

**EFFICACY OF COMMUNITY BASED TOURISM INITIATIVES IN
SUSTAINABLE TOURISM DEVELOPMENT: A CASE OF
MWALUGANJE ELEPHANT SANCTUARY IN KWALE COUNTY
KENYA**

BY

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**A Thesis Submitted in Partial fulfilment of the Requirements for the
Award of the Degree of Master of Science in International Tourism
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DECLARATION

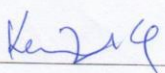
This thesis is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other University or for any other award.

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DEDICATION

To my children; Michael, Richard and John. Thank you for your inspiration.

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ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

AWF	African Wildlife Foundation
CBD	Convention on Biological Diversity
CBT	Community Based Tourism
CBTI	Community Based Tourism Initiatives
COBRA	Conservation of Biodiverse Resource Area
CTP	Cultural Tourism Programme
DIL	Dhanjal Investments Limited
DSWT	David Sheldrick Wildlife Trust
EA	Ecosystem Approach
EAWLS	East African Wildlife Society
EK	Ecotourism Kenya
EWT	Eden Wildlife Trust
FECTO	Federation of Community Tourism Organisations
GOK	Government of Kenya
HEC	Human Elephant Conflict
HWC	Human Wildlife Conflict
KATA	Kenya Association of Travel Agents
KATO	Kenya Association of Tour Operators
KCDP	Kenya Coastal Development Programme
KECOBAT	Kenya Community Based Tourism Network
KFS	Kenya Forest Service
KNBS	Kenya National Bureau of Statistics

KTB	Kenya Tourism Board
KTF	Kenya Tourism Federation
KWCA	Kenya Wildlife Conservancies Association
KWS	Kenya Wildlife Service
LUMO	Lualenyi Mramba and Oza
MEAC	Ministry of East African Affairs, Commerce and Tourism
MES	Mwaluganje Elephant Sanctuary
MOE	Ministry of Education
MOT	Ministry of Tourism
NGOs	Non- Governmental Organisations
PAs	Protected Areas
SNV	Stichting Nederlandse Vrijwilliger
TCCP	Tsavo Community Conservation Project
UNWTO	United Nations World Tourism Organisation
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
WCED	United Nations World Commission on Environment and Development
WLM	Wildlife Works
WTTC	World Travel and Tourism Council
WWF	World Wide Fund for Nature

OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS OF TERMS

Efficacy - Ability to produce a desired or intended outcome.

Community based tourism- Tourism development owned and/or managed by communities and intended to deliver benefits to the host community , tourism business community and the state.

Community initiatives- Projects started by communities with or without external support to address a certain short/long-term economic, social/cultural or environmental challenge.

Sustainable development- Development that meets the economic, social-cultural and environmental needs of the present generation without compromising the ability of future generations to meet such needs.

Sustainable tourism development- Tourism development that takes full account of its current and future economic, social-cultural and environmental impacts, addressing the needs of visitors, the industry, the environment and host communities.

ABSTRACT

Community based tourism is among the several alternatives to mass tourism that are considered to be more sustainable. The genesis and growth of Community Based Tourism Initiatives (CBTI) in the 1990s was based on their prospective ability to augment community support for wildlife conservation, while ensuring that local community participate and benefit from tourism development. However, a number of CBTIs in Kenya have failed to produce benefits substantial enough to meet community expectations. Hence, the need to interrogate if CBTIs have been effective in realising sustainable tourism. The purpose of this study was to determine the efficacy of CBTIs in sustainable tourism development with particular interest in Mwaluganje Elephant Sanctuary, Kwale County. The specific objectives were; to establish the level of community participation in tourism, investigate constraints to community participation and to determine community's attitude towards economic, social and environmental impacts of tourism development. The study adopted a descriptive survey design that allowed qualitative and quantitative methods of data analysis. All (282) landowners of MES were targeted, while the ex-officio (5) and staff (19) were used as key informants. Stratified random sampling was used to establish the study sample (157) of the landowners, while all key informants were used in the study. The findings showed that community participation was from a low to a moderate extent ($0.160=V=0.571$; $0.000=P=0.038$). Their major roles were to give consent on land utilization, share benefits, and provide views and opinions on nature of tourism development to be undertaken. However, they had no power to ensure that whatever had been agreed upon was implemented. Lack of coordination among stakeholders, financial resources, skills/knowledge, and low level of awareness on tourism issues were major constraints to participation. These constraints hindered community participation from a moderate to high extent ($0.365=V=0.822$; $0.017=P=0.042$). Social cultural impacts were positively perceived, while economic and environmental impacts were negatively perceived. Key concerns were minimum economic benefits from tourism, crop raids by wildlife and environmental degradation. A positive significant relationship between socio-economic benefits and community participation was noted ($R=0.575$, $P=0.000$). Respondents had a negative attitude towards tourism due to its inability to provide the anticipated economic impacts; however, they had a positive attitude towards conservation and tourism development as a land use. A positive significant relationship was observed between landowners' attitudes and their involvement in tourism development ($R=0.887$, $P=0.010$). The study concludes that MES is maintaining an unsustainable status quo, hence tending towards "minimalistic sustainable tourism model". The current model of CBTI is therefore not sustainable and needs to be reviewed. It is recommended that an alternative tourism development strategy be adopted which integrates the principles of sustainable tourism development particularly; participation, and more favourable socioeconomic and environmental outcomes, with emphasis on roles of stakeholders, funding, conservation and tourism product development in light of the emerging issues.

CHAPTER ONE

1.0 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

According to the United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO, 2016) “tourism is a social, cultural and economic phenomenon which entails movement of people to countries or places outside their usual environment for personal , business or professional purposes for a period of not more than one consecutive year”. In 2015, the number of international tourists (overnight visitors) was 1,184 million, a 4.4% growth (an additional 50 million) compared to 2014. Growth in arrivals closely matched that of receipts which reached an estimated US\$1295 in 2015 compared to US\$ 1,245 billion in 2014, (UNWTO, 2016). Tourism earnings in Kenya closed at 84.6 billion in 2015 down from Ksh87.1 billion in 2014, a 2.8% decrease, while that of international arrivals dropped to 1.1 million in 2015 from 1.3 million in 2014 (KNBS, 2016). According to KNBS (2016) the decrease was mainly due to security concerns and restrictive travel advisories by key source markets. Despite the high revenues generated from tourism, very little is retained within the local host communities. For instance, it has been estimated that in 2014 only 4.5% of Kenya’s total income from tourism trickled down to the local communities (WTTC, 2015).

Tourism development at a destination is influenced by its natural resources, culture of the people, events/activities, services and infrastructure (Weaver, 2010). There are four major forms of tourism: beach, safari, business/conference and cultural, though other minor forms of tourism like agro-tourism and medical tourism do exist. Kenya’s tourism industry focuses primarily on beach tourism at the coast and safari tourism in

parks and reserves (Protected Areas (PA)) (Kibicho, 2008) with wildlife tourism contributing about 60% of tourism earning in the period 2013-2015 (KNBS, 2016).

The co-existence between Wildlife in PAs and adjacent local communities has not been friendly over time (Kibicho, 2008). This is well illustrated by past and present Human Wildlife Conflict (HWC). The economic, social and environmental challenges facing wildlife conservation in Kenya and other African countries have led to the adoption of alternative prototypes of wildlife conservation and tourism development. In mid-1980s, the Kenya government through Kenya Wildlife Service started effecting community-based wildlife tourism programmes in areas adjacent to parks and reserves. This led to the emergence of Conservation Based Community Tourism Initiatives (CBTIs). The development of CBTIs is hinged on their prospective to heighten community support for wildlife conservation, rather than a sole development strategy for local communities (Cater, 2006). Community based conservation in Kenya used the “benefit based approach” with tourism development as the main source of income (Meguro & Inoue, 2011).

Other than conservation, Salazar (2012) notes that CBTIs aspire to develop a more sustainable tourism industry, focusing on host communities in terms of participation in planning and implementing tourism development project in their localities. World Tourism actors recognize that countries need to devotedly support community involvement in planning, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation processes of tourism development projects (Hall & Lew, 2009; (Murphy & Murphy, 2004). It is

through community participation that benefits from tourism development cascade to the local communities who endure a greater cost of tourism development.

However, over the years Kenya has adopted an open policy to foreign investment, to the detriment of local communities. Major investments by foreigners are mostly in accommodation facilities, tour operations and travel businesses (Akama & Kieti, 2007). These forms of tourism development accentuate the economic structure of dependency on external market demand, and also lead to 'alien' development to which local people are not involved (Dieke, 2000). The benefits of this kind of tourism development have a major impact at the national level than at the local community level (Oketch, 2007), this is despite the existence of CBTI since the 1980's. Though key to tourism development and wildlife conservation at the national level, it remains unclear whether the current model of CBTI is sustainable.

While there are various definitions of sustainability, scholars acknowledge that sustainable development embraces extensive positive economic, social and environmental outcomes (Goodwin, 2011). In regard to tourism development, sustainability considers different forms of tourism and their impacts. Conventional mass tourism, is associated with negative environmental and socio-cultural impacts, while the generated economic benefits do not often trickle down to the local population (Telfer & Sharpley, 2008), especially when tourism facilities are owned by foreign investors. Community based tourism is among the several alternative types of tourism, that have been adopted, considered to be more sustainable and beneficial to the host local population. The rationale for this is that local community participation in CBTIs

development is supposed to be high, and that the entire host community benefits. These benefits include a well preserved socio-cultural environment, positive economic impacts and less negative impacts on the natural environment.

However, for CBTIs to be sustainable they must provide or be seen to provide better returns socially, economically and environmentally to the landowners than available land use alternatives. This research endeavours to interrogate if CBTIs have achieved this since their inception in the 1980s and 1990s. The researcher upholds that host communities can only become optimally involved if there is fair private/public partnerships and have support from governments and NGOs to enable them improve the quality of tourism product on offer, and acquire new skills and knowledge. This can primarily be achieved by having supportive legislation, policies and frameworks which optimize the full potential of host communities, while ensuring that benefits outweigh costs.

1.2 Problem Statement and Justification

Proponents of CBT argue that CBTIs are crucial for wildlife conservation and associated safari tourism, and further CBT is more sustainable than mass tourism. Development of CBTIs is anchored on “benefit-based approaches,” whose common premise is that “tangible benefits from tourism development are vital motivational factors for local people to change their attitudes, support conservation efforts, and align their behaviour with conservation goals” (Meguro & Inoue, 2011), with emphasis on tourist products characterized by community participation in all phases of their development (Tomas, Sandra, & Victor, 2011). However, a number of CBTIs in Kenya

for instance in Lualenyi, Mramba and Oza ranches (LUMO) (LUMO, 2013), Kimana (Meguro & Inoue, 2011) and Wasini women's group (Manyara & Jones, 2007) have failed to produce benefits substantial enough to meet community expectations. It is therefore necessary to interrogate whether CBTI have been effective in achieving the goals of sustainable tourism.

Various policy documents in Kenya for example, the Tourism Act 2011 (GOK, 2011) , Vision 2030 (GOK, 2007) and the Wildlife Management and Conservation Act 2013 (GOK, 2013) support community participation in tourism development; however, there are no guidelines on how community participation shall be implemented to ensure tourism development in CBTIs provide the expected benefits to the community. CBTI in general denote high level of local community involvement in planning and implementation of tourism projects. They aim to improve the social, cultural and economic standards of the community, and ensure that the natural environment is well conserved for prosperity (Salazar, 2012).

Development of CBTIs comes with risks which limit community participation, and achievement of anticipated economic, social and environmental outcomes by the community in the long term. For example, compensation to land owners in Mwaluganje Elephant Sanctuary (MES) has been less than Ksh. 500 per acre per annum for the last 5 years, though some community projects and a bursary programme have been initiated (MES, 2012). In LUMO, a Community Wildlife Sanctuary in Taita Taveta County, the ranches share a profit at the end of each year, carry out community projects and give bursaries (approx. Ksh 3000 per student per year depending on annual income) to needy

students, however according to the management this is too little (LUMO, 2013). Regrettably, it was noted that in Kimana Sanctuary the first community owned and managed wildlife sanctuary in the South West of Kenya benefits to the local community were not satisfactory, hence ideal community participation in tourism development and conservation was not realized (Meguro & Inoue, 2011).

If the CBTI movement fails or is not sustainable, then Kenya's safari tourism will be adversely affected due to a reduction in attractions, wildlife diversity and populations. More than two decades after their establishment it is imperative to critically review how effective CBTIs are in sustainable tourism development. This study sought to explore the extent of local landowners' involvement in CBTIs development, and their perceptions on social, economic and environmental impacts of tourism. It is expected that ideal community participation and consistent positive impacts lead to more favourable community attitudes and inputs towards tourism development which enhance sustainability. Since CBTIs are key to wildlife conservation and tourism development, there is need to rediscover and move them to the next level.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

To determine the efficacy of CBTIs in sustainable tourism development with particular interest in Mwaluganje Elephant Sanctuary, Kwale County.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

1.4.1 General Objective

To establish the efficacy of CBTIs in sustainable tourism development with particular interest in Mwaluganje Elephant Sanctuary, Kwale.

1.4.2 Specific Objectives

To achieve the above objective the following three specific objectives were explored.

- i. To establish the extent of community participation in Mwaluganje Elephant Sanctuary.
- ii. To investigate whether there are constraints to community participation in Mwaluganje Elephant Sanctuary.
- iii. To determine the community's attitude towards socio-economic and environmental impacts of tourism development in Mwaluganje Elephant Sanctuary.

1.5 Research Questions

- i. What is the extent of community participation in tourism development in Mwaluganje Elephant Sanctuary?
- ii. What are the constraints to community participation in tourism development in Mwaluganje Elephant Sanctuary?
- iii. What is the community's attitude towards socio-economic and environmental impacts of tourism development in Mwaluganje Elephant Sanctuary?

1.6 Significance of the Study

The study will be of great significance to both the Government of Kenya (GoK), through the Ministry of Tourism (MoT) and the County Government of Kwale, as it will form a baseline for formulating policies, guidelines and plans for sustainable Community Based Tourism Development in regard to participation, benefits and community/private partnership. The Kenya Tourism Board (KTB) which is involved in marketing, advising tourism stakeholders on the tourism market trends and promotion of CBT as an alternative to traditional beach and wildlife based tourism will find this information valuable especially in advising CBTI stakeholders. The study will identify key concerns of the landowners in CBT development especially within the Shimba Hills ecosystem which experiences high incidences of human-wildlife conflict. This will help Kenya Wildlife Service (KWS) and Kenya Forest Service (KFS) in addressing such concerns hence enhance the use of CBT as a tool for developing positive attitudes towards conservation in the area.

Public/Private sector partnership is fundamental to the success of CBT. The findings of the study will help private sector stakeholders who include the Kenya Tourism Federation (KTF), Kenya Association of Tour Operators (KATO), Kenya Association of Travel Agents (KATA) and Kenya Association of Hotelkeepers and Caterers, identify investment opportunities in the Sanctuary.

The study will be useful to Civil Society Organisations such as the Federation of Community Tourism Organisations (FECTO), Kenya Community Based Tourism Network (KECOBAT) and Ecotourism Kenya (EK), in identifying gaps and developing

programmes to address such gaps in CBT development. The findings and recommendations of the study can guide donors and development partners who include Worldwide Fund for Nature (WWF), Eden Wildlife Trust (EWT), The David Sheldrick Wildlife Trust (DSWT), Kenya Coastal Development Programme (KCDP), Wildlife Works (WLW), African Wildlife Foundation (AWF) and East African Wildlife Society (EAWLS), in identifying projects for funding and diversification of community tourism product.

Finally, findings of the study will contribute to the body of knowledge in community-based tourism, community based tourism initiatives and sustainable tourism development while strengthening the existing body of knowledge in tourism in Kenya.

1.7 Delimitations

The study assessed the efficacy of CBTI in sustainable tourism development in MES of Kwale County. It was conducted between March 2013 and September 2014 using a descriptive research design. The study targeted 282 landowners who ceded their land to establish MES, 5 Ex-officio and 19 staff of MES. Data was collected using researcher administered questionnaires and interviews. The content of the study was limited to community participation and community attitudes towards socio-economic and environmental impacts, tourism development.

1.8 Limitations

The researcher anticipated difficulty in reaching respondents (especially landowners) residing far from the sanctuary. However, when contacted, they suggested a convenient time when they could meet the researcher at the nearest primary Schools; Mwachinga

Primary School and Ziwani Primary School. Difficulty in understanding the local Duruma and Digo languages was expected, however it was realized that they were conversant with Kiswahili except for the elderly. A translator was recruited to accompany the researcher and research assistants to assist in cases where respondents had problems with Kiswahili. Financial constraints were anticipated as the research was individually funded by the researcher. However, this was countered by using two undergraduate students of tourism from Egerton University on attachment in MES during the data collection period which reduced the cost. Further, a detailed budget which captured all the necessary items was made and sufficient funds sought before commencement of the research.

1.9 Assumptions of the study

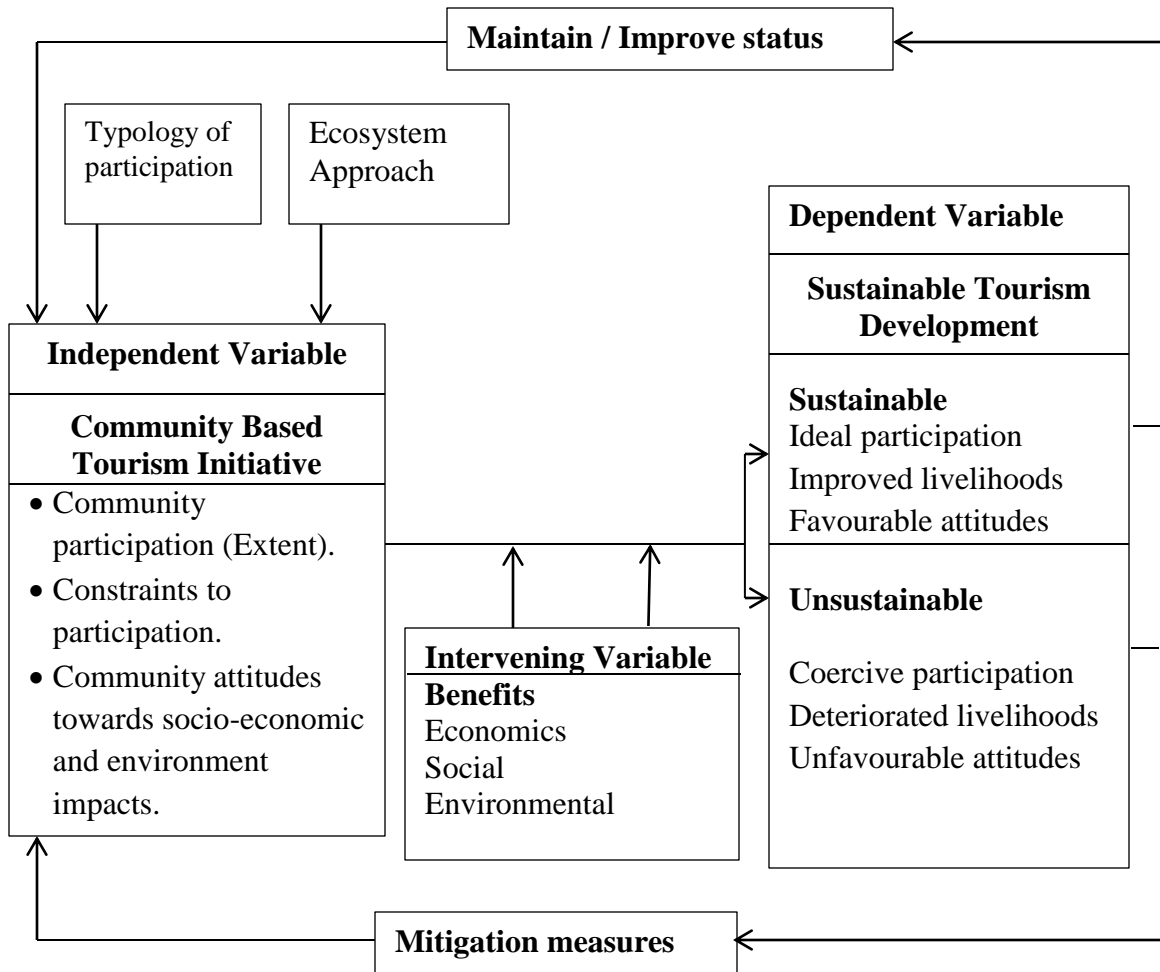
The study was based on the following assumptions;

- i. The ex-officio respondents were guided by the mandate and objectives of the organisation they represented.
- ii. Private investors in CBTI aspire to optimally tap on the tourism potential of the community resources.
- iii. The community respondents (landowners) understood the objectives of the Sanctuary and their goal was to have them achieved.
- iv. CBTIs aspire to be sustainably developed.

1.10 The Conceptual Framework

The purpose of this study was to determine the efficacy of CBTIs in sustainable tourism development. The main research question was; Is MES sustainably developed? The

study focused on landowners who ceded their land to establish the CBTI. Community based tourism initiatives seek to involve the local community in tourism development so as to provide them with skills and opportunities they need to effect positive environmental, social-cultural and economic changes in their own communities. For such CBT projects to be sustainable, the outcomes of such changes have to be to the satisfaction of the landowners. If the landowners are unsatisfied with the outcomes, such CBTIs are unsustainable and remedial actions need to be undertaken. Figure 1.1 below is a diagrammatic representation of the conceptual framework. It describes relationship or linkage between CBTIs and sustainable tourism development.



Source: Author

Figure 1.1: Conceptual Framework; Relation of the Variables

1.10.1 Independent Variables

To answer the main question three sub-questions were considered. To what extent are the local landowners involved in tourism development? Community participation in tourism development is essential to generate the anticipated outcomes for host

communities and develop a sense of ownership of the project. Therefore, the level and type of participation influences the outcomes of tourism development.

Tourism is a multi-stakeholder industry. Community participation is therefore reliant on the activities of other stakeholders, making it vulnerable, and resulting to constraints in participation. Hence the need to establish if there were any constraints, and to what extent such constraints hindered community involvement in tourism development. Constraints to community participation were identified based on whether they were operational, structural or cultural.

The landowners ceded their land to establish MES in anticipation that this would lead to improved environmental, social cultural and economic status at both individual and community level. The research sought to establish the perceptions of the landowners towards the outcomes of these three key components of sustainable tourism development. Perceptions lead to attitude. For CBTIs to grow, improve their attractiveness, and enhance local ownership and participation, local landowners must have a positive attitude towards them. The research sought to determine the attitude of the local landowners towards tourism development in MES, and whether there was a relationship between the landowners' attitudes and their involvement in Tourism development.

1.10.2 Intervening Variables

Since CBTIs in Kenya used the “benefit based approach” with tourism development as the main source of income; economic, social and environmental benefits derived by the

landowners were the intervening variables. These benefits greatly influence the attitudes of the local community towards tourism development.

1.10.3 Dependent Variable

Sustainable tourism development emphasizes the balance between economic, environmental and social aspects of tourism, and the obligation to embrace sustainability in all sectors of tourism. Sustainable tourism development in this study was conceptualized to lead to ideal community participation, satisfaction to improved environmental, social-cultural and economic outputs of tourism development by the landowners, and favourable community attitudes. While coercive community participation, deterioration of environmental, social-cultural and economic parameters, and unfavourable community attitudes lead to an unsustainable status quo of tourism development that requires mitigation measures.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This chapter reviews existing literature put forward by different scholars, personalities and also from the internet on efficacy of CBTIs in sustainable tourism development. The reviewed literature is discussed under subtitles; community based tourism, sustainable tourism development, extent of community participation in tourism development, constraints to community participation, local community attitudes towards economic, social and environmental impacts of tourism development, theoretical frameworks and finally a summary of gaps in the literature is presented.

2.1 Community Based Tourism

The development of community based tourism has been linked with alternative development approaches articulated in the 1970s which were apprehensive with issues beyond strict economic thinking such as empowerment and self-reliance (Telfer, 2009). According to Cornelissen (2005) the hypothetical principles of community tourism have a long history emanating from the participatory and empowerment models that appeared as a new archetype in development in the 1970s. The origin of CBTIs was as a response to the undesirable impacts of the mass tourism development models (Murphy, 1985; Smith, 1998). While at their early stages of development most CBTI projects were associated with rural communities and environmental conservation through ecotourism. Nonetheless, the model has been expanded to a variety of different tourism products (such as local culture) and administrative models around the world (Blackstock, 2005).

Similarly, the development of CBTIs in Kenya is entrenched in the 1970s, when two major changes in Kenya's wildlife management policy were enacted (Manyara & Jones, 2007); the ban on sport hunting in 1977 due to poaching, and prohibition of the sale of wildlife trophies in 1978 (Elliot & Young, 2001). These two developments were as a result of unsustainable forms of wildlife utilisation by foreigners and were geared towards sustainability of the wildlife resources. Though a victory for wildlife conservationists (Elliot & Young, 2001), it was distressing for communities bordering protected areas (PAs), who had already been aggrieved by a ban on subsistence hunting in preference of recreational hunting for tourists in 1946 (Manyara & Jones, 2007), they lost employment as porters and skimmers, all linked with recreational hunting (Sindiga, 1999b).

The creation of PAs by the colonial administrators and the subsequent Kenyan government at independence resulted in forfeiture of land by adjacent communities, thus barring their access to such areas (Manyara & Jones, 2007). However, a challenge was that there were no PAs boundary barriers. Wildlife roamed into adjacent lands, particularly during droughts, in pursuit of water and pasture leading to continuous human-wildlife conflict (Sindiga, 1999a). In the 1980s the Government commenced a compensation programme for injury or destruction caused by wildlife straying into land bordering PAs. However, due to mismanagement it was very difficult for communities to access any payment (Sindiga, 1999a). Consequently, the government stopped the programme in 1989, but with no alternative to contain HWC which further angered local communities (Sindiga, 1999a). Additionally, the conservation program faced major difficulties relating to human intrusion on the PAs for two key reasons. First,

communities adjacent PAs encroached to access water and pasture for their livestock, increasing competition (Goodman, 2002). Secondly, growth in human population led to acquisition of land for agriculture by local communities (Southgate, 2006).

Despite these interventions by the government, wildlife numbers dropped between the 1970s and 1980s (Elliot & Young, 2001), essentially owing to lack of community involvement. The government opted for a participatory approach, mainly with an intention to address HWC and intrusion on PAs (Sindiga, 1999a). The participatory approach primarily aimed at improving conservation through community-based organizations, like the Tsavo Community Conservation Project (TCCP). However, it was noted that success could not be achieved without direct benefits to the local community, making the way for CBTIs (Sindiga, 1999b).

In the 1980s, the African Wildlife Foundation which was supporting TCCP and particularly the Conservation of Bio diverse Resource Areas (COBRA) working in collaboration with Kenya Wildlife Service spearheaded the inception of CBTIs in Kenya. Funded by USAID, COBRAs main conservation objectives included an emphasis on benefits for local communities through an income sharing arrangement with KWS (Sindiga, 1999b). Initially, COBRAs attention was on wildlife within PAs, but majority of wildlife in Kenya occurred and still occur outside the PAs (Sindiga, 1999a) habitats which KWS has no control over their use. Consequently, wildlife conservation efforts began to incorporate areas adjacent to PAs, resulting to formation of CBTIs (Sikoyo, Ashley, & Elliot, 2001).

The preliminary attention of COBRA outside PAs was Laikipia District, in northern Kenya. This resulted in the establishment of the Il Ngwesi Group Ranch in the 1980s which aimed at reducing HWC and to benefit the host community (Sikoyo, Ashley, & Elliot, 2001). Il Ngwesi comprised of a tourism hotel facility, a conservation zone and a grazing zone set separately for the host Maasai community to graze their animals (Sikoyo *et al*, 2001). The project was grounded on a local community membership structure in partnership with Lewa Wildlife Conservancy, a private institution, which carried out marketing of the hotel (Manyara & Jones, 2007). Success of Il Ngwesi influenced several CBTIs in Kenya, for example Shompole 1980, Lumo 1997 and Mwaluganje 1994.

To facilitate community involvement and benefits KWS formed a Community Wildlife Service department in 1992, whose mandate was to ensure that wildlife outside PAs was well managed so as to benefit communities who interact with wildlife (Mbote, 2005). Through the department, amenities such as schools, hospitals and cattle dips were constructed by KWS to benefit local communities living adjacent PAs. In a similar effort and to create more room for wildlife the *Park beyond Parks* programme was started in 1996. Under this programme, local people were allowed to set up tented camps and other tourism undertakings in areas adjacent to PAs. The concept was expected to benefit both the communities and wildlife for mutual coexistence. In 2009 the Community Enterprise Department was established to educate communities and private landowners on how to establish and manage viable nature based tourism enterprises within targeted landscapes of Kenya (KWS, 2013).

Currently, Kenya has approximately 250 CBTIs majority of which are located on the five focal areas namely; Taita-Taveta, Laikipia, Samburu, Amboseli, Kwale and Maasai Mara with a potential for tourism development and conservation (FECTO, 2010). These initiatives are characterised by members from the respective host communities, partnership with a private investor, support from different government agencies and donor NGOs from time to time. However, there are no structures both at the national and county level to oversee coordination of their activities and monitor their development. Several tourism and conservation organisation (Kenya Wildlife Conservancies Association (KWCA), EK, FECTO, and KECOBAT) claim to support CBTI realise their tourism potential in Kenya, however their activities are limited due to lack of funds. Further, being membership groups, the joining and annual fees are limiting to some CBTIs, thus leaving them out.

Within the broad tourism industry, the emphasis on CBT as a tool for augmenting community development, poverty reduction, and culture and biodiversity conservation is increasing (Equations, 2008). According to Giampiccoli & Kalis (2012) the CBT concept is getting gradually important in developing countries, as long as it endorses strategies that support more benefits and control by host communities.

As Sebele (20010; p 140) points out: “Rural areas in developing countries are often characterized by a shortage of facilities and industries and are inhabited by the poorest people in the society; therefore earnings from community based tourism create an alternative means of survival for locals.” For this to be achieved several scholars (Lepp, 2007; Manyara & Jones, 2007; Kibicho, 2008) noted that the local community must be

involved in tourism planning and management process, due to three main reasons; it considers them to be part of the tourism product, local communities adjust to changes with ease, and it opens their minds and reasoning.

However, with majority of the main players of the tourism industry being foreign based and the local players opting to maximize on profits, structural dependencies remain prevalent in tourism development in Kenya. With such structural dependencies in place it is questionable as to whether CBTIs have achieved their envisioned objectives to warrant their continual existence in regard to the local community.

CBTI development has been used by the Kenya government to secure wildlife habitats and it is indeed clear that CBTIs continue to play an essential role in the tourism sector. However, policy documents for instance, the Tourism Act 2011 which provides for the development, management, marketing and regulation of sustainable tourism and tourism-related activities and services (GOK, 2011) do not have provisions for CBTIs development. Similarly, in the vision 2030, tourism is one of the components of the economic pillar, but CBTIs are not among the flagships projects (NESC, 2007). Several years after the establishment of CBTIs in Kenya, some have collapsed while others still exist. Are the remaining ventures sustainably developed or is it a question of time before they collapse? Do the local communities satisfactorily participate in their development? What are their roles and perceptions towards benefits derived from these ventures?

2.2 Sustainable Tourism Development

The term sustainability emerged from the United Nations World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED) which led to the publication of the Brundtland report entitled “Our common future” in 1987. The report defined sustainable development as “that which meets the needs of the present generation without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs” (WCED, 1987).

Even though there isn't a universal definition of sustainability, the concept of sustainable development has become universally accepted and supported by the United Nations through for example the 1992 Rio Earth Summit, which produced the Agenda 21 strategy document. Further, several scholars (Hunter, 1997; UNWTO, 2004; Goodwin, 2011) agree that sustainable development embraces long term positive economic, social and environmental effects. The support is justified in part by the appealing semantics of sustainable development that provides the prospect of development for enthusiasts of continued growth and also the prospect of sustainability for conservationists and other advocates of steady state approach (Weaver, 2010). According to Weaver (2010) sustainable development denotes the attractive likelihood of persistent economic development that does not overly strain the earth's environmental, socio-cultural or economic carrying capacities.

Sustainability has not been without criticism. For instance, questions have been asked on what is being sustained, by whom and for whom; and whether all stakeholders have similar intentions or aspirations (Mowforth & Munt, 2009). Despite these criticisms, it

has led to debates on how developments could be sustainable. Sustainable tourism is basically the application of the sustainable development concept to the tourism industry (Weaver, 2010). Hunter (1997, p 850) describes sustainable tourism as “*a set of principles, policy prescriptions, and management methods which chart a path for tourism development such that a destination areas’ environmental resource base (including natural, built, and cultural features) is protected for future development*”. The World Tourism Organisation defines sustainable tourism as “*tourism that takes full account of its current and future economic, social and environmental impacts, addressing the needs of visitors, the industry, the environment and host communities*” (UNWTO, 2010).

Discussions on sustainable tourism development emerged in early 1990s among tourism scholars and institutions especially those conscious of the industry’s potential to produce both costs and benefits (Bull, 1992; Eber, 1992). Existing forms of mass tourism were considered unsustainable in regard to the negative impacts on the environment, how they corrupted local cultures and the way economic benefits were frittered away due to the first world proprietorship of much of the tourism industry. It is as a result of this negative premise that alternative tourism, particularly ecotourism and community based tourism emerged, in an endeavour to restore the negative impacts of mass tourism and create forms of tourism that are environmentally, economically and culturally sustainable (Weaver, 2010).

According to Manyara & Jones (2007); Kibicho (2008); Rastegar (2010) four dimensions are considered important for sustainable tourism development in CBTIs;

first, CBTIs must be economically viable: income generated must exceed the expenses; secondly they should be ecologically sustainable: the environment ought not depreciate in value; thirdly, must embrace equitable distribution of costs and benefits among all stakeholders; and fourthly a transparent institution, acknowledged by all stakeholders, should be formed to represent the concerns of all community members and to mirror real community ownership.

Gebhard, Meyer, & Roth (2008) noted that sustainable tourism enhances local traditions, strengthens participatory process and permits the utilization of natural and cultural resources for economic returns while ensuring that these resources are not destroyed. The key purposes of sustainable tourism development from the host communities perspective is community welfare and conservation of their natural and cultural resources, while the most important claim of sustainable tourism development from the visitor's standpoint is product quality and tourist satisfaction.

Proponents of sustainable tourism development accept the premise that both small-scale and large scale tourism development are legitimate and sustainable under appropriate circumstances (Mowforth & Munt, 2009). However, tourism being a multi stakeholder industry, each stakeholder has different objectives and is guided by different policies which sometimes conflict. Ensuring that appropriate conditions for sustainability prevail at all times remains a major challenge that if not addressed appropriately could hinder sustainable tourism development.

2.3 Extent of Community Participation in Tourism Development

The concepts of ‘community’ and ‘local community’ are used interchangeably in this study. Milne (1998, p. 10) refers to ‘community’ as “a group of people living in the same locality”. According to IIED (1994, p. 10) “the concept can be approached in spatial, socio-cultural and economic terms”. “Spatially, communities are groupings of people who physically live in the same place”. “Socio-culturally, communities are social groupings that derive a unity from a common history and cultural heritage, frequently based on kinship”. “Economically, communities are groupings of people who share interests and control over particular resources”. Agrawal & Ribot (1999) definition which combines the above constructs and defines the concept as “an entity socially bound by a common identity, living within a defined spatial boundary and having a common economic interest in the resources of that area” is adopted in this research. The term “local community” is therefore used to refer to the “local landowners” who ceded their land to establish MES in anticipation of improved socio-cultural, economic and environmental standards, individually and communally.

Participation is a multidimensional concept that needs elaboration in order to be understood, effectively employed and monitored (Tosun, 2000). Community participation concerns stem back in the 1940s and 1950s. The 1992 UN Conference emphasized the significance of community participation for sustainable development. The Agenda 21 further highlights this need by emphasizing decentralization (chapter 5) and finding local solutions to environmental problems. It is for this reason that proponents of CBTIs put emphasis on community participation in such projects (Muganda, Mgonja, & Backman, 2013).

In 1981, the UN defined participation as “the creation of opportunities to enable all members of a community and the larger society to actively contribute to and influence the development process and to share equitably in the fruits of development” (Midgley, 1987). While, ODA, (1995) defines participation as “a process whereby stakeholders those with rights (and therefore responsibilities) and/or interests play an active role in decision-making and in consequent activities which affect them”. According to Havel (1996) participation “is a process through which stakeholders, among them, the local communities, influence and share control over development initiatives, decisions and resources which affect them”.

Forms (typologies) of participation (Tosun, 2000; Pimbert and Pretty, 1995) contextualizes community participation as an absolute term that permits involvement of a host community in their matters at diverse levels (local, regional or national) and several forms (induced, passive, spontaneous, etc.) under place specific circumstances. Both typologies set off from a passive/coercive form of participation whereby the community has no input in project planning and is not involved in benefit sharing. Through different rungs, comprising consultation and other forms of fractional participation, the uppermost level of community participation is self-mobilization/spontaneous participation (Tosun, 2006). At this level, host communities exercise complete control of the decision making process, project execution and benefits sharing. These typologies are a useful tool in identifying the extent of community participation from the passive forms to those which are more genuine and collaborative.

However, these models do have certain limitations, for example, they do not consider the number of community members included; no evaluation of major barriers is done; and moreover the intensity and length of community participation is not sufficiently addressed; host community could be positioned justly high up the ladder, however eagerness may decline with time, be lesser than anticipated, or get pre-empted by other issues beyond the community's control, for instance political and economic stability (Tosun, 2006).

Community participation in tourism development is an essential factor in realising sustainable development of the sector (Manyara & Jones, 2007; Kibicho, 2008; Okazaki, 2008). Through participation genuine negative impacts and perceptions associated with tourism development can be decreased, while the general quality of life, perceived and real, of all industry players can be improved (Byrd, Bosley, & Dronberger, 2009). Community participation in tourism creates; superior opportunities for the host community to access greater and more sensible benefits from tourism development in their areas (Manyara & Jones, 2007; Tosun 2006), enhances host community support for the sector (Okazaki, 2008), leads to more favourable attitudes towards tourism development and conservation of indigenous resources (Lepp, 2007; Akama & Kieti, 2007). Further, it increases the local community's tolerance to tourism development (Tosun, 2006). Considering that tourism is a multi- stakeholder industry, it can be argued that participation pursues cooperation or partnerships and the assurance required to guarantee sustainability of Community Based Tourism development projects.

A critical evaluation of tourism literature indicates that generally community participation in tourism development has been observed from three angles: “participation of the host community in the decision-making process” (Chok & Macbeth, 2007; Li, 2005), project execution and in sharing of tourism benefits (Chok & Macbeth, 2007; Li, 2005; Marzuki, Hay, & James, 2012; Nault & Stapleton, 2011; Tosun, 2000; Havel 1996, Zhao & Ritchie, 2007). Community participation in the decision-making process is a fundamental determinant in ensuring that the benefits local communities get from tourism are fairly assured, and their livelihoods, lifestyles and tenets are appreciated.

Muganda, Mgonja, & Backman (2013) in their study on desires of community participation in Barabarani Mto wa mbu, Tanzania observed that community’s appropriate method of decision-making was that which included both elected officials (who represent the host community) and appointed officials (employees who provide expertise and knowledge). However, prior to making such decisions, the elected and appointed officials must first engage with the local community so as to gather the public opinions. Nevertheless, such a form of decision making may not deliver the anticipated benefits to the community not only due to their economic vulnerability, disempowerment, rhetoric’s and discourses employed to entice them to accept to unfair economic settings by powerful investors but also due to predominant dealings of power and control that are common in postcolonial countries (Akama, Maingi, & Camarco, 2011). Further, how individual members and communities participate differs overtime depending on landownership tenure, culture, objectives and capacity of the community. It is therefore necessary to evaluate the roles of the community under the prevailing

forms of participation and whether through such roles they are able to achieve their anticipated benefits in CBT development.

According to Beierle & Konisky (2000) evaluations of public/community participation programs usually fall into two categories. The first category considers the quality of the participatory process rather than its outcomes and is measured by whether; (1) “members are representatives of the broader community, (2) membership is balanced, (3) participation starts early in the decision making process, (4) face to face discussion between the public and agency representatives occur and (5) the agency/stakeholders are committed to the participatory process and responsive to public input” (Zhao & Ritchie, 2007). The second category is interest-oriented. These evaluate the extent to which specific stakeholders have realized their own explicit goals/outcomes in participatory decision making. In evaluating community participation in tourism development both the quality and outcome of the participation process should be considered, and details given on which among the two is of greater importance to the affected community as such information is scanty.

Tosun (2006) observed that participation in tourism development by different stakeholders varies with differing groups’ influence, goals, and prospects from community participation and these influence their attitudes towards forms of community participation. Failure by Kimana Wildlife Sanctuary and LUMO in Kenya to provide the anticipated benefits (Manyara & Jones, 2007) reflects a lack of commitment to participation in Tourism development by either one or several of the stakeholders. Given that external intervention (by the government) was a major force

behind the development of CBTIs and their current model is built on a partnership approach between an investor and the local community (Manyara & Jones, 2007), and sometimes an NGO, it's not clear who amongst them takes responsibility of ensuring that community participation in tourism development achieves the envisioned objectives by each stakeholder. Without a lead institution there is a danger of the community being alienated from the benefits of tourism development.

2.4 Constraints to Community Participation

Community participation is a fundamental factor in ensuring that local community benefits from tourism are guaranteed, and their way of life and ideals are respected. Therefore, community participation is regarded both as way a of challenging the prevailing tourism development model which typically sees the tourism infrastructure of the developing world managed by influential multinationals of the industrialized countries and as an important instrument to realize sustainable tourism development at a destination (Dogra & Gupta, 2012).

However, many CBTI sites in Kenya, though having enormous potential for tourism development are not yet developed and the local community is not interested in participating in tourism related activities. Why are these communities not participating in tourism development projects in their locality? Aref & Marof (2008) observed that there are some factors which form obstacles to actual community participation in the tourism development processes in developing countries. Tosun (2000) in his research to examine the limitations to public participation in the decision-making process and benefit sharing of tourism development in developing countries identified and classified

limitations in three categories namely; “Operational limitations, Structural limitations and Cultural limitations”.

Limitations at the operational level include the centralisation of public management of tourism development by national governments. All decisions regarding planning, implementation and monitoring of tourism development are made at a national level with minimal or no input from the local community. Consequently, only a few areas where decision makers at the national level have interest on experience tourism development while the other regions are neglected. For instance; Akama, Maingi, & Camarco (2011) observed that despite enormous and varied potential for wildlife tourism development in Kenya, the country’s tourism is geographically limited to a few protected areas and conservancies. Oketch (2007) attributed this to the absence of appropriate land-use policy and procedures governing the location and distribution of tourism amenities and infrastructure in various parks, reserves and conservancies. Moreover, even in areas considered developed in regard to tourism; community participation could be hindered by existing landownership regimes.

Lack of co-ordination amongst stakeholders (government agencies, hoteliers, tour operators, local community and NGOs) involved in tourism development limits community participation. Each stakeholder is driven by the desire to achieve his/her objectives with little regard to the objectives of the others. Kibicho (2008) noted that funding institutions were more concerned with project effectiveness/success than the fundamental and less concrete aspects of community-based tourism like stakeholders collaboration, while the government agency laid emphasis on conservation. He further,

observed a level of distrust between the local host community in Kimana Wildlife Sanctuary and the Kenya Wildlife Service (National conservation organisation), and noted that where trust is weak participants do not achieve the desired outputs associated with effective partnership.

Lack of information made available by the other stakeholders to the host community of a tourism site in regard to for instance, insufficient tourism development data and poor distribution of information (Scheyvens, 2002) makes the community more vulnerable to manipulation. Under such circumstances, low public participation in the tourism development process is apparent as the community is not sufficiently informed.

Structural limitations at CBTI level include lack of appropriate legal system especially on matters regarding land ownership (Manyara & Jones, 2007), initiatives are registered as CBOs, associations, trusts or limited companies with various landownership tenures and without a definite land use policy. This makes it easy to convert land from conservation and tourism development to agriculture as happened in Kimana. Lack of trained human resources and expertise amongst the local community limits participation in tourism. Muganda, Mgonja, & Backman (2013) observed that the community in Mto wa Mbu didn't wish elected officials or the local committee to independently make decisions on matters of tourism development because they lacked tourism skills and some of them had little education. Similar observations were made by Manyara & Jones (2007) in six CBTIs in Kenya.

High cost implication associated with community participation and inadequate financial resources (Tosun, 2000; Scheyvens, 2002; Manyara *et al*, 2007) are other structural

limitations hindering community participation in tourism. Communities frequently lack resources and power (Scheyvens, 2002; Akama, Maingi, & Camarco, 2011), therefore unable to establish amenities and infrastructure required for tourism development. This makes it difficult for the community to improve on the quality of the tourism product in their locality and to access the desired markets. The local community is consequently reliant on other stakeholders, and hence vulnerable.

Lastly cultural limitations include limited capacity of poor populations, apathy and low level of awareness in the local community. Kibicho (2008) in his study at Kimana Wildlife Sanctuary noted lack of local community involvement in the Sanctuary's decision making processes due to lack of a defined leadership structure. He observed that a segment of the community whom he referred to as *the operatives* had low interest in participating in the formulation of aims and objectives of the project which he attributed to lack of self-confidence due to the community's low levels of education and lack of capability to effectively participate. Manyara & Eleri (2007; p 410) in their study on best practice model for community capacity building for community based enterprises in Kenya noted that "some respondents felt that majority of the local communities were not aware at all about tourism and that in such cases it was only the local elites who were". Such lack of awareness and information hinders majority of the community members from participating in tourism. Apathy and low levels of awareness in local communities has been attributed to a history of ignoring the grassroots in decision making (Tosun, 2006).

According to Blackstock (2005) the heterogeneity of communities is a constraint to their participation in tourism development. A community comprises of several different kinds of people, often with uneven positions and different ambitions. Kibicho (2008) identified three segments in the Kimana Wildlife Sanctuary community namely; “*operatives, opinion leaders and official leaders*” whom he found were expected to influence the community’s support for a tourism project. Such segmentations lead to uneven opportunity for local community participation in tourism activities. Members of the community with an upper rank are more likely to participate in tourism activities, and may not act in the best interest of other community members. For instance, Muganda, Mgonja, & Backman (2013) established that businessmen/women were likely to make decisions that favoured their welfare but not that of the entire community.

These limitations vary over time depending on types, scale and levels of tourism development, the target market, and cultural features of local communities. They are an extension of the predominant social, political and economic structure in developing countries, which have hindered them from attaining a higher level of development (Tosun, 2006). All these deficiencies form severe predicaments in the process of community participation and slow down the destination development process. The general outcome of such barriers is often the communities’ limited eagerness towards the industry resulting in little benefits that trickle down to the local community. Past research on constraints to community participation have focused on identifying such constraints at various sites. However, little has been done on establishing the extent to which such constraints hinder the involvement of the local community in CBTIs, and consequently their sustainability. Findings of such a research would be useful in

identifying the priority areas and mechanisms for minimising the negative effects these barriers.

2.5 Local Community Attitudes towards Economic, Social and Environmental Impacts of Tourism Development

According to Nunkoo (2011) perception is the way an individual notices or understands something using his /her senses, brains and experiences in life, while attitude is how one reacts to his/her perception. Thus, perception leads to attitude which in turn affects human behaviour towards various social, economic and environmental parameters.

Tourism impacts in some way on everything and everyone that it touches. Sustainable tourism development takes into consideration environmental, social and economic impacts to destination areas and their residents (Hall & Lew, 2009; Telfer & Sharpley, 2008). The ultimate objective of sustainable tourism development is the healthy state in which the environmental, social and economic dimensions are preserved and maintained within the community (Mitchel & Ashley, 2010) and strengthening of participatory process (Gebhard *et al*, 2008). Tourism impacts can be positive or negative depending on the various external and internal factors affecting tourism development at the destination or locality.

The perception of the local community towards tourism development at their locality is determined by the outcomes of tourism development in regard to the social, environmental, and economic impacts. Telfer and Sharpley (2008) indicated that perception of the tourism environment varies significantly across communities. Positive desired impacts of tourism to the host community lead to positive perceptions

towards tourism which enhances sustainability while negative impacts lead to negative perceptions that if not mitigated jeopardize tourism development.

Tourism leads to the interaction of people from diverse socio-cultural backgrounds. Development of CBTIs exposes local communities to tourists from various regions of the world. Through such encounters, social-cultural impacts are generally encountered between hosts and guests. If local culture is part of the base for attracting tourists, tourism helps in protection and transmission of culture and historical customs, which contribute to conservation and sustainable management of natural resources, revitalisation of indigenous culture, cultural arts and crafts.

For instance, Oketch & Urmilla (2009) noted that tour operators to Amboseli paid the natives to perform traditional dances and entertain tourists, besides tourists were motivated to pay tips, visit manyattas, buy artefacts and souvenirs, and form organisations that would support the welfare of the local community. It is such gestures by tour operators and tourists that lead to revival of traditional festivals, songs, music, dance, arts and crafts, and may help the local communities such as the Maasai, Turkana, Pokomo, Maasai, Samburu, Swahili, Mijikenda and others to take pride in their art forms and culture (Irandu, 2004; Ondimu, 2000). In this way, the identity of the local communities in Kenya is preserved, and tourism development is sustained.

Further, CBTIs being communal institutions contribute towards development of social capital and empowerment (Godwin & Santili, 2009) and pride (Hall & Lew, 2009). Local communities benefit through improvement of communal infrastructure like schools, libraries, health care institutions, and internet cafes associated with tourism

development. Oketch & Urmilla (2009) observed slight improvement on roads, construction of schools, and training of game rangers as benefits to the community in the Amboseli region attributed to tourism development, while Manyara & Jones (2007) noted construction of dispensaries and establishment of bursary schemes for needy students as some of the benefits associated with tourism development in six CBTIs in Kenya.

Despite the glossy picture, tourism is not without negative social-cultural impacts. They include an increase in crime (targeting tourists and tourism facilities), prostitution and sex tourism (Hall & Lew, 2009). Kibicho (2000) in his study on cultural tourism observed that prostitution both male and female, and begging were apparent in Kajiado, Narok and Malindi towns of Kenya, all associated with tourism. Loss of cultural behaviours or dilapidation of sacred sites or rites, negative demonstration effect (especially in the predominantly Muslim towns of the Kenyan coast), commoditization of culture and reconstructed ethnicity are all negative social cultural impacts associated with tourism development.

According to Kibicho (2000) cultural tourism introduced changes in the Maasai Community, for instance; traditional shows were revived in an artificial way isolated from the framework that had originally given them significance. Making of cultural craft items particularly Maasai swords, shields, spears, clubs, beads, blankets, and basket was revitalized by the growth tourism, however products had manifestations of conformation and modifications to suit demands of the tourists. Colours utilized for

weaving and clothing were noted to have been broadened past the cultural range while traditional natural dyes had been replaced by imported synthetic ones.

Such negative impacts lead to undesirable perceptions towards tourism development by the local community. Kibicho (2000) observed that tourism development in the Maasai community resulted to infringement of the Maasai culture, perpetrating bad feelings on the Maasai by unanticipated tourist activities; a senior elder in Kajiado, interviewed during his study emphatically noted “our decency, pride and future is more important than what we get from the tourists”, the elder advised that cultural tourism sites ought not bend so low as to entirely auction their culture and dignity in exchange for tourist dollars. For sustainability of tourism CBTIs should aspire to develop a form of tourism respectful to the culture of local host communities. It is therefore in the social-cultural benefit of the entire community to evaluate and constructively manage the cultural impacts of tourism.

Tourism generates significant economic benefits to the national economy and local communities. Nationally, tourism brings in foreign exchange earnings, contributes to government revenues directly through taxation on employment and business incomes from tourism enterprises, and indirectly through taxes and duties levied on goods and services supplied to tourists.

Income generation is the key positive economic impact to the host community. Manyara & Jones (2007) in their study on six CBTIs in Kenya noted positive economic impacts to the local community through employment, leases, payment of dividends, and business linkages particularly in LUMO and Wasini Women’s group. Businesses

established in response to tourism development included hotels, restaurants, bars, transport and entertainments. Similarly, Oketch & Urmilla (2009) in their study on communities bordering Amboseli National park and Maasai Mara reserve observed that nearly half of the respondents (n= 100) acknowledged that they had received direct financial benefits from tourism. This was mainly cash paid as camping concessions, charges to visit manyattas, and sales of traditional artefacts/ornaments.

Several scholars, Agrawal & Redford (2006), Stronza & Gordillo (2008) established that locally created new jobs and proceeds were the most common “indicators of success” in CBTIs, while Kiss (2004) noted that little extra earnings or assets for community ventures is greatly appreciated in cash deprived rural regions. Income earned from tourism is spent locally, triggering the ‘multiplier effect’. CBTIs provide habitats for wildlife with the aim of reducing HWC for example LUMO (Manyara & Jones, 2007) and consequently increasing agricultural production, therefore increasing local income and enhancing local livelihoods.

Due to foreign proprietorship of tourism enterprises which is prevalent in developing countries, tourism development leads to a high economic leakage (Akama & Kieti,2007; Torres, 2003; Telfer & Sharpley, 2008). This limits the economic gains of tourism at the local level. Tourism development causes local inflation. Akama & Kieti (2007) observed that shops and restaurants at areas frequented by tourists in Mombasa increased their prices; land and housing were also more expensive in such areas. This is usually because tourists have a higher purchasing power than the locals and might lead to a comparative reduction of purchasing power, lest the income all through the

community has improved accordingly. Moreover, the seasonal character of jobs in the tourism industry leads to job and income insecurity adversely affecting the local community.

One of the principal inspirations for regions to promote themselves as tourism destinations is the anticipated economic improvements. However, the economic benefits of tourism come with risks which the local community may not be prepared for. Oketch & Urmilla (2009) observed that about half of the respondents (n=100) around the Amboseli and Mara in Kenya indicated that the economic benefits were insufficient to compensate for the negative effects of tourism and wildlife in their regions. This kind of a scenario can easily lead to apathy on the community towards tourism development. It therefore remains important to establish perceptions of CBTIs members on economic benefits derived from such institutions. Such perceptions greatly influence the success or failure of CBTIs.

Environmentalists argue that CBTIs have a positive effect on preservation of natural resources, especially in maintaining and even expanding the conservation of the natural resources that tourism depends on. It is therefore not surprising that the development of CBTIs in Kenya is founded on their prospective to heighten local community support for biodiversity conservation, rather than an independent development plan for local communities (Cater, 2006). Indeed the inception of CBTIs in Kenya was headed by the African Wildlife Foundation and the Conservation of Bio diverse Resource Areas (COBRA) (Manyara & Jones, 2007) both conservation organisation working in collaboration with the Kenya Wildlife Service. According to Kiss (2004) conservation

institutions finance CBTIs as a way of minimising local pressures to biodiversity conservation, such as agriculture, untenable harvesting of flora and fauna, and killing wildlife to reduce HWC.

However, designation of many protected areas and conservation based CBTIs has been linked with displacement and restriction to access of natural resources by communities living in and adjacent them without adequate compensation (Roe & Elliot, 2006) thus negatively impacting on food security and livelihoods of the local community. Community perception on impacts of CBTIs on biodiversity conservation over time has not been documented yet it's vital in developing mitigation measures. If mitigation measures are not timely instituted, community members may take to poaching or illegal harvesting of forest products. Further, establishment of CBTIs cause growth in wildlife populations, leading to an escalation of human wildlife conflict, environmental degradation and invasive species, negatively impacting on the resources it's made to conserve.

Construction of tourism facilities common in CBTIs causes destruction of flora and fauna. Waste generated by tourists and tourism facilities if not well managed pollutes the surrounding environment, negatively impacting the local community as well as plants and animals. In response to negative environmental impacts in Amboseli and Mara, Oketch & Urmilla (2009) observed that respondents were less supportive and more opposed to establishment of additional tourist facilities and providing more staff, also all management strategies to conserve biodiversity got considerable backing including 'direct' regulatory undertakings such as restrictive forest utilisation, as well as

‘indirect’ engagements for instance capacity building. An indication that though without statistical data local communities have skills to enable them form correct opinions regarding the state of their environment and identify necessary mitigation measures.

While study on the impacts of tourism is not new, it continues to be pertinent due to rapid advances and changes in the industry. Further, the relation between tourism and sustainable development is conveyed in the outcomes of tourism and therefore cannot be ignored. The severity of the cultural, economic and environmental impacts experienced is influenced by the number and type of tourists, the pace of tourism development and the comparative importance of the industry.

Majority of studies on impacts of tourism development have focused on identifying impacts at various sites. However, they do not provide information on perceptions of CBTI members to various impacts of tourism development and whether a relationship exists between socio-economic benefits and community involvement/participation. Godwin & Santilli (2009) asserted that communities incur costs when they engage in CBTIs. Communities contribute land, time and labour, their investment in the initiative (Scheyvens, 2002). The land, time and labour of the community has value; there is often significant opportunity costs incurred. Without assessing perceptions of the community toward outcomes of tourism development in their locality it is not possible to determine their attitudes in regard to tourism development, and whether the community and individual households have benefited or been impoverished by the intervention.

One key indicator of tourism’s suitability is residents’ attitude towards tourism development (Lepp, 2007). Attitude is a significant predictor of behaviour (Stem,

Lassoie, Lee, Deshler, & Schelhas, 2003). Ghaderi & Henderson (2012) and Jimura (2011) observed that host communities have favourable attitudes toward tourism; nonetheless they also get apprehensive of the negative effects of tourism. Positive attitudes to tourism development result to pro-tourism behaviour such as host community involvement in tourism development, reinvestment in the sector and preservation of resources which support tourism (Lepp, 2007) while negative attitudes could frustrate tourism development.

Several scholars have researched on communities' response to tourism development. Doxey (1976) argued that community attitudes vary depending on the stage of tourism development in the destination. Whereas tourists are initially received enthusiastically, attitudes turn into apathy, annoyance and lastly aggression. A highly advanced tourism destination is, according to Doxey, more likely to illustrate irritation. However, Weaver & Opperman (2000) criticized Doxey's findings for perceiving the community as a homogeneous entity. Contrary to Doxey (1976), Horn & Simmons (2002) established that tourism areas at equivalent stages of tourism development can portray different community attitudes.

Dogan (1989) identified five strategies of adjustment by local communities to tourism development, they include; “*resistance, retreatism, boundary maintenance, revitalization and adoption*”. Resistance and retreatism generally occur once the limits for touristic development are exceeded. According to Carter & Amanda (2014) boundary maintenance includes harmonising the interests of hosts and tourists, with the

anticipation that tourism's negative impacts will be invalidated by the generated economic benefits.

Revitalization is a relatively familiar strategy where culture is the emphasis of tourism product development, whereas adoption may point to a desire to use tourism as a tool for changing current social structures or to embrace western culture. Ap and Crompton (1993) developed a four-stage continuum of local community reactions to tourism development: “*embracement* (eager welcoming of tourism), *tolerance* (enduring tourism's negative aspects out of recognition of its contribution to the community's economic vitality), *adjustment* (scheduling of activities in order to escape tourists) and *withdrawal* (temporary removal of oneself from the community)”.

The above scholars considered an increasing number of tourists but did not address response to diminishing numbers or under development. How local communities respond to tourism development when the anticipated outcomes are not realized due to poor performance needs to be documented. This will help tourism planners to develop mitigation measures especially when tourism development is hinged on conservation like is the case of CBTIs in Kenya.

Factors that determine host community attitudes towards CBTIs fall into two categories: “motivational factors” and “community factors” (Manyara & Jones, 2007). Motivational factors include personal growth, achievement, advancement, autonomy and recognition while community factors refer to general parameters of community development. According to Horn & Simmons (2002), Irandu, (2004), Lepp (2007), Nicholas, Thapa and Ko (2009) variables that affect local communities' attitudes

towards tourism development include; enjoyment of benefits derived, type of tourism development, stage of destination life cycle, economic impacts experienced, demographic attributes, distance community members live from tourism site, interaction with tourists and the extent of cultural difference between host community and tourists. Irandu (2004) emphasizes that reaction towards tourism is influenced by the extent to which the host community appreciates the economic benefits of tourism. All these variables influence the outcomes of tourism development. A focus on their performance could lead to tourism development that is acceptable to the community.

Performance of existing CBTIs influences attitudes of other communities towards tourism development. Successful CBTIs favourably influence eagerness of neighbouring communities for similar projects and vice versa. For instance the success of Il Ngwesi in Laikipia Kenya influenced formation of Shompole and Lumo (Manyara & Jones, 2007). Previous adverse experiences of external intervention, especially by government agencies, NGOs and investors in the industry as noted by Kibicho (2008) at Kimana Sanctuary in Kenya, does sour community attitudes towards CBTIs and could lead to their collapse.

Tourism development has been used by proponents of CBTI as a source of income and livelihood for the local community, in the expectation that communities will have positive attitudes towards conservation hence support it. For example, Lepp (2007) noted positive attitude by the local community towards tourism development in Bigodi, which he attributed to a belief that tourism presented an opportunity for earning income, better markets for agricultural products, and a chance at good fortune.

However, it remains unclear whether this happens in other CBTIs considering the various challenges faced by tourism development projects managed by communities and further it is dependent on achievement of anticipated outcomes or expectations by the local community. The success or failure of adjustment strategies by local communities influences sustainability of CBTIs. Hence, it is important to identify and explain residents' attitudes towards tourism in MES, and also establish whether there is a relationship between local community attitude towards tourism development and their involvement in CBTIs.

2.7 Theoretical Frameworks

The study is anchored on the development theory, specifically sustainable development and modelled on Pimbert and Pretty (1995) typology of participation, Tosun (1999) typology of participation and the Ecosystem Approach (EA) theory.

Development theory is a conglomeration or a collective vision of theories about how desirable change in society is best achieved. It focuses on processes of change in society to what is, in some sense, a more "advanced" state with emphasis on "increasing wealth" or "economic growth" (Harris, 2013). The development theory includes; Post-development theory, human development theory and sustainable development among others.

Sustainable development is development that meets the needs of the present generation without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs" (WCED, 1987), it embraces long term positive economic, social and environmental

effects. In tourism development CBT is used as a tool for augmenting community development, poverty reduction, culture and biodiversity conservation (Equations, 2008), with CBTIs aspiring to be sustainable. Sustainability is achieved through community participation and enjoyment of benefits derived from tourism development.

2.7.1 Pimbert and Pretty Typology of Participation

The notion of community participation is deeply ideological in that it reflects beliefs derived from social and political theories about how societies should be organized (Midgley, 1987). Proponents of community participation contend that community participation as an element of development is multi-dimensional and has been considered, promoted and woven into the development process in different ways (de Kadtz, 1982; GOW & Vansant, 1983). It takes very different forms, ranging between citizen power to manipulation or it can vary from minimal forms involving information exchange (surveys, hand outs, questionnaires, and the like) to full forms of community control (Arnstein, 1971; Willis, 1995). The Pimbert and Pretty (1995) typology of participation provides a perfect model for analysing community participation as it logically interprets community participation in a developmental set up of which community based tourism development is a component.

Pimbert and Pretty (1995) typology of participation (Table 2.1) is in the context of general development studies. The typology is based on seven levels of participation arranged in a ladder pattern with each rung corresponding to the extent of citizen participation.

Table 2.1: Pimbert and Pretty Typology of Participation

<p>1. Passive participation</p> <p>People participate by being told what is going to happen or has already happened, with no ability to change it. The information being shared belongs only to external professionals.</p>
<p>2. Participation in information giving</p> <p>People participate by answering questions posed by extractive researchers and developers. People do not have the opportunity to influence proceedings, as the findings of the research are neither shared nor checked for accuracy.</p>
<p>3. Participation by consultation</p> <p>People participate by being consulted, and external people listen to views. External professionals define both problems and solutions, and may modify these in the light people's responses. The consultative process does not concede any share in decision making, and professionals are under no obligation to take on board people's views.</p>
<p>4. Participation in materials incentives</p> <p>People participate by providing resources such as labour and land, in return for food, cash or other material incentives. People have no stake in prolonging activities when incentives end.</p>
<p>5. Functional participation</p> <p>People participate by forming groups to meet pre-determined objectives related to the project which can involve the development or promotion of externally-initiated social organization. Such involvement does not tend to be at early stage of the project cycles or planning, but rather after major decisions have been made. The institution tends to be dependent on external structures but may become independent over time.</p>
<p>6. Interactive participation</p> <p>People participate in joint analysis which leads to action plans and the formation of new local groups or strengthening of existing ones. It tends to involve interdisciplinary methods that seek multiple perspectives and make use of systematic and structured learning processes. These groups take control over local decisions, so</p>

that people have a stake in maintaining structures or practices.

7. Self- mobilisation/Active participation

People participate by taking initiatives to change systems independent of external institutions, although the latter can help with an enabling framework. They retain control over how resources are used. Such self-initiated mobilization and collective action may or may not challenge existing inequitable distribution of wealth and power”.

Adopted from Pimbert and Pretty (1995) typology of participation

2.7.2 Tosun’s Typology of Participation

Pimbert and Pretty (1995) typology of participation is developed in the context of general developmental studies and therefore not related to any particular sector of the economy. To comprehensively evaluate participation in tourism, Tosun’s (1999) typology of participation was adopted to complement Pimbert and Pretty (1995) typology of participation. Tosun’s (1999) typology of participation is designed specifically for tourism. It was developed with considerations that the industry (tourism) uses the community and its natural and cultural resources as a resource, sells it as a product, and in the process affects the lives of everyone. The typology acknowledges that different forms (active, direct, indirect, passive, etc.) of community participation in the Tourism Development Process are appropriate under different circumstances in various tourism destinations which are at different level of development.

Tosun’s model proposed three forms (typologies) of participation in the tourism industry. These are: “spontaneous community participation” an ideal model of community participation that emphasizes provision of complete administrative

responsibility and authority to the host community. Spontaneous participation is considered a bottom-up form of participation, implying that ideas and decisions are made at the grass root level.

The next level is “induced community participation” in which the host community is permitted to hear and be listened to. They have a say in the tourism development process, however they lack power to ensure that their opinions will be taken into account by other powerful stakeholders such as government institutions, multinational corporations, international tour operators, etc. Hence, it appears to denote a level of tokenism. It is top-down, passive and indirect. Host communities might participate in project execution and sharing of benefits, but not in the decision making process.

“Coercive participation” is the next level. It is manipulated and contrived as a substitute for genuine participation. The actual objective is not to empower community participate in the tourism development process, but to facilitate power holders to educate host communities to turn away possible and actual threats to future tourism development. Some conclusions could be arrived at to meet essentials requirements of host-communities by seeking advice from local leaders so as to reduce socio-political risks for tourists and tourism development. Although it appears that tourism development is based upon host communities’ priorities, it is greatly skewed towards the promotion and development of tourism, and would largely be concerned with addressing the needs and desires of decision makers, tourism’s operators and tourists. Induced and coercive participation are both top-down, and can be distinguished mainly by having limited choices (induced) and no control at all (coercive).

2.7.3 The Ecosystem Approach

Since CBTI development aspires to be sustainable, the study further adopted the Ecosystem Approach (EA) theory. The ecosystem approach is a strategy for the integrated management of land, water and living resources that promotes conservation and sustainable use in an equitable way (CBD, 2011). “The Ecosystem Approach is a holistic process for integrating and delivering in a balanced way the three objectives of the Convention on Biological Diversity: conservation and sustainable use of biodiversity and equitable sharing of the benefits” (Shepherd, 2008) . One key feature of the ecosystem approach is that it is a broader method to the traditional system of site protection. It can be applied to the wider environment regardless of the state of protection and can be used at many scales and takes into account human interactions (CBD, 2011).

According to Shepherd (2008) the Ecosystem Approach (EA) stands at the centre of sustainable ecosystem management and enhanced livelihood security for the poor (the poverty reduction agenda of the Sustainable Development Goals).

It also incorporates conservation and development issues, and has the potential to guide these two approaches of viewing the world into a more complementary relationship. The need for a wider approach arises at least in part because of the deficiencies of classical approaches to conserve biodiversity and natural resources as evidenced by the unprecedented rate of species extinction and increasing conflict over natural resource use (Maltby, 2000). It is centred on the application of appropriate scientific methodologies focused on levels of biological organization which include the essential

processes, functions and interactions among organisms and their environment. The ecosystem approach is a method for sustaining or restoring natural systems and their functions and values (Maltby, 2000).

The EA recognizes that ecosystems are not isolated. They overlap, interlock and interact with one another. It (EA) requires the recognition that any particular ecosystem is influenced heavily by surrounding systems and that all land and water is found inside an ecosystem. Human beings are ecosystem components. The EA values the active role of humans in achieving sustainable ecosystem management. The popular version of the idea implies that humans are considered as integral components of ecosystems and that the sustainability of human socio-economics and ecosystems is interwoven. Thus, people and their livelihoods are always considered alongside conservation measures.

2.8 Summary of Literature Review

The foundation of CBTIs was in response to undesirable impacts of mass tourism development models (Murphy, 1985; Smith, 1998). However, the hypothetical principles of community tourism emanated from participatory and empowerment models that appeared in the 1970s (Cornelissen, 2005) . At the early stages of development, most CBTI projects were associated with rural communities and environmental conservation through ecotourism (Blackstock, 2005).

Development of CBTI in Kenya was preceded by changes in Kenya's wildlife management policy (Manyara & Jones, 2007), particularly the ban on sport hunting in 1977 due to poaching, prohibition of the sale of wildlife trophies in 1978 (Elliot &

Young, 2001) and formation of PAs. Though a victory for wildlife conservationists (Elliot & Young, 2001), it was a distress to communities as it led to loss of benefits (employment) (Sindiga, 1999b), and continuous human- wildlife conflict (Sindiga, 1999a). Consequently, wildlife numbers dropped between the 1970s and 1980s due to lack of community involvement (Elliot & Young, 2001). As a result, the government opted for a participatory approach, mainly with an intention to address HWC and intrusion on PAs (Sindiga, 1999a). However, it was realised that success could not be achieved without direct benefits to the local community, making the way for CBTIs (Sindiga, 1999b).

CBTIs were established through external intervention by government agencies (KWS) in collaboration with donor organisation (AWF, USAID) (Sindiga, 1999b; Elliot & Young, 2001) as a strategy to enhance community support for the conservation agenda (Cater, 2006). To facilitate community involvement and benefits KWS established several programmes/departments; Community Wildlife Service department in 1992 (Mbote, 2005), *Park beyond Park* programme, and Community Enterprise Department (KWS, 2013). Government support included; construction of amenities such as schools, hospitals and cattle dips, capacity building and facilitation in setting up tented camps and other tourism undertakings in areas adjacent to PAs. Other stakeholders included investors who entered into partnership with the community and donor NGOs who provided funds.

However, there were/are no structures both at the national and county level to oversee coordination of CBTIs activities and monitor their development. Several tourism and

conservation organisation (Kenya Wildlife Conservancies Association (KWCA), EK, FECTO, and KECOBAT) claim to support CBTIs realise their tourism potential in Kenya, however their activities are limited due to lack of funds and existing structural dependencies. It is therefore questionable as to whether CBTIs have achieved their envisioned objectives to warrant their continual existence in regard to the local community. Manyara & Jones (2007) emphasize the need to continually evaluate whether CBTI objectives are being achieved, and hence the sustainability of tourism development in such initiatives.

Sustainable tourism is tourism that takes full account of its current and future economic, social and environmental impacts, addressing the needs of visitors, the industry, the environment and host communities” (UNWTO, 2010). Sustainable tourism emerged as a result of the negative impacts of mass tourism particularly; corruption of local cultures, environmental degradation and economic leakage, with alternative tourism, mainly ecotourism and community based tourism considered to be more beneficial (Weaver, 2010). Nevertheless, both small-scale and large scale tourism development is legitimate and sustainable under appropriate circumstances (Mowforth & Munt, 2009).

Sustainable tourism development aims to address community welfare, and conservation of their natural and cultural resources. For sustainable tourism development to occur in CBTIs, they must; be economically viable, ecologically sustainable, embrace equitable distribution of costs and benefits among all stakeholders, and a transparent institution, acknowledged by all stakeholders, should be formed to represent the concerns of all community members and to mirror real community ownership (Manyara & Jones,2007;

Kibicho,2008; Rastegar,2010). However, tourism being a multi stakeholder industry, stakeholder's objectives differ. Ensuring that suitable circumstances for sustainability prevail remains a major challenge that could hinder sustainable tourism development.

Community is an entity socially bound by a common identity, living within a defined spatial boundary and having a common economic interest in the resources of that area (Agrawal & Ribot, 1999). On the other hand participation is a process whereby stakeholders, among them local communities play an active role in decision-making, influence and share control over development initiatives and resources which affect them (ODA, 1995; Havel, 1996). Forms (typologies) of participation (Tosun, 2000; Pimbert and Pretty, 1995) contextualizes community participation as an absolute term that permits involvement of a host community in their matters at diverse levels (local, regional or national) and several forms (induced, passive, spontaneous, etc.) under place specific circumstances.

Community participation in tourism development has been observed from three angles: “participation of the host community in the decision-making process” (Chok & Macbeth, 2007; Li, 2005), project execution and in sharing of tourism benefits (Chok & Macbeth, 2007; Li, 2005; Marzuki, Hay, & James, 2012; Nault & Stapleton, 2011; Tosun, 2000; Havel 1996, Zhao & Ritchie, 2007). Further, evaluation of community participation programs considers the quality of the participatory process and the extent to which specific stakeholders have realized their own explicit goals/outcomes in participatory decision making (Beierle & Konisky, 2000).

Tosun (2006) observed that participation in tourism development by different stakeholders varies with differing groups' influence, goals, and prospects from community participation, hence the need to continually evaluate community participation and establish if community aspirations are been achieved.

There exist factors which form hindrances to community participation in the tourism development processes in developing countries (Aref & Marof, 2008). Tosun (2000) identified and classified limitations to community participation in tourism development in developing countries in three categories namely; "Operational limitations, Structural limitations and Cultural limitations". Further, Blackstock (2005) noted that the heterogeneity of communities is a constraint to their participation in tourism development. Communities are comprised of numerous different kinds of people, often with uneven positions and different ambitions. These constraints vary over time depending on types, scale and levels of tourism development, and cultural features of local communities. Tosun (2006) observed that they are an extension of the predominant social, political and economic structure in developing countries, which have hindered them from attaining a higher level of development. The general outcome of such barriers is often the communities' limited eagerness towards the industry resulting in little benefits that trickle down to the local community.

Perception is the way an individual notices or understands something using his /her senses, brains and experiences in life, while attitude is how one reacts to his/her perception (Nunkoo, 2011). Thus, perception leads to attitude which in turn affects human behaviour towards various social, economic and environmental parameters. The

perception of the local community towards tourism development at their locality is determined by the outcomes of tourism development in regard to the social, environmental, and economic impacts (Hall & Lew, 2009; Telfer & Sharpley, 2008). Positive impacts of tourism to the host community lead to positive perceptions towards tourism which enhances sustainability while negative impacts lead to negative perceptions that if not mitigated jeopardize tourism development (Telfer & Sharpley, 2008).

Tourism leads to interaction of people from diverse socio-cultural backgrounds, leading to experience and exchange of cultural practises. Positive socio-cultural impacts to the host community include; protection and transmission of culture and historical customs, revival of traditional festivals, songs, music, dance, arts and crafts (Oketch & Urmilla, 2009; Irandu, 2004; Ondimu, 2000). Additionally, tourism development leads to development of social capital and empowerment (Godwin & Santili, 2009), communal infrastructures like schools, libraries, health care institutions, internet cafes and bursary schemes for needy students (Oketch & Urmilla, 2009; Manyara & Jones, 2007). Nonetheless, tourism is not without negative social-cultural impacts that include; an increase in crime, prostitution and sex tourism, loss of cultural behaviours, dilapidation of sacred sites or rites, negative demonstration effect, commoditization of culture and reconstructed ethnicity (Kibicho, 2000; Hall & Lew, 2009). These negative impacts lead to undesirable perceptions towards tourism development by the local community.

Income generation through employment, leases, payment of dividends, camping concessions, charges to visit manyattas, and business linkages is the key positive

economic impact to host community's in CBTIs (Manyara & Jones ,2007; Agrawal & Redford,2006; Stronza & Gordillo,2008; Kiss, 2004). However, due to foreign proprietorship of tourism enterprises in developing countries, tourism development leads to high economic leakage and also inflation (Akama & Kieti, 2007; Telfer & Sharpley, 2008). Moreover, the seasonal character of jobs in the tourism industry leads to job and income insecurity adversely affecting the local community, and can easily lead to apathy on the community towards tourism development.

Establishment of CBTIs helps in maintaining and expanding the conservation of biodiversity and natural resources that tourism depends on (Kiss, 2004; Cater, 2006; Manyara & Jones, 2007). Establishment of CBTIs has been linked with displacement and restriction to access of natural resources by communities without adequate compensation (Roe & Elliot, 2006) thus negatively impacting on food security and livelihoods of the local community. Construction of tourism facilities common in CBTIs causes destruction of flora and fauna. While waste generated by tourists and tourism facilities pollute the surrounding environment, negatively impacting the local community as well as plants and animals (Oketch & Urmilla, 2009). While study on the impacts of tourism is not new, it continues to be pertinent due to rapid advances and changes in the industry. Further, the relation between tourism and sustainable development is conveyed in the outcomes of tourism and therefore cannot be ignored.

Community perceptions towards the outcomes of tourism development determines the attitudes of the community, and whether the local community will continue embracing CBTIs or will opt for alternative land uses. One key indicator of tourism's suitability is

residents' attitude towards tourism development (Lepp, 2007). Factors that determine host community attitudes towards CBTIs fall into two categories: "motivational factors" and "community factors" (Manyara & Jones, 2007). Motivational factors include personal growth, achievement and advancement while community factors refer to general parameters of community development. Variables that affect local communities' attitude towards tourism development include; enjoyment of benefits derived, type of tourism development, stage of destination life cycle, economic impacts experienced, demographic attributes, distance community members live from tourism site, interaction with tourists and the extent of cultural difference between host community and tourists (Horn & Simmons, 2002; Irandu, 2004; Lepp, 2007; Nicholas, Thapa and Ko, 2009).

Community's response to tourism development at their locality includes; enthusiastically welcoming tourists, apathy, annoyance and aggression (Doxey, 1976), resistance, retreatism, boundary maintenance, revitalization and adoption (Dogan, 1989); and embracement, tolerance, adjustment and withdrawal (Ap & Crompton, 1993). Though, helpful in analysing community's response to tourism development these reactions considered an increasing number of tourists with no analogy of community responses to decreasing number of tourists.

2.9 Gaps in Literature Review

CBT has been emphasized as a tool for augmenting community development, poverty reduction, and culture and biodiversity conservation (Equations, 2008). However, several years after the establishment of CBTIs in Kenya, some have collapsed while

others still exist. It is therefore important to establish whether the remaining ventures are developed to the satisfaction of the landowners or is it a question of time before they collapse.

Tourism is a multi-stakeholder industry, hence stakeholder's objectives differs and are guided by different policies. Ensuring that suitable circumstances for sustainability of CBTI prevail remains a major challenge that could hinder sustainable tourism development in these institutions. Further, there is no literature on how sustainability can be actualised by stakeholders in CBTI development, considering the diversity of their interests.

Evaluations of community involvement in tourism development have focused on participation; in decision-making process" (Chok & Macbeth, 2007; Li, 2005), project execution and in sharing of tourism benefits (Chok & Macbeth, 2007; Li, 2005; Marzuki, Hay, & James, 2012; Nault & Stapleton, 2011; Tosun, 2000; Havel 1996, Zhao & Ritchie, 2007).However, the above studies do not provide details on the roles of the community in relation to other stakeholders in CBTIs and how communities extent of participation impact on sustainability of tourism development on such sites.

Studies on constraints to community participation in tourism development have focused on identifying and classifying such constraints; operational, structural and cultural (Tosun, 2000), centralisation of public management of tourism development by national governments (Akama, Maingi, & Camarco, 2011), lack of appropriate land-use policy (Oketch , 2007), lack of co-ordination amongst stakeholders (Kibicho , 2008)

,inadequate financial resources,lack of skills,low level of education and awareness (Tosun, 2000; Scheyvens, 2000; Manyara *et al*,2007; Kibicho, 2008; Akama,Maingi & Camarco, 2011) at various sites. Nevertheless, there has been little focus on the extent to which such constraints hinder the involvement of the local community in CBTIs.

Studies on impacts of tourism development on host communities have focused on identifying impacts at various sites (Oketch & Urmilla, 2009; Godwin & Santili, 2009; Manyara & Jones, 2007; Kibicho, 2000; Stronza & Gordillo, 2008; Kiss, 2004; Akama & Kieti, 2007; Cater, 2006; Roe & Elliot,2006) without providing information on perceptions of CBTI members to such impacts and on relationship between socio-economic benefits and community involvement in tourism development. Yet such information is critical in evaluating the success of tourism development in CBTIs.

Attitude is a significant predictor of behaviour (Stem, Lassoie, Lee, Deshler, & Schelhas, 2003). Studies on community attitudes towards tourism development (Doxey, 1976; Dogan, 1989; Ap & Crompton, 1993) have put emphasis on community's reaction to development associated with tourism development with no mention of relationship between community attitudes and their involvement in tourism development in CBTIs, despite the importance attached to community participation in tourism development. The study was designed to address the above gaps.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter presents a detailed plan of how the study was conducted. It covers the research design, study area, target population, sampling techniques, sample size, research instruments, pre-testing, validity and reliability, data collection techniques, data analysis, logistical and ethical considerations.

3.1 Research Design

Descriptive research design was utilized to achieve the objectives of the study. Descriptive research involves measurement, classification, analysis and interpretation of data (Kombo & Tromp, 2009). It attempts to describe such things as possible behaviour, attitudes, values and characteristics (Orodho, 2003). It is used to obtain information relating to the prevailing status of a phenomenon and to describe "what exists" with respect to parameters in a situation, it helps provide answers to the questions of who, what, when, where, and how, associated with a specific research problem (Kothari, 2004). The matter is being studied in an unchanged natural environment. Since the research intended to analyse CBTI development based on past and present experience of the land owners this design was considered ideal.

Confidentiality and subjectivity are the primary weaknesses of descriptive research design. These were overcome by requesting the respondents to be truthful, assuring them that the information provided would not be disclosed, and recording all the information provided without biasness. To enhance confidence of the design, mixed method of data collection (questionnaire and interview) was used to allow triangulation.

“Triangulation refers to the use of more than one approach to the investigation of a research question in order to enhance confidence in the ensuing findings” (Mikkelsen, 2005).

3.2 Study Area

The study was conducted in Mwaluganje Elephant Sanctuary (Appendix I), located in Kwale County at the South coast of Kenya. It was chosen because it is among the first CBTI's established and recognized as exhibiting best practice (Manyara & Jones, 2007) hence considered “successful”. The MES community has been participating in CBT for a period of more than 20 years. Thus community members have had sufficient time to notice the effects of tourism development and also recall how life was before the onset of tourism development. It's success/failure was therefore considered instrumental in catalysing CBTI development in Kenya.

3.2.1 Location and Climate

Mwaluganje Elephant Sanctuary stretches from 39° 25' and 39° 30' East and from 4° 03' and 4° 10' South. It is 24.7 km² in size and is part of the Shimba hills ecosystem (appendix 1). The spatial description and extent for the Shimba Hills Ecosystem (259Km²) encompasses Shimba Hills National Reserve (192.5Km²), Mkongani North Forest (11.1Km²), Mkongani West Forest (13.6Km²), Mwaluganje Elephant Sanctuary (24.7Km²) and Mwaluganje Forest (17.15Km²) (Blackett, 1994).

Ecologically MES and SHNR are situated in different settings. The Reserve rests on part of a coastal plateau that rises up to an altitude of 450 m above sea level at a distance of approximately 15 km from the Indian Ocean (Schmidt, 1991) while the

sanctuary lies below the plateau's escarpment on the Northern side. Due to its location on the leeward side of the plateau, the sanctuary receives relatively lower amount of rain than the reserve (Davis & Bennum, 1993). The sanctuary receives an average annual rainfall range of 450- 800mm (MES, 2012) while for Shimba it ranges between 900mm-1200mm (KWS, 2012). According to Davis and Bennum (1993) Kwale experiences a monsoon type of climate; it's hot and dry from January to April while June to August is the coolest period of the year. Rainfall comes in two seasons; short rains are experienced from October to December while the long rains run from March-June/July.

3.2.2 Topography, Vegetation and Wildlife

The southern half of sanctuary is characterized by cliffs, rolling forested hills and bushland with baobab trees (*Adansonia digitata*) all ideal for wildlife. To the northern is Mwaluganje Forest Reserve characterized by a montage of evergreen dry lowland forest cover. River Manolo flows from the south to the North of the Sanctuary creating a bush riverine forest along it. The African elephant (*Loxodonta africana*) is the dominant large mammal species. According to a 2012 aerial elephant count by KWS, out of the approximately 400 elephants in the ecosystem, 160 individual's i.e. 40% were in MES. Other animal species found in the sanctuary include buffalo, impala, warthog and a variety of birdlife, reptiles and invertebrates (KWS, 2013).

Apart from the rich biological importance, MES has a sacred grove "Kitsanze falls" and a small patch of a sacred indigenous forest (popularly referred to as *Kaya Mtae*) that holds high cultural importance to the native Duruma people. The Duruma people

traditionally utilized this forest together with others within the coast region for religious and spiritual rituals (Blackett, 1994). Despite the cessation of its use following formation of the sanctuary, the sacred value associated with it has contributed to its historical preservation and continues to endow forest values to the local community (Kahumbu, 2000). Moreover; it still retains the historical significance as a sacred place where locals can identify with the Mijikenda ancestry. Currently, this Kaya is part of the attractive sceneries forming a base for the sanctuary's tourism enterprise.

3.2.3 Administrative Units and Livelihoods

MES is bordered by four sub-locations¹, namely Dumbule, Kibandaongo, Gandini and Golini, all characterized by settled agriculture. Kwale County has a population of 649,931, density 79 people per km² and poverty rate at 74.9% (KNBS, 2009). Golini sub-location has a high agricultural potential and better infrastructural development. The main subsistence crops cultivated include cassava, maize, coconut, cashew nuts, bananas, peas, pawpaw, oranges, vegetables for subsistence and trade. Use of agricultural inputs is low. Dumbule, Kibandaongo and Gandini are rangelands and have less potential agriculturally but have the potential for ranching and general livestock husbandry (Kwale District Development Plan, 2002)

3.2.4 Formation of MES

The formation of MES commenced in 1991 when KWS, the government agency in charge of conserving and managing wildlife resources in Kenya, proposed to the Kwale County Council that the land between the Mwaluganje Forest Reserve and the Shimba

¹ The second lowest administrative unit in the Kenya government system

Hills National Reserve be declared a conservation area (Kiiru, 1995). The move was prompted by increased cultivation along Manolo River valley, resulting in intense human-elephant conflict (HEC) as elephants moved between the two forests. Cultivation on the Godoni Cliff (east of Manolo river) also posed an environmental problem due to severe soil erosion and silting of the Pemba River. The issue of declaring Golini -Mwaluganje a conservation area was however, complicated by the existing land tenure arrangements in the valley. While Mwaluganje area (west of Manolo River) was under the custody of Kwale County Council, Godoni (east of Manolo River) had been adjudicated and individual title deeds issued (Kiiru, 1995).

In the late 1980s and early 1990s, the Kenya Wildlife Service together with a few European settlers and wealthy local people settled on the Godoni cliff started a process aimed at persuading members of the local community to avail their land for conservation. Recognising that human-elephant conflict was a major problem in the area, Eden wildlife Trust, a local non-governmental conservation organization, provided funds for installation of a 4 km electric fence in Mwaluganje area. The local landowners between the river and the proposed fence line were offered building materials and requested to seek alternative land for settlement. Farmers at the Godoni cliff had other land in Golini area, hence the relocation process did not affect them (Kiiru, 1995).

MES was eventually formed in 1993 after consecutive meetings between KWS, landowners in the proposed corridor, local administrators, politicians and the Coast Development Authority. The objectives of the project were to mitigate serious human-elephant conflict in the area, generate benefits to the landowners through tourism

development and maintain the Sanctuary as a biodiversity conservation area, no other land use was allowed in the sanctuary except tourism activities (MES, 1994). The Kwale County Council initiated land adjudication process in Mwaluganje area to issue title deeds to the landowners. Following the adjudication, MES comprised of two main adjudication sections; Golini adjudication section with 107 landowners and Mwaluganje adjudication section with 175 landowners all occupying approx. 7000 acres. Golini section is predominantly inhabited by Digo while Mwaluganje is predominantly occupied by the Duruma ethnic groups.

MES was registered as a limited company in 1994 under the name; Golini- Mwaluganje Community Conservation Ltd and adopted the name Mwaluganje Elephant Sanctuary as the trade name. In the company Memorandum of Association members were required to give legal right of vacant possession of their parcel of land to the company, and that they would not dispose off the parcel of land without express and written consent of the company (MES, 1994). An acre or part thereof constitutes a single share. Due to difficulties in securing funding as many organisations were unwilling to fund limited companies, MES initiated a process of registering as a Community Based Organisation (CBO) in 2013.

3.3 Target Population

The study targeted all (264) landowners who ceded their land to establish MES, while the elected directors 18, 5 Ex-officials KWS (Area Warden), KFS (Zonal Manager), Eden Wildlife trust (Company Secretary), County Council of Kwale and Town Council of Kwale, and 19 staff were key informants (Table 3.1)

Table 3.1: Target Population

Land owners	Number
MES landowners	264
Key informants	
Elected directors	18
Ex-officio directors	5
MES staff	19

Source; (MES, 2012)

These were the main stakeholders in MES. Their opinions, decisions and actions were considered the most important in evaluating tourism development in MES.

3.4 Sampling Technique

Stratified random sampling was used to get the required sample size for landowners. The objective of stratified random sampling is to get the desired representation from different subgroups in the population (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2012). In this technique the population is divided into two or more groups using a given criteria, then the desired number of respondents is randomly selected from each subgroup. The advantages of stratified random sampling is that the achieved sample represents not only the overall population but also key subgroups, further it has more statistical precision than simple random sampling, however if not carefully stratified, bias can occur resulting in some groups of the population being unrepresented (Kombo & Tromp, 2009).

MES is divided into two settlement sections; Golini adjudication section and Mwaluganje A/B adjudication section (MES, 2012). These sections formed the subgroups. Every member in each subgroup was given a number. The numbers were placed in a container and picked randomly. Members corresponding to the numbers picked were included in the sample. Picking numbers continued until the required sample size was achieved. Thus, no bias was noted during the sampling.

This technique was ideal for the study because it gave each member a chance to have his/her views and concerns captured. According to the MES articles of association all members have equal rights and a single vote irrespective of the size of land owned. One of the disadvantages of the technique is that some of the members selected may have moved to other areas (Kombo & Tromp, 2009) however during the study none of the members had moved.

Owing to their small numbers the entire population of the key informants was used for the study. Thus a census was used. A census can be used when the entire population is small and easily accessible (Kombo & Tromp, 2009). Details and contacts of former and current elected directors were obtained from the MES office, with assistance from the office staff. Similarly, contacts of ex-officio directors and staff were obtained from the MES office. The directors and staff were chosen because of their past and present involvement in tourism development in the community hence deemed to have in-depth information about MES and CBTI development.

The directors are elected by landowners based on their experience in management and CBTI issues while staffs are recruited based on qualifications and experience with

regard to CBTIs. Ex-officio directors are directors by virtue of the mandate of their institutions in CBTI development. The use of former and current elected directors ensured that the views captured were representative of those of the entire MES community since they were elected leaders.

3.5 Sample Size

The sample size of the land owners was achieved using the formula below, which is ideal for small populations (Kothari, 2004)

$$n = \frac{N Z^2 pq}{(E^2(N - 1) + Z^2 pq)}$$

Where; N Population size 264, z (confidence level) 1.96, E (+ - error) = 0.05, p = 0.5, q = 0.5, n = 157. This was be divided by the ratio of 99:165 (table 3.2). All the key informants were used in the study (table 3.3).

Table 3.2: Sample Size

Land owners	Number
Golini	59
Mwaluganje	98
Total	157

Table 3.3: Key informants

Category	Number
Elected directors	18
Ex- Officio	5
Staff	19

3.6 Research instruments

Questionnaires and oral interviews were used to collect primary data, while secondary data was collected from office documents (minutes of meetings, financial records, lease agreements), books, internet and journals. The questionnaire had both structured and unstructured questions, while the interview schedule had unstructured questions. The use of both categories of questions in the questionnaire allowed for collection of in-depth information (Kombo & Tromp, 2009). The survey items were developed to capture information based on the objectives of the study.

3.6.1 Questionnaire

The questionnaire (Appendix IV) which was used for the landowners consisted of three parts. First, background information on demographic characteristics of the respondents such as gender, age, section, level of education and source of livelihood were asked. The second part was based on objectives of the study which had statements on extent of community participation in tourism development, constraints to community participation in tourism development and community attitudes, towards socio-economic and environmental impacts of tourism development.

Except for the statement on whether respondents were involved in development of MES where they were expected to respond either “yes” or “no”, matrix sets of statements based on a Likert classification of 1=strongly agree, 2=agree; 3=neither agree nor disagree; 4=disagree; 5=strongly disagree were used. Respondents were supposed to state the response corresponding to their answer. Mean (M) values of the Likert scale closer to 1 represented high level of agreement to the statement under consideration. Comments made by respondents to reinforce response were noted.

The third part consisted of two unstructured questions which aimed at gaining more details in regard to the respondents’ attitudes, and recommendations on the way forward for tourism development in MES.

3.6.2 Interview schedule

Two interview schedules having unstructured questions based on the objectives of the study were used to collect data from the key informants. The first interview schedule (Appendix V) was used for the elected directors and staff, while the second interview schedule (Appendix VI) was for the ex-officio. Because of the open nature of unstructured questions, probing was used to get deeper information. Interviews were carried out after completion of the questionnaire. The interviews aided in getting a better understanding of the tourism development processes in MES. Emphasis was put on community participation and attitude towards tourism development. Further, the interviews helped in getting an overview of tourism impacts. The outcome of the interview was used to strengthen results from the questionnaire, and to evaluate ways of local community participation.

3.7 Pre- Testing

The questionnaires were pre-tested to increase validity and reliability. A pre-test sample of 3 % (8) of the landowners randomly selected (3 Golini, 5 Mwaluganje), 10% (2) of staff (randomly selected), 11% (2) of elected directors (randomly selected) and (1) ex officio (randomly selected) was used in the pre-test. According to Mugenda and Mugenda (2012) the pre-test sample should be between 1% and 10% of the sample size. The pretesting, tested for question variation, meaning, task difficulty, respondent interest/attention and time taken. The respondents were also requested to give comments and suggestions about the clarity of the instruments. Their suggestions and comments were incorporated in the questionnaire and interview schedule. Pre-testing is useful in identifying new issues of importance to the respondents and to find out how much time administering the questionnaire will take, thus helping to plan the field trips (Fowler, 2002) .

3.8 Validity and Reliability

Validity is the degree to which results obtained from the analysis of the data actually represents the phenomenon under study; it has to do with how accurately the data obtained in the study represents the variables of the study (Kothari, 2004). Validity of the instrument was ensured by discussing the items in the instrument with the supervisors, resident scientist, community warden and tourism warden. Their advice included suggestions, clarifications and inputs in the order of the questions. These suggestions were used in making necessary changes to the instrument. Cronbach' alpha reliability test was used to test the reliability of instrument. The questionnaire gave a

reliability coefficient of 0.802 which implied that the instrument was reliable. A reliability coefficient of between 0.7 and 0.9 is considered reliable (Cronbach, 1951).

3.9 Data Collection Technique

The researcher got clearance from the Chairman board of directors MES to carry out the research in the Sanctuary. A research permit (Appendix II), was sought and acquired from the National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation before commencement of the research. The researcher also informed the County administration through County commissioner, County director of education, chief, sub-chief, and the village elders in order to elicit their support.

The researcher trained two research assistants (undergraduate interns) and two translators who assisted in administering the questionnaires. Since the area covered was big the research team was divided into two groups of two/three persons. Each team collected data by moving from one household to another and administering the questionnaire. Each group had a team leader for coordination of the activity and or a translator who assisted in translation when necessary and in locating the households of the respondents. Upon arrival to a household the translator introduced the team members and welcomed the team leader to start administering the questionnaire.

Data collection started in Godoni, Ziواني, Kitsanze, Blackhall and Golini villages of Golini sub-location (majority of Golini adjudication section members settled in Golini sub-location). It took 6 days to administer the questionnaire in Golini. Data was collected in the morning and late in the afternoon. It was suspended at mid-day to allow the respondents go to mosques for midday prayers (majority were Muslims). Messages

regarding the research were left for respondents not found in their households and their contacts taken. They were requested to avail themselves at Ziwani primary School together with those who resided far from the Sanctuary. In Mwaluganje section, data was collected in Kindogweni villages of Dumbule sub-location, Nzovuni and Kidongweni villages of Kibandaongo sub-location and Kidudumo villages of Gandini sub-location. Data collection in Mwaluganje took 10 days. Respondents not found in the households and those staying far were requested to meet the research team at Ng'onzini primary school for administration of the questionnaire.

Interviews were conducted by the researcher through visiting individual former and current elected directors in their residences, offices and business. Ex-officio and staffs were interviewed at their respective work stations. The respondents were notified before commencement of the interview through a phone call. During the visits, the researcher was accompanied by a staff of MES who introduced him to the respondents. A letter of introduction (Appendix III) of the researcher was given to the respondents during the visits. Though observation was not an official method of data collection in this study, three field visits were made to the sanctuary to record basic information (e.g. sighting of wildlife, status of the road, activities at the tented camp) regarding tourism infrastructure and activities. Minor references to observations made are included.

3.10 Data Analysis

The completed questionnaires were coded and analysed to provide frequencies, percentages, means and standard deviation. In presenting the quantitative data, two approaches were used: the use of frequencies and percentages (indices of response

patterns) and the use of means and standard deviations - indices of central tendency. While means and standard deviations have useful statistical properties and are simple yet powerful measures, frequencies and percentages simplify and improve communicability of the data results (Rogelberg, 2004). The two approaches were used independently or in combination based on the nature of the objective and the main point to be emphasized.

Frequencies and percentages were used in describing parameters under the back ground information. Means and standard deviations were used in analysing the extent of community participation in various roles in tourism development, constraints to community participation and in determining the community's attitudes towards socio-economic and environmental impacts of tourism development.

A Chi- Square test was used to establish the extent to which the local community was involved in tourism development and the extent to which constraints to participation were hindering community participation in tourism development. Linear regression was used to establish whether a relationship exists between perception to socio-economic benefits and involvement/participation in tourism development and also whether relationship exists between local community attitudes and their involvement in tourism development.

Qualitative data from open ended questions and interviews were coded into sets of categories based on identified commonalities. Thus, repeated themes were recorded and grouped together. Two approaches were used to present the qualitative data: rephrasing

while remaining truthful to the original meaning as expressed by the respondent; and choosing demonstrative quotes that have been used in a particular perspective.

3.11 Logistical and Ethical Considerations

Funds (based on the budget, Appendix IX) and other resources (stationery, training of assistants, transport) were sourced in advance to ensure that the program activity (Appendix VIII) was adhered to. A research permit was acquired before commencement of the research. The principles of informed consent, voluntary participation, and confidentiality were maintained throughout the research activity. Respondents were assured that they would suffer no adverse consequences as a result of participating in the research.

CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

This Chapter presents findings and discussion based on responses from the questionnaires and interviews that were administered to the respondents and information from office records, internet, published articles and literature to support the results. First, the chapter presents details on the background information of respondents. It then presents the findings and discussions based on the specific objectives of the research which include: (i) to establish the level of the local community participation in tourism development, (ii) to investigate constraints to community participation in tourism development, (iii) to determine the community's attitudes, towards socio-economic and environmental impacts of tourism development in Mwaluganje Elephant Sanctuary.

4.2 Response Rate

The study had a sample size of 157 landowners of who 130 (50 Golini and 80 Mwaluganje responded, thus a response rate of 83% which was considered sufficient. A 60% response threshold is accepted, however the higher the response rate the better the study (Groves & Peytcheva, 2008).

4.2 Background Information of Respondents

Background information of the respondents such as gender, age, level of education, and livelihoods were established. These parameters formed the basis under which the study rightly judged the respondents' responses. They thus, served as control variables in the

analysis. Further, since the study design sought to investigate the variables of the study without manipulating any of them or tampering with them in an attempt to understand, describe and explain well the objectives of the study it was necessary to first analyse these background characteristics.

4.2.1 Gender

The respondents' gender was recorded. This was deemed important because men and women experience tourism development in different ways since they have differing needs, roles and responsibilities within the community. Such roles affect their involvement in tourism development. The analysis is as shown in Figure 4.1.

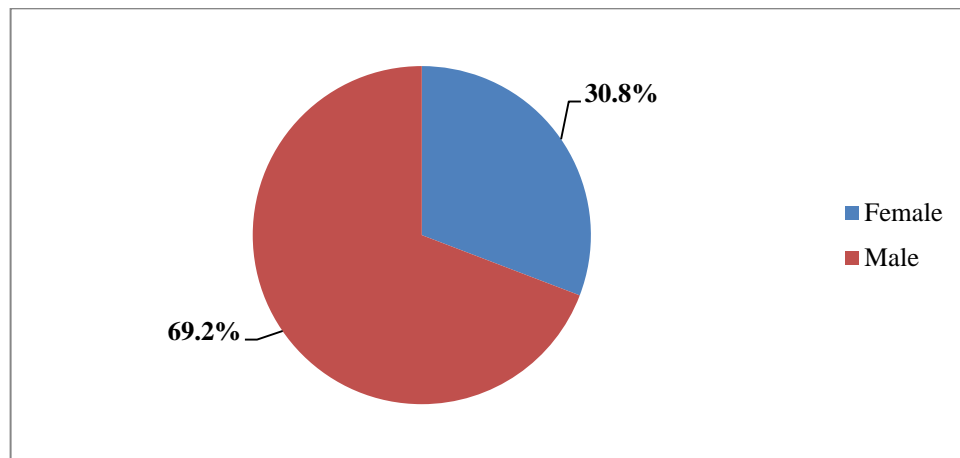


Figure 4.1 Gender of respondents (Landowners)

From figure 4.1, out the total number of respondents (130), 69.2% were male while 30.8%. More males were involved in tourism development than females. Generally, according to the Mijikenda culture (both Digos and Durumas are Mijikenda) women do not own land, except under special circumstances. These findings reaffirm the culture and tradition of the Digos and Durumas that men primarily own family land. The

findings indicate that in communities where CBTI development is hinged on landownership fewer women than men are likely to participate.

4.2.2 Age Distribution

The respondents were asked about their age. This was important because community participation in development in many rural societies is an aspect that has been left to the older generation while the young have moved to urban areas in search of employment and better business opportunities. Determination of the age distribution of respondents helps in establishing major age groups involved in decision making. Involvement of the youth and young men/women in project planning and implementation ensures continuity of such projects. Failure to involve them may lead to change in land use when the older generation is gone. The results are illustrated in figure 4.2.

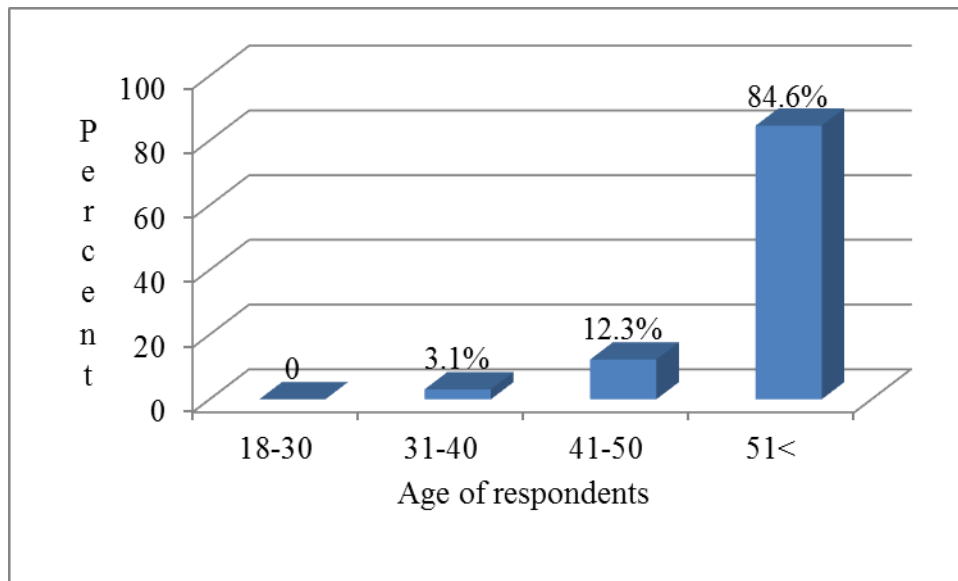


Figure 4.2: Age distribution of the respondents

From Figure 4.2, majority of the respondents 84.6% were aged 51 and above, while none was aged between 18-30 years. The results indicated that young people were not involved in the Sanctuary development. This concurs with land ownership arrangements in rural areas where the young don't legally own land when their parents are still alive and therefore would not get involved in CBTI's whose membership is based on landownership. The findings concur with that of Mutuku (2011) who noted that despite their numbers, young people have been marginalized and excluded from the formulation, implementation, and evaluation of socioeconomic initiatives in Kenya.

4.2.3 Respondents' Education Level

Community's level of education influences their participation in tourism development and thus affects sustainability of CBTIs. A community with a high level of education embraces new ways of doing things easily and has more opportunities for participation in development projects. Chances of success in community projects are high when the literacy level of the community members is high. Respondents' level of education is presented in Figure 4.3.

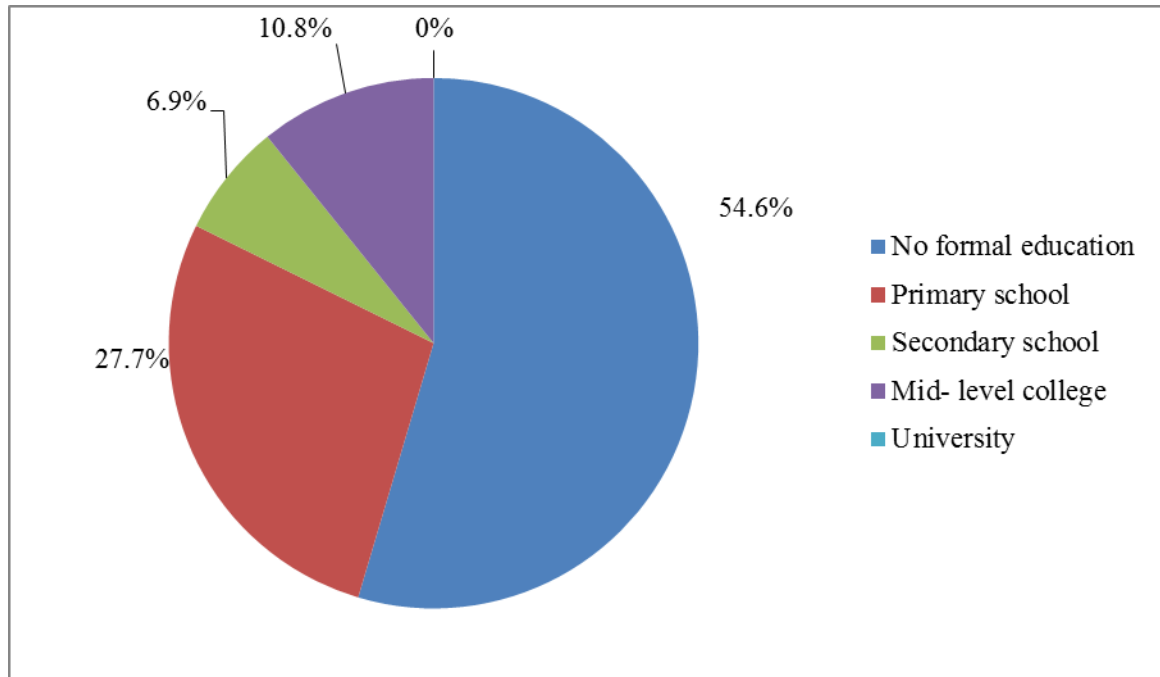


Figure 4.3 Level of education of respondents

From the results, 54.6% of the respondents had no formal education, while 27.7% had primary level of education; the rest had secondary education level and mid-level college education. The results depict a community that is not formally well educated and likely to face challenges in making informed decisions on matters relating to tourism development. Further, other stakeholders could take advantage of the local community's low level of education.

4.2.4 Respondents Livelihoods

Respondents were asked their main source of livelihood. This was considered important because some forms of livelihoods depend on the same natural resources which influence the quality and quantity of tourism attractions in CBTIs. Natural resources are not infinite; they get depleted overtime due to over utilization and changes in climatic conditions. Such depletions negatively affect tourism products offered by conservation

based CBTIs. It is therefore important to monitor livelihoods adjacent CBTI projects with the intention of improving their compatibility with tourism development and providing alternatives for the local communities. The findings indicated that 52.3% of the landowners practiced mixed farming (subsistence farming and keeping of livestock) as their means of livelihood and 32.3% crop farming (Fig 4.4) with the main crop been maize inter-planted with bananas, cassava and cowpeas. Only 9% depended solely on employment, 4.6 % business (but not with MES) and a mere 1.5% practiced livestock farming only. Respondents mentioned during the dry season (January –April) their livestock illegally graze in MES, reducing the attractiveness of the site. While during the rainy season their farms experience increased HWC, sometimes leading to loss of both wildlife and humans.

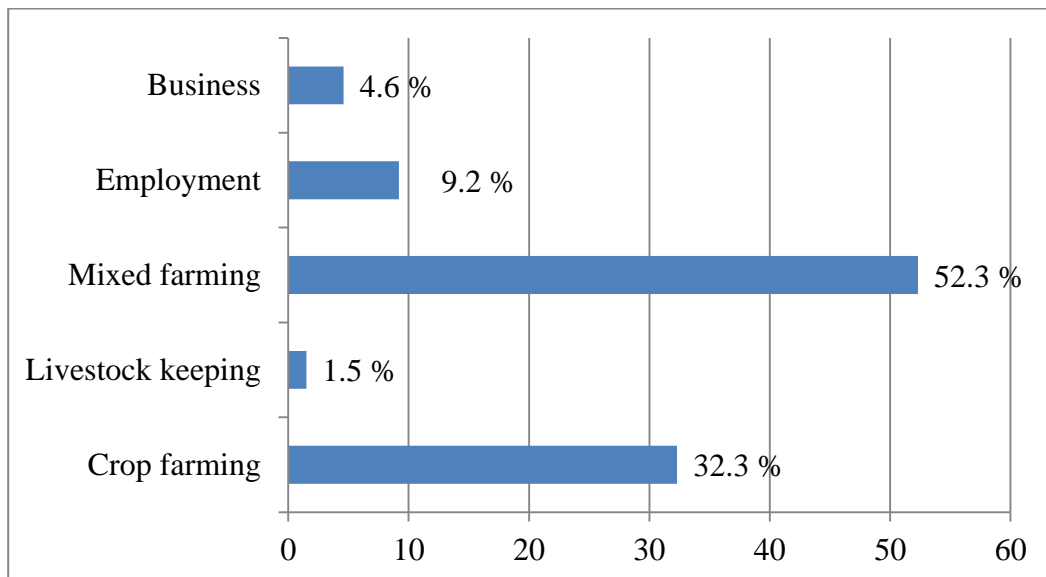


Figure 4.4: Livelihoods of the respondents

Background information of respondents forms the basis for sustainability of CBTIs. Most of the respondents, 69.2% were males. This reflected a socio-cultural structure characterized by male domination in the socio-economic (particularly land ownership) and political life of the community. Men are therefore more likely to enjoy the benefits of CBT as compared to women.

Majority, 84.6% of the respondents were old (above 50), implying that the youth were excluded from tourism development issues. This could negatively affect sustainability of MES because the youth were not involved and may opt for a different land use when the older generation is no more. According to Garcia and Fares (2008) youth in Africa though vibrant, energetic and economically productive, have little to no power or say on issues of importance to them or their families. Youth in Africa are facing socioeconomic and political exclusion; current economic world structures combined with Africa's meagre economies have only served to alienate young people further (World Bank, 2009). Since young people have the most potential, physical strength, and energy, and they constitute the largest proportion of the educated population, it is only appropriate that for sustainability, they be included in tourism development programs.

Most of respondents, 82.3% were not formally well educated, which could hinder sustainability of tourism development in CBTIs. When a community is well educated they seek new ways to address challenges. According to Mayaka & Akama (2008) education and training have at the very least had an important role to play in the achievement of sustainable tourism and sustainable development. Additionally, the growth of a country's human resource is essential in realising a comparative advantage

in the tourism industry. With changing trends in the tourism industry, formal education and continuous capacity building will be crucial for sustainable development in CBTI.

As expected majority of the respondents, 86.1% were tied to agriculture and livestock keeping with a small percentage engaged in formal employment and business. This was in line with many rural community settings which rely on subsistence agriculture and livestock keeping. Hence, tourism can be used as a tool to create employment in rural marginalized societies. However, this nature based livelihood should be practised with a lot of caution as the results indicated the community encroached into MES and other parts of the ecosystem which could lead to disruption of various ecological systems.

4.3 Establishing the Extent of Local Community Participation in Tourism Development

Community participation links tourism development to the community, ensures that local community benefit from tourism development thereby creating a sense of ownership and enhancing sustainability. To establish the level of community participation in tourism development, respondents were asked if they were involved in tourism development. Their various roles in tourism development were then interrogated. This was done using seven specific statements based of whether they were involved at inception, in decision making, in benefit sharing, in conservation of natural and cultural resources, were ambassadors of MES in promoting it, reported unsustainable practices in MES to the conservation agency and were involved in implementing various activities in MES .

In response to a question on whether respondents were involved in development of MES, 95.4% (N=130), (table 4.1) indicated that they were involved, while 4.6% respondent to the contrary. This implied that the respondents and stakeholders in MES understand the importance of community participation in CBT development.

Table 4.1: Community involvement in the development of MES

Involvement	Frequency	Per cent
Yes	124	95.4
No	6	4.6
Total	130	100.00

The respondents (landowners) indicated that they actively participated during annual general meetings and special general meetings, and were also free to visit the MES office to discuss matters they felt were of concern to the community. Those who said they “were not involved” indicated that the directors and staff were there to do every thing, and what they required was “*good money*” at the end of the year.

Level of community participation is determined by the various roles played by local community in tourism development at a particular site. Respondents were asked whether they were “actively involved at inception” of MES. This was important because “active involvement at inception” helps win support of the community at an early stage, identify major concerns and plan for mitigation measures of any anticipated negative impacts. From the result (Appendix VII) 26.9% and 73.1% of the respondents

“strongly agreed” and “agreed” respectively to have been actively involved at inception. The same variable “actively involved at the inception” had $M = 1.73$ (second closest to 1), $SD = 0.445$ (table 4.2), indicating that the community members were extensively involved at inception of MES. Respondents indicated that during inception they attended very many meetings called by the conservation agency in conjunction with a local conservation NGO.

Table 4.2 Respondents roles in tourism development.

Roles in tourism development	N	Mean		Std. Deviation
	Stat	Stat	Std. Error	Stat
1. I was actively involved at the inception of MES	130	1.73	0.039	0.445
2. I am involved in decision making in MES	130	1.89	0.027	0.311
3. I am involved in benefit sharing in MES	130	1.40	0.032	0.301
4. I am actively involved in conservation of the natural and cultural resources in MES	130	3.80	0.084	0.954
5. I report unsustainable practices within MES to the conservation agency.	130	3.64	0.087	0.997
6. I am an ambassador of MES in promoting it	130	3.74	0.063	0.721
7. I am involved in implementation of various projects in MES	130	4.24	0.054	0.491

During such meetings members had to give consent for their land to be utilized for the project, modalities of establishing the Sanctuary were agreed, various community committees were formed to ensure community interests especially on matters relating to landownership, fence construction and tourism development were adequately addressed.

Similar, results were observed by Manyara and Jones (2007); Akama, Maingi, & Camarco, (2011) who noted that though external intervention was key in the mobilization process of CBTI formation, local communities were extensively involved at inception to ensure wide acceptance of these projects. Some three (3) community members who were not living on their land at the time of inception mentioned that they joined MES because the rest of their neighbours had joined, and they could not continue to live in the area because of high incidences of Human Elephant Conflict.

For tourism development to be sustainable the host community should be involved in making decision regarding the nature of projects to be undertaken. Respondents were asked if they were involved in decision making. This was important because projects should not be imposed on the community, and secondly communities have valuable information that can contribute towards the success of tourism. Proponents of tourism development should seek to tap on this local knowledge. 89.2% of the respondents agreed (Appendix VII) that they were involved in decision making. This variable “involved in decision making” had $M= 1.89$ (third closest to 1), $SD=0.311$, implying that the community was involved in decision making regarding tourism development in MES. Respondents mentioned that the directors consulted them when evaluating performance of the investor in regard to number of visitors and road maintenance, when seeking for another investor, on matters relating to HWC, fence management, staff recruitment, and annual compensation payment among others. These findings concur with those of Muganda, Mgonja, & Backman (2013) who established that communities want their views and opinion considered when decisions on tourism development in their localities are made.

The results indicated that the mean of variable “involvement at inception” was closer to “1” than that of variable “involvement at decision making” denoting a higher level of participation at inception that wanes over time as engagement gets costly. This showed that participation varied among various parameters within the community over time. Proponents of CBT should therefore monitor participation and encourage communities to take initiatives to participate in projects in their locality.

One of the expected outputs of local community participation in tourism development is benefits sharing. It was therefore important to establish whether community benefited from tourism development. This was important because, one; sustainability of CBTIs depends on communities having tangible benefits from tourism development, and two communities incur costs in tourism development, therefore they must also benefit from it. The variable “involvement in benefit sharing” had $M=1.40$, $SD=0.301$ (M closest to 1). Majority (84.6%) of respondents “strongly agreed” while the remaining 15.4 % “agreed” that they benefitted from tourism development.

The benefits derived included annual compensation, employment, construction of schools and dispensaries, improved water supply and provision of bursary to needy students. Similar results were observed by Kibicho (2008) in Kimana wildlife Sanctuary, and by Manyara & Jones (2007) in various CBTI in Kenya. High level of participation in benefits sharing was attributed to the tangible nature of the benefits (especially the annual compensation) and minimal cost of accessing such benefits (once amount for compensation is declared, individuals walk into the office to collect their dues). However, findings that community benefited from tourism development must be

approached with caution as such benefits could be below expectations of the community.

Tourism depends on natural and cultural resources. Respondents' were asked if they were involved in conservation of natural and their cultural resources. This was necessary because conservation of natural and cultural resources at a tourism site ensures that tourism products offered are of high quality. Moreover, these resources benefit both tourists and host communities, and are part of the resources of the community. Involvement of local community in their conservation guarantees their sustainability and that of the tourism development they support. The variable "involved in conservation of natural and cultural resources" had $M= 3.80$, $SD=0.954$ which corresponded to "disagree" on the Likert scale. Of the respondents, 58.5% indicated that they were not involved (disagree and strongly disagree) in any way in conservation activities, 31.5% mentioned that they had only attended some public *barazas* where conservation issues were discussed while 10% neither agreed nor disagreed to having participated in conservation of natural and cultural resources. Thus majority of the respondents were not involved.

The findings concur with those of Kibicho (2008) who noted that the local community in Kimana dreaded the unfair competition for resources in favour of wildlife conservation at the expense of their local community development. Similarly, Oketch and Urmilla (2009) observed that communities around the Mara and Amboseli were not satisfactorily involved in conservation activities despite being affected by HWC and continual environmental degradation. Respondents argued that conservation was a duty

of the conservation agency and NGOs. Their major concern was community livelihoods.

Unsustainable practises of conservation and failure to promote CBTIs by local communities derail tourism development. Respondents were asked if they reported unsustainable practises observed in MES to the conservation agency and if they were ambassadors of MES in promoting it. Reporting of unsustainable practises to conservation agencies and promotion of CBTI by local community are indications of “ownership” and satisfaction to the tourism development taking place. These variables “report unsustainable practices to the conservation agency”, and “local landowners were ambassadors of MES in promoting it” had ($M = 3.64$, $SD=0.997$) and ($M=3.74$, $SD=0.721$) respectively, all corresponding to “disagree”. Majority of respondents neither reported unsustainable practices (disagree and strongly disagree 72.3%) to the conservation agency, nor promoted the Sanctuary as a tourist site (disagree and strongly disagree 80.8%).

Respondents who did not report unsustainable practises (72.3%) indicated that they occasionally benefited from collecting a few resources (e.g. poles, firewood, fish, and herbs) from the Sanctuary, and therefore reporting such activities would make it difficult to access them. On promoting MES respondents indicated that they lacked capacity, furthermore it was a duty of the management.

Ideally, participation should be active not passive. The respondents were asked if they were involved in implementation of various activities in MES. In response, variable “involvement in implementation of various activities” had $M=4.24$, $SD=0.491$ (score

furthest from 1) meaning that respondents were not involved (disagree and strongly disagree 93.9%) in implementation of various activities in MES. None involvement in implementation of various activities was attributed to few activities in the sanctuary which could be handled by employees. Respondents were contented with implementation being carried out by employees. Past experience had shown that implementation of activities through various community committees led to conflicts.

This was best expressed by one respondent who reported that *“initially when there were many committees from the community handling implementation of various projects e.g. fence clearing, road maintenance and compensation payment, there were very many conflicts amongst community members due to corruption and embezzlement of funds, but now that all matters are handled by the manager’s office in conjunction with the board these conflicts are no more”*. Fear of conflicts within the local community discouraged community members from participating in implementing various projects unless they were contracted to carry out such projects.

Interviews with the elected directors and staff indicated that apart from the annual general meeting (AGM) during which members were informed on the performance of the sanctuary, and discussions on future plans made, “special general meetings” were held whenever need arose to discuss upcoming issues, projects and for education. At least one “special general meeting” was held every year. Landowners were free to raise any burning issue with both the MES and Senior Wardens offices.

It was established that some five households in Golini adjudication section owning 23 acres of land refused to be members of MES though their land was in the sanctuary.

They were unwilling to embrace the new form of land use, and preferred to continue cultivating on their land as they feared that benefits from the project would be minimal and of less value than what they were getting from their farms. By the time of data collection they had not yet joined MES.

On decision making, interviews revealed that directors (both elected and Ex-officio, who constitute the board) were the key decisions makers. However they consulted the local community before implementing major decisions. One director was quoted; *“when we found it necessary to get another investor, we called a special AGM to discuss the matter with the community, after approval in conjunction with KWS we identified the suitable sites and advertised the expression of interest”*. Probed on whether the community had confidence in their leadership and management structure the directors replied to the affirmation, and added that *“both Golini and Mwaluganje villages are equally represented (3 directors each) in the board, if the landowners were unhappy with any of us they would vote him/her out when their term expires, and remain an ordinary member. Further, the ex-officials were in the board to ensure that decisions made are in line with the policy*. It was established that all landowners’ benefitted from the annual compensation, very few landowners/siblings were employed, while elected directors benefitted from allowances received from attending management and board meetings.

After identifying the various roles of the local community, it was necessary to answer research question one; to what extent was the local community involved in development of MES as a tourism site? A Chi-square test was utilized: using “involvement” as the

row values and the “role of local community” as the column values. In table 4.3, X^2 represent the Chi value, V (Cramer’s V) is a measure of association between the “row variable” and “column variable”; values close to 1 indicate strong positive associations, P represents the significance levels (P value less than 0.05 indicate significant associations).

The results indicated that the local community was involved at the inception of MES ($V=0.406$, $P=0.000$), decision making ($V=0.571$, $P=0.000$) and benefit sharing ($V=0.421$, $P=0.00$) to a moderate extent. While they were involved in conservation of natural and cultural resources ($V=0.163$, $P=0.026$) and day implementation of various activities ($V=0.160$, $P=0.038$) to a minimal extent. The extent of local community involvement in these four areas was statistically significant because the ‘ P ’ values were below the conventional cut off points of 0.05 hence generalizable to the population.

Table 4.3: CHI- Square Test results on the extent of community participation.

Variable	X^2	df	V	P
1. Actively involved at the inception of MES	21.473	3	.406	.000
2. Involved in decision making	42.385	3	.571	.000
3. Involved in benefit sharing	20.237	3	.421	.000
4. Involved in the conservation of natural and cultural resources in MES	2.317	1	.163	.026
5. Actively involved in implementation of various activities in MES	3.333	1	.160	.038
6. Involved in promoting MES	3.438	3	.134	.329
Involved in reporting unsustainable practices within MES to the conservation agency	.666	2	.072	.717

The other variables; involvement in promoting MES and involvement in reporting unsustainable practices to the conservation agency yielded low positive associations with $P > 0.05$. These associations were not statistically significant. The local communities were therefore involved in tourism development in MES from a low to moderate extent ($0.160=V=0.571$, $0.000=P=0.038$)

This section focused on community participation in tourism development. The findings showed that majority (95.4%) of the respondents were involved in development of MES. Few (4.6%) who said they were not involved, acknowledged that the directors and staff were representing them and as long as they received “*good money*’ all was well. Thus the community as defined by Agrawal and Ribot (1999) influenced and shared control over development initiatives, and decisions in MES. Participation in tourism development in MES was found to be through elected leaders and appointed officials (ex-officio) who first consulted the local community. Muganda, Mgonja, & Backman (2013) in their study on desired community participation at Barabarani Mto wa mbu found that this mechanism of participation was the one desired by the community.

The key role of the local community in MES was identified as to; give/provide consent on the utilisation of their land resource for CBTI establishment; provide views and opinions on the nature of tourism development to be undertaken, and to share the benefits of tourism development. Several scholars noted similar roles been undertaken by communities; decision-making (Chok & Macbeth, 2007), project execution and

sharing of tourism benefits (Marzuki, Hay, & James, 2012; Nault & Stapleton, 2011; Zhao & Ritchie, 2007).

Community participation in decision-making has been noted to be an essential parameter in ensuring that benefits to local communities are partly guaranteed, their livelihoods, lifestyles and values are respected. This is key to sustainable tourism development as it strengthens participatory process, enhances community wellbeing, protection of the natural and cultural resources (Gebhard, Meyer, & Roth, 2008).

However, in MES the community had no power to ensure that whatever had been agreed upon was implemented. This was well expressed by the comments of one director; *“we were selected to be members of a project implementation committee for fence rehabilitation and construction of a new gate in the sanctuary by the conservation agency, but after the first introductory meeting the agency implemented both projects without involving us. Some of the issues we agreed during the meeting were not implemented for example employment of the locals. We were only invited at the opening of both projects”*. Failure to involve the community in the implementation phase is major issue that needs to adequately address if the local community are to remain committed in tourism development in CBTIs.

The community was found not to have played any role or played minimal roles in conservation of natural and cultural resources and reporting unsustainable practices. This was attributed to perceptions by the local community that conservation was a duty of the conservation agency, and the approach used by the conservation agency in law enforcement which respondents described as *“unfriendly”*. It was very unfortunate

considering that indigenous people often have crucial knowledge on the characteristics of plants and animals resources, and ecological processes in the ecosystems and landscapes on which they depend for sustenance and life ways (Stave, Obao, Nordal, & Stenseth, 2007) and need urgent redress if conservation is to remain relevant to the local community.

Though the quality of participation (Beierle & Konisky, 2000) in MES was considered good, community involvement in tourism development from a low to moderate extent depicted in the results represented “induced community participation” in Tosun’s (2006) typology and “functional participation, participation for material gains and participation by consultation” in Pimbert and Pretty (1995) typology both of which are regarded as degrees of tokenism by Tosun (2006). The local community is allowed to hear and be heard, have a voice in the tourism development process, but they do not have power to ensure that their views will be taken into account by other powerful interest groups such as government bodies, multinational companies (Tosun, 2006). Community participation in tourism development aims to achieve ideal participation levels, self-mobilization (Pimbert & Pretty, 1995) and spontaneous participation (Tosun, 2006) for sustainability of the industry. However, this seems not to have been achieved in MES despite being in existence for the last 20 years and the importance attached to community participation in sustainable tourism development.

4.4 Investigating whether there were Constraints to Community Participation

Community participation is an important tool for achieving sustainable tourism development at a CBT site. However, participation in tourism development by local

communities is limited by various factors which vary from location to location. Constraints to participation were investigated using statements based on whether community; lacked financial resources, lacked skills/ knowledge, were adequately consulted on decision making regarding tourism development, and on whether; benefits trickled down to the landowners, the private investor had adequately played her role and the conservation agency had created a conducive environment to enable the community participate in their projects in MES. Response to the statements were classified based on a Likert scale of; 1=strongly agree, 2=agree; 3=neither agree nor disagree; 4=disagree; 5=strongly disagree. Mean (M) values closer to 1 represented high level of agreement to the statement under consideration.

Tourism development requires funds to be allocated for infrastructure development and maintenance of the entire tourism system to the required standards. Respondents were asked if the community lacked financial resources for tourism development in the Sanctuary. This was important because without sufficient funds, levels of tourism development and products on offer fall below expectations of the clients, negatively affecting chances of repeat visits and of making new sales, hence the sustainability of such projects. In response, 36.2% strongly agreed while 63.8% agreed, $M=1.64$ (second closest mean to 1), $SD=0.482$, (table 4.4) that the community lacked financial resources for tourism development. Respondents mentioned that they lacked funds to; procure brochures for marketing, participate in trade fairs, acquire a van for ferrying clients to the Sanctuary, repair roads and construct a tented camp among other things. Lack of funds has been noted to be a major constraint in CBTIs (Tosun , 2000; Scheyvens,

2002; Manyara & Jones, 2007). In MES it was attributed to poor performance of tourism, and lack of external support.

Table 4.4: Constraints to community participation in tourism development

Constraints to community participation in tourism development	N	Mean		Std. Deviation
	Stat	Stat	Std. Error	Stat
We lack financial resources for tourism development.	130	1.64	.042	.482
We lack skills/ knowledge to manage tourism development in MES.	130	1.77	.037	.423
I am not adequately consulted on decisions regarding the development of MES.	130	4.48	.044	.502
Benefits from MES did not trickle down to the community.	130	4.35	.050	.567
The private investor Dhanjal Investment Ltd (DIL) had not adequately played her role i.e. development and management of a catering and accommodation facility, road maintenance, thus constraining community participation.	130	1.62	.043	.486
The conservation agency (KWS) had not created a conducive environment (involving the local community, branding, restocking and control of animals) to enable the community fully participate in their projects in MES.	130	1.64	.050	.571

In order to meet tourist's expectations personnel in tourism enterprises should have the necessary skills and knowledge. It was enquired whether the community lacked skills/knowledge to manage tourism development in MES. This was considered necessary because lack of skills and knowledge, makes it difficult for community members to get employment, provide auxiliary services to tourists, trade with other stakeholders in the tourism industry and make informed decisions on matters relating to tourism development. This limits the community opportunities of enjoying the fruits of tourism development. The findings indicated that variable "community lacked skills and knowledge to manage tourism development" had $M= 1.77$ (third closest mean to 1), $SD 0.423$. The community lacked skills and knowledge (23.1% strongly agreed and 76.9% agreed) to fully participate in tourism development. This was attributed to low levels of education identified in the background information and failure by the investor and conservation agency to provide more information to the community.

The findings concur with others by Muganda, Mgonja, & Backman (2013) and Cole (2006) who observed that due to low levels of education, community lacked knoweldge, skills and intrerest to participate in tourism development taking place in their locality. Similarly, Meguro & Inoue (2011) noted that in Kimana, the local people left marketing to KWS, and the former manager from the community found that to be inorder, an indication of an expertise gap in matters relating to tourism in the management.

Other than the community, CBT development involves various stakeholders with different roles. The key ones were private investors and government agencies. Respondents were asked if the private investor and government agency had adequately

played their roles. This was considered important because for the community to fully participate in tourism development, stakeholders must play their roles as required by existing policies or as stipulated in agreements with the community.

Of the respondents, 37.7% strongly agreed while 62.3% agreed, corresponding to $M=1.62$ (Mean closest to 1), $SD\ 0.486$ that the private investor (Dhanjal Investment Ltd) had not adequately played her role as per their agreement. Similarly, a majority of respondents, 98.4% (strongly agreed and agreed) $M=1.64$ (Mean second closest to 1), $SD=0.571$ indicated that that the conservation agency (KWS) had not created a conducive environment to enable the community fully participate in their projects in MES. The respondents mentioned that at inception the investor (Dhanjal Investment Ltd) promised to construct and manage a tented camp, market the sanctuary and maintain roads in return for a site in the Sanctuary to construct a “lunch banda” (an extension of the tented camp). This worked well for 5 years after which the investor neglected the camp, stopped marketing the Sanctuary and maintaining the roads. According to the respondents this denied the community opportunities (employment, business) to participate in tourism development. On a similar note respondents complained that the conservation agency failed to involve them in branding and security enhancement activities which took place in the Sanctuary despite promises to do so.

Findings comparable to those of Kibicho (2008) that many a times stakeholders failed to honour their promises to communities involved in CBTI. Particularly, the National conservation agency did not fulfil promises made to local community which included compensation, implementation of community development projects like construction of

cattle dips, health clinics, classrooms and (water) dams. He noted that this led to mistrust, and cautioned that where trust is weak, partners fail to achieve the productivity and outcomes that can be attained by effective partnership. When anticipated productivity and gains by the local community are not achieved, sustainability of affected projects becomes a tall order. All stakeholders should therefore be obliged to honour their promises to the local community if ideal participation is to be achieved. Who and how to make stakeholders honour their promises to the community was beyond the scope of this research.

Sustainability of community based tourism projects requires wide consultations between the community and all relevant stakeholders. Respondents were asked if they were adequately consulted on decisions regarding development of MES. Consultation of the community enhances their self-esteem and support for tourism projects. In response, 51.5 % of respondents disagreed while 48.5% strongly disagreed with the statement that they were not adequately consulted $M = 4.48$ (mean furthest from 1), $SD = 0.502$ on decision regarding the development of MES. This implied that the local community was consulted on matters regarding the development of MES.

Inadequate consultation was found not to be a barrier to community participation in MES. This was attributed to the membership scheme adopted which restricts membership to landowners only and management structure where directors are elected democratically by the community and retire by rotation after a short period of 2years. These findings contradict those of Dogra & Gupta (2012) and Tosun (2000) who found

inadequate consultation of the local community by other stakeholders in tourism development to be a major challenge in developing countries.

Finally, respondents were asked if benefits from MES trickled to the community. Distribution of benefits accruing from tourism amongst local community enhances their support for tourism, while lack of benefits from tourism development restricts community participation. To elicit more details from the respondents, the statement was negatively presented. Of the respondents 60.8% disagreed whereas 37.7% strongly disagreed to the statement that benefits from MES did not trickle down to the landowners $M=4.35$, $SD= 0.567$. The local community was thus satisfied with the current mechanism of sharing benefits from the Sanctuary, particularly the financial benefits. Respondents commented that the mechanism of sharing financial benefits (compensation) based on size of land owned was very good, however complained that the amount was too little (this will be interrogated further in the next chapter).

The directors and staff mentioned that lack of funds was a major constraint to participation. This was as a result of failure by the investor to honour agreements with the community and withdrawal of major support by a donor. The investor failed to continuously market the sanctuary and maintain the roads. This led to low number of visitors, and consequently little income. Efforts by the community in conjunction with KWS to convince the investor to honour agreement were unsuccessful. The investor promised to improve the camp, resume marketing and repair roads but failed to do so. Because of this, the community felt short changed and denied an opportunity to fully participate in tourism development. Further, KFS who issued the investor with a 25

years lease felt that Dhanjal Investment Ltd had not violated any of the conditions in the lease; depicting a lack of objective coordination/collaboration among the stakeholders.

Withdrawal of major support by a donor exacerbated the financial woes of the Sanctuary. This was well illustrated by the following comment from one of the directors *“financial challenges increased when Eden Wildlife Trust stopped paying the manager; fuelling our vehicle and funding major projects in MES”*. Reduction of support was due to protests by a section of the community against the donor. They wanted the donor to dismiss a manager employed at inception (who was not a local) and engage a local one. The donor felt that the proposed manager lacked capacity to manage the Sanctuary. However, overwhelmed by community’s persistence the donor dismissed the manager, but stopped providing money to pay the new manager and fuelling the car. The community welcomed the decision, as they thought that they could manage the project without donor support, an illustration of lack of awareness and information by community on matters of tourism development and conservation.

The conservation agency was not without blame. Interviewees indicated that the community had not received the desired support from the agency. This included reintroduction of animals and road maintenance, though the agency had taken up fence maintenance and enhanced security. One respondent was quoted saying *“we requested them to restock the sanctuary with more animals but now it is the third year and nothing has been done yet. We also requested them to help repair the roads, nothing has been done, yet roads are impassable!”* Though the issues raised by the community were

genuine the community seemed to have expected too much from the agency, without considering its capacity and bureaucratic nature of decision making in government agencies. However, such views by the community were expected considering that it was the conservation agency that initiated the process of formation of the sanctuary.

The Ex-officio indicated that lack of funds was a major constraint to their participation in MES. Respondents clarified that little funds allocated for community projects had to be shared amongst various community projects undertaken in different villages bordering the entire ecosystem, meaning that very little if any was dedicated for MES activities. Further, obtaining funds from the agency through proposals though an option was not guaranteed and took too long to get responses. The landownership system was also identified as a constraint to participation by the Ex officials. It was explained that though under MES, the land was legally owned by individual members, this made it difficult to carry out projects or investments on the land. This was illustrated by the following statement from one respondent, *when we identified a site for the construction of a tented camp by an investor; the individual landowner insisted that he wanted to deal directly with the investor since the title was in his name. It was after lengthy discussions and persuasion that he agreed to lease the land to MES who would then lease it to the investor.* When MES wants to carry out a major investment in the Sanctuary it either has to buy or lease land from the owner, which according to the respondents was tedious and discouraging would be partners and therefore limiting participation.

To establish the extent to which these constraints hindered community participation in tourism development , the data was subjected to a Chi- square test with” involvement” as the row values and “constraints” as the column values. The findings (table 4.5), showed that; constraints, lack of financial resources to manage the sanctuary (V=0.568, P=0.042), private investor had not adequately played her role (V=0.822, P=0.020), benefits from MES did not trickle down to the local landowners (V=0.483, P=0.006), community lacked skills/knowledge to manage tourism development in MES (V=0.411, P=0.017) and the conservation agency (KWS) had not created a conducive environment (V=0.365, P=0.012) hindered community participation significantly from a moderate to a high extent. The other constraint; landowners were not adequately consulted (V=0.067, P=0.418) did not significantly hinder participation of local community. Therefore, the constraints hindered community participation from a moderate to high extent (0.365=V=0.822; 0.017=P=0.042).

Table 4.5: Chi- Square test results on the extent to which constraints hinder community participation.

Variable	χ^2	<i>df</i>	<i>V</i>	<i>P</i>
The community lacks financial capability to manage the sanctuary	3.562	1	.568	.042
The community lacks training to manage tourism development in MES	18.887	2	.411	.017
Landowners are not adequately consulted on any decision regarding the development of MES	.576	1	.067	.418
Benefits from MES do not trickle down to the local landowners	10.398	2	.483	.006
The private investor Dhanjal Investment has not adequately played her role	20.051	2	.822	.020
KWS has not created a conducive environment	2.016	2	.365	.012

Results in this section indicated that all three categories (operational, structural and cultural) of barriers proposed by Tosun (2000), existed in MES, but with varied representation. Lack of coordination was identified as a major constraint at the operational level. This was depicted by two variables; First, the private investor Dhanjal Investment ltd not adequately playing her role i.e. development and management of a catering and accommodation facility, and road maintenance. A situation made worse by affirmation by KFS (another stakeholder) that the investor had not violated any of the conditions in their lease agreement. Secondly the conservation agency (KWS) not having

created a conducive environment to enable the community fully participate in tourism development.

This was well illustrated through; failure to fulfil promises made at inception (construction of an office), failure to fully involve community in their projects (construction of a new gate, security enhancement), failure to timely and positively respond to community requests for improvement (road repair and reintroduction of animals) of the Sanctuary as a tourist site.

The findings portray a community unable to fully participate in tourism development at their locality due to activities of other stakeholders who influence the success and viability of tourism. The absence of a single entity with a mandate to co-ordinate and influence activities of the stakeholders worsens the situation for the community. According to Kibicho (2003) the integration of various interested parties (with equally varied interest) into the tourism industry while at the same time guarding the importance of developing a “workable tourism management strategy” remains a real challenge to many tourism destinations.

Other studies (Mitchell & Muckosy, 2008; Dieke, 2000), also found that there seem to be a disconnect between various stakeholders in CBT development which constrains the participation of the local community. This was attributed to the current policy which gives various mandates to government agencies on tourism development and conservation with none to ensure that these agencies and stakeholders fulfil their obligations to the local community.

Structural constraints identified included lack of financial resources, lack of skills/knowledge and lack of appropriate legal system on land ownership. Lack of financial resources has been identified by various researchers (Tosun, 2006; Zhao & Richie, 2007; Manyara & Jones, 2007) as a major challenge facing CBTIs and noted that this shortcoming appeared to be a key drawback to implementation of participatory tourism development in developing countries. Lack of funds due to poor performance of tourism, limited support from donors and government agencies if not well addressed could lead to deterioration of tourism products on offer by CBTIs. Lack of skills and knowledge also identified in the literature (Muganda, Mgonja, & Backman, 2013; Tosun, 2006) continues to be a major hindrance to community participation. Though attributed to low levels of education in majority of the rural areas, failure to involve the youth who tend to be more schooled makes the future bleak for CBTIs.

Lack of appropriate legal system on landownership for conservation and tourism development, noted in the literature (Manyara & Jones, 2007; Oketch 2007), made it cumbersome for the management to enter into partnership with would be investors for and on behalf of the community, limiting the uptake of new partners. It also made it easy for individual members to sale their land without contacting the management exposing the whole project to individuals (buyers) who may not be interested in maintaining current form of land use.

Finally, a single cultural constraint; low level of awareness was identified in MES. As much as the community wanted to be independent little did they know that they lacked capacity to manage the project without external support. Their motivation for

independence was inspired by the revenue generated, with no consideration for revenue sources, costs incurred and long term sustainability. Tosun (2006) attributed low level of awareness about potential and current costs, and benefits of tourism development to the style of tourism development in developing countries. There is a need therefore amongst CBTIs for more community awareness about tourism benefits, costs, structure of the industry and how it is affected by external factors.

Findings that constraints hindered community participation from a moderate to a high extent imply that such constraints are a major hindrance to sustainability of CBTIs. Mechanism should be put in place to reduce these barriers. Main focus should be on the cooperation and coordination among the stakeholders and fulfilment of their obligations to the community. This will ensure that more local people get involved in tourism development. However, it should be noted that these constraints could be an extension of predominant social, political and economic models, which have hindered local communities from realizing higher levels of development. In this regard, eradication/minimization of these barriers to community participation in tourism development will depend upon the cooperation of National government, County government, the private sector, NGOs and the community.

4.5 Community Attitudes towards Social-Economic and Environmental Impacts of Tourism Development

The way a community perceives tourism is based on impacts of tourism on the community. For sustainability, impacts of tourism development on the community should be in such a way that the negatives do not outweigh the positives. Impacts of

tourism on the community were evaluated based on the three key dimensions of sustainable tourism development; socio-cultural, economic and environmental. Statements were formulated based on various aspects of these dimensions and presented to the respondents. Responses were classified based on a Likert classification of 1=strongly agree, 2=agree; 3=neither agree nor disagree; 4=disagree; 5=strongly disagree.

4.5.1 Socio Cultural Impacts

Tourism development at a destination impacts on the socio-cultural fabrics of the local community. Socio cultural impacts were evaluated based on whether tourism had; led to revival of various cultural activities by the local people, enhanced cultural identity, resulted to an increase in social assets, led to degradation of local culture, contributed to an increase in immorality and crime.

Respondents were asked if tourism development had led to revival of cultural activities by the local community, and enhanced cultural identity. This was important because when local culture is part of the tourism product of a region, tourism helps revive and preserve the local traditions and activities; consequently enhancing their cultural identity and pride. Of the respondents 96.9% (strongly agree and agree) mentioned that tourism development led to revival of cultural activities $M=1.75$ SD 0.410 (table 4.6). Similarly, 95.4% agreed that tourism development enhanced cultural identity of the community $M=1.96$, $SD=0.299$ (table 4.6). Respondents explained that establishment of the Sanctuary led to protection of both *Kaya Mtae* and *Kitsanze groove*, restoring their cultural value. Community members started visiting these sites to perform rituals which

had been abandoned. Further, traditional dancing troupes which had disintegrated were reconstituted and started performing various dances to tourists for a fee. These findings were in line with those of Irandu (2004), and Oketch & Urmilla (2009) in the Mara and Amboseli regions of Kenya that tourism had led to performance of traditional dances and other cultural activities by the Maasai.

Table 4.6: Perception of respondents on social cultural impacts

Perception of respondents on social cultural impacts	N	Mean		Standard deviation
	Stat	Stat	Std error	Stat
1. Tourism has led to revival of various cultural activities by the local people.	130	1.75	0.036	0.410
2. Tourism has enhanced our cultural identity.	130	1.96	0.026	0.299
3. Tourism has resulted to an increase in social assets (schools, hospitals, water supply etc.)	130	2.49	0.110	1.249
Average score of positive social impacts		2.066	0.1355	0.59525
4. Tourism has led to degradation of the local culture	130	4.41	0.037	0.423
5. Tourism has contributed to an increase in immorality	130	4.38	0.059	0.670
6. Tourism has contributed to an increase in crime	130	2.15	0.025	0.287
Average score of negative social impacts		3.65	0.047	0.536

Tourism development fosters development of social assets which serve the local community as well as tourists. In response to a question on whether tourism development had led to an increase in social assets (schools, hospitals, water supply etc.), majority 67.7% affirmed (strongly agree and strongly agree), M=2.49 SD=1.249.

However, the mean was close to 3 “neither agree nor disagree” and 32.3% responded to the contrary (disagreed and strongly disagreed). Further, the standard deviation was very high implying that the responses were widely spread above and below the mean. Respondents from Mwaluganje adjudication section indicated that due to tourism development a road to the sanctuary which also served the community had been repaired, a fence erected to reduce HWC, bursaries issued to needy students, and a primary school and health facility constructed. In contrast, respondents from Golini lamented that though they benefitted from the bursary, nothing had been constructed in their village, hence the high standard deviation. Manyara & Jones (2007) made similar observations that CBTIs led to improved educational and health services, access to clean water and development of transport and communication infrastructure all indications of improved social services. However the unequal distribution of these assets in Mwaluganje is an issue of concern to the Golini respondents, which require to be addressed by the management.

Tourism leads to both direct and indirect interaction between tourists and members of the host community. Such interaction may result in degradation of the local culture as noted by Bresner (2010) that cultural tourism subjects’ indigenous people to non-indigenous demands and thus drives an exploitative process eroding indigenous culture. Respondents were asked if tourism had led to degradation of the local culture. This was important because degradation of local culture leads to corrupted individual behaviours, societal values, social relationship, and lifestyles. Majority of the respondents (73.9% disagreed and 26.1% strongly disagreed), $M=4.41$, $SD 0.423$ indicated that tourism had not led to degradation of the local culture in MES. This was attributed to the strong

cultural cohesion within the community, conservativeness of the local community (predominantly muslim) and minimal interactions between residents and tourists partly attributed to low tourism numbers. Only staff of establishments that served tourists and dancers interacted with tourists.

In some communities tourism has been associated with increase in crime and immorality. Respondents were asked if tourism had contributed to an increase in crime and immorality in the area. In response, 98.4% of the respondents (strongly agree and agree) $M=2.15$, $SD=0.287$ acknowledged that tourism had contributed to an increase in crime; whereas 90.8% objected (disagree and strongly disagree) to the statement that tourism had led to an increase in immorality ($M=4.38$, $SD=0.670$). Respondents indicated that facilities hosting tourist had been attacked severally by groups of people. Increase in organized crime was attributed to a perception amongst community members that facilities hosting tourists had money and valuable items such as cameras, watches, and jewellery. Findings of increased organised crime were in-line with other studies on socio-economic impacts of tourism on a destination (Kibicho, 2000; Milman & Pizam, 1998).

The average score of the statements on positive social-cultural impacts was 2.066 which corresponded to “agree”, while that of negative social-cultural impacts was 3.65 which corresponded to disagree. This implied that respondents generally acknowledged the positive impacts while they disagreed with negative impacts. Only one major negative social-cultural impact (increase in crime) was experienced by the community.

4.5.2 Economic impacts

Communities embrace tourism in anticipation of positive economic impacts to the local economy. Respondents were asked to rate their views on the economic impact of tourism. This was important because economic impacts directly affect an individual's livelihood and therefore greatly influence how one views tourism as an alternative land use. Statements on evaluation of economic impacts were based on whether MES had attracted investments in the area, created employment opportunities, increased household incomes, led to destruction of crops by wildlife, caused increase in prices of goods and services, denied individuals opportunities to use land for more productive activities, provided minimal benefits and standards of living had significantly improved.

One of the key motivations for developing tourism is the expected economic opportunities it presents to the community. Respondents were asked if tourism had attracted investment to the community, created employment opportunities for the locals and led to increased household incomes. All the respondents (93.8% agree and 6.2% strongly agree) mentioned that MES had attracted investments to their community $M=1.95$ $SD=0.211$, (table 4.7), 96.1% (92.3% agree, 3.8% strongly agree) affirmed that development of MES had created job opportunities $M=2.05$ $SD=0.518$ (table 4.7) and 98.5%; $M=2.02$ $SD=0.124$ (table 4.7) agreed that MES led to increased household incomes.

Respondents elucidated that other than the Sanctuary and Travellers tented Camp which provided employment to locals, other tourist' facilities constructed next to the sanctuary for example *Kutazama, Shimbahills green lodge* provided employment and business

opportunities to the local community. All respondents indicated that they received annual cash compensation from MES. Findings were in agreement with those of Manyara and Jones (2007), and Stronza & Gordillo (2008) highlighted in the literature and also Carter, William, Laura, & Martha (2015) that tourism development in community based initiatives provided employment and other business linkages to the local economy.

Table 4.7: Respondents perception towards economic impacts

Perception towards economic impacts	N	Mean		Std. Deviation
	Stat	Stat	Std. Error	Stat
7. MES has attracted investment to our community.	130	1.95	0.018	0.211
8. Development of MES has created jobs for our community.	130	2.05	0.045	0.518
9. MES has led to an increase in my household income	130	2.02	2.02	0.124
Average score of positive economic impacts		2.006	0.69433	0.28433
10. Tourism has led to increased prices of goods and services which the local people can no longer afford	130	4.35	0.042	0.480
11. I have suffered from living near MES because wild animals have been destroying my crops	130	1.79	0.036	0.407
12. MES has denied the local landowners an opportunity to use the available land for other purposes	130	2.00	.000	.000
13. We provided land for establishment of MES but have received minimal benefits from its	130	1.75	.038	.437

development				
Average score of negative economic impacts		2.4725	0.029	0.331
Average score economic impacts		2.23925	0.3616	0.3076
14. Our standards of living have considerably increased because of MES.	130	4.01	0.047	0.536

Tourism development is not without negative economic impacts on the local community. All the respondents (20.8% strongly agree and 79.2% agree) indicated that they had suffered living near MES because wild animals destroyed their crops $M=1.79$, $SD= 0.407$; 93.8% admitted (9.2% strongly agree and 84.6% agree) that MES had denied them an opportunity to use the available land for other purposes $M=2.00$, $SD= 0.00$ while all accept (25.4% strongly agree and 74.6% agreed) that they provided land for establishment of MES but received minimal benefits from tourism development $M=1.75$ $SD 0.437$ (table 4.7).

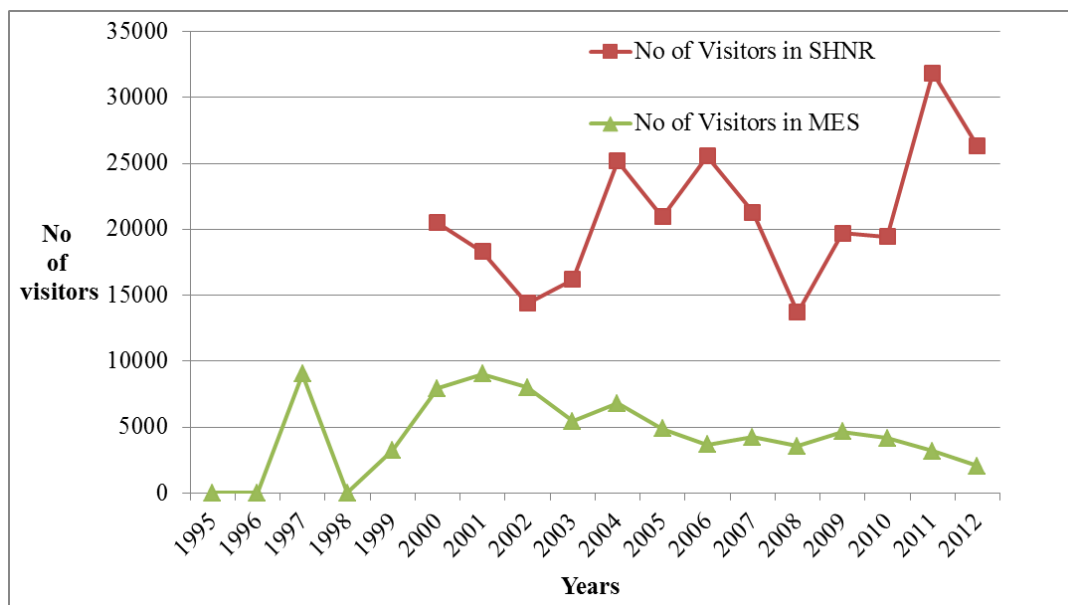
Generally, respondents agreed to experiencing negatives economic impacts, especially those associated with HWC, and lost opportunity to use land for activities perceived to be more productive than tourism. Some respondents complained that the land they gave out was agriculturally more productive than where they were currently living. Further, crop raids by elephants and warthogs were still rampant especially at Golini leading to low crop production. In a similar study Meguro & Inoue (2011) noted that in Kimana, when respondents were asked to compare benefits and destruction from wildlife, majority answered that wildlife brought more destruction than benefits.

Majority of respondents 97.7% disputed (62.3% disagree and 35.4%) the statement that MES had led to an increase in prices of goods and services which the local people could not afford $M=4.35$ SD 0.480. Findings contradicting those of Akama & Kieti (2007) that tourism led to local increase of goods and services. However, it was noted that major procurements by tourism facilities were done in Ukunda and Mombasa which were bigger urban centres with a variety of goods and services on offer compared to Kwale township. A probable explanation for the observation that tourism had not led to an increase in prices of goods and services. Further tourism in MES was developed away from the local population as they gave out their land and moved out, unlike in other places where tourism occupies same places inhabited by the locals.

The average mean score for statements on positive economic impacts was $M= 2.006$, $SD= 0.28433$ while that for negative economic impacts was $M=2.4725$, SD 0.331, implying that majority of respondents “agreed” to statements on positive economic impacts, and similarly agreed to those on negative economic impacts, but to a lesser degree. This brought to question the overall effect of tourism on standards of living of the local community. To evaluate this effect, respondents were asked to rate their agreement or disagreement with the statement that their standards of living had considerably improved because of tourism development. Majority of the respondents 98.5% (57.7% disagree and 40.8% strongly disagree) indicated that their standards of living had not improved $M= 4.01$ $SD=0.536$ denoting “disagree” in the likert scale. Meaning that, the positive economic impacts had not improved standards of living of the local community.

Further interrogation revealed that annual compensation was the only benefit enjoyed by all landowners' individually. Other benefits like employment and business linkages benefitted very few people. Initially compensation was dependent on income raised from tourism which varied depending on the number of visitors and size of land (in acres) owned. However, when tourism was too low the management had to seek for well-wishers to donate money towards the compensation kitty to just keep the landowners quiet.

MES office records showed that after inception in 1995 and completion of construction work at Travellers tented camp the number of visitors rose to 9011 in 1997 (fig 4.5) as the camp started operations. There was intense marketing and promotion of the camp, clients buying 2 full boards at the mother facility Travellers Tiwi Beach Hotel, were offered one full board at the tented camp.



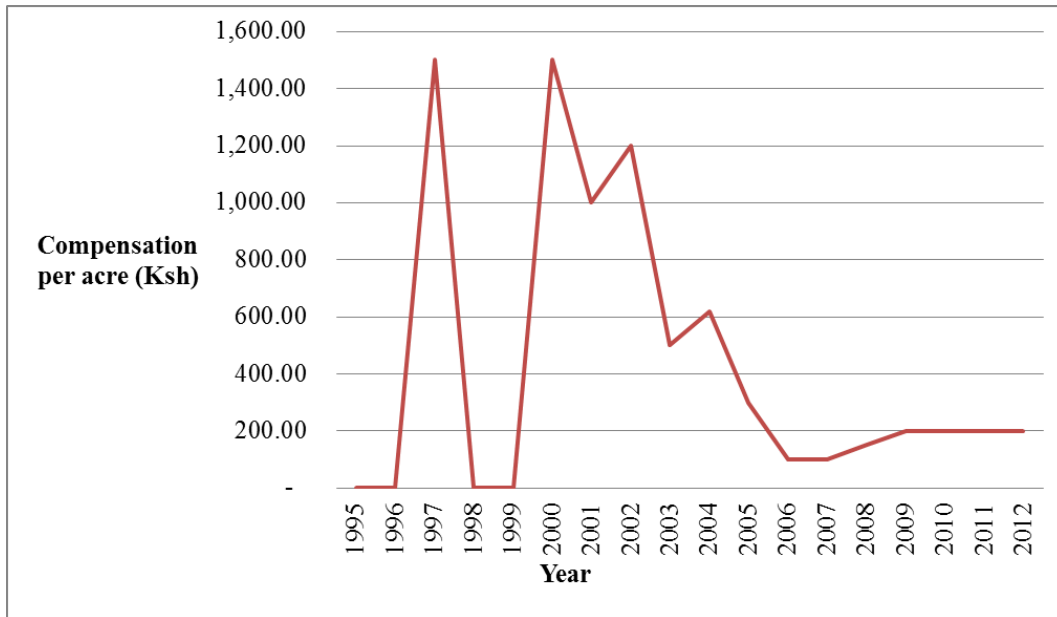
Source (MES, 2012)

Figure 4.5: Visitors to SHNR and MES 1995-2012

The number of visitors dropped to 3237 in 1998/9 due to devastating effects of *El Nino* rains. The road was badly eroded; some sections and the Marere bridge which connects MES to Kwale Township were washed away. The year 2001 had the highest number of visitors 9044, while the years 2000 and 2002 had 7928 and 8024 respectively. The road had been repaired, well maintained, and camp fully operational.

In 2003/2004 disagreements between the investor and travel agents emerged, negatively affecting the number of visitors to the Sanctuary. By 2005 disagreements had not been ironed out, further affecting operations at the Camp. Road maintenance was abandoned, and service delivery at the camp compromised. During the period of data collection the camp was completely deserted, while the road was in a very poor state. In contrast the number of visitors to Shimbahills National Reserves (SHNR) was impressive. Even when the number of visitors to SHNR was low, the figures were still higher than when MES was at its best.

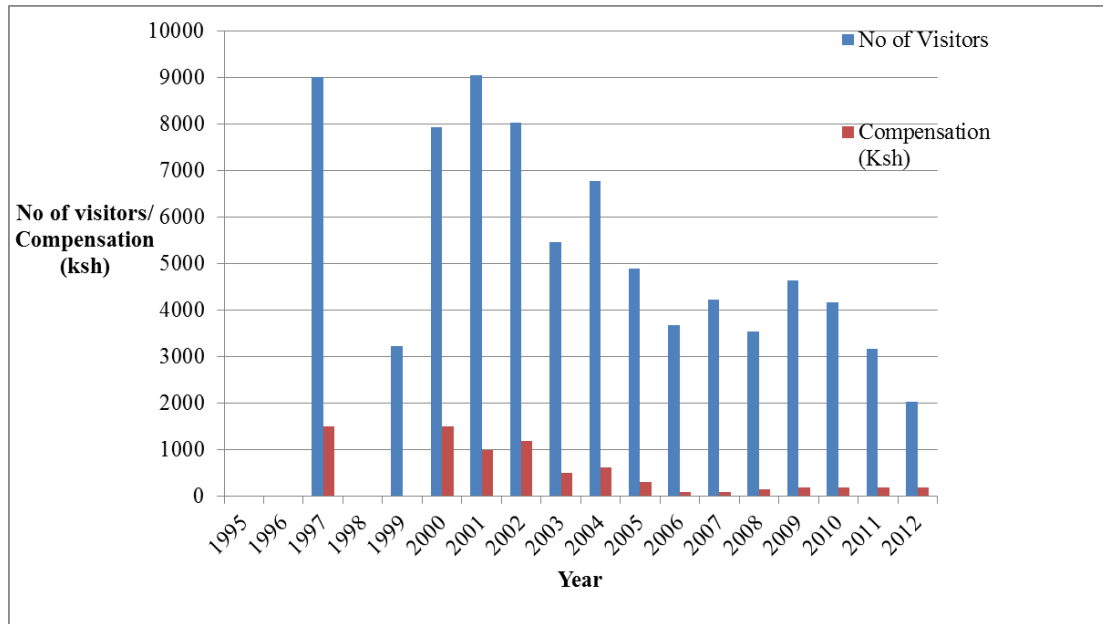
The first annual compensation of Ksh1500 per acre per year (Fig 4.6) was made in 1997, members were very happy. In 1998/9 no compensation was paid because of low income occasioned by low visitors due to the El Niño rains. Between 2000 and 2002 compensation ranged between ksh1500- 1200 per acre per year. Members were contented with the compensation.



Source (MES, 2012)

Figure 4.6: Compensation per acre per year for respondents (landowners) since establishment of MES (1995-2012)

The annual compensation per acre per individual followed a similar trend to that of visitors (fig 4.7). However, in the years 2003 to 2008 annual compensation dropped from Ksh 620 to Ksh100 due to low income from tourism and minimal income from donations. Members complained bitterly, with some threatening to turn their land into farms, or sale to any interested party.



Source (MES, 2012)

Figure 4.7: Number of visitors to MES and annual compensation per acre

With tourism showing no signs of improvement, the management sought for more donors to contribute towards the compensation kitty as well as help the sanctuary meet her financial obligations. The donors responded relatively well raising the income from donations from Ksh 56,356.85 in 2009 to Ksh 1,541,916.00 in 2013 accounting for 1.7% to 70.8% of the total income (table 4.8). However, the income from donations raised compensation to a maximum of Ksh 200 per acre per year for that period (table 4.9), as part of it was used to pay salaries and other overhead expenditures. Respondents expressed dissatisfaction with this payment and threatened to pull out of the project if no improvement was forthcoming.

Table 4.8: Income report for MES 2004- 2013

Year	Income Tourism		Income Donations		Total
	Amount (Ksh)	% of total Income	Amount (Ksh)	% of total Income	
2004	5,057,606.00	100.0	-	-	5,057,606.00
2005	4,061,982.70	100.0	-	-	4,061,982.70
2006	3,283,525.40	100.0	-	-	3,283,525.40
2007	2,916,943.35	95.1	151,050.00	4.9	3,067,993.35
2008	2,363,444.15	85.0	424,450.00	15.0	2,787,894.50
2009	3,341,378.00	98.3	56,356.85	1.7	3,397,734.85
2010	2,976,381.00	80.4	724,300.00	19.6	3,700,681.00
2011	2,794,095.00	79.7	710,700.00	20.3	3,504,795.00
2012	1,321,205.00	54.0	1,123,214.00	46.0	2,444,419.00
2013	634,687.00	29.2	1,541,916.00	70.8	2,176,603.00

Source (MES, 2014)

Table 4.9 Expenditure report for MES 2004-2013

Year	Salaries & recurrent exp.		Compensation		
	Amount (Ksh)	%	Amount (Ksh)	%	Amount / acre/yr.
2004	2,887,606.00	57.1	2,170,000.00	42.9	620.00
2005	3,011,982.70	74.2	1,050,000.00	25.8	300.00
2006	2,933,525.40	89.3	350,000.00	10.7	100.00
2007	2,717,993.35	88.6	350,000.00	11.4	100.00
2008	2,262,894.50	81.2	525,000.00	18.8	150.00
2009	2,697,734.85	79.4	700,000.00	20.6	200.00
2010	3,000,681.00	81.0	700,000.00	19.0	200.00
2011	2,804,795.00	80.0	700,000.00	20.0	200.00
2012	1,744,419.00	71.4	700,000.00	28.6	200.00
2013	1,476,603.00	67.8	700,000.00	32.0	200.00

Source (MES, 2014)

This compensation (Ksh 200) was lower than estimated productivity per acre per year when land was under livestock production which was more productive than crop farming. Warinda (2001) estimated the productivity of one acre in MES to be US \$14 per year if put under livestock production. His estimate equalled the lowest compensation between 1997 and 2002, however; it was higher than compensation paid per acre from 2003 (fig 4.6). Dissatisfaction among respondents was therefore justified and an indication that MES was financially unsustainable. Findings were similar to those of Mitchell and Muckosy (2008) that many CBTI projects failed due to lack of financial viability, which they described as “shocking”. However, considering that initially compensation was above the threshold indicated by Warinda (2001) it can be

argued that at inception and a few years that followed tourism potential was almost fully exploited, but later exploitation diminished as costs of maintaining the tourism site escalated.

4.5.3 Environmental Impacts

Tourism development comes with environmental costs to the local community, especially environmental degradation and pollution which deplete the quality of tourism product on offer, negatively affecting its sustainability (Akama, Maingi, & Camarco, 2011; Kiss, 2004). Environmental impacts were evaluated based on whether MES had; led to development of hotels and tourists facilities in the area which destroyed the natural environment (destruction of vegetation, improper disposal of solid, sludge and liquid waste), affected availability of forest products for household use and status of flora and fauna in the sanctuary.

The findings indicated that development of hotels and tourists facilities in the area had not destroyed the natural environment (97.7% of respondents; strongly disagreed and disagreed), $M=4.12$ $SD=0.571$ (table 4.10). However, MES had led to a decrease in the quantity of forest products (timber/non-timber products, medical herbs/shrubs) available to the landowners (96.9% of respondents; strongly agreed and agreed), $M=2.05$ SD 0.371. Findings that tourism facilities had not destroyed the natural environment was attributed to environmental awareness by proprietors and staff resulting in appropriate ways of waste disposal, adherence to park regulations by tour operators and visitors, and the small number of visitors to the sanctuary and in these facilities.

Table 4.10: Perception of respondents towards environmental impacts

Perception of respondents towards environmental impacts	N	Mean		Std. Deviation
	Stat	Stat	Std. Error	Stat
15. MES has led to a decrease in the quantity of forest products (timber/non-timber products, medicinal herbs/shrubs) available to the landowners.	130	2.05	0.033	0.371
16. MES was established to conserve elephants but their population that of other animals and quality of flora has reduced.	130	1.91	0.042	0.473
17. MES has led to development of hotels and tourists facilities in the area which have destroyed the natural environment.	130	4.12	0.050	0.571
Average score environmental impacts		2.6933	0.0416	0.47166

Findings that MES had led to a decrease in the quantity of forest products (timber/non-timber products, medical herbs/shrubs) available to landowners was attributed to; giving up of land by the community (landowners) to create room for the Sanctuary reducing the quantity of land with forest resources at their disposal, failure to have their needs for forest resources addressed at inception, and lack of training of community on importance of biodiversity conservation, sustainable harvesting of forest products, substitute sources of forest products and other natural resources.

Respondents complained that requests to have an area set aside for subsistence fishing, watering of livestock and collection of firewood were not properly addressed, neither

were they advised on how they would collect/get medicinal herbs which were only found in the Sanctuary. Similar occurrence of stakeholders not considering subsistence needs of the local community when establishing CBTI were noted in Kimana (Meguro & Inoue, 2011). These findings were in line with that of Okello, Buthman, Mapinu, & Kahi (2011) that people living adjacent to areas of high biodiversity significance have convincing reasons to over-exploit resources than to conserve them. This calls for proponents of CBTI to address needs for natural resources by the community at inception and implementation of projects. Meguro and Inoue (2011) argued that local community livelihoods deserve consideration when they engage in nature-based subsistence and share land with wildlife.

Respondents indicated that though MES was established to conserve elephants, their population and that of other animals and quality of flora had reduced (97.6% strongly agree and agree) $M=1.91$ $SD=0.473$. Based on general observations as they lacked data, respondents mentioned that populations of elephants, impalas, bushbucks and other antelopes had reduced. They attributed this to poaching for tusks and illegal hunting of game meat for subsistence. One respondent commented *“there used to be lots of elephants in the Sanctuary, but nowadays you rarely see them. Even the 12 impalas that used to be near Kadingo drift, only 6-7 can be located.*

Respondents stated that patches of *Murihi tree (Brachystegia sp)* and other big trees had been cleared by elephants and others felled for construction and making of *Mbuzi* (crater) by some community members. The findings were contrary to that of Waithaka (2002) who reported higher densities of trees, herbs, and increased sighting of animals

in the II Ngwesi community sanctuary compared to other ranches, though Kiss (2004) cautions that his observation should not be judged to imply improved wildlife diversity and population increases as local wildlife could have been concentrated inside the sanctuary without an actual increase in numbers. These findings emphasize the need for continuous monitoring of the status of flora and fauna in CBTIs.

The average score for the environmental impacts was 2.6933 meaning that generally respondents agreed to the negatively formulated statements on environmental impacts. This implied that overtime establishment of MES had impacted negatively on the availability of forest products to the local community and also the quality and quantity of tourism attractions in the sanctuary had deteriorated.

During interviews respondents mentioned that *Kaya* elders were consulted and traditional rites performed before Kitsanze falls, a sacred *groove* was opened for tourism. Due to pressure by the community to protect the *groove*, it was later gazetted as a national monument by the National Museums of Kenya. Annual traditional rites at the groove were performed to appease ancestors for allowing the groove to be visited by tourists. It was established that an elder had to accompany tourists when visiting Ngomeni caves in the Sanctuary. One respondent said “*if tourists to Ngomeni caves were not accompanied by an elder they failed to locate the caves*”. These responses were indications of enhanced cultural activities and pride amongst the local community members.

On social assets interviewees confirmed that even though social assets had increased they were not evenly distributed. Mwaluganje adjudication had more while Golini had

none. Though the community of Mwaluganje adjudication section appreciated these facilities they felt that they were not sufficient and more needed to be done. Regarding misappropriation of funds and insecurity interviewees explained that some staff had been dismissed for failing to account for money collected from the gate, while the ticketing office had been attacked and robbed thrice at gun point. Similarly, the Travellers tented camp and tour vans to and from MES had also been attacked severally and property stolen. All these pointed to increased individual and organized crime.

Interviews revealed that the economic dimension was most important for the local community in MES. Interviewees explained that income from tourism was not sufficient to pay workers and fairly compensate landowners. Come end of the year they were always worried whether they would get a donor to assist compensate the landowners. Concern was raised that if current situations continued landowners could easily withdraw from the project, however they were hopeful that they would get partners to support and or the government would provide more support considering that MES was a key component of the Shimbahills ecosystem.

Interviews confirmed that some of the landowners were accessing the sanctuary to get poles for construction, making of household items, charcoal production and collection of firewood. Herbs and shrubs were harvested for food and medicinal purposes. Subsistence fishing and grazing were also mentioned as unauthorized human activities that took place in the sanctuary while bushfires were noted to be common during the dry season (February – April).

Respondents mentioned that destruction of trees by elephants and humans led to emergence of invasive species which were changing the vegetation structure of the sanctuary. Reference was made to a biodiversity survey (KWS, 2013) carried in the area. The report established that the Mwaluganje ecosystem though floristically more diverse and with the most unique species than Shimbahills National Reserve was greatly influenced by human activities which included firewood collection, charcoal production, collection of timber and other building materials. This usage was gauged unsustainable (KWS, 2013). The report noted massive harvesting of *Cynometra suaheliensis* and *Diosyros consolatae*, both hardwoods used for making household furniture and carvings. The report further noted large areas occupied by *Croton pseudopulchellus* which was turning to be invasive in the area. The survey hypothesized that past human and later elephant destruction of pioneer species including *Cynometra* paved way for the establishment and spread of *Croton pseudopulchellus*.

To establish whether there was a relationship between the socio-economic benefits of MES and community involvement/participation, linear regression was used. Results from the model summary table (table 4.11), showed that the R value which represents simple correlation was 0.575. This indicated a moderate degree of correlation between socio-economic benefits and local community involvement/participation.

Table 4.11: Regression model summary for socio-economic benefits and participation

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.575 ^a	.331	.293	.177

a. Predictors: (Constant), socio-economic benefits of MES

The R^2 value indicates how much of the dependent variable (involvement) can be explained by the independent variable (Socio-economic benefits). For this scenario, 33.1% could be explained, which was moderate. This implied that perception of the local community's socio-economic benefits from tourism could predict their participation or involvement in tourism up to 33%.

The next table considered in regression analysis was the ANOVA table (table 4.12), which showed that the $P= 0.000$ (the 'sig.' column in the 'regression' row) which implied that $P<0.0005$, which was less than 0.05, and indicated that, overall, the model applied could statistically significantly predict the outcome variable. Thus, the regression model predicted the outcome variable (involvement) significantly well.

Table 4.12: Anova table for socio-economic benefits and participation

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1.895	7	.271	8.627	.000^b
	Residual	3.828	122	.031		
	Total	5.723	129			

a. Dependent Variable: are you involved in the development of MES as a tourist destination?

b. Predictors: (Constant), Socio-economic benefits

This showed that there was a statistically significant positive relationship between the socio-economic benefits of MES and community involvement/participation ($R=0.575$, $P=0.000$).

This section evaluated impacts of tourism on the community based on the three key dimensions; socio-cultural, economic and environmental of sustainable tourism. Generally tourism had a positive impact on the social cultural fabric of the community as it had led to revival of various cultural activities, enhanced cultural identity and pride, and resulted to increased social assets, though their distribution was skewed. It was found not to have led to degradation of the local culture and immorality, but increased crime rates.

The positive impacts outweighed the negatives; hence the community had a positive perception to the contribution of tourism towards social dimension of the community. Findings attributed to strong cultural cohesion within the community, implying that

strong cultures can not only withstand the undesirable influence of tourism, but also use tourism to enhance cultural values as proposed by Bresner (2010) and Hill (2011) that tourism presents an opportunity for communities to nurture their culture while simultaneously generating income. Such a coexistence which enhances preservation of local culture and sustainability of tourism should be encouraged.

The findings showed that the economic dimension was the most important to the community as it affected individual livelihoods as well as the local economy. Findings in line with that of Agrawal & Redford (2006) and Stronza & Gordillo (2008) that incomes generated and newly created jobs were the most common “indicators of success” in CBTIs. However, though tourism had attracted investments in the area, created jobs and increased household income, these impacts had not translated to improved standards of living, the ultimate economic goal of tourism development. Hence the community had a negative perception towards the economic impacts of tourism. This was mainly due to poor performance of tourism, minimal external support and low crop production attributed farm raids by wildlife.

Failure by the investor to manage a tourism facility as required, supply sufficient tourists, and maintain the roads was the main reason for awful performance of tourism. Inability of the community to fully exploit tourism potential of their local area as noted by Schilcher (2007) and Manyara & Jones (2007), attributed to lack of resources and complexity of the tourism industry made the situation worse.

The results indicated that tourism was unable to sustain the financial needs of CBTIs, given its vulnerability to factors beyond the control of communities. External

interventions especially on funding, infrastructure development, business planning and development will remain relevant for a little longer. Stakeholders should seek alternative income generating projects to supplement tourism. Spenceley & Meyer (2012) noted that community based tourism programmes initiated by development agencies were not always stand-alone, but were often incorporated within broader programmes supporting economic development or biodiversity conservation. Since CBTI's in Kenya were started to support the conservation agenda, their support for tourism goes beyond the local community and the ecosystems they are part of, they are a national issue. Therefore, both national and county governments should review their support for CBTIs, with the intention of handling them the same way parks and reserves that do not raise sufficient funds for sustenance from tourism are handled.

Results revealed that though MES was established as a strategy to win community support for the conservation agenda particularly that of elephants, respondents showed a negative perception towards its impacts on conservation. Reduction on quantity of natural resources available to the community, resulting to illegal access of these resources (timber and non-timber) from the Sanctuary by the community, reduction of wildlife populations due to poaching and hunting for game meat, and degradation of environment due to browsing pressure from elephants and invasive species were their major concerns.

It can be argued that though CBTIs positively impacted on conservation and tourism development at inception this was not sufficient to ensure improved biodiversity and a quality tourism product. Threats such as overgrazing of vegetation by wildlife, illegal

harvesting of flora and fauna, invasive species and poaching do negatively impact on biodiversity in CBTIs. According to Millenium Ecosystem Assesment (2006) when natural resources are overexploited, fundamental ecosystem changes occur which make ecosystem recovery to full service slow or impossible, and degradation is said to have taken place.

Degraded ecosystems support half or less of the biodiversity of non-degraded ecosystems (Scholes & Biggs, 2005). Biodiversity goals could be difficult to achieve especially when ecosystems are influenced by factors beyond the capacity/mandate of the CBTI (the case of poaching, logging and invasive species). Since the MES tourism product is wildlife oriented decrease in wildlife diversity /population should be keenly studied with the objective of making improvements. Further, local community should be trained on sustainable harvesting of forest products, alternative sources of forest products/ natural resources and alternative livelihoods.

Finally, the results indicated that there was a statistically significant positive relationship between socio-economic benefits and community involvement/participation, and that community's perception to benefits could predict their participation in tourism up to 33%. The findings implied that socio-economic benefits derived could predict involvement of the local community.

That is if the local community perceive that tourism will deliver socio-economic benefits, they are likely to participate, and the more an individual participates in tourism development, the more the socio- economic benefits he is likely to derive. Stakeholders

in tourism at CBTI level should formulate programmes and activities in such a way that they encourage optimum participation by the local community to enhance sustainability.

4.5.4 Community Attitudes Towards Tourism Development

How community views tourism influences success and sustainability of CBT projects. Community attitudes are predominantly determined by outcomes of tourism development at specific sites and prevailing environmental factors. Community attitudes were determined based on whether; tourism had negatively impacted on livelihoods of the community, community was dissatisfied with the economic benefits of tourism, conservation agency focused more on wildlife protection than on community interests and whether respondents wished to revert land back to agriculture as opposed to conservation and tourism. Statements were negatively formulated so that responses pointed in the same direction, for ease of analysis. Responses were recorded based on Likert classification scale of 1= strongly agree; 2= agree; 3=neither agree nor disagree; 4= disagree; 5=strongly disagree.

Sustainability of any community development project depends on its impacts to livelihoods of the local community. Respondents were asked if tourism development in MES had negatively impacted on their livelihoods. In response majority 98.5% consented (strongly agree and agree) to this statement, $M=1.64$, $SD=0.647$ (table 4.13). They attributed their response to crop raids and limitation on times of movement (early morning and evening were risky) by elephants. Findings were similar to those of Baral & Heinen (2007); Shibia (2010) and Snyman (2012) who noted that Human Wildlife Conflict led to less positive attitudes to tourism and conservation. Stakeholders in

conservation need to minimize incidences of HWC in order to improve relations with CBTI members.

Table 4.13: Responses to various indicators of attitude

Attitude indicator	N	Mean		Std. deviation
		Stat	Stat	Std error
1. Tourism development in MES has negatively impacted my livelihoods.	130	1.64	.057	.647
2. I am dissatisfied with the economic benefits of tourism in MES.	130	1.45	.070	.797
3. Conservation agency focuses more on wildlife protection than on community interests in MES.	130	2.01	.059	.676
4. I would rather use my land for agriculture than have it under MES for conservation and tourism.	130	3.78	.038	.429
Mean		2.22	0.56	0.637

Communities embrace tourism because of the positive economic development associated with tourism development. Continued enjoyment of economic benefits leads to favourable attitudes towards tourism and CBTIs. Favourable community attitudes enhance sustainability of projects. Respondents were asked if they were dissatisfied with the economic benefits of tourism in MES. All respondents (74.6% strongly agree and 25.4% agreed) M=1.45, SD =0.797 acknowledged that they were dissatisfied with economic benefits derived from MES.

Dissatisfaction was attributed to little compensation, few employment opportunities and minimal economic linkages discussed in economic impacts. Findings similar to that of Irandu (2004) who noted that community attitude towards tourism development were influenced by the extent to which a community appreciates the economic benefits of tourism.

Support for government conservation agencies by local community enhances gathering of information which is necessary for conservation of wildlife resources in CBTIs. For such a symbiotic relationship to prevail conservation agencies must not only focus on conservation of wildlife resources but also on the needs of the local community. Failure to which, the local community develops apathy towards conservation agencies and to tourism development.

Respondents were asked whether the conservation agency (KWS) focused more on wildlife in MES than on community interests. Majority of the respondents 95.5% (11.5% strongly agreed and 83.8% agreed) $M=2.01$, $SD=0.676$ concurred with this statement. A response attributed to undelivered promises (construction of an office, maintenance of roads and better returns, highlighted in constraints to participation) made at inception and during AGMs. Respondents complained that the agency took too long to address their concerns yet when an issue touched on security of wildlife, response was prompt.

Local community members contribute land to form CBTIs. Land is their major investments in tourism development. Conservation and tourism development through CBTI is among various land use options available to local communities. This kind of a

land use can only be sustained if communities have a positive attitude towards on-going development projects. Respondents were asked whether they would rather put their land under agriculture than have it under MES for conservation and tourism.

Of the respondents 76.2% responded to the contrary (66.2% disagree and 10% strongly disagree) $M= 3.78$, $SD=0.429$ to this statement, whereas 15.4% neither agreed nor disagreed and a mere 8.5% agreed. Respondents mentioned that putting the land under agriculture would lead to more HEC, family conflicts and risk of losing land to land grabbers. Thus respondents had a positive attitude towards conservation and tourism development as a land use option as opposed to agriculture. Respondents explained that though MES was facing challenges, conservation and tourism development would give better returns in future as happened in the past. Findings in line with observation by Kiss (2004) that the hope of better returns in future can cultivate positive attitudes to conservation and tourism by local communities. For how long communities hold on to this hope was beyond the scope of the study.

The average mean score for all the attitude indicators was 2.22, $SD = 0.637$. Meaning that, generally respondents had a negative attitude towards tourism development in MES. However, it should be noted that this was due to the outcomes of tourism (especially economic), otherwise the community preferred conservation and tourism development as a land use as opposed to agriculture. In response to a question on the way forward, of all respondents 43.8% mentioned the need for more support from government, 28.5% the need to get an investor and 27.7% mentioned the need for more donor support, results similar to those of Meguro & Inoue (2011) who established that

68% of respondents in Kimana believed that KWS should carry out wildlife conservation, and 35% said that a tourism company should manage the Sanctuary. This showed that external support was still necessary in CBTI development.

Interviewees indicated that they were dissatisfied with continued farm raids by wildlife and minimal economic benefits derived from tourism development. However, they did not consider crop raiding and limitation on times of movement by elephants a cost of tourism, but a cost of conservation, which affected the entire community (members and non-members of MES). They also explained that they preferred conservation and tourism to agriculture as a land use in MES as they feared that agriculture would lead to an increase in HEC.

To establish if a relationship existed between landowners' attitudes towards tourism development in MES and their involvement, a regression analysis was carried out. Landowners' attitude was the independent variable and involvement the dependent variable. From table 4.14 the R value which represented linear regression was 0.887. This indicated a high positive association between landowners' attitudes and their involvement. The R^2 value indicated how much of the dependent variable (involvement) could be explained by the independent variable "attitude", in this case it was 75%. This implied that landowners' attitudes could predict their involvement up to 75% which was considerably high.

Table 4.14: Regression summary for local community's attitude and involvement

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.887 ^a	.750	.694	.201

a. Predictors: (Constant) landowners attitudes

The ANOVA table (table 4.15) shows that, the P value was 0.010 (P=0.010) which was less than the conventional cut off of 0.05, implying that landowners' attitudes can significantly predict their involvement in tourism development.

Table 4.15: ANOVA table for local community's attitude and involvement

ANOVA^a						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	.857	8	.107	2.665	.010^b
	Residual	4.866	121	.040		
	Total	5.723	129			

a. Dependent Variable: Involvement

b. Predictors: (Constant) landowners' attitudes

The regression analysis indicated that there was a positive statistically significant relationship between landowners' attitudes towards tourism development in MES and their involvement (R=0.887, P=0.010). Determination of community attitude towards tourism was the main focus of this section. The results indicated that the local community had a negative attitude towards tourism development in MES, though they acknowledged conservation and tourism development as their preferred land use option.

Negative attitude was mainly attributed to dissatisfaction with economic benefits derived from tourism by the community. Respondents' unsatisfied hunger for economic

development as a result of low annual compensation, few jobs created and lack of economic linkage with agriculture due to low tourism numbers were the main causes of unfavourable attitude. Studies by Stronza & P[^]egas (2008), Lepp & Holland (2006) and Irandu (2004) established that enjoyment of revenue from tourism development led to positive attitudes towards tourism by the local community, while absence of desired economic benefits resulted to unfavourable attitudes. Economic benefits were therefore identified as a major factor that influences community attitudes in CBTIs. Proponents of CBTIs should ensure that such projects meet economic expectations of the host community.

Crop raids and limitation in times of movement of community members by elephants negatively impacted on community livelihoods, and thus influenced unfavourable attitudes of the local community. However, it was found to be a cost of conservation and not tourism. This was attributed to inefficiency of the conservation agency in handling HWC. Therefore, wildlife conservation managers and stakeholders of protected areas should device effective strategies of reducing HWC.

Though CBTIs were established through external intervention by the government conservation agency (KWS) as a strategy to enhance local community support for the conservation agenda (Cater, 2006), findings of this study showed that the agency's focus on conservation at the expense of community interests led to unfavourable attitudes. Key concerns of the community were undelivered promises (construction of an office, maintenance of the roads and better returns), observation similar to that of Kibicho (2008) who noted that KWS failed to fulfil promises to the local community in

Kimana which included compensation, and implementation of various community projects like construction of cattle dips, health clinics, classrooms and (water) dams. Both the local community and the government should agree on what projects are feasible within specified time frames and work towards their implementation.

Positive attitude was expressed towards conservation and tourism development as a land use. Findings attributed to optimism that tourism would give better returns in future, a conviction that turning the land to agriculture would lead to low crop production due to poor soils, increased HEC, land disputes and environmental degradation. Positive attitude despite the challenges was an indication that past positive impacts favourably influence community attitudes towards conservation and tourism. Stakeholders need to build on this goodwill from communities to improve tourism in CBTIs and offer better returns. Considering that at inception and 8 years that followed, the local community welcomed tourism in MES, this negative attitude depicts the *tolerance* (Ap & Crompton,1993) associated with the second stage of local resident reaction to tourism development. However, unlike in Ap & Crompton (1993) *tolerance* stage which was occasioned by increased tourism activities, the situation in MES was due to reduced tourism activities. Findings that the success of MES could only be through support from government, donors (NGOs) and partnership with investors stresses that external support is still necessary in CBTI development. Therefore, the current model of partnership between government and CBTIs need to be reviewed in light of existing challenges and attitudes of the local community.

The results showed that a positive significant relationship existed between local community's attitude towards tourism development and their involvement. Involving the local community ensures that they are aware of progress, opportunities and challenges facing tourism at their site. Their inputs in tourism development create a sense of ownership, and more favourable attitudes. Those in charge of tourism development in CBTIs need to involve the communities at every level of development. However, the cost of involvement and objectives of the CBTI must be considered to ensure that concerns of the community are addressed.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Introduction

The study evaluated the effectiveness of CBTIs in the development of sustainable tourism with regard to Mwaluganje Elephant Sanctuary. It aimed to establish whether CBTIs were sustainably developed as tourism sites. The study was specifically set to; establish the level of community participation in tourism development, investigate the constraints to community participation in tourism development and to determine the community's attitudes towards socio-economic and environmental impacts of tourism development. A summary of the findings, conclusions and recommendations based on the findings of the study are presented in this chapter. Areas for further research in relation to the study are also suggested.

5.1 Summary of Findings

Community participation in tourism development was through elected leaders and appointed officials who first consulted the local community. Major roles of the local community were identified as to; give consent on utilisation of their land resource for CBTI establishment, share benefits, and provide views and opinions on nature of tourism development to be undertaken. However, they (community) had no power to ensure that whatever had been agreed upon was implemented. Further, the community played minor minimal roles in conservation of natural and cultural resources, promoting MES as a tourist site and reporting unsustainable practices. The local community was

therefore found to have been involved in tourism development from a low to moderate extent.

All three categories (operational, structural and cultural) of limitations to community participation were identified in MES. Lack of coordination among stakeholders was the main constraint at the operational level. It was portrayed by private investor not having adequately playing her role and the conservation agency (KWS) not having created a conducive environment to enable the community fully participate in tourism development. Lack of financial resources (due to a failed community private partnership and minimal external support), lack of skills and knowledge to manage tourism, and lack of appropriate legal landownership system were structural constraints hindering community participation. Finally, low level of awareness on tourism issues was the only cultural constraint found to be hindering community participation in tourism development. These constraints hindered community participation from a moderate to high extent.

The local community positively perceived the impacts of tourism on the social cultural fabric of the community as it led to revival of various cultural activities, enhanced cultural identity and pride, and increased social assets. Distribution of social infrastructure assets was skewed leading to discontent amongst community members. Increase in crime was the only negative social impact attributed to tourism development in MES. The economic dimension was found to be the most important for the local community. However, though tourism had attracted investment in the area, created jobs and increased household income, respondents negatively perceived these positive

economic impacts as they had not translated to improved standards of living due to their minimal outputs, and continued farm raids by elephants. Similarly, respondents negatively perceived impacts of MES on biodiversity conservation. This was attributed to a reduction in the quantity of natural resources available to the community, a drop in wildlife populations, and degradation of environment due to browsing pressure from elephants and invasive species. The study established that there was a statistically significant positive relationship between socio-economic benefits and community participation.

The community had a negative attitude towards tourism development in MES, attributed to; HWC, low compensation, few employment opportunities, little economic linkage with other sectors, and unfulfilled promises by the conservation agency. However, the community had a positive attitude towards conservation and tourism development as a land use. This was attributed to optimism that tourism would give better returns in future, fear that if the land reverted back to agriculture production would be too low, HEC would increase, land related conflicts would emerge, some members would lose land to grabbers and the environment would be highly degraded. The results showed that a positive significant relationship exists between local community's attitude towards tourism development and their involvement in tourism development.

5.3 Conclusions

Local community participation in tourism development from a low to moderate extent found in MES denoted participation; by consultation, for material gains, functional

participation and induced participation all of which are at best degrees of tokenism. These rungs of participation were below the expected level of participation for sustainable tourism development as they are more passive and less authentic and interactive. Community participation was pre-empted by factors beyond the community's control.

The operational, structural and cultural limitations to participation identified hindered community participation from a moderate to a high extent. These deficiencies created difficulties in the community participation process and slowed down the tourism sites development process leading to little individual and community benefits. The overall outcome was the communities' limited enthusiasm towards the tourism industry which negatively affects sustainability of tourism development in CBTIs.

The local community's negative perception of the economic and environmental impacts of tourism outweighed the positive perception of tourism's impact on the social cultural fabric of the community. Tourism development failed to translate to improved standards of living due to minimal economic outputs, reduction in the quantity of natural resources available, increase in HWC and degradation of the environment brought about by browsing pressure from elephants and invasive species.

The community had a negative attitude towards tourism development owing to its outcomes which were below expectations (minimal) but had a positive attitude towards conservation and tourism development as a land use. Thus, the community attitudes shifted from enthusiasm to apathy, but in this case it was due to failure to achieve the

desired outcomes from tourism development. These negative attitudes could frustrate tourism development unless mitigation measures are urgently taken. Positive attitudes towards conservation and tourism development as a land use shows that they are preferred and more secure in reducing; HWC, land related conflicts, land grabbing and are more environmental friendly than current forms of agriculture. This presents an opportunity in terms of time and confidence from the community to other stakeholders in tourism to improve on the outcomes of tourism development in CBTIs before the community gets to aggression stage. A positive significant relationship between local community's attitude towards tourism development and their involvement in tourism development emphasizes the necessity of involving the community in all aspects of tourism development at their local site.

In light of the above key conclusions and considering that MES was established as a strategy to; mitigate serious human-elephant conflict, generate economic benefits to the community through tourism development and maintain the Sanctuary as a biodiversity conservation area it is evident that these objectives have not been achieved to the satisfaction of the MES community. It is clear that two decades after their inception CBTIs have been able to make some impact on socio-cultural, economic and environmental dimensions of communities in Kenya; however this has been below expectations of the local communities. The study concludes that based on the ideal outcomes of sustainable tourism development in CBTIs i.e. spontaneous community participation, favourable social cultural, economic and environmental impacts, which lead to improved standards of living; current model of a CBTI in Kenya is not sustainable.

Due to low level of education, undiversified livelihoods, low levels of participation, and dissatisfaction with outcomes of both economic and environmental dimensions CBTIs are maintaining an unsustainable status quo and tending towards “minimalistic sustainable tourism” model as opposed to “comprehensive sustainable tourism” model. Minimalistic sustainable tourism model stipulates that a tourism product that is not financially feasible will not last, no matter how sustainable it is from an environmental and socio-cultural standpoint. Further, the findings showed that CBTIs can only succeed through steady external intervention from government and NGOs, and fair partnerships with the private sector.

Therefore, the current model of CBTIs in Kenya needs a major review, mainly in relation to assimilating the principles of sustainable tourism development and conservation. Particularly government (both National and County) should set budgets for CBTIs to ensure that infrastructure especially roads are maintained to the required standards, biodiversity and security are improved, community participation and favourable socioeconomic and environmental outcomes are enhanced. Further, the principle of fairness should be enhanced in all community-private partnerships arrangements.

5.4 Recommendations for Policy and Practice

Since sustainability of CBTIs is pegged on achievement of objectives set by the community at inception, clear policy statement in support of achieving CBTI objectives and community involvement in tourism that addresses issues of gender, youth and gaps in capacity to manage tourism enterprises by the community should be embraced.

To address both operational and structural constraints to community participation the government both national and county should develop policies that compel investors to honour agreements with communities, assist communities in entering into fair partnerships with investors, and provide incentives to investors in tourism to cushion them against factors beyond their control.

The conservation agency in conjunction with communities should implement and oversee issue related to security, biodiversity monitoring, product improvement, infrastructure development and maintenance (roads, fence, watering points, and reintroduction of species). This would ensure quality tourism products are offered that enhance conservation in CBTIs.

To enhance sustainability of CBTIs an alternative tourism development strategy is required which addresses issues of packaging of local products, marketing and inequitable distribution of tourism revenues. For instance to increase tourists' numbers and revenues MES and Shimba Hills National Reserve could be marketed and sold as one tourism product, in any case they are one ecosystem. In such an arrangement a client could pay at one ticketing point, and then visit both MES and Shimba in the same day at lower price than if he/she purchased the two separately. A mechanism of sharing the revenue would then be agreed. This "enhancement sustainable tourism approach" would redress the "unsustainable status quo".

Since the economic dimension is the most critical for sustainability of CBTIs, stakeholders (including government) should adopt a "minimum compensation amount

per acre” based on the economic value of the land. Landowners should not earn less than the stipulated minimum annually.

The government should facilitate landowners to create Wildlife Conservation Easements in all conservation based CBTIs as stipulated in the Wildlife Management and Conservation Act 2013. Section 69, part VIII of the act provides guidelines for the creation of wildlife conservation order or easements. Being a new policy with legal implications sufficient community sensitization, awareness and capacity building will have to be carried out to ensure that communities make informed decisions. Income from tourism could then supplement the “compensation” mentioned in the act to ensure that communities get a higher income from their land.

The national government, county government and other external agencies should educate communities on alternative sources of natural resources, efficient utilisation of natural resources and provision of renewable alternatives. Aggressive agro forestry needs to be undertaken by the communities bordering both MES and the SHNR. Indigenous trees of medicinal and cultural importance should be incorporated in the agro forestry. Use of solar lamps and energy saving *jiko*'s should be encouraged. This will reduce dependence on MES as a source of natural resources for the community.

The government, NGOs and MES management should ensure social infrastructural assets associated with tourism development are evenly distributed within the two villages (Golini and Mwaluganje) and that their quality and quantity are improved/increased depending on the desires of the community. Finally, CBT proponents and stakeholders should encourage communities to approach these

initiatives as business entity as well as a national conservation and tourism resources. Through this they will be able to easily incorporate other income generating projects.

5.5 Recommendation for Further Research

It is hoped that this study will encourage further studies on community based tourism and sustainable tourism development in Kenya and the rest of the world, while providing valuable insights for both academics and practitioners. The following areas are proposed for further study;

- i. An assessment of the factors influencing involvement of local community in the conservation of natural and cultural resources in and adjacent the Shimba Hills ecosystem.
- ii. Effectiveness of the use of community based tourism as a tool to mitigate human wildlife conflict in areas adjacent the ShimbaHills ecosystem.
- iii. The research looked at tourism sustainability from the point of view of the community and resources administrators (KWS, KFS and MES administration), it did not capture views of the resource users (Tourists). Future research should therefore include the resources users.
- iv. A socio economic survey should be conducted within the communities around the MES. An understanding of the economic contribution of tourism development, community utilisation of plants and animals and the conservation area at large, will guide tourism development, conservation efforts and improvement of livelihoods of the community.

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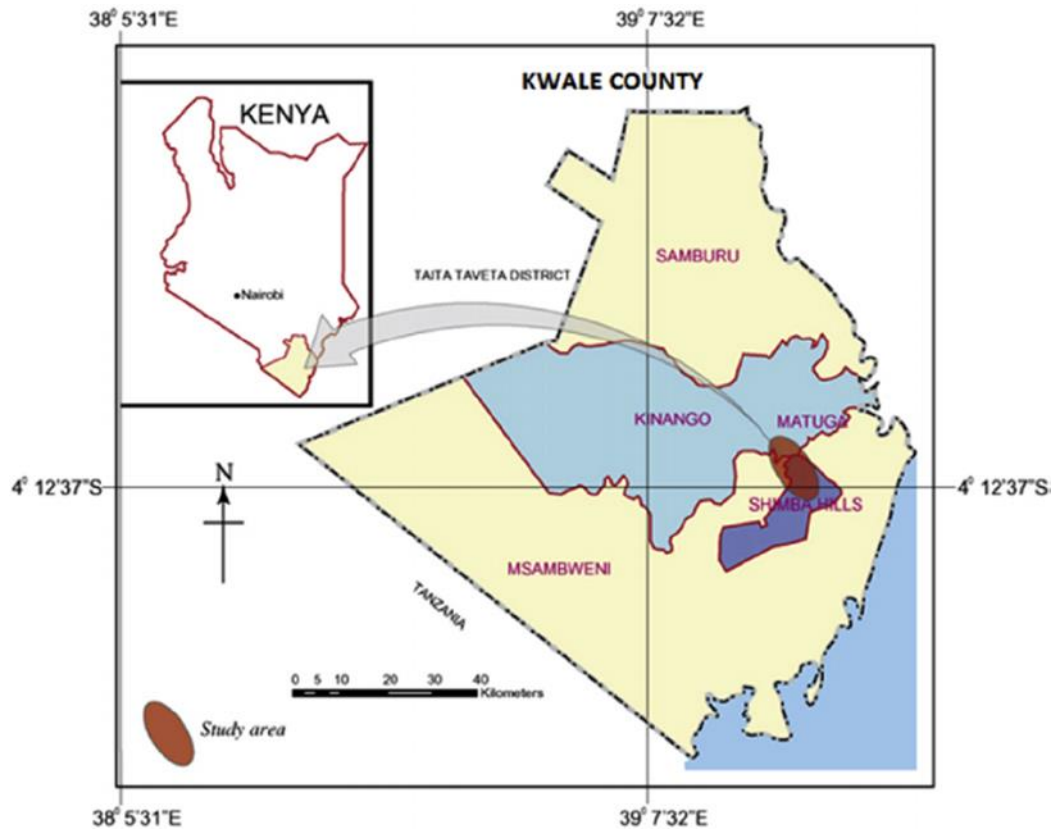
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7.0 APPENDICES

Appendix I: A Map of Mwaluganje Elephant Sanctuary




Source; (Google maps, 2016)

Appendix II: Research permit

THIS IS TO CERTIFY THAT:
MR. PAUL MAKAU MUSILA
of **KENYATTA UNIVERSITY, 0-80100**
MOMBASA, has been permitted to
conduct research in Kwale County
on the topic: **EFFICACY OF COMMUNITY
BASED TOURISM INITIATIVES IN THE
DEVELOPMENT OF SUSTAINABLE
TOURISM: A CASE OF MWALUGANJE
ELEPHANT SANCTUARY IN KWALE
COUNTY, KENYA.**
for the period ending:
31st December, 2013

Permit No : NACOSTI/P/13/3608/179
Date Of Issue : 14th November, 2013
Fee Received : Kshs khs1000.00



Applicant's Signature

Secretary
**National Commission for Science,
Technology & Innovation**

Appendix III: Introduction letter

Paul M. Musila
Kenyatta University
School of Hospitality and Tourism Management
P. O Box 43844
Nairobi

Dear respondent,

Re: Research

I am a post graduate student at Kenyatta University, undertaking a Master of Science Degree in International Tourism Management, doing research as a partial fulfilment of the course. The topic of the research is “Efficacy of Community Based Tourism Initiatives in Sustainable Tourism Development: A case of Mwaluganje Elephant Sanctuary, Kwale County”. The purpose of the study is to determine the efficacy of community based tourism initiatives in sustainable tourism development in Mwaluganje elephant sanctuary, Kwale.

Kindly avail yourself and respondent to the interview. This will take approximately 30 minutes. Information collected will be treated with confidentiality and will be used for academic purposes only.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Yours Faithfully

Paul M. Musila

Appendix IV: Questionnaire for landowners

Section A: Demographic information

1. Gender: Male Female
2. Please indicate your age
 - 18-30 years
 - 31- 40years
 - 41- 50 years
 - 51 years and above
3. Section: Golini Mwaluganje
4. What is your level of education?
 - No schooling
 - Primary education
 - Secondary education
 - Mid-level College
 - University
5. What is your main source of livelihood?
 - Crop farming
 - Livestock keeping
 - Mixed farming
 - Employment

Others specify.....

SECTION B

6. Are you involved in the development of MES as a tourism destination?
 - Yes
 - No
7. Please rate the extent you agree or disagree with the following statements in relation to your role in the development of MES as a tourism destination.

1=strongly agree, 2=agree; 3=neither agree nor disagree; 4=disagree; 5=strongly disagree

	Statement	Rating				
		1	2	3	4	5
1.	I was actively involved at the inception of MES.					
2.	I am involved in decision making in MES.					
3.	I am involved in benefit sharing in MES.					
4.	I am actively involved in conservation of the natural and					

	Statement	Rating				
		1	2	3	4	5
	cultural resources in MES.					
5.	I am the eyes of the conservation agency (KWS) on the ground and report any unsustainable practices within MES.					
6.	I am an ambassador of MES in promoting it.					
7.	I am involved in the implementation of various activities in MES					

8. Please rate the extent you agree or disagree with the following statements in relation to the constraints to local community participation in the development of MES.

1=strongly agree, 2=agree; 3=neither agree nor disagree; 4=disagree; 5=strongly disagree

	Statement	Rating				
		1	2	3	4	5
1.	The community lacks financial resources for tourism development.					
2.	The community members lack skills/ knowledge to manage tourism development in MES.					
3.	I am not adequately consulted on decisions regarding the development of MES.					
4.	Benefits from MES do not trickle down to the community .					
5.	The private investor Dhanjal investment ltd be has not adequately played her role; development and management of a catering and accommodation facility, road maintenance, thus constraining community participation.					
6.	KWS has not created a conducive environment (involving the community, branding, restocking, and control of animals) to enable the community fully participate in their projects in MES.					

9. Please rate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements in relation to your perception on the socio-economic and environmental impacts of MES as a tourism destination.

1=strongly agree, 2=agree; 3=neither agree nor disagree; 4=disagree; 5=strongly disagree

	Statement	Rating				
		1	2	3	4	5
1.	Tourism has led to revival of various cultural activities by the local people.					
2.	Tourism has enhanced our cultural identity.					
3.	Tourism has resulted to an increase in social assets (schools, hospitals, water supply etc.)					
4.	Tourism has led to degradation of the local culture.					
5.	Tourism has contributed to an increase in immorality.					
6.	Tourism has contributed to an increase in crime.					
7.	MES has attracted investment to our community.					
8.	Development of MES has created jobs for our community.					
9.	MES has led to an increase in my household income.					
10.	Tourism has led to increased prices of goods and services which the local people can no longer afford.					
11.	I have suffered from living near MES because wild animals have been destroying my crops.					
12.	MES has denied the community an opportunity to use the available land for other purposes.					
13.	We provided land for establishment of MES but have received minimal benefits from its development.					
14.	Our standards of living have considerably increased because of MES.					
15.	MES has led to a decrease in the quantity of forest products (timber/non-timber products, medical herbs/shrubs) available to the landowners.					
16.	MES was established to conserve elephants but their population that of other animals and quality of flora has reduced.					
17.	MES has led to the development of hotels and tourists facilities in the area which have destroyed the natural environment.					

10. Please indicate the extent you agree or disagree with the following statements in relation to your attitude towards tourism development in MES.

1=strongly agree, 2=agree; 3=neither agree nor disagree; 4=disagree; 5=strongly disagree

	Statement	Rating				
		1	2	3	4	5
1.	Tourism development in MES has negatively impacted my livelihoods.					
2.	I am dissatisfied with the economic benefits from tourism in MES.					
3.	Conservation agency focuses more on wildlife protection than on community interests in MES.					
4.	I would rather use my land for agriculture than have it under MES for conservation and tourism.					

SECTION C

11. Any other comment regarding your attitude towards tourism development in MES.....

.....

12. What are your recommendations as far as the development of MES as a tourism destination is concerned?.....

Appendix V: Interview schedule for elected directors and staff

1. What section of MES do you come from?
2. How do landowners participate in tourism development?.....
3. What are the constraints to landowners participation in tourism development in MES?.....
4. Have other stakeholders satisfactorily played their role in tourism development? Explain.....
5. What benefits do you get from MES? List them in order of importance to you.
6. How has the establishment of MES affected your house hold income?
7. How has the establishment of MES affected the development of social assets and social interactions in your village?
8. How has the establishment of MES affected natural environment in this area?
9. Explain your attitude towards MES in regard to community benefits, economic development, and conservation and tourism development as a land use.
10. What would be your recommendations be as far as the development of MES as a tourism site is concerned?

Appendix VI: Interview schedule for ex-officio directors

1. What is the name the organisation you work for?.....
2. Does your organisation benefit from the existence of MES?
3. Is the organisation still involved in MES activities? []Yes [] No
Explain.....
4. What are the major constraints to your organisation involvement in tourism development in MES?
.....
5. What are the major constraints facing local landowners' involvement in tourism development in MES?
.....
6. What kind of support do you think MES needs in future to help develop as a tourism site?.....
.....
7. What policy issues do you think should be put in place to ensure maximum benefits to the landowners?
.....
8. What would your recommendations be as far as the development of MES as a tourism site is concerned?.....
.....

Appendix VII: Frequency table of community's response to various statements of the questionnaire

1=Strongly agree, 2=Agree; 3=Neither agree nor Disagree; 4=Disagree; 5=Strongly disagree

Statements on role in the development of MES as a tourism destination	1		2		3		4		5		Totals	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Involved at the inception of MES.	35	26.9	95	73.1	-	-	-	-	-	-	130	100
Involved in decision making in MES.	14	10.8	116	89.2	-	-	-	-	-	-	130	100
Involved in benefit sharing in MES.	110	84.6	20	15.4	-	-	-	-	-	-	130	100
Involved in conservation of the natural and cultural resources in MES.	-	-	41	31.5	13	10	72	55.4	4	3.1	130	100
I report unsustainable practices within MES.	-	-	36	27.7	-	-	82	63.1	12	9.2	130	100
You are an ambassador of MES in promoting it.	-	-	15	11.5	10	7.7	99	76.2	6	4.6	130	100
You are involved in the implementation of various activities in MES.	-	-	4	3.1	4	3.1	108	83.1	14	10.8	130	100
Statements on constraints to local community participation in the development of MES.												
Community lacks financial resources for tourism development.	47	36.2	83	63.8	-	-	-	-	-	-	130	100
Community members lack skills/ knowledge to manage tourism development in MES.	30	23.1	100	76.9	-	-	-	-	-	-	130	100
You are not adequately consulted on decisions regarding the development of MES.	-	-	-	-	-	-	67	51.5	63	48.5	130	100
Benefits from MES do not trickle down to the community.	-	-	2	1.5	-	-	79	60.8	49	37.7	130	100
Private investor has not adequately played her	49	37.7	81	62.3	-	-	-	-	-	-	130	100

role.												
KWS has not created a conducive environment to enable the community fully participate in their projects in MES.	51	39.2	77	59.2	-	-	2	1.5	-	-	130	100
Statements on perception towards socio-economic and environmental impacts of MES as a tourism destination.												
Tourism has led to revival of various cultural activities.	2	1.5	124	95.4	2	1.5	-	-	2	1.5	130	100
Tourism has enhanced our cultural identity.	-	-	124	95.4	4	3.1	2	1.5	-	-	130	100
Tourism has resulted to an increase in social assets (schools, hospitals, water supply etc.)	19	14.6	69	53.1	-	-	30	23.1	12	9.2	130	100
Tourism has led to degradation of the local culture.	-	-	-	-	-	-	96	73.9	34	26.1	130	100
Tourism has contributed to an increase in immorality.	-	-	9	6.9	3	2.3	99	76.2	19	14.6	130	100
Tourism has contributed to an increase in crime.	9	6.9	119	91.5	2	1.5	-	-	-	-	130	100
MES has attracted investment to our community.	8	6.2	122	93.8	-	-	-	-	-	-	130	100
Development of MES has created jobs for our community.	5	3.8	120	92.3	-	-	3	2.3	2	1.5	130	100
MES has led to an increase in my household income.	-	-	128	98.5	2	1.5	-	-	-	-	130	100
Tourism has led to increased prices of goods and services which the local people can no longer afford.	-	-	-	-	3	2.3	81	62.3	46	35.4	130	100
I have suffered from living near MES because wild animals have been destroying my crops.	27	20.8	103	79.2	-	-	-	-	-	-	130	100
MES has denied the community an opportunity	12	9.2	110	84.6	8	6.2	-	-	-	-	130	100

Appendix IX: Budget

Components	Descriptions	Items	Quantity/units	Unit cost (Kshs)	Costs (Kshs)	
Proposal writing.	Literature review (Library search)	Transport and subsistence	10 days	1000.00	10,000.00	
		Internet service	20 hrs	60.00	1,200.00	
		Photocopy	200 pcs	3.00	600.00	
Sub- total					11,800.00	
Research	Reconnaissance and pre-testing of questionnaires	Transport and subsistence	3 days	1000.00	3,000.00	
	Data collection	Self (transport, subsistence and accommodation)	15 days	1000.00	15,000.00	
Sub total					18,000.00	
Writing of research report	Draft reports (3)	Printing/photocopying	210 pgs	3.00	630.00	
		Presentation	Transport and accommodation	3trips	5000.00	15,000.00
		Final report (4)	Printing and binding of final	724 pgs		5000.00
Sub-total					20,630.00	
Total					50,430.00	
Contingency					5043.00	
Grant total					55,473.00	