards wildlife has spurred managers to consider and assess the diversity of their public and to tailor wildlife programme to meet their needs.
Thorne et al. (1992) provides another example of natural resource agencies incorporating attitude research into programme plans. The Missouri Department of Conservation (MDC) noticed that although blacks in Missouri contributed about $25 million to the conservation sales tax, their outdoor involvement was substantially lower than whites. This group was thus not experiencing comparable benefits. When MDC surveyed blacks to ascertain the reason behind their behaviour, the agency discovered that their lack of involvement in outdoor recreation was explained by the following three fears.

- Racial intimidation: Blacks recognized dramatic improvements in interracial relations in Missouri, but were unwilling to test these changes on remote and rural MDC areas. Further, MDC lands promote individual involvement in remote areas in harvest-oriented activities, while blacks surveyed preferred secure areas affording opportunities for group interaction and conversation.

- Unfamiliar/fearful of outdoors: These individuals had misconceptions about the dangers in the outdoors, and little comfort in the idea of being alone with nature.

- Random violence on MDC lands: Although unlikely, this actually happened in 1985. Thus, the threat of random violence might be heightened for urbanites painfully aware of crime.

Although the study helps to shed light on how attitudes influence behavior, the racial intimidation and random violence draws a line between the Kenyan public and the Missouri black community.
However, issues of misconceptions about the danger in the outdoors can perhaps be a factor to be considered among the Kenyan public.

This study therefore showed that managers cannot assume to know the attitudes and perceptions of their public that play a key role in decision making towards conservation. Based on historical developments of protected areas in Kenya, protected areas continue to be directly associated with wild animal protection and hence attitudes towards wildlife conservation are difficult to split from attitudes towards domestic tourism in protected areas.

The following chapter will briefly discuss the characteristics of the studied population and the methods used to collect and analyze the data obtained. It also explains the ways in which the results were presented.
CHAPTER THREE
METHODOLOGY

3.1 Study Area

Nakuru town is located in the Rift valley Province and is the provincial headquarters of the expansive province. The Town has four locations namely Kaptembwa, Baruti, Lanet and Central. (Table 3.1; Figure 3.1)

Table 3.1 Locations and number of households

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Location</th>
<th>No. of households</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Baruti</td>
<td>248</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lanet</td>
<td>10,119</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central</td>
<td>42,710</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kaptembwa</td>
<td>108,568</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: CBS 2000)

3.2 Transport

Nakuru is about 156 kilometres west of Nairobi. The park is accessible through road, railway and air. The Naishi airstrip located in the park serves visitors during the dry season. Kenya's railway network has a busy station at Nakuru from where visitors can easily find their way into the park.
Key:

- Park road
- Park boundary
1; 2; 3; 4 – Estates

Figure 3.1 Lake Nakuru National park and Nakuru town
3.3 Major environmental conditions

3.3.1 Lake Nakuru catchment

Lake Nakuru is alkaline in nature and has a fluctuating area depending on the seasons between less than 5 km² during the dry season to about 40 km² during the wet season. The lake is a natural "waste-sink" of Lake Nakuru catchment which covers an area of about 1800 km² with diversified human economic activities ranging from arable farming and industrial production in Nakuru town to forestry activities at higher altitudes of the catchment. The lake has diversified plant and animal life which form the food chains including Blue - green alga (*Spirulina platensis*) which thrives in alkaline lake waters Williams (1981).

3.3.2 Climate

Rainfall distribution is trimodal with peaks centred around April, August and November giving an average annual total of about 1000mm. Evaporation radiation and temperature have annual means of 1800mm, 490 langleys and 27.0°C respectively. Williams (1981).

3.3.3 Geology

Lake Nakuru National park can be traced back to the formation of the Rift Valley and the rocks are volcanic in origin. The soils owe their origin to the parent rock. They are fragile, highly porous with unconsolidated texture susceptible to erosion Nyeki (1992).
3.3.4 Rivers and Streams

Njoro (Ndarugu), Makalia, Lamuriak, Ngosur, Nderit; all empty into their water into
the Lake. The seasonality of some of these rivers continue to influence the Lake water
levels annually.

3.3.5 Cliff and Hills

Cliffs characterise west of the Lake and are a tourist attraction. Hills include: Enasoit,
Honeymoon, Lion-Hill ridge. They provide habitats with a variety of animals
including the baboons and the rock hyrax. The cliffs and hills provide a spectacular
view of the park and Nakuru town.

3.3.6 Flora and Fauna

Over 550 different plant species falling into six major vegetation groups have been
identified Nyeki (1992). Alkaline grasslands, plain grasslands, plain wooded
grasslands, tarchonanthus bushlands, euphorbia forest, olea forest and yellow fever
tree forest. There are over 450 different bird species including Palaearctic migrant and
about 56 different Mammal species. The earliest introduced species in the Lake is the
saline tolerant tilapia (Sarotherodon calicus grahamii) in 1956 from Lake Magadi to
curb on the rising malarial menace in Nakuru town Williams (1981). As a result, fish
eating birds came into the park. They include: the cormorant, great white pelicans,
African fish eagle among other species. The fish have been known to have a direct
competition with the lesser flamingo as regards feeding on the blue -green algae.
Other animals introduced to the park include the Rothschild giraffe, white and black
rhinos thus, making the park an important attraction that host endangered species of
animals.
Plate 1: White rhino: The white rhino is one of the introduced species of animals in the Lake Nakuru National Park and an important attraction to visitors.

3.3.7 Tourism and accommodation

The Park is internationally renowned for its largest flamingo concentration and the most easily seen rhinos. The importance of the park in tourism is manifested in the high number of visitors. The main attraction being the presence of Flamingos (Greater and Lesser) and other water birds including a variety of terrestrial birds numbering about 450 species in total. With a mammal population of 56 different species the Lake Nakuru National Park is indeed a prominent tourist attraction. Unique vegetation of about 550 different plant species including the unique euphorbia forest and the largest stand of euphorbia in the east African region Nyeki (1992).
Plate 2: Flamingoes at Lake Nakuru National Park. A unique attraction to visitors in Lake Nakuru National Park.

The park has seven special campsites in total namely Nyuki, Nyati, Soysambu, Naishi, Reebuck, Chui and Rhino. Public Campsites include: Back - packers near park Headquarters and Makalia at the South of Park. The lodges within LNNP have a total of 442 beds. Sarova Lion Hill lodge has 122 beds with Lake Nakuru Lodge having 120.
Plate 3: A swimming pool at Lion Hill lodge. The lodge is one of the accommodation facilities in the park with a bed capacity of 122.

The Kenya Wildlife Service, Nakuru Field Study Centre as two gender dormitories and caters for visiting student groups upon advance booking through Assistant Directors' Office- LNNP. The Wildlife Clubs of Kenya (WCK) Hostels and Guest House also caters for visiting groups of both domestic and international tourists. Nakuru town at close proximity offers accommodation from low to high budget hotels to visitors.

3.4. Data collection procedures and analysis

3.4.1 The Questionnaire

The study was carried out among the heads of households of Nakuru town between the months of April and September 2001. The study employed a questionnaire-guided interview to provide the necessary information pertaining to public attitudes
towards domestic tourism in protected areas (Appendix I). The sample size constituted 100 respondents from 20 estates from four locations of Nakuru town.

3.4.2 Questionnaire design and data collection.

At the household level, information on education level, gender status, use of free time and park visits was collected. To establish the public attitude towards domestic tourism in protected areas, the Likert scale was used. The respondent's attitudes were measured on a five point Likert scale ranging from strongly agree (5) to strongly disagree (1). The Likert scale developed by Renis Likert in 1930s provided an ordinal level measure of a respondent’s attitude Backstom and Cebar (1981).

The respondents were given a series of eleven paired statements phrased in alternative forms depicting various attitude levels were responded to on a five point-scale where 5 - Strongly agree; 4 - Agree; 3 - No opinion; 2 – Disagree and 1- Strongly disagree.

Secondary data was collected from Kenya Wildlife Service (KWS) entry point's records for the years 1991 to 2000 (Appendix III). Secondary data was also sourced from existing records of tourist numbers from the Central Bureau of Statistics, journals and books on the area under study.

3.4.3: Sampling procedure

Simple random sampling was used to select twenty residential areas (residential estates) within Nakuru town. Systematic random sampling was then used to select five households in each residential estate Mugenda & Mugenda (1999).
3.5 **Data analysis**

The descriptive statistics were used to analyse the characteristics of the studied population to give the various age groups, their educational levels and gender. Means and percentages were used to describe the population studied.

3.5.1. **Likert Scale**

To establish the public attitudes towards domestic tourism the Likert scale was used. The Likert scale developed in 1930s provided an ordinal level measure of a person’s attitude Oppenhein (1992). The summated scale or additive scale used involved the summing or adding the number of responses a person gives. The respondents were asked to respond to twenty two statements on whether they Strongly Agree; Agree; No opinion; Disagree; Strongly Disagree. The use of four to eight point scale is reputed to be more accurate than the two point scale Backstom and Cebar (1981).

However, using more choices becomes more confusing to the respondents indicating the strength of using the five point scale for this study. Values 1 – 4 were assigned to each Likert scale answer so that positive or negative attitude can be established. Responses that indicated a positive attitude were represented by values 4 and 3 while those that indicated a negative attitude were represented by values 2 and 1. However, respondents who indicated lack of opinion were considered neutral and awarded a value of 3. To avoid the problem of response set and bias all the eleven statements were worded in alternative directions making twenty two statements to respond to. The total sum of all respondents’ summations was done and an average worked out to determine the public attitude towards domestic tourism in protected areas.
Any average value above or below 66 (3 x 22) No opinion value by number of response was considered a positive or a negative attitude respectively.

3.5.2 Analysis of trends using regression and t - test

Domestic tourism trends were determined by using the annual and seasonal averages of domestic tourism numbers to L. Nakuru National Park. SPSS package was used to generate line graphs and trends of domestic tourism numbers to Lake Nakuru National Park. Regression analysis was used to determine the relationship between the idipendent and dependent variables over period under study and the domestic tourist numbers, t - test was used to establish the significance of the trend Webster (1992); Elifson (1990). The equation for linear regression is:

\[ Y = a + b_X \]

Where:

Y – dependent variable

X independent variable

a and b represents the slope of the line relating to values of Y to values of X

3.5.3 Chi Square

In determining the important factors affecting domestic tourism in protected areas and the independence of association between dependent and independent variables a multi way - cross tabulation with Chi- square test. Elifson (1990); Oppenhein (1992); Obure (2002). Chi- square was used to test the underlying probabilities in each of the cells and significance level at 0.05. The null hypothesis was tested by the equation below.
\[ \chi^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{K} \frac{(f_o - f_e)^2}{f_e} \]

Where:
\[ \sum_{i=1}^{K} \] = sum of ratios
\[ f_o = \] observed number in a given category
\[ f_e = \] the expected number of a category

The Chi square was used due to its strength as assumption free test and more suitable for ordinal and nominal scales of measurement. This was regarded as most suitable for the attitudinal data collected for this study. The analysed data was presented in tabular and graphical forms.

### 3.5.4 Factor analysis

To extract important factors that influence domestic tourism in protected areas factor analysis was used Oppenhein (1992). Factor Analysis is one of the two methods of data reduction Shaw & Wheeler (1985). The 22 attitudinal questions were subjected to the Factor Analysis model. Squared multiple correlations were used as communality estimates Obure (2002).

All factors with eigenvalues \( \geq 1 \) were extracted and varimax rotated. The varimax rotation is a most commonly used computer method of rotation. It ensures that each factor is orthogonal (uncorrelated) to each other. Those items that had factor loadings of 0.45 or more were considered significant. However, few studies consider factor loadings of 0.3 as significant Obure (2002).
4.1 Characteristics of the studied population

Ninety eight questionnaires out of the intended 100 questionnaires were responded to. This represents a 98% response rate considered sufficient enough as to authoritatively provide a basis of making conclusions with regard to public attitudes towards domestic tourism in protected areas.

There was a 50% representation of male and female respondents in this study. The 1:1.061 ratio is derived from the estimated population ratios of both males and females in Nakuru town with 214,457 against 202,161 respectively GOK (1999). This ratio gives a strong basis for this study in comparing male and female respondent’s attitudes towards domestic tourism to Lake Nakuru National Park.

Table 4.1: Ages of those interviewed

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age (yrs)</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20 - 40</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>44.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41 - 60</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>46.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 60</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
From the findings of this study 46.9% of the respondents were between the ages of 41 to 60 years with 44.8% and 8.3% were from age brackets of 20–40 and over 61 years respectively (Table 4.1). This indicates that a larger number of town-dwellers are in their early twenties and late fifties.

Study evidence indicates that 47.8% of the respondents had secondary school level of education. While, those with primary level of education accounted for 31.1% as shown below (Table 4.2).

**Table 4.2: Level of education of respondents**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Education level</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>31.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>47.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tertiary</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>21.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The findings indicate that the Nakuru town population is dominated mainly by a working population. It also indicates that close to half (47.8%) of Nakuru town residents (Table 4.2) have acquired a secondary level of education. The high level of literacy among the general public in Nakuru town increases their level of appreciation and understanding of natural environments around them and hence a positive attitude displayed on domestic tourism in protected areas Akama *et al* (1994).
Table 4.3  Free time activities of respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Free time activity</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Percentage %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Resting at home</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>50.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visiting parks</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Farming or Working</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visiting friends</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>21.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When asked on how they spent their free time, slightly more than half (50.5%) that constituted the majority of the respondents indicated (Table 4.3) that their free time is spent at home resting. A group of 18.6% indicated their intentions to visit parks and reserves during their free time, with 21.0 % and 9.3% visiting friends and working or farming respectively (Table 4.4).

From these findings, perhaps we can establish that the willingness to visit friends confirms a long-held belief that the Kenyan public and even the African societies in general are strongly founded on family and social values Sindiga (1995).
Table 4.4: Where to visit during free time

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Percent age (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>America</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>11.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Europe</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Whole world</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local parks</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>31.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outside Kenya</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>28.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Start with Kenya</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>17.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If from this study the intentions to visit friends are to be related to visit to parks, then it is clear that the public would strongly support any move to bring their families and friends together and hence visiting parks and reserves as family groups would certainly satisfy their social bound relationship and curiosity to travel as domestic tourists. Certain cooperative groups and church groups could provide a rationale for arranging group tours Sindiga (1996). Special rates would encourage domestic tourism travel among these groups UNDP (1993): WTO (1997).

Out of all those interviewed 62.9% of respondents indicated that they knew nothing about the smart card with 37.1 % indicating that they knew about the newly introduced electronic ticketing system. The level of awareness among the general
public on the requirements of entry to major parks is very low. This level of awareness perhaps raises the need for the Kenya Wildlife Service to provide the public with the necessary information of why any potential domestic tourist must have an electronic ticket (smart card).

4.3 Public attitude towards domestic tourism in protected areas

From the results of the study, there is an indication of a positive attitude with mean attitude among all respondents at 75.97 above a critical level at 66.0 mean attitude among respondents above which indicated a positive attitude and vice versa. This indicates a relatively strong positive attitude among the urban public towards domestic tourism in protected areas.

However previous studies on farming communities have indicated that attitudes of communities near or adjacent to protected areas have indicated a strong negative attitude towards them Akama et al (1994). The study among farming communities living in close proximity to the national parks showed a strong negative attitude towards parks and reserves (protected areas). There indicates a difference in attitude among the urban communities and the farming communities attitudes towards protected areas. The farming communities perhaps view individual and community costs of wildlife conservation as exceeding the benefits. This may be because revenues generated from the national parks go to the central government and the tourism industry operators and little if not none trickles to the communities living around these areas and even very little of this revenue is spent on the economic development of the affected populations Bachmann (1988); Douglas – Hamilton (1998b). This attitude is believed to have originated from the strict protection of parks and wildlife, forcing the local population out of parks and reserves.
Perhaps this attitude difference has been necessitated by the differences in economic activities among the farming communities in Tsavo and Nairobi on one hand and the urban public of Lake Nakuru National Park. There is a strong feeling that the levels of human wildlife conflicts around Nakuru town are minimal. This has been necessitated by the fact that the park has been fenced off completely resulting to the reduction of human wildlife conflicts and increasing the level of positive attitude towards parks and reserves and domestic tourism in general in protected areas.

The variation in the attitude among the urban public and the farming communities could perhaps be due to the difference in their economic activities. The urban communities in Nakuru are employed and hence have minimal human/wildlife conflicts. This is contrary to the farming communities whose activities are mainly agricultural based and hence have a higher level of interaction with wild animals. This, we feel has over time shaped a negative attitude among the farming communities as opposed to the positive attitude exhibited by the urban public within Nakuru town.

Other recent surveys in Tanzania, Brazil, Rwanda and USA indicate that threats to wildlife come predominantly from outside protected areas. One such potential threat is the public attitude towards wildlife and domestic tourism in protected areas. Western conservationists and development planners also appear to assume that the third world public is antagonistic to conservation and ignorant of conservation issues. This study findings and recent surveys in Tanzania, Rwanda and the USA show on
the contrary that, little difference exists between the public attitudes in these different countries and thus indicate that there is a strong indigenous support for conservation among the public in developing countries.

4.4 Domestic tourism trends in Lake Nakuru National Park

![Graph showing domestic tourist numbers in LNNP](image)

Figure 4.1 Domestic tourist numbers in LNNP

Figure 4.1 above show the numbers of domestic tourists to Lake Nakuru National Park from 1991 - 2000. The study also established that the domestic tourist numbers fell drastically to the lowest in 1997 but also peaked in late 1999. An average of 2,052 domestic tourists was recorded during the 10 year period.
The coefficient of determination reveals that 40% \((y = 1032.2x - 2E+06; r = 0.4)\) of the number of domestic tourists is explained (not caused) by changes in the years under study. This indicates that 60% (coefficient on nondetermination) of the number of domestic tourists can be explained by other variables other than the years under study. The strength of the linear relationship between domestic tourism numbers and the ten year period is indicated to be weak in this study \((R^2 = 0.1532)\). With 95% confidence level the results indicated that there is a relationship between the domestic tourism numbers and the period under study since \(t = 1.447 > -2.306\).

According to the results of the study there was an increasing trend in the year 2000. The Figure 4.1 shows that the highest domestic tourism numbers to LNNP were recorded a total of 52,029 domestic tourists. The lowest numbers were recorded 1997 where 28,905 domestic tourists visited the park. The projected trend showed that the subsequent years would record a constant increase. However, existing records indicate falling trends for the 3 years after the year 2000. The month of December recorded the highest domestic tourism numbers in all the years and the lowest in the month of May (Figure 4.2). This is also reflected in the mean seasonal average for the ten years under study. Perhaps the high numbers recorded in December can be attributed to the fact that the month of December is a holiday month for the Kenyan public and has the best weather condition as opposed to May when the seasonal weather conditions record the lowest in the country.
Figure 4.2 Mean seasonal domestic tourist numbers.

Figure 4.3 below shows the trends of adult citizens and adult resident numbers (expatriates in Kenya). The adult citizen numbers have continued to increase between 1998 to the year 2000 with a slight declining trend of adult resident numbers during the same period.
4.5 Factors affecting domestic tourism

Among the factors that were found to influence domestic tourism in Lake Nakuru National Park were education level, gender, age, curiosity, need for recreation, transport, excitement during previous visits and cost among others.

4.5.1 Need to visit parks and reserves in Kenya

The study established a significant relationship ($\chi^2 = 27.4087; DF = 6; P > 0.05$) between the need to travel and age of the public as important factors that influence travel. The study registered a general strong agreement of more than half (53.7 %) among all ages that local people should visit parks and reserves in Kenya. Among those who strongly agree, 51% came from the age cohort of between 41-60 years,
43.1 % from 20 – 40 years and 5.9 % from the age group of over 61 years. Most of those over 61 years (50%) expressed lack of opinion on the issue of park visits by local people. There was a general indication among the respondents that there is a significant level of curiosity to visit protected areas as domestic tourists.

Considering the level of education, most of the respondents interviewed (51%) strongly agreed that local people should visit parks and reserves. 31.0 % agreed with 6 % having no opinion at all. 48.3 % of these respondents fell under the secondary level category of education, 31.5 % primary and 20.2 % with tertiary level of education.

4.5.2 Parks visits and excitement among the respondents

More than half (52.6%) from all levels of education strongly agreed that they had an exciting experience when they last visited the parks and their willingness to spend time as a domestic tourist in protected areas.
Table 4.5 Need to visit protected areas

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>No opinion</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Row total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-40</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>40.5</td>
<td>52.4</td>
<td></td>
<td>n=42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>51.5</td>
<td>43.1</td>
<td></td>
<td>44.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>17.9</td>
<td>23.2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>n=45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-41</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>35.6</td>
<td>57.8</td>
<td>47.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>48.5</td>
<td>51.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>16.8</td>
<td>27.4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 61</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>n=8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>62.5</td>
<td>37.5</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td></td>
<td>8.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td></td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Column total</td>
<td>n=1</td>
<td>n=10</td>
<td>n=33</td>
<td>n=51</td>
<td>n=95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>34.7</td>
<td>53.7</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-square value ($\chi^2 = 27.4087$   $p > 0.05$) Degrees of freedom = 6

There was a 12.8 % indication of a general lack of commitment among all respondents. Among all those with tertiary level of education 72.2 % indicated strong agreement, 50 % of those with secondary level and 40.9 % from those with primary levels of education. There was close to half 46.3 % of all respondents who strongly agreed came from the secondary level of education while 31.1 % came from the tertiary level of education. This consensus on the issue of excitement is very important in initiating the desire and
Figure 4.4 Levels of Education and Strong Agreement on Park excitement

Ali, (1999) Kenya children understand elephants and rhino’s (wildlife) in terms of their valuable trophies and their potential for the tourism industry with no reference to their ecological role and functions. Young people have been known to show distinct changes in knowledge and attitude as they age Wong – Leonard (1992). Their knowledge and attitude progress from affection and dejection for animals (wildlife) to cognitive understanding of ecosystems and stewardship.

Education is an important factor in shaping the level of positivity of attitudes towards domestic tourism in protected areas. According to Wong- Leonard (1992), education appears to be a very sensitive and central factor that enhances appreciation of nature, concern, affection, knowledge and respect for animals (wildlife) and hence
public attitude towards domestic tourism in protected areas. These factors are thought to strongly make a contribution towards shaping positive attitudes Akama, et al (1995).

As education level increases, the level negative attitude towards domestic tourism in protected areas decreases. The exact level of education that may shape positive attitudes is what we cannot tell from this study, but at least a minimum of secondary level education is thought to be sufficient enough in shaping positive public attitudes.

Education increases the desire for people to see, experience new things, people and places hence a very important catalyst in shaping public attitude Tolba (1992). It is against this background that the level of attitude among the urban public is higher than that of rural communities. This is greatly supported by the difference in attitude among the Nakuru town residents and the farming communities of both Tsavo and Nairobi National Parks.

Akama et al (1995) established a strong relationship between education and attitudes towards parks and reserves. He found that local people without any formal education and those with secondary level of education asserted that wildlife conservation is the most appropriate use of the park when compared with agricultural production.

This variability in attitude can perhaps strongly be attributed in one way to the likelihood of a greater opportunity to gain benefits from the parks through non-agricultural employment or engagement and or activities among the educated
members of the community. The direct and indirect employment offered by the park management and private hotels and lodges are felt to have had a strong contribution to this change in attitude among the rural and urban public Personal observation (2003).

4.5.3 Gender and local public visit to protected areas

There is a clear indication from the findings of the study that gender plays a critical role in attitudes exhibited by the public. There was generally a 53.6% strong agreement among all male and female respondents that local people should visit protected areas. More than half (53.8%) of those who strongly agreed were males while 46.2% were females. This showed that the level of positive attitude held by the male public is higher than that of females. The study also found that more than half (54.5%) of all females registered their agreement to the fact that local people should visit parks and reserves as compared to the males of 45.5%. There was an insignificant 1.0% registration of disagreement on the fact that local people should visit parks and reserves in Kenya.
Wong – Leonard (1992) agrees that males and females differ in their knowledge of the attitudes towards wildlife and hence domestic tourism in protected areas. Males are generally thought to have a greater interest in wildlife and tourism issues and hence are more likely to derive the necessary knowledge and urge to explore nature, hence a more positive attitude towards domestic tourism in protected areas.
The utilitarian and domineering attitudes of men towards wildlife and the ultimate utilization of these areas for tourism as explained by Kellerts (1976) has been exhibited in this study.

Wong – Leonard (1992) confirms that females exhibit more anthropocentric tendencies and are strongly concerned about their own safety and protection and will remain excluded from being adventurers and finding out new things. They (females) would perhaps not take that, the chance of being the first to try venturing into the wild in the name of tourism. Kellerts (1976) refers to this attitude as a negativistic attitude that has its primary orientation as an active avoidance of animals(wild) due to indifference, dislike or fear. Such orientations play a crucial role in shaping a negative attitude towards domestic tourism in protected areas.

4.5.4 Cost of visits and public attitudes

4.5.4.1 Park visits

There a strong disagreement from the respondents. They felt that it is cheap for local people to visit parks and reserves in Kenya. Among those in the age group of 20 – 40 and 41-60 years. Close to half of all respondents (49.4 %) agreement that park transport is a hindrance to domestic tourist visits to parks and reserves. Close to half (48.9%) of respondents of all ages agreed that transport to protected areas is prohibitive hence a hindrance to their visits to protected areas. There was an equal number of disagreement and agreement (18.1%) with only 6.4 % strong agreement among all respondents. More than half (62.5 %) of all those in age group over 61 years agreed to the fact that transport in a prohibitive factor in enhancing domestic tourism in protected areas.
The study also found that 55.6% of male and 44.4% of female respondents agreed that it is expensive for local people to visit parks. A 22.9% and 23.4% strong agreement respectively were also expressed. There was a 48.3% agreement among all levels of education that there is a high cost of park visits with 54.8% from the secondary level of education, 26.2% from those with tertiary levels of education and 19% from those with primary levels of education.

There was a general 47.4% agreement that it is costly for local people to visit parks and reserves in Kenya. There was also a 23.2% strong agreement on the issue among all respondents. However, 10.5% of all respondents expressed a level of on commitment with 13.7% disagreement that it is costly for local people to visit parks and reserves in Kenya.

4.5.4.2 Hotel/ lodge rates

Though the study found no statistically significant relationship $\chi^2 = 0.86479; \text{DF} = 4 ; P < 0.005$) between hotel rates and public attitude, it showed a general agreement on the fact that hotel and lodge rates are high. There was a 35.2% strong agreement among all levels of education that hotel/lodge rates in parks are affordable to the public. 29.5% agreed, while, 44.2% of the respondents with secondary level of education strongly agreed that hotel rates are high. A 27.8% of those with tertiary level of education strongly agreed that hotel rates are high.

From the study findings, 35.5% of all respondents from all age groups strongly disagreed that hotel rates in parks are affordable to them. The respondents registered
28.8 % disagreement with a 19.4 % of all respondents indicating a level of non-commitment. Among those who registered a level of strong disagreement, 57.6 % came from age group of between 20 – 40 years; 36.4 % from 41-60 years and 6.1 % from those over 61 years of age.

The results also indicated that 35.8 % of all sexes strongly disagreed that hotel rates in parks and reserves are affordable, Close to a third (27.4 %) indicated their disagreement. 18.9 % of all respondents expressed a level of non-commitment. 18.9 % of female respondents and 16.8% male respondents indicated their strong agreement that hotel rates are unaffordable to the local public.

### Table 4.6 Hotel/ lodge rates and domestic tourism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Row %</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>No opinion</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total %</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>27.1</td>
<td>18.8</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>n=48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>47.1</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>54.5</td>
<td>66.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.8</td>
<td>13.7</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38.3</td>
<td>27.7</td>
<td>19.1</td>
<td>10.6</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>n=47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>52.9</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>45.5</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.9</td>
<td>13.7</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Column</td>
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<td>n=34</td>
<td>n=26</td>
<td>n=11</td>
<td>n=95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>35.8</td>
<td>27.4</td>
<td>18.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-square value $\chi^2 = 0.86479$  p<0.05  Degrees of freedom = 4

There was a perceived general agreement among all ages, levels of education and gender that costs of making visits to parks and reserves are high. Cost of domestic tourism denotes the terms of voluntary exchange transaction between the domestic
tourist and willing to travel and the service providers willing to sell their services. Incentives for local public to travel have been given before through the Kenya Railways cooperation, whereas large hotels would give discounts of 40% to 50% and 10% reduction of fares for groups of 10 or more by Kenya Railways Sinclair (1990). Although some Kenyan’s have taken advantage of this before especially during the low seasons and public holidays like Easter and Christmas festivities, majority of them still cannot afford to pay the hotel bills for a holiday of a week or two because of low incomes Sindiga (1996a). The Kenya Railways ceased to provide effective and efficient services for the last decade aggravating the problem of domestic tourism travel. The railway system in the country has a very low connectivity and does not cover many population centres. This leaves domestic travellers with no alternative other than the relatively expensive road transport.

However, it is clear that Kenyans may not be going to international tourist hotels nor use “tourist” mini buses. Majority of the Kenyans who travel stay in some medium sized and small hotels which are relatively inexpensive in terms of accommodation and food. Such hotels tend to be far from national parks and reserves reducing the ability to travel and even access to these areas.

The issue of cost to the local public is debatable with recent (March 2003) park entry adjustments likely to affect visitor numbers to parks and reserves and especially the local public visitors. The global understanding that parks should pay for their running costs should be held. The tourism industry benefits in Kenya are skewed to the advantage of multi national corporations Sindiga (1999).
This therefore encourages the leakage of tourism benefits out of the country and hence little is cultivated back in the conservation of parks and reserves.

4.4.5 Government’s responsibility in educating local people

On the responsibility of government in educating local people on the importance of domestic tourism, there was a 39.1% and 43.7% strong agreement and agreement respectively from all levels of education. Only 5.7% of the respondents disagreed with the suggestion that it is not government’s responsibility to educate local people on the importance of domestic tourism in protected areas.

There was 50% response from the secondary level, 23.5% and 26.5% from the primary and tertiary levels respectively. More than a third (33.3%) of those with tertiary level of education disagreed that it is not only government that has the responsibility of educating local people on the importance of visiting protected areas.

From the results of the study, there was a 40.9% agreement that educating the public on the importance of domestic tourism to save biological diversity was of a paramount importance. There was a 37.6% strong agreement. However, 9.7% of all respondents had no knowledge at all and remained non-committal on the issue. A significant number of respondents (53.3%) in age group of 41-60 years of age agreed that educating local public on the importance of domestic tourism will help safeguard biological diversity found in parks and reserves in Kenya. A 40% strong agreement came from those in age group between 20 – 40 years and a 37.5% of those in age group of over 61 years indicated a strong disagreement.
There is a general indication from the findings of the study that the government has the responsibility to educate the general public. The management of wildlife resources in Kenya is vested in the Kenya Wildlife Service (KWS) which was created as a quasi government organisation by an act of parliament in 1989 to succeed the Wildlife Conservation and Management Department (WCMD) GOK (1985a; 1985b). The latter was itself formed in 1976 and combined the function of the former National Parks and Game Department. The KWS is charged with the responsibility of wildlife management throughout Kenya, both inside and outside formal protected areas. If the responsibility of the government is supposed to mean the responsibility of Kenya Wildlife Service (KWS), the general feeling is that the government through the KWS should through all means educate the general public on issues related to public travel. The government can play a leading role using public resources like Kenya Broadcasting Corporation, which enjoys a national broadcast to reach general members of the public using radio and television broadcasts and any national outreach programmes to encourage domestic tourism in Kenya.

A clear weakness on education of the public on the existence and role of KWS was shown by respondents who still refer to KWS as “game (department)”. If this can be taken to infer that the Game Department of 1970s did make a lot of impact to the knowledge of the public on its role of protecting wildlife outside protected areas, it would then be appropriate to conclude that KWS itself has not done enough in letting the public aware of its role and more so on their role and advantages as domestic tourists.
The study showed a (40.7 %) very strong agreement and a 43 % rate of agreement on the fact that domestic tourism will save biodiversity among all respondents. For example respondents who strongly agreed that domestic tourism plays a crucial role in biodiversity conservation constituted 51.4 % from the secondary level and 28.6 % from the primary level of education. Among those who agreed, 24.3 % came from the tertiary level; 45.9 % from the secondary level and 29.7 % from those with primary level of education.

From the study findings, there was a 40.2 % and 41.3 % strong agreement and agreement respectively that domestic tourism will save biological diversity in parks and reserves. There was over half 55.0 % strong agreement among those in ages 20 – 40 years and 29.5 % from those with 41 – 60 years. However more than half (52.3 %) from this age group indicated their agreement. A 50 % agreement from those with over 61 years was recorded.

**Table 4.7: Domestic tourism and biodiversity conservation**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Row %</th>
<th>Column %</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>No opinion</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Row total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-40</td>
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<td>15.0</td>
<td>27.5</td>
<td>55.0</td>
<td>n=40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td></td>
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<td>40.0</td>
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<td>43.5</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-41</td>
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<td>2.3</td>
<td>15.9</td>
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<td>29.5</td>
<td>n=44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>46.7</td>
<td>60.5</td>
<td>35.1</td>
<td>47.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>7.6</td>
<td>25.0</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 61</td>
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<td>25.0</td>
<td></td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>25.0</td>
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<td></td>
<td>10.5</td>
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<td>4.3</td>
<td>2.2</td>
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</tr>
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<td>2.2</td>
<td>16.3</td>
<td>41.3</td>
<td>40.2</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-square value $\chi^2 = 7.76597$ p<0.05 Degrees of freedom = 6
On conversion of protected areas to farmlands, the study indicated a very strong disagreement (84.1 %) on the idea of converting protected areas to farmlands among the general public from all levels of education. 72.2 % of those with tertiary levels of education indicated strong disagreeing with the remaining 27.8 % disagreement with the statement. A 90.7 % of those with secondary level of education strongly disagreed and 81.5 % of those with primary levels of education also strongly disagreed on the issue of converting protected areas to farmlands.

There was an overwhelming strong disagreement (78.7 %) among all ages of respondents that protected areas be converted to farmlands. There was only a 5.3 % expression of no opinion. Half (50 %) of all respondents from ages over 61 years; 86.7 % from ages 41-60 and a 75.6 % from those with 20 - 40 years registered a level of disagreement. There were generally insignificant levels of agreement to this.

There was significant relationship ($\chi^2=7.76597; P< 0.05; DF = 6$) between biodiversity conservation and domestic tourism exhibited by the general public. This clearly shows the importance of community support towards biodiversity conservation. This heavily signifies the importance of involving local communities in the informal and formal management of protected areas. Poverty is often a great threat to protected areas and biodiversity conservation EU/IUCN (1999).
This is thought to shape public opinion and developing a public constituency that will champion community participation in protected area and bio diversity conservation.

Overwhelming resistance towards the conversion of protected areas into farmlands indicated a very high level of positive attitude. Some respondents posed the question; \textit{Where will the animals go?} From this we infer the necessity for protected areas. Such strong support to wildlife conservation will count towards cultivating a strong public attitude that supports conservation and therefore allow the use of protected area as a recreational facility for local people.

The results further indicated a difference between the attitude of farming communities in Tsavo and Nairobi parks about the thinking that parks are not assets and should be devoted to agriculture \textit{Akama et al} (1995). This is not so according to this study, this is thought to be due to an indication that there is a belief among the urban public that our parks are important assets.

However, to whom exactly they belong was not be established by this study. LNNP is totally enclosed with an electric fence making it an artificial “ecological island” and hence reducing the human/wildlife conflicts. In recent years, there has been an influx of small scale cultivators to the environs surrounding Nairobi and Tsavo National Parks.
The small scale cultivators are forced to move from the densely population, high potential regions to the low-potential and semi-arid regions around the parks and reserves because of landlessness, poverty, and hunger Bernard (1985); Campel (1986); Wisner (1989). The agricultural activities around protected areas have proved incompatible with wildlife conservation raising issues of human wildlife conflict and strengthening the negativity of attitude as the conflicts increase.

The issue of negative attitude among the farming communities might have also been aggravated by the fact that the compensation program by Kenya Wildlife Service was abolished. This has in my view removed the idea of mutual understanding among the communities and the authorities on the importance of protecting and recognising loss of property on one hand and the benefit of wildlife resources and protected areas on the other.

The study also found that as people age, their attitude changes hence in agreement with the ageing hypothesis. In the age cohort of 40 - 60 years positivity is at its optimum. (e.g. 52.4% of 20-41, 57.8% of 41-60 and 37.5% for those over 61 years strongly agreed that local people should visit parks and reserves in Kenya. We think that as people grow older, attitude is shaped by the exposure to social life situations, availability of information, education. This growth tends to be lost, as a person matures in age, for this case over 61 years.

4.5.7 Social activities and domestic tourism

There was a general agreement (32.6%) that it is more satisfying to spend free time in parks and reserves than in social activities with 25.6% indicating a level of non-commitment. 28.6% of those with tertiary level of education and 46.4% of those with secondary level of education agreed that it is more satisfying to spend free time in social activities than in parks and reserves.
On spending free time in social activities, there was a general feeling of disagreement that it is more satisfying to spend leisure time in social activities than in protected areas and reserves. A general strong disagreement of 20.7% was recorded among all respondents. However, a significant number of all respondents (26.1%) expressed a mild level on the issue. Half (50%) of those aged over 61 expressed no opinion at all with 20.7% and 20.5% from those with 41-60 and 20-40 years old. There was a 50% general strong agreement that previous visits to the parks were exciting with a 28.6% agreement. There was a 54.2% male and 45.8% female agreement with 45.2% and 54.8% male and female strong agreements respectively. Of all the respondents, 27.4% male respondents and 22.6% female respondents registered their strong agreement with 8.3% male and 6.0% female expressing a lack of opinion on the issue.

Table 4.8 Social activities and domestic tourism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Row %</th>
<th>Column %</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>No opinion</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Total</th>
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<tbody>
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<td>15.9</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td>52.3</td>
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<td></td>
<td>100</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
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<td>12.5</td>
<td>60.0</td>
<td>32.5</td>
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<td></td>
<td>60.0</td>
<td>41.7</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>14.3</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Chi-square value $\chi^2 = 1.89477$ p<0.05 Degrees of freedom = 4
4.6 Extracted factors by factor analysis

The table below shows 22 variables subjected to principle component (factor analysis) to reduce the number of variables by varimax rotation. Using Kaiser criterion only factors having eigenvalues of more than 1.0 were retained and subjected to variance maximising process to identify underlying factors affecting domestic tourism in protected areas.

**Table 4.9 Principal Components Analysis Initial Statistics**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Eigenvalue</th>
<th>% of Var</th>
<th>Cum %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>25.0</td>
<td>25.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B10</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.87438</td>
<td>13.1</td>
<td>38.1</td>
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<tr>
<td>B11</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.21146</td>
<td>10.1</td>
<td>48.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B12</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.80708</td>
<td>8.2</td>
<td>56.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B13</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.62856</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>63.8</td>
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<tr>
<td>B14</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1.53927</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>70.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B15</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1.21244</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>76.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7 significant factors extracted.

**Key:**

B1      Local people should visit parks
B10     Parks accommodation rates are discouraging
B11     Educating locals on domestic tourism is government responsibility
B12     Domestic tourism will not save biological diversity in protected areas
B13     Visiting protected areas by locals will save biological diversity
B14     Domestic tourism won’t save biological diversity
B15     Social activities with friends is more satisfying
The seven factors extracted had eigenvalues of more than one (Table 4.10). Factor analysis output indicates that factor 1 accounts for 25.0% of the variance; factor 2 accounts for 13.1%; Factor 3 accounts for 10.1% Factor 4 accounts for 8.2; Factor 5 accounts for 7.4%; factor 6 accounts for 7.0% and factor 7 accounts for 5.5% of the total variance. Factors 8 - 22 each accounts for a very negligible percentage of variance.

Table 4.10 Rotated factor matrix and factor loadings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor 1</th>
<th>Factor 2</th>
<th>Factor 3</th>
<th>Factor 4</th>
<th>Factor 5</th>
<th>Factor 6</th>
<th>Factor 7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>.11164</td>
<td>.02490</td>
<td>.08933</td>
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<tr>
<td>B10</td>
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<td>-.19138</td>
<td>-.03411</td>
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<tr>
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<td>.00759</td>
<td>.62448</td>
<td>.01059</td>
<td>.220816</td>
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<tr>
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<td>.10720</td>
<td>.13176</td>
<td>.27385</td>
<td>-.18879</td>
<td>.12595</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B13</td>
<td>.70841</td>
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<td>.17190</td>
<td>.10957</td>
<td>.26835</td>
<td>-.07531</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B14</td>
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<td>.15512</td>
<td>-.11912</td>
<td>-.33187</td>
<td>-.22547</td>
<td>.10582</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B15</td>
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<td>-.00330</td>
<td>-.19905</td>
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<td>.23902</td>
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<td>.06742</td>
<td>-.03515</td>
<td>-.88470</td>
<td>.01003</td>
<td>.07796</td>
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<tr>
<td>B2</td>
<td>-.10621</td>
<td>.88847</td>
<td>.05898</td>
<td>-.05993</td>
<td>.06109</td>
<td>-.10583</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B20</td>
<td>.06396</td>
<td>-.04088</td>
<td>-.06326</td>
<td>.11056</td>
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<td>B21</td>
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<td>-.03304</td>
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<td>.04567</td>
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<td>.24556</td>
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</tr>
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<td>-.24025</td>
<td>-.25350</td>
<td>-.21925</td>
<td>.02415</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Key:
Factor 1: Awareness and conservation of biodiversity
Factor 2: Use of protected areas
Factor 3: Cost
Factor 4: Education
Factor 5: Satisfaction
Factor 6: Transport
Factor 7: Hotel rates

Table 4.13 shows the results of correlation matrix with factor loadings on each of the seven factors extracted using variance maximizing rotational method. The seven factors have identified have factor loadings of more than one.

**Awareness and conservation of biodiversity**
Eight items had factor loadings of 0.45 or greater on this factor. The items dealt with conservation awareness. The four items with the highest loadings (>0.80) concerned with awareness creation among the general public. Four other items with loadings greater than 0.45 were items B1 with the loading of 0.47 and was concerned with domestic tourism. Items B13, B12 were concerned with biodiversity conservation.

**Use of protected areas**
Three items loaded highly on this factor. B18 was related to conversion of protected areas for agricultural use, loading more than 0.70. B2 and B1 are related to domestic tourism use of protected areas.

**Cost**
Three items loaded highly with more than (0.80). The items are mainly concerned with the cost of domestic tourism in protected areas in Kenya.

**Education**
Factor 4 had three items that displayed high loadings on them and touched on issues of education for conservation and time. The loadings were more than (0.60).
Satisfaction
There were three items that loaded highly in this factor. They mainly addressed the issue of satisfaction between visits to protected areas by domestic tourists and spending time in social places.

Transport
This factor loaded highly on two items that concerned transport for domestic tourism in protected areas.

Hotel rates
This factor loaded highly on three items with the highest loading of .75 which addressed the issue of hotel accommodation rates for domestic tourists.

Figure 4.6 Plot of eigen values
The table above shows the 7 factors out of the 22 which registered eigenvalues of more than 1.0. The seven factors also indicated high factor loadings. These factors were considered to influence public attitudes towards domestic tourism in protected areas. The attitudinal factors that emerged in the study are similar to those of (Mwangi & Young 1990). The seven factors identified play a key role in enhancing domestic tourism in protected areas and would perhaps provide a basic guideline in formulating policy guidelines in enhancing domestic tourism in protected areas in Kenya.

Hotel rates and other travel costs involved in domestic tourism are issues worth considering when promoting tourism among the local public in Kenya. Domestic tourism in Kenya is thought to be a good cushion during the low seasons of international tourism Sindiga (1996). Special rates for domestic tourists during these seasons would substantially enhance domestic tourism especially with the use of existing rail and road systems in the country. Schackley (1996) indicates that nature tourists (tourists to protected areas) are higher in numbers than leisure tourists. This is a good basis for support for domestic tourism in protected areas. Biodiversity conservation and the use parks for “animal protection” elicited a great support from the general public. This may act as a basic ground to develop programmes aimed at conserving biodiversity with public support.

From the results of the study awareness creation, use of protected areas for conservation, transport and hotel rates were considered important factors affecting domestic tourism in protected areas.
CHAPTER FIVE:
CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION.

5.1 Conclusion

The positive attitude exhibited in this study among the members of the public provides an open opportunity to influence public thinking and can be used as a strong background to safeguard and protect the unique flora, fauna and the physical environments they live in. This is of great advantage to the country’s economy both directly or indirectly as source of livelihood to the Kenyan communities. The translation of this revenue into tangible benefits can help model positive attitudes towards protection of nature and hence the desire to pay for leisure activities in these areas.

Local initiatives to support biodiversity conservation through domestic tourism related activities will have national meaning and relevance when Kenyans themselves can visit, become part of the local challenges and initiatives. In this way, the public can begin to appreciate the local efforts and reflect further on their individual attitudes and responsibilities towards the conservation of biodiversity. If environmental pollution and degradation is a product of both local actions and the wider national socio-economic realities, then further support and strengthening of domestic tourism is essential for the existence and sustainability of biological diversity in and outside protected areas. It is through domestic eco-tourism that grassroots initiatives will receive national acclaim, recognition, and support. It will also cushion local efforts against slump in foreign tourists that they currently depend so much on.
There is need to target all levels of the Kenyan public through programmes and medium suitable for each category. Biological diversity is the most important reason for the protection and maintenance of protected areas and hence a strong support to the basic scientific reason for protected area management and conservation. Since conservation needs monetary support and domestic tourism being the future non-consumptive and beneficial use, there is need to encourage and prudently use the revenue generated to attain the satisfaction of clients and remain a competitive attraction to the Kenyan public.

The study also indicated that perceived national political stability is important in influencing both domestic and international tourists. Weather and seasonal conditions also seem to play a significant role in influencing domestic tourists with the month of December recording the highest numbers during the decade under study.

The results of the study clearly indicate that there are a number of factors that play a key role in influencing public attitudes towards domestic tourism in protected areas. There was a strong perceived thinking among the public that hotel rates are not affordable for the local public with a very low level of awareness on how much it actually costs. This can be attributed to lack of information dissemination and lack of knowledge on the relationship between domestic tourism and hotel accommodation in parks. The study also established that the hoteliers do not categorise citizen and resident rates hence discouraging local people from their facilities. This is perceived to have some significant influence on domestic tourism in protected areas.
The government and KWS have the sole responsibility to educate and encourage the public on the need to travel as domestic tourists. Most people are not aware of the KWS bus shuttles to the park during weekends and public holidays. Considerable efforts have been made in implementing programmes especially in the peripheries of protected areas to encourage the local public to visit parks. However, this has not been effective in the period when KWS has been in existence.

5.2. Recommendations

5.2.1 Implementation

The following are the recommendations for the study:

1. Marketing of domestic tourism at both local and regional levels to encourage domestic tourism in protected areas in Kenya.

2. Continued monitoring of domestic tourist numbers to provide important information for policy formulation on domestic tourism.

3. There is need to develop special tailor-made packages by tour companies, operators, hoteliers and lodge owners to encourage domestic tourism in protected areas.

4. KTB should work with local authorities in promoting domestic tourism among the Kenyan public. There is need to revive the Domestic Tourism Council to coordinate domestic tourism in Kenya.

5. Adopt professionalism in the tour guiding as this will add value to the seeing and appreciating of wildlife resources by members of the public.
Standardizing tourism training in Kenya and the region is important towards attaining professionalism in the tourism sector.

6. Incentives at government, employer and institutional levels should be encouraged travel among the Kenyan public.

7. Eco-tourism be encouraged to inculcate a strong positive attitude in the public.

8. Education and awareness creation on the need to travel among the Kenyan public be spearheaded by the government through the local media and campaigns.

5.2.2 Research

Through this study more research in the following areas should be carried out:

i) On most preferred domestic tourist destinations by Kenyan public.

ii) On the most convenient, cheap and efficient modes of transport for domestic tourists.

iii) To identify the most effective way to market domestic tourism among the general public.
REFERENCES


Keller, R. S and Berry, J. (1979). *Public attitudes towards critical wildlife and natural habitat issues*. Yale University, USA.


*wildlife conservation*, Society for Natural Resources, United Kingdom.


APPENDIX 1: POPULATION CHARACTERISTICS QUESTIONNAIRE

Questionnaire

Sex  
.Male...... Female......

Age  
20 – 40....... 41 – 60 ............. over 60 ......... 61 > ........

Level of Education:  
Primary ...... Secondary ..........
Univ/college ..................

1. What do you do to earn a living? If working, Self ....... Employed .........

2. What do you do during your free time and Why?

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

3. Who is a tourist according to you?

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

4. If you were a tourist where would you have liked to visit, and why?

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

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

5. What do you think about visiting a park or a reserve during your free time?

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

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

6. Have you visited a park during the last two years?. □ YES □ NO

7. Do you know anything about the smart card:- □ YES □ NO

If YES. Does it have any effect on your access to the park. How?

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

91
APPENDIX II: LIKERT - TYPE QUESTIONNAIRE

State whether you:

5) Strongly Agree 4) Agree 3) No opinion 2) Disagree 1) Strongly Disagree

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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Parks and reserves should not be visited by local people</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>3. It is costly for local people to visit parks and reserves</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. It is cheap to visit wildlife areas</td>
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<tr>
<td>5. I am aware that protected areas can be visited by Kenyans</td>
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<td>6. I have no information that parks can be visited by local people</td>
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<tr>
<td>7. I had an exiting experience when I last visited the park</td>
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<td>8. My previous experience in the Park was not exiting.</td>
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<td>9. Hotel rates in parks are affordable.</td>
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<td>10. Accommodation rates in Parks discourage me from visits to the park.</td>
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<td>11. Government is responsible for educating local people on the need for domestic tourism</td>
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<td>12. The Kenya Wildlife Service (KWS) is not responsible in educating people on the importance of visiting parks and reserves</td>
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<td>13. Visits to protected areas by local people will save the biological diversity and habitats in them</td>
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<td>14. Domestic tourism will not save biological diversity in protected areas</td>
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<td>15. Spending free time in social activities with friends is more satisfying than in parks and reserves</td>
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92
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<td>We need protected areas in Kenya to conserve wildlife</td>
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<td>All protected areas need to be converted to farm lands</td>
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<td>Transport to the park prohibits me from visiting the park</td>
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<td>22.</td>
<td>Transport is not an hindrance to my visit to the park</td>
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### APPENDIX III: LNNP 1991-2000 DOMESTIC TOURIST STATISTICS

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Source: KWS LNNP records