

An Evaluation of Critical Factors To Successful Community-Based Tourism in Kenya

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Abstract : Tourism has become increasingly important as a source of revenue and employment in Kenya. This study uses the case studies of Kimana Wildlife Sanctuary and Mwaluganje Elephant Sanctuary to analyze the growing importance of local communities' involvement in the development of tourism. Usually, tourism development without the involvement of the local people results in human-tourism conflicts. Using data collected from the above mentioned sanctuaries, this paper analyzes how collaboration can resolve or even avoid such conflicts. Factor analysis was used to determine the critical factors in community development of tourism in the two case studies. The findings revealed that success of local community development of tourism is affected by inclusion of key stakeholders, recognition of mutual benefits to be derived from the collaborative process, perception that decisions arrived at will be implemented and collaboration in formulation of aims and objectives.

Key Words : Community-based tourism, Kenya Wildlife Service, Kimana Wildlife Sanctuary, Mwaluganje Elephant Sanctuary, local community, Kenya, Africa

Introduction

In many insular and less-developed regions, tourism has been developed and controlled by large multinational corporations with little consultation from the local communities and lack of regard for local socio-cultural and economic conditions (Ashley, 1995; Cuplan, 1987; Dieke, 1991; Finn, 1996; Reid, 1999, Richards & Hall, 2000; Simmons, 1994; Weaver, 1998). This has been done with little consultation with the local communities. Thus, the local people end up becoming the objects rather than the subjects of development (Jamal & Getz, 1995, 2000; Murphy, 1985; Reid, 1997; Reid & Dreunen, 1996). No sooner the tourists start trickling-in in big numbers, noticeable environmental degradation sets in as does the local residents' disenchantment. This is normally marked by ecological and social limits being reached which leads to replacement of easy coexistence by growth conflict or resentment (Reid, 1999). Further, the local economy's resource base becomes overtaxed. This results in resource competition as opposed to resource sharing (Jurowski et al., 1995; Reid, 1999; Simmons, 1994).

Resource competition in wildlife-based tourism destinations in Kenya has been exacerbated by the way protected areas (PAs) were established during the

pre-colonial period. Moreover, the post-colonial Government 'perfected' the colonial legacy (of establishment of PAs) which included non-existent consultation with local communities, large-scale land expropriations and the banning of traditional hunting in 1946, so that white hunters could attain a monopoly over the elimination of game animals threatening the expansion of plantation economy. Local subsistence hunters were branded as 'poachers' which occasionally lead to the punishment of the whole community (Olindo, 1991; Weaver, 1998). Citing a Brazilian example, Wallace (1991) reports that because local communities receive little or no income from tourism, the parks are encroached upon extensively by local people who see no other tangible benefits from PAs. In addition, the PAs are seen as an unwelcome obstruction to traditional land uses (Olindo, 1991; Wallace, 1991; Weaver, 1998). If well developed, however, community-based tourism has the power to mend these resentments through empowering the local people by generating employment opportunities thereby improving their incomes and developing their skills and institutions (Ashley, 1995; Bramwell & Sharman; Jamal & Getz, 1995, 2000; Olindo, 1991; Reed, 1997; Taylor, 1995; Wallace, 1991; Weaver, 1998). However, it should be noted that local communities must be actively involved in tourism projects from the initial planning stages and should eventually share the benefits and costs of the projects in their areas (Ashley, 1995; Naguran, 1999; Weaver, 1998). By focussing on community development, the local people will realize the importance of the PAs to their welfare and thus become more committed to bio-diversity conservation (Finn, 1996; Gill & William, 1994; Naguran, 1999; Reed, 1997, 1999; Richards & Hall, 2000; Weaver, 1998). On the same strength, if all attention is focused on bio-diversity conservation, the local people will feel that they are secondary to wild resources being preserved (Bramwell & Lane, 2000; Joppe, 1996; KWS, 1997; Reid, 1999; Taylor, 1995; Wallace, 1991).

Historical Development of Kenya's Protected Areas Network

The first game reserve in Kenya (Southern Game Reserve) was established in 1896 under the management of the National Park Trustee - NPT (IUCN, 1991; KWS, 1997). The NPT was strengthened by the National Parks Ordinance of 1945 which gave the trustees the authority and impetus to acquire lands for the establishment of national PAs. The post-independence Government further recognized the importance of PAs. This fact is qualified by the Government's statement in 1965 which stated that, 'the importance of wildlife to Kenya's future prosperity must be appreciated by everyone and National Parks and National Reserves must be protected and preserved' (IUCN, 1991). In 1991, Kenya Wildlife Service (KWS - a Government parastatal under the purview of the Ministry of Tourism and Wildlife Management) was formed to manage wildlife both within and outside the PAs.

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As noted earlier the establishment of the PAs in Kenya was marked by displacement of the indigenous people from their ancestral lands. Limited resource use, such as fuel collection and herding was permitted within the national reserves, but a ban remained in effect in national parks like Amboseli and Shimba Hills (Olindo, 1991; Reid et al., 1999). This resulted in local communities constantly clashing with the PAs authorities. As a way of expressing their dissatisfaction the Maasais adjacent to Amboseli National Park and the Ndigos neighboring Shimba Hills National Park, for instance, kept on spearing the wild animals. The Maasais claimed that the lions were killing their livestock while elephants were said to destroy farm crops by the Ndigo farmers. With the realization of the dangers the two aforementioned PAs were facing, KWS encouraged the establishment of small-scale, community-based projects to link bio-diversity conservation and community development through the use of tourism.

Towards this end, the Maasais around the Amboseli National Park were assisted to form group ranches in the early 1990s (Figure 1). The formation of these ranches was aimed at organizing the local community participation in wildlife-based tourism in order to derive benefits accruing from conservation activities (Olindo, 1991; Reid, 1998; Weaver, 1998). In the case of Shimba Hills National Park, the KWS in collaboration with the Eden Wildlife Trust, a private investor initiated the Mwaluganje Elephant Sanctuary project. The local community runs this project with constant assistance from the two founding bodies and other sponsors. Both projects are focused on the local people's daily problems and other issues related to the communities' history and culture. This marked the birth of community-based tourism in Kenya.

However, even with the creation of these community-based tourism projects the local people-wildlife conflicts continued especially in the Kimana area. Within the period 1995-2000, for instance, the local residents around Amboseli National Park killed a total of 29 "large mammals" (16 elephants, 9 lions and 4 buffaloes). The area around Shimba Hills National Park had only 6 elephants killed by the locals in the same period. Overall, this was a 16% increase and 63% decline of "large mammals" killed by the local people in Kimana and Shimba Hills areas respectively as compared to the period 1990-1995. The decline in the number of elephants killed in Shimba Hills area has been attributed to the creation of Mwaluganje Elephant Sanctuary (KWS, 1997). This community-based tourism project has positively changed the local residents' attitudes towards wildlife and conservation in general. The question that remains unanswered is why hasn't the creation of Kimana Wildlife Sanctuary had similar attitudinal changes for the local community around Amboseli National Park? This forms the central research question of the current study.

In-line with the above discourse, therefore, this study evaluates why

Mwaluganje Elephant Sanctuary has succeeded in achieving its original objective while Kimana Wildlife Sanctuary has not. In order to achieve this objective the study strives to answer the following 3 specific research questions: (i) what are the factors critical to successful community-based tourism (ii) why is there a difference between the success of the two sites and, (iii) how do the local residents differ in their opinions with regards to the identified factors? This research, however, is not intended to provide statistically accurate results, due to the small sample size but highlights some of the critical issues in the field of community-based tourism. Thus, it could be an important point of departure for future research on the current aspect of tourism.

Study Areas

Case Study 1 - Kimana Wildlife Sanctuary

Kimana Wildlife Sanctuary is within Kimana Group Ranch, one of the seven Maasai group ranches around Amboseli National Park (Figure 1). It was chosen as a case study based on its longstanding, broad community-based tourism with a particular emphasis on community development. Kimana Wildlife Sanctuary was established in 1990 and had expanded to 100,000 acres by 1995. In 1997, 253,000 visitors were recorded. U.S.-based tourists accounted for 61% of the total arrivals with the remaining coming from Europe (KWS, 1997). The project is a joint venture between the Maasai community, Mt. Kilimanjaro safaris and KWS. It is situated at about 75 kilometers on the North-eastern end of the Amboseli National Park. Despite occupying less than 1% of the Kimana Group Ranch, the Sanctuary covers several swamps which are very important areas in the Amboseli ecosystem. This area is considered a home for over 200 species of birds, making it one of the finest bird watching spots in Kenya. During the dry seasons many wild animals also converge to this area in search of water. Among such animals are the 'big five species', namely the elephant, lion, leopard, cheetah and the buffalo.

The Kimana Wildlife Sanctuary has emerged as a major source of income for the region, as supportive services have been established in access corridors adjacent to the sanctuary. Those relating to tourism include a women handcraft cooperative, which has grown from 8 to 63 members since its inception in 1993 (KWS, 1997). The sanctuary is also characterized by numerous Maasai cultural manyattas which employ a total of 17 permanent workers. Cumulatively, these projects involve 50 local families in activities related to tour guiding, accommodation, entertainment and sale of local artifacts. Further, the local community derives benefits from the project in other ways: a proportional percentage of land rentals, a 30% turnover, profit sharing from both the develop-

ment and operating companies plus an intake of 25% of the gate fees. This project demonstrates how a local community can get involved in tourism projects with shared decision-making responsibilities in the operating of the project.

Case Study II: Mwaluganje Elephant Sanctuary

Mwaluganje Elephant Sanctuary is located at about one hour drive North-west of the city of Mombasa (Figure 1). The Sanctuary, covering an area of 60,000 acres, was started in 1994 as a conservation area to create a corridor for elephant movement between Mwaluganje Forest Reserve to the North and Shimba Hills National Park to the South and as a way of conserving local cultures. It is a joint venture between private landowners, the KWS and a local natural history charity, the Eden Wildlife Trust. The KWS mobilized the local community to agree to vacate their lands (now designated as the sanctuary). By the time of its inception KWS had assisted the sanctuary to secure a total of Kenya shillings 1.5 million that would be shared among members after demarcation of land. The management encouraged the locals to retain their money in the form of shares in order to continue 'owning' the project. The number of shares and individual received was predetermined by the number of acres s/he surrendered.

Currently there are 33 full time employees paid from the project income. Their main duties are fence attendance, receiving visitors at the gate and the visitor's center and conducting guided tours within the Sanctuary. Guests mostly come from Germany (51%), Britain (20%), France (11%), Israel (8%), Scandinavian countries (4%) and locals (6%) from private safaris and organized groups particularly schools. In 1996 the Sanctuary signed a Memorandum of Understanding with the Travellers Beach Hotel (a 5-star beach hotel in the south coast) to be bringing visitors to the Sanctuary at least once per week.

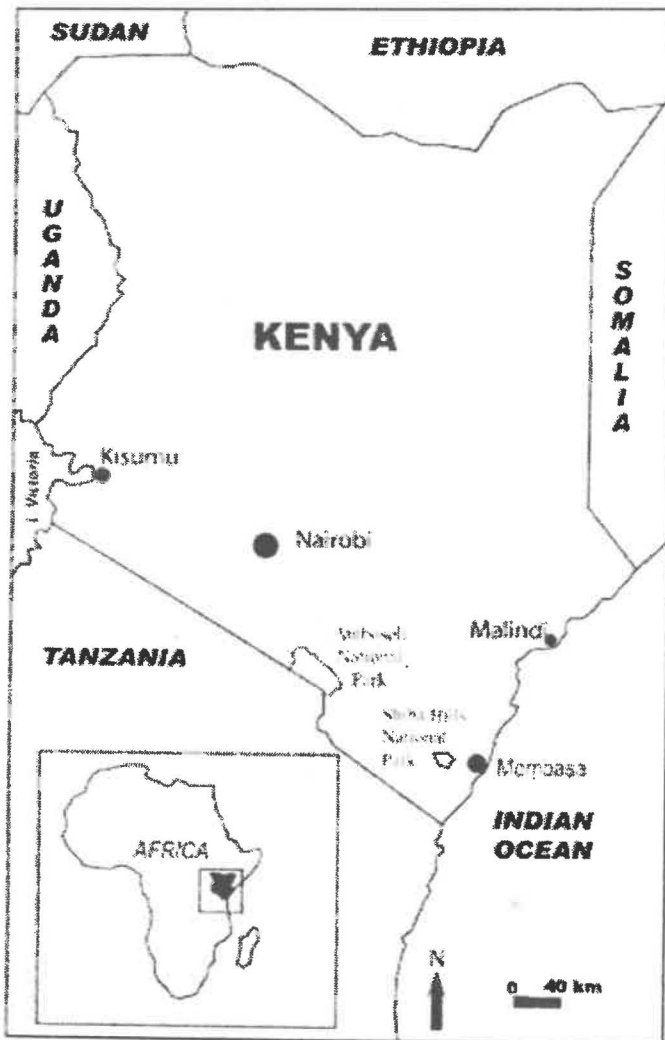
The Sanctuary is the home to a variety of big mammals. They include; elephants, leopards, zebra, bush-buck, water-buck, monkeys (colobus and sykes), warthogs, wild pigs, sable antelopes among others. There is also a high diversity of bird-life resulting from the varied habitats. The habitats change from savannah to semi-arid vegetation, turning to riverine forests along the streams. Cultural tourists will also not miss something to meet their interests. The Kayas, Mijikenda's sacred shrines, abound in the region with their fascinating histories can easily be sampled. On Mwaluganje hill, for instance, is kaya mtae which is a sacred Duruma settlement. Although not occupied, Duruma elders occasionally return to it for prayer and offer sacrifices to 'their God' in times of severe calamities.

The Trust manages the day-to-day operations of the Sanctuary. Within the Sanctuary there is an eco-lodge, The Travellers Mwaluganje Elephant Camp, which is partly owned by the locals. The local community owns 50% shares, 30% goes

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to the Trust and the remaining 20% to the Sanctuary's management. The local community derives benefits from a variety of other ways. These include: profit sharing from both the development and operating campsites, 30% of the gate fees, and 6% of the turnover and a proportional of land rentals. A part from this, KWS in collaboration with the Eden Wildlife Trust have constructed classrooms and a health center for the community. They have also organized educational trips to Tanzania and Zimbabwe for the local people.

Figure 1 : The Study Areas



Methodology

Sampling

Information presented in this study is based on survey interviews with the tourism stakeholders in the areas around Amboseli and Shimba Hills national parks. The respondents were divided into a priori groups. These groups were: general residents, business leaders, retirees and Government administrators. The interviews were done in the period May through July 2003. Snowball sampling procedures were employed in the two case studies. This method involved identifying a core subset of residents who are affected by the tourism projects and then asking them to nominate other stakeholders they considered to have relevant characteristics or information. These nominated stakeholders were then asked to nominate others who they thought had information important for the current study (For more details on this method of sampling see Finn, 1996). This referral methodology resulted to the identification of 103 respondents. The sample size, though relatively small by social science standards, represents a pragmatic compromise between level of precision and cost of data collection.

Questionnaire

The survey instrument used in this study comprised of some items suggested by Jamal & Getz (1995) and Naguran (1999). The nineteen survey items were developed with an intention to capture the six critical factors for community-based tourism development as proposed by these researchers (Table 1). The instrument consisted of two sections. The first section sought information on the respondents' demographic characteristics. These included; age, origin, level of education and gender. The majority of the respondents were male (73%). They had an average age of 37 years with 79% having some college or lower levels of education (For the composition of the respondents see Tables 5 and 8). The second section included 19 closed-style items and required respondents to rate their level of agreement with each item by indicating their response on a 5-Point Likert scale ranging from 'strongly disagree = 1' to 'strongly agree = 5'. In all instances the author interviewed the respondents orally. In both case studies, English and Kiswahili languages were used. The study notes were then transcribed based on taped interviews.

Table 1 : Survey Items^a

1.	We all benefit by working together in this project.
2.	The local community is an important stakeholder in tourism development.
3.	Collaboration between our community and the project managers boosts the overall performance of the project.
4.	In most cases decisions made were implemented.
5.	The project convenor was imposed on us.
6.	The project always achieved its objectives.
7.	We appreciate the work done by the convenor.
8.	Formulation of the aims and objectives is done without consulting with the local people.
9.	We do not have say in the implementation of what has been agreed upon.
10.	The initiation and facilitation of our participation in the tourism project is done by a legitimate convenor
11.	The convenor always explained to us why common decisions have not been implemented.
12.	The aims and objectives of the project reflected the needs of our community.
13.	The local residents have a meaningful voice in the organization and administration of tourism.
14.	Small-scale tourism projects are more beneficial to our community than the large-scale ones.
15.	There is mutual respect and shared learning as a result of our tourism project.
16.	All stakeholders are equally influential in the negotiations and decision-making.
17.	There is fairness in the distribution of the benefits and costs of tourism development in our community
18. ^b	We participate in tourism development in our region through this project.
19. ^b	We participate in environment conservation in our region through this project

^aWhat is your level of agreement with the following statements?

Scale: 1= Strongly Disagree; 2= Disagree; 3= Indifferent; 4=Agree; 5=Strongly Agree

^bItems omitted during the analysis

Data Analysis and Discussion

Data analyses were done by Factor Analysis, Reliability Analysis and Discriminant Analysis using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS/PC+). These analyses were conducted to examine dimensionality, internal homogeneity, and discriminant validity of the items respectively. Further, Hierarchical Cluster Analysis was used for identifying local people with similar views about the development of community-based tourism in the study areas. One-way ANOVA tests and t-tests were also undertaken to examine the statistically significant differences between the two sites and among groups of respondents on the study variables.

Factor Analysis

Since a similar battery had been found to have six distinct but correlated dimensions (Jamal & Getz, 1995; Naguran, 1999), a six-factor solution subjected to oblimin rotation using SPSS+ Varimax procedure was undertaken on the nineteen rating scales (Table 1). The factor loadings obtained suggested a slight variation in the clustering of some items relative to the prior grouping which also differed across the six categories not to mention the high loading on more than one-factor by many items. In general, the first Principal Component Analysis resulted in a six factor solution with a KMO of 0.7895 and explained 56.3% of total variance. Unfortunately, one factor was not very meaningful, consisting of two variables with low reliability (Cronbach alpha = 0.074). The existence of variables with low communalities (below 0.5) and factor loadings were also observed. These variables were analyzed for deletion, using the criteria put forth by Hair et al. (1995). Accordingly, variables 18 and 19 were omitted during the rest of the analysis (Table 1).

Further, these differences were sorted-out by a five-factor solution subjected to orthogonal rotation, SPSS+ Orthogonal, to facilitate any possible correlation among the categories. This procedure produced a factor pattern which was remarkably consistent across the combined sample and easy to interpret as it was a relatively 'pure' solution (i.e. each variable heavily loaded on only one factor). The resulting factor solution presented: Respondents/variables ratio = 103/17 = 6.06; 65% total variance explained; KMO = 0.7025; Bartlett Test of Sphericity = 1168.0083 (sig. = 0.0000); Generally low anti-image (negative partial) correlation (only 7.52% > 0.2); MSA all > 0.675; Reproduced Correlation Matrix: 39% of residuals with absolute values > 0.05; Correlation Matrix with 23.7% correlation > 0.3 and Communalities: all > 0.5. All factors had at least one item with factor loading greater than 0.500 (Table 2). In addition, the solution had Cronbach-alpha Coefficients ranging from 0.6304 to 0.8013 and an overall scale reliability of 0.719 which exceeds Nunnally's (1978) threshold of 0.7. In general, all the five factors were found to be highly reliable and valid.

These values of reliability coefficient, alpha, by and large indicate high internal consistency among items testing a similar factor within the battery used. These preliminary analyses are omitted here for brevity of space.

As shown in Table 2 the factors emerged in a fairly consistent and easily interpretable manner. Thus, it was easier to designate different survey items into five factors. These factors were Inclusion of stakeholders, Recognition of individual and mutual benefits, Perception that decisions arrived at will be implemented, Appointment of legitimate convenor and Formulation of aims and objectives. Table 2 shows that the predominant factor was Factor 1, Inclusion of

stakeholders. It deals with the local community's involvement in the project's daily affairs.

Table 2 : The Resultant Factorsa

Factor Name	Factor Loading ^b	Eigenvalue	% of Variance Explained	Cumulative %
<i>Factor 1: Inclusion of stakeholders</i>	0.7010	5.02	35	35
1.	0.6908			
2.	0.5471			
13.	0.7116			
16.	0.6025			
<i>Factor 2: Recognition of individual and mutual benefits</i>	0.7629	4.09	11	46
3.	0.8003			
14.	0.7139			
15.	0.7000			
17.	0.7211			
<i>Factor 3: Perception that decisions arrived at will be implemented</i>	0.6871	2.74	8	54
4.	0.6921			
9.	0.6000			
11.	0.6480			
<i>Factor 4: Appointment of legitimate convenor</i>	0.6304	1.26	6	60
5.	0.5142			
7.	0.6005			
10.	0.5290			
<i>Factor 5: Formulation of aims and objectives</i>	0.8013	1.04	5	65
6.	0.7946			
8.	0.8002			
12.	0.7808			

^aFactors for the combined sample (Survey items are as in Table 1).

^bIn bold are Cronbach alpha while the rest are Factor Loadings. Absolute loadings of less than 0.4 have been ommitted.

The second factor, Recognition of individual and mutual benefits included variables which related to importance of stakeholders working together to achieve the project's objectives, as well as individual and community goals. The third Factor, Perception that decisions arrived at will be implemented, related to the implementation of the decisions arrived at. The fourth factor, Appointment of legitimate convenor, included variables that described the role(s) played by the convenor. The last factor, Formulation of aims and objectives, was associated with the projects' aims and objectives and how they relate to the local people's

aspirations.

The loading patterns generally reveal that Inclusion of stakeholders is the best combination as it makes up the first factor. Perception that decisions arrived at will be implemented is the best linear combination, among the rest of survey dimensions, for explaining the variance not explained by Recognition of individual and mutual benefits. Appointment of legitimate convenor and Formulation of aims and objectives follows respectively depending on their linear combination power to explain the variance unexplained by the preceding dimension.

Discriminant validity of the current battery was examined by comparing the coefficient alpha and the correlation between one dimension to another (Table 3). This analysis was done on the combined sample. Table 3 shows that for the five constructs, the Cronbach's alpha values for standardized variables are systematically higher than the correlation between any two tested dimensions. This implies that discriminant validity is present (Gaski, 1986). However, high correlation values of the scales indicate an existence of some overlaps among the five constructs used in the current research battery. This can be attributed to the few items measuring the same factor.

Table 3 : Zero Order Correlation

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Factor 1	0.7010^a			
Factor 2	0.524	0.7629^b		
Factor 3	0.636	0.600	0.6871^b	
Factor 4	0.570	0.389	0.711	0.6304^b
Factor 5	0.246	0.132	0.560	0.590

^a P < 0.005

^b Cronbach's alpha for standardized variables.

Comparative Evaluation of the Case Studies

Upon examination of a two-way contingency table for group and site (Table 4), it was found that while there was a fairly even split of the overall sample based on site (with 52% of the respondents coming from Kimana Wildlife Sanctuary and 48% Mwaluganje Elephant Sanctuary), the percentages of the two sites differed significantly among groups. These differing percentages suggested that the group differences in factor scores may have been confounded with case study differences. The breakdown of the respondents by group and case study was as outlined in Table 4.

Table 4 : Two-way Contingency Table for Group Membership and the Case Study

Case Study	General Residents	Business Leaders	Retirees	Government Administrators	Total
Kimana	23 (60%)	8 (37%)	9 (50%)	14 (46%)	54 (52%)
Mwaluganje	16 (40%)	13 (63%)	9 (50%)	11 (54%)	49 (48%)
Total	39 (39%)	21 (20%)	18 (17%)	25 (24%)	103(100%)

Values in the body of the Table are the number of the respondents in that particular group and site combination. Percentages of the two case studies are shown in parentheses

The results of the two-way contingency table raised the following additional questions.

Question 1: Were factors themselves consistent between respondents in Kimana and those in Mwaluganje, and

Question 2: On which factors did interviewees from the two sites differ significantly in their opinions?

To further explore potential differences based on group, one-way ANOVA tests were performed.

Comparison of level of agreement for different groups of respondents

The mean scores in the four groups of stakeholders on the 17 dependent variables are given in Table 5 along with the outcome of one-way ANOVA tests. Thirteen of the seventeen survey items were significantly ($p < 0.05$) different across the four types of respondents (Table 5). General Residents showed the lowest mean score on survey items 4, 7, 10, 11 and 17 while Government Administrators had the highest mean score in these variables. Thus General Residents showed a relatively higher level of disagreement on the survey items on 'the perception that decisions made will be achieved' (Factor 3) and 'the role of the convenor' (Factor 4). Conversely, the General Residents reported comparatively high levels of agreement on survey items on 'local people's participation in the project activities' (Factor 1: variables 1 and 2). On the other hand, Retirees reported a higher level of agreement on issues related to the importance of the community-based tourism projects to meet their community's development needs (Factor 2: variables 3, 14 and 15). For all items on which significant differences ($p < 0.05$) were observed Business Leaders reported either highest or second highest mean score. This suggests that Business Leaders' level of agreement with specific survey items were more positive than respondents in other groups (mean score of 4.1 on the 5-Point Likert scale). In contrast, General Residents showed the lowest level of agreement with the 17 dependent variables (mean score of 3.6

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on the 5-Point Likert scale).

However, it should be noted that, only one of the seventeen survey items (variable 12) was significantly different across the four age-groups (F-value = 2.703; P-value = 0.049). Likewise only variables 12 (F-value = 2.612; P-value = 0.041) and 17 (F-value = 2.990; P-value = 0.035) were significantly different based on gender. Additionally, no significant differences ($p < 0.05$) were found with regards to marital status, level of education and place of residence. This can be attributed to the non-probability sampling procedure (snowball sampling) employed in the present study which resulted to a sample dominated by male respondents (73%). In general these analyses revealed that statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$) existed among groups of respondents as well as between the two case studies. In other words, on certain variables and factors the differences in attitudes as measured by the overall factors were occurring not only because of the group to which the respondents belonged, but also because of the case study (See also Table 7).

Table 5 : ANOVA for comparison of level of agreement on dependent variables by group of respondents

Survey Items ^a	GR (n = 39)	BL (n = 21)	R (n = 18)	GA (n = 25)	F- value	P-value
1.	4.6	4.5	4.4	4.5	0.530	0.604
2.	4.8	4.7	4.7	4.6	1.106	0.324
3.	3.9	4.2	4.5	3.8	5.017	0.003
4.	2.2	4.2	3.1	4.3	9.010	0.000
5.	4.4	3.7	3.2	1.1	9.400	0.000
6.	3.7	3.9	3.9	4.1	4.990	0.004
7.	2.0	3.9	3.7	4.0	7.981	0.000
8.	3.9	3.0	2.7	2.4	6.190	0.000
9.	4.0	3.8	3.4	2.8	7.330	0.000
10.	2.4	3.7	3.0	4.1	6.380	0.000
11.	1.0	4.0	2.8	4.2	9.250	0.000
12.	4.3	4.7	4.6	4.8	4.893	0.004
13.	4.2	4.3	4.0	4.3	5.004	0.004
14.	4.8	4.8	4.9	4.7	0.483	0.664
15.	4.0	4.1	4.3	4.0	0.522	0.572
16.	3.8	4.0	3.5	4.3	6.371	0.000
17.	3.8	4.3	3.9	4.4	5.318	0.002

^a Survey Items as in Table 1

GR=General Residents; BL=Business Leaders; R=Retirees; GA=Government Administrators.

The importance of evaluating different community-based tourism projects

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separately on item opinions lies in eventual use of analyses of tourism survey. Analyses that do not consider important and unique characteristics of such projects can be inadvertently misused by decision makers in different communities to formulate tourism policies or management plans suitable to their needs with little or no benefits accruing to the local people. According to growth machine theory, the potential backlash from such decisions could result in an antigrowth movement led by those of the opinion that the tourism project or development is not being carried-out in accordance with their own aspirations or that of the community in general. Growth machine theory contends that, an interest in growth is the overriding common interest of certain powerful forces within a community. The residents making up the growth machine seek to influence the rest of their community members in belief that growth is to be desired and is economically beneficial to everyone (Molotch, 1976). Therefore, local people's attitudes towards tourism development will depend on the benefits to be derived from growth for any particular group of residents.

In addition to the empirical evidence of potential case differences in the current study, recent studies by several researchers have pointed out the fallacy of performing factor analysis on an entire data set, rather than for subgroups that may differ based on the factors (Case & Graefe, 1996; Jurovski et al., 1993; Jurovski et al., 1995; Sheppard, 1996; Toth & Brown, 1997). Hair et al. (1995) and his co-workers further note that "... whenever differing groups are expected in the sample, separate factor analyses should be performed, and the results should be compared to identify differences not reflected in the results of the combined sample" (p. 75).

Based on the above observation it was deemed necessary to conduct factor analyses on the entire sample as well as for separate samples. The percentage of variation explained by each factor is presented in Tables 2 and 6. The percent variance explained by each factor is important in interpreting factor analysis for two principal reasons. First, the amount of the total variance among respondents' attitudes that is captured by a particular factor can be measured by the percent of variance explained by the factor. Second, the greater the percent of variance explained by a factor, the less agreement the respondents in the sample have about the particular facet of community-based tourism that the factor represents (Toth & Brown, 1997).

Table 6 : Factor Solutions for the Combined Sample, Kimana and Mwaluganje Separately

Factor Name	% of Variance
<i>Combined (N = 103)</i>	
Factor 1 = Inclusion of stakeholders	35
Factor 2 = Recognition of individual and mutual benefits	11
Factor 3 = Perception that decisions arrived at will be implemented	8
Factor 4 = Appointment of legitimate convenor	6
Factor 5 = Formulation of aims and objectives	5
<i>Kimana (N = 54)</i>	
Factor 1 = Inclusion of stakeholders	37
Factor 2 = Recognition of individual and mutual benefits	10
Factor 3 = Perception that decisions arrived at will be implemented	8
Factor 4 = Appointment of legitimate convenor	5
Factor 5 = Formulation of aims and objectives	5
<i>Mwaluganje (N = 49)</i>	
Factor 1 = Recognition of individual and mutual benefits	33
Factor 2 = Inclusion of stakeholders	9
Factor 3 = Perception that decisions arrived at will be implemented	7
Factor 4 = Appointment of legitimate convenor	6
Factor 5 = Formulation of aims and objectives	5

Table 6 reveals that, although the 5 factors were consistent, the amount of variance explained for each of them was quite different for the combined sample, for Kimana and for Mwaluganje. The factors for the combined sample and the factors for Kimana were significantly identical in the amount of variance explained for each Factor. However, for Mwaluganje the amount of variance explained by each factor emerged to be significantly different from the overall sample and from Kimana. The most variation explained for the overall sample and for Kimana by the Inclusion of stakeholders factor. Respondents from Kimana, with 37% of the variance explained, are in more disagreement in their attitudes toward the role played by the local people in the community-based tourism in their area than their counterparts from Mwaluganje for whom only 9% of the variance is explained. Respondents from Mwaluganje, on the other hand, have less agreement in Recognition of individual and mutual benefits (33%) than their counterparts from Kimana who were found to be more consistent in this issue of mutual and individual benefits (10% of variance explained). It is important to note that the fifth factor on Formulation of aims and objectives showed a comparatively high level of consistency for the combined sample (5%), for Kimana (5%) and for Mwaluganje (5%). These percentages indicate more agreement on the Formulation of aims and objectives than for the other four factors (See Table 6).

These results indicate that the factors defined using the combined sample reflects significant differences in variance explained by different factors in the Kimana and Mwaluganje samples. However, it should be noted that this variation of respondents' attitudes that was analyzed by the factor analysis was due to strength of opinion rather than polarized opinions. In other words, respondents generally agreed in their overall opinions about community-based tourism projects in their areas; but some residents feel much more strongly than others about the same issues.

Using the critical factors developed by Jamal & Getz (1995, 195-199) and Naguran (1999, 41) which defines a successful partnership as an analysis framework, the case studies can be evaluated to reveal on which variables and indeed factors the respondents from the two case studies differ significantly in their opinion. To achieve this, simple t-tests between Kimana and Mwaluganje findings were performed (Table 7).

Table 7 : Differences in Level of Agreement

Survey Items ^a	Mwaluganje ^b	Kimana ^b	T-Value	P-Value
1.	4.5 (0.7)	4.5 (0.9)	-0.310	0.713
2.	4.7 (0.8)	4.6 (1.1)	0.704	0.400
3.	4.2 (1.3)	4.0 (1.0)	-0.410	0.683
4.	4.8 (0.8)	2.0 (0.6)	-6.703	0.000
5.	2.1 (1.0)	4.0 (1.5)	6.297	0.000
6.	4.0 (1.0)	3.8 (1.3)	-0.584	0.554
7.	4.8 (0.5)	1.9 (0.5)	-6.099	0.000
8.	2.9 (1.8)	3.0 (1.7)	-1.596	0.094
9.	2.4 (1.2)	4.5 (1.1)	5.902	0.000
10.	4.9 (0.6)	1.6 (0.4)	-6.801	0.000
11.	4.7 (0.9)	1.3 (1.6)	-6.903	0.000
12.	4.6 (0.6)	4.5 (0.7)	-0.188	0.904
13.	4.3 (1.4)	4.1 (1.5)	-0.542	0.570
14.	4.8 (1.1)	4.8 (1.9)	-0.249	0.824
15.	4.1 (0.7)	4.0 (0.6)	0.404	0.600
16.	4.0 (0.6)	3.8 (0.4)	-0.590	0.557
17.	4.2 (1.9)	3.9 (1.8)	-1.800	0.070

^aSurvey Items as in Table 1

^bMean Scores. In parenthesis are the Standard Deviation

Table 6 indicates that the respondents from Kimana and Mwaluganje areas differ in their levels of agreement on some variables. Statistically significant differences ($P < 0.05$) between the two categories of respondents were noted in variables 4, 5, 7, 9, 11 and 17 (See Table 1 for the variables descriptions). Respondents from Kimana Wildlife Sanctuary indicated a relatively lower mean

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score on variables 4, 10, 11 and 12. Conversely, residents from Mwaluganje Elephant Sanctuary had high mean scores on these survey items. This implies that the convenor played a significant role in these statistically significant differences. Further, these results suggest that the convenor was imposed in the case of Kimana area.

Respondents reported a non-significant difference ($P < 0.000$) on survey items 1 and 14. This finding suggests that the residents from the two areas know the importance of collaboration in community-based tourism development. Such collaboration adds value to the whole process as the stakeholders combine their knowledge, insights and capabilities to ensure the success of the project (Bramwell & Lane, 2000; Jamal & Getz, 1995; Reed, 1997). It also implies that, they are 'aware' of the implications of large-scale vis-à-vis small-scale tourism projects. Small-scale, locally-owned tourism operations increase the multiplier and spread effects within the host-community and avoid problems of excessive foreign exchange leakages (see Bramwell & Sharman, 1999; Bramwell & Lane, 2000; Kibicho, 2004).

Further, Z - scores revealed that these differences are due to differences between the two case studies ($Z = 2.714$; $P < 0.05$). Moreover, Hierarchical Cluster Analysis also identified clear dissimilarities in composition of Cluster 1 (dominated by respondents from Kimana Wildlife Sanctuary) and Cluster 2 (dominated by interviewees from Mwaluganje Elephant Sanctuary) (Table 9). These results are interpreted in Table 8.

Table 8 : Comparative Analysis of the Case Studies

Factor ^a	Kimana Wildlife Sanctuary	Mwaluganje Elephant Sanctuary
1	- Sufficient recognition of the benefits of collaboration -sufficient and meaningful inclusion of the local communities prior to the creation of the sanctuaries	
2	- Respondents saw joint and individual benefits as mutually exclusive - Competition for resources exists	
3 ^b	- A history of unimplemented agreed upon proposals and few promises kept.	-Trust in collaboration as led by KWS
4 ^b	- No clear leadership structure. The legitimacy of the existing one being questioned.	- Clear leadership structure with high levels of effectiveness in-terms of influencing the development of community-based tourism in the area
5	- Clear structure, prioritization of aims and goals of the projects. Characterized by regular checks by the funding organizations	

^aFactor names as in Table 2

^bFactors that are significantly different between Kimana and Maluganje at the 0.05 level

Table 8 reveals that, for three of the key criteria, clear commonalities exist between the two cases. The first factor illustrates a relatively high level of recognition of the benefits of working together of the stakeholders in an attempt to

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meet a common goal, whilst guided by their respective agenda. The factor further reports sufficient and meaningful inclusion of members of their respective communities that were involved in tourism activities prior to the creation of the sanctuaries. The second factor highlights the influence of the post-colonial context on attitudes towards collaboration or partnership in bio-diversity conservation and tourism development in Kenya. This is shown through a clear lack of recognition of the reciprocal benefits which can be realized by a collaborative or partnership approach. The local people still dread the unfair competition for resources in favor of bio-diversity preservation at the expense of their local community's development. The fifth factor reveals the influence of the project sponsors on the perceived effectiveness of the community-based tourism. It should be noted that, in most cases, the funding organization are more interested in the effectiveness/success of the projects, laying little or no emphasis on the underlying and less tangible factors of community-based tourism like stakeholders collaboration (See for example Waddock, 1984).

For the remaining factors (3 and 4) clear differences exist between the two cases. The third factor underlines the level of mistrust existing between the local community involved in the running of Kimana Wildlife Sanctuary and the national conservation body of the KWS. This implies that there is lack of mutual respect and shared learning between the two interested parties. Contrary to the Kimana's finding, data analysis revealed a high level of trust between the local people, the Eden Wildlife Trust and the KWS at the Mwaluganje Elephant Sanctuary. This cordial relationship is attributable to many 'unbroken promises' by the stakeholders. The KWS, in particular, was reported by the local people to have honored all their promises to the local community. These promises ranged from individual compensation to implementation of community development projects, such as the construction of health clinics and classrooms. However, it should be stressed that overcoming mistrust is difficult, particularly when there are complex environmental problems related to tourism in a destination as is the case of Kimana Wildlife Sanctuary. The fourth factor illustrates the lack of local people's Eco-tourism as a brand development strategy for Jiexi County - strategic issues and challenges participation in project decision making process due to an absence of a clear leadership structure in the Kimana Wildlife project. In contrast, the Mwaluganje Elephant project has a well defined leadership structure with encourages local community's participation at all levels of the decision making process.

Whilst the Mwaluganje case appears to be relatively successful in terms of meeting most of the criteria used in the current study (Table 8), questions remain as to the detail and focus of the evaluation. Factor 1, for instance, acknowledges the existence of recognition of interdependence between stakeholders, but it is

silent about the possible conflicting objectives which they constantly strive to fulfill. This is a fertile area for further research.

Combined respondents' scores on the five factors were then used as composite variables for identifying local people with similar views about the development of community-based tourism in Kimana and Mwaluganje case study areas. Since the numbers of segments were unknown beforehand, Hierarchical Cluster Analysis was chosen. Cases were standardized to minimize the level of bias in the end results. The Ward Method was used to maximize homogeneity within a given cluster. It produced a well interpretable solution and provided distinguishable clusters, as confirmed by profiling in Table 8. A three-cluster solution was best supported by the criterion of relative increase of agglomeration coefficient (Hair et al., 1995). Chi-square tests of homogeneity of proportions for categorical variables showed significant differences between all clusters on the five factors (Table 8). For group profiling, differences on the five factors and demographic characteristics were analyzed resulting in the characterization below (See also Tables 9 and 10).

Cluster 1 - 'Operatives' (n = 41)

Cluster 1 accounted for 40% of the sample. This group was most interested in 'local people's involvement in the planning and implementation of the project's activities'. However, compared to other clusters, members of this category did 'not' put more emphasis on the selection of the convenor or even the role s/he plays in the project. This group, interested in participating in the community projects, may be called the operatives. They are advocating for a wider range of participants in the project activities which is representative of all relevant stakeholders in the community. However, it should be stressed that this is not easy to achieve in the two case studies, where wealth and power tend to be more unevenly distributed. Their overall agreement level was relatively high. This group was old (with an average age of 48 years) and dominated by respondents from Kimana Wildlife Sanctuary (69%), and had relatively low education levels.

Cluster 2 - 'Opinion Leaders' (n = 33)

Cluster 2 (32% of the sample) valued most the benefits their community gets from the projects. Paradoxically, this group did not particularly value local people's participation in the community projects. They are interested in tangible benefits going to their people (More research is certainly needed on this area). They are the residents making up the growth machine and thus referred to as the opinion leaders. Their average agreement level was comparatively low (Table 9). Unlike Cluster 1, respondents were roughly equally distributed between the Kimana Wildlife Sanctuary (52%) and the Mwaluganje Elephant Sanctuary (48%). The average age of respondents was 36 years.

Cluster 3 - 'Formal Leaders' (n = 29)

Cluster 3 (28% of the sample) was dominated by respondents from Mwaluganje Elephant Sanctuary (68%). The respondents valued the success of the project the most. This group was not interested in who does what in the project activities. Members seemed to idealize the importance of consultation during the formulation of the project's objectives and how to achieve such goals. Government administrators (44%) comprised the majority of this group, and were influenced by the project's sponsors, who seemed to be only interested in the overall projects' effectiveness. This collaborates earlier community-based tourism studies which found that state power was used to further the interests of developers at the expense of small local entrepreneurs, thereby stifling grass-roots approaches to development (Arnstein, 1969; Bramwell & Sharman, 1999; Finn, 1996; Naguran, 1999; Olindo, 1991; Reed, 1997; Richards & Hall, 2000; Simmons, 1994; Weaver, 1998). Ironically, the disparate nature of local stakeholders segment may hamper efforts to generate community-based initiatives. In particular, the tension between pragmatic and radical approaches to community development may prevent co-operation between Cluster 1, and the more radical Cluster 3 will often be wary of working with commercial interests. This group scored the highest on the agreement scale and possessed the highest levels of education and is thus called formal leaders.

It is clear that there are similarities between Clusters 2 and 3, which both value the success of the community-based tourism projects in their regions, while Cluster 1 appreciates the local people's participation. Despite different critical factors valued by the segments, recognition of individual and mutual benefits is highlighted by all. The low interest of segment 1 on participation in the formulation of aims and objectives of the project may reflect lack of self-confidence due to the respondents' low levels of education. They seem to fear the complexity of such an assignment (See for example, Arnstein, 1969; Bramwell & Sharman, 1999; Weaver, 1998).

Community-based Tourism Models

This study has revealed the importance of involving stakeholders in tourism planning and management (Table 2). This is mainly because local community inclusion into the tourism project arrangements has the potential to lead to dialogue, negotiation and the building of mutually acceptable proposals about tourism development in general. Moreover, such broadly based ownership of tourism policies brings equity, operational advantages and an enhanced tourism product. An enabling environment, a prerequisite for community-based tourism, will further necessitate the need to differentiate between top-down or imposed proposals and legitimate community initiatives.

Stakeholder Characteristics of Clusters

Table 9 : Stakeholder Characteristic of Clusters

Characteristics ^a	Cluster 1 (N = 41)	Cluster 2 (N = 33)	Cluster 3 (N = 29)
Age	(%)	(%)	(%)
Under 30	4	8	26
31- 40	13	55	51
41-50	58	21	10
51-60	20	10	12
Over 61	5	6	1
Gender			
Male	71	72	76
Female	29	28	24
Education			
Some college or less	70	68	30
College graduate	25	29	10
University Graduate or above	5	3	60
Composition			
Kimana	69	51	32
Mwaluganje	31	49	68
Respondents' Categorization ^b			
GR	63	40	8
BL	8	23	13
R	15	20	35
GA	4	17	44

^aChi-square tests of homogeneity of proportions for categorical variables were used to see if differences existed among the three clusters. All results are statistically significant at the 0.005 probability level.

^bGR = general residents; BL = business leaders; R = retirees; GA = Government administrators

Table 10 : Factor Rankings and Level of Agreement

Factors ^a (Kruskal-Wallis mean ranks)	Cluster 1	Cluster 2	Cluster 3
1.	133.79	54.81	65.39
2.	98.24	126.33	105.20
3.	61.02	115.61	124.97
4.	43.68	136.66	127.08
5.	96.57	93..17	115.33
Agreement levels (Kruskal-Wallis mean ranks)			
Overall weighted	98.15	77.31	103.20

^aFactors description as in Table 2

In the case of our two study areas, these community initiatives are manifested in the form of three different models. The first model involves collaboration between the local community and the Government (central or local). Community-Government collaborations are important as the Government mostly depends on private investors to provide services and to finance the development

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of tourism facilities. On the other hand community tourism projects must be approved by the Government not to mention the usage of the state developed infrastructure. Furthermore, many destination area attractions are public property and the hospitality needed for a memorable visit must come from members of the public. The local community receives profits minus the costs associated with Government operations. In the second model the local community is connected to the private sector through a way of lease or contract agreement. The community develops the tourism facilities then approaches a private investor to operate them. In the case of the lease arrangement, a lease fee is paid to the community while the operator pays all returns minus costs if it is a management contract. The final model takes a form of partnership between the local community and Government or private investor(s). The distinct feature of this model is that the private investor develops, operates and maintains the tourism facilities and infrastructures. The developer, whether Government or private investor must pay a concession fee based on the percentage turnover to the local community.

The three models identify the relationships between stakeholders as they interact with each other in relation to tourism development. Each of them control in one way or the other some resources, such as knowledge, expertise and capital. Due to the complexity and fragmented nature of the tourism industry, these stakeholders need to collaborate with one another, as it is likely that none of them posses all the necessary resources for tourism development. This recognition has brought together the four main stakeholders (general residents, business leaders, retirees and Government administrators) in the two case studies. This implies that there are potential mutual or collective benefits from them collaborating with each other. Thus, there are synergistic gains from sharing resources, risks and rewards. Consequently, the studied case studies reflect a hybrid model which is a combination of the three discussed models.

From the discussion put forth by the previous commentators and indeed observations by the current study, community-based tourism models are expected to improve the local people's attitudes towards tourism. Tourism development will be more successful with such positive attitudes among destination's residents as tourism relies on the goodwill of the local people as they are part of its product. Where tourism projects do not fit within societal aspirations and capacity, resistance and hostility by the locals may destroy its potentials (Bramwell & Sharman, 1999; Gray, 1989; Jamal & Getz, 1995; 2000; Molotch, 1976; Naguran, 1999; Kibicho, 2002; Simmons, 1994). Furthermore, the integrity of PAs (both public and private) depends upon the cooperation of local people, who have right to use the resources therein, however, must also be taken into account (Dieke, 1999; IUCN, 1991; Joppe, 1996; KWS, 1997; Murphy, 1985; Reid, 1999; Taylor, 1995; Wallace, 1991; Weaver, 1998).

Conclusion

The limitations of the current study must be highlighted. First, the sample was not representative, as this would require a random process of selecting participants from a known population, which was deemed impracticable for the purposes of this research. Secondly, limitations are implicit in the multivariate statistical techniques, requiring subjective choices of methods and interpretations. However, results of this exploratory study may permit some insightful conclusions about critical factors for development of small-scale community-based tourism projects.

The overriding objective of this study was to examine the critical factors resulting to attitudinal differences in regards to wildlife conservation in Amboseli and Shimba Hills areas despite the establishment of small-scale community-based tourism projects in the two regions. Related to this objective, the research makes four principal conclusions. First, following factor analysis on the combined sample and the separate samples (those of Kimana and Mwaluganje), the study identified five factors critical to successful community-based tourism. These factors were: Inclusion of stakeholders, Recognition of individual and mutual benefits, Perception that decisions arrived at will be implemented, Appointment of legitimate convenor and Formulation of aims and objectives. This is unlike Jamal & Getz (1995) and Naguran (1999) studies which identified six distinct but correlated dimensions. However, it is acknowledged that the present study sample was small. Further research is thus needed to establish the validity of these findings with a bigger sample.

Second, although the 5 factors were consistent, the amount of variance explained for each of them was different for the entire sample, for Kimana and for Mwaluganje. Although the factors for the combined sample and those for Kimana were significantly identical in the amount of variance explained, those for Mwaluganje case study varied significantly. However, it should be noted that this variation of respondents' attitudes was due to strength of opinion rather than polarized opinions.

Third, the study found that the interviewees from the two sites differ significantly in their opinions with regards to the third and the fourth factors (Perception that decisions arrived at will be implemented and Appointment of legitimate convenor). Z - Score analysis showed that these differences are due to differences between the two case studies ($Z = 2.714$; $P < 0.05$). From a general viewpoint, there is lack of mutual respect and shared learning between the local residents and the KWS in Amboseli area. This however is not the case in Shimba Hills area where the stakeholders reported high levels of cordial relationship. The fifth factor further revealed lack of local people's participation in the project

decision-making process in Kimana due to lack of leadership structure. However, this is not the same in Mwaluganje area where a well designed leadership structure exists. Further, the findings suggest that the respondents from the two case studies can be divided into three categories according to their interest(s) in the community-based projects under study. These segments are: Cluster 1, interested in participation in the projects' activities, Cluster 2, concerned with the community's benefit from the projects and Cluster 3, which value the success of the project than the rest of the clusters.

Fourth, based on the existing literature and the findings of this study it can be concluded that a community development approach (i.e. a bottom-up approach) to a proposed tourism project is more likely to be supported by the locals as it confers a degree of ownership by the community in the development process and management. Moreover, community-based tourism helps in (i) avoiding adversarial conflicts among the collaborators, (ii) improving the coordination of policies and related actions and (iii) adding value as the collaborators combine their knowledge, insights and capabilities to ensure the success of a project. However collaboration is not without challenges. The power of the collaborators, for instance is often unequal and thus some stakeholders might be tempted to not fully support the collaboration process. Lastly, as earlier mentioned, the findings in this study should be viewed as tentative, but as an encouragement for further investigation, not only to enrich collaboration theory but also to aid in community-based tourism development and management policy formulation.

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