DETERMINANTS OF PERCEIVED SOCIO - ECONOMIC TOURISM BENEFITS ACCRUING TO THE LOCAL COMMUNITY LIVING ADJACENT TO KISITE - MPUNGUTI MARINE PARK AND RESERVE, KENYA

 \mathbf{BY}

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DECLARATION

Declaration by the candidate

This is my original work and has not been presented for a Degree award in any other university. No part of this thesis may be reproduced without prior written permission of the author and/or Moi University. All other sources of information cited herein have been duly acknowledged.

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my parents and siblings for their love, support and unwavering encouragement and for seeing me through my university education. Through great sacrifice, they ensured that I have reached where I am now and to them I am greatly indebted.

ABSTRACT

That socio-economic benefits accruing from tourism in marine protected areas are key to garnering local people's support and involvement in tourism cannot be overemphasized. Marine protected areas support local communities adjacent them by promoting and supporting their livelihoods. The impacts these areas have on these communities influences their support, attitudes and participation in their conservation. This study assessed determinants of perceived socio-economic tourism benefits accruing to the local community living adjacent to Kisite Mpunguti Marine Park and Reserve (KMMPR). Specific objectives of the study were to determine the effects of demographic characteristics of the local residents' on perceived socio- economic tourism benefits accruing from KMMPR, to determine the effects of tourism projects supported by KMMPR on the perceived socioeconomic benefits accruing to the local community, to establish the effect of local people's participation in tourism activities supported by KMMPR on their perception about tourism benefits accrued and to establish the effect of government policies on local community's perception about socio-economic tourism benefits accruing from KMMPR. The study utilized the survey research design. The target population was the local community living adjacent to the park and Reserve and staff from Kenya Wildlife Service and the sample was randomly selected. Primary data was collected using questionnaires while secondary data was sourced from published and unpublished sources like books and journals. Data was analyzed descriptively using frequencies and percentages while correlation and multiple regression analysis were done to determine associations among selected variables. Results showed that, initiated tourism projects, government policy, and participation levels of individuals within the community had a positive effect on perceived socioeconomic tourism benefits accruing from KMMPR, while demographic characteristics had an inverse relationship. The F test results indicated that all the foregoing independent variables showed a significant relationship with perceived socio-economic benefits among local communities living adjacent to KMMPR. Results also showed that there was a direct association between determinants of perceived socio- economic tourism benefits among the locals. Compensating the local community for foregoing their traditional livelihoods through creation of employment opportunities and empowering them financially to start their own tourism related businesses will make communities view tourism in KMMPR as a tool for promoting their welfare in return for losses caused by foregoing traditional livelihoods activities. KWS should create public awareness through conservation education to sensitize the local community on the invaluable role of MPAs and the need to conserve them. This will reduce conflicts between local residents and KMMPR management. Local residents should also be facilitated to have access to low interest credit facilities to establish tourism related businesses.

TABLE OF CONTENTS	PAGE
DECLARATION	i
DEDICATION	ii
ABSTRACT	iii
TABLE OF CONTENTS.	iv
LIST OF TABLES	viii
LIST OF FIGURES	ix
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT	x
DEFINITION OF OPERATIONAL TERMS	xi
LIST ON ACRONYMS	xii
CHAPTER ONE	1
INTRODUCTION	1
1.0 Background to the Study	1
1.2 Problem Statement	4
1.3 Research Objectives	5
1.3.1 Main Objective	5
1.3.2 Specific Objectives	5
1.4 Research Hypotheses	5
1.5 Justification of the Study	6
1.6 Scope and Limitation of the Study	6
CHAPTER TWO	8
LITERATURE REVIEW	8
2.0 Introduction	8
2.1 An Overview of Protected Areas and their Importance	8

2.1.1 Marine Protected Areas and Their Significance
2.2 Local Community Socio-Demographic Characteristics and their Implications on their Perceptions of Protected Areas
2.3 Tourism Projects Associated with Marine Protected Areas and their Implications on Local Communities' Perceptions
2.4 Local Communities Participation in Tourism and their Perception About Benefits Accruing from it
2.5 Effect of Government policies on Local Communities' Perceived Socio- Economic Benefits from Marine Protected Areas
2.6 Theoretical Framework
2.6.1 Social Exchange Theory
2.7 Conceptual Framework 33
CHAPTER THREE 34
STUDY AREA AND RESEARCH METHODOLOGY
3.0 Introduction
3.1 Study Area 34
3.2 Research Design 41
3.3 Target Population
3.4 Sampling Procedures
3.5 Sample Size 42
3.6 Data Collection
3.6.1 Primary data
3.6.2 Secondary data
3.7 Data Analysis and Presentation
3.7.1 Data processing
3.7.2 Descriptive Statistics

3.7.3 Inferential Statistical Analysis	. 43
3.8 Reliability and Validity of Research Instruments	. 43
3.9 Ethical Considerations	. 44
CHAPTER FOUR	. 45
RESULTS	. 45
4.0 Introduction	. 45
4.1 Local respondents' Socio - demographic characteristics	. 45
4.2 Effect of demographic characteristics on perceived socio-economic tourism benefits to local community	. 48
4.3. Tourism projects, activities and benefits Accrued	. 50
4.4 Opinion on impacts of Kisite Mpunguti Marine Park and Reserve	. 52
4.5 Community participation and its impact on respondents' perception of socio-economic benefits of tourism	. 55
4.6 Respondents opinion on the role of the Government in promoting tourism and associated benefits	
4.7 Pearson Correlation Coefficient Results	. 60
4.8 Cronbach's Alpha	. 62
4.9 Results on Means and Standard Deviation	. 62
4.10 Regression Analysis Results	. 64
4.11 Qualitative Analysis Results	. 67
CHAPTER FIVE	. 69
DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	. 69
5.0 Introduction	. 69
5.1 Discussion	. 69
5.1.1 Respondents' demographic characteristics and their effect on perceived socio	o- 69

5.1.2 Impact of tourism projects on perceived socio-economic tourism benefit71
5.1.3 Effect of community participation on perceived socio- economic tourism benefits
5.1.4 Effect of government policy on perceived socio- economic tourism benefits. 73
5.2 Conclusion
5.3 Recommendations
5.3.1 Policy and Management Recommendations
5.3.2 Recommendations for Further Research
REFERENCES 78
APPENDICES81
APPENDIX 1: QUESTIONNAIRE 81
APPENDIX 2: CRONBACH ALPHA COEFFICIENT OF RELIABILITY TEST 93

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1.1: Marine Protected areas in Kenya	2
Table 4.1: Local respondents Socio - demographic characteristics	. 46
Table 4.2: Effect of demographic characteristics on perceived socio- economic tourism benefits to local community	. 49
Table 4.3 Views on community based tourism projects initiated in the area	. 50
Table 4.4 Distribution of benefits accrued among respondents	. 51
Table 4.5 Monetary gain from tourism	. 52
Table 4.6 Respondents opinion on Impacts of KMMPR and associated tourism impacts	
Table 4.7: Respondents' opinion on involvement in tourism	. 56
Table 4.8 Factors hindering respondents from participating in tourism	. 56
Table 4.9: Involvement in decision making	. 57
Table 4.10: How respondents are involved decision making	. 58
Table 4.11 Respondents opinion on role of the Government in promoting tourism and associated benefits	. 59
Table 4.12: Determinants of perceived socio economic tourism benefits	. 61
economic benefits	63
Table 4.14: Model Summary of determinants of perceived socio economic tourism benefits among the locals	. 64
Table 4.15: One Way Anova results	. 64
Table 4.16: Coefficients of determinants of perceived socio-economic tourism Benefits	65

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1: Marine protected areas of the world	9
Figure 2.2: Relative contribution to poverty reduction from the MPAs	21
Figure 2.3: Normative typologies of community participation	26
Figure 2.4: Social Exchange Process Model	32
Figure 2.8: Conceptual Framework	33
Figure 3.1: Kisite Island	36
Figure 3.2: The wasini women project	37
Figure 3.3: The wasini women boardwalk	37
Figure 3.4: Corals.	38
Figure 3.5: Corals	38
Figure 3.6:Dhow	39
Figure 3.7: Snorkeling at Kisite	40
Figure 4.1: Benefits accruing from projects initiated by KWS	51
Figure 4.2: Tourism benefits worth the sacrifice	52

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DEFINITION OF OPERATIONAL TERMS

Biodiversity (or biological diversity): This is a collective term meaning the totality and variety of life on Earth. Biodiversity includes genetic diversity within species, the variety among species, and the range of ecosystems within which life exists and interacts.

Ecotone: It is a transitional area between two different ecosystems, such as a forest and a grassland.

Local Community: This is a group of people living in a place, interacting and sharing an environment. A local community can consist of business operators, public agency staff and residents, while their interactions can include sharing resources, information and assistance as well as establishment of commercial relationships. It will be used interchangeably in this study with local people and local residents.

Perception: The process by which people translate sensory impressions into a coherent and unified view of the world around them. It is based on incomplete and unverified information, and it is equated with reality for most practical purposes and guides human behavior in general.

Socio-economics: A field of study that examines social and economic factors to better understand how the combination of both influences something

LIST ON ACRONYMS

CBT Community Based Tourism

CDA Coastal Development Authority

ICM Integrated Coastal Management

ICRAN International Coral Reef Action Network

IUCN International Union for Conservation of Nature

KMMPA Kisite Mpunguti Marine Protected Area

KMMPR Kisite Mpunguti Marine Park and Reserve

KNBS Kenya National Bureau of Statistics

KWS Kenya Wildlife Service

MPA Marine Protected Area

SET Social Exchange Theory

UNESCO United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization

WWF Worldwide Fund for Nature

WTO World Tourism Organisation

WTTC World Travel and Tourism Council

KWS Kenya Wildlife Service

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Background to the Study

Coastal areas worldwide and particularly in Africa have a high potential for tourism development that can stimulate socio-economic growth in these areas, help to conserve coastal environments and their biodiversity, minimize environmental impacts and contribute to the wellbeing of local communities most of whom depend on resources found in these areas (UNWTO, 2013). In Kenya the coastal area is home to many communities whose livelihoods depend on the natural resource life found within and around the Indian Ocean.

In spite the foregoing, human population growth in Kenya like in most parts of Africa and other parts of developing world has continued to exert a lot of pressure on the marine protected areas as well as the coastal resource base in general thus leading to resource destruction. As a result, human pressure has been reported to be a major driving force behind environmental degradation in coastal areas and especially marine parks and reserves. This assertion is supported by the fact that the livelihoods of majority of the population living around marine resource areas like oceans are linked to fishing at both subsistence and commercial level. Therefore, with the growing population, expansion of agriculture and other livelihood sustaining activities have been achieved at the expense of the natural resource base (Kamugisha *et al.*, 1997).

The management of protected areas such as Kisite Mpunguti Marine Park and Reserve is based on the proposition that protected areas are of primary importance to a nation; and, that they must be protected and shielded from people living adjacent to them. This is often achieved through the strict enforcement of rules and laws to prevent illegal activities. Despite this, attempts to protect marine parks and reserves through exclusion have often resulted in local people developing hostile attitudes towards marine based resources such as forests. In some cases open conflicts have occurred either between and among local resource users, or between local communities and protected area managers like the Kenya Wildlife Service staff in Kenya and these have resulted into loss of lives and property.

The Kenya government through the Kenya Wildlife Service established six Marine Reserves and four Marine Parks along the coast among them Malindi, Mombasa, Watamu, Kisite Mpunguti, Lamu and Diani (Table 1.1). These marine parks and reserves are governed by the Wildlife Conservation and Management Act 2013. KWS is responsible for the management of all MPAs except Diani Chale Marine National Reserve which is managed by the local community. The rationale for establishing MPAs in Kenya is to protect and conserve marine and coastal biodiversity and related ecotones for posterity by enhancing the regeneration and ecological integrity of critical resources which are vital for sustainable development.

Table 1.1: Marine Protected areas in Kenya

Marine Protected Area (MPA)	Size of MPA in km ²	Year legally established
Malindi Marine Park & Reserve	Reserve: 213 Km ²	1968
	Park: 6 Km ²	
Watamu Marine Park &	Reserve: 32 Km ²	1968
Reserve	Park: 10 Km ²	
Kisite Mpunguti Marine Park &	Reserve:11 Km ²	1978
Reserve	Park: 28 Km ²	
Kiunga Marine Reserve	Reserve: 250 Km ²	1979
Mombasa Marine Park &	Reserve :200 Km ²	1986
Reserve	Park:10 Km ²	
Diani-Chale Marine National	Reserve: 165 Km ²	1995
Reserve		
Total Area	925 Km ²	

Source: Wildlife Conservation and Management Act 2013

The drive for establishment of marine protected areas in Kenya was as a result of pressure on the government primarily by the tourism sector. McClanahan *et al* (2005) reports that since then designated MPA sites have shown a high degree of degradation characterized with a low percentage cover of hard corals, low fish biomass, and high biomass of sea urchins. This coupled with conflicts among the various resource users among them fishermen, boat operators, beach traders and hoteliers continue to threaten the natural resource base. Yet it has been documented that MPAs confer several benefits to local communities and other stakeholders such as creation of employment opportunities, improving living standards and support of local livelihoods. These livelihoods may be enhanced by diversifying sources of assets which may include harvesting MPA resources to generate revenue, or switching livelihood strategies to a single but rewarding activity (Twyman, 2001). Diversification entails opening up the correct assembly of opportunities for a specific community (Salafsky and Wollenberg, 2000), which can be challenging to achieve.

It is sometimes difficult to recognize ecosystem services and to quantify them accurately, partly because they often provide indirect benefits, meaning that they remain poorly understood in relation to their importance (Myers, 1996). Constanza *et al.* (1997) estimated the global value of biodiversity to be roughly \$38 trillion, although this remains a highly controversial figure it has in the recent years reduced significantly. Using a careful analysis of existing case studies, Balmford *et al.* (2002) found that the benefits of conversion of land (and subsequent loss of ecosystem services) were always outweighed by the costs. In each case, private benefits were accrued at the cost of social (community) benefits. Although this analysis did not focus on MPAs, its findings have similar implications on them.

Marine protected areas are of great importance to local communities, and if properly managed they are likely to benefit the current and future generations through job creation, improved standards of living and enhanced access to social amenities among other benefits. On the other hand, if marine protected areas are not well managed then local people are likely not to support their existence and this could lead to conflicts between the local people and MPA managers.

There is therefore the need to get the support of the local people if marine protected areas have to be managed effectively.

1.2 Problem Statement

With a population of approximately 3.4 million (KNBS, 2009), the Kenya coast is characterized by unique natural resources which form the economic basis of the various activities, especially tourism. These resources are on the decline due to overfishing, commercial exploitation of mangrove species and use of destructive illegal fishing gears and methods that destroy critical habitats. Although coastal tourism represents 50% of Kenya's national tourism, 62% of the coastal population still lives below the poverty line (Ngugi, 1999). The increasing population density has led to increased human concentration with heavy impact on marine resources. The deterioration of resources has further compounded environmental deterioration thus leading to increased poverty among the local residents particularly indigenous communities like the Mijikenda. For example in Kwale district the poverty was at 74.9% in 2006 (KNBS).

To avoid the continued decline of coastal ecosystems, marine protected areas were established to prevent over exploitation of these areas and promote conservation of resources for the benefit of current and future generations. This implies that local communities have to forego their traditional activities and livelihoods in order to pave way for more sustainable use of the ecosystem. Due to the opportunity costs involved, there is need to determine how such communities are benefiting from the establishment of the MPAs after abandoning their traditional livelihoods that appeared to be beneficial but in the short term.

The link between protected areas and their impacts on local and indigenous communities and its contribution to poverty reduction has generated a lot of debate and discussions (Scherl *et al.* 2004; Wilkie *et al.* 2006; Richardson, 2008). It is increasingly now accepted that protected areas should at least 'do no harm' to local and indigenous community.

Although socio-economic benefits from marine tourism are diverse, their impacts on local communities' health, political empowerment, and education among others have not been adequately studied. Consequently, assessing their contribution to poverty mitigation as well as

improved community welfare and development remains a challenge particularly where there are shifts in patterns of access to MPA resources. Further, it is widely acknowledged that local people's perceived socio-economic tourism benefits are affected by varied factors. It is for this reason that the study sought to investigate determinants of perceived socio-economic tourism benefit accruing to local people living adjacent to Kisite Mpunguti Marine Park and Reserve.

1.3 Research Objectives

1.3.1 Main Objective

The main objective of the study was to assess the determinants of perceived socio -economic tourism benefits accruing to local people living adjacent to Kisite Mpunguti Marine Park and Reserve.

1.3.2 Specific Objectives

- 1. To determine the effect of demographic characteristics of the local people on perceived socio economic tourism benefits accruing from Kisite Mpunguti Marine Park and Reserve.
- 2. To determine the effect of tourism projects supported by KMMPR on local people's perceived socio economic benefits accruing from tourism.
- 3. To investigate the effect of local people's participation in tourism activities supported by Kisite Mpunguti Marine Park and Reserve on their perception of tourism benefits accrued.
- 4. To establish the effect of government policies on local people's perception of socioeconomic tourism benefits accruing from Kisite Mpunguti Marine Park and Reserve.

1.4 Research Hypotheses

- HO₁ Demographic characteristics of the local community living adjacent to Kisite Mpunguti Marine Park and Reserve (KMMPR) do not affect their perception of tourism benefits accruing from the park and reserve.
- HO₂ Tourism projects supported by KMMPR have not significantly benefited the local community.

- HO₃ Local residents' participation in tourism projects supported by KMMPR has not had any significant effect on their perception about socio-economic tourism benefits accruing to them.
- HO₄ Government policies on tourism in KMMPR have not had a significant effect on local communities' perception of tourism benefits.

1.5 Justification of the Study

Coastal ecosystems form the mainstay of most coastal communities. They provide both subsistence and commercial fisheries resources and other benefits due to their high biodiversity of animals and plants. In addition they form the basis of the tourism industry. Despite this, increased human population has exerted pressure on marine ecosystems thus resulting in the decline of these ecosystems and their resources. This problem has been compounded by encroachment, over exploitation of resources, pollution and conversion of valuable coastal areas to other uses most of which are unsustainable and detrimental to the natural resource base.

The research will make significant contribution to knowledge in the field of tourism in marine protected areas by developing models relating to determinants of perceived socio–economic tourism benefits among local communities living adjacent to Kisite Mpunguti Marine Park and Reserve and other marine protected areas. The study is important to different stakeholders especially the management of KMMPR in coming up with better ways of implementing and addressing local communities' issues hence assuring continued and sustained partnership between the two.

1.6 Scope and Limitation of the Study

The study focused on Kisite Mpunguti Marine Park and Reserve and local people living adjacent to them. In addition, focus was also given to perceived socio— economic benefits accruing from the establishment of KMMPR.

In spite of the foregoing, financial and logistical constraints limited the study to only one marine protected area.

Communication due to language barrier in some parts of the targeted area was a challenge. To get around this, research assistants recruited from the local community translated the questions from English to either Kiswahili or vernacular to enable respondents understand and respond.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This chapter focuses on review of related studies. It presents information on protected areas and their importance, tourism projects and initiatives, community participation in tourism in marine protected areas, perceived socio- economic tourism benefits accruing from marine protected areas (MPAs) and factors influencing local community access to tourism benefits from MPAs.

2.1 An Overview of Protected Areas and their Importance

Protected areas and their geological and physical features, ecosystems, flora and fauna habitats, including tropical forests, deserts, wetlands, lakes and ocean systems are unique and representative examples of the diversity of species and landscapes. Protected areas are critical elements in the tourism system, with the experience of natural and cultural environments being an important tourism motivation. In many countries, tourism has been developed and promoted with much reliance on protected areas, including wilderness areas or national parks, some of which are unable to withstand even small numbers of tourists (Graeme et al.1995). Despite this, marine protected areas worldwide are renowned for their unique attractions such as corals and diverse life forms ranging from turtles to sharks which attract thousands of visitors annually. Figure 2.1 shows the global distribution of marine protected areas.

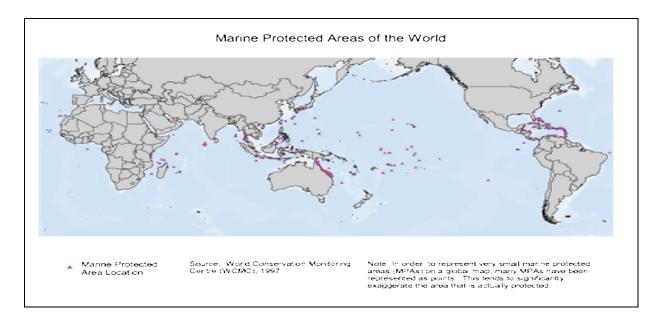


Figure 2.1: Marine Protected Areas of the World

Source: {World Conservation Monitoring Center (WCMC), 1997}

The development of a global system of marine protected areas lags far behind compared to the terrestrial biosphere system in both extent and effectiveness of its coverage. Nonetheless, it is increasingly clear that MPAs can play a critical role in protecting marine habitats, particularly when forming part of a wider program of measures for coastal and marine management.

It is estimated that there are approximately 400 MPAs including coral reefs in more than 65 countries and territories of the world. Although this list is not exhaustive, and does not clearly represent a global network, it does however provide a framework for assessing representatives of MPAs across the globe. There are at least 40 countries with no formal protection for their coral reefs, indicating significant regional gaps in the network. For example the Indian Ocean region, the west coast of the Americas, Solomon Islands, Fiji, French Polynesia, and the Philippines, are all under-represented. With the exception of a few very large sites such as the Great Barrier Reef, the Florida Keys National Marine Sanctuary, and the Ras Mohammed Park Complex in Egypt, a majority of protected coral reefs are very small and more than 150 of the MPAs documented are less than one square kilometer in size. Outside of the largest sites of the aforementioned MPAs, it is likely that less than 3 percent of the world's coral reefs are protected. Consequently MPAs provide some of the great points of hope for coral reefs.

The Great Barrier Reef, the world's second-largest protected area (after northeast Greenland), is a model of integrated and multiple-use management, allowing sustainable utilization of the reef by a wide range of users with numerous and often conflicting needs. Bonaire Marine Park in the Caribbean is one of the first self-funding protected areas, supported entirely from tourist revenues which also bring in half of this country's total gross domestic product. Apo Island, in the Philippines, a tiny fishing reserve that in the years since its designation, has allowed stocks to recover sufficiently, that local fishermen operating in the surrounding areas reported major increases in fish yields. Such cases provide overwhelming support for the economic, social, and political arguments to protect coral reefs (Graeme *et al.*1995).

Various management approaches have been developed to promote use of protected areas including MPAs. These approaches include an analysis of biological and social carrying capacities, limits of acceptable change, recreation opportunity spectrum, visitor impact management and visitor's activity management programmes. Despite their wide spread critical evaluation and use in many countries, each approach has inherent limitations, among them balancing the diverse values and interests of individuals and agencies with resources constraints, which make their implementation by resource managers difficult. Protection of the environment in MPAs like in other protected areas should be an essential prerequisite to tourism development.

In spite of the foregoing observations, as the growth of commercial tourism, including ecotourism, continues to create tensions between tourism, protected area managers and stakeholder interests, it is unfortunate that many countries often lack the resources to undertake appropriate management strategies. In addition, problems of value and interest conflicts are exacerbated by lack of research into the relationship between tourism and protected areas, which then limits the ability of managers to adopt proactive policy and planning approaches and thus follow precautionary principles.

2.1.1 Marine Protected Areas and Their Significance

Marine protected areas are an important strategy for the conservation of marine bio-diversity and particularly for the maintenance of fisheries stocks. MPAs which encompass marine parks and

reserves, have been defined as any areas of intertidal or sub tidal terrain, together with their overlying water and associated flora, fauna, historical and cultural features, which have been reserved by law or other effective means to protect part or all of the enclosed environment (IUCN,1988). MPAs have been implemented as a tool of interest for fishery management, and biodiversity conservation, with an observation that some 25% of the world fisheries have been over exploited or are recovering from over exploitation (Louis et al. 2006). In response to a growing recognition of the need for conservation efforts, as evidenced through the degradation of ocean systems, MPAs are being established worldwide. When designed correctly and managed well, MPAs have an important role to play in the protection of ecosystems and, in some cases, enhancing or restoring the productive potential of coastal and marine fisheries. Despite this, it is recognized that MPAs are not the only solution for coastal and marine problems. For example, when MPAs are used in conjunction with other management tools such as integrated coastal management (ICM), marine spatial planning and broad area fisheries management, they offer the cornerstone of the strategy for marine conservation. The benefits that MPAs can deliver are also related to the effectiveness of management outside MPAs (Christie, 2002; Cicin-Sain and Belfiore, 2005).

When appropriately placed and well-managed, MPAs contribute to; conserving biological diversity and associated ecosystems, protecting critical spawning and nursery habitats, protecting sites with minimal direct human impact to help recover from stresses, protecting settlement and growth areas for marine species and spillover benefits to adjacent areas, focal points for educating the public about marine ecosystems and human impacts upon them, nature-based recreation and tourism, providing undisturbed control or reference sites that serve as baselines for scientific research and for designing and evaluating other areas, sharing costs and benefits among local communities, the private sector, regional and national governments, and other stakeholders and reducing poverty and increasing the quality of life of surrounding communities.

According to WTTC (2009), The Great Barrier Reef, the world's largest UNESCO-recognized World Heritage Area, is also one of the world's most recognizable tourism icon. The Reef, protected by the Great Barrier Reef Marine Park Authority (GBRMPA), attracts nearly 2 million

international tourists and 4.9 million domestic leisure tourists every year, resulting in 54,000 full-time jobs. The future well-being of both the Marine Park and the tourism industry are inextricably linked and a healthy tourism industry in the Marine Park will always need a healthy Great Barrier Reef. The increasing realization of this interdependence has led to the pioneering Sustainable Tourism Partnership between the GBRMPA and the tourism industry. The aims of the Sustainable Tourism Partnership are to ensure maximum benefits and minimum negative impacts to the Great Barrier Reef and adjacent local communities. The Environmental Management fee of A\$4.50 per person per day, is paid by each tourist visiting the Marine Park. This money contributes to approximately 20% of the total GBRMPA's annual budget, with the approximately A\$7.2 million collected from tourists each year directed into tourism management, policy development, tourism research and community partnership projects.

According to WWF (2004), MPAs in Kenya have their landward boundary at the high water mark, with the exception of a few small, uninhabited islands in Kisite MNP/Mpunguti MNR, Malindi-Watamu MNR, and Kiunga MNR. Unlike Tanzania, no people live within the boundaries of the MPAs. In Kenya large human populations however depend on resources in these areas. As with other countries, fisheries and tourism are the principal benefits from MPAs. However, fish catches have not shown major increases since the establishment of the Marine National Parks in locations where these are being monitored, but there is a general feeling that the protection given to the fish populations by these no-take areas will help to maintain or slow the decline in fish yields. For example, once Mombasa Marine National Park was established, catches per fisherman outside the park (i.e. in the Marine National Reserve) increased by about 50%, with highest catches at landing sites closest to the park. However, total fish catch was about 30% lower than before the Marine National Park was established as there were fewer fishermen since those previously fishing in the Marine National Park had to move fishing grounds or find other livelihoods (McClanahan and Kaunda-Arara, 1996; McClanahan and Mangi, 2000). Landings at several sites near the Park continued to decline between 1994 and 1999 (McClanahan and Mangi, 2001). It is possible that this is because the closed area (Marine National Park) is not large enough to supply sufficient 'spillover' for the size of the fishery.

Besides the foregoing, fishermen affected by the existence of the MPAs at Mombasa and Diani have received assistance through activities of government agencies such as CDA, Fisheries Department and KWS such as securing tenure of land, improving access to their landing sites, and building or renovating facilities. This could not have come about if the areas had not been MPAs, with the resultant concern about (and often conflict over) the rights of different user groups to the locality.

Kenya Wildlife Service through a range of projects including ICRAN funding at Malindi MNP; and through a BMZ/IUCN project at Kisite MNP/Mpunguti MNR has provided support to local boat operators in the form of training, development of codes of conduct, installation of moorings and provision of other facilities. For example, a mangrove boardwalk has been built on Wasini Island, and is managed by the village's women group. This has brought significant financial income from tourism to the village and tourists come primarily to see Kisite Marine National Park, but stop off to visit the mangrove board walk. Over \$14,000 was raised for community projects in the two years after the boardwalk opened. Communities are similarly benefiting from a bird hide at Mida Creek.

Employment opportunities have increased in many areas where MPAs have been established. Although this has not been well documented, research conducted in MPAs like Kisite MNP/Mpunguti MNR by Malleret-King (1998, 2000) revealed that some benefits accrue to the local community from the protected area. Further, in several MPAs, local communities living adjacent to them have, through increased visitor numbers and demand for a range of services. Malleret-King (2000) found that communities living nearer Kisite MNP/Mpunguti MNR had greater 'security' than those living further away, in that they were able to obtain food more readily as a result of better cash flow. It was concluded that this was partly due to the fact that these families fished nearer MPA suggesting that there may be some 'spillover' effect from the Marine National park and that some of these families earned additional income from tourism activities related to the MPA.

The establishment of many MPAs has resulted in conflict, with large-scale tourism operators and local boat operators competing for snorkeling and diving clients. Efforts are underway to try and reduce this. Kenya tourism has seen a decline over the last year, and MPAs may be able to play an important role in helping to attract tourists back to the country (Ngugi, 1999). Likewise, MPAs conserve resources by managing human activities and therefore they exist in many different forms and names. Many MPAs contain zones with different allowed uses which range from recreational, commercial, scientific, cultural, and conservation uses and activities. As such, if well managed MPAs can play a significant role in enhancing better management of coastal zones, conservation of marine resources' and boost tourism and fisheries sectors.

According to Eagles and Haynes (2002), tourism in protected areas including marine national parks and reserves generates benefits and costs whose effects interact often in complex ways. It is the responsibility of protected area managers to maximize benefits while minimizing costs. Protected areas are established primarily to preserve wildlife populations, habitats, natural landscapes, and cultural heritage such as a community's cultural traditions. Tourists visit these protected areas to understand and appreciate the values for which the areas were established and to gain personal benefits through recreation. Tourism planning and development aims to take advantage of the interest shown by tourists so as to enhance economic opportunities, protect the natural and cultural heritage, and advance the quality of life of all concerned including local communities living adjacent to these areas. As such protected areas confer diverse benefits from tourism practiced in such areas.

According to Eagles and Haynes (2002), these benefits include employment, conservation of cultural and natural heritage, revenue generation and promotion of local community welfare. Tourism can increase jobs and income in a local area or region. It is often regarded as a source of foreign exchange, since protected areas attract tourists. For example, nature tourism in Costa Rica's National Parks was estimated to generate over US \$600 million in foreign exchange in 1994. Visitors to Australia's Great Barrier Reef World Heritage Area spent AU \$776 million (US \$543 million) in 1991–1992 (Driml and Common, 1995). Governments often use tourism as

a tool for economic development because it is relatively inexpensive to create a tourism job compared to one in manufacturing.

Tourism based on protected areas can be a key factor in supporting the conservation of natural and cultural heritage. It can generate the funds through entrance and service fees, local taxes and in many other ways that can be used directly to help meet or offset the costs of conservation, maintaining cultural traditions and providing education. Indirectly, by demonstrating the economic value that protected area tourism can bring to a country or a region, it can build public and political support for conservation of natural heritage. Tourism enables some marine protected areas to prosper, for example in the Netherlands Antilles (Bonaire Marine Park), the Seychelles (Ste. Anne National Marine Park) and Kenya (Malindi/Watamu parks and reserves).

Tourism development should be designed to protect what is good about a host community and tackle those aspects that need to be improved. One way in which this can be done is to develop facilities and services for tourism which can also benefit the living conditions of local residents. Indeed protected areas can be the engines of sustainable rural development. IUCN advises that protected areas in Africa should be repositioned "in the context of community development and the local economy" (IUCN, 1999: 51). It argues that protected areas sustained by tourist's income, not only create jobs and raise income but can also be used to support local communities' needs and promote improved infrastructural development including communications, upgrading roads for tourism access which gives neighboring villages better access to the outside world. Telecommunications access to protected area offices can be vital to local communities in times of emergency. Some protected areas provide language, literacy and numeracy training to their staff, skills that can be applied in the community as well and Health care, the medical services available to parks staff and visitors can be shared with local communities (IUCN, 1999).

Tourism in terrestrial and marine protected areas may be viewed as a tool to help communities to maintain, or improve, their living standards and quality of life. This may be measured in terms of increased school graduation rates and reduced infant mortality, elimination of water and air pollution, increased access to recreation sites, protected areas or subsistence resources, and better access to services, such as the park's programmes for interpretation and environmental

education, which also benefit locals. Protected areas can also be used to enhance the quality of life of a whole nation, by making them the foundation of a national policy to raise environmental understanding.

Negative effects can and do also result from tourist visitations in MPAs and other protected areas. Most of them can however be competently managed and alleviated. Protected area stakeholders among them local communities are in the position of gauging both the positive and negative effects of tourism, determining how acceptable the negative effects are, and suggesting how they can be managed. The costs of tourism are of three kinds: financial and economic, socio-cultural, and environmental.

Tourism brings increased demand for goods, services and facilities, such as lodging, restaurants, other attractions, and personal vacation properties. As visitor numbers increase, so does the demand for basic services such as policing, fire, safety and health care. Such increased demand brings increased costs and sometimes higher tax burdens for the local community. In some cases, costs may rise so much that local residents can no longer afford to live in such areas. This is particularly the case in destinations where local people have lower incomes than the visitors do. For example, wealthy foreign visitors to protected areas in developing countries may see economic opportunities and take control or buy out local businesses. Thus tourism can lead to increased foreign ownership and raised property values. Increased visitation also means increased costs to the protected area management agency as it strives to add the additional personnel and facilities needed by tourists. This cost of tourism must be weighed against the benefits, and therefore, the park agency must be able to apply the benefits earned from tourists against the costs.

As already noted, where the local economy and protected areas are heavily dependent on tourism, they may become vulnerable to external factors beyond their control, such as natural disasters, currency fluctuations, and competitive capture of markets or political instability. Some leakage of tourist expenditures will occur, whether it is out of the protected area, local

community, region or the country. If local people do not benefit, they may look for other more profitable activities and land uses. Hence the need to minimize leakages.

Increased numbers of tourists may disturb community activities, and compete for recreation places and other services. Poorly planned tourism development can lead to increased congestion, littering, vandalism and crime. Governments may exacerbate these problems if they put short-term economic considerations before all else, for example by building inappropriate infrastructure or failing to establish the needs of local communities. When this happens, the local support for the protected area may be put at risk.

Tourism in protected areas sometimes calls only for seasonal employment, leaving residents underemployed during the slow or off-seasons. However, this may be to the local communities' liking. For example in the Klondike Gold Rush National Historic Park (Alaska, USA) the entire town of Skagway revolves around summer tourism. In the winter, many people leave, and then the community apparently enjoys its "quiet time", having earned sufficient income for the year during the busy season. Where protected area agencies develop visitor management regulations that also affect local residents, there may be negative socio-cultural impacts manifested through prohibitions on traditional uses such as fuel wood gathering or on spiritual uses which require entry to the protected area. Other negative impacts may occur where local traditions become commercialized, and lose their integrity or authenticity. An example would be dances, which had once had a vital social role but which are now put on only for the entertainment of visitors.

Negative impacts are most common when communities are not given choices, or have no control over their involvement in tourism. Outsiders often assign negative connotations to cultural change, while those undergoing the change may be positive about the new ideas or approaches. It is important that those affected by cultural change should be the ones that decide whether this change is acceptable. Appropriate planning is needed ahead of development, to avoid adverse impacts from the outset; but there are also management techniques that can be used to address problems should they arise.

The dangers are all the greater when there is a sharp contrast between the wealth of tourists and the poverty of the host community. Where this occurs, local communities are potentially

vulnerable to exploitation and their voice may go unheard. Both the protected area manager and tourist providers have a special responsibility in such circumstances to ensure that the community is listened to, and its views allowed to help shape the form of tourist development that takes place. From the foregoing reviews, it was hypothesized that the study area has undergone a lot of changes, since the establishment of Kisite-Mpunguti Marine Park and Reserve. Tourism development in the park and reserve has impacted on the local community living adjacent to the MPA.

2.2 Local Community Socio-Demographic Characteristics and their Implications on their Perceptions of Protected Areas

The relationship between community access to tourism benefits and socio-demographic and economic characteristics of residents among them age, gender, and level of income is widely documented in literature on tourism (Sharma and Dyer, 2009; Petrzelka *et al*, 2005; Haley *et al*, 2005; Dogan, 1989). Similar observations have also been documented about local residents' attachment and relationship to the local area and the connection with tourists. Despite this, community tourism initiatives have caused destruction to the resource base on which tourism depends. For instance, destruction of wildlife at Zakynthos in Greece due to tourism (Prunier *et al*, 1993) and disturbance of animals as documented about Kenya show that if not properly managed tourism in MPAs can destroy the resource base on which it relies (Sindiga and Kanunah, 1999).

According to Holloway (2008) and Mill and Morrison (2002), overcrowding is probably the most self-evident problem created by mass tourism. This negative outcome of tourism has been reported in a number of studies in the past where 60% of the sampled population in Sunshine coast recognized overcrowding as an issue (Akis *et al.*, 1996; Amuquandoh, 2010; Andereck and Valentine 2005; Brunt and Courtney, 1999; Dyer *et al*, 2007; Easterling, 2005; Faulkner and Tideswell, 1997; Rothman, 1978; Tatoglu *et al*, 2002; Dyer *et al*, 2007), while Amuquandoh (2010) noted that residents living around Lake Bosomtwe in Botswana are afraid that tourism will result in over-crowding in their community leading to degradation of the environment.

Studies from around the world, have reported a strong residents' belief that tourism results in increased environmental pollution (Akis *et al*, 1996; Andriotis 2004; Brunt and Courtney, 1999; Faulkner and Tideswell, 1997; Gilbert and Clark, 1997; Huttasin, 2008; Johnson *et al*, 1994; Lee *et al*, 2007; McGehee and Andereck, 2004; Nunkoo and Ramkissoon, 2010a; Pizam, 1978; Puczko and Ratz, 2000; Rothman, 1978; Snaith and Haley, 1994, 1999; Terzidou *et al*, 2008) and/or destruction of the environment (Andriotis 2004; Bestard and Nadal, 2007; Dyer *et al*, 2007; Korea, 1996). Respondents in a study by Huttasin (2008) noted that tourism has resulted in more litter and garbage in their community, while a study by Andriotis (2004) revealed that tourism has destroyed the natural environment.

In spite of the foregoing, Doswell (1997) suggests that tourism is a tool that stimulates environmental conservation and improvement. On the negative side, many studies suggest that tourism causes traffic and pedestrian congestion, parking problems, disturbance and destruction of flora and fauna, air and water pollution, and littering (Frauman and Banks 2011; Jago *et al*, 2006; Andereck *et al*, 2005; Jurowski and Gursoy 2004; Brunt and Courtney 1999; McCool and Martin 1994).

2.3 Tourism Projects Associated with Marine Protected Areas and their Implications on Local Communities' Perceptions

Tourism has been used to diversify local livelihoods where other activities have been on the decline and there were few other alternatives. However, it was wildlife-based tourism that initially led to the establishment of state-protected areas like national parks that had led to the eviction of local people and loss of traditional lands making most rural communities poorer. In recent years however, community-based ecotourism has enabled local communities and villages located to MPAs to earn income directly from tourism ventures that they have contractual control over and are located on their lands. By the turn of the twentieth century much of the policy dialogue on rural development and wildlife conservation in northern Tanzania was focused on community based ecotourism. Consequently situations where local people initiated tourism enterprises and conservation all projects seemed not only feasible but promising. Pastoralist communities had incentives to conserve and profit from the wildlife that had long co-existed with their cattle in savannah rangelands (Wøien and Lama, 1999). All these initiatives have

ensured that local communities living within and around protected areas that have potential to support promising tourism and wildlife based ventures to benefit local communities.

According to IUCN-WCPA (2008), examples abound from the field on MPAs and how they have contributed to poverty reduction in many areas. Notable among these are; Navakavu in Fiji, Bunaken in Indonesia, Arnavon Islands in the Solomon Islands and Apo Island in the Philippines. In all the forgoing case studies there is documented evidence that poverty has reduced in various ways including improvement in fish catches, creation of jobs and improvement of local governance. Fish are now "spilling over" from the no-fishing zones of the four marine protected areas mentioned above, leading to increased catches and higher incomes for fishermen at three of the sites. In most of the MPAs established, new jobs particularly in tourism have been created. The marine protected areas' greatest boost to household incomes has come from new jobs, created especially in eco-tourism. In Apo Island, tourism has surpassed fishing as the largest source of income. Stronger local governance in all the above four study sites has been promoted through establishment of community governance mechanisms for the management of marine protected areas.

Involving local communities in management and decision-making in marine protected areas has given communities a more united voice and reduced conflicts within the communities and with neighboring communities. From the health point of view benefits to health have been realized since greater fish catches have led to greater protein intake in Navakavu and Apo Island, and there has been a perceived improvement in children's health in particular. In Bunaken, visitor entry fees improved public health by funding water-supply tanks, public toilets and washing places in several villages. Lastly, benefits to women have been enhanced in all aforementioned areas. In all the four sites, marine protected areas helped to empower women economically and in some cases socially. In the Arnavons islands, the development of alternative livelihoods to fishing such as seaweed farming and basket weaving provided new income opportunities for women. As a result, they gained a stronger voice in community meetings. Figure 2.2 shows the ways in which the establishment of MPAs contributed to poverty alleviation.

From the foregoing reviews, it can be inferred if MPAs are well managed tourism and other related activities can be promoted, and these initiatives can empower local people economically and socially. This can in turn promote development and improve the welfare of local people.

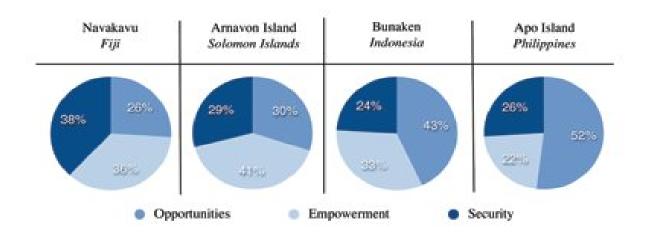


Figure 2.2: Relative Contribution to Poverty Reduction from the MPAs

Source: (Leisher et al, 2007)

According to WWF (2004), documented evidence suggests that MPAs can generate greater income from tourism than from the fisheries that they displace particularly in the case of no take areas or reduce especially in the case of areas where fishing is allowed but in a more regulated fashion. Communities living adjacent to MPAs in Kenya benefit from a range of tourism-related employment opportunities. In Mozambique, an estimated 25% of local communities benefit from tourism revenues generated by Bazaruto Archipelago Marine Park. Similar schemes are either in place or are being established at community-managed and privately operated MPAs on Zanzibar Island, and are also planned on government sites on the mainland. Although such mechanisms tend to take time to develop and negotiate, if a successful arrangement is set up, local communities can be able to benefit significantly from MPA-generated tourism.

Donor support and technical assistance for MPAs often includes the introduction of livelihood activities aimed at both benefiting local communities and taking pressure off marine resources. In Kenya, women groups have benefited from such MPA-related support, such as a mangrove

boardwalk adjacent to Kisite Marine Park which is run by women, and a handicraft programme using recycled materials at Kiunga Marine Reserve, while fishermen affected by the existence of some MPAs at Mombasa and Diani have received assistance through government agencies such as CDA, Fisheries Dept and KWS who support activities such as obtaining tenure over or improving access to their landing sites, and building or renovating facilities (McClanahan and Mangi, 2001). Such assistance could not have come about if the adjacent areas had not been designated MPAs.

In Tanzania, community development has become a central feature of the management of many of MPAs, with community development funds being established using revenue from MPAs, and a range of supplementary income generating activities being set up in adjacent local communities. Based on the observations, review of this experience would be useful to develop a better understanding of the extent to which livelihoods have improved and the extent to which the existence of MPA have contributed to local development and improved local community welfare (McClanahan and Mangi, 2001).

Most coastal communities around the world face a growing degree of insecurity as a result of poverty and high dependency on natural resources. This vulnerability is often compounded by declining resources, high population growth, limited alternative livelihoods, limited access to land, economic and political marginalization, unsustainable land use practices, poor development policies, competition and conflicts over natural resources (Pomeroy and Rivera-Guieb, 2006). Therefore socio–economic dynamics become an important aspect in the implementation of MPAs. A socio economic assessment is a way of learning about the social, cultural, economic and institutional context and conditions of individuals, groups, and communities (Pomeroy and Rivera-Guieb, 2006). Some of the most identified issues in socio – economic studies (Bunce, 2000) include resource use patterns, stakeholder and community characteristics, gender, stakeholder perceptions, attitudes and beliefs, traditional knowledge and market attributes for extractive and non – extractive uses (Bunce *et al*, 2000). To alleviate poverty levels and promote development the foregoing authors have identified socio- economic goals of MPA's which include promoting food security, sustainable livelihoods and non

monetary benefits to society, as well as equitably distributing benefits from MPAs, maximizing compatibility between management and local culture and enhancing environmental awareness and knowledge.

Governance goals of MPAs include maintaining management, ensuring effective stakeholder participation and representation, enhancing management plan compliance by resource users and managing and reducing resource use conflict. Livelihood strategies of coastal communities vary and include among others engagement in activities full time, part time, seasonal or migratory in nature and are associated with either a commercial or subsistence orientation. Many coastal communities undertake a range of activities in order to cope financially and reduce risks associated with high economic dependency on natural resources (Bailey and Pomeroy, 1996; Allison and Ellis, 2001).

2.4 Local Communities Participation in Tourism and their Perception About Benefits Accruing from it

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 2.3, 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 participation 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). Figure 2.3 gives a summary of the typologies of community participation.

7. Self mobilization 6.Interactive participation	8. Citizen control 7. Delegated power 6. Partnership	Degree of Citizen Power	Spontaneous Participation Bottom-up active participation Direct participation Authentic participation Self planning
5.Functional Participation 4. Participation for material incentive 3. Participation by consultation	5. Placation 4. Consultation 3. Informing	Degree of Citizen Tokenism	Induced Participation Top-down: passive: formal: Mostly indirect; degree of tokenism Manipulation; pseudoparticipation; Participation in implementation and sharing benefits; choice between proposed alternatives and feedback.
2. Passive participation 1. Manipulative participation	2. Therapy 1. Manipulation	Non-Participation	Coercive Participation 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
Pretty's (1995) typology of community participation	Arnstein's (1971) community participation	typology of on	Tosun's (1999a) typology community participation

Figure 2.3. Normative typologies of community participation

Source: Tosun (2006)

2.5 Effect of Government policies on Local Communities' Perceived Socio-Economic Benefits from Marine Protected Areas

Most governments believe that tourism development will generate new jobs, enhance community infrastructure and assist in the revitalization of flagging economies of rural areas (Chuang, 2010). Despite this, it is crucial for industry, governments and other stakeholders to understand how individuals within a host community perceive the benefits and disadvantages of tourism because of the potential hostile response to tourists if a balance is not achieved (Deery *et al*, 2012). Diedrich and Garcia-Buades (2009) argue that understanding and assessing tourism impacts in communities is important in order to maintain sustainability and long-term success of the tourism industry in line with government policies and guidelines.

Accordingly, planners, policy makers and developers of tourism should aim at the preservation of the environment, and proposed development plans should entail projects for the restoration and conservation of the environment. Tourism is a sensitive service sector whose development depends on a destination's entire resource base (human, land, water, and air resources). To sustain tourism, changes - particularly resource-use in these areas needs to be controlled to ensure they do not detract from Kenya's unique endowment of diverse tourism attractions. Governments more often support measures to enhance the effective use of scientific resource assessment information in regional area plans as well as environmental auditing and impact assessment by National Environmental Management Authorities (NEMA) for existing as well as new tourism developments. The aim is to ensure that positive benefits are enhanced while negative impacts and costs are minimized.

Ocean use activities contributing to pollution (including vehicle exhaust pollution, which is a major nuisance and health hazard in coastal areas such as Mombasa and other built-up areas), eutrophication and sedimentation of Valuable Ocean beaches, inland lakes, rivers and reservoirs are also closely monitored and controlled to ensure minimal degradation on MPAs and their resources. Despite this, for too long the orientation of tourism planning and development has been guided by the needs and wants of the tourist (Ritchie, 1993). However, the gradual recognition of the adverse impacts of tourism development on the local environment and

population, as well as the central role host communities play in tourism is critical and requires a lot of support. It is documented that tourism like other industries relies on the goodwill and cooperation of local people because they are part of its product (Murphy, 1985, p.153).

In addition government policies often provide a framework and mechanism for sharing revenue and other benefits from tourism and also support initiatives to introduce eco rating system in all hotels and lodges. For instance Kenya, this is done with a view to including the classification and accreditation of such schemes thus underpinning the entire Kenyan accommodation product with responsible and sustainable tourism principles. As such, knowledge regarding residents' satisfaction with their community is important because it can help the government and community policy makers to make more rational decisions about the future of the place and its achievements including having more satisfied citizens. Research findings are vital for the administrative authorities and planners in developing policies and plans related to community development (Grzeskowiak *et al*, 2003; Sirgy *et al*, 2000) allude that research findings are vital for administrative authorities and planners in developing policies and plans related to community development.

2.6 Theoretical Framework

Tourism has become important for countries around the world and has affected host communities in terms of economic, socio cultural and environmental impacts. Consequently there is a need to understand how local residents' perceptions contribute to sustainable collaboration between residents, industry and government. Local communities must be increasingly involved and given an active role, participating in the planning and management of local tourism policy (Simpson and Bretherton 2009; Dyer *et al*, 2007) in order to garner its acceptance and support.

There are several approaches advanced to explain the impact of tourism on local residents. The pioneer models were Doxey's (1975) irridex model which presents an analysis of the effects of tourism development (in four stages) on the social relationships between hosts and tourists, and Butler's tourism area life cycle model (Butler, 1980) which proposes that tourism is developed

through stages of exploration, involvement, development, consolidation, stagnation and decline. These were followed by a number of studies that focused on involvement of local communities in tourism (Andereck and Vogt, 2000; Juroski *et al*, 1997; Ap, 1992, and Allen *et al*, 1993). These studies applied theories such as equity theory, growth machine theory, lifecycle theory, power theory and social exchange theory.

Social exchange theory (SET), suggests that residents are likely to support tourism as long as the perceived benefits exceed the perceived costs. SET is based on the principle that human beings are reward-seeking and punishment avoiding and that people are motivated to action by the expectation of profits (Skidmore, 1975). SET assumes that social relations involve exchange of resources among groups seeking mutual benefits from exchange relationships. The primary motive of exchange is the improvement of the community's economic benefits (Ap, 1992). A number of studies have been conducted on social exchange theory (Andereck and Vogt, 2000; Juroski *et al*, 1997; Ap, 1992, and Perdue *et al*, 1987). These studies found that local residents support tourism when they can benefit more than they loose from tourism activities, and that whether the impacts of tourism development will lead to the support for or the protest against local tourism development depends on individual's perception of the impacts.

2.6.1 Social Exchange Theory

Ap (1992:670) advanced the Social Exchange Process Model to understand the resident perceptions of tourism. This model describes the process by which individuals or community groups become engaged in tourism exchanges, continue the relationships and how they become disconnected from the exchanges. The main components of the model are need satisfaction, exchange relations, consequences of exchange, and the no-exchange outcome. The figure 2.4 presents a set of processes that link the main components of the model. They are: (1) initiation of exchange; (2) exchange formation; (3) exchange transaction evaluation; (4) positive evaluation of exchange consequences, that is, reinforcement of behaviour.

According to Ap (1992) individuals engage in exchange if three preconditions are realized: (1) the rewards are valued (2) the exchange produces valued rewards and (3) the costs do not exceed

expected rewards. The exchange process follows a sequence of events. The first event is identification of need. Ap (1992:672) alludes that "an actor will initiate an exchange relationship when there is a need to satisfy". To initiate an exchange there must be a need to satisfy and satisfaction of need justifies the rationale for engaging in social exchange. Therefore, unless a community has a need to develop tourism or perceives tourism as a means of achieving social and economic benefits, it is unlikely to welcome the development of tourism (Ap, 1992; Ap and Crompton, 1998). In addition, this theory suggests that residents' evaluations of tourism are reliant upon the "relationship form" between residents and the tourism industry.

Positive or negative evaluations are theorized in terms of the presence or absence of certain "antecedent conditions": rationality, satisficing benefits, reciprocity and the justice principle (Waitt, 2003). Rationality pertains to an actor's behaviour being based upon reward seeking. Consequently, residents who perceive rewards of either maintenance and/or improvement of their social and economic well being are overall likely to evaluate the industry positively (Ap 1992; Waitt, 2003). Satisficing of benefits suggests that residents may well be aware of the negative effects but nevertheless accept tourism because they perceive the positives as outweighing the costs. Residents are assumed to seek to obtain a satisfactory, reasonable, or acceptable level of benefits from the social exchange relationship rather than maximization of benefits. However, a threshold of tolerance of tourism is assumed to exist that varies both spatially and temporally and which, once exceeded, overpowers negativities. Consequently, a resident will only develop a positive attitude if the expected benefits meet an acceptable predetermined level of satisfaction.

Reciprocity proposes that if resources exchanged between the host residents and the industry are roughly equivalent, the effects are perceived positively by all parties. The perceived rewards should equal residents' willingness to carry the infrastructure costs, extending friendliness, courtesy and hospitality to tourists, and tolerating inconveniences (such as queuing for services, sharing local facilities, overcrowding, traffic congestion, and route disruption). Gouldner (1960) defines reciprocity as "a mutual gratifying pattern of exchanging goods and services". Ap (1992:675) further argues that "reciprocity in exchange means that each actor will provide

benefits to the other equitably and with units of exchange that are important to the actors". He further contends that this is a very important component of the social exchange theory.

In social exchange both parties should feel that they are getting equivalent rewards from each other. If any party feels that they are being exploited by the exchange then the exchange becomes unbalanced and the exploited party is likely to have a negative attitude towards the exchange. Blau (1964) notes that exploitation resulting from violating norms of fair exchange can create conflict and retaliation against violators. However, if the achievement of benefits and reciprocity are fulfilled, then the exchange will be perceived as equitable.

The justice principle suggests that each exchange be underpinned by norms of fairness to ensure that residents receive reasonably equitable returns for their support or participation. Residents are more likely to have positive perceptions if they have a sense of participation in planning policies and trust in the tourism industry (Waitt, 2003). If parties involved in exchange, that is the host and tourist both feel that they have achieved a satisfactory outcome then each will have a positive perception of the encounter (Ap, 1992; Sharpley, 1994).

Ap (1992) argues that at the beginning stage of tourism development, tourism actors enjoy a power advantage position. Krippendorf (1987:50) notes that "since many areas are eager to develop tourism, it must accept any price offered by the bidder". At the point when tourism activities improve the local economy and tourism impacts are realised by the community, local community actors enjoy more power advantage than tourism actors because at that time they can impose lot of terms and conditions on tourism actors. Zhang *et al*, (2006) notes that from the tourism perspective social exchange theory views community attitudes towards tourism as a trade-off between the costs and benefits perceived by members of the community. Ap (1992) argues that residents who believe that exchanges with tourists are beneficial will support tourism, while those who believe that the exchanges are not beneficial for them will not support it. A summary of the above discussion is given in figure 2.4.

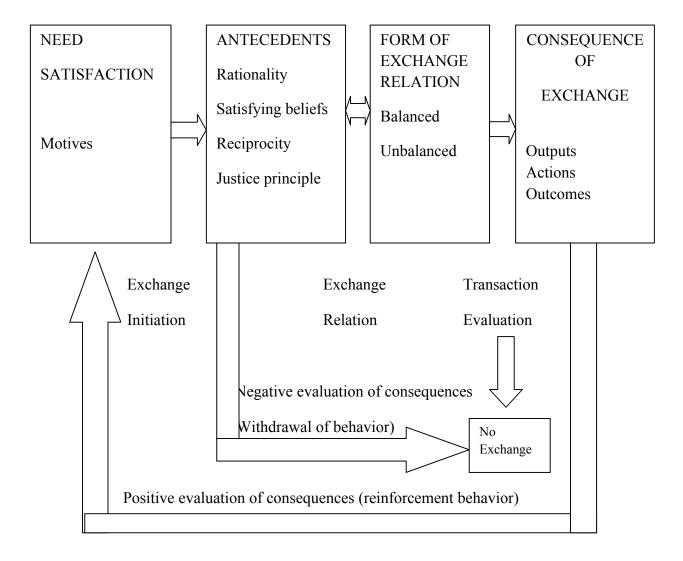


Figure 2. 4: Social Exchange Process Model

Source: Adapted from AP (1992)

As human behaviour is influenced by the benefits and costs individuals receive from a particular behaviour, in this study this theory helped to logically explain community perceptions about tourism and benefits that accrue from it to the community. The local community will perceive tourism positively if the exchanges with tourism are beneficial. For instance if people are employed in tourism then they may have positive attitudes towards the industry but if the experiences are negative then they might have negative attitudes. Additionally the theory contributed to understanding why the community develops positive and/or negative perceptions about benefits accruing from tourism. The current study hypothesized that local communities

will support tourism associated with MPAs and related projects if the two confer benefits to them.

2.7 Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework for this study is given in figure 2.5. From the figure independent variables include socio-demographic characteristics, tourism projects, community participation and government policies and laws on tourism, while the dependant variable is the perceived socio-economic tourism benefits accrued.

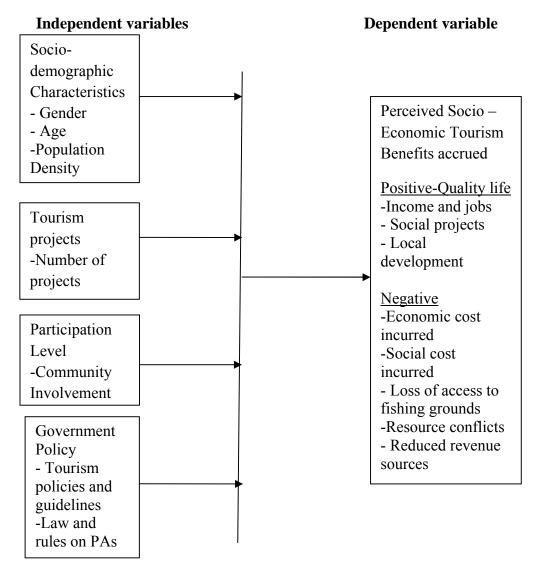


Figure 2.5 Conceptual Frameworks

Source: Author (2015)

CHAPTER THREE

STUDY AREA AND RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter discusses the methodology used to achieve the objectives of the study. The chapter discusses the study area, research design, target population, sampling techniques, data collection and data analysis and presentation.

3.1 Study Area

3.1.1 Location and size

The marine park and reserve were gazetted in 1978 and is zoned into 2 distinct areas; Kisite park with an area of 28sq km and Mpunguti Reserve with an area of 11sq km. Kisite Mpunguti Marine Park and Reserve is situated on the southern coast of Kenya in Shimoni and 8km north of the Tanzanian border, 550km from the capital city, Nairobi and 120km from Mombasa. The marine park lies between latitude 04°42′50″S 39°21′44″E.

3.1.2 Demography

There are two major villages in the area of study, and they include Shimoni and Wasini.

3.1.2.1. Wasini island

Wasini Island lies off the southern Indian ocean of Kenya, 10 minutes boat ride across from Shimoni on the mainland. The island is sparsely populated and underdeveloped with no cars, roads or mains like water or electricity. Wasini Island is a site of early civilization and its attractions include exposed coral reef and mangrove forests. The Island is occupied by the Vumba people who have a Bantu speaking dialect and have a rich history. They speak Swahili, and their population numbers about 2700. The Vumba live in two villages namely Wasini and Mkwiro. The people are predominantly Muslim and live a fairly traditional way of life revolving around fishing and more recently eco - tourism. A group of women on the island has established an eco –tourism project known as the Wasini Island boardwalk in the beautiful fossil coral gardens of Wasini. The proceeds from this boardwalk help pay school fees for some of the needy

Wasini students and supports other projects on the Island. KWS provides capacity building for the group.

3.1.2.2 Shimoni village

Shimoni village with a population of approximately 5600 people, was once the headquarters of trade between Arabs and Chinese. About 80 – 90 % of the population in Shimoni is involved in fishing and a small portion is dependent on tourism and subsistence farming. Attractions include; The ruins of the old district commissioners building, which represents the first senior staff residents quarters built by the imperial British Company in 1885 and Shimoni slave caves which are an interesting historical site. The Swahili word "Shimoni means the place of the caves" The caves were formed millions of years ago under the sea by coral polyps. Traditionally they were used over the centuries by local people as Kayas or shrines and as hiding place during battles with inland tribes. During the infamous slave trading years of the 18th and 19th centuries, the caves were used to hold slaves that were captured on the hinterland. Large slaving dhows came from Arabia to take them from there to Zanzibar where they were sold at the slave market. The caves are managed by the local community while Kenya Wildlife Service provides capacity building.

These two villages have benefited from the existence of the marine park through different ways, for instance all the community based projects are offered with capacity building by KWS and the enterprises are marketed on their behalf and jointly with the marine park as an excursion package. The other ways through which the community has benefited is through KMMPA supporting the building of classes and providing furniture to schools. The beneficiaries are; Wasini primary, Mkwiro primary, Kichaka Mkwaju primary, Kibuyuni primary, Fikirini primary, Kidimwi primary, Matunda Bora academy and Shimoni secondary.

3.1.3 Climate

The area is humid with mean annual temperatures ranging from $22 - 34^{\circ}$ c. Rainfall is around 500mm per annum.

3.1.4 Tourism Attractions

An enchanted realm of living coral gardens, sculpted islands, wheeling seabirds and sparklingly clear seas, this world-famous Marine Park promises an underwater world of unbelievable colour, discovery and vibrancy. It is well known for its Rainbow of Marine life with more than 250 recorded species including fish, dolphins, sea turtles, whales, corals and sea grass under the Clear crystal waters mostly enjoyed by divers and Snorkelers. The MPA Other attractions include; the Pristine Coral gardens, Kisite and Mpunguti Islands, where Sandy islands formulate during low tide, Beautiful and special Sandy beach, Dolphin watch, Endemic coconut crab found at lower Mpunguti Island. There also other attractions around the area that are managed by the local community living adjacent the MPA.

3.1.4.1 Islands in the Stream

The Park, which was established to protect the scenic islands and special habitats of a wide range of endemic marine animals and breeding migratory birds, lies in the coral gardens beginning about 1 km south of Wasini Island. This trapezoid section of the Indian Ocean encompasses four small, arid coral islands, each with considerable areas of fringing reefs. Kisite Island features an exposed sand bar and the surrounding pellucid waters offer perhaps the most rewarding of the snorkeling sites.



Figure 3.1:Kisite Island

Source: Author (2015)

3.1.4.2 Wasini Island

Essentially unspoiled (there are no roads or cars on the island) and entirely different in terms of culture and landscape from the mainland, this peaceful island invites exploration. It features a picturesquely sculptured rocky coastline, low rag-coral forest cover, numerous venerable baobab trees and two small Muslim villages, the most frequently visited being Wasini Village, whose friendly and welcoming villagers inhabit a settlement believed to have been founded by Chinese and Arab traders some four- hundred-years ago; and which still features the ruins of those civilizations.

3.1.4.3 Petrified Coral Gardens

Once below the waves, but now merely washed by the incoming tide, these rather surreal grey-white coral gardens lie directly behind Wasini Village. Run by the friendly 'Wasini Women's Boardwalk' (offering guided walks, cool drinks and a handicraft shop), the two-and-a-half acres of petrified coral gardens and mangrove swamps can be explored by means of a meandering timbered boardwalk leading in a circuit around the site.



Figure 3.2: Wasini women project

Source: Author (2015)



Figure 3.3: Wasini Women Boardwalk

Source: Author (2015)

3.1.4.4 The Kenyan Barrier Reef

The most outstanding feature of the Kenyan coast, the pristine and well-developed coral barrier reef extends all the way from Shimoni in the south to Malindi in the north, without significant break, except at the mouths of the rivers.

3.1.4.5 The Reefs, The rainforests of the Sea

Coral reefs are one of the most fascinating ecosystems on earth, sheltering nearly one million types of marine life. Formed only in warm seas, reefs are built by battalions of tiny polyps (miniscule sea anemone-like creatures living together in colonies), some of which create a hard skeleton outside their bodies, which eventually forms into stony coral. Coral comes in many shapes, colours and sizes including the open branched stag's horn coral, the pincushion-like acropora coral, the wavy branched and plate-like pavona coral, the massively solid favia coral and the convoluted brain coral.



Figure 3.4: Corals

Source: Author (2015)



Figure 3.5: Corals

Source: Author 2015

3.1.4.6 Boat Safaris

A selection of dhow and boat safaris departs from Shimoni Pier daily. Taking around forty five minutes to reach the Park, most tours encompass the islets of Mpunguti Ya Chini and Mpunguti Ya Juu (upper and lower islands) and Kisite Island, a coral-encircled rock about 100 m long which features an elongated sand bar and a rocky bird-nesting site.



Figure 3.6: Dhows

Source: Author (2015)

3.1.4.7 Excellent Diving

Due to its warm shallow waters, exceptional clarity, pristine coral and extraordinary breadth of marine life, the Park and Reserve offer an excellent dive venue for beginners and professionals alike. Some eleven prime dive sites exist in and around the area, ranging from 5-30+m in depth. Mako Koke Reef (4km to the west) is also an interesting dive site being a fine example of a rejuvenating reef.

3.1.4.8 Snorkelers Paradise

The warm clear waters, spectacular soft corals and kaleidoscopic marine life make this Park one of the finest snorkeling venues in Kenya, the most popular areas lying in the main coral garden towards the outer edge of the Kisite anchorage area.



Figure 3.7: Snorkeling at Kisite

Source: Author (2015)

The reef provides food and shelter for an entire community. A shifting rainbow of small fishes, octopus and clams hide in the gaps between the rainbow coral; celestial-blue parrotfish use their hard beaks to chew off lumps of coral while a kaleidoscope of soup plate sized snappers, rubberfish, zebrafish, butterflyfish, angelfish and scorpionfish shimmer in the clear waters. Hunting sharks, rays, turtle and starfish also prowl the reef in search of prey while moray eels hide in holes alongside small crabs and wrasses (long, spiny-finned fish). Sea urchins, sea cucumbers, brittle stars and numerous species of mollusk also feed on the plentiful algae of these warm coastal waters and the reef features 12 species of sea grass and numerous sponges.

The best time to snorkel is two hours either side of low tide, when the greatest amount of marine life is revealed. Visitors are advised to avoid standing on or otherwise damaging the coral

3.1.4.8 Turtle Territory

The Park is famous for its population of turtles: green, hawksbill, loggerhead, Ridley and leatherback.

3.1.4.9 Dolphin and Whale Spotting

The reef offers sanctuary to over 200 dolphins (spinner, humpback and bottle-nosed), which can be encountered singly or in schools, above and below the waves. You may even be fortunate

enough to see a humpback whale (August-October). Whale sharks are often seen around the Mpunguti islands.

3.2 Research Design

This research utilized the descriptive survey design and case study research designs. These designs were suitable for the study as Kothari (2008) notes that any research design chosen must be rigid, make enough provision for protection against bias and maximize reliability. Case study research method is an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident, and in which multiple sources of evidence are used (Yin, 1984, p. 23). In addition, the case study research design enabled the researcher to undertake a detailed study of the phenomena under study in context and holistically (Kombo and Tromp, 2006).

The descriptive survey research design is a method of collecting information by asking questions or administering questionnaires, and basically aims at describing the state of affairs in a study area. The descriptive research design was used to describe systematically the facts and characteristics of the study population and the issues under study factually and accurately. This is because the aim of the study was to obtain complete and accurate information on the determinants of perceived socio - economic tourism benefits accruing to local people living adjacent to the Park and Reserve

3.3 Target Population

A population (also called a universe) is a group of measurements (not organisms) about which one wishes to draw conclusions (Zar, 1999 p.16). The target population for this study was 8,300 people and included employees of KWS and local community members living adjacent to Kisite Mpunguti Marine Park and Reserve.

3.4 Sampling Procedures

Simple random sampling was used to select respondents from the local community as well as employees of KWS at Kisite Mpunguti Marine Park and Reserve. Simple random sampling

allowed for equal chances of selecting the desired representative sample, which was achieved from a heterogeneous population.

3.5 Sample Size

The formula of Krejcie (1970) given below was used to determine the sample size.

$$n = (\chi^2 Npq) / [d^2 (N-1) + \chi^2 pq]$$

Where;

n= sample size desired

N= Target population

p= population proportion (take 0.5) and q=1-0.5=0.5

 χ^2 = Chi square =3.841 at 95% confidence level.

d = significant level of 0.05

 $n=3.841x 8300 \times 0.5x0.5 / 0.0025 (8300-1) + 3.841 \times 0.5x0.5$

= 7970.075/21.7 = 367 respondents.

In total 367 respondents participated in this study.

Ratio of KWS employees $^{50}/_{8300}$ x 367 = 2 while for community $^{8250}/_{8300}$ x 367 = 365

3.6 Data Collection

3.6.1 Primary data

Structured questionnaires consisting of open and close ended questions were used to generate data from heads of the randomly selected households or their representatives. For close ended questions, the Likert scale consisting of a 5 point scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree was used to guide the respondents in choosing the most appropriate response to statements seeking their opinion.

3.6.2 Secondary data

Secondary data was obtained from published and unpublished works among them textbooks, journals, and other related works in libraries and the internet.

3.7 Data Analysis and Presentation

Data was analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics.

3.7.1 Data processing

Data was edited for completeness, accuracy and uniformity, coded and entered into the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) for analysis.

3.7.2 Descriptive statistics

Descriptive analysis was done to determine frequency distributions, percentages and measures of central tendency such as means.

3.7.3 Inferential Statistical Analysis

Further analysis of data was done using correlation and multiple regression. Correlation analysis was used to show the degree of relationship among independent variable and dependent variables while multiple regression was done to show the relationships between independent and dependent variables in which the dependent variable was considered to be functionally dependent upon at least one of the independent variables. In this relationship, Y (perceived socio-economic tourism benefits accrued) and X (Determinants of) represented the dependent and independent variables, respectively as indicated below.

 $y = a + b_1x_1 + b_2x_2 + b_3x_3 + \dots + b_nx_n$. Equation 1

Where;

Y = Perceived socio – economic tourism benefits accrued

 $b_1x_1 - b_nx_n$ = Determinants of, that include Demographic characteristics,

Projects initiated, participation level and Government policy.

3.8 Reliability and Validity of Research Instruments

Structured questionnaires were designed to validate content validity, face validity, criterion validity and concurrent validity and were presented to the supervisors and other staff in the department of Tourism Management for corrections. The corrected questionnaires were then refined and polished to enhance validity and reliability before pre testing (piloting) them in the study area. Using responses from the pilot study, the pretested questionnaires were then revised and consequently administered to the 367 randomly selected respondents.

The questionnaire was edited in light of Cronbach's alpha to determine reliability. This was done by finding the Cronbach alpha of the scale used and the value was 0.854. If the Cronbach alpha is more than 0.70 (Nunnall, 1978), then the scale was deemed reliable.

3.9 Ethical Considerations

Permission to carry out the study was sought from Kenya Wildlife Service and respondents who participated in the study. The nature and rationale for the study were explained to the respondents by the researcher. The researcher observed respect for the individuals' rights and safeguarded their personal integrity. Participants were not required to write their names on the questionnaires, but each questionnaire was given a code number for reference, hence the anonymity of the respondents was maintained. Participants were assured that the information given would to be treated confidentially and used for academic purposes only. They were also assured of their rights and freedom to withdraw from the study at any point or time without consequences. Attempts were also made to include both males and females in the study.

CHAPTER FOUR RESULTS

4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents findings of the study guided by objectives of the study. Descriptive analysis results are presented first followed by those from inferential statistical analysis. Results from the local community are based on data collected from 288 questionnaires (78% return rate) out of the 367 questionnaires that were administered.

4.1 Local respondents' Socio - demographic characteristics

Results showed that majority of the local respondents were males (79.2%, n =228) while only 60 (20.8%) were females. This shows that the population from which the sample was selected was skewed towards males. Findings also revealed that 120 (41.7%) respondents were aged 18-28 years, 96 (33.3%) were aged 29-39 years and only 12 (4.2%) were 50 years and above. The rest of the results are shown in table 4.1. These findings clearly suggest that majority of the respondents (75%) were aged 18-39 years. This implies that majority of the respondents who were affected directly or indirectly by the marine park and reserve were the youthful generation who are actively involved in tourism development. Eighty four (29.4%) respondents had primary school education level, a similar number had secondary school education and only 12 (4.2%) had university education (Table 4.1). This implies that majority of the respondents (87.5%) who responded to the questionnaires were literate and were therefore aware of some of the determinants of perceived socio - economic tourism benefits accruing to people living adjacent to Kisite Mpunguti Marine Park and Reserve.

Results further indicated that 192 (66.7%) respondents had lived in the study area for over 20 years, 60 (20.8%) had lived for less than 10 years and 36 (12.5%) had stayed for between 11-20 years (Table 4.1). This shows that majority of respondents (79.2%) were aware of what was going on in the marine park and reserve since they were born in the study area. From the results in table 4.1, 144 (50%) respondents sampled lived less than 1km from the park, 132 (45.8%) respondents lived 1-5 kms from the park while 12(4.2%) respondents lived 6-10 kms from the park. This shows that most of the respondents (95.8%) live close to the park and they are

affected directly or indirectly by the park and reserve. Lastly, results showed that 84 (29.2) respondents were boat operators, 72 (25%) were fishermen, 36 (12.5%) were operating food Kiosks and (8.3%) were restaurant owners (Table 4.1). From the results it is evident that more than half of the respondents (54.2%) were key stakeholders in tourism and facilitated tourism operations as boat operators, suppliers of sea food to hotels and restaurants and kiosk owners, and business coordinators.

Table 4.1: Local respondents Socio - demographic characteristics

Variable	Response	Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Male	228	79.2
	Female	60	20.8
Total		288	100.0
Total		200	100.0
Age	18-28	120	41.7
	29-39	96	33.3
	40-50	60	20.8
	Above 50	12	4.2
Total		288	100.0
Education Level	Never went to school	36	12.5
	Primary	84	29.2
	Secondary	84	29.2
	College	72	25.0
	University	12	4.2
Total		288	100.0

Period of residence	Less than 10years	60	20.8
	11-20 years	36	12.5
	Over 20 years	192	66.7
Total		288	100.0
Distance from Park and Reserve	Less than 1 km	144	50
	1-5 km	132	45.8
	6-10 km	12	4.2
Total		288	100.0
Occupation	Fisherman	72	25.0
	Boat operator	84	29.2
	Restaurant owner	24	8.3
	Food kiosk owner/operator	36	12.5
	KWS employee	24	8.3
	Security officer	12	4.2
	Business co-ordinator	12	4.2
	Mason	12	4.2
	Teacher	12	4.2
Total		288	100.0

Source: Research Data (2015)

4.2 Effect of demographic characteristics on perceived socio-economic tourism benefits to local community

Overall 120 (41.7%) respondents neither agreed nor disagreed with the statement that the problem of human population increase has reduced benefits accrued from Kisite Mpunguti Marine Park and Reserve, 84 (29.2%) strongly disagreed, 36 (12.5%) disagreed, 36 (12.5%) agreed and only 12 (4.5%=12) strongly agreed. These results show that the problem of human population increase does not significantly affect or reduce benefits. Likewise, the increase neither increases nor reduces the benefits. One hundred and eight (37.5%) respondents agreed that the proliferation of projects in the study area reduces the size and amount of revenue accrued from the park, 60 (20.8%) strongly disagreed, 48 (16.7%) disagreed, 48 (16.7%) neither agreed nor disagreed while 4 (8.3%) strongly agreed. Overall it can be inferred that most respondents supported the statement on the negative impacts of the proliferation of projects on benefits accrued. Table 4.2 gives a summary of these results.

Table 4.2: Effect of demographic characteristics on perceived socio- economic tourism benefits to local community

Demographic	Strongly	Disagree	Neither	Agree	Strongly
characteristics effect on perceived socio-	Disagree		agree nor		Agree
economic tourism			disagree		
benefits	%	%	%	%	%
Human population increase which reduces the benefits	29.2	12.5	41.7	12.5	4.2
Over expansion of tourism projects reduces amount of revenue received and size of the park and reserve	20.8	16.7	16.7	37.5	8.3
Lack of awareness raising and programs on use of marine resources affects community economy	12.5	25.0	25.0	33.3	4.2
Community adjacent to the park is not compensated for opportunity costs	12.5	29.2	29.2	29.2	0

Source: Research Data (2015)

On whether there were community- based education programs on the use of marine resources and how this affects the community's economy, 96 (33.3%) agreed with the statement, 72 (25%) neither agreed nor disagreed, 72 (25%) disagreed, 36 (12.5%) strongly disagreed and 12 (4.2%) strongly agreed. This implies that majority of the respondents agreed that lack of education programmes about the use of marine resources led to lack of awareness thus affecting community economy. Lastly, 84 (29.2%) respondents agreed that there was no compensation for opportunity costs incurred by the local community, 84 (29.2%) neither agreed nor disagreed, 84 (29.2%) disagreed and 36 (12.5%) strongly disagreed. This shows that most of the respondents

were non committal on the statement that the community living adjacent to the park and reserve were not compensated for opportunity costs incurred.

4.3. Tourism projects, activities and benefits Accrued

4.3.1 Community based tourism projects

Respondents' opinion on the emergence and development of community based tourism projects in the study area showed that most of the respondents (66.7%) indicated that there were projects established, 84 (29.2%) were not sure and 12 (4.2%) indicated they were not aware of the existence of such projects (Table 4.3). This shows that most of the respondents acknowledged that there are community based tourism projects which have benefited individuals within the community.

Table 4.3 Views on community based tourism projects initiated in the area

Views on projects	Frequency	Percent
Yes	192	66.7
Not sure	84	29.2
No	12	4.2
Total	288	100.0

Source: Research Data (2015)

4.3.2 Benefits accruing from projects initiated and supported by Kenya Wildlife Service

Results on whether they benefited from projects initiated by Kisite Mpunguti Marine Park and Reserve revealed that 204 (70.8%) respondents indicated that they benefited, 48(16.7%) were not sure and 36 (12.5%) stated that they have not benefited from the projects (Figure 4.1).

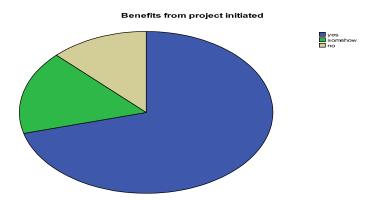


Figure 4.1: Benefits accruing from projects initiated by KWS

Source: Research Data (2015)

4.3.3 Distribution of benefits accrued among respondents

More than half of the respondents (51.9%) stated that benefits are equally distributed to members of the local community and 98 (48.1%) indicated that the benefits were not equally distributed. This indicated that only slightly above half of the population believed that the benefits are equally distributed while the other proportion believed that the benefits are not equally distributed (Table 4.4).

Table 4.4 Distribution of benefits accrued among respondents

Equal distribution of benefits	Frequency	Percent
Yes	106	51.9
No	98	48.1
Total	204	100.0

Source: Research Data (2015)

4.3.4 Monetary gains from tourism

Findings in table 4.5 indicate that 108 (37.5%) of the respondents received above Ksh 15000, 72 (25%) respondents received Ksh 10001-15000, 60 (20.8%) got Ksh 5001-10000 and 48 (16.7%) received below Ksh 5000. These findings clearly show that majority of the respondents received above Ksh 15000. This implies that most of the respondents were affected both directly and indirectly by the marine park and are able to live a decent life.

Table 4.5 Monetary gain from tourism

Income earned	Frequency	Percent
Below 5000	48	16.7
5001-10000	60	20.8
10001-15000	72	25.0
above 15000	108	37.5
Total	288	100.0

Source: Research Data (2015)

4.3.5 Respondents views on whether tourism benefits are worth the sacrifice

Results on respondents whether perceived tourism benefits are worth the sacrifice that comes with tourism development such as extending friendliness and other inconveniences are shown in figure 4.2. From the results 108 (62.5%) respondents indicated yes, 84 (29.2%) stated no and 24 (8.3%) were not sure.

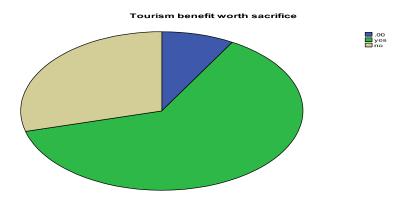


Figure 4.2 Tourism benefits worth the sacrifice

Source: Research Data (2015)

4.4 Opinion on impacts of Kisite Mpunguti Marine Park and Reserve

A total of 120 (41.7%) respondents strongly agreed that creation of the park and its associated projects created employment opportunities, 60 (20.8%) agreed, 48 (16.7%) were neutral, 48

(16.7%) strongly disagreed and 12 (4.2%) disagreed with the statement on whether the marine park had created employment. This implies that majority of respondents strongly agreed that marine park has created employment opportunities. On the other hand 108 (37.5%) respondents agreed that the park has raised standards of living, 72 (25%) strongly agreed, 48 (16.7%) neither agreed nor disagreed and 12 (4.2%) strongly disagreed with the statement. This shows that a large number of respondents (62.5%) were of the view that establishment of the park and reserve has contributed to local peoples' improved welfare. Most respondents (37.5%) neither agreed nor disagreed that the marine park and reserve has facilitated donations and grants, 84 (29.2%) agreed with the statement, 36 (12.5%) strongly disagreed while 24 (8.3%) strongly agreed. This confirms that most of the respondents neither agreed nor disagreed that marine park and reserve has created opportunity for business investment, 84 (29.2%) strongly agreed, 60 (20.8%) neither agreed nor disagreed, and only 12 (4.2%) strongly disagreed. This confirms that the marine park and reserve has created opportunity for business investment. Table 4.6 gives a summary of the results.

A total of 108 (37.5%) and 84 (29.2%) respondents agreed and strongly agreed respectively with the statement that the marine park and reserve have improved the quality of life in the study area, 60 (20.8%) disagreed and 36 (12.5%) neither agreed nor disagreed with the statement (Table 4.6). Since 192 (66.7%) respondents generally agreed with the statement, this implies that the marine park and reserve has improved quality of life among respondents.

More than one third (41.7%) of the respondents agreed with the statement that the marine park management has helped establish and improve social amenities like schools and hospitals, 96 (33.3%) strongly agreed, 48 (16.7%) neither agreed nor disagreed while 12(4.2%) each strongly disagreed and disagreed. This indicates that majority of the respondents (75%) agreed that the management of the marine park and reserve has improved social amenities in the study area. On the contrary, 58.3% of the respondents further agreed that the establishment of the park has raised the cost of living, 60 (20.8%) strongly agreed, 24 (8.3%) respondents neither agreed nor disagreed, 24 (8.3%, n=24) disagreed and only 12 (4.2%) strongly disagreed. This is an

indication that the establishment of the marine park has raised the cost of living in the study area. Table 4.6 gives a summary of the above results.

Results revealed that 45.8% of the respondents neither agreed nor disagreed with the statement that the establishment of the marine park and reserve had increased leakages, 20.8% agreed, 20.8% disagreed, 8.3% strongly agreed and 4.2% strongly disagreed (Table 4.5). This implies that most respondents neither agreed nor disagreed with the statement on increased leakages. Similarly 84 (29.2%) respondents strongly disagreed that the presence of the park had increased school drop outs, 72 (25.0%) disagreed, 60 (20.8%) neither agreed nor disagreed, 36 (12.5%) agreed and (12.5%) strongly agreed. This shows that more than half of the respondents (54.2%) strongly disagreed that the marine park and reserve has increased the rate of school dropout in the study area compared to other areas along the coast where young boys and girls drop out of school to engage in tourism related business and activities.

One hundred and eight (37.5%) respondents neither agreed nor disagreed with the statement that the park and reserve have resulted into overcrowding, 96 (33.3%) strongly disagreed, 48 (16.5%) disagreed and 36 (12.5%) agreed (Table 4.6). This shows that half of the respondents (50%) disagreed with the view that the marine park and reserve have resulted into overcrowding. This could be explained by the fact that the study area is considered an excursion area where tourists come from areas such as Diani or Mombasa for day trips and return to their hotels. Overnight stays in the study area are very rare.

Lastly, 96 (33.3%) respondents disagreed with the statement that the presence of the park and reserve has increased social evils like alcoholism and crime, 72 (25.0%) strongly disagreed, 75(25.0%) neither agreed nor disagreed, 24 (8.3%) agreed and 24 (8.3%) strongly agreed. This implies that majority of the respondents disagreed that the KMMPR have increased social evils (Table 4.6), and this could be attributed to the fact that there are neither overnight stays in the study area nor frequent close interactions between local people and tourists.

Table 4.6 Respondents opinion on Impacts of KMMPR and associated tourism impacts

Perceived Socio –	Strongly	Disagree	Neither	Agree	Strongly
Economic tourism	Disagree		agree nor		Agree
Benefits from initiated			disagree		
projects	0.7	0.4	0.7	0.4	0.4
	%	%	%	%	%
Created employment opportunities	16.7	4.2	16.7	20.8	41.7
Raised standards of living	4.2	16.7	16.7	37.5	25.0
Facilitated donations and grants	12.5	12.5	37.5	29.2	8.3
Created opportunity for business	4.2	0	20.8	45.8	29.2
investment					
Improved quality of	0	20.8	12.5	37.5	29.2
life Improved social	4.2	4.2	16.7	41.7	33.3
amenities like schools, hospitals					
Raised cost of living	4.2	8.3	8.3	58.3	20.8
Increased leakage	4.2	20.8	45.8	20.8	8.3
Accelerated School drop outs	29.2	25.0	20.8	12.5	12.5
Led to Overcrowding	33.3	16.5	37.5	12.5	0
Led to social evils like alcoholism and crime	25.0	33.3	25.0	8.3	8.3

Source: Research Data (2015)

4.5 Community participation and its impact on respondents' perception of socio-economic benefits of tourism

4.5.1 Respondents involvement in tourism

Respondents' opinion on how best they should be involved in tourism revealed that 132 (45.8%) desired to own tourism related business, 108 (37.5%) wanted to have access to social services, 24 (8.3%) wanted to be employed by a tourism business and 24 (15.0%) wanted to get cash benefits

or donations from tourism (Table 4.7). This indicates that most respondents would like to own tourism related businesses that can in the long run enhance tourism in the study area and Kenya.

Table 4.7: Respondents' opinion on involvement in tourism

Responses	Frequency	Percent
Own tourism related business	132	45.8
Employed by tourism	24	8.3
Cash benefits or donations	24	8.3
Access to social services	108	37.5
Total	288	100.0

Source: Research Data (2015)

4.5.2 Factors hindering respondents' participation in tourism

More than half of the respondents (54.2%) reported that lack of money hindered their participation in tourism, 60 (20.8%) reported lacking information, 24 (8.3%) had no interest, 24 (8.3%) lacked the time and 24 (8.3%) cited religion among other factors (Table 4.8). This implies that there are various reasons which hindered local residents from fully participating in the tourism in the study area, although lack of money was the most significant.

Table 4.8 Factors hindering respondents from participating in tourism

Responses	Frequency	Percent
Lack of interest	24	8.3
Lack of information	60	20.8
Lack of money	156	54.2
Lack of time	24	8.3
Others	24	8.3
Total	288	100.0

Source: Research Data (2015)

4.5.3 Respondents involvement in decision making

Majority of the respondents (70.8%) agreed that they are involved in decision making while 29.2% disagreed with the statement (Table 4.9). This implies that most of the respondents are involved in decision making with regard to tourism which is a positive move to ensuring the sustainability in the study area as well as Kenya as whole.

Table 4.9: Involvement in decision making

Responses	Frequency	Percent
Yes	204	70.8
No	84	29.2
Total	288	100.0

Source: Research Data (2015)

4.5.4 Ways in which respondents are involved in decision making

Out of the 204 respondents who indicated they are involved in decision making, 93 (45.8%) alluded to participating through attendance of meetings that make decisions concerning tourism development, 59 (29.2%) reported to participating in other activities related to tourism development, 26 (12.5%) stated they were involved in writing proposals and reports on tourism development and 26 (12.5%) alluded to being actively involved through owning tourism related business (Table 4.10). All these activities enhance local support for tourism.

Table 4.10: How respondents are involved decision making

Responses	Frequency	Percent	
Other activities	59	29.2	
Attending meetings	93	45.8	
Written proposal and reports	26	12.5	
Owning tourism business	26	12.5	
Total	204	100.0	

Source: Research Data (2015)

4.6 Respondents opinion on the role of the Government in promoting tourism and associated benefits

A total of 45.8% of the respondents agreed that the government has enacted rules and regulations to address challenges facing the park to avert losses to the economy, 45.8% strongly agreed, 29.2% neither agreed nor disagreed, 8.3% disagreed and only 4.2% strongly disagreed. This implies that majority of respondents supported the statement on regulations and rules put in place to avert losses to the economy. Most respondents (66.7%) further agreed that the government facilitates stakeholder support for improved management and sustained utilization of marine resources, 16.7% neither agreed nor disagreed, 8.3% strongly agreed and 8.3% disagreed with the statement (Table 4.11). This implies that the government facilitates stakeholder support for the management and sustainable utilization of the park and reserve.

Half of the respondents (50%) agreed that the government protects biological diversity in protected areas, 20.8% strongly agreed, 20.8% neither agreed nor disagreed, 4.2% disagreed while 4.2% strongly disagreed with the statement (Table 4.11). This shows that most of the respondents were aware of the government's key role and commitment in protecting biological diversity in protected areas including marine parks and reserves. On statement that the government has provided facilities and supported the establishment of community based tourism projects, 62.5% agreed with the statement, 16.7% strongly agreed, 12.5% neither agreed nor disagreed, (4.2% disagreed and 4.2% strongly disagreed with the statement (Table 4.11). This indicates that the government has provided facilities and supported the establishment of community based tourism projects for the benefit of local people and the economy at large.

Most of the respondents (62.5%) neither agreed nor disagreed with the statement that the government has facilitated and supported the establishment of partnership in tourism ventures between local communities, private businesses and conservation agencies in areas adjacent to KMMNPR, 20.8% disagreed, 12.5% agreed while 4.2%) strongly disagreed with the statement (Table 4.11). This implies that the government has neither facilitated nor supported the establishment of partnerships in tourism ventures in the study area.

Table 4.11 Respondents opinion on role of the Government in promoting tourism and associated benefits

and associated beliefits					
Influence of	Strongly	Disagree	Neither agree	Agree	Strongly
Government on	Disagree		nor disagree		Agree
perceived socio-	0/	0/	0/	0/	0/
economic tourism	%	%	%	%	%
benefits.					
Put in place Acts and	4.2	8.3	29.2	45.8	45.8
rules on addressing					
challenges facing					
tourism sector to avoid					
losses to the economy					
Enhance stakeholder	0	8.3	16.7	66.7	8.3
support for improved					
management and					
sustained utilization of					
marine resources					
Promotes protection of	4.2	4.2	20.8	50.0	20.8
biological diversity					
Promotes	4.2	4.2	12.5	62.5	16.7
establishment of					
community based					
tourism projects					
Promotes	4.2	20.8	62.5	12.5	0
establishment of					
partnerships to enhance					
tourism ventures					
	-				

Source: Research Data (2015)

4.7 Pearson Correlation Coefficient Results

The Pearson Correlation Coefficient (Rs) test was used to analyze and establish the degree of relationships between dependent and independent variables. The dependent variable was perceived socio-economic tourism benefits accrued while the independent variables were; initiated projects, demographic characteristics, government policy and participation levels of individuals within the community. Results of correlation coefficients were significant among all independent variables among them initiated tourism projects, demographic characteristics, government policy, participation levels of individuals within the community and perceived socio-economic tourism benefits at p < 0.01 (2-tailed). This indicates that the foregoing variables have a positive effect on perceived socio-economic tourism benefits except overcrowding which had negative/inverse relationship. Table 4.12 shows results of the correlation matrix analysis.

Table 4.12: Determinants of perceived socio economic tourism benefits

Determinants of perceived socio economic tourism	Perceived Socio ecor			
benefits among the locals	benefits			
	Pearson correlation coefficient	Significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)		
Created employment opportunity	0.378*	0.000		
Improved social amenities e.g. schools, hospitals	0.179*	0.000		
Raised cost of living	0.204*	0.000		
School drop out	0.227*	0.000		
Overcrowding	-0.139	0.000		
Put in place regulations to address challenges to avoid losses to the economy	0.401*	0.000		
Stakeholder support for improved management and sustained utilization of marine resources	0.209*	0.000		
Facilitate and support establishment of partnership tourism ventures between communities, private business and conservation agencies inside or adjacent to protected areas	0.238*	0.000		
Involvement in tourism	0.150*	0.000		
What hinders you from participation in tourism	0.213*	0.000		

NB: * Represents variable that are significant

Source: Research Data (2015)

4.8 Cronbach's Alpha

The 37 items used in the questionnaire gave Cronbach's Alpha coefficient of 0.854 as shown in appendix 2 which is above 0.70. Grouping of these items are based on independent variable it measure; demographic characteristics 0.807, initiated projects 0.810, government policy 0.901 and participation level 0.899. Reliability analysis examines the homogeneity or cohesion of the items that comprise each scale of independent variables and can predict the dependent variable. Alpha coefficients reflect the average correlation among the items that constitute a scale. Ideally, alphas should be between .70 and .90. Low alphas indicate poor internal consistency of a scale, because the items that make up the scale are poorly related to each other. This can be achieved through SPSS by click on Analyze => Scale => Reliability Analysis.

4.9 Results on Means and Standard Deviation

Results on respondents' views on the statement on whether expansion of projects reduces size and revenue revealed the highest mean of 4.00 and standard deviation of 0.818. The rest of the mean results ranged between 2.083 and 3.833 with Standard deviations of 0.998 to 0.899 (Table 4.13). This indicates that initiated projects, demographics characteristics, government policy and participation level play an important role in determining economic tourism benefits accruing to local people living adjacent to KMMPR. However, on the statement that establishment of partnership tourism ventures accordingly the Mean was the lowest at 2.083 with Standard deviation of 0.998. This implies that establishment of partnership tourism ventures are not realistic and therefore not achievable. This is indicated in table 4.16 below.

Table 4.13: Mean and standard Deviation of determinants of perceived socioeconomic benefits

	Mean	Std. Deviation
Create employment opportunity	2.88	0.882
Raised cost of living	2.46	0.817
Expansion of projects reduce size and revenue	4.00	0.818
Monetary term gained	3.83	0.988
involved in tourism	3.08	0.955
Establishment of partnership tourism ventures	2.083	0.998

Source: Research Data (2015)

4.10 Regression Analysis Results

Testing of research hypothesis and multiple regression analysis was done. Results of regressing the three independent variables against tourism development are given in tables 4.14, 4.15 and 4.16 below.

Table 4.14: Model Summary of determinants of perceived socio economic tourism benefits among the locals

			Adjusted R	
Model	R	R Square	Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.704 ^a	.495	.477	.80099

a. Predictors: (Constant), demographic characteristics, projects initiated, level of participation of the community and government policy.

Source: Research Data (2015)

Table 4.15: ONE WAY ANOVA RESULTS

Mod	lel	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regressio	174.283	4	17.428	27.165	.000 ^a
	n					
	Residual	182.328	284	.642		
	Total	352.000	288			

a. Predictors: (Constant), demographic characteristics, projects initiated, level of participation of the community and government policy.

b. Dependent Variable: Monetary benefits gained

Source: Research Data (2015)

Table 4.16: Coefficients^a of determinants of perceived socio-economic tourism Benefits

	Deficites					
				Standardiz		
				ed		
		Unstandard	dized	Coefficient		
		Coefficients s		S		
Mode	el	В	Std. Error	Beta	Т	Sig.
1	(Constant)	-1.549*	.539		-2.871	.004
	Demographic characteristics	371*	.063	411	-5.932	.000
	Projects initiated	.232*	.040	.307	5.783	.000
	Participation level	.167*	.042	.209	3.949	.000
	Government policy	.709*	.126	.440	5.631	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Monetary terms gained

Source: Research Data (2015)

NB: * Represents variable that are significant

Statistical significance where p=0.000 and lower than 0.05, where level of significance (0.05), it shows that there is a direct association between determinants of perceived socio-economic tourism benefits among the locals. Since R=0.704 and $R^2=49.5\%$, it implies that 49.5% of

variations in dependent variable is explained jointly by variations in independent variable. This indicates a moderately high prediction power hence model is good for estimation. The residue 50.5% of variations is due to other factors including measurement errors.

ANOVA results (see table 4.15) further showed that the F value of 27.165 is significant at .0001 levels which implies that results of the four independent variables that were entered into the regression model show R=0.704 as the correlation value of the three independent variables regressed against the dependent variable after all the inter correlations among the four independent variables were taken into account.

The regression equation used was:

$$y = a + b_1x_1 + b_2x_2 + b_3x_3 + b_4x_4$$

where;

y = Perceived socio economic tourism benefits accrued,

a = intercept

 x_1 = Demographic characteristics

 x_2 = Projects initiated

 x_3 = Participation level

 x_4 = Government policy

$$Y = -1.549 - 0.411x_1 + 0.307x_2 + 0.209x_3 + 0.440x_4$$

Average variance of demographic characteristics 0.818, initiated projects is 0.892, participation 0.955 and government policy 0.998.

Based on the above, it was observed that:

$$Y = -1.549 - 0.336x_1 + 0.274x_2 + 0.1995x_3 + 0.439x_4$$

This shows that for every unit increase in demographic characteristics (x_1) , perceived socio economic benefits accrued (Y) will be decreased by 0.336 when the other variables are held constant. Also initiated projects (x_2) will increase perceived socio economic tourism benefits accrued (Y) by 0.274 while Participation level (x_3) and government policy (x_4) will increase perceived socio economic tourism benefits accrued (Y) by 0.1995 and 0.439 respectively.

4.11 Qualitative Analysis Results

On the statement whether respondents thought perceived tourism benefits accrued were worth the sacrifice that came with tourism development, 62.5% of the population stated it was worth the sacrifice, while 29.2% indicated that it was not worth the sacrifice since tourists are from diverse cultures and hence they in most cases negatively influence the younger generations behavior, the remaining 8.3% were not sure as to wether or not the benefits were worth the sacrifice. To counter the conflict between the community and the management over resources from the park, respondents gave the following suggestions; 8% suggested that the area gazetted as park should be reduced so that there more fishing grounds closer to the breeding grounds, 40% said that adequate information should be provided to the community on operations of the marine park so that there is better understanding among the two parties and 52% of local residents said that they should be involved in making decisions pertaining to the operations of the marine protected area.

With regards to implementation of articulated sectoral development policy strategies and plans of action by the central and county governments, respondents gave the following suggestions; 10% stated that roads leading to the marine parks should be tarmarked, 2% said foreign investors in the tourism sector should be encouraged to invest on modern accommodation facilities and other infrastructure and 78% said that the community should be empowered economically using the development fund.

The following suggestions were given on the issue of how tourism development can be improved to help the local communities: 28% said that all the stakeholders should be involved in tourism development, 6% said that the beach should be clean, a further 18% said that security in the

study area should be improved,14% said equal distribution of benefits from Marine Park to local communities should be looked into, 8% said that a tourism officer from the ministry should be assigned in the area to oversee tourism operations and 26% said that by encouraging overnight stays by tourists in the area there would be prolonged benefits from the tourists.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the discussion on findings of the study. The previous four chapters provided the premise of this study which investigated the determinants of perceived socio economic tourism benefits accruing to the local community living adjacent to Kisite Mpunguti Marine Park and Reserve. This chapter is organized in three sections: discussion, conclusions and recommendations

5.1 Discussion

5.1.1 Respondents' demographic characteristics and their effect on perceived socioeconomic tourism benefits

Results showed that the community living adjacent to Kisite Mpunguti Marine Park and Reserve consists mainly of young and energetic men aged between 18 – 28 years who are actively involved in tourism activities. The cultural beliefs of the coastal people are that women are not supposed to work, and they are supposed to stay at home since their husbands provide for the family. This could be the reason why there is a small percentage of women involved in tourism compared to men. The small percentage of women is represented by women who have come from other areas to work in tourism enterprises, and hence they are not permanent residents in the area. This could be explained by the fact that the indigenous community was still conservative in nature. The other reason could be the nature of work that the community engages in. For instance the fact that most respondents were boat operators and fishermen may explain why the study sample was mainly, composed of men, since in most cases these two jobs are done by men. However, in other occupations like operation of food kiosks and restaurants, both men and women were involved in their operation. These results concur with those of Masudur (2010) who contends that most of the core employees in the tourism industry are male, while other jobs like cleaning, washing, serving and receptionist are traditionally associated with females.

In terms of level of education, most of the respondents had atleast attained secondary education, which implies that a majority of the respondents are literate, and were therefore aware of some of

the determinants of socio – economic tourism benefits, and hence could give a clear picture of the state of things in the area. As such they were able to identify and describe some of the socio-economic benefits accruing from the two marine protected areas such as creation of employment opportunities, creation of opportunities for business, improved standards of living and access to social amenities such as hospitals and schools and hence support for tourism development. The results concur with those of Torn *et al.* (2008) whereby the respondents with intermediate or higher education level supported nature conservation and tourism development.

With regards to length of stay in the area most respondents indicated that they had lived in the area for over 20 years, a period long enough for them to make a good decision of whether or not they have benefited from the existence of the marine park and reserve. With regard to distance of residence from the marine park, results indicated that the closer one lives to the park, the more likely they are to benefit and the further away they are from the protected area the less benefits they will get. This is because the closer one is to the protected area the more contact they have with tourists through work. The findings also concur with those of Torn *et al.* (2008) who indicated that support for nature conservation and tourism development is in most cases by respondents with more contact with tourists than those with minimal or no contact with them.

About half of the respondents agreed that expansion of some projects in the community like the locally managed marine area reduces revenue for the park, since this would lead to competition due to the fact that it's the community that takes the tourists to the park. This change can easily divert them to the locally managed marine area. This would mean that the marine park would lose the revenue which helps it in managing the park and reserve. The other half of the population was of the view that this would earn them extra revenue and therefore would not affect the revenue accruing from the park. Respondents living adjacent to the marine park disagreed to the fact that they are not compensated for opportunity cost. This could be as a result of different business opportunities and jobs that offer them alternative livelihoods. They also indicated that there was need for rural based education so that there is reduced conflict between the park management and the community.

5.1.2 Impact of tourism projects on perceived socio-economic tourism benefit

Majority of the respondents were aware of the existence of different community based projects and the benefits accruing from them, and they were also of the opinion that the benefits were equally distributed among them. This could be explained by the fact that direct and indirect employment opportunities have been created and the monetary gains from such projects such as jobs are above average. Other indicators of equal distribution of benefits were improved quality of life, raised standards of living, created opportunity for business investment and finally improvement in social amenities like schools and hospitals. These results are contrary to those of Masudur (2010) who stated that the development of tourism brings economic benefits to a local community in the form of employment opportunities, increased income, and development of small and medium size enterprises although the benefits are unevenly distributed among local and non local people. The most likely reason could be the fact that in the study area there are few investments by foreigners which means less leakages. Large scale investment by foreigners means that they will employ people from their countries in managerial positions leaving the low paying jobs to locals, and hence the perceptions.

On the contrary, respondents however indicated that the existence of the different tourist activities in the study area has raised the standards of living of the local community since most commodities including food and non food products are very expensive as compared to other areas that are not engaged in tourism. Despite this, a small proportion of the community indicated that most restaurants are owned and managed by outsiders and not indigenous people. Hence a considerable amount of money leaks out. Another proportion of respondents disagreed and indicated that as long as they employ a good number of indigenous community members, it is good for them since they are not able to open up their own restaurants due to the huge capital requirement.

A study by Masudur (2010) in Cox's Bazaar in Bangladesh on socio-economic impacts of tourism revealed that most tourism employees are unskilled and semi-skilled. Consequently, lack of skilled labour in tourist destinations forces local or foreign entrepreneurs to recruit trained and skilled employees from abroad who receive more financial benefits and get higher positions. The low status and low wage jobs are generally left for the local communities. This situation creates

barriers to local community participation, creates conflict between local and foreign employees, and puts pressure on local community social services. This has therefore been a disincentive to local community participation in tourism development in the study area.

Majority of the respondents disagreed with the statements that tourism has led to school drop out, overcrowding and social evils like prostitution, alcoholism and crime. When compared to other tourists areas along the coastline such as Mtwapa, Diani and Malindi where young men and women leave school to engage in tourism activities as well as migration of men and women from upcountry to engage in prostitution, drugs and crime, the community bordering KMMPR is not affected by these factors and vices. This can be explained by the fact that there are no overnight stays in the area by tourists, since the area is considered as an excursion destination only. This is contrary to a study by Edward (2013) who admitted that tourism in Mombasa has brought about sex tourism and crime but if well planned the tourism evils could be controlled.

5.1.3 Effect of community participation on perceived socio- economic tourism benefits

Majority of the respondents were willing to own tourism related business since this was viewed as a means one would get direct benefits, as opposed to being employed, since the benefits from the later are less. The rest of the respondents preferred to have access to social services like schools and hospitals which are very basic services. Respondents further indicated that there are a number of reasons which hinder individuals in the community from participating fully in the tourism sector. Among the reasons listed is lack of money to start their own businesses, and inadequate information on how they could be involved in tourism.

Most of the respondents stated that they are involved in decision making with regard to tourism in the study area mainly through meetings. These results differ with those of Masudur (2010) which indicated that government policy makers do not consult with local people while formulating policies, and generally follow a closed-door approach in making decisions and do not seek suggestions from local community. Results showed that even during the implementation phases of tourism projects and programmes, local people are hardly consulted to express their opinions or give suggestions due to lack of interest by local government officials in them. Consequently, local people feel that they are totally excluded from tourism and the development

process which are being developed for them. This finding is consistent with that of Feighery (2008) who reports that in China local communities are more often negated and excluded from the planning process. For instance, the local people of Cox's Bazar believe that this exclusion is one of the main reasons for not getting proper benefits. This study has further indicated that in many cases local people find it difficult to start their business due to lack of capital and entrepreneurial skills.

Respondents contended that lack of political empowerment was a major constraint to ensuring that proper benefits from tourism development reached most of the local people, and majority of the people had the desire to get more benefits like non-locals and tourists who get most of the benefits. In spite of such desire they are not very aggressive to get more benefits from tourism development since unlike the non-locals have the required capital, skills and knowledge to get jobs or to establish their business, they have none of these. However, they believe that without contributions from non-local residents development of tourism in the study area would not take place. They were also hopeful that in future they would get more benefits from tourism like local residents in Bangladesh. The government of Bangladesh and non-local entrepreneurs took the initiative and appropriate measures to spread more benefits to local communities.

5.1.4 Effect of government policy on perceived socio- economic tourism benefits

Majority of the respondents indicated that the government has put in place legal instruments like Acts and other appropriate measures to address challenges like illegal fishing to minimize losses to the economy. They also contended that the government through KWS has provided stakeholder support for improved management and sustainable utilization of marine resources and ecosystems by through different means like dialogues, conservation education and capacity building through training. Majority of the respondents indicated that the government has protected biological diversity which has led to sustained fish stocks and the, continued availability of fish to fishermen. In areas where the marine area is not protected for instance Diani - Chale marine reserve, there is destruction of fish breeding grounds and hence a significant reduction in fisheries resources. The government has also facilitated and supported the establishment of partnership tourism ventures between communities, private business and

conservation agencies inside or adjacent to the two protected areas through education, capacity building and marketing the tourism projects alongside the marine park.

Findings of a study conducted in Bangladesh by Masudur (2010) indicated that government policy makers believe that tourism can make a significant contribution by ensuring increased private and foreign investment, creating employment, reducing poverty and by promoting small and medium businesses. According to the study the government of Bangladesh formulates the policy to materialize the aforementioned through specific strategies among them involving more private sector interests to utilize tourism opportunities, phasing out the public sector investment step-by-step to facilitate private sector involvement, considering tourism as a separate and distinct industry, increasing fund allocation to build appropriate infrastructure, providing incentives for increased local and foreign investment, taking right steps to promote conservation of nature and tourist spots, considering special areas and islands for creation of modern amenities for foreign tourists, providing marketing facilities to promote small-scale businesses, assisting government for both public and private initiatives aiming professional skill building endeavors, establishing more accommodation and other tourist facilities for mid-income and low-income domestic tourists, and allocating adequate budget for activities targeting both domestic and foreign tourists. These policies, measures and incentives if adopted by the Government of Kenya and other stakeholders including marine protected area staff can go a long way in promoting tourism, local development and community welfare in the study area.

Statistical results on relationship between perceived socio - economic tourism benefits accrued and initiated projects, government policy and participation levels of individuals within the community in tourism showed that all the correlations were positive among all the variables tested at p < 0.01 (2-tailed). This implies that respondents and the local community in general have a positive attitude towards tourism and its perceived socio economic benefits and effects except overcrowding which had negative or inverse relationship.

5.2 Conclusion

The local community has benefited from the existence of the KMMPR through employment, improved standards of living and improved access to social amenities like schools and hospitals. Despite this, there are also negative impacts that were identified key among them increased cost of living due to increased cost of commodities and also the cost of land. In spite of these negative impacts the local community supports the establishment of the MPA because the costs are outweighed by the benefits.

Compensating the local community for foregoing their traditional livelihood which encompassed fishing through creating employment opportunities, empowering the local community financially to start their own businesses and also improving fish catch through protection of breeding grounds has made the communities view tourism in the marine protected area to have a positive effect, since they feel they have not lost by foregoing their livelihood but instead have benefitted from the establishment of the MPA.

The government through Kenya Wildlife Service has formulated policies and enacted laws to curb illegal activities within the park and reserve as a way of protecting the biodiversity in the study area. The government has also involved different stakeholders in the day to day operations of the two marine protected areas as a way of securing local support for the improved management and sustained utilization of marine resources.

5.3 Recommendations

5.3.1 Policy and Management Recommendations

• There is need for KWS to educate the local people on sustainable management and conservation of the two marine protected areas and their biodiversity, as well as wise use of marine resources.. This public awareness can be enhanced through holding of public hearings, mounting posters in business areas and schools, seminars, workshops and introduction of classes in local schools that have tourism and conservation clubs and activities. Through awareness creation local people's appreciation for tourism will be

- enhanced thus making them view tourism as an important economic activity that can confer diverse benefits to the people, and reduces the possibility of resource use conflicts occurring.
- Involving the local communities in decision making will make them feel that they are part of the team and therefore they will fully support the existence of the MPA and this will reduce the conflicts between the management of the park and reserve and local community. This is important because the community will have a sense of ownership of any tourism projects and initiatives that are implemented.
- There is also the need to improve infrastructure by for instance tarmacking the roads leading to the marine parks, and encouraging foreign investors in the tourism sector to invest mostly in the accommodation sector so that they can encourage overnight stays. This will help increase circulation of money within the community for longer periods and also more employment opportunities, as opposed to the day trips.
- The government should make it easy for local community to access credit facilities and get cheaper loans as an incentive to encourage local people to start and own tourism related businesses hence reducing leakages. This can be enhanced if a tourism officer from the ministry is posted to the study area to oversee all tourism activities in the area.
- The government should also improve security in the study area to attract more investors and tourists.

5.3.2 Recommendations for Further Research

Further research should be undertaken to:

• Assess the influence of culture on perceived socio - economic benefits since the respondents did not come out clearly on whether the perceived tourism benefits are worth the sacrifice that comes with tourism development, such as extending friendliness and other inconveniences. Respondents exhibited a mixed signal with some acknowledging that although tourism destroys the cultural values of the community, it is allowed since it generates many benefits, while others opposed its development because of the vices associated with it, and in a way they did not want to be seen as doing something wrong and yet they get benefit from it.

• Assess if benefits derived from Kisite-Mpunguti Marine Park and Reserve and associated tourism have improved local people's welfare and development of the study area.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1: QUESTIONNAIRE

I am Stella M. Mwawaza, a Masters Degree student at Moi University undertaking a study titled "Determinants of Perceived Socio – Economic Tourism Benefits among Local people Living Adjacent To Kisite Mpunguti Marine Park and Reserve".

Kindly spare some time and respond to the questions given below. The information you give will be used only for academic purposes and will be treated with utmost confidentiality. There are no right or wrong answers.

Thank you.

Tick in the Appropriate box

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS

1. Gender:
(01) Male (02) Female (
2. Age :
(01) Below 18 years \bigcirc (02) $18 - 28$ \bigcirc (03) $29 - 39$ \bigcirc
(04) 40 - 50 years (05) Above 50
3. Level of Education:
(01) Never went to school (02) Primary (03) Secondary (
(04) College (05) University (
4. For how long have you lived in this area?
(01) Less than 10 years (02) 11-20 years (03) Over 20 years
5. How far do you live from KWS park head quarters in Shimoni?
(01) Less than 1 km \bigcirc (02) 1 km – 5km \bigcirc (03) 6 km – 10km \bigcirc
(04) 11 km – 15 km (05) More than 16km (
6. What is your occupation?
(01) Fisherman (02) Boat operator/owner (03) Restaurant owner (
(04) Food kiosk operator (05) KWS employee
(06)Other Specify)

7. Indicate the extent of agreement with the following statements by ticking the appropriate box. The increase in population in areas adjacent to the park has affected access to and distribution of benefits accruing from Kisite Mpunguti marine park and Reserve.

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neither agree nor disagree (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
(01) Human population increase has reduced the benefits accruing from the park and reserve.					
(02) Over expansion of tourism project in areas adjacent to the park and reserve has reduced the size and amount of revenue received from the park and reserve.					
(03) Lack of awareness raising programmes on the use of marine resources, affects the local economy.					
(04) The community living adjacent to the park					

and reserve is not compensated for costs incurred following establishment of the park and reserve.						
8. In your opinion what opark and reserve?				•		
SECTION B: TOURIS	M PROJECTS, A					
9. a) Have any tourism community in this area.	projects and activi	ities been initi	ated in areas	inhabited by	the local	
(01) Yes (02) b) If yes, which project	2) Don't know ets and activities ha	`	,			
10. a) Are there any ber Park and Reserve? (01) Yes (02)	nefits that you ge 2) Not sure	t from projec		y Kisite Mp	 unguti Ma	arine
b) If yes, are the beneathis area?		,		local comn	nunity livii	ng in
(01) Yes	(02)	No	\bigcirc			
11. Approximately how i	much in monetary	terms do you	gain from to	urism in a m	onth (give	your

answer in Kenyan shillings.)?

(01) Below 5,000	\bigcirc	(02) 5001 - 1	0,000	\bigcirc	(03)10,0	01–15,00	$00 \subset$	\supset	(04) A	Above
15,000	\bigcirc									
12. a) Do you think th	ne tour	ism benefits th	at accı	ue to y	ou wortl	n the sac	rifice	tha	t come	s with
tourism development	such as	extending frie	endline	ss and	other inc	onvenier	nces?			
(01) Yes \bigcirc		(02)	No	\bigcirc						
b) If no, state the i	reason	(s)								

13. Indicate the extent of agreement with the following statements by ticking in the appropriate box. The establishment of Kisite Mpunguti Marine Park and Reserve has:-

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neither agree nor disagree (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
(01)Created Employment opportunities					
(02) Raised standards of living					
_					
(03)Facilitated donations and grants					
(04) Created opportunity for business and investment.					
(05) Improved Quality of life					
(06) Improved Social amenities like schools, hospitals					

12. Indicate the extent of agreement with the following statements by ticking in the appropriate box. Kisite Mpunguti Marine Park and Reserve has:-

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neither agree nor disagree (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
(01)Raised the cost of living					
(02) Increased leakages					
(03) Accelerated School drop outs					
(04)Led to overcrowding					

(05) Led to Social			
evils like to			
alcoholism and			
crime.			

SECTION C : LOCAL COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN TOURISM WITHIN AND AROUND KISITE MPUNGUTI MARINE PARK AND RESERVE

13. In your opinion how best would	you be involved in tourism in this are	a?
(01) Own a tourism related business	(02) Be employed by a tourism b	ousiness 🔘
(03) Get cash benefits / donations	(04) Have access to tourism su	apported social projects
like Schools, clinics, and water proj	ects 🔾	
(05) Others (specify)		
14. What hinders you from fully part	icipating in tourism in this area?	
(01) Lack of interest	(02) Lack of required information	
(03) Lack of money	(04) Lack of time	\bigcirc
(05)Other(Specify)		
15. Are you involved in decision ma	king on tourism development in this a	rea?
(01) Yes	(02) No	
16. If yes how would you like to be	involved in decision making in touri	sm development in this
area?		
(01) Attending meetings	(02) Writing proposals and reports	s \bigcirc
(03) Owning a tourism business	(04) other (specify)	
17. How can tourism developm	nent be improved to help local	communities in this
area		

SECTION D: GOVERNMENT POLICY

18. Show the extent of agreement with the following statements by ticking in the appropriate box. The government has:-

box. The government has:-					
	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neither agree nor disagree (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
(01)Put in place Acts, rules and regulations on addressing challenges facing the parks & reserve to avert losses to the economy					
(02) Put in place measures to promote stakeholder support for improved management and sustained Utilization of fishing resources in the park and reserve.					
(03) Enhanced protection of biological diversity in areas within the network of marine protected areas					
(04) Facilitated and supported the establishment of					

community based	
tourism projects	
and activities.	
	_
(05) Facilitated &	
supported the	
establishment of	
partnership	
ventures between	
communities,	
private business &	
conservation	
agencies in areas	
adjacent the Park	
19. What can the central and county governments do to ensure the implementation of	
articulated sectoral development policies, strategies and plans of action, in the tourism secto	r is
achieved to stimulate and promote of private investment activities in the coastal areas of Ke	nya.

APPENDIX 2: CRONBACH ALPHA COEFFICIENT OF RELIABILITY TEST

Scale: ALL VARIABLES

Case Processing Summary

T	-	N	%
Cases	Valid	288	100.0
	Excludeda	0	.0
	Total	288	100.0

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's	_
Alpha	No of Items
0.854	37