

**LOCAL RESIDENTS' ATTITUDES AND PERCEPTIONS TOWARDS
TOURISM DEVELOPMENT: A STUDY OF LAKE NAKURU NATIONAL
PARK AND ITS ENVIRONS, KENYA**

BY

PHOEBE N. KARIUKI

**A THESIS SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE
REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF PHILOSOPHY OF
TOURISM MANAGEMENT OF THE DEPARTMENT OF TOURISM
MANAGEMENT, MOI UNIVERSITY**

NOVEMBER, 2013

DECLARATION

Declaration by the Candidate

This thesis is my original work and has not been presented to any other University or College for the award of a degree. This work should not be reproduced without the express authority of the author and/ or Department of Tourism Management, Moi University.

Signature.....

Date

Phoebe Nyambura Kariuki

SBE/PGT/014/09

Declaration by Supervisors

This thesis has been submitted for examination with our approval as university supervisors.

Prof. Noah Sitati

Signature.....

Date

Department of Tourism Management

Moi University, Eldoret, Kenya

Prof. Hellen Ipara

Signature.....

Date

Department of Wildlife Management

University of Eldoret, Eldoret, Kenya

DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my parents Mr. and Mrs. Kariuki Kairu, my brothers, sister Asha and my lovely son Bradley Mainge.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

Successful completion of this thesis involved valuable contributions from many people and since it will not be possible to enumerate all of them, I will just name but a few. First and foremost, I would like to thank the Almighty God for giving me the health and a sound mind throughout my academic sessions that enabled me to attain my long awaited goals and objectives in academic circles.

Secondly, I would like to thank my supervisors Prof. Sitati and Prof. Ipara for accepting to be my supervisors and Dr. Kieti for her guidance in proposal writing. Their guidance, counseling, experience, knowledge and encouragement in the clarion motto “work hard” were very inspiring to me. I would also wish to express my sincere and profound gratitude to my parents Mr. and Mrs. Jim Kariuki Kairu and Hawa Njeri respectively, my brothers and sister Asha for their incessant encouragement for me to work hard.

Thirdly, I pay special tribute to the respondents who graciously availed their time to give me audience. Indeed, if they had not volunteered information, there would have been no data to write this thesis.

Lastly, am grateful to my classmates like Ken Magio and John Gitari, the entire university fraternity including the library staff who issued me with books, articles, journals and magazines that helped me get the necessary secondary data. God bless all who have contributed to the success of this thesis.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION.....	ii
DEDICATION	iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT	iv
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	v
LIST OF ACRONYMS	xiv
ABSTRACT.....	xvii
CHAPTER ONE.....	1
INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1 Background information.....	1
1.2 Statement of the problem.....	4
1.3 Objectives of the study	5
1.3.1 General Objective	5
1.3.2 Specific Objectives	5
1.5 Justification of the study	6
1.6 Significance of the study	6
1.7 Scope of the study	7
1.8 Assumptions of the study.....	7
CHAPTER TWO.....	8
LITERATURE REVIEW	8
2.0 Introduction.....	8
2.1 Concept of tourism	8
2.2 Over view of tourism development. A global perspective	8
2.3 Tourism Development in Kenya	10
2.4 Concept of local people their involvement and implications on tourism development ..	11

2.6 Typologies of Community participation.....	13
2.7 Attitudes and perceptions of local people towards tourism development	17
2.8 Factors influencing local people's attitudes and perceptions towards tourism development	22
2.8.1 Socio-economic factors.....	22
2.8.2 Human-wildlife conflict and their implications on attitudes and perceptions towards tourism development	23
2.9 Local people's access to benefits from Tourism Development	28
2.10 Costs incurred by local people and their implications on their attitudes and perceptions towards tourism Development	30
2.11 Wildlife conservation and tourism development in Kenya.....	31
2.11.1 Wildlife conservation and Tourism development during the pre-colonial period .	31
2.11.2 Wildlife conservation during the colonial period and its implication on tourism development.....	32
2.11.3 Wildlife Conservation during the post-colonial period and its implication to tourism development	34
2.12 Importance of wildlife conservation and its impact on tourism development	35
2.13 Theoretical Framework.....	Error! Bookmark not defined.
2.14 Conceptual Framework.....	36
CHAPTER THREE	39
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	39
3.0 Introduction.....	39
3.1 Study area	39
3.1.1 Location and size	40
3.1.2 Geology.....	41
3.1.3 Soils	41
3.1.4 Climate.....	41
3.1.5 Flora and fauna.....	42
3.1.6 Management of LNNP	44

3.1.8 Access to the park.....	46
3.1.9 Accommodation Facilities	46
3.1.10 Socio- economic activities	46
3.2 Research Methods	46
3.2.1 Research design.....	46
3.2.2 Target population.....	47
3.2.3 Sampling Procedures and sample selection	47
3.2.4 Sample size	47
3.3 Data collection procedures.....	48
3.3.1 Primary Data	48
3.3.2 Secondary data	49
3.4 Data analysis and presentation techniques.....	49
CHAPTER FOUR	51
RESULTS	51
4.0 Introduction.....	51
4.1 Characteristics of the respondents	51
4.2 Local people's involvement in tourism development.....	51
4.3 Local people's participation in wildlife conservation and management in LNNP.....	53
4.4 Hostility of park managers towards local people	53
4.5 Existence of effective measures to promote community participation in conservation and tourism development	53
4.6 Effect of amount and type of benefits on attitudes and perceptions of local people towards tourism development	54
4.7 Effect of level of awareness on attitudes and perceptions of local people towards tourism development	54
4.8 Effect of level of education on attitudes and perceptions of local people towards tourism development	55
4.9 Influence of amount and type of benefit on gender attitudes and perceptions towards tourism development	55

4.10 Effect of length of residency around the park on attitudes and perceptions of local people towards tourism development in LNNP	56
4.11 Level of differences among respondents on the effect of length of residency on attitudes and perceptions towards tourism development	56
4.12 Effect of reaping benefits on the attitudes and perceptions of local people towards tourism development	57
4.13 Effect of losses incurred from wildlife damage on the attitudes and perceptions of local people towards tourism development	58
4.14 Effect of costs incurred in repairing damage to property on the attitudes and perceptions of local people towards tourism development.....	58
4.2 Summary of Results from Focus Group Discussion	59
4.2.1 Conflict mitigation measures suggested during Focus Group Discussions.....	59
4.2.2 Crop damages by wild animals based on community's attitudes and perceptions towards tourism development	59
4.2.3 Responses on benefits received	59
4.2.4 Willingness to tolerate wild animals.....	59
4.3 Results from interviews with the park management	60
4.3.1 Local people's involvement in tourism development in LNNP	60
4.3.2 Major obstacles hindering local community participation in tourism development in LNNP	60
4.3.3 Attitudes and perceptions of local people towards tourism development in and around LNNP	60
4.3.4 Factors influencing the attitudes and perceptions of local people towards tourism development in LNNP	60
4.3.5 Measures taken to change people's attitudes and perceptions towards tourism development in and around LNNP	60
4.3.6 Benefits received by local people from LNNP	61
4.3.7 Effect of tourism benefits on local people's attitudes and perceptions towards tourism development in and around LNNP	61
4.3.8 Are there any costs incurred as a result of tourism development in LNNP	61
CHAPTER FIVE	61
DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	62

5.1 Introduction.....	62
5.2 Discussion	62
5.2 .1 Local people’s involvement in tourism development in LNNP and its implications on their attitudes perceptions.....	62
5.2.2 Local people’s participation in wildlife conservation and management and its impacts on their attitudes and perceptions towards tourism development in LNNP	63
5.2.3 Hostility of the park management staff towards local people and its impacts on their attitudes and perceptions towards tourism development	66
5.2.4 Effect of amount and type of benefit on the attitudes and perceptions of the local people towards tourism development in LNNP.....	68
5. 2.5 Effect of level of education on attitudes and perceptions of local people towards tourism development	69
5.2.6 Effect of length of residency on the attitudes and perceptions of local people towards tourism development	69
5.2.7 Effect of reaping benefits on the attitudes and perceptions of local people towards tourism development	70
5.2.8 Effect of costs incurred by local people in repairing damages to properties on attitudes and perception towards tourism development	70
5.2.9 Effect of losses incurred from wildlife damage on the attitudes and perceptions of local people towards tourism development	71
5.3 CONCLUSIONS.....	72
5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS.....	73
REFERENCES.....	75
APPENDIX 1: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE LOCAL RESIDENTS.....	83
APPENDIX 2: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR LNNP MANAGEMENT STAFF	91

LIST OF TABLES

Table 4.1. Respondent's socio-demographic profile	52
Table 4.2. Effect of participation, hostility of park managers and existence of effective participation measures	54
Table 4.3. Effect of benefits, awareness and level of education on local people	55
Table 4. 4. Effect of length of Residency on the attitudes and perceptions of local people towards tourism development	57
Table 4.5. Comparison of the effect of length of residency on attitudes and perception towards conservation and tourism development	57
Table 4.6. Effect of reaping of benefits, and incurring losses and costs from tourism development on attitudes and perceptions towards tourism development	58

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1. Normative typologies of community participation.....	17
Figure 2.2. Impact of people’s attitudes and perceptions towards tourism development	38
Figure 3.1. Map of the Study area	45
Figure 4.1. Responses on local people’s involvement in tourism development by occupation	53
Figure 4.2. Influence of amount and type of benefit on gender attitudes and perceptions towards tourism development.....	56

DEFINITION OF OPERATIONAL TERMS

Attitude: Is a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favor or disfavor.

Communities: This is a group of people who have the same religion, race, and occupation with shared interest and a common identity. They also have similar feelings, attitudes, perceptions and aspirations towards tourism development.

Commercialization: Is the process or cycle of introducing a new tourism product into the market for tourists to experience.

Ethnicity: This is the identity with or membership in a particular racial, national, or cultural group and observance of that group's custom, belief, and language.

Human-Wildlife conflict: Refers to the antagonistic encounters between humans and wildlife and may emanate from animals to humans or humans to animals

.

Local communities: Is considered as a tradition-based (indigenous) formal organization of individuals and households residing in a particular area or those that come together because they share a defined area and common resources or 'public goods' within that area.

Local participation: This is the ability of local communities to influence the outcome of development projects such as ecotourism that have an impact on them. Also according to Cernea (1991), it refers to an aspect of giving people more opportunities to participate effectively in development activities. It also refers to involvement of people in tourism or tourism ventures.

Local residents: These are households residing in a particular area having a common interest in benefiting from the use and management of these resources. This term is used interchangeably with local people.

Marginalized: This is the social process where a certain group of people become or have been made by the top government officials or the unfavorable conditions around them.

Perception: This is the act or faculty of apprehending by the means of the senses or of the mind, cognitive and understanding of something by the people towards tourism development.

Sustainability: This is the capacity at which the natural resources endure forever and that biological systems remain diverse and more sustainable. It also encompasses ecological, economic, social and physical sustainability.

Tourism: This is an industry consisting of tourists, a business and an environment or local community for operations.

Tourism development: Refers to development that meets the needs of the present generations without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs.

Typologies: Is the system of groupings (rainforest) usually called types, the members, of which are identified by postulating specified attributes that are mutually exclusive and collectively exhaustive- groupings set up to aid in demonstration or inquiry by establishing a limited relationship among phenomena.

Wildlife conservation: This is the effort made towards wise and sustainable use of wildlife resources in terms of genes, species, population and ecosystems for tourism development.

Wildlife: These are free-living or non- domesticated animals of major significance to humans.

Wildlife-based tourism: Tourism planned and managed by a group of individuals/households comprising the community as communal enterprise.

Such tourism could also be managed by a private entrepreneur whose activity and agenda is set by the community and is accountable to it.

LIST OF ACRONYMS

CAMPFIRE	Communal Area Management Programme for Indigenous Resource
CBOs	Community Based Organizations
CITES	Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species
df	Degree of freedom
FGD	Focus Group Discussion
GCP	Grass Cutting Programme
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
HEC	Human-Elephant Conflict
HECWG	Human-Elephant Conflict Working Group
HWC	Human-Wildlife conflict
IUCN	International Union for Conservation of Nature. Currently referred to as The World Conservation Union
JICA	Japan International Cooperation Agency
KWS	Kenya Wildlife Service
LA 21	Local Agenda 21
LNNP	Lake Nakuru National Park
NGOs	Non-governmental organizations

NP	National Park
PAs	Protected Areas
RCNP	Royal Chitwan National Park
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
UWA	Uganda Wildlife Authority
UNEP	United Nations Environmental Programme
UNWTO	United Nations World Tourism Organization
WMAs	Wildlife Management Areas
WWF	Worldwide Fund for Nature
WTO	World Tourism Organization

ABSTRACT

Local residents' attitudes and perceptions are critical in determining tourism development in host destinations and cannot be overemphasized. This study was conducted within and around Lake Nakuru National Park (LNNP) between May and July 2011. The study sought to assess the attitudes and perceptions of local residents towards tourism development within LNNP and its environs. Specific objectives of the study were: to determine the local residents' involvement in tourism development in LNNP; to determine factors that influence the attitudes and perceptions of local people towards tourism development in LNNP; to determine the attitudes and perceptions of the local people towards tourism development in LNNP; and to determine the benefits derived and cost incurred from tourism development within and around LNNP. Questionnaires and interviews were used to collect primary data while secondary data was sourced from published and unpublished sources like books and journals. The target population consisted of local residents living adjacent to the park and KWS management staff of LNNP. A sample of 300 respondents was randomly selected from the local community while 12 respondents were purposively chosen from among LNNP staff. Data was analyzed descriptively using frequencies and percentages, while inferential statistical analysis was done using the chi-square test. There was a significant difference ($\chi^2 = 105.92$, $df=2$, $p<0.001$) among respondents who agreed, were undecided and those who disagreed that local people are involved in tourism development. There was a significant difference between the respondents belief about local residents' involvement in tourism development and occupation of the respondents ($\chi^2 = 157.32$, $df=8$, $p< 0.0001$). KWS management staff interviewed singled out lack of proper and clearly laid down policy on how to involve local people in tourism development in LNNP as a major obstacle. It is concluded that local residents have negative attitudes and perceptions towards tourism development since the revenue generated does not help them. Local residents also incur a lot of losses in repairing damaged properties, and the level of their involvement is very minimal as it was through self-help groups and conservation clubs. It is therefore recommended that provision of tangible benefits and alternative livelihoods for residents at the grassroots level should be considered as a central philosophy of park planning. LNNP and other PAs should not only aim at changing attitudes and perceptions of local residents towards tourism development but also their behaviour in relation to the benefits accrued to them from tourism development. There is also the need to review the Wildlife Act and provide compensation for all losses incurred from wildlife.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background information

Sustainable management of wildlife resources for tourism development is a major concern not only for national governments but also for the international community. This concern has in recent years been attributed to the growing realization that wildlife resources that hold a key role in tourism development are increasingly threatened, and are also vanishing at an alarming rate (Kameri-Mbote, 2002).

Conversely, the laws and policies in Botswana and other parts of the world have allowed people to hunt in Wildlife Management Areas (WMAs) for food without a permit. Over the years, this seemed to improve the attitudes and perceptions of local residents particularly in Botswana towards tourism development. It would therefore be good if the Kenyan government reviewed its wildlife laws and policies including the ban on hunting and allow local communities to hunt wild animals for food. If properly regulated game meat can be an important source of protein for the poor because meat contains about 25 per cent protein and local people would support conservation due to their improved attitudes and perceptions (Caldecott, 1998).

The foregoing observations on local residents in Botswana on attitudes and perceptions have made local people view parks and wildlife personnels as important resources, while in Kenya park personnels are viewed as foreigners who have taken their jobs and do not care about their plight. Based on this, Omondi (1994) argued that even though locals people had not acquired the skills and education required for managerial positions, it was necessary having them employed in less skilled positions in order to enhance their positive attitudes towards tourism development within and around protected areas.

Sifuna (2005) contended that people in living adjacent to wildlife areas are bitter with the government and wild animals that they no longer see any sense in tourism development particularly if these animals pose some threats to people and their property. To mitigate wildlife damage by lacing their crops with poison or laying traps using long nails. Such is the general attitude obtained in virtually all wildlife areas in the country. Sifuna (2005) further reports that in Kenya, the people with

positive attitudes towards tourism development were the elite; while the rural folk who bear the brunt of tourism ravages have rather hostile attitudes. The extinction of species has been occasioned by both unregulated consumptive utilization and the excessive alteration of habitats owing to human activities such as cultivation, urban expansion, habitat destruction, pollution and other anthropogenic activities (Kameri-Mbote, 2002). The increase in human population around LNNP has accelerated leading to species extinctions as demographic pressure exerts more pressure on the park's resources making peoples' attitudes and perceptions towards tourism development to increasingly become negative. This in turn leads to low support for conservation, thus affecting tourism development. Around LNNP, increased vandalism of park fences by local people has enhanced access into the parks leading to illegal hunting and this continues to have an impact on tourism development in the parks and other protected areas.

In recent years the impact of tourism on host governments and residents has been a growing area of concern as it has become widely recognized that planners and entrepreneurs within the tourism industry should take the views of host communities into account if the industry is to be sustainable in the long term and promote meaningful tourism development (Allen *et al.*, 1988). Additionally, commercial tourism ventures have been hampered or terminated due to excessive negative resident's sentiments towards tourism development. Despite this, research into the antecedents of people's reactions on tourism development have helped planners in understanding why people support or oppose tourism, and it is also possible to select those developments which would minimize negative social impacts. As such, it was hypothesised that the quality of local people's life will be enhanced if positive impacts of tourism development accrue to host communities.

Most of the tourism practised within and around LNNP is wildlife based, and involves game viewing and photography of wild animals in their natural state. As such most of the revenue generated from tourism and related activities go to the government through Kenya Wildlife Service (KWS) that is the custodian of wildlife in Kenya. Either very little or none of the revenue accrues to the local residents who either live adjacent to the park or meet the high costs of wildlife damage. This has made local residents to view the park, its wildlife and KWS as government projects.

The success of any tourism project is threatened if planned and constructed without the knowledge and support of local people majority of whom encompass the host population. While success in the tourism industry depends upon diverse attractions and quality services offered to tourists, it requires the hospitality and support the local residents and the community in general. Host's anger, apathy or mistrust can make them vandalise resources and other properties in the park. Ultimately, the poor status of the park will be conveyed by the tourists who visit and fail to see some species since they had already been poached or hunted for human consumption, making tourists not to return to such places (Fridgen, 1991).

The other problem which influences the attitudes and perceptions of people is the conflicts between humans and wildlife which more often are a product of socio-economic and political landscape. Conflicts arise primarily because of competition between people living around protected areas such as LNNP and the wildlife which stray to their premises to share the limited resources and consequently lead to conflict. These conflicts more often are controversial when resources concerned have some economic value and the wild animals involved are legally protected (Thirgood *et al.*, 2000a). Many predators kill prey species that humans hunted, harvested or farmed for consumption or recreation, and occasionally kill people too, particularly those who revenge through fence vandalism, killing predators which cause harm to their lives (Thirgood *et al.*, 2000).

Human-wildlife conflicts not only affect rural and vulnerable communities, but also commercial cattle ranches. For example, Patterson *et al.*, (2004) evaluated the level of impact on two private cattle ranches that were adjacent to the boundary of Tsavo East National Park in Kenya. In this study, three carnivore species were identified to be responsible for attacks, namely lions and spotted hyenas, which targeted large domestic animals such as cows, bulls, steers; and cheetahs, which took only smaller adult stock and young cattle. For example, in a four year study the ranches had lost an average of 2.4% of the total herd per annum which represented 2.6% of their economic value and amounted to US dollar 8,749. This problem of human-wildlife conflict had led to negative attitudes and perception of the local communities living around these protected areas and their wildlife. From these findings, it can be inferred that unless mitigated, this situation can have profound impacts on tourism development.

Despite the fact that LNNP is fenced, and people living around the park are not allowed any access to it, some community members gain access into the park illegally by vandalising the fence and enter the park to poach or hunt game meat. This among other activities affects some wild animals like warthogs, buffalos and antelopes among others.

Understanding local people's reaction and the factors that influence their attitudes and perceptions is essential in achieving local support for tourism development and wildlife conservation (Fridgen, 1991). Consequently, Local community's reactions have been studied extensively (Murphy, 1985; Gunn, 1988; Gee, Mackens *et al.*, 1989). Based on findings of these studies, there are suggestions that most local communities around protected areas are influenced by perceived impacts of tourism manifested through economic, environmental and social costs and benefits. This study aimed at assessing local people's attitudes and perceptions towards tourism development in LNNP with the aim of making appropriate recommendations aimed at creating local people's awareness about the importance of wildlife and protected areas such as LNNP.

1.2 Statement of the problem

Although there has been no empirical study done on issues pertaining to attitudes and perceptions of local residents living around Lake Nakuru National Park, literature reviews on related issues showed that tourism has not been beneficial to local residents living adjacent to other protected areas as well as the park. Despite this, literature reviewed further, revealed that since local people are often sidelined in benefit sharing, this often impacts on their attitudes and perceptions towards tourism development yet they are key partners and allies in wildlife conservation and tourism development. LNNP is fenced, and hence local people have no access to the park and its resources, yet wild animals move out of the park into human settlements and kill livestock, and destroy crops making people to incur heavy costs in protecting their property.

Lack of local people's involvement in the management of the park as well as tourism has impacted negatively on their attitudes and perceptions towards tourism development to the extent that the residents do not see the value of tourism. Further, it is documented that where local people have not been integrated in protected area

management, this often leads to mistrust, hostility, poor relationships and open resentments. This often leads to local communities being completely left out in management decisions. This, in addition to harassment by KWS officers when caught hunting or entering the park, makes local communities to retaliate by killing wild animals illegally. Lack of benefits accruing from wildlife conservation and tourism has aggravated the above problems making local people to view the park and its wildlife as a liability. All these factors have impacted negatively on local people living in the environs of protected areas like LNNP and this necessitated the need for the current study to assess local people's attitudes and perceptions towards tourism development in LNNP with a view to proposing measures that can enhance the integration of local people in tourism development and access to benefits.

1.3 Objectives of the study

1.3.1 General Objective

To assess the attitudes and perceptions of local residents towards tourism development in Lake Nakuru National Park and its environs.

1.3.2 Specific Objectives

The objectives of the study were;

- 1 To determine the level of local residents' involvement in tourism development within and around LNNP.
- 2 To determine the attitudes and perceptions of the local residents towards tourism development in LNNP and its environs.
- 3 To assess the factors influencing the attitudes and perceptions of local residents towards tourism development in LNNP and its surroundings.
- 4 To determine the benefits derived as a result of tourism development within and around LNNP.
- 5 To determine the costs incurred as a result of tourism development within and around LNNP.

1.4 Research questions

The study had five research questions namely;

1. Are local people involved in tourism development in LNNP and its environs?

2. What are the attitudes and perceptions of local residents towards tourism development in LNNP and its surroundings?
3. What factors influence the attitudes and perceptions of the local residents towards tourism development in LNNP and its environs?
4. What benefits are derived by local residents from tourism developed within and around LNNP?
5. What costs are incurred by local residents from tourism developed within and around LNNP?

1.5 Justification of the study

Local people are important in the conservation of natural resources and hence by extension to tourism development. They should therefore be made to feel part and parcel of tourism development activities by being involved in their management and also be allowed access to various benefits accruing from tourism revenues.

Local people possess indigenous knowledge which should be incorporated in contemporary approaches towards enhancing good management of the park's resources for tourism development. They should also be beneficiaries of benefits accruing from tourism and other related activities to support themselves so as to minimise unsustainable practices like illegal hunting. Deriving benefits from tourism will make local people reduce vandalism of the park properties like fences thereby creating less hostility and mistrust between them and protected area management authorities like KWS. Consequently, if well advised and guided, they can support conservation and tourism development.

1.6 Significance of the study

Recognizing that wildlife based tourism depends on wildlife and that wildlife needs space inside and outside parks and the other protected areas for it to flourish without intensive management or ecological improvement, there is need to assess the attitudes and perceptions of local people and residents towards wildlife and consequently tourism development within and around protected areas, with a view of gaining local support for protected areas, wildlife and tourism. Information is also needed to provide a basis for knowing people's attitudes and perceptions in any tourism project since its operations can only succeed if people are involved,

and are also benefiting from tourism revenues generated from tourism development.

Understanding people's attitude and perceptions towards tourism is very crucial since their conflicts with wildlife can be better understood, and hence information generated can help in mitigating the negative attitudes and perceptions held towards tourism development. This mitigation would in turn make them more aware and conservation-conscious, thereby making tourism development more successful in protected areas such as LNNP. The study is also important because the results will help in laying strategies to help integrate local people in the management of LNNP as well as their involvement in benefit sharing thus leading to increased conservation and protection of wildlife resources. Findings of the study will facilitate the writing of a thesis which would act as a reference for students, scholars and researchers with interests in similar or related studies.

1.7 Scope of the study

The study focused on issues pertaining to attitudes and perceptions of local people living around LNNP towards tourism development. It was conducted in Lake View estate, Mwariki A and Phase II estate and Ndarugu area in Nakuru County up to a distance of 5 Km away from the park boundary. It was hypothesised that people living within this distance frequently interact with the park and its resources, and also experience problems and challenges associated with wildlife damages more often than those living further away and have access to benefits from tourism and related activities within and around the park.

1.8 Assumptions of the study

- i) The sample of respondents selected was representative of the target population from which it was drawn.
- ii) Responses given by respondents are a true reflection of the local people's view.
- iii) The sampling procedures used enabled respondents to have an equal chance of being selected to the sample.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This chapter discusses issues relating to the concept of local residents and their participation in tourism development, local peoples' attitudes and perceptions, factors that influence attitudes and perceptions of people towards tourism development, local residents' access to benefits accruing from tourism, costs incurred from tourism development, human-wildlife conflict and their implications on tourism development, Wildlife conservation in Kenya and importance of wildlife conservation and its implications to tourism development.

2.1 The concept of tourism

Tourism comprises the activities of persons traveling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for no more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes not related to the exercise of an activity remunerated from within the place visited European Commission, 2002. Tourism is also a socio-economic phenomenon comprising of the activities and experiences of tourists and visitors away from their home environment, serviced by the travel and tourism industry and host destinations. The sum total of this activity, experience and services can be seen as the tourism product. Understanding the interrelationships between several parts of the system enables all tourism stakeholders to improve planning and management effectiveness and enhance the likelihood of success (UN, 2003).

2.2 Over view of tourism development. A global perspective

Tourism accounts for approximately 50% of the GDP of the Canary Islands, a leading European destination receiving more than 13 million tourists a year. The high tourist/resident annual ratio of 5.45:1 means the generation of 20% more solid waste than the national average. While creating work, jobs are generally poorly paid with no prestige or future career paths (Department of Tourism, 2001). Managers have followed the strong focus of capital investment, but they often lack specialist knowledge. For example, there has been a "downloading" onto tourism, mainly by the cement industry (construction). Given the number of huge complexes on the islands one may be tempted to call it "concrete tourism".

A lack of legislation and professionalism resulted in confusing Spanish and Canarian tourism regulations. The management and staff appear poorly trained, highlighted by a university curriculum that lacks advanced degree studies in the field (Department of Tourism, 2001). In Spain, the first 745 tourism undergraduate degree courses did not commence until 1999 (Talaya, 2000). Supply and demand must be reconciled both quantitatively and qualitatively for a destination to be successful (Buhalis, 2000). From the qualitative point of view, today's arrivals to the Canaries are middle-aged and older, with great loyalty to the destination (ISTAC, 2000). However, market studies reveal that their replacements are younger and have different tastes (Department of Tourism, 2001). Furthermore, the accommodation supply has aged, exacerbated by poor maintenance. When supply exceeded demand, it resulted in the Islands' worst crises (Canarian Government, 1997).

Given that supply is predicted to outstrip demand, the Canaries may face a problematic situation. There are further factors that may aggravate that problem through competition and lack of future market growth. First, Mediterranean competition is growing. Turkey, Egypt, and Tunisia doubled their number of hotel beds between 1990 and 2000. Second, Europe, as the principal source of outgoing tourists, is not growing in the same proportions. Third, Europe is the world region whose intra-tourism will grow the least in the next few years (WTO, 2000). The forecast supply growth rate in the Canaries for 2006 would require the arrival of some 25 million per year for the economic activity of tourism to be profitable (Canarian Government, 2001b). That figure not only seems to be unviable according to the most optimistic forecasts for the tourism growth rate in Europe (WTO, 2000), but may not be sustainable.

There has been a phenomenal growth in tourism numbers from 534 million arrivals in 1950 to 808 million in 2005, with an average annual growth rate of 6.5 percent (UNWTO, 2006; Wishitemi, 2008). In 2005, tourist arrivals in Latin American countries posted 133 million (16 percent) as compared to 444 million (55 percent) arrivals in Europe. With its huge diversity, its rich supply of natural resources, and its wealth of wildlife and cultural heritage, Africa is one of the main destination for international tourism in the world. The majority of the international flows come from USA, Britain, and German which is economically significant for the continent. By

2007, some 44 million international arrivals were made to, or within, Africa (UNTWO, 2008). This phenomenal growth has been accompanied by the increasingly important impact of tourism development on the economic, social and cultural as well as environmental aspects of life in individual African countries.

2.3 Tourism Development in Kenya

Kenya, like many other developing countries is currently refocusing its development policies in tourism towards poverty reduction. This emphasis on poverty reduction is primarily a response to the fact that, despite many efforts targeted at improving the well being of the poor in the past, the majority of them still live in poverty (Kilele and Ndeg'e, 2003). Kenya's natural endowment in topographical, water-based and wildlife attraction has positioned tourism as a major economic driver for the country in her campaigns towards poverty reduction, generating the much needed foreign exchange, and creation of direct, indirect and induced employment opportunities for her citizens (Wishitemi, 2008). This has also been underscored in Kenya's Vision 2030 and the Tourism Bill and Act.

By the late 1970s, interest in the conservation the whole ecosystems and apportioning some of the tourist cake to the host/ local communities living around protected areas (PAs) brought about a national recognition of community participation in tourism development (Okungu, 2001). Wishitemi (2008) alludes that Kenya's tourism industry is firmly nature-based with wildlife (flora and fauna) being the main attractions for large numbers of tourists into the country. It is therefore paramount that the integrity of this key attraction is respected and protected if its benefits are to be sustained and transmitted into posterity (Wishitemi, 2008).

Kenya's national economy is predominantly hinged on biological resources and wildlife protected areas are an important asset from which a significant amount of foreign exchange has been derived in the past few decades, (Kiringe and Okello, 2007), and is an important economic resource especially for the tourism industry. (Rutten, 2002).

2.4 Concept of local people their involvement and implications on tourism development

Local people are considered as a tradition-based (indigenous) formal organization of individuals and households and may include everyone residing in a particular area or those that come together because they share a defined area and common resource or public goods within that area (Sharma, 1998b). They can also be defined as a group of people, often originating from the same geographic area, who identify themselves as belonging to the same group (Lindberg *et al.*, 1998). More often, the term local people is used interchangeably with local residents.

A large part of the developing world possesses unparalleled stocks of natural and cultural assets that are a strong basis for the development of the tourism industry (Nelson, 2004). The largest concentrations of large and small terrestrial mammals are found in developing countries especially in the African savannah ecosystem. Foreigners have visited many developing countries over the years to experience their wealth of biological diversity in its natural setting which are found in parks and reserves which are faced with the problems of over-crowding and congestion in most popular destinations, such as Maasai Mara National Reserve in Kenya and Serengeti National Park in Tanzania (Nelson, 2004). These protected areas are surrounded by local people's lands which offer diverse tourism products that are in many ways more than that within parks (Nelson, 2003 cited in Nelson, 2004). In these and other areas where wildlife is highly mobile and migratory, the lands outside the parks may have just as much wildlife at certain times of the year as the protected areas (Nelson, 2004).

In most cases the local people's land is usually less developed and has low tourism infrastructure, hence offer high-paying tourists a more exclusive, isolated wilderness experience than the increasingly congested national parks. In addition, activities such as walking, horseback riding, and night game drives (which are prohibited or restricted in the national parks) can be carried out on the local people's land. Among these local people also abounds knowledge relating to their co-existence with the wildlife in a manner that can further enhance the cultural and intangible types of tourism. Local people are therefore important and core to the development of tourism since they ensure proper conservation where they are the stewards of their own local

environment and are also placed to anticipate and regulate the negative impacts of tourism development (TMI, 1998).

Local people provide a structure for more effective planning, implementing and monitoring tourism initiatives and for determining the most appropriate scale of economic activity (TMI, 1998). For instance, the local person of Ololosokwan (game management area) in Tanzania provides a case where local people are involved in the planning, implementation and monitoring of tourism development. These local residents have passed by-laws which provide a range of regulatory controls on natural resources use in villages and a land-use plan designating the bulk of local lands to integrated pastoralism and wildlife-based tourism.

Local people have to see meaningful improvement in their living standards and economic fortunes if they were to continue participating in tourism development and wildlife conservation (Sindiga, 1999). Since wildlife conservation and tourism development rely heavily on the goodwill of local people, their support is essential for its development, successful operation, and sustainability (Jurowski, 1994).

Once an area becomes a tourist destination, local people's quality of life is affected since all the tourism development is done both within and near the local communities' surroundings. Hence, they become disenchanted if they are not included or involved in its management and operations, and they are left without any benefits. Fridgen (1991) contended that the success of any tourism project was threatened to the extent that any tourism development planned and constructed without the knowledge and support of the host community gets affected. Throughout the humid tropics, wild meat was being consumed at an alarming rate (Robinson and Bodmer, 1999; Fa *et al.*, 2002). However, hunting had risen dramatically in recent years due to the loss of forest and increased human populations. This has been exacerbated by greater access to the remaining forests for hunters and traders because of road building and forest fragmentation, use of efficient modern hunting technologies like firearms and wire snares and the increased commercialisation of bush meat.

2.5 Local people's participation in tourism development

Participation is a process through which stakeholders, among them the local communities who are often the intended beneficiaries of community tourism,

influence and share control over development initiatives and the decisions and resources which affect them (Havel, 1996). Participation, therefore, seeks collaboration or partnerships and the commitment necessary to ensure sustainability of tourism development initiatives (Wolfensohn, 1996). Today, participation in conservation is viewed as referring to the local people's active involvement in managing protected areas, and there is increasing recognition that without this involvement, conservation efforts have little chance of success (Cernea, 1991).

Drake (1991) defines local participation as the ability of local people to influence the outcome of development projects, such as ecotourism, that have an impact on their lives. According to Cernea (1991), community participation is an aspect of giving local people more opportunities to participate effectively in development activities. These include empowering people to mobilize their own capacity, be social actors rather than passive objects, manage the resources, make decisions and control the activities which affect their lives.

Holden (2000), a World Bank expert on community participation, makes a useful distinction between four levels of intensity in local participation. Information sharing where project designers and managers share information with the public in order to facilitate collective or individual action and this is the first level. The next level of participation is consultation where the public is not only informed, but also consulted on key issues at some or all stages in a project circle. Decision-making is the third level where the public is involved in making decisions about project design and implementation. The highest level of local participation is called initiation action. This occurs when the public takes the initiative in terms of actions and decisions pertaining to the project. This last stage often enables local people to have access to benefits accruing from wildlife, tourism and related activities and projects.

2.6 Typologies of Community participation

Various scholars have attempted to develop useful models that conceptualize local participation in the context of development studies in general, but not related particularly to any economic sector (Arnstein, 1969). Simply put, their studies focused mostly on participatory development approaches in development studies though they

offer a useful tool towards a more authentic and interactive community participation (Tosun, 2006). However, Tosun (2000) after reviewing these studies, examined community participation in the tourism industry and designed a model that can be applied specifically to the tourism industry. His model suggested three forms (typologies) of participation which “contextualizes community participation as a categorical term that allows participation of people, citizens or a host community in their affairs at different levels: local, regional or national” These are: spontaneous community participation, coercive community participation and induced community participation (Figure 2.1). Tosun (2006) compares his three forms of community participation to those proposed by Pretty and Arnstein (1969). Each of his levels of community participation in the tourism industry is discussed in details in subsequent paragraphs.

From Figure 2.1, spontaneous community participation in Tosun’s model, which emphasizes provision of full managerial responsibility and authority to the host community, suggests an ideal mode of community participation in tourism which is similar to degrees of citizen power in Arnstein’s model and to self-mobilization and interactive participation in Pretty’s model. Induced community tourism in Tosun’s model, in which the host community has a voice regarding tourism development process through an opportunity to hear and to be heard, is similar to the degree of citizen tokenism in Arnstein’s model and to functional participation by consultation or participation for material incentives in Pretty’s typology. In this type of participation the community is often involved partly in the decision-making process and has no power to ensure that their views are considered for implementation, especially by other powerful interest groups such as government bodies, multinational companies, and international tour operators, among others, thereby enforcing a certain level of degree of tokenism as identified in Arnstein’s typology.

The proposed model approach entails a passive and indirect form of community participation most commonly found in developing countries in which host communities only endorse and may participate in implementation of tourism development issues or decisions made for them rather than by them. In coercive community participation the host community is not as fully involved in the decision-making process as it is in induced participation. However, some decisions are made

specifically “to meet basic needs of host communities so as to avoid potential socio-political risks for tourists and tourism development” While this kind of participation is viewed by many people as a substitute for genuine participation and an approach to enable power holders to foster tourism development primarily to meet the desire of decision makers, tourism operators and tourists, it is similar to manipulation and therapy in Arnstein’s model and passive and manipulative in Pretty’s typology (Tosun, 2006).

Community tourism has evolved from various models of community participation in development. Coercive local participation probably refers to what Kibicho (2003) found when examining the extent to which local people participate in Kenya’s coastal tourism. His study, among other things, identified that there is a linkage between local people’s involvement in tourism activities and their support for its development. It is probably important to argue from here that a key consideration in tourism development is sustainability, which cannot be achieved without local people’s support (Vincent and Thompson, 2002). This implies that local people’s participation, a western ideology which emerged after the failures of social and political theories about how societies should be organized and how development should take place (Tosun, 2000; Li, 2005), seeks to address sustainability for tourism industry development, among other things. While sustainability is the core objective of community participation (Vincent and Thompson, 2002; Johannesen and Skonhoft, 2005), proponents of community tourism further argue that community participation seeks to improve the welfare of the local community and, perhaps most importantly, win their support in conservation of tourism resources (Songorwa, 1999).

This means community participation is inevitable and imperative for tourism development because most tourist attractions lie within local communities or in their vicinities and in most cases co-exist side by side with the communities, for instance, in wildlife areas. In addition, tourism occurs among local communities and they are the ones who often bear the tourism damage and in most cases they form part of the tourist products and experience that visitors seek (Wolfensohn, 1989; Havel, 1996; Tosun, 2000; Kibicho, 2003; Li, 2005; Beeton, 2006).

It is for the foregoing reasons that local people's involvement and participation in the tourism industry serve to ensure the protection of these tourist products and services through effective collaborative management of the industry centered towards a more community-driven planning approach that guarantees strong community support for successful tourism development (Tanzania Tourism Policy, 1999; Tosun, 2000). It is also within this context that sustainable tourism and community participation are being increasingly linked. This occurs mostly through community based organizations which have actively been involved in the development of action plans aimed at reducing problems of indiscriminate waste disposal in many low-income neighbourhoods. CBOs were already active in Nakuru, particularly in the Lake View Estate, before local agenda (LA 21) process took off.

Awareness rising has resulted in a multiplication of CBOs and their activities. During the colonial period, local people were regarded as an impediment to conservation and the management of the national parks and reserves was characterized by coercion and control. As in the case study carried out in Tanzania where local people in Barabarani village-Mto wa Mbu are usually involved in the decision making process by being allowed to have benefits derived from the project, and are also allowed to make decision on way forward on the issues of conservation in the project concerned as a suitable way of involving the local community in tourism development (Michael, 2009).

7. Self mobilization		8. Citizen control			<u>Spontaneous Participation</u> Bottom-up active participation
6. Interactive participation	→	7. Delegated power		→	Direct participation Authentic participation Self planning
		6. Partnership			
5. Functional Participation		5. Placation			<u>Induced Participation</u> Top-down: passive: formal: Mostly indirect; degree of tokenism
4. Participation for material incentive	→	4. Consultation		→	Manipulation; pseudo-participation; Participation in implementation and sharing benefits; choice between proposed alternatives and feedback.
3. Participation by consultation		3. Informing			
2. Passive participation	→	2. Therapy		→	<u>Coercive Participation</u> Top-down passive; mostly indirect formal: Participation in implementation but not in sharing benefits Choice between proposed limited alternatives or no choice High degree of tokenism and manipulation
1. Manipulative participation		1. Manipulation			
Pretty's(1995) typology of community participation		Arnstein's (1971) typology of community participation			Tosun's(1999a)typology community participation

Figure 2.1. Normative typologies of community participation

Source: Tosun (2006)

2.7 Attitudes and perceptions of local people towards tourism development

Past studies on local people's responses to tourism development examine them largely in relation to the area's progress through an assumed development cycle (Allen, *et al.*, 1993). These studies reflect Doxey's suggestion that as the industry increases; residents' reactions become steadily more negative, moving from euphoria to apathy,

annoyance, and then antagonism (Doxey's, 1975). This idea was adopted by other researchers notably Butler (1980) who proposes a resort cycle moving through five stages of discovery, involvement, development and consolidation, decline, and rejuvenation or stabilization, depending on attempts to ameliorate the adverse impacts. It is alluded that the rising number of tourists and their changing types over the cycle can increase residents' negative perceptions.

Barke's (1999) study of Spain's coastal regions offers a valuable illustration of how specific contexts affect local responses to tourism development. He identifies circumstances in these regions from the 1960s that discouraged major explicit conflict despite the sudden and massive increase in international tourists. One circumstance was the "historical association in the minds of many Spaniards between the growth of tourism, the overall growth of the national economy, and the massive increase in material prosperity for many groups". They also tended to feel they themselves and their home area were superior, and this self confidence helped them absorb change without fundamental disturbance to their cultural values. Barke (1999) further suggests that the Spanish had evolved mechanisms to cope with the influx of outsiders. In particular they retained, re-created, or initiated their own spaces that reflected their individuality and were distinct from tourist spaces.

In India, traditions and cultural/religious attitudes towards wild animals make local people more tolerant towards wildlife and by extension tourism despite the damage they cause to crops and livestock it causes. Orthodox Hindus, for instance, consider monkeys to be sacred animals, to be revered and protected. This religious belief and traditional attachment to monkeys greatly influences people's perception of wild animals and the subsequent conflict, resulting in its partial acceptance (Imam and Malik, 2002). The general reverence towards plants and animals in some Indian regions has often been reported to be the main reason for people not persecuting large carnivores and a positive attitude towards wild animals (Sekhar, 1998; Madhusudan, 2003; Mishra *et al.*, 2003). As a consequence, this has promoted tourism development as more local residents and tourists visit these areas to see the animals.

Around Kibber Wildlife Sanctuary in the Indian state of Himachal Pradesh, despite the fact that conflict between agro-pastoralists and wildlife is increasing in relation to

the growing livestock population, the local communities have not resorted to killing the main source of the problem: the snow leopard. In 1995, wild carnivores killed 18% of the total livestock holding; this amounted to an annual loss of 12% for families with a livestock holding. Almost all the deaths were caused by the snow leopard, which is not persecuted. However, retaliatory action is performed against the Tibetan wolf, whose puppies were reported to have been captured and killed (Mishra, 1997). Such a reaction has been reported elsewhere. In Mongolia where encounters with snow leopard and wolf are common and losses are economically serious, the pastoralists retaliate by killing and persecuting both species and tourism development is affected (Mishra *et al.*, 2003).

People inhabiting 86% of 184 national parks surveyed in South America, and almost a third of the park managers cited legal or illegal occupation as a principal management problem (Amend *et al.*, 2008). Restricted access to natural resources in protected areas has frequently resulted in negative attitudes towards conservation by residents, thereby further exacerbating management problem. In the Himalayan national parks, particularly Sargarmatha and Langtang, it has been an important management aspect to integrate local people's traditional land use practices into the park planning and management ever since they were established in 1976 (Jefferies, 1982). A more recent and commonly-cited initiative is the Annapurna Conservation Area Project, where the growth of ecotourism has been important in the development of positive attitudes among the local people towards the protected area and nature conservation (Brandon and Wells, 1992).

In Royal Chitwan National Park (RCNP) in Nepal there is a Grass Cutting Programme (GCP) which was first gazetted in 1976 following the distress expressed by local people who were deprived of their customary right to collect traditional house building and binding material after the park was established in 1973 (Lehmkuhl *et al.*, 1988). The GCP was launched to control and stop encroachment on RCNP resources and reverse local people's negative perceptions of the park by allowing them to enter the park for 20 days every year to collect building material essential for their subsistence. This programme is important because it enhances good security to nature conservation and maintains good park-people relations. Today, more than 200,000 people are estimated to reside in the buffer zone, and the fate of

tourism development in the park is determined by the attitudes and perceptions of these local residents. Despite this, RCNP remains one of the most visited parks in Nepal, and tourism development within and around the park continues to benefit the local residents.

Wild animals are invaluable resources to the people of Kenya and other countries. Wild animals are also known to lead to negative consequences on local communities when they cause death or injuries to people or damage their properties. Historical records and interviews with local communities show that wildlife depredation has been a problem in Kenya for a long time. Esikuri (1998) reported that in 1934 30 elephants were shot by the Game Department in Laikipia as part of wildlife damage control. Indeed wildlife damage incidents had led to human-wildlife conflicts since this harm usually excited negative attitudes towards wildlife by local communities living in close proximity to the protected areas. Thus, if not checked, these attitudes can hinder tourism development within and around protected areas.

In Kenya and Botswana wild animals undermined the peaceful existence and livelihoods of humans (Sifuna, 2005). Wild animals attacked people and domestic stocks, and also damaged crops and other physical property. Attacks on humans by wild animals were more frequent in Kenya than in Botswana since Botswana was sparsely populated and it was not easy for a person to encounter a wild animal. Sifuna (2005) also alluded that in both countries, almost all wild animals, ranging from small rodents to large mammals and reptiles, caused loss in one form or another. Despite this, the animals that were responsible for the major forms of damage are: monkeys, baboons, leopards, hyenas, giraffes, crocodiles, hippos, lions, buffaloes and elephants. Apart from animals which were popular for their nutritional, medicinal or aesthetic value, some animals were viewed as pests deserving extermination. This was especially so because some laws had classified certain animals as pest to be hounded and eliminated. While some animals were viewed as assets to some people, to others they were vermin (Sifuna, 2005). In Botswana, local communities had positive attitudes towards wildlife because they received benefits which they obtained from tourism through revenue-sharing, employment opportunities, as well as concessions on the traditional use of wildlife through subsistence hunting (Sifuna, 2005).

Sifuna (2005) further stated that all the foregoing seemed to have played out well as manifested by the positive attitudes of the people of Botswana towards wildlife while in Kenya such communities hardly got any direct benefits. This fact has been documented in various publications and reaffirmed by the state and wildlife officials who stated that people obtained benefits mainly through provision of infrastructure such as roads, which were financed using tourism revenues and were considered by the local people to be part of the government's public responsibilities to the citizenry which should be fulfilled. On the other hand, local people interviewed elsewhere alluded that they would prefer to get direct benefit such as employment opportunities, bonuses, and subsidies on farm inputs, bursaries, hunting concessions and even food donations as an incentive for tolerating wildlife depredation. The dissatisfaction of local people was captured by the sentiments of Moses Ole Leloon, a village elder in Laikipia district who remarked:

“How can a Maasai see the logic in conserving wildlife when the revenue from tourism ends up with the government, airlines, tour firms, hotels and corrupt county councils, as he continues to wallow in abject poverty. For the ordinary Maasai to appreciate wildlife the way the government and the elite do, they will have to benefit from direct rewards commensurate with big losses they incur when wild animals attack them, guzzle their pastures and water or eat their crops and livestock” This means that while wildlife creates jobs for people, the reality is that in Kenya most of those employed in wildlife authorities and tourism establishments, such as tour companies and hotels, are people from outside the local communities as locals languish in poverty and unemployment (Omondi, 1994).

People's reactions towards tourism development can either be positive or negative depending on how the host community perceives the tourism impact on their ability to benefit from those tourism resources. An experience of wildlife conflict by people causes a very permanent feeling, especially where it involves loss of human life or an entire source of livelihood. In communities with subsistence economies even small losses can be of great economic importance and can generate negative attitudes towards wildlife conservation (Omondi, 1994). They may react also positively if they perceive tourism as being beneficial and also a major factor that improves the recreational facilities they enjoy or increases the opportunities for recreational activities for them (Kendall and Var 1985; Allen *et al.*, 1993).

On the other hand, their reactions may be negative if they believe that tourism may result in denying local communities their traditional leisure pursuits (O' leary, 1976).

Lank Ford and Howard (1994) reported that perceptions of outdoor recreation opportunities and participation are the most significant factors affecting the attitude towards tourism development by local people.

Tourism may be regarded as an industry consisting of tourists, a business and an environment or community for operations (William and Lawson, 2001). The interrelationship between various elements of the tourism system are studied widely, especially the host community's feedback on the impacts of tourism because it has been recognized that attitudes and perceptions of the local community towards tourism development, and wildlife conservation are essential in providing variable input in dealing with the strategic managerial decisions, marketing and operation of existing future programmes and projects (Belisle and Hoy, 1980).

Williams and Lawson (2001) allude that the views of local people living adjacent to the park must be taken into account if the tourism industry is to be sustainable in the long term if their present attitude and perceptions towards tourism development and wildlife conservation is well considered. For example, within the Maasai Mara region, local community conservation programmes include Maasai Mara Group Ranches conservation association which comprises eight group ranches namely: Aitong, Lemek, Koyaki, Siani, Oderkesi, Maji Moto, Olkinyei, Naikara, and Maasai Mara Koyaki Lemek Wildlife Trust. These conservation groups play a vital role in poverty reduction within the communities. They promote wildlife and livestock co-existence, reduce human-wildlife conflict and increase in large scale farming activities which have assisted in the construction of classrooms, building of water dams, paying hospital bills and providing bursaries for both local and international university students. Some of the revenue accrued from these wildlife tourism activities is shared out between the local people as dividends.

2.8 Factors influencing local people's attitudes and perceptions towards tourism development

2.8.1 Socio-economic factors

Socio-economic factors affecting local residents' attitudes and perceptions towards tourism development have been alluded to by various tourism researchers (Belisle and Hoy, 1980). Factors such as income, ethnicity, gender, age, education, occupation and the length of residency among other factors have been used in many cases and the

results in most cases suggested that socio-economic factors play a major role in explaining variations in resident's attitudes towards tourism development and wildlife conservation (Pizam, 1978; Liu and Var, 1986; Perdue *et al.*, 1990; King *et al.*, 1993).

In contrast, there are some attitudes and perception differences among groups with various demographics. For instance, gender has explained some of the variance in reaction towards tourism and tourists from the local communities living around any protected areas (Pizam and Pokela, 1985; Ritchie, 1988). Age has also been explored as a factor explaining some of the variability in attitude and perceptions towards local community change and tourism (Murdock and Shriner, 1979; Cavus and Tanriserdi, 2002). Additionally, birthplace can also influence attitudes and perceptions towards tourism development (Brougham and Butler, 1981). Um and Cromptom (1987) also alludes that ethnicity is also a factor influencing attitudes and perceptions towards tourism development where there are some local communities belonging to a certain ethnic groups to always have the right to benefit from wildlife resources found in the protected areas.

2.8.2 Human-wildlife conflict and their implications on attitudes and perceptions towards tourism development

Human-wildlife conflicts can be defined as situations where use of resources by humans and wildlife affect or are perceived to affect each other in a negative way (Juma and Ojwang, 1996). The extent to which these interactions cause conflict reflects increased pressure for utilization of those resources in a restricted area, or decreased compatibility in uses. With this, the conflict takes the form of illegal or excessive human use of protected areas or resources, and land use practices outside or bordering the protected area which in turn affects wildlife interests both from inside and outside protected areas (Juma and Ojwang, 1996).

Human-wildlife conflict (HWC) not only affects rural and vulnerable communities but also commercial cattle ranches. In this regard, Peterson *et al.*, (2004) evaluated the level of impacts of two private cattle ranches that lie adjacent to the boundary of the Tsavo East National Park in Kenya. Three carnivores' species were identified to be responsible for attacks: Lions and spotted hyenas, which targeted large domestic

animals such as cows, bulls and steers, and cheetahs, took only smaller adult stock and young cattle.

The importance of wildlife resources in Kenya is documented in sessional papers, development plans and the Wildlife Conservation and Management Act (Republic of Kenya, 1975; 1989). However, animal numbers have declined in the last two or three decades due to poaching, habitat loss through encroachment into their ranges and human-elephant conflicts (HEC) (Sitati, 1997). Decreased wildlife numbers and diversity which in turn affects tourists' attitudes and perceptions of a destination and what it offers to tourism affects tourism development.

Okongo (1998), observed that the movement of wildlife animals out of the park occurred mainly during the planting and ripening seasons, when the food supply was higher. Thus, greatest losses would be expected during this time when there is increased foraging outside the park. Sitati (2003), however, argued that most crop raids occurred during the dry season when there was low grass height, low percentage cover, low biomass, and low grass moisture content and that change in environmental parameter determined diet for the wild animals which then find their way out of the park boundary to the surrounding areas where local people live.

From the foregoing observations, it can be inferred that many different approaches have been used to mitigate conflict between elephants and people at different levels. However, conflicting policies is the major stumbling block to elephant management and conservation both at local, regional and international scale (Sitati, 2003).

Human-wildlife conflict (HWC) is first becoming a critical threat to the survival of many globally endangered species, in particular to large and rare mammals such as rhinos and white colobus monkeys. The numerous cases from countries all over the world demonstrate the severity of human-wildlife conflict and suggest that an in-depth analysis is essential to understand the problem and support conservation prospects of the threatened and potentially endangered species by local communities who in most cases interacts interact with wildlife.

From the foregoing observations, it is evident that local communities being at the grassroots level and in direct contact with wildlife should be given the mandate to have user rights of wildlife resources on their lands and derive some tangible benefits

from wildlife. This will motivate them to change their perceptions and attitudes towards wildlife and ultimately make them participants of wildlife resources management both inside and outside protected areas. This may lead to reduced human-wildlife conflicts and improved conservation of wildlife resources thus reducing the rate at which wildlife population is declining.

Wildlife conflicts also arise when local people are denied to utilize wildlife resources in protected areas. Other conflicts occur when wildlife move outside the protected areas and consequently undermine people's livelihood and properties. Juma and Ojwang (1996) state that wildlife or the wild animals will in turn experience restricted range as their habitat is converted to human uses that preclude wildlife utilization. The two major sources of conflicts are therefore wildlife and human competition for land resources and lack of access to the wildlife resources by the local community who in most cases are the ones who are live closest to those resources.

2.8.2.1 Human-Wildlife Conflict in Uganda

In Uganda for example, the word compensation is not mentioned for damage by the Uganda Wildlife Authority since the Ugandan government does not provide compensation for wildlife depredation, and neither do conservation organizations. The reason is not that there is no human-wildlife conflict in Uganda or that the Ugandan people are so patriotic and so ecologically-minded that they do not see the need for reparation for the loss due to wild animals like the elephants which keep trampling on the farmer's crop fields. The anger against them is not as pronounced as it is in Kenya. One of the reasons for this is the fact that in Uganda, local communities despite the human-wildlife conflicts enjoy some direct benefits from wildlife; hence regard it as an asset rather than a nuisance (Sifuna, 2005).

The wildlife sector in Uganda is governed by the Uganda Wildlife Statute of 1996, which provides for sustainable management of wildlife, consolidates the law relating to wildlife management, and establishes the Uganda Wildlife Authority (UWA) as the body to co-ordinate wildlife conservation. The regime put in place by this law departs from a state-centered approach, such as the one in Kenya, to a community-oriented approach for conservation by giving local communities a say in the management and conservation of wildlife (Ntambirweki and Dribidu, 1996).

According to the World Conservation Union, human-wildlife conflict occurs when wildlife's requirements overlap with those of human population creating cost to residents and wild animals (World Parks Congress, 2003). Although direct contact with wildlife occurs in urban and rural areas, but it is generally more common inside and around protected areas, where wildlife population density is higher and animals often stray into adjacent cultivated fields or grazing areas exposing them to more conflict which makes such wild animals population decrease after problem animal control operations (Ogada *et al.*, 2003).

2.8.2.2 Effect of human-wildlife conflicts local residents' attitudes and

Perceptions

Ogada *et al.* (2003) documented increased cases of injuries and death caused by human to wild animals and this can either be accidental such as road traffic and railway accidents, capture in snares set for other species or from falling into farm wells, or intentional cost by relatively shooting, poison or capture. Such human mortality affects not only the population viability of some of the most endangered species, but also has broader environmental impacts or ecosystem equilibrium and biodiversity preservation.

Human-wildlife conflicts also undermine human welfare, health and safety and have economic and social costs which in most cases lead to negative attitude from the local communities towards wildlife resources from the protected areas (Ministry of Water, Land and Air Protection, British Colombia, 2003). They also concur that nuisance encounters with small animals lead to exposure to zoonotic diseases, physical injury even death caused by large predators. All these attacks have high financial cost for individuals and the society in the form of medical treatment to cure and prevent infections transmitted from animals through human contacts. They also contend that humans can be economically affected through destruction and damage to property and infrastructure such agricultural crops, orchards, grain store, water installation, fencing and pipes livestock depredation transmission of domestic animal diseases such as foot and mouth. Negative social impacts include missed schools and work, additional labour cost, loss of sleep, fear, restriction of travel or loss of pests (Hoare, 1992).

The foregoing broad environmental, human health and safety, economical and social impacts suggest that the government, wildlife managers, scientists and local communities need to recognize the problem of human wildlife conflicts and adopt appropriate measures to resolve it in the interests of human and environmental well being.

Human-wildlife conflict, poaching and increasing habitat destruction continue to be major problems which have been caused by several factors including the policy of non-consumptive conservation, changes in land use patterns, urbanization, population growth, poverty, demand for bush-meat and trophies and reduction in dispersal areas and migration corridors for areas bordering parks (KWS Strategic Plan 2005-2010). These factors have led to depletion and endangerment of wildlife resources. Although over the years KWS has developed strategies to structure relationships with various communities/organizations involved in or living in areas with rich biodiversity, these efforts have not realised greater achievements in promoting positive attitudes and perceptions towards wildlife and tourism development. Hence, the strategic plan recommends a balance between wildlife policing and control with pre-emptive and adaptive and adaptable approaches to conservation that address the dynamic nature of security threats and interactions with the communities.

Burnett (1990) suggest that the fundamental flaw underlying Kenya's wildlife utilization and conservation policy hinges on how the nation parks and reserves were created. According to him, when the parks were created their socio-economic, political and ecological impacts on the resident-communities were not considered. While on the one hand, wildlife sanctuaries helped preserve and generate the remnants of faunal and floral species, on the other, no consideration was given to the livelihood of the local communities on whose lands wildlife species depended for survival while implications for co-existence with wildlife were of secondary concern.

According to Western (1984) the major concern of wildlife utilization and environmental conservation in Kenya stems on how wildlife and wildlife habitat can be adequately conserved in the face of changing land-uses, attitudes and diminishing open spaces. Western (1973) and Myer (1973) have underlined the usefulness of regarding local communities as an environmental ingredient in conservation studies of areas adjacent to the national parks and game reserves. Due to the public property

characteristic of the resource, the costs of conservation are in most part borne by the communities living adjacent to the parks and reserves.

2.9 Local people's access to benefits from Tourism Development

Recognizing that wildlife needs space both inside and outside parks to flourish without intensive management or ecological impoverishment, this space would be secured as a result of the local people's willingness to accommodate wildlife on their properties (Mwanjala, 2005). Mwanjala also alludes that such an accommodation would arise from policies encouraging local community to incorporate wildlife resources with other forms of land use and reaping the benefits through tourism and game bird shooting.

Game hunting, live animal trade and game cropping were banned in Kenya pending the review of the wildlife policy and Act (Akama, 1998) as well as the formulation of a tourism policy. Currently the tourism policy is in place. However attempts to have a new wildlife policy and Act have been riddled with politics, blame games and lack of understanding between stakeholders. To date none of these two key documents has gone through the approval process. Akama also states that, in order to implement this long term strategy, it became necessary for wildlife officers to be facilitators and advisors to local communities on how to co-exist with the wildlife and be good conservationists so as to enhance proper wildlife resource management by protecting and conserving wildlife inside and outside the park with a view to promote tourism development.

Kenya has a total of 26 national parks and 30 national reserves. Sifuna (2006) reports that despite designating some protected areas for wildlife conservation, not all wildlife is in these areas since a considerable portion of it is found outside PAs. However animals sometimes leave the PAs and roam on people's lands causing damage to people and their properties. This means therefore that most wildlife in Kenya spends a substantial amount of time on people's land, usually leaving havoc in their wake yet they accrue very few benefits from wildlife or wildlife based tourism. The rural peasants lose more than they gain from wildlife in PAs (Sifuna, 2006). This has over the years led to negative attitudes among local people as well as hostility, mistrust and resentment. The problem has been aggravated by lack of benefits.

Although PAs are surrounded by human settlements, the inhabitants hardly get any benefits from such areas, and usually do not participate in the distribution of revenue collected from tourism promoted within and around these PAs. Most of the benefits of wildlife go to urban-based tourist companies (Sifuna, 2006). In most cases there is hardly any mechanism for ensuring that such revenue trickles down to the local communities. Incidentally, these rural peasants are the people who daily interact with wildlife and bear the costs of damage since they share the same ecosystems. If their concerns and welfare are well addressed, there could probably be a stronger lobby for conservation and consequently tourism development (Sifuna, 2006).

Many communities in Africa bear the cost of coexisting with wildlife without receiving any benefits (O'Connell-Rodwell *et al.*, 2000) and often the costs are very considerable in relation to their standards of living. In tropical Africa, meat from wild animals represents an important part of the staple diet of the hundreds of thousands of people as well as remarkable sources of income for the rural hunters (Bellamy, 1930). Hence integrating local people in wildlife conservation will not only guarantee the sustainability of wildlife based tourism and related activities, but also benefits that accrue from them. As a result, access to accrued benefits will change local people's attitude and perceptions towards tourism development.

Despite the fact that people who live near protected areas and who are also marginalized practice hunting within poorly managed protected areas, understanding of how local residents benefit through exploitation of wildlife resources is essential to developing an appropriate conservation strategy that would ensure a food supply for the local population and thus enhance their benefits from the wildlife resources. Further, it can be also argued that local people involvement in tourism and access to tourism and other wildlife benefits can engender positive attitudes among local residents and support for wildlife conservation and tourism development.

Although local communities have begun to recognise some socio-environmental problems associated with tourism they are willing to accept tourism through wildlife conservation in its current mass-market form because of the real and perceived benefit it may provide (Ioannides, 2001). For example, some NGOs promote 'fringe' environmental activities, and are not opposed to future developments and benefits of

people. Consequently, it can be inferred that sustainable activities can promote conservation and therefore sustained benefits.

Kenya has been trying to channel some of the earnings from tourism and wildlife industries to local communities (Parkipuny, 2006). Some projects pay grazing fees to ranches outside PAs for areas used by wildlife such as in Amboseli, Tsavo and Chyulu Hills. In Maasai Mara, the local communities receive revenue for development of tourist campsites or lodges on their land. Before hunting was banned in 1977, the hunting concessions more than tourism benefitted local communities (Sitati, 2003).

Juste *et al.* (1995) documents that in many African countries, bush meat is largely traded and represents a primarily source of income for rural people which is a form of benefit they derive from the wildlife resources conserved in the protected areas. In recent years, for example in Zimbabwe, there was a progressive important transition from subsistence to commercial hunting, essentially done to an of the increase in human population density, the modernization of hunting techniques and a greater accessibility to remote forest areas by the local communities (Wilkie and Carpenter, 1999). The CAMPFIRE programme in Zimbabwe did include obtaining voluntary community participation where the local people got introduced to a system of group ownership to access wildlife resources and benefits accruing from wildlife based tourism. The poorest villages in the region were to earn money from wildlife and the money did fund the provision of such amenities as schools, clinics and grinding mills as well as increase household income. CAMPFIRE also encouraged the fencing off wildlife from local people and the payment of compensation for damage occasioned by wildlife (Kameri-Mbote (2002).

2.10 Costs incurred by local people and their implications on their attitudes and perceptions towards tourism Development

Local people, especially those living adjacent to PAS, suffer losses in crops, livestock, and human life due to wildlife (Omondi, 1995). These contrasts with the fact that benefits of wildlife conservation and protected area management as well as tourism development are enjoyed nationally and internationally while the costs are borne locally. The later has led to negative attitudes and perceptions towards tourism development.

This coupled with denial local agro-pastoralists access to traditional resource areas and protected wildlife as well as depredation of livestock, diseases transmission to domestic stock and competition for pasture and water has led to local people often supporting poaching or being indifferent or hostile to wildlife conservation policies (Balakrishnan and Ndhlovu, 1992; Bonner, 1993).

Besides the foregoing, Akama (1993) also noted that wildlife conservation in Kenya confronts persistent, complex and possibly overwhelming socio-economic and ecological problems. As a result, local people perceive protected areas as a liability. Lusigi (1984) while commenting on this Kenyan situation remarks:

“..... the idea of ‘national parks’ as it is presently conceived is an alien and unacceptable idea to the African population..Making that idea culturally and socially acceptable to the people will require a transformation, which has not yet taken place, and which in my opinion, may never take place if present trends continue.

2.11 Wildlife conservation and tourism development in Kenya

2.11.1 Wildlife conservation and Tourism development during the pre-colonial period

Wildlife conservation is perhaps as old as mankind since even in early times there were traditional customs, rules, taboos, beliefs and practices relating to wildlife and wildlife conservation (Sifuna, 2006). In pre-colonial Africa, although environmental conservation was not institutionalized and known, most societies lived in symbiosis with their surrounding environment. Wildlife played an important part in the day-to-day life of Africans, providing them with food and clothing (Kameri-Mbote 2002). Tourism as it is known today was not at the centre of conservation among communities in pre-colonial Africa.

Kameri-Mbote (2002), further reports that as part of the everyday life of Africans, wildlife was the subject of the art and religion of many communities and was widely used by carvers, sculptors and in mythology. During the traditional days hunting provided the means for satisfying basic needs as well as forming an important part of culture where rites of passage called for a show of bravery by killing a lion. For example, among the Maasai community this practice of showing bravery was highly practiced and still prevails today on minimal levels.

From the foregoing observations, it can be argued that although pre-colonial wildlife conservation did not directly promote tourism development, recreation was nonetheless an important aspect of human life.. Most communities in pre-colonial Kenya were pastoralists and agriculturalists who only hunted wildlife to supplement their diet. Communities such as the Kikuyu and Maasai for instance, had beliefs and taboos that limited their use of wildlife to ensure respect of wild animals, and this therefore controlled hunting to maintain sustainable herds of wild animals. Totemism (the designation of a particular animal as a sacred emblem, not to be interfered with) was also an effective way of ensuring that certain wildlife species survived any form of exploitation. The elaborate taboo and belief system not only promoted wildlife conservation, but also enhanced local people's access to game meat and other socio-cultural and ecological benefits. This in turn incultated positive attitudes and perceptions among the people.

Sifuna (2006) contends that in pre-colonial times, people were free to utilize wildlife as they needed in accordance with the prevailing customary practices and values. Since there existed no formal policy or regulation on wildlife conservation the customary rules, practices and values enhanced the attitudes and perceptions local communities had towards wildlife. More often, these were more positive thereby encouraging people to conserve wildlife thereby contributing to tourism development.

2.11.2 Wildlife conservation during the colonial period and its implication on tourism development

The declaration of the East African Protectorate on June 15, 1895, and the arrival of European settlers, amateur and professional hunters, and other trophy seekers led to a rapid decline of wildlife populations, destruction of wildlife habitats and introduction of wildlife diseases (zoonoses)

Furthermore, the occurrence of rinderpest in the late nineteenth century (a devastating viral disease which attacks both wildlife and livestock) had far reaching social and ecological impacts in the Eastern Africa savannas (The East African Standard, May 14, 1996). It has been estimated that, 95% of all cattle died of the disease between

1890 and 1892, and wildlife losses especially of the larger grazers were of the same magnitudes.

During this period of accelerated wildlife and habitat destruction, pioneer Western conservationists realized that if excessive destruction, particularly of larger wild animals, was not checked, the end result would be extinction. Thus, the pioneer conservationists raised concern about excessive destruction of the savanna wildlife. By the turn of the century, there was growing interest in the West for wilderness conservation in frontier territories worldwide, particularly in the Third World.

A social class of naturalists had emerged who advocated wilderness conservation and the appreciation of aesthetic and ethical value of pristine natural areas. These were people who were generally affluent and were not living at the economic margin and were thus able to organize safari expeditions to Kenya and other parts of the Third World. They included people like John Muir, Theodore Roosevelt, William Baille, Abel Chapman, James Stevenson-Hamilton, Carl Akeley, Edgar Rice Burroughs and Mervyn Cowie (Britton, 1979).

The concern of the pioneer naturalists was fuelled by the realization that pristine natural areas in most frontier territories were rapidly shrinking due to increased human populations with attendant settlement, industrialization and uncontrolled hunting practices.

The pioneer conservationists started to organize conservation awareness campaigns throughout Europe and North America. The campaigns were aimed at sensitizing the public, in general and the government in particular, on the social and ecological value of nature conservation. The conservationists put pressure on governments, which had colonies in African and other parts of the Third World such as Britain, France, Germany and Italy, to initiate policies and programs of nature protection (Garland, 2008). Despite this, tourism development did not feature in these campaigns.

In 1903, British conservationists formed the Society for the Preservation of the Fauna of the Empire whose main aim was to sensitize the general public and to urge the British government to initiate and implement policies and programs of wildlife conservation in the East Africa Protectorate and other colonies. The society urged the

British government to establish adequate nature reserves before the country was completely settled by farmers and ranchers and the opportunity for otherwise doing so be lost forever. The society sent a committee to Kenya to investigate the game situation and make future recommendations (Akama, 1996). This efforts did not however, focus on tourism development nor changing local people's attitudes and perceptions towards wildlife and tourism development.

2.11.3 Wildlife Conservation during the post-colonial period and its implication to tourism development

Several scholars have compared tourism with a new form of colonialism, i.e., *neocolonialism*, where “first world” countries are seen to exercise relationships of power and domination over “third world” countries and destinations (Nash, 1989; Mowforth and Munt, 2003). Postcolonial theory enables a more nuanced critique and is especially concerned with identifying the ongoing political, economic and cultural influences of former imperial powers in the postcolonial state (see Hall and Tucker 2004, for an overview and discussion of post colonialism and tourism). A postcolonial critique of conservation is concerned with the perpetuation of colonial practices, influence and power in the post colony through tourism development.

This analysis examined how the forms and structures of tourism development that evolved during colonial times interpolated with tourism in the post colonial time which in turn influenced on local resident's attitudes and perceptions towards economical, political and social cultural domination control as well as local struggle and resistance towards tourism development. In the Kenyan context, neocolonialism should be carefully examined for imperialist influences and micro-macro power relations, negotiation and struggle (see case examples further below). Such neo- and post-colonization can be effected, through dependent and exploitative economic relationships between developed and developing countries (Britton 1982); tourism image and discourse (Britton, 1979); and exclusionary practices and hegemonic struggle as local residents negotiate and resist external influences and values. These themes are explored further below and argue that neocolonial tourism practices in the Kenyan post colony (after independence) dovetailed with and reinforced the structural inequities laid down during colonial rule through conservation policies and safari

tourism which in turn enhanced people's attitudes and perceptions to change by conserving wildlife hence tourism development in Kenya (Garland 2008).

2.12 Importance of wildlife conservation and its impact on tourism development

The importance of wildlife resources to the society and the need to conserve wildlife cannot be overemphasized. Wildlife has numerous benefits, that include being a source of food, a form of natural heritage and tourist attraction, a reservoir for genes, a source of employment, and a principal component of the ecosystem, to name but a few. All these wildlife values and benefits influence tourism development either directly or indirectly.

In summary, wildlife is a natural resource of biological, economic, social, recreational, educational, environmental, and nutritional value to the present as well as future generations. Wildlife is a valuable resource that should be protected and conserved (Sifuna, 2006). Owing to the failure of protected area managers to promote wildlife conservation, coupled with lack of individual property rights to local communities living around protected areas like LNNP, the integration of long-term interests of humans and wildlife has not been realized. This in turn has led to no concerns to wildlife conservation by humans and management of the Pas is not achieved at the expense of illegal hunting of wildlife by poachers especially the poaching of the endangered rhinos in Lake Nakuru National Park is a matter of grave concern which has affected tourism development.

Kameri-Mbote (2002), reports that the extinction of wild animals is aggravated by the high demand for wildlife products among them the rhinos' horns in the international markets and the very high level of corruption in the departments of the government charged with the task of management. As a result, wildlife which constitutes an important resource for tourism continues to be threatened and this impacts negatively to tourism development.

2.13 Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework for this study is based on the social exchange theory where several researchers have examined the influence of expected costs and benefits of tourism for people in support its development. The social exchange theory suggests

that expressed support for tourism development is considered as a willingness to enter into an exchange (AP, 1992; Jurowski *et al.*, 1997).

While wildlife is a very important resource for economic and social development, some wild animals do cause injury and death to people, and damage their property. In the long run this tends to lead to negative attitudes and perceptions among local people towards tourism development and wildlife conservation. The losses incurred sometimes lead to retaliatory attacks on the animals, some of which are protected by the country's laws, while others are protected by international legal instruments such as Convention on International Trade on Endangered Species (CITES). (Jurowski *et al.*, 1997)

The trend is that in the initial stages, incidents of wildlife depredation result in heavy losses to people who appear to be the victims but later wild animals become the real victims and suffer greatly when people, in turn retaliate by poisoning, attacking them or ensnaring the animals using traps or manholes. Such retaliatory responses from local communities usually attract adverse reactions from the state and government agencies such as Kenya Wildlife service, thus leading to arrests and prosecution of the local people which makes them to develop negative attitudes and perceptions towards wildlife, wildlife conservation and tourism development.

Direct harmful interactions between humans and wildlife usually referred to as human-wildlife conflict, results to resentment by the public who feel neglected thus creating hostility and mistrust between them and protected area management. In the long run, local people who more often offer space for wildlife and support tourism in exchange for envisaged benefits like revenue and access to wildlife products often feel short changed, and do not realise tangible benefits.

2.14 Conceptual Framework

From figure 2.2 which presents the conceptual framework for this study, it is evident that support for tourism development is effective if attitudes and perceptions towards tourism are positive. Costs and the benefits local people derive together with the state of the local people's economy, which in most cases is a low economy due to their high poverty levels often leads to their antagonistic attitudes and perceptions towards tourism development. These attitudes and perceptions are influenced by the concern

that local people are not involved in any tourism development hence they tend to feel marginalised.

Additionally, the model shows that the state of perceived costs also makes local people to view wildlife as a liability and of great loss to them since wildlife makes them incur a lot of losses from repairing damaged properties to destruction of crops and livestock. Local people also do not get any benefits from tourism development which in most cases makes them not to have interest in wildlife conservation. Benefits to the local people are not realized and they are never compensated for the loss they incur leading to their frequent change in the attitudes and perceptions towards tourism development.

The model shows clearly that if no benefits are realized, local people's attitudes and perceptions change negatively thus aggravating human-wildlife conflicts, poaching, vandalism, hunting, hostility, resentment, mistrust and marginalization of local people. On the other hand, if benefits are realised, people's economy and perceived costs due to wildlife damage and loss of life are not over exaggerated. This in turn enhances pride in the wildlife resources by local people, and consequently enhances their willingness to support conservation and by extension tourism development.

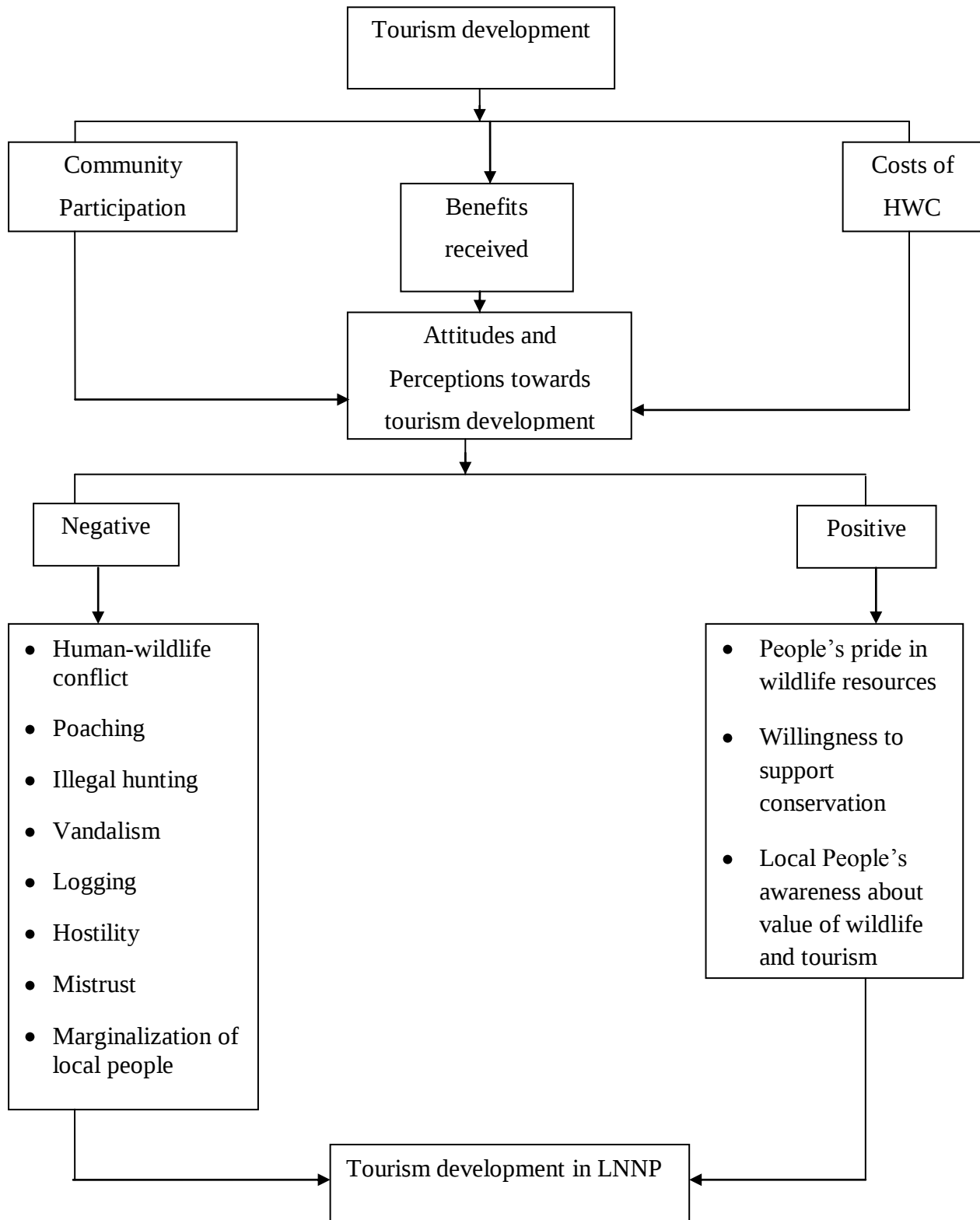


Figure 2. 2. Impact of people's attitudes and perceptions on tourism development

(Source: Researcher)

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter discusses issues related to the study area in terms of its location and size, geology, soils, climate, flora and fauna, management of LNNP, access to the park, attraction and accommodation facilities, research design, target population, sample size of the population, sample selection, data collection procedures, sample size research instruments, data analysis techniques and presentation, and reliability and validity of research instruments.

3.1 Study area

LNNP was first gazetted in 1960 as a bird sanctuary and upgraded to a national park (NP) in 1968. In 1974, a Northern extension was added and in 1990 the lake was designated as a Ramsar site. It is therefore a wetland of international importance, especially as a waterfowl habitat.

The park covers the lake and a land strip around the northern, eastern and western shores, whereas southwards the grounds extend farther to Makalia falls, which define the southern limit. In addition to birds and rhinos, the park is home for a large number of mammals, including carnivores such as lions and leopards. Nakuru in Kiswahili means "Waterbuck Haven". Lake Nakuru National Park started off as a small conservation area only encompassing the famous lake and the surrounding mountainous vicinity. Now it has been extended to include a large part of the savannahs. Currently, the fenced park covers around 90 square miles. It has unusual but beautiful vegetation among it the Euphorbia forest, tall cactus like trees and acacia woodland. The lake and the terrestrial habitat usually host over 400 migratory bird species from other parts of the world.

Lake Nakuru National Park is a very shallow, mean depth of 1 m, strongly alkaline lake that is 62 km². Siltation and sedimentation from the surrounding areas account for the lake's shallow depth. The park is set in a picturesque landscape of surrounding woodland and grassland next to Nakuru town. The landscape includes areas of marsh and grasslands alternating with rocky cliffs and outcrops, stretches of acacia

woodland and rocky hillsides covered with a Euphorbia forest on the eastern perimeter. The lake catchment is bounded by Menengai crater to the north, the Bahati hills to the north east, the Lion hill ridges to the east, Eburu crater to the south and the Mau escarpment to the west. There are three major rivers; the Njoro, Makalia and Enderit which drain into the lake, together with treated water from the town's sewage works and the outflow from several springs along the shore.. The foundation of the parks food chains is the cyanophyte *Spirulina platensis*, which supports huge numbers of lesser flamingo.

The park has for long acted as the centre for biodiversity conservation initiative. In 1953, 1959 and 1962 the introduction of *Tilapia graham* (*Sarotherodon alclicus graham*) to control mosquitoes increased food diversity and resulted in a wider variety of species of bird life in Lake Nakuru .With the expansion of the park boundaries the park acted as a refuge for wildlife species that had experienced population decline due to poaching and habitat destruction elsewhere.

These introduced wildlife species included predators and endangered species such as the Rothschild giraffe and black rhino. The rampant poaching of rhinos exterminated them from their range. Lake Nakuru National Park has acted as a Black rhino protection and breeding site and for reintroductions to their former ranges. The park has been recognized internationally as an important conservation area and has been designated as an Important Bird Area, a stopover for migratory species and the first Ramsar site in East Africa.

3.1.1 Location and size

Lake Nakuru National Park is situated approximately 164 kilometers from Nairobi city, a two hour's drive. It was established as a bird sanctuary in 1960 and has been expanded over the years to cover a size of 188 km² to provide a perimeter terrestrial buffer zone to protect the lake from encroachment by settlements and to minimize the impacts of urban and agricultural development in the immediate catchment. It is dominated by a gentle undulating terrain with open bush and woodlands, typical of the dry rift valley vegetation. Twenty seven percent (27%) of the park is composed of the Lake Nakuru waters. The northern lake shore is 2km south of Nakuru town at a

grid reference 0°19'- 0°24' S/36°04'-36°07' E, and covers 49,000 ha (9km long and 5.5km wide maximum) at an altitude of 1758m.

3.1.2 Geology

Geography, climate and evolutionary history have played a deterministic role in the evolution of features and characteristics that define Lake Nakuru. These features drive the lake water chemistry, dictating the species that can successfully establish themselves and the levels of productivity. The alkaline water chemistry makes the Lake a unique ecosystem, functionally independent of its immediate environs but dependent on its larger catchment for sustenance.

Lake Nakuru is highly alkaline as the catchment rocks contain a high proportion of alkaline minerals that are leached into the lake. The prevailing climate induces an evaporation-precipitation deficit that through evaporative concentration has turned the lake alkaline and naturally hyper-eutrophic.

3.1.3 Soils

Soils are primarily of volcanic origin and tend to be friable, well drained and in some instances shallow. Those on central plains are mainly derived from lacustrine deposits and volcanic ashes. Having developed on sediments, the soils tend to be dark brown, deep and poorly drained and slightly calcareous to saline. On the more open grassland plains are soils derived from pumice beds and ashes from recent volcanoes and appears to be well drained friable loams to sandy clay loam that support the bulk of grazing land in the park. Rocks that compose the cliffs and the rock outcrops are of basaltic formation.

The lake bottom has been filled with weathered material from the catchment area and the soil type is mainly sandy alluvial, of volcanic origin indicated by soda ash and fine sandy/loam soils on the lake bottom and its immediate surrounding areas. The soils in most areas are highly permeable and very little surface water is noticeable after the rains.

3.1.4 Climate

The climate ranges from cold and humid to arid and semi-arid, characteristic of areas within the Rift Valley floor. The lake level and river discharge fluctuates drastically in response to changes in rainfall and evaporation.

Mean annual rainfall averages about 750mm, falling within the periods of November to December and April to August. The total annual rainfall increases and becomes more certain and dependable with increasing altitude. Rainfall has a tri-modal distribution with peaks centered around April, August and November; April peak being highest followed by August and November. Isohyets analysis shows a general decrease in rainfall from the highlands to the centre of the lake.

Lake Nakuru National Park has its annual mean temperature of 27⁰C where its peak is centered around January and September and minimum temperatures around June and July. Wind speeds are high especially in the dry season in January and February causing whirlwinds in the low-lying areas.

3.1.5 Flora and fauna

3.1.5.1 Flora

Lake Nakuru National Park has unique vegetation with about 550 different plant species in several habitats reported here below.

1. Acacia Forest- The Acacia trees occur along the Lake shores where enough water is available. There are thirty species of birds which only live in these forests, for example tropical boubou and three species of flycatcher. The Acacia forest is also the home to buffalo, leopard, vervet and colobus monkeys.

2. Acacia Savannah- This is the second largest habitat in Lake Nakuru National Park, occurring where the acacia forest cannot grow due to lack of adequate water and regular burning of the grass, which prevent acacia saplings from developing. Species such a lion, jackal, impala and giraffe are found in this habitat. There are also many bird species including weaver, dove, ground hornbill, Augur buzzard and Martial eagle.

3. Open Grassland- This area comprises alkaline and plain grassland communities. Alkaline grassland communities are mainly found on highly alkaline soils that are frequently water logged. The species composition here is dominated by *Cyperus Laevigatus*, *Sporobolus spicatus*, *Pluchea bequaertii* and *Typha* species, all in various

associations. Plain grassland communities occur mainly on sedimentary/ lacustrine plains to the South and North of the Lake.

4. Wooded Grassland- These are areas of scattered trees on grasslands.

5. Forests- There are two types of forest habitats in Lake Nakuru National Park.

a) Euphorbia forest- This was the largest surviving example of Euphorbia forest in East Africa. However, the forest has recently been destroyed by factors which are still being investigated. These plants, also known as “Candelabra Trees”, grow up to 15 metres high and are not good for either building or charcoal burning, but Black rhino and baboons utilize them as food and shelter.

b) Virgin Olea forest- This is commonly known as “Olive forest” and confined to the Southwest of the Lake. It is a good habitat for both Black and White Rhino. Large Pythons are also found here. The dominant trees species here are *Olea Africana* and *Teclea simplicifolia*. The forest is a small remnant of a larger forest which extended to the higher slopes of the Mau escarpment the main catchment of Lake Nakuru.

3.1.5.2 Fauna

Lake Nakuru National Park has a high variety of avifauna and ornithologists often describe Lake Nakuru as "the most tremendous bird spectacle in the world". The Lesser flamingo can be distinguished by its deep red carmine bill and pink plumage unlike the greater, which has a bill with a black tip. The Lesser flamingos are the ones that are commonly pictured in documentaries mainly because they are comparatively much more in number. There are also various species of ground dwelling birds such as Francolins, Guinea-fowl, Ground hornbill and secretary birds. The few trees, which survive here, provide vantage points for birds of prey such as the African Kite and the Black-Shouldered Kite. The population is estimated to be over a million birds including water birds such as Greater and Lesser flamingos, pelicans, cormorants, ducks and geese and a variety of terrestrial birds all numbering about 400 species.

There are more than 50 different species of mammals including black and white rhinos, lions, leopards, warthog, aardvark and antelopes such as waterbucks, impalas, dik-diks, grants gazelles and primates such as baboons and vervet monkeys, among others. The black rhinos have been slowly multiplying over the years, though they are

highly threatened and hence accorded more protection by KWS management. In 1977, the Rothschild giraffe was introduced to the park. The park also has large sized pythons that inhabit the dense woodlands, and can often be seen crossing the roads or dangling from trees.

3.1.6 Management of LNNP

Lake Nakuru National Park is managed by the KWS while international organizations like JICA and WWF, among others, have contributed funds to development of tourism in these areas.

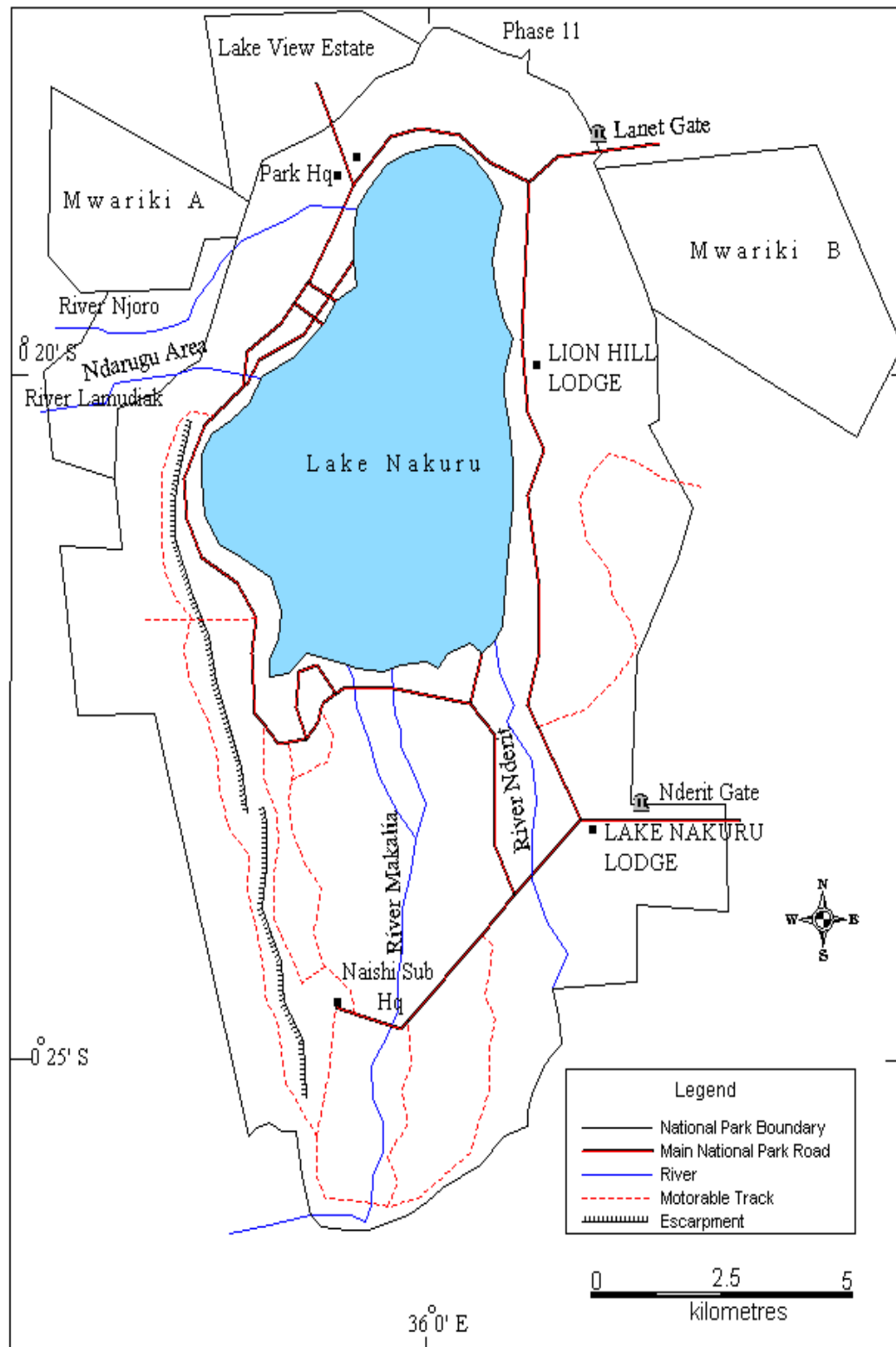


Figure 3. 1. Map of the Study area

Source: Strategic Plan of Lake Nakuru, 2000- *Modified by the author*

3.1.8 Access to the park

The park has a tarmac road connection with Nairobi, a distance of 156 km North West of Nairobi on the main A104 road. The most commonly used route into the park is via the main gate, 4 km from Nakuru Town Centre. It is also possible to enter the park from the main Nairobi-Nakuru road at Lanet gate and also from Lanet-Elementaita road through Nderit gate. The park can also be accessed by air through Naishi airstrip, which services the park for tourism and KWS activities. This makes the park easily accessible to both local and international visitors. Nakuru Town has grown both in size and human population, followed closely by the development of overnight accommodation and supplementary visitor facilities.

3.1.9 Accommodation Facilities

There are several kinds of accommodation including self-help bandas like Naishi bandas, lodges such as Lake Nakuru and Sarova Lion Hill, special campsites like Naishi, Chui, Rhino, Soysambu, Nyati, Nyuki and Reedbuck and public campsites such Makalia and Backpackers.

3.1.10 Socio- economic activities

While Lake Nakuru National Park is exclusively used for wildlife conservation, the surrounding land area is intensively used for agriculture, forestry and ranching, creating a scenario in which most of the wildlife keeps destroying people's crops and other properties since they live just adjacent to the park. The existing relationship calls for the evaluation of people's attitudes and perception towards tourism development and wildlife conservation. .

3.2 Research Methods

3.2.1 Research design

The study used the exploratory research design to generate the required information. This design gives a description of variables based on field generated data and literature reviews. According to Burns (2000), an exploratory design allows the researcher to make a comprehensive inference about the investigated variables in the target population. It also allows an analysis of results with a view of generating new ideas about phenomena like attitudes and perceptions of local people towards tourism development, and the overall management of wildlife resources.

3.2.2 Target population

The study targeted 135 LNNP management staff who comprised of personnel in management positions and one thousand (1000) local people living adjacent to the park up to 5 km away from the park boundary. The latter were local residents who had frequent interactions with the park and its resources, and experienced frequent human-wildlife conflicts. Nakuru municipality which is currently part of Nakuru County having a population of over 900,000 inhabitants' and a total of 135 management staff at LNNP (Lake Nakuru Integrated Management Plan, 2009).

3.2.3 Sampling Procedures and sample selection

The study used both stratified and systematic sampling whereby the researcher selected 300 respondents from among people living in four estates (see section 3.2.4 below) adjacent to the park. 300 members of the population were divided into four clusters (strata) before sampling. This sample size was then stratified into four strata based on Nakuru Municipal Council's administrative units (estates) namely: Mwariki A, Phase II estate, Lake View estate and Ndarugu and then drawing a sample from each stratum. Seventy five respondents were selected from each stratum.

Systematic sampling was used to pick every fourth households and the head of the household or his representative given the questionnaires. Systematic sampling method gave members of the sampled population an equal chance to be included in the study.

3.2.4 Sample size

A total of 300 local respondents comprising people living adjacent to the park were selected for the study. This represented 30% of the total number of households in the study area. The 300 respondents gave local people's perspective or opinion on issues under study. The formula for selecting the 300 local respondents is given below.

Target population= 1000

Sample size= $30/100 \times 1000 = 300$

Using purposive sampling, 12 key respondents were selected from 135 Kws personnels to represent the views of the management staff. The selected number was thought to be adequate to provide sufficient information and also to minimize unnecessary repetition of information. The KWS management staff selected included:

The Assistant Director of Central Rift; LNNP Senior Warden,; four security wardens; two community wardens; two tourism wardens; one education warden and one research officer.

3.3 Data collection procedures

Both primary and secondary data were collected. Data collection methods used are described in subsequent section.

3.3.1 Primary Data

Data was collected using questionnaires which were self administered by the researcher to local people living around the park, interviews with KWS management staff in LNNP, and focus group discussions.

a) Focus Group Discussion

A focus group discussion was conducted with 6 respondents (3 men and 3 women) of varied ages who had lived in the study area for more than 10 years and were therefore conversant with the area and the changes that have occurred. The discussion enabled members to freely speak on issues pertaining to socio-economic impacts and issues relating to the existence of the park and tourism development in the area.

b) Questionnaire survey

As indicated in 3.3.1 above, the questionnaires were administered to the local people living adjacent to the park in the four sampled estates. The questionnaires had both open and closed ended questions (Appendix 1). Open-ended questions solicited responses from the respondents on various issues under study. They also enabled respondents to give their varied views based on their experiences and thoughts. On the other hand, close-ended questions were used to solicit responses based on the Likert-type scale whose values ranged from 1-5 on the rating scale, where 1 was ranked as strongly Agree, 2 Agree, 3 Undecided, 4 Disagree, and 5 was Strongly Disagree.

The respondents were asked to respond to each of the statements given by choosing answers based on the five point likert scale. Use of this scale was deemed appropriate since it assigned a scale value to each of the five responses and this assisted in yielding total scores for each respondent, which measured the respondent's favorableness towards a given point of view.

c) Interviews

Face to face interviews were held with key respondents guided by questions in Appendix- 2. Interviews were used because they involved direct contact between the interviewees and the interviewer and hence led to freedom and flexibility in terms of questions asked and answers given. Structured interviews enhanced flexibility in asking questions and changing the sequence of questions asked. Interviews were held with the KWS management staff. The structured interviews essentially used a set of predetermined questions which required highly standardized techniques of recording and facilitated in the generation of the required information by the interviewer.

Structured interviews followed a rigid laid down procedure, asking questions in a form and order prescribed in the interview schedule. They also facilitated in the descriptive analysis and were more economical, provided a safe basis for generalization and required relatively lesser skills on the part of the interviewer.

3.3.2 Secondary data

Secondary data collection involved gathering data from sources which had already been documented by other researchers. The study employed extensive library usage and internet search, collection of relevant materials from the press (documentaries and newspaper articles), use of records, magazines, articles from Kenya Wildlife Service, books, journal papers and other published and unpublished works.

3.4 Data analysis and presentation techniques

Data collected was analyzed with the help of Package for Social Science (SPSS). Data collected through questionnaires was coded, analyzed and relationships between variables derived using cross-tabulation. Results are presented using tables, graphs and qualitative statements and descriptions.

Descriptive statistics were used to determine frequencies and percentages while inferential statistical analysis using the chi-square test to determine whether expected frequencies differ from the actual frequencies.

Further analysis of qualitative data generated from interviews was done using content analysis particularly on verbatim quotations or statements derived from KWS

management staff .The verbal information or statements made by the management staff were coded and quantified to get uniform analysis of the data.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents results, which are based on questionnaire and interview responses. Descriptive statistics, cross-tabular analysis and the chi-square test were used to analyse results and explore relationships between and among variables.

4.1 Characteristics of the respondents

Out of the 300 questionnaires administered, a total of 252 (84%) respondents comprising of 50.8% males and 49.2% females, filled and returned questionnaires (Table 4.1). Majority of the respondents (78.2%) were aged between 16 and 40 years while those below 15 years and above 51 years comprised only 6.8%. The age of the respondents varied significantly ($\chi^2 = 102.24$, $df=4$, $p<0.001$). Based on occupation, the majority of the respondents were students (35.7%) while the least were from the “others” category (0.4%). In terms of the education level category, high school students constituted the highest respondents (56%). According to the length of residency, those respondents who had stayed for more than 20 years in the study area were the majority (27.8%) and the length of residency differed significantly $\chi^2=11.62$, $df=4$, $p<0.020$) (Table 4.1).

4.2 Local people's involvement in tourism development

As shown in table 4.2, 125 (49.6 %) of the respondents agreed with the statement that local people were involved in tourism development, while, a slightly lower but nearly similar proportion 120 (47.6%) of the respondents disagreed with the statement that local people were involved in tourism development. There was a significant difference ($\chi^2 = 105.92$, $df=2$, $p<0.001$) among respondents who agreed, undecided ones and those who disagreed that local people are involved in tourism development. Only a minor proportion (2.8%) of the respondents was undecided.

Most farmers (62.5%) disagreed that tourism is beneficial ($\chi^2 = 76.28$, $df=2$, $p< 0.002$). Equally most employed respondents (42.5%) also disagreed with the suggestion that local people were involved in tourism development ($\chi^2 = 54.89$, $df=2$, $p<0.020$). In contrast, students (90.9%) agreed with the suggestion that local people were involved in tourism development which was significantly higher ($\chi^2 = 15.95$, $df=2$, $p<0.001$)

than those who did not. As for the unemployed respondents, those who at least agreed 34 (42.5%) with the suggestion that local people were involved in tourism development were not significantly different ($\chi^2 = 9.13$, $df=2$, $p<0.378$) from those who disagreed 30 (55%). There was a significant difference between the respondents belief with regard to local people's involvement in tourism development and occupation of the respondents ($\chi^2 = 157.32$, $df=8$, $p<0.001$).

Table 4.1. Respondent's socio-demographic profile

Variable	Respondents	Frequency/n=252	Percentages	Chi-square value
Gender	Male	128	50.8	$\chi^2 = 0.064$ $df=1$ $P<0.801$
	Female	124	49.2	
Age	10-15 years	3	1.2	$\chi^2 = 102.24$ $df=4$ $P<0.000$
	16-20 years	70	27.8	
	21-30 years	75	29.8	
	31-40 years	52	20.6	
	41-50 years	38	15.1	
	Above 51	14	5.6	
Occupation	Farmer	58	23	$\chi^2 = 86.93$ $df=4$ $P<0.000$
	Employed	39	15.5	
	Unemployed	64	25.4	
	Students	90	35.7	
	Others	1	0.4	
Level of Education	None	7	2.8	$\chi^2 = 220.614$ $df=4$ $P<0.000$
	Primary school	25	9.9	
	High School	141	56	
	College	48	19	
	University	31	12.3	
Length of Residency	Less than 5 Years	41	16.3	$\chi^2 = 11.612$ $df=4$ $P<0.020$
	5-10 Years	49	19.4	
	11-15 Years	52	20.6	
	16-20 years	40	15.9	
	More than 20 years	70	27.8	
Total		252	100	

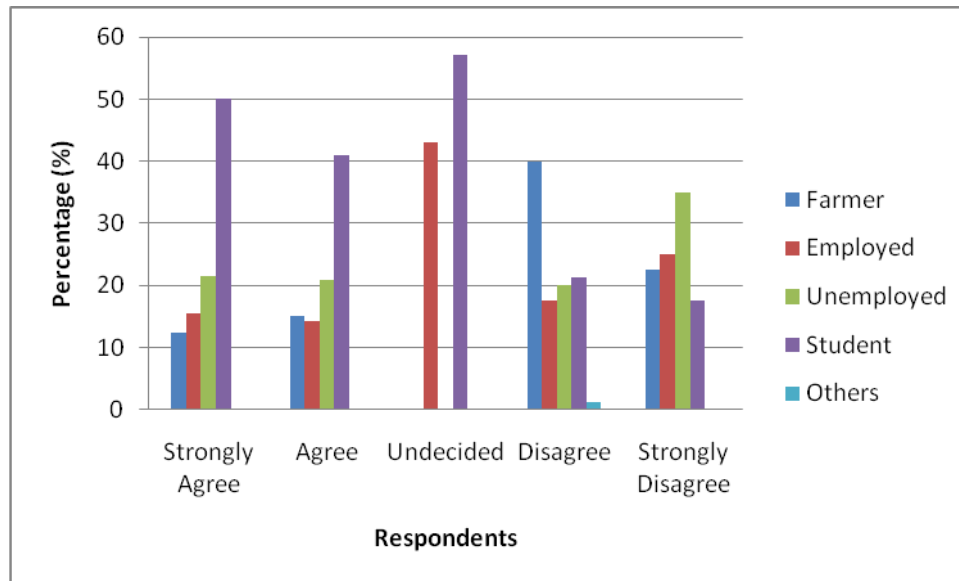


Figure 4.1. Local people's involvement in tourism development by occupation

4.3 Local people's participation in wildlife conservation and management in LNNP

Table 4.3 shows that 151 (59.9%) respondents at least agreed with the suggestion that local people participated in wildlife conservation, which is a significantly higher proportion ($\chi^2=129.44$, $df=2$, $p<0.001$) compared to 96 (38.1%) who at least disagreed. Those respondents who were undecided comprised a very small minority (2.0%).

4.4 Hostility of park managers towards local people

The proportion of respondents who at least agreed (58.7%) with the statement that the park managers are hostile to the local people and this hinders their participation in conservation and tourism development in the park, which was significantly higher ($\chi^2=109.34$, $df=2$, $p<0.001$) than that of those who at least disagreed (36.1%). Those respondents who were undecided (5.2%) were comparatively lower (Table 4.2).

4.5 Existence of effective measures to promote community participation in conservation and tourism development

Those respondents who at least agreed (48%), those who at least disagreed (40.4%) and those who were undecided (11.5%) on the statement that there exists effective measures to promote community participation in conservation and tourism development were significantly different ($\chi^2=109.34$, $df=2$, $p<0.001$) (Table 4.2).

Table 4.2. Effect of participation, hostility of park managers and existence of effective participation measures

Description (Scale)	Research Statements and Responses					
	Local people do participate in conservation and management of LNNP		Hostility by park management hinders local participation		Effective measures exist to promote community participation	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Strongly Agree	31	12.3	63	25	46	18.3
Agree	120	47.6	85	33.7	75	29.8
Undecided	5	2.0	13	5.2	29	11.5
Disagree	74	29.4	66	26.2	79	31.3
Strongly Disagree	22	8.7	25	9.9	23	9.1
Total	n=252	100	n=252	100	n=252	100

4.6 Effect of amount and type of benefits on attitudes and perceptions of local people towards tourism development

As shown in Table 4.3, the proportion of respondents who at least agreed (70.6%) with the suggestion that the amount and type of benefits that local people derive from tourism affects attitudes and perception towards tourism development was significantly higher ($\chi^2=159.3$, $df=2$, $p<0.001$) than those who at least disagreed (17.9%). The proportion of respondents who were undecided was low (11.5%). Therefore, the amount and type of benefit influences the attitudes and perceptions local people have towards tourism development.

4.7 Effect of level of awareness on attitudes and perceptions of local people towards tourism development

Respondents who agreed that the level of awareness has an effect on the attitudes and perceptions local people have towards tourism development was 56% compared to those who disagreed (22.7%) and those who were undecided (21.4%). From the results, it was clear that the number of respondents who agreed was significantly higher ($\chi^2=159.3$, $df=2$, $p<0.001$).

4.8 Effect of level of education on attitudes and perceptions of local people towards tourism development

A significantly higher number of respondents (48%) disagreed with the statement that the level of education had an effect on the attitudes and perceptions of local people towards tourism development, 41.3% of the respondents agreed with the statement while 10.7% were undecided. These clearly shows that more respondents disagreed with the statement ($\chi^2=59.74$, $df=2$, $p<0.001$) (Table 4.3).

Table 4.2. Effect of benefits, awareness and level of education on local people's attitudes and perceptions towards tourism development

Description (Scale)	Research Statements and Responses					
	Effect of type and amount of benefits		Effect of level of awareness		Effect of level of education	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Strongly Agree	66	26.2	44	17.5	48	19.1
Agree	112	44.4	97	38.5	56	22.2
Undecided	29	11.5	54	21.4	27	10.7
Disagree	30	11.9	46	18.3	92	36.5
Strongly Disagree	15	6.0	11	4.4	29	11.5
Total	n=252	100	n=252	100	n=252	100

4.9 Influence of amount and type of benefit on gender attitudes and perceptions towards tourism development

Results in Figure 4.2 indicate that a total of 95 (74.2%) male respondents agreed that the amount and type of benefits received from conservation and tourism development influenced gender attitudes and perceptions towards tourism development as compared to 83 (66.9%) females. The corresponding values for the male and female respondents who disagreed were 21(16.4 %) and 24 (19.4%) respectively. A total of 11.5% of both gender were undecided. There was no significant difference with regard to the influence of amount and type of benefit received on attitudes and perceptions towards conservation and tourism development between gender ($\chi^2=2.19$, $df=2$, $P<0.405$).

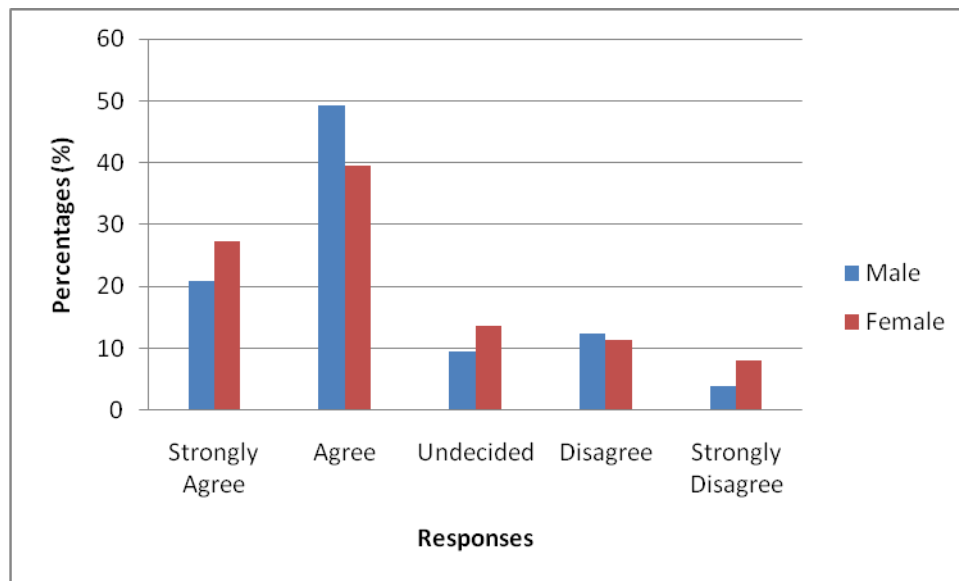


Figure 4.2. Influence of amount and type of benefit on gender attitudes and perceptions towards tourism development

4.10 Effect of length of residency around the park on attitudes and perceptions of local people towards tourism development in LNNP

A total of 142 (56.3%) respondents agreed that the length of residency in the study area had an effect on the attitudes and perceptions of local people towards tourism development as compared to those that at least disagreed (31.7%) (Table 4.4). Those who were undecided were only 30 (11.9%). There was a significant difference ($\chi^2=74.95$, $df=2$, $p<0.001$) between those who believed and those who did not on the effect of length of residency on the attitudes and perceptions of local people towards tourism development around the park.

4.11 Level of differences among respondents on the effect of length of residency on attitudes and perceptions towards tourism development

There was a significant difference ($p<0.05$) among all the categories of length of residency (Table 4.5) in their belief towards the effect of length of residency on attitudes and perceptions of local people towards tourism development. A significantly higher proportion of respondents (51.2%) who had lived for less than five years disagreed with the proposition that length of residency had an effect on the attitudes and perceptions of local people towards tourism development. However, all other respondents who had lived around the park for more than five years believed

that the length of residency had an effect on the attitudes and perceptions of local people towards tourism development.

Table 4.4. Effect of length of Residency on the attitudes and perceptions of local people towards tourism development

Variable	Less than 5 years		5-10 years		11-15 years		16-20 years		More than 20 years		Total	
	F*	%	F*	%	F*	%	F*	%	F*	%	F*	%
Strongly Agree	5	12.2	11	22.4	13	25	9	22.5	24	34.3	62	24.6
Agree	11	26.8	14	28.6	21	40.4	15	37.5	19	27.1	80	31.7
Undecided	4	9.8	7	14.3	8	15.4	6	15	5	7.1	30	11.9
Disagree	14	34.1	13	26.5	7	13.5	6	15	13	18.6	53	21.0
Strongly Disagree	7	17.1	4	8.2	3	5.8	4	10	9	12.9	27	10.7
Total	41	16.3	49	19.4	52	20.6	40	15.9	70	27.8	252	100

F* = Frequency

n = Sample size

Table 4.3. Comparison of effect of length of residency on attitudes and perception towards wildlife conservation and tourism development

Length of residency (years)	Agreed	Undecided	Disagreed	Level of difference
< 5	16 (39)	4 (9.8)	21 (51.2)	$\chi^2=28.9$, df=2, p=0.0034*
5-10	25 (51.0)	7 (14.3)	17 (34.7)	$\chi^2=13.45$, df=2, p=0.007*
11-15	34 (65.4)	8 (15.4)	10 (19.3)	$\chi^2=33.57$, df=2, p=0.000**
16-20	24 (60)	6 (15.0)	10 (25.0)	$\chi^2=12.83$, df=2, p=0.001*
>20	43 (61.4)	5 (7.1)	22 (31.5)	$\chi^2=73.5$, df=2, p=0.000**

The values in brackets are percentages, *significant, **highly significant

4.12 Effect of reaping benefits on the attitudes and perceptions of local people towards tourism development

Respondents who agreed with the suggestion that reaping of benefits from wildlife

conservation and tourism affects attitudes and perceptions on tourism development were 89 (35.3%) as compared to those who disagreed 141 (55.9%) and those who were undecided 22 (8.7%). From the results, it is clear that a significantly higher proportion ($\chi^2=84.74$, $df=2$, $p<0.001$) agreed with the statement given (Table 4.6).

4.13 Effect of losses incurred from wildlife damage on the attitudes and perceptions of local people towards tourism development

Respondents who agreed 163 (64.4%) with the statement that losses incurred from wildlife damage had an effect on attitudes and perceptions of local people towards tourism development as compared to those who disagreed 69 (27.4%) and those who were undecided were 20 (7.9%). From the results, it is clear that a significantly higher proportion ($\chi^2=125.74$, $df=2$, $p<0.001$) agreed with the statement given (Table 4.6).

4.14 Effect of costs incurred in repairing damage to property on the attitudes and perceptions of local people towards tourism development

Respondents who agreed with the statement that costs incurred in repairing damage to property by wildlife had an effect on attitudes and perceptions of local people towards tourism development were 196 (77.8%) as compared to those who disagreed 42 (16.7%). Those who were undecided were 14 (5.6%). From the results it is evident that there was a very high significant difference between those who agreed and those who disagreed with the statement given ($\chi^2=228.66$, $df=2$, $p<0.001$) (Table 4.6).

Table 4.4. Effect of reaping of benefits, and incurring losses and costs from tourism development on attitudes and perceptions towards tourism development

Description (Scale)	Research Statements and Responses					
	Reaping of benefits by local people		Losses incurred (e.g. cattle, crop damage etc)		Cost incurred(e.g., Repair of fences, treatment etc)	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Strongly Agree	40	15.9	72	28	93	36.9
Agree	49	19.4	91	36.1	103	40.9
Undecided	22	8.7	20	7.9	14	5.6
Disagree	88	34.9	47	18.7	28	11.1
Strongly Disagree	53	21.0	22	8.7	14	5.6
Total	n=252	100	n=252	100	n=252	100

4.2 Summary of Results from Focus Group Discussion

4.2.1 Conflict mitigation measures suggested during Focus Group Discussions

With regard to how the wildlife conflict can be minimized to enhance local support for wildlife conservation and tourism development participants in focus group discussion (FGD) identified five key measures. These measures include adequate compensation for loss of property, waiving of hospital or mortuary fees for those injured or killed by wildlife, equitable share of the tourism revenue, helping to fence off community farms and compensation for crop damage. It was unanimously agreed that the most preferred mitigation measure was compensation for crop damage.

4.2.2 Crop damages by wild animals based on community's attitudes and perceptions towards tourism development

Majority of the community members reported that they were aware that wild animals like baboons and guinea fowls damaged crops in the study area. This was reported to occur during the day and farmers were forced to guard their crops all day long especially in Ndarugu area.

Most of the FGD reported using barbed wire or tree branches to fence their farms although these were ineffective. Other methods employed to keep off animals include lighting fire at several points around the farms and making noise to scare away animals.

4.2.3 Responses on benefits received

During the FGD, participants were asked whether they received tourism benefits from the park and to state the amounts received in the past one year. Participants reported that they do not receive any tourism benefits and as such had not received any benefits in the previous year.

The main reason suggested by respondents for not receiving any tourism benefits from the park was that the park management did not consider them as stakeholders in park management and did not therefore deserve receiving any direct benefits.

4.2.4 Willingness to tolerate wild animals

Participants in FGD were asked whether they were willing to allow wild animals to continue using their land. In response, they reported that they were not willing to

allow animals to roam on their land due to the resultant costs incurred. Some participants complained that they do not have any freedom at all in their homes due to baboons disturbing children and destroying roofs of houses and classrooms.

4.3 Results from interviews with the park management

A total of eight members of staff from LNNP were interviewed on various issues and their responses are reported in sections 4.3.1 to 4.3.8.

4.3.1 Local people's involvement in tourism development in LNNP

All the eight members of the management staff stated vividly that the local community was not involved in tourism development within the park.

4.3.2 Major obstacles hindering local community participation in tourism development in LNNP

All the respondents reported that the major obstacle that hindered community participation was lack of proper and clearly laid down policy on how to involve local people in tourism development in the park.

4.3.3 Attitudes and perceptions of local people towards tourism development in and around LNNP

All the respondents reported that the local community had negative attitudes towards tourism development in and around the park because the revenue the park generated is not shared with the community.

4.3.4 Factors influencing the attitudes and perceptions of local people towards tourism development in LNNP

The major factors influencing the attitudes and perceptions of local people towards tourism development as reported by LNNP management staff are poverty, ignorance and illiteracy, lack of policy on community participation and lack of proper and effective communication.

4.3.5 Measures taken to change people's attitudes and perceptions towards tourism development in and around LNNP

LNNP management staff reported that there are efforts being made to make local people change their attitudes and perceptions such as engaging them in community education programmes to create awareness on the importance of protecting wildlife for posterity and as a basis for tourism development in the area, allowing local people

into the park at reduced rates and providing them with free transport to take them around the park.

4.3.6 Benefits received by local people from LNNP

Some of the benefits received included provision of water to the local people, through construction of boreholes and water tanks by the park authority.

4.3.7 Effect of tourism benefits on local people's attitudes and perceptions towards tourism development in and around LNNP

LNNP management reported that tourism benefits motivate local people and make their attitudes and perceptions towards tourism development in and around LNNP to change positively.

4.3.8 Are there any costs incurred as a result of tourism development in LNNP

The costs reported by LNNP management include those incurred when recruiting people, offering training, buying facilities which are used in training, and constructing boreholes and water tanks for the local people.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

The aim of this study was to assess the attitudes and perceptions of local people towards tourism development within and around LNNP. To achieve this, the study was guided by examining several inter-related issues namely: (1) Local people's involvement in tourism development in LNNP (2) Local people's participation in wildlife conservation and management in LNNP (3) Park managers hostility to the local people (4) Factors influencing attitudes and perceptions of local people towards tourism development in LNNP (5) Effect of level of education on attitudes and perceptions of local people towards tourism development (6) Effect of benefits derived by local people from tourism developed within and around LNNP; (7) Effects of costs incurred by local people from wildlife damages from wildlife and tourism developed within and around LNNP; and (8) Effect of losses incurred from wildlife damage to crops on the attitudes and perceptions of local people towards tourism development. Study findings on the foregoing issues are discussed in subsequent sections, and conclusions and recommendations are also provided.

5.2 Discussion

5.2 .1 Local people's involvement in tourism development in LNNP and its implications on their attitudes perceptions

Majority of the respondents agreed with the statement that local people were involved in tourism development within and around the park. However, a slightly lower but nearly similar proportion disagreed with the same statement that local people were involved in tourism development. This may be partly explained by the fact that some members of the community are consulted on park management issues regarding human- wildlife conflict while others are not. The Park also undertakes outreach activities like tree planting and awareness creation through education and extension among local people living close to the park.

The finding that the level of involvement differed between occupations may be due to the differences in the impacts of the establishment of the park and tourism development on local people's lives and livelihood. Farmers were in most cases

negatively affected by wildlife and did not feel that their views are taken into consideration by the Park Authority. This may explain why a significant number of the farmers disagreed that they are involved in tourism development. However, in other studies conducted in the Kimana Group Ranch farmers have been involved in tourism development through selling their agricultural products to tourism enterprises, especially to lodges and hotels and this has to a large extent promoted positive local attitudes and perceptions towards tourism development.

On the other hand, it was difficult to explain why employed respondents disagreed that local people are involved in tourism development. Despite this, it can be inferred that employed people are more interested and concerned with their work and may not have time to be involved in tourism development matters. The unemployed people may feel that they are involved in tourism development because some get casual jobs in tourism development enterprises and projects. The finding that students believe they are involved in tourism development may be related to some being members of wildlife clubs and due to their involvement in visiting National Parks and Reserves.

Meaningful and true involvement by local people requires direct participation in decision making on Park planning and management as well as tourism development. Whereas this form of involvement was not demonstrated by the study results, the fact that local people got involved indirectly implies that their contribution as stakeholders was realised. Local people stated that they wished to be actively involved in the decision-making process and to have a voice when decisions are made as a way of ensuring that their felt needs, priorities and interests are considered. These findings concur with those of Tosun, (2006) and Byers (1996) who alluded that in pastoral areas sustainable natural resource management requires integrating the values and interests of a range of stakeholders who have the most direct interest in the local natural resource base, and so their involvement is especially important in ensuring the sustainability of wildlife conservation initiatives and tourism ventures. These sentiments concur with those of the LNNP personnel.

5.2.2 Local people's participation in wildlife conservation and its impacts on their attitudes and perceptions towards tourism development in LNNP

The agreement by majority of the respondents that local people participated in wildlife conservation may be explained by the fact that they value wildlife and do not destroy habitats. Wildlife conservation involves manipulation of wildlife populations and their habitats as well as the actions of the people. Local people make reports of any animal that may have escaped from the park so that appropriate management actions can be taken by the Park Authorities..

Local people often have direct interest in local natural resources and therefore their participation in their management and conservation is especially important. Participation is a process designed to develop and strengthen the capacities of local people to gain responsibility for and authority over natural resources, and effectively contribute to all decisions on how these resources are to be used (Burrow, 1996). It is a fact that taking part actively in wildlife conservation and tourism decision-making processes is an appropriate way of involving the local community in tourism development and this helps in developing positive attitudes and perceptions towards tourism development.

Human-wildlife conflicts (HWC) have contributed to local people's hatred for wild animals and hence they retaliate by killing them leading to hostility between them and the park management. Various studies have reported HWC as the most common, severe and less tolerated conflict type in agricultural lands (Kasiki, 1998; Hoare, 1999; Sitati, 2003) and this has contributed to the prevailing negative attitudes and perceptions in LNNP and other protected areas in Kenya. This assertion concurred with the views of LNNP management staff interviewed.

The reasons for the need to include the local community in wildlife management are clear. However, there is debate about the degree of inclusion in the decision-making process to be exercised by local people. Proposed approaches ranges from passive participation (in which people participate by being told what has been decided or has already happened) to active participation (in which people get involved in reaching the final decision) (Tosun, 2006). The end would help in ensuring that local people within and around LNNP feel part and parcel of Park management. In the long run,

this would make them feel proud and happy while interacting with wildlife, and hence develop positive attitudes and perceptions towards wildlife and tourism development.

According to Tosun (2006), the most desired way of involving the local community in wildlife conservation and tourism development appears to represent “spontaneous participation”. This typology advocates for a bottom-up and active participation by local people. Drake (1991) defines local participation as the ability of the local community to influence the outcomes of development projects, for example ecotourism, that have socio-economic impact on their lives. The lack of local participation in decision-making in the management of LNNP could be due to the fact that it is not clearly stated and supported by the Wildlife Policy and Act. Involving local communities in wildlife management is a good approach that would not only minimize the cost of management and conservation but also helps in changing the attitudes and perceptions of the local people towards Pas, wildlife and tourism.

Results showed that the park management enhances local people’s participation in wildlife conservation through environmental education, encouraging tree planting, and outreach programmes which motivates them to feel part and parcel of park management. The Park Authorities have assisted Kilimo and Nganyoi community groups in establishing tree nurseries. The communities either use the tree seedlings in agro-forestry programs or sell them to generate income.

Poverty and illiteracy were cited as the main obstacles hindering local participation in conservation. Hon. Dr. Kezimbira Miyingo, Ugandan Minister of State for Environment during the October 2000 IUCN conference in Amman stated that:

“..... the poor will not conserve species at the expense of their lives. Africa must be assisted to fully identify and know its biodiversity and be able to earn benefits from it with dividends flowing right back to the poor. With pitiless increase in human populations the millions of landless people on the edge of famine will inevitably turn away from the wild animals. Increasingly they must resent the investment of unimaginable resources on behalf of wild animals from whose protection they derive no benefits at all. Seeking to console themselves for what has been taken away from them unjustly as they see it; they then turn to clinging to cutting down trees, hunting and gathering firewood which was never illegal before the advent of the parks, other than an aspect of their daily life.”

Poverty could be the main reason why the local community around the park engage in illegal activities like poaching and firewood collection within the park. The need for protein and lack of money to buy meat from butcheries drives people to poach animals inside the park. Study results that local people's attitudes and perceptions come due to the benefits they derive contradicts with what Kilele and Ndeng'e (2003) reported about local people's poverty level which is very high hence their contribution towards tourism development becomes very low and their poverty reduction and well being still remains very poor.

Most of the local community members living 5 km from the park boundary were found to be poor and cannot afford energy from electricity or kerosene. Consequently, they destroy trees in the park to get firewood and do not plant trees on their land since the parcels of land they own are too small. Some sections of the Park are covered by grass and are frequently burned by accidental fires. During the dry season, when farmers are preparing their lands using fire, it accidentally gets out of control and crosses into the park causing a lot of damage to wildlife and their habitat.

Illiteracy level is also a factor which has hindered community participation in tourism development. Although results showed that most of the residents had gone to school they ignore that wildlife is directly and indirectly important to them since the whole country earns revenue from tourism development. Despite this, education, training and raising awareness remain the doorways to effective community participation and empowerment in wildlife conservation and tourism development (Gamassa, 2001).

Lack of a community participation policy in park management has made local people to feel marginalised. This lack, coupled with hostility from the park management staff makes the local people to detest wildlife resulting in local people's low participation in wildlife conservation and management. Low participation may also be attributed to poor and ineffective communication between Park Authorities and the local people.

5.2.3 Hostility of the park management staff towards local people and its impacts on their attitudes and perceptions towards tourism development

Results that park managers are hostile to the local people and that this has hindered their participation in wildlife conservation and tourism development may have varied explanations. Whereas most of the respondents said that they did not have any

negative attitudes and perceptions towards tourism development, the alleged harassment by Park Officials has resulted in their being made to be very disillusioned about the value of the park. This negative relationship increases in intensity when wild animals destroy their properties. Most farmers bordering LNNP especially in Ndarugu area are not practicing agriculture on their lands because of crop destruction by baboons and guinea fowls. The farmers allege that no action is taken when they report such incidences to the Park Authorities. The Park Authority, however, misconstrues the chasing away of wild animals as harassing them and they become very hostile to the local people. This has in turn aggravated the local people's negative attitudes and perceptions towards the park, its wildlife, KWS personnel, and tourism development.

From the results, it could be discerned that there is a logical link between local people's attitudes and perceptions and the behavior of the Park authorities. The relationship between the local people and wildlife conservation and tourism development can be discerned through the local people's behavior, decisions, practices and actions (Byers *et al.*, 1996). Whereas the Park Authority may actually mean well by enforcing the law, it is apparent that there is need to treat the local people fairly and with respect as key stakeholders in conservation and tourism development. Efforts must be made to improve communication between the local people and the Park Management regarding benefits, their roles and responsibilities in conservation and tourism development in the area. Indeed, the benefits derived from the legitimate utilization of natural resources influence the attitudes and perceptions of the local people towards tourism development, while promoting responsibility and awareness (Sekhar, 1998). One of the dilemmas associated with tourism development has been how to control the local people's use of land and wildlife resources in a manner that there will be no conflict, thus meeting both tourism development and local people's needs (Ngare, 1995). Different activities, such as community policing have been introduced on the local people's land to allow co-existence with wildlife. Unfortunately, there has been lack of effective coordination to ensure that local people's development initiatives are in harmony with tourism development (Ibid *et al.*, 1995).

The farmers around LNNP, who are the majority of the local population around LNNP, believe that the park is not an asset to them and they should devote their energies to agricultural production which yields direct economic returns. This has not happened because wild animals have always destroyed their crops. They argue that it may be because of HWC that they have remained poor forcing them to encroach into the park in search of firewood and game meat. Their attitudes and perceptions towards tourism development are negative because they are not compensated for such losses. These sentiments concurred with the views and observations of park management.

The entire LNNP has been fenced off, an intervention that is thought to be highly effective in mitigating human wildlife conflict (Thouless and Sakwa, 1995). Despite this, the effectiveness of fences as a conflict mitigation measure, with a view to changing local people's attitudes and perceptions, has been criticized by Kangwana (1995) who argues that the solution is limited because animals like elephants and baboons are known to go through the electrified fences causing havoc to farms.

5.2.4 Effect of amount and type of benefit on the attitudes and perceptions of the local people towards tourism development in LNNP

The amount and type of benefits received is a factor which influences the attitudes and perceptions of local people towards tourism development. The significantly higher proportion of respondents who agreed with the suggestion that the amount and type of benefit that local people derive from tourism development may be explained by the fact that benefits normally motivate individuals and groups to take positive action towards conservation and tourism development. Many local people in wildlife areas do not receive benefits and yet they bear the costs of living with wildlife (Kiss, 1990). As a result, they develop a negative attitude towards conservation (Omondi, 1994; Hill 1998). Despite this, some local people have retained a positive attitude towards conservation (Newmark *et al.*, 1993; De Boer and Banguetem, 1998). A rapid decline of wildlife has been noted in areas where benefits have not accrued to the local community (Norton-Griffiths, 1998). This is because the community tries to engage in other land-use practices that are not only detrimental to wildlife population, but also result in increased conflicts which made conservation to be low thus tourism development was adversely affected.

5. 2.5 Effect of level of education on attitudes and perceptions of local people towards tourism development

The significantly higher number of respondents disagreeing with the suggestion that the level of education has an effect on attitudes and perceptions towards tourism development may be explained by the fact that all people, irrespective of their level of education, were affected equally by non-inclusion in tourism development decision-making processes and inadequate direct benefits derived from tourism developments.

All the respondents were aware about the importance of wild animals and tourism development but poverty and hostility from the park management affected their attitudes towards tourism development. The results of this study contradict Gamassa's (2001) assertion that education, training and awareness empowers local people and are doorways to development of positive attitudes and perceptions towards tourism development.

One of the major management practices of the park is providing education extension aimed at making local people to be more aware on the importance of wildlife resources and tourism. Byers (1996) reports that high level of awareness and understanding about the existence of tourism development issues by the local people makes them to appreciate their role as stakeholders and thus take appropriate action.

5.2.6 Effect of length of residency on the attitudes and perceptions of local people towards tourism development

The significantly higher proportion of the respondents agreeing that the length of residency around the park had an effect on the attitudes and perceptions of local people towards tourism development may be due to several reasons. The longer one has stayed in an area the more likely he/she becomes used to the problems of wildlife conflicts and therefore accommodated/accepted such problems as part and parcel of his/her life. However, newcomers have had little interaction with wildlife and are disgusted and intolerant to such problems, and therefore are more likely to harbour negative attitudes and perceptions towards conservation and tourism development. It may also be true that those who have stayed longer in the area may harbour negative attitudes as familiarity with problems of HWC which do not seem to have solutions to breed contempt. Newcomers, on the other hand, may have a hope that the solutions and tourism benefits that are being promised by the Authorities are likely to take place

in the immediate future and this may make them tolerate HWC. Social and economic factors such as community attachment, length of residence in an area, and economic dependency on tourism, can influence resident perceptions of and attitudes toward tourism. McCool and Martin (1994) found that residents who were strongly attached to their community viewed tourism impacts with more concern than did those less attached to their community. From the results, this was the situation in the study area and calls for appropriate mitigation measures.

5.2.7 Effect of reaping benefits on the attitudes and perceptions of local people towards tourism development

Benefits, either tangible or intangible, help reduce human wildlife conflicts, and consequently enhance positive attitudes and perceptions of the local people in conservation areas, improve their living standards and encourage collaborative management. It is quite difficult to explain why majority of the respondents disagreed with the suggestion that reaping of benefits from the park had an effect on local people's attitudes and perceptions on tourism development. This result differed with those of several authors who argue that benefits boost people's attitudes and perceptions towards conservation and tourism development (Byer, 1996). The result is also contrary to what UNEP (1998) contends that PAs and their wildlife must be seen to be of relevance to social and economic needs and pursuits of the local community.

It is likely, however, that the respondents do not consider indirect conservation and tourism benefits as relevant benefits at all as they do not address felt needs. Usually, humans tend to give priority to basic and tangible material benefits rather than intangible material values. Therefore, resource utilization for survival purposes has always been of first concern to local communities within and around protected areas (Heinen, 1996).

5.2.8 Effect of costs incurred by local people in repairing damages to properties on attitudes and perception towards tourism development

Results showed that there exists a highly significant difference between those respondents who agreed with the statement that costs incurred in repairing damages and loss of properties by wildlife had an effect on their attitudes and perceptions towards tourism development as compared to those who disagreed. The wildlife within LNNP is practically boxed-in by human activities and as the concentration of

wildlife in the park increases, there emerges increased competition for food resources where consequently, animals turn for survival to areas outside LNNP where they can obtain food.

The local people suffer losses and spend huge amounts of money in repairing damages caused by animals like baboons, hippopotamus, mongoose and guinea fowl. Baboons are known to destroy house roofs and plastic water tanks and are a great nuisance as they trample on house roofs. Despite the presence of a fence, baboons are able to jump over or pass under the electric fence and invade the farms that are close to the park boundary causing major losses. The electric fence, however, is effective in minimizing losses as most large mammals are barred from moving out of the park. Results concur with that of De Boer and Baquete (1998) who reported that incurring of costs always restricts people's support for tourism development especially from those who suffer direct agricultural losses and property destruction.

5.2.9 Effect of losses incurred from wildlife damage on the attitudes and perceptions of local people towards tourism development

A significantly higher proportion of respondents agreed with the statement that losses incurred from wildlife damages had an effect on attitudes and perceptions of local people towards tourism development. Several studies have reported about crop raiding by various destructive species of wildlife including elephants, baboons, and bush pigs, among others (Kagoro-Rugunda, 2004; Kasiki, 1998; Noughton-Treves; 1998). According to Okongo (1998) wild animals moved out of parks mainly during the planting and ripening seasons, when food supply was high. However, Sitati (2003) also alluded that most crop raids causing losses occurred during the dry season when there was low grass height, low percentage cover, low biomass and low grass moisture in the parks and other protected areas.

Traditionally, conflicts between local people and wildlife in Africa have been resolved by creating barriers to the movement of wildlife (Newmark *et al.*, 1994). However, the effectiveness of such barriers depends on the species of wildlife involved. Relatively intelligent animals like the baboons and elephant learn how to evade these barriers. Hence, their invasion of farmlands causes a lot of damage and losses thus influencing local people's attitudes and perceptions towards wildlife and tourism.

Development projects undertaken by KWS for the benefit of local people could be one reason why some of the respondents felt that the park management helped them minimize losses incurred from wildlife depredation. The Kenya Wildlife Service funds programs on health and education, through building classrooms and dispensaries, purchasing equipment and books. LNNP management also owns and runs a bus which offers low-priced guided tours to the park for Nakuru residents (www.kws.org). All these efforts are aimed at promoting local people's appreciation of and support for the park, its wildlife and tourism.

It is important to minimize human-wildlife conflict by providing adequate compensation for loss of crop and property, waiving of hospital or mortuary fees for victims of animal injury or death, equitable share of the tourism revenue and helping to fence off community farms. It is envisaged that these measures will promote positive attitudes and perceptions among the people, and enhance local residents' support for wildlife conservation and tourism development.

5.3 CONCLUSIONS

Local people are involved in tourism development although they did not actively take part in the tourism development decision- making process, and wish to have a voice when decisions are made (through active participation). As key stakeholders in any tourism development, they want to be actively involved in this process to ensure that their pressing needs, priorities and interests are considered.

The level of local participation and involvement by the local people in tourism development is very minimal as it was mostly through assistance offered to community initiated self-help groups and conservation clubs in learning institutions. This type of participation does not encourage collaborative management between local people and the park. Effective participation requires development of deliberate and specific community participation and communication policy between local people and the park management with regard to tourism development.

Local people have negative attitudes and perceptions towards tourism development since the revenue generated from these activities is not shared equitably with them. Lack of tangible benefits could be a factor leading to the illegal activities that causes

hostility between the park management and the local people hence creating negative attitudes and perceptions towards tourism development.

Measures used by local people in dealing with problem animals such as chasing, use of scarecrows and live fences are neither effective nor harmful to these animals. The park has put in place control measures to help minimize losses incurred from wild animals with a view to promoting positive attitudes and perceptions towards the park, its wildlife and tourism development.

The local community incurs a lot of costs in repairing damaged property and suffers real economic losses due to damages caused by wild animals. The community is not compensated at all for such losses and costs making them to perceive the park as a liability, which only makes them poorer. The measures taken by the park management to change local people's attitudes and perceptions towards wild animals are short term and cosmetic since problems are only addressed as they arise. It is no wonder that the local people complain that KWS is more concerned with wild animals than the local people. It is critical that KWS, who are supposed to take care of their wild animals, developed long-sighted measures that would improve conservation of wildlife and tourism development in LNNP and its environs, for the benefit of all stakeholders.

Introducing 'real' people-oriented management approaches is the way to achieving long-term tourism development in LNNP. This implies that more site-specific and human-faced park management policies are needed, particularly provision of tangible benefits and alternative livelihoods for the affected population.

5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

5.4.1 Policy and Management Recommendations

- Lake Nakuru National Park, other PAs and conservation organizations should aim at not only changing attitudes and perceptions of the local people towards wildlife conservation and tourism development, but also their behaviour in relation to the benefits stakeholders accrue from conservation and tourism development.
- Provision of tangible benefits and alternative livelihoods for local people engaged in the subsistence activities should be considered as a central philosophy of the park management and tourism development with a view to alleviating poverty and improving human welfare.

- There is need to review the Wildlife Act and provide for compensation for all losses incurred from wildlife, and also put in place mechanisms for community participation in tourism development and benefit sharing.
- Conservation education and extension programme should be developed and implemented to improve the relationship between the park management and local people.
- There is need for more comprehensive research on human activities in the areas surrounding LNNP and how they impact on tourism development.

5.4.2 Recommendations for further research

Future research should examine the following issues:

- Although findings suggest that there are some indications that tourism is not contributing towards poverty alleviation to the farmers living close to the park boundaries, more research is required to analyze and quantify the extent of such contribution in economic terms, especially at the household level.
- Although tourism has strong linkages to other socio-economic sectors, this study has revealed some concerns, especially its negative effect on agriculture and quality of life of the local people.
- More research should be done on the relationship between tourism and poverty alleviation focusing at the grassroots level with a focus on the poor, marginalized and vulnerable members of the community.

REFERENCES

- Akama, J.S. (1993). A political-Ecological Analysis of Wildlife Conservation in Kenya. Unpublished PhD Dissertation. Southern Illinois University.
- Akama, J.S. (1996). Wildlife Conservation in Kenya: A political- Ecological Analysis of Nairobi and Tsavo Regions. Washington. African Development Foundation.
- Akama, J.S. (1998). The evolution of wildlife policies in Kenya. *Journal of Third World Studies*, issue 2: 103-117.
- Amend, T and Brown, J. (2008). Protected Landscapes and Agro biodiversity Values. IUCN.
- Allen, L., Hafer, H.T., Long, P.T. and Perdue, R.R. (1993). Rural residents' attitude towards Recreation and tourism development. *Journal of Travel Research*, 27 (1), 16-21.
- Balakrishnan, M. and Ndhlovu, D. E. (1992). Wildlife utilization and local people: A case study in upper Lupad Game Management Area, Zambia. *Environmental conservation* , 19(2): 135-144.
- Barrow, G.C. (1996). The drylands of Africa, local participation in the management initiative publisher, Nairobi Kenya.
- Beeton, S. (2006). Community development through tourism, Land link press, Australia.
- Belisle, F.S., and Hoy, D.R. (1980). The perceived impact of Tourism by residents: A case study in Santa Marta, Colombia, *Annals of Tourism Research* 17 (1), 83-101.
- Bellamy, R. (1993). Ethnobiology in tropical forests. Royal Geographical society, London, UK.
- Bhima, R. (1998). Elephant States and conflict with humans on the western bank of Liwande National park, Malawi, *Pachyderm*, vol. 25, 74-80.
- Byers, A. (1996). Understanding and influencing behavior in conservation and natural resources management. Africa biodiversity series. Washington D.C. Biodiversity supply programme.
- Bonner, E. (1993). At the hand of man: Peril and hope for Africa's wildlife. Alfred A. Knopf. New York.
- Buhalis, D. (2002). Marketing the competitive destination of the future tourism management 21: 97-116.

- Britton, R.A. (1979). The image of the Third World in tourism Marketing. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 6(3): 318-329.
- Britton, S.G. (1982). The Political Economy of Tourism in the Third World. *Annals of Tourism Research* 9 (3): 331-358.
- British Colombia, Ministry of water, land and protection Wildlife-Human Conflict prevention strategy (2003).
- Brougham, J.E., and R.W. Butler (1981). A segmentation Analysis of resident attitudes to the social impacts of Tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*.
- Burns, (2000). *Methods of Research*, London: Irwin.
- Burnett, G. W., (1990). *Kenya National Parks and Nature Reserves*. New York: Greenwood press
- Butler, R. (1980). The concept of a tourist Area cycle of Evolution: Implications for the management of Resources. *Canadian Geographer* 24:5-12.
- Caldecott. J. (1988). *Hunting and wildlife Management in Sarawak* Cambridge: IUCN.
- Canarian Government (1997). *Libro Blanco de Turismo canario*. Las Palmas GC: Consejería de Turismo y Transportes.
- Santa Cruz de, (2001). *Destination Evolution of Canaries and their competitors' Areas*. Tererife: Consejería de Economía y Hacienda.
- Cernea, M. (1991). *Using Knowledge from Social Science in Development Projects*. The World Bank. Washington DC.
- De Boer, WF, Baquete, D.S. (1998). National resource use, crop damage and attitudes of rural people in the vicinity of Maputo, Mozambique. *Mozambique Environmental Conservation*, 25 (3): 208-218.
- Department of Tourism, (2001). *La Commercializacion del product turistico canario*. Las Palmas de Grand Canaria: Department of Tourism.
- Doxey, G. (1975). Causation Theory of Visitor- Resident Irritants: Methodology and Research Inferences. In sixth Annual Conference Proceedings of the Travel Research Association San Diego CA: Travel Research Association.
- Drake, S.P. (1991). Local participation in Ecotourism Projects. In Whelan, T. ed. *Nature Tourism: managing for the Environment*. Island Press. Washington DC.
- Esikuri E. E. (1998). *Spatio- temporal effects of land-use changes in a Savanna Wildlife area of Kenya*. Unpublished PhD thesis, Virginia state university.

- Fa, J.E., Garcia Yuste, J.E and Castelo, R. (2000). Bush meat market on Bioko Island as a measure of hunting pressure. *Conserve. Biol.*14:1-12.
- Fa, J.E., Peres, C.A. and Meeuwig, J, J, J, (2002). Bush meat exploitation in tropical forests: an intercontinental comparison.
- Fridgen, J.D. (1991) Dimension of Tourism. East Lansing MI: The Educational Institute of the American hotel and Motel association.
- Garland, E. (2008). The Elephant in the Room: Confronting the Colonial Character of Wildlife conservation in Africa. *African Studies Review*, 51(3): 51-74.
- Gamassa, D.M. (1994). Community based conservation, paper presented at the Institute of Continuing Education, Sokoine University of Agriculture, Morogoro. Tanzania.
- Hall, C.M. and Tucker, H. (Eds) (2004). Tourism and Post colonialism. Routledge, London.
- Havel, V. (1996). Reflections- what is participation- In Havel, V. (1996). The World Bank participation source book, The World Bank.
- Hill, C.M. (1998). Conflicting attitudes towards elephants around the Budongo forest reserve, Uganda. *Environs Conservation*, 25: 244-250.
- Hoare, R.E. (1999). Coexistence between people and elephants in African savannas. *Conservation biology*, 13, 633-639.
- Hoare, R.E. (1992). The present and future use of fencing in the management of larger African mammals. *Environmental Conservation*. 25: 125-222.
- Holden, A. (2000). Environment and Tourism. Routledge. London: UK.
- Ioannides, D, (2001). Sustainable development and the shifting Attitudes of Tourism stake holders: Towards a Dynamic framework. In Tourism, Recreation and sustainability. Linking culture and Environment, S. Mc Cool and R. Moisey, eds.
- Imam, ,Yahya, H. and Malik, I. (2002). A successful mass translocation of commensal rhesus monkeys macaca muleta in vrandaban India. *Oryx*, 36 (1): 87-97.
- ISTAC (2000). Encuesta Sobre el Gasto Turistico. Canarias: Consejeria de Economia y Hacienda.
- Johannesen, A.B. and Skonhoft, A. (2005). Tourism, poaching and wildlife conservation: what can integrate conservation and development projects accomplish? *Resource and Energy Economics*, Vol. 27, 208-225.

- Juma, C. and Ojwang, J.B. (1991). In Land we Trust, Environment, Private Property and Constitutional Change, Nairobi.
- Jurowski, C. (1994). The Interplay of Elements Affecting Host community Resident Attitudes towards Tourism: A path Analytic Approach. PhD Dissertation in Hospitality and Tourism, Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University.
- Juste, J., Fa J.E., Del Val J. and Castroviejo J. (1995). Market dynamics of bush meat species in Equatorial Guinea.
- Kagoro-Rugunda G. (2004). Crop raiding around Lake Mburo National Park, Uganda. *Afri. J.Ecol.* vol. 42, 32-42.
- Kailas, R. (2000). Patterns and determinants of crop raiding by elephants (*elephas maximas*) in the southern India States of Andra Pradesh. Msc. Thesis, Durrell institute of conservation and Ecology, University of Kent, UK.
- Kameri-Mbote, P. (2002). Property Rights and Biodiversity Management in Kenya, Nairobi: ACTS press.
- Kangwana, F. K. (1995). Human-elephant conflict, the challenge a head *Pachyderm*, vol. 9, 11-19.
- Kasiki, S.M. (1998). Human-elephant conflict in areas adjacent to e Tsavo National Parks, Kenya. PhD. Thesis, University of Kent, Uk.
- Kibicho, W. (2003). Community tourism: a lesson from Kenya's coastal region, *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 10(1) 33-42.
- Kilele, A.K.M. and Ndeng'e, G.K. (2003). Poverty Mapping: The case of Kenya. Kenya Institute of Public Policy Research, Nairobi, Kenya.
- Kimega, G.M. (2003). Unresolved human-wildlife conflict in Kenya: the source of misery and poverty.
- Kiss, A. (eds) (1990). Living with Wildlife, Draft report of World Bank Environment Division, The World Bank, and Washington, DC.
- Kothari, C.R. (2005). Research Methodology Methods and Techniques Second Edition, New Age International.
- Lankford, S.V and Howard, D.R. (1994). Developing a tourism impact attitude scale, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 21, 121-139.
- Li, W. (2005). Community decision-making: participation in development, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 33 (1) 132-143.
- Lindberg, K. et al (eds) (1998). Ecotourism: A guide for Planners and managers. *The Ecotourism Society, Vermont Vol 2*.

- Liu, J.C., and Var, T. (1986) Residents Attitudes towards Tourism Impacts in Hawaii. *Annals of Tourism Research* 13:193-214.
- Madhusudan, M. D. (2003). Living Amidst Large Wildlife: Livestock and crop Depredation by large Mammals in the interior Villages of Bhadra Tiger Reserve, South India. *Environmental Management*, 31(4):466-475
- McCool, S., and S. Martin (1994) Community Attachment and Attitudes Toward Tourism Development. *Journal of Travel Research* 32(3):29–34.
- Mishra, C. (1997). Livestock depredation by large carnivores in the Indian trans-Himalaya: Conflict perception and conservation prospects. *Environmental conservation* 24 (4): 338-343
- Mishra, C., Allen, P., Mc McCarthy, T. Madhusudan, M. (2003) .The role of incentive programs in conserving the snow Leopard. *Conservation Biology* 17 (6): 1512-1520
- Mowforth, M. and Munt, I. (2003). Tourism and sustainability: Development and New Tourism in the Third World (second Edition). New York. Routledge.
- Murdock, S.H. and Schriener, E.C (1979). Community service satisfaction and stages of community development: An examination of evidence from impacted communities, *Journal of the community development society* vol.11, 120-135.
- Mwanjala, J.M.(2005). The African conference on peace through tourism in protected areas pdf, Lusaka, Zambia.
- Myers, N. (1973). “The Relationship of Parks and other Protected Areas to their Environs in Masailand, East Africa.” University of California, Berkeley.
- Nash, D. (1989). Tourism as a form of Imperialism. In Smith, V.L. (ed) Host and Guests: The Anthrolopology of Tourism (Second Edition).Philadelphia. University of Pennsylvania Press:37-52.
- Naughton-Treves, L. (1998). Predicting patterns of crop damage by wildlife around Kibale National Park, Uganda. *Conservation Biology*, vol.12, 156-168.
- Ndungu, S.K. (1995). Elephant crop raiding around Aberdares National Park. Moi University, Eldoret, Kenya.
- Nelson, F. (2004). The Evolution and Impacts of Community Based Ecotourism in Northern Tanzania. International Institute for Environment and Development: Dry lands Programme, Issue Paper No. 131.
- Newmark, W.D., Manyanza, D.N., and Gamassa Deogratias, M. (1994). The conflict wildlife and local people living adjacent to protected areas in Tanzania: *Biological conservation*, Vol. 8: 249-255.

- Ngare, P. M. (1995). Integration of the local community into wildlife conservation: a case study of Lamuria and central division of Laikipia District, Kenya. M.phil Thesis, Moi University, Eldoret, Kenya.
- Ntambirweki, J. and Dribidu, E. (1996). Legal and Policy instruments for Sustainable management of natural resources in Uganda: the case of implementation of Uganda water action plan. A seminar paper for the Scandinavian Seminar College. Available online at [http:// www.cdr.dk/sscafrica/nta&drib.htm](http://www.cdr.dk/sscafrica/nta&drib.htm). Last consulted 2nd November 2004.
- O' Connell-Rodwell, C.E., Rodwell, T., Rice, M. and Hart L.A. (2000). Living with the Modern Conservation paradigm: can agricultural communities co-exist with elephants? A five year case study in East Capri, Namibia. *Biological conservation*.
- Ogada, M., Woodroffe. R., Oguge. N. and Frank, G. (2003). Limiting Depredation by African Carnivores: the role of livestock Husbandry. *Conservation Biology* vol. 12:29-59.
- Okungu, Sam C. (2001). Kenya's Strategic Programmes for the Department and Management of Eco- tourism in National parks and protected Areas. Paper presented in seminar on planning, Development and management of Ecotourism in Africa; Regional preparatory meeting for the International year of Ecotourism, Maputo, Mozambique.
- Omondi. P. (1994). Wildlife –Human conflict in Kenya: Integrating wildlife conservation with human needs in the Maasai Mara region. Unpublished DPhil thesis, Mc Gill University.
- Omondi, P. (1995). Tourism and Wildlife-Human Conflict Resolution in Kenya's Maasai Mara Region. Seminar paper, Moi University, Eldoret.
- O'Leary, J.T. (1976) Land Use Redefinition and Rural community: Disruption of community leisure space. *Journal of Leisure Research*: 263-274.
- Parkipuny, M.S. (1996). Pastoralism, conservation and development in the great Senegal region. Community based Conservation in Tanzania. *IUCN* vol. 15:29-57.
- Patterson B. D. Kasiki S. M., Selempo E. and Kays, R. W. (2004) Livestock predation by Lions (panther Leo) and other carnivores on ranches neighboring Tsavo national Parks, Kenya.
- Pizam, A. (1978). Tourist impacts: The social costs to the destination community as perceived by its residents. *Journal of Travel Research*, 16(4): 8-12.
- Pizam, A. and J. Pokela (1985). The perceived impacts of casino gambling on a community. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 123:147-165.

- Robinson, J.G. and Bodmer, R E. (1999). Towards Wildlife Management in tropical forests. *J. Wildlife Management*, 63:1-13.
- Rutten, M. (2002). Parks beyond parks: Genuine Community based wildlife ecotourism or just another loss of land for Maasai pastoralist in Kenya? International Institute for Environment and development: Drylands programme. Issue paper No. 111.
- Sekhar, N.U. (1998). Crop and Livestock depredation caused by wild animals in protected areas: the case of sariska Tiger Reserve, Rajasthan, India. *Environmental Conservation*, 25 (2): 960-171.
- Scheyvens, R. (2002). Tourism and poverty reduction: issues for Small Island States, *Tourism Geographies*, 10 (1) 22-41.
- Sifuna, N. (2006). Using Eminent Domain Powers to Acquire Private Lands for Protected Area Wildlife Conservation: A survey under Kenyan Law.
- Sifuna, N. (2005). Providing compensation for damaged caused by wildlife, Vol 20 No 1 July 2005 *Journal of Social Development in Kenya*.
- Sindiga. I.(1999). Tourism and African Development: Change and Challenge of Tourism in Kenya. Ashgate Publishing Limited. England: UK.
- Sitati, N. (1997). The change of land use patterns and its impact on the large herbivore population and depredation. Unpublished M-Phil- Thesis, Moi University, Eldoret.
- Sitati, N. (2003). Human-elephant conflict in Trans-Mara district adjacent to Maasai Mara National Reserve. PhD thesis, University of Kent, UK.
- Smith, R.J. (1999). A spatial analysis of human-elephant conflict in the Tsavo ecosystem, Kenya. AFESG report, IUCN.
- Songorwa, A.N. (1999). Community- based wildlife Management (CWM) in Tanzania: are communities interested? *World Development*, 27 (12) 2061-2079.
- Talaya, E. A. (2002). La Investigacion Turistico en la Universidad Espanola. *Estudios Turisticos*, 144 and 145: 155-180.
- The European Commission (2002). Structure, performance and Competitiveness of European Tourism and its Enterprise (online) cited 7 March 2003 available from internet URL.
- The Mountain Institute (1998). Community Based Mountain Tourism: Practices for Linking Conservation with Enterprise. The Mountain Institute, U.S.A.
- Thouless, C.R., and Sakwa, J. (1995). Shocking elephants: fences and crop raiders in Laikipia District, Kenya. *Biological conservation* vol. 72: 99-107.

- Tosun, C. (2000). Limit to community participation in the tourism development process in developing countries, *Tourism management*, Vol. 21. 613-633.
- Tosun, C. (2006). Expected nature of community participation in tourism development, *Tourism Management*, 27 (3) 493-504.
- Um, S., and J.L. Crompton (1987). Measuring Resident's Attachment levels in a host community, *Journal of Travel Research*, 26 (1): 27-29.
- United Nation (2003). Poverty Alleviation through sustainable Tourism Development, New York; UN publication.
- United Nations World Tourism Organization (2006) "Africa: A key for Economic and social Development", Global Envision, October 16,2006.
- United Nations World Tourism Organization (2008) Statistics. Available from, <http://WWW.unwto.org/aboutwto/index.php>
- Kendall K.W.and Var, T.,(1985) Residents attitudes towards Tourists in a Turkish Resort Town, *Annals of Tourism Research* 12: 652-657.
- Vincent, V.C. and Thompson, W. (2002). Assessing Community support and sustainability for ecotourism development, *Journal of travel Research*, 41 (2) 153-160.
- Wilkie, D.S. and Carpenter J.F. (1999). Bush meat hunting in the Congo Basin: an assessment of impacts and options for mitigation.
- William, J. and Lawson, R. (2001). Community issues and residents opinions of Tourism, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 28 (2), 269-290.
- Wishitemi, B. E. L. (2008), Sustainable community- based conservation and tourism development adjacent to protected areas in Kenya. Inaugural Lecture. Moi University Press, Eldoret.
- Wolfensohn, J. D. (1996). Foreword. In Havel, V. (1996). The world Bank Participation source book.
- World Tourism Organization (2000). Tourism 2020 vision: Volume 4, Europe Madrid: World Tourism Organization.

APPENDIX 1: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE LOCAL RESIDENTS

Dear Respondent,

The researcher Phoebe Nyambura Kariuki is a post graduate student undertaking A Master of Philosophy degree in Tourism Management at Moi University and is carrying out a research on local people's attitudes and perceptions towards tourism development within and around Lake Nakuru National Park. Information gathered will be treated with utmost confidence. Your participation and contribution will be highly appreciated. Please answer all questions in part A and B by ticking (✓) in the space provided.

Part A: GENERAL INFORMATION

1 Gender

Male..... ☐ Female.....☐

2 Age (In years)

10-15 ☐ 16-20 ☐ 21-30 ☐ 31-40 ☐ 41-50 ☐ Above 51 ☐

3 Occupation

Farmer ☐ Employed ☐ Unemployed ☐ Student ☐

Any other specify.....

4 Education Level

None ☐ primary School ☐ High school ☐ College ☐ University ☐

5 Length of residency (in years)

Less than 5 years ☐ 5-10 years ☐ 11-15 years ☐

16-20 years ☐ More than 20 years ☐

5 Family Size (in numbers)

2-4 ☐ 4-6 ☐ 6-8 ☐ 8-10 ☐ 10-12 ☐

6 Farm size (in acres) 0.5-1.0 ☐ 2.0-3.0 ☐ 4.0-5.0 ☐ Above ☐

7 Number of livestock: Cattle 1-2 3-4 4-5 5-6
Above

Sheep/Goat: 1-2 3-5 4-5 5-6
Above

PART B: LOCAL RESIDENTS' PARTICIPATION IN TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

Answer the questions below by ticking against the appropriate response shown in the table

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. Local People are involved in tourism development in LNNP.					
2. Local people participate in the conservation of the park and its wildlife.					
3. Hostility from the park management hinders local community to participate in conservation.					
4. Good measures have been put in place to promote local community participation in wildlife conservation and tourism development.					
5 Effective measures are being taken to enhance good relationship between the park and local people towards tourism development.					

**PART C: ATTITUDES AND PERCEPTIONS OF THE LOCAL RESIDENTS
TOWARDS TOURISM DEVELOPMENT**

For each of the statements given below, tick against the appropriate statement in the table.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
6. Level of awareness local people has led to the attitudes and perceptions held towards tourism development.					
7. The degree of involvement of local people in conservation and management of the park leads to the attitudes and perceptions.					
8. The amount and type of benefit derived from the park leads to the attitudes and perceptions local people have towards tourism development in LNNP					
9. Local people's level of education affects their attitudes and perceptions towards tourism development in LNNP					

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
10. Hostility by the park management towards local people affects their attitudes and perceptions towards tourism development in LNNP.					
11 Attitudes and perceptions of local people towards tourism development in LNNP are negative.					
12 Attitudes and perceptions of people towards tourism development in LNNP are positive.					
13 The attitudes and perceptions local people have towards tourism development have impacted negatively on wildlife conservation in					

PART D: FACTORS INFLUENCING LOCAL RESIDENT'S ATTITUDES AND PERCEPTIONS TOWARDS TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

Answer the questions below by ticking against the appropriate responses shown in the table.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
14 Proximity (closeness) of one's home relative to the park boundary affects attitudes and perceptions one has towards tourism development in LNNP.					
15 The length of residency affects the attitudes and perceptions of the local people towards tourism development in LNNP.					
16 Access to education affects local people's attitudes and perceptions towards tourism development.					

PART E: LOCAL RESIDENT'S ACCESS TO BENEFITS FROM TOURISM

Use the table below to tick against the appropriate response to the statements given.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
17 Local people reap benefits from tourism developed within and around the park					
18 Various benefit accrue to the local people from tourism developed within and around the park					
19 Local people incur a lot of loss from tourism developed within and around LNNP.					

PART F: COSTS INCURRED BY LOCAL RESIDENTS DUE TO TOURISM DEVELOPMENT.

Use the table below to tick against the appropriate responses to the statements given

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
20 Local people incur costs due to wildlife damage or destruction.					
21 Local people incur a lot of costs repairing the damages caused by wild animals.					
22 Human-wildlife conflicts experienced increase the costs and losses incurred by local people.					
23 Lack of awareness among the local people leads to misuse of wildlife resources within and around LNNP.					

APPENDIX 2: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR LNNP MANAGEMENT**STAFF**

- 1 Are people living around LNNP involved in tourism development within and around Park?
- 2 What are the major obstacles hindering local people from participation in tourism development in this area?
- 3 What are the attitudes and perceptions of local people towards tourism development in and around LNNP?
- 4 What factors influence the attitudes and perceptions of local people towards tourism development in LNNP?
- 5 Are there any measures that have been taken to change local people's attitudes and perceptions towards tourism development in and around the park?
- 6 What benefits do local people derive from the park?
- 7 Has access to benefits accruing from tourism in and around LNNP had any impact on local people's attitudes and perceptions towards tourism development in this area?
- 8 Are there any costs incurred by local people as a result of tourism developed in LNNP?