

A Tourism Framework for Community-Driven Sustainable Livelihood: A Comparative Study

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DECLARATION

I, Susan Mbithe Matiku, hereby declare that this thesis for the Doctor of Philosophy degree in Rural Development (PHDRDV) submitted to the Institute for Rural Development, School of Agriculture, at the University of Venda, has not been submitted previously for any degree at this or another university. It is original in design and in execution, and all reference material contained therein have been duly acknowledged.

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ABSTRACT

Participatory approaches in community-driven projects are usually connected to sustainable livelihoods. Previous studies have focussed more on community-based tourism (CBT), where private investors, donors and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) are the main stakeholders, therefore, they manage and control such CBT projects. In such cases, the communities are treated as a homogenous alliance and are negligibly involved in the planning and management of the projects. This has resulted in communities not fully benefiting from tourism attractions, which are mostly located in rural areas. Communities living adjacent to tourist attractions, hence, tend not to utilize these resources for their livelihoods.

Considerable studies have identified the main reasons for this situation as being poor planning and management of tourism projects, leading to the lack of participation by the communities. While it is a fact that many community tourism projects experience poor management, the institutional structures and processes through which these projects function are hardly investigated. Community participation in the development of tourism projects does not take place in a vacuum, communities are, usually, motivated by an enabling atmosphere, for example, adequate capital, to play an active part in the development of a project. The nature of a motivating capital that would influence communities to participate in tourism projects, however, is yet to be examined. Previous studies have substantially documented various benefits of tourism to communities, however, limited studies have focused on the utilization of resources from tourism activities, for communities' livelihoods.

The purpose of this study was to examine the socio-economic contributions of the tourism projects to communities' livelihoods, with the goal of developing a framework that can provide direction for meaningful community participation in projects aimed at sustainable livelihoods. To achieve this aim, the study investigated two community-driven tourism projects - one in Makuleke, (South Africa) and the other one in Kisumu (Kenya). The two study areas were compared to analyze the impacts of tourism projects on communities' livelihoods. The enabling capital that pulled others to enable the communities to participate in tourism projects, was also identified. The study also critiqued the institutional structures and processes in these two tourism projects.

The study surveyed 121 households, both in South Africa and Kenya, using case study strategy and a hybrid research design. Participants were selected using both purposive and simple random sampling procedures. The quantitative data collected was analysed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences Software (SPSS version 2.5), while the qualitative data was analysed using Atlas.ti version 8 software techniques, such as coding themes and building networks.

This research established that the two community-driven tourism projects, in the two areas were operated through different management styles and these influenced the communities' livelihood outcomes and impacted their lives differently. The Makuleke project focused more on public facility development while the Kisumu project was more about tourism income-generation activities. The results showed that the economic capital was the motivating and enabling factor that produced other capitals for communities' livelihoods. This was more pronounced in the Kenyan project which concentrated more on tourism income-generation activities.

Based on the data collected from the study, a framework was developed that could aid communities' participation in tourism projects in the two communities and other similar communities around the world. The study contributes to the debates on the institutional structures and processes needed in the Community-driven Tourism Projects (CDTPs), unlike previous studies that have mostly dealt with community-based tourism in protected areas. The study recommends that communities' full participation in tourism projects is vital for maximum benefits from such projects.

Keywords: Sustainable livelihoods, community-driven tourism projects, community capitals, sustainability, sustainable development.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

1.1 Introduction

Communities play an important role in tourism projects and their support is essential for the development, planning, and successful operation of these activities, and for the attainment of sustainable livelihoods. Development of sustainable tourism is as fundamental as it is important to communities around the world. Previous studies show that communities are a principal resource for tourism, and their existence in a place defines the development of tourism itself (Mbuvi & Ayimba 2006; Moscardo, 2008). This is because communities are impacted differently by any type of tourism which may be developed in their areas. The impacts can be positive or negative and communities' perceptions may be detrimental or motivating to the success of any tourism project. Additionally, community sustainability is a key factor for tourism development in an area (Bedelian, 2014; Van der Duim, Peters & Akama, 2006; Wondirad & Ewnetu 2019). The motivation for sustainable tourism development, therefore, rests on the assurance of economic, as well as social-cultural benefits to the communities and their environment.

The high costs associated with community-based tourism projects build high expectations which are not attainable at times; this arouses conflicts among stakeholders, as marginal groups may not be empowered by these projects, whereas the influential stakeholders benefit through networks (Zapata, Hall & Lindo 2011; Rylance & Spenceley 2013). Rylance and Spenceley 2013 further reveal that most Non-Governmental and Private Organizations use the argument that communities are not able to provide required services, as an excuse to develop and run projects without involving the host communities. As a result, co-management strategies have also been used in tourism projects which have multi-stakeholders (Shoeb-Ur-Rahman, Shone & Ratna, 2019). The co-management strategy is meant to ensure equal sharing of power, authority, responsibility and decision making, however, lack of community involvement and participation in projects' operations has been cited as one of the challenges in many community-tourism projects. This has led to communities having no sense of ownership of the projects, hence, lack of power over the projects' benefit sharing (Sebele, 2010; Spencely, Snyman & Rylance, 2019). Whereas numerous studies highlight poor management as a key reason for the failures of community-based tourism projects (Zapata 2011; Lucchetti, 2013, Yanes, Zielinski, Cano & Kim 2019), very little research has investigated and critiqued the institutional structures and management of these CBT projects. The central fulcrum for this study is an analysis of the bottom-up development approach where

communities control, manage and operate their own tourism projects for their sustainable livelihoods in South Africa and Kenya.

1.2. Background of the study

The concept of sustainable development is key to this study as it aligns with UN reports such as the Brundtland Commission Report (1987) which emphasized that, “sustainable development is not a fixed state of harmony, but rather a process of change in which the exploitation of resources, the direction of investments, the orientation of technological development, and institutional change are made consistent with future as well as present needs”. The Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), also recognize that ending poverty must go hand-in-hand with approaches that build economic growth and address an array of social needs including education, health, social protection, and job opportunities, while dealing with climate change and environmental protection. United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO), 2015 reported that tourism has the potential to contribute, directly or indirectly, to all the goals, therefore, engaging in sustainable tourism is one way of practicing sustainable development (UNWTO, 2016).

Africa’s international tourists grew by an estimated 7%, reaching an estimate of 67 million tourists in 2018 (UNWTO, 2018). Kenya and South Africa are world-renowned tourist destinations, famous for their tropical beaches and enormous national parks, nevertheless, local communities in the two countries are still marginal players in international tourism compared to other countries in Europe and the Caribbean UNWTO (2018).

South Africa recorded a total of US\$8.9b while Kenya recorded a total of US\$919m from international tourism in 2018 (UNWTO, 2018). Owing to the sector’s importance to the Kenyan and South Africa’s economies, the tourism industry can be a strategic economic sub-sector that can promote sustainable economic development and consequently, poverty eradication (Munien, Phungula & Bob, 2018; Okech, Haghiri & George 2015). Unemployment has been a major crisis in both South Africa and Kenya and tourism has played a major role in not only creating employment but also in the two countries’ economic growth (Sawe, Kieti & Wishitemi 2018; Jacobs & Preez 2019). This has placed sustainable tourism in rural areas as a priority agenda in research, hence, resulting in an increasing interest among scholars and industry practitioners, from both public and private sectors (Tao & Wall, 2009; Jacobs & Preez, 2019;). For communities to benefit fully from tourism, there is need to involve them in

decision-making as the government monitors and guides tourism operations in rural areas (Amir, Ghapar, Jamal & Ahmed., 2015).

Tourism can be a powerful tool for community development and reducing inequalities if it engages local populations and all key stakeholders in its development (UNWTO, 2016). It can also contribute to urban and rural development, hence, reducing regional imbalances through rendering communities the opportunity to prosper in their places of origin UNWTO (2016). Sustainable tourism indicators that influence the growth of tourism are economic, social-cultural, environmental, and management of tourism (Chisova, 2015; and Bulatovic & Rajovic, 2016). Tourism does not exist in a vacuum. It is operated and controlled by stakeholders, one of them being the host community. This study was driven by the conviction that sustainable tourism is also an effective means for development of rural communities' economies. Genuine benefit-sharing warrants participation by all stakeholders, therefore, communities in rural areas need to be encouraged to be involved in tourism development (Waweru, 2015; Dragouni & Fouseki, 2018). Naturally, community members participate fully in a project only when they are assured of socio-economic gain and the need for their support (Sebele, 2010; Bello, Lovelock & Carr, 2017). Accordingly, numerous studies have emphasized the need for the local people to take part, not only in tourism benefits but also in key leadership roles and decision-making, for retention of resource ownership, guarantee of empowerment and for sustainability of livelihoods, however, participation of communities in tourism development has remained inadequate (Bello *et al.*, 2017; Park, Phandanouvong & Kim, 2018). Proper frameworks for an all-inclusive tourism management that encourages community participation has been a challenge (Tosun, 2006; Dangi & Jamal 2016; Yanes *et al.*, 2019).

Tourism can be used to preserve the environmental and cultural ethics of a destination while cultivating its economic stability (Nyaupane, 2010). It may also be used as an instrument to protect resources and to generate employment prospects for rural communities (Ashley, Boyd & Goodwin, 2000). It may not be the only source of income and job opportunity for a country, but instead it can be utilized to assist in increasing the employment opportunities of the local people. It is also imperative to highlight that tourism needs to be planned and managed in partnership with other economic sectors to hearten an inclusive sustainable development (Tao & Wall, 2009). Tourism, therefore, should not only be for the rural communities' wellbeing but sustain their livelihood outcomes. Chambers & Conway (1992:10) note that - "A livelihood comprises the capabilities, assets (stores, resources, claims and access) and activities required for a means of living: a livelihood is sustainable if it can cope with and recover from stress and shocks, maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets, and provide sustainable

livelihood opportunities for the next generation; and which contributes net benefits to other livelihoods at the local and global levels and in the short and long term”.

The constant search for responsible and sustainable practices of tourism has seen the emergence of many approaches to tourism development, and the rural communities have become the main focus for these approaches. Community-based tourism (CBT) has been seen as a model for community development (Blackstock, 2005; Goodwin, 2009; Spenceley *et al.*, 2019). A lot of studies have focused on benefits of community-based tourism to rural communities, although, CBT has also received some level of criticism due to its failure to deliver benefits to communities. Some of the factors attributed to this failure include poor planning, lack of proper framework for community engagement, non-creation of tourist products, no access to markets, poor community participation and interference by external factors (Yanes *et al.*, 2019, Lucchetti, 2013; Zapata 2011). For example, Lucchetti, (2013) established that proper planning of community-based tourism projects influences more usage of resources within the community.

Additionally, poor planning and weak policies result in weak foundation for meaningful community involvement (Yanes *et al.*, 2019). While having a framework for CBT is important, little effort has been directed to the formulation of workable frameworks for these projects. Since the inception of CBTs, non-governmental organizations, donors and other development agencies have assigned extensive investment to community-based tourism in both South Africa and Kenya (Manyara 2007; Mtapuri & Giampiccoli 2014; Jaldesa & Sabala 2017; Thivane, Sibanda & Katrodia, 2018). As a result, a top-down model of management has been the practice for CBTs with exclusion of the poor community from full participation, as well as benefit-sharing conflicts (Manyara 2007, & Zapata 2011). Non-governmental organizations, donors, private sector and the government have been designing the type of CBT projects a community is to be involved and how much benefits the communities are to earn from these projects. This has left the communities with no voice on the natural resources that they rightfully own. Moreover, despite numerous literatures on community-based tourism projects, the process through which these projects are executed is rarely examined. Lucchetti, (2013) adds that benefits for communities are continuously generated if or when there are variety of tourist products. While evidence exists on the benefits of community-based tourism projects, limited research has supported the idea that additional benefits are realized when the communities utilize tourism resources which are at their disposal, for their livelihoods. Owing to the evident gaps in literature and the limitations displayed in CBT programs, there is need for a shift in research to focus more on the tourism projects which are initiated, operated and managed by the community for their livelihoods. According to Dongier, (2003), Community

Driven Development (CDD) is meant to give total control of resources to the people and allow the poor to participate in development. Building on these sentiments, this study defines Community Driven Tourism Projects, as tourism development processes that are organized and controlled by the community for sustainable livelihoods. This model practices bottom-up strategies of management.

1.4. Problem statement

The tourism industry is among the global fastest growing economic sectors, (Mowforth & Munt, 2015). The World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC, 2014), report revealed that in 2013, travel and tourism's total contribution to the global economy rose to US\$7 trillion, about 9.5 per cent of the global gross domestic product (GDP)/ This implies that tourism is growing faster than other sectors such as financial and business services, transport and manufacturing and contributing nearly 266 million jobs, about 8.9 per cent of the world's total employment rate. Moreover, tourism's ability to generate a high level of employment, continued to demonstrate the importance of the sector to economic development (Mansoor, Wei & Asif, 2019).

Tourism has continued to play an important role in development of rural communities in Asia, Europe, United States of America and many other parts of the world (Ernawati, Sudarmini, & Sukmawati 2018; Strydom, Mangope & Henama, 2019b; Kline, McGehee & Delconte 2019; Lee & Jan 2019). Similarly, a few studies have documented the successes of community-based tourism in some African countries, such as South Africa, Nigeria, Botswana and Kenya among others (Giampiccoli & Saayman, 2017, Nchor & Agbor 2018; Stone & Stone 2019; Tubey, Kyalo & Mulwa 2019). Richter (2012: 50), however, contends that "most tourism development projects and strategies do not benefit rural communities". Full participation of community in tourism development is a contentious issue especially in community-driven tourism projects which have a co-management governance (Shoeb-Ur-Rahman *et al.*, 2019). Even with the community-tourism projects which are purely managed by the communities, these regions have continued to record high poverty levels. An example is the Kit Mikayi shrine, and the Dunga Eco-tourism Association (DECTA) in Kisumu, Kenya, where, Kisumu area continues to record very high poverty levels (40%) (KNBS 2018). The Makuleke contractual park is co-managed by the community, the Kruger National Park and some private partners (Chengeto, 2016). The Travel and Tourism Economic Impact TTEI (2019) report, indicated that tourism and travel, contributed over US\$8bn to South Africa's GDP in 2018. Kruger National Park is one of the most visited parks in South Africa (SANP, 2018). The

Makuleke villages which are adjacent to the Punda Maria gate of the Kruger National park have not tapped into this world tourist magnet. It is, therefore, necessary, to have an in-depth understanding of the social-economic contributions of these community-driven projects to the communities' livelihoods in these two areas.

Furthermore, in recent years there has been a lot of interest in green tourism, leading to emphasis on eco-tourism and environmental aspects, (Bina, 2013; Mitra & Khan, 2017; Ivanovic & Madzgali, 2018), and less on community benefits. Furthermore, several studies have showed that national governments and donors focus on development of tourism and foreign exchange earnings, without, considering the livelihoods of the rural communities residing adjacent to tourist attractions (Akay, Cifter & Teke 2017; Matthew, Osabohien & Ayanda 2019). In order to achieve sustainable rural development, communities need to be encouraged to fully participate in rural tourism, as key players and fully benefit from it. Currently, the tourism policies and institutional structures seem to inhibit the extent to which communities benefit from tourism. Even though communities establish tourism projects, members do not fully utilize the tourism capitals for their sustainable livelihoods. Community participation in tourism development does not take place in a void; there are drivers that motivate the community to be part of the tourism development (Waweru, 2015). It would, therefore, be very difficult for policy makers, within these projects, to put appropriate measures for the projects to function well if they do not know the motivational sources. This study, therefore, sought to examine the socio-economic contributions of community-driven tourism projects to determine the extent to which these contributions have impacted on to the livelihoods of the communities in Makuleke (South Africa) and in Kisumu, (Kenya). It further assessed the policies and institutional structures that govern these projects and whether they serve as impediments or support for the communities' benefits. The resultant analysis prompted the identification of motivational capital in community-driven tourism projects and the development of a framework to assist the communities to fully participate and extract the maximum benefits from their tourism projects.

1.3. Justification of the study and research gap

The external environment in which communities exist form their various aspects, such as their vulnerability context; in addition, the availability of assets and livelihoods are affected by life-threatening events and trends that the people have either limited or no control over (Tao & Wall, 2009). Some of these trends and actions may be tourism policies, natural disasters, or

seasonality. For a community tourism project to be successful and contribute to livelihoods, an evaluation of the tourism resources (capitals) that a community owns is critical (Tao & Wall, 2009). The capitals may be human, physical, social, natural and economic. Recent studies have focused on the use of different community capital for rural development (Duffy, Kline, Swanson & Best 2017; Stone & Nyaupane 2018; Kline 2019), however, a gap exists in literature on identification of tourism capitals from projects in most developing countries, such as South Africa and Kenya. According to Waweru, (2015), there are drivers that motivate communities to participate in tourism development. Stone & Stone, (2019), further noted that within the various forms of community capital, is an enabling factor that promotes other capital for communities' sustainable livelihood, however, little is known about which types of community capital motivate communities to participate or help build up other capitals. Tourism has the potential for engaging local communities in development through utilization of capital assets for their sustainable livelihoods (Aquino, Lück & Schänzel, 2018). It is essential, therefore, for communities to engage in tourism projects that yield sustainable livelihood diversifications (Qian, Barroso & Messer, 2019; Shoeb-Ur-Rahman, Simmons & Shone, 2020). Nevertheless, most communities in rural areas, specifically in South Africa and Kenya, have not been able to harness the tourism opportunities for sustainable livelihoods. This motivates a research on CDTPs' contribution to livelihoods.

Having noted the existing gap in literature, further research was needed to identify the various types of community tourism capital, examine the socio-economic contributions of community-driven tourism projects to the rural livelihoods, and the extent to which these projects impact on rural communities' lives. Guided by the Sustainable Livelihood Approach (SLA), and the Community Capital Framework (CCF) two community-driven tourism projects were explored and compared. They comprised of the Makuleke Contractual Park (MCP) in South Africa and Dunga Eco-tourism Association (DECTA) and Kit Mikayi project in Kenya. The study is based on the assumption that communities can only evaluate decisions relating to external features such as tourism, when they understand them in their own way, within their capabilities. The tourism community capital assets that the communities receive, should be able to not only support the rural people's economic growth, but also generate other forms of capital for the communities' livelihoods. There is a need, therefore, for a framework to guide these communities to manage the projects and utilize their capitals for sustainable livelihood. In order to formulate this guiding framework, an investigation of the Institutional structures and processes that govern these projects was vital. It was also crucial to find out how or at what level the communities are involved in the management and decision-making on these projects. Literature has shown that while participation of community in development is key, most communities are driven by certain influencing factors to participate in any tourism development

project. It was, therefore, necessary to identify the types of capital that influenced the communities in the two case studies, to participate in tourism projects. A well-managed CDTP supports the wellbeing of a community, hence, the following was the aim of the study.

1.4. The aim of the study

The aim of the study was to examine the socio-economic contributions of community-driven tourism projects, to the livelihoods of communities and the extent to which they impacted on livelihoods, with the ultimate goal of developing a community-driven sustainable livelihood framework for tourism projects.

1.5. Specific objectives and research questions

The following Table demonstrates the research objectives and the underpinning research questions:

Table 1.1. Research objectives and research questions

Specific objective	Research questions
1. To evaluate the tourism community capitals of the study area guided by CCF.	What are the community tourism capitals at Makuleke and Kisumu?
2. To determine tourism projects' contribution to communities' livelihoods, using CCF.	What are the socio-economic benefits accrued from the CDTPs?
3. To assess the institutional structures and processes within community-driven tourism projects	(i) What tourism project policies are in place and to what extent do these policies address the socio-economic aspects for sustainable livelihoods of the community? (ii) What institutional structures do the projects have for the management of tourism community capitals and are there any challenges in the context of rural communities' livelihoods and their access to capital? (iii) Do the community members participate fully in the management and operation of these projects, and at what level do they participate?
4. To analyse the impact of community-driven tourism projects on communities' livelihoods	(i) Did the livelihoods of the communities improve as a result of their involvement in tourism projects? (ii) To what extent did the CDTPs improve the lives of individual house-holds in terms of natural, social, economic and physical aspects?

5. To develop a framework to guide the management of CDTPs for sustainable livelihoods.

1.6. Significance of the study

It is critical for communities to identify their sources of capital, especially, the ones that help build up others as this motivates communities to participate in tourism projects. Evidence in literature points at structural weaknesses in the participatory component of tourism projects' management; this keeps the community at a constant subordination. This study developed a framework that can be used to guide CDTPs on how to motivate the communities to not only participate in decision-making, but also to utilize tourism resources for their livelihoods.

Substantial literature on sustainable tourism development has concentrated on community-based tourism with little being researched on community-driven tourism projects. This study provides information on CDTPs that can be used by community development practitioners, tourism managers and policy makers for proper planning and management of CDTPs. The study accentuates the possibilities of CDTPs to contribute to communities' livelihoods. It shows how CDTPs can be used as a livelihood diversification strategy for poverty eradication. Numerous studies have been conducted on community-based tourism, sustainable tourism and the benefits tourism contributes to livelihoods (Mbaiwa & Stronza 2010; Talbot 2013; Nyaupane, 2017). Moreover, this study has gone further to contribute to scholarly knowledge by excerpting the ripple effects of economic capital and how it contributes to other tourism capitals.

1.7. Delimitations of the study

The study was carried out with two community tourism projects - one in Makuleke Ward, Collins Chabare Municipality, Vhembe District in South Africa and in Dunga Beach, Kisumu County in Kenya. It had a very low budget; this restricted the scope and also prevented the framework from being tested for its viability.

1.8. Conceptual framework

The study was conceptualized on stakeholder-oriented model for CDTPs. The conceptualization of the model was informed by several theoretical frameworks and tourism management models. A detailed discussion is presented in Chapter 3.

1.9. Approach and methodology of the study

The study was carried out in Makuleke villages (in Limpopo South Africa) and Dunga beach and Kit Mikayi villages (in Kisumu, Kenya). Exploratory hybrid method design was used where participants issues were qualitatively explored and analysed. The target population for this study was the community members involved in community-driven tourism projects in Makuleke (South Africa) and Kisumu (Kenya). The two study projects were purposively sampled with a representation of 121 randomly selected households and 21 key informants purposively selected. Data collection techniques used in this study were interviews, focus-group discussions, open-ended questionnaires, and a review of existing literature was used to collect secondary data. ATLAS. ti version 8 software was used to analyse qualitative data while Statistical Package for Social Scientists (SPSS) version 25 assisted in analysing quantitative data. More details on the study area approach and methodology are provided in Chapter 4.

1.10. Operational Definitions of Key Terms and Concepts

Community Capital Asset Mapping

Detailing all the resources that the communities have access to and use for livelihood. Taking an inventory of these resources was key for assessment of the contribution of the projects to the communities' livelihoods.

Community-Driven Development (CDD)

The study adopts the definition by Dongier, (2003:3) that "CDD is a way of organizing economic activities and resource management, empowering the poor improving governance, and enhancing security of the poorest".

Community-Driven Tourism Project (CDTP)	This study explains a CDTP as a tourism project owned, totally controlled and operated by the community.
Livelihood	A person's livelihood refers to his/her "means of securing the basic necessities". The necessities may be in terms of shelter, food, clothing, health and education. Rural communities acquire these necessities by using endowments which are present within and on their land and which they have access to.
Sustainable Development	In this study, maintaining a socio-economic advancement and progress while protecting the long-term value of the environment as well recognizing and considering the peoples' skills is referred to as "sustainable development".
Sustainable Livelihood	In this study, sustainable livelihood is explained as - sustenance that can uphold and improve its capabilities and provides opportunities for the current and future generations in a rural community. Sustainable Livelihood enhances poor people's ability to make a living in an economically, ecologically, and socially sustainable manner (Chambers & Conway, 1992). It is an integrating factor that allows tourism policies to address rural development, for sustainable resource management for the present and future generations.
Sustainable Tourism	In this study sustainable tourism is defined as tourism that involves integration of the local community in tourism developments, practicing impartiality, while generating employment and revenue as well as preserving the environment and local cultures for the present and future generations.
Table-banking	This is a group-based funding strategy which is commonly used in Kenya and was started by rural women. Table-banking provides financial services where members save and borrow money during their regular meetings. On a set date in the month, members meet, lay their savings and other contributions such as insurance, educational savings, fines and penalties on the table and borrow

immediately either as short term or long-term loans. The loans are paid back with an interest agreed upon by members. The earned interest is again used as loans and savings for the group; members decide what to do with the group's savings. It can be paid to group members as dividends or whatever investments the members will agree upon.

Tourism Community Capitals (CTCs)

These are tourism resources that the community own, access and use for livelihood. These resources may have existed before the tourism project was initiated or may have been acquired through empowerment from the projects. They comprise natural, physical, social, and human capitals.

1.11. Chapter outline

- Chapter 1 presents an introduction and background of sustainable tourism in relation to community-tourism projects. It also highlighted the literature gap, problem statement, aim of study, research objectives and significance of the study. It concludes with a brief explanation of the research methodologies used in the study.
- Chapter 2 provides the theoretical approaches that informed the study. It discusses sustainable development and looks at several sustainable-development models. It also reviews literature around the sustainable livelihood approach and frameworks, as well as those on livelihood framework for tourism. Discussions are also provided on community-driven development and how its sustainability is embedded in community participation and recognition. The chapter also explores the community capital framework (CCF) and concludes with a proposition for the development of a Tourism Community Capital Framework (TCCF).
- Chapter 3 presents literature on tourism management planning and development, its importance in community-driven tourism projects and its relationship with livelihoods. The theories in Chapters 2 and 3 underpin the conceptual framework for the study.
- In Chapter 4 a detailed discussion of the research methodology is presented. This includes a description of the study areas, research design and approaches used in data collection and analysis for this study.
- Chapter 5 - is a detailed presentation of each objective's results, such as - the characteristics of participants, capital asset mapping (also referred to identification of the tourism capitals), ranking of the most important capital, contribution of CDTPs to

livelihoods through capital's lens, institutional structures present in the projects and their functionality - and concludes with the impact of CDTPs on livelihoods and motivational capital identification.

- Chapter 6 - provides a synthesis of the study, presenting the developed framework and giving recommendations for policy and further research.

CHAPTER 2

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF THE STUDY

2.1. Introduction

The United Nations Summit in Rio (1992), set Agenda 21 goals for sustainable development, which culminated in the establishment of Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) (UN 2015). The Agenda 21 goals called for all countries to develop sustainable development strategies (UN 1992). For these strategies to be effective, the UN, (2015) called upon all the governments at all levels, together with the private sector and the civil society to work together in a transparent manner through partnerships that allow for stakeholders' participation. The SDGs' community-empowerment objectives call for full community participation in sustainable development and encourage activities that promote sustainable livelihoods of the communities (UN, 2015).

Sustainable development is an interaction process of economic, social, and environmental capitals (Sachs, 2015; Thacker, Adshead & Fay, 2019). UNDP, (1999); Mcleads, (2001); Grosskurth & Rotmans (2005); Scoones, (2015); and Serrat (2017) noted that the achievement of sustainable livelihoods is dependent upon building on any capital assets that people have access to. There should, therefore, be a balance between economic, social and environmental development (Munasinghe, 2009). Moffatt, (2007), affirms that sustainable development encourages equity and ethical deliberations for current and future generations, without imperilling the life support systems of the biosphere upon which all life depends. Sustainable Development (SD), is about directing and enabling a societal course towards sustainability, and is perceived as a joint process to realise economic, ecological and socio-cultural goals that involve various players and stakeholders, at multiple levels of decision-making, with different levels of power. (Berkes, 2006: Wals, 2007). Scholars such as Tosun, (2000), Lew, (2013), Su and Wall, (2014), Rasoolimanesh, Ringle and Mayah, (2017), as well as Stone and Nyaupane, (2017), maintain that for tourism to have a positive impact on the lives of the community, there is need to have all the stakeholders involved in the tourism development process and that communities being key stakeholders need to participate fully from the initiation of the project to the end.

For proper planning and management of community-driven tourism projects, it is important to balance sustainable development principles and fundamental goals. This chapter will examine different models of sustainable development. Sustainable development's desired results

include a state of society where resources are utilized to meet the needs of the people without compromising the natural systems. Attainment of sustainable livelihood is a starting point for the achievement of sustainable development, hence, the chapter also undertakes a theoretical examination of sustainable livelihoods and community participation in tourism development. The chapter provides the basis for the arguments that community's participation in development provides the direction for change, therefore, for the communities to attain sustainable livelihoods, there is need for their full participation in the development process. Additionally, focused upon is the fact that strong and inclusive leadership, to ensure accessibility of tourism's capital assets is paramount.

2.2. Sustainable development models

Sustainable development is defined as “development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs” (Brundtland *et al.*, 198:43). The United Nations anchored the 17 sustainable development goals (SDGs) set in 2015 on the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) (UN, 2015). The main reason for the MDGs was to ensure prosperity for all, while protecting the planet earth. For rural communities to prosper and eradicate poverty, sustainable utilization of resources is paramount not just for livelihood but also, for economic growth. Having equitable employment opportunities among members of a community means that most households have income, and this reduces poverty levels within that community. Economic growth is key to poverty reduction and rural communities can grow their economy through sustainable production and consumption of all the other community capitals (social, human, physical and natural). Furthermore, sustainability characteristically includes three major scopes - social, economic and environmental (Saunila, Ukko & Rantala, 2018). These three dimensions of sustainability are well elaborated and analysed through the sustainable development triangle in the following segments.

2.2.1 The sustainable development triangle

The sustainable development triangle was created to expound on the sustainable development principles, which are the economic, ecological and social-cultural (Munasinghe, 2006). Munasinghe emphasizes the need for a balanced and combined analysis based on the three approaches to sustainable development, as demonstrated in Figure 2.1 below. To

maintain a balance for sustainability, there should be maximization of income while maintaining a constant or increasing stock of capital and maintaining resilience and robustness of biological and physical systems, while maintaining stability of social and cultural systems. Each viewpoint represents a field and a system that has its own distinct motivating forces and purposes.

In the economic view, increase in consumption of goods and services tends to define human wellbeing (Mwnasinghe, 2006). The maximum quantity humans can consume without depriving themselves is regarded as the maximum sustainable consumption (Hicks, 2004). Khan *et al.*, (2016) argue that efficacy of the economy is vital in ensuring optimal consumption and production. Even though the sustainable development process is aimed at improving quality of lives in the long run, it cannot be restricted to only financial wealth or material welfare but also access to natural resources without compromising the environment; therefore, while applying the economic sustainability rule, it is also important to have protection of environmental and social stability (Munasinghe, 2013).



Figure 2.1: Sustainable Development Triangle (adapted from Munasinghe 2006:8)

The environmental domain emphasizes the need to fortify the reliability and flexibility of ecological systems (Monasinghe, 2006). As human welfare depends on environmental services, it is critical to manage the scarce natural resources sustainably (MA-CF, 2003). Saunila *et al.*, (2018), encourage people to ensure safe ecological limits so as to reduce

violation of long-run forecasts for development. Khan *et al.*, (2016) note that an environmental interpretation of sustainability focuses on the overall viability and health of living systems – defined in terms of a comprehensive, multi-scale, dynamic, hierarchical measure of resilience, vigour and organization. Monasinghe, (2013) adds that these ideas apply to both natural / wild and managed / agricultural systems, and cover wilderness, rural and urban areas. He further affirms that resilience is the potential of a system / state to maintain its structure/function in the face of disturbance; however, environmental carrying-capacity in most frequented tourist hubs is threatened. Consequently, this study encourages practices that promote environmental sustainability, such as eco-tourism and conservation of natural resources.

The social dominion focuses on the upgrading of human relationships and attainment of individual and group objectives (Saunila *et al.*, 2018). Social development usually refers to improvements in both individual well-being and the overall social welfare, that results from increases in social capital – typically, the accumulation of capacity for individuals and groups of people to work together to achieve shared objectives (Pascual, Corbera, Gomez-Baggethun, 2014). Equity and poverty alleviation are important; thus, social goals include protective strategies that reduce vulnerability, improve equity and ensure that basic needs are met. Future social development will require socio-political institutions that embrace all stakeholders' involvement in decision-making, and those that can adapt to meet the challenges of modernization (Delai & Takahashi, 2011; Pascual *et al.*, 2014). Enhancing human capital (through education) and strengthening social values, institutions and equity will improve the resilience of social systems and governance (Svensson & Wagner, 2015). Understanding the links that radiate from poor communities, and their interface with agencies and government is critical for building connections and channelling resources directly to make social development more sustainable (Monasinghe, 2013). Local communities in rural areas experience high levels of poverty because of low levels of education, unemployment and lack of skills for available job opportunities. There is need, thus, for community-based sustainable development initiatives that promote local skills training (such as, beadwork and wood curving), small scale enterprising, community projects, and utilization of available natural resources for sustainable livelihoods.

The interactions among domains (represented by the sides) in Figure 2.1., are also important to ensure balanced assessment of trade-offs and synergies that might exist among the three dimensions (Monasinghe, 2013). Monasinghe, (2013) further suggests that issues like poverty, may be placed in the centre of the triangle to re-emphasize that they are linked to all

three dimensions. Campbell, (2016) describes the sustainable development triangle as a planner's triangle with three fundamental goals - Equity and social justice, Environmental protection and Economic development. Additionally, these goals may sometimes conflict with each other (Reid & Taylor, 2003; Robinson & Cole, 2014; Oden, 2016). Campbell, (2016), postulates that these conflicts are resource conflict (between economic development and environmental protection) and property conflict (between economic development and equity and social justice). Previous studies agree with Campbell, (2016) that these conflicts demand collaboration between all stakeholders to ensure a balance, hence, sustainability (Reid & Taylor 2003; Monasinghe, 2013 and Oden 2016).

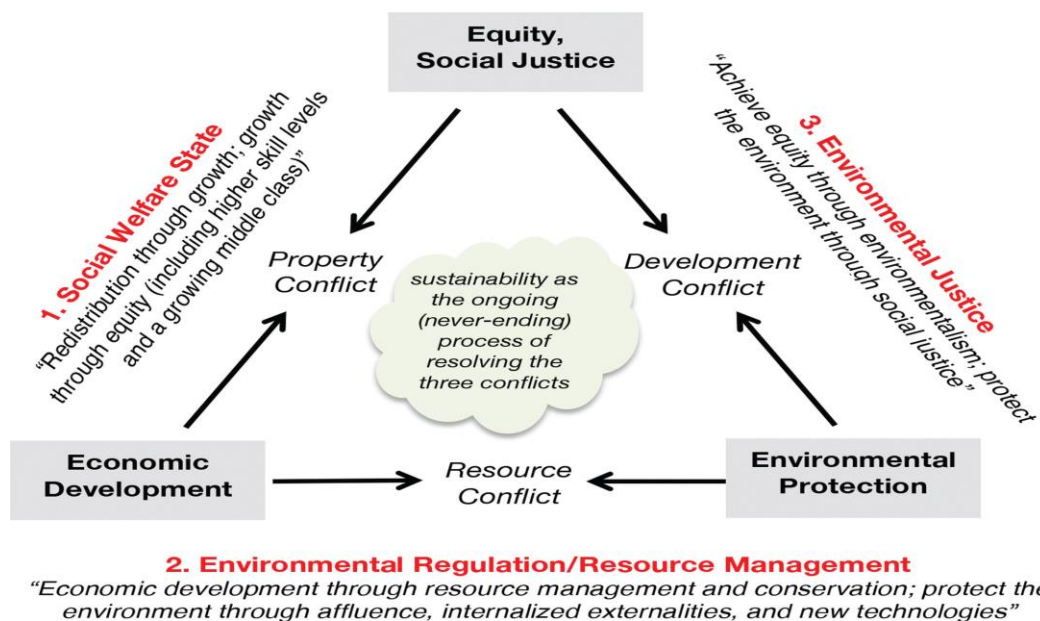


Figure 2.2. Planners' triangle (adapted from Campbell 2016:389)

The other conflict is the development conflict which Campbell, (2016) equates with e-developing world where efforts to industrialize and rise out of poverty often have led to resource depletion and environmental calamity. According to Simpson, (2009), the main aim of sustainable tourism in rural areas, is to provide livelihood benefits to the local community and protect its culture and environment while it develops economically. This can only be achieved if tourism-development activities are community-cantered and adhere to the sustainable livelihood principles which are discussed in the following sections.

2.3. Sustainable development and livelihoods

Many scholars have defined sustainable development, although, the most often used definition of sustainable development is that proposed by the Brundtland Commission (Dernbach, 2003; Cerin, 2006 and Stoddart, 2011). In this study, sustainable development is defined as maintaining a socio-economic advancement and progress while protecting the long-term value of the environment as well recognizing and considering the peoples' skills.

This comprehensive definition, which is used in this dissertation, does not limit the scope of sustainability. The justification does, however, emphasize that sustainability goals can only be achieved if all stakeholders are involved in the initial planning and decision-making. Implementation of development policies that are holistic and inclusive is critical. The concept of encouraging the local people to multiply employment opportunities through income-generative tourist activities, is aimed at poverty eradication. In other words, maintenance of socio-economic growth through sustainable utilization of natural resources and realization of the potentiality of people's skills is also crucial and is key in the current study.

Sustainable livelihoods approach to development accommodates issues of a community, concentrating on people's lives and focusing on their existing capitals (Scoones, 1998 and DFID 2000). The inclusive goal of sustainable development (SD) is the long-term dependability of the economy and environment; this is only attainable through the incorporation and acknowledgement of economic, environmental, people's skills and social apprehensions during the decision-making process (Stoddart, 2011). Emas, (2015) reveals that institutionally, government and other concerned organizations are naturally structured into sectoral offices and divisions. These sectors are expected to comprehensively work towards sustainable development through an integrated system, however, if these systems are administered through policies which are not inclusive and practice equity, they are bound not to achieve the sustainability goals. Furthermore, sustainable development entails the combination of economic, environmental, and consideration of physical assets of the people, as well as social objectives across sectors, territories, and generations throughout the decision-making process. The different and diverse ranges of activities that people engage in are the key definitions of their livelihoods. Guiding the community to utilize the resources they have for economic growth is also important. This calls for in-depth understanding of sustainable livelihoods which are discussed below.

2.4. Sustainable livelihoods

Sustainable livelihood comprises of people accessing resources (financial, physical, natural, human, and social), the ways in which people combine these capital assets to generate livelihoods, and their ability to expand their asset-base through relations with other actors and institutions (Apine *et al.*, 2019). For livelihood to be sustainable, there must be a secure ownership of, or access to resources and income-earning activities (Apine *et al.*, 2019; Imperatives, 1987). Community-driven tourism projects offer employment opportunities to the local communities, provide an income through profits and allow communities to have access to capital assets. Chambers and Conway (1992) referred to this ownership of and access to resources as, security. This security may comprise reserves and possessions to counterbalance risk, reduce shocks and deal with eventualities. A household may be empowered to achieve sustainable livelihood security in many ways. It may be through ownership of property like land, livestock or having rights to grazing, and fishing; it may also be through steady employment with adequate remuneration or through a varied collection of activities (Imperatives, 1987, Johansson, 2015;). In quest for livelihood strategies, some households turn to economic tourism activities and become members of a tourism project. In respect of community-driven tourism projects, a household is a family whose members or at least one member of the family participates in the activities of the project. A household which has membership in a community-driven tourism project is expected to own capital assets, such as traditional skills, indigenous/cultural knowledge, have access to natural tourism attractions, employment in tourism facility, consequently, earning an income from the tourism project.

Sustainable livelihood is about change (Johnson, 1997, DFID, 2000, Serrat, 2017; Lasso & Dahles, 2018). “At a very basic level, sustainable livelihoods are about the ways in which individuals, and a collective of individuals, use resources in order to survive. A resource here implies a good or service which individuals use to pursue, and ideally satisfy, their interests” (Johnson 1997:4). It is also about supporting communities to attain their own livelihood goals (DFID, 2000). Satgé, Hollaway, Mullins and Ward, (2013), describes sustainable livelihood as a concept of economic development, lesser vulnerability and environmental sustainability while strengthening the rural poor. In this vein, sustainable livelihoods for communities who operate a community-driven tourism project involve capability by the community to own, control and make use of their tourism capitals for betterment of their lives. People-centred analysis of sustainable livelihoods is spiralled around people’s assets, their livelihood outcomes which they are in search of, and the livelihood strategies which they espouse to realise these outcomes (Uddin and Gutberlet, 2018, Serrat, 2017, Stone and Nyaupane,

2017). In their study on tourism development and economic transformation in Komodo Island in Indonesia, Lasso and Dahles, (2018) demonstrated how livelihoods of a community in Komodo village changed through selling of souvenirs to tourists. These achievements were possible because the communities had access to local resources and people engaged in tourism activities.

Sustainable livelihoods are achieved through social structures and processes (Satgé *et al.*, 2013, Scoones, 1998). According to Scoones 1998, power relations are entrenched within dynamic institutions which are part of social dialogs as they connect stakeholders to enable them access capital assets. They also arbitrate for access to livelihood resources and in turn influence the alignment of sets of livelihood strategies. It is important to understand institutional structures so as to design interventions which improve sustainable livelihood outcomes (Scoones, 1998; Sati & Vangchhia, 2017). What can be construed from the accumulated literature is that, for communities to have sustainable livelihoods, they need to have access to capital assets whose access is mediated through institutional structures. The community, therefore, ought to be part of the construction of these structures. Additionally, to understand what it entails for the communities to have sustainable livelihoods, it is important to comprehend their vulnerability contexts too.

2.4.1. Vulnerability context

“Vulnerability is not the same as poverty. It means not lack or want but defencelessness, insecurity, exposure to risk, shocks and stress” (Chambers, 1989:1). A vulnerability context frames the external environment in which people exist. People’s livelihoods and the wider availability of assets are fundamentally affected by critical trends, as well as by shocks and seasonality – over which they have limited or no control (Çakir *et al.*, 2018; DFID, 2000). Vulnerability exists in two flanks referred to as, external and internal side risks (Çakir *et al.*, 2018; Chambers, 1989). In the external side of risks, there are shocks, seasonality, and critical trends as well as stresses which a person or a household are subjected to (Serrat, 2017, DFID, 2000, Chambers, 1989). These external risk factors may include climate, markets, disasters or droughts (Serrat, 2017). In the internal flank there is defencelessness which is caused by inability or lack of means to cope with stresses or contingencies (Serrat, 2017, DFID, 2000). Individuals may lack social support from kin or community, thus, becoming physically weak, economically penurious, socially dependent, disgraced or psychologically harmed (Ferrante *et al.*, 2018; Chambers, 1989).

Numerous processes, whether permanent trends or unexpected shocks, can have substantial effects on communities (Apine *et al.*, 2019). Even though it is assumed that rural people are more vulnerable to seasonal and weather changes (Srijuntrapun *et al.*, 2018), they are equally vulnerable to health, safety and personal harassment. Tourism businesses experience seasonality and there are various factors that influence seasonality in tourism, such as climate and weather, as well as institutional factors, such as those related to work and holiday periods (Ferrante *et al.*, 2018). Other factors may include social pressures, for example, fashion and sporting seasons or events (Ferrante *et al.*, 2018). Prices, political, and economic situations in a region, may influence or affect the flow of either domestic or international tourists to a destination (Shahrin and Marzuki, 2018). It may, therefore, be accurate to say that community-driven tourism projects may experience vulnerability. This is because most CDTPs' clients are domestic tourists who travel more during pay days, school holidays and Christmas seasons or religious pilgrimages. This may result in low profits for CDTPs during the off-pick seasons. Seasonality distresses employment through its effect on inducements for investments in human resources and efficiency (Turrión-Prats & Duro, 2018). Other vulnerability contexts may be experienced in cases of poor governance or political instability in a region. A poorly-managed project experiences divisions among members, mistrust, and lack of commitment to the operations of the project (Stone & Nyaupane, 2017). Political instability, in the same vein, keeps visitors away from tourist attractions, hence, low profits and may sometimes even result in closure (Tao & Wall 2009). The same might be experienced in cases of floods, drought or poor weather that might render the attraction sites inaccessible. To navigate their way through such uncertainties, households need to have livelihood diversification strategies; the CDTPs provide a platform for this diversification. The argument here is that, the communities need to be involved in various tourism income-generation activities. This means that an individual ought to have several skills; for example, one may be involved in cultural dance, making cultural artefacts while being employed in the restaurant as a waiter or a cook. The communities also need to be involved in the operations and decision-making in the projects to ensure full participation, commitment, hence, a sense of ownership. The Table below demonstrates examples of trends, shocks and seasonality that influence vulnerability.

Table 2.1 Vulnerability context

Trends	Shocks	Seasonality
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Population/demographic • Environmental • Economic • Governance (e.g. politics) • Technological 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Human health shocks (e.g. illnesses/diseases) • Natural shocks (e.g. floods, storms, drought) • Conflicts (e.g. civil war or conflicts) • Economic shocks (e.g. exchange rates) • Crop/livestock health shocks 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Prices (e.g. increase in prices) • Production (e.g. low or poor food production) • Health • Employment opportunities

Source; DFID, (2000) and Serrat, (2017)

Table 2.2. Vulnerability context explained

- **Shocks** can destroy assets directly (in the case of events like floods, storms and civil conflicts). They can also force people to abandon their home areas and dispose of assets (such as land) prematurely as part of coping strategies. Recent events have highlighted the impact that international economic shocks, including rapid changes in exchange rates and terms of trade, can have on the very poor.
- **Trends** may (or may not) be more benign, although they are more predictable. They have a particularly important influence on rates of return (economic or otherwise) to chosen livelihood strategies.
- **Seasonal** shifts in prices, employment opportunities and food availability are some of the greatest and most enduring sources of hardship for poor people, in developing countries

Source: (DFID, 2000:3)

It is important to understand the aspects that make up the Vulnerability Context because they have a direct effect on people's asset status and the choices that are open to them in their quest for useful livelihood outcomes. This makes the capital assets of local communities important for sustainability of their livelihoods. One of the reasons for putting sustainability into practice is to put emphasis on people's livelihoods (Morse & McNamara, 2013).

The sustainable livelihood approach has extensively been used to analyse people's livelihoods in agriculture and food security issues (Scoones, 1998, Allison and Horemans, 2006, Connolly-Boutin & Smit, 2016). It has also been used on climate change and environmental issues (Tanner, Lewis, Bronen & Prasad, 2015, Pandey, Jah, Atlato & Gupta, 2017). Earlier scholars have also used the sustainable livelihood approach to analyse tourism issues, such as tourism as a livelihood strategy for communities living adjacent to national parks (Tao & Wall, 2009). Other scholars, including Munanura *et al.* (2016) have investigated

the tourism revenue-sharing impact on the communities living next to a national park. Laeis and Lemke, (2016), examined the social entrepreneurship in tourism for communities in South Africa. The sustainable livelihood approach, however, has not been used to analyse the livelihoods of communities who have community-driven tourism projects. The sustainable livelihood approach is relevant in this study for it recognizes that the foundation of all human development and economic growth is derived from people's livelihoods.

2.4.2. Sustainable livelihoods approach for rural communities

The sustainable livelihood approach is an analytical method which depicts various aspects necessary for the eradication of poverty (Carney, 1999; Scoones, (2009). These approaches are essential for this study because they will not only guide in analysing the aspects that construct communities' livelihoods, but they will also assist in understanding the relationships among the aspects. This study is informed by the Livelihood concepts by DFID 1999 that believes that sustainable livelihoods is rested on "People's capacity to generate and maintain their means of living, enhance their well-being and that of future generations. These capacities are dependent upon the availability and accessibility of options which are natural, economic, human, physical and social and which are grounded on equity, ownership of resources and participatory in decision making". The livelihood concept has been used and modified by different organizations and scholars from time to time emanating from ideas that were put forward by Chambers and Conway, (1992) and Ellis (2000).

Carney, (2002) when revisiting the principles and frameworks of sustainable livelihoods, stressed that a poverty elimination development activity should be guided by normative and operational principles. In other words, they should have a standard evaluation guide which should be people-centred. Specifically, the poverty eradication ideologies must have respect for human freedom and choice; they should respond to people rather than resources or services; they should strive to empower the poor and provide opportunities for the wellbeing of the community (DFID, 2000; Carney. 2002; Scoones, 2009; Serrat, 2017). The poverty eradication development activities should also be responsive and participatory, sustainable, multilevel and holistic, conducted in partnership and disaggregated (Carney, 1999; Carney, 2002; DFID, 2002; Scoones 2009; Delai & Takahashi, 2011; Svensson & Wagner, 2015). In this study, the approach puts focus on CDTP policies and how or if they address the interests of the people and sustainability of livelihoods. The analysis of the responsiveness and participatory nature of the projects is also essential in attesting whether the institutional processes negotiate with the poor, and if the poor are key actors in identifying and addressing

livelihood priorities. Examining the role of partnerships in the CDTPs development is key, when analysing contributions to communities' livelihoods.

The above principles are fundamentally a checklist of existing best practice, but they also replicate the concerns and expectations that strengthen the frameworks (Brocklessby & Fisher, 2003; Toner, 2003). Distinguishing between different types of 'capital assets' draws attention to the variety of resources, which are often used in combination, and which people rely on to make a living. In the process of analysing livelihoods, there is a need to classify the livelihood resources or what amalgamation of capitals are necessary for various livelihood strategy combinations (Scoones, 1998). For example, in rural tourism, natural resources such as wildlife (natural capital) may be the key attractions that are drawing tourists to visit, hence, these make the area a tourist destination. For the host communities to benefit maximally from these destinations, they may, in addition, display their traditions through arts and crafts, performance of traditional dance for tourists (social capital), while others accommodate them in their lodges or provide food in restaurants (physical capital). Any entry fee charged, serves as an incentive for the dancing and payment for accommodation and meals is done, hence, there is enhancement of economic capital.

To comprehend the sustainable livelihood approaches, there is a need to understand capital assets and how they complement each other (Carney, 2003). They are explicitly discussed below.

2.4.3. Livelihood assets

A recent study conducted by Apine, Turner, Rodwell & Bhatta (2019), in South West India using the DFID's livelihood approach considered it to be a valuable tool for in-depth studies. The DFID sustainable livelihood approach is concerned with people. It aims to achieve a true and realistic understanding of people's strengths (assets or capital endowments) and how they attempt to translate these assets into positive livelihood outcomes (Carney & Ashely 1999). To achieve positive livelihood outcomes, people require a range of capital assets (Chambers & Conway, 1992). The poor needs a combination of all the five capital assets in order to achieve meaningful livelihood outcomes (Scoones, 1998, Ashely, 1999, Carney 2003). For instance, if people have to use the tourism resources as a diversification strategy, then they will need to have human capital (at least the minimal skills such as basic education, arts and craft making, housekeeping, cooking, sales, among others). Social capital is also necessary for networking, business relations and partnership. Livelihood strategies constitute

the various alternatives or options taken by people to strengthen their livelihood outcomes. This means that a household can choose to have diversified livelihood strategies. Asset ownership, policies, institutions, and policies determine the livelihood strategies which are opted for by households (Carney, 1998). Additionally, livelihood strategy for one household may affect the strategy for other households (Scoones, 1998). This is common in rural livelihood strategies which commonly are based on natural resources from a common pool (Carney, 1998). Livelihood outcomes are results or achievements derived from livelihood strategies opted for by a household (DFID, 2000). For instance, households may execute a certain livelihood strategy to improve food security, thereby, enhance nutritional requirements for the family (Bebington, 1999). A dominant view is that different households have access to different livelihood assets, and the sustainable livelihood approach aims to build on them (Serrat, 2017). These assets are: -

(i) **Social capital**

Social capital is a resource that comprises social relations designed by norms of trust and reciprocity. It is a communal action-resource which enables achievement of a positive livelihood outcome (DFID, 2000). Aigner, Raymond and Smidt, (2002), Emery *et al.* (2006) and Flora, Flora & Fey, (2004) recognize social capital as the networking account. They further argue that it represents close ties between and among family and friends, organizations, groups, communities, networks and trust in the community, and gives the sense of belonging among people and creates a bond between people. The culture and traditions of people, the relationship between groups and the willingness to participate in different social groups strengthens the social bonds in a community. It can influence or be influenced by the stock and flows of other capitals. According to Haan & Zoomers, (2005), social capital has the ability to enhance economic wellbeing, democracy, and human capital. For example, people form Savings and Credit Cooperative Organizations (SACCO) based on trust and common interests. Fairness and consensus is need to build trust in leadership. Social capital can be assessed on various levels, such as individual, community and organisational (Serrat, 2017).

Social capital includes both formal and informal connections created to strengthen social relations (Serrati, 2010). It is created via linkages across families and communities. Connections and networks of this nature are vital for their ability to promote joint action and building trust among people concerned (Aigner *et al.*, 2002). Flora *et al.*, (2004), affirm that social capital can be constructed through membership in formal groups, such as workers' unions and clubs. Scoones, (1998) reiterates that social networks may also develop through trust, reciprocity and interaction which in turn increase cooperation and bargaining power

among social groups. While social capital is a useful vehicle for the creation of sustainable livelihoods, it can be equally detrimental if handled inappropriately. For example, exploitative connections which are based on superior-subordinate relationships are likely to hinder opportunities of growth for subordinates (Stone and Nyaupane, 2017). Putman, (1993) argues that areas with more effective, active and comprehensive governments and economies, have more “horizontal” social relationships (founded on trust and common principles), and advanced stages of participation in social organizations than areas where social structures are more “vertical” and based on authorities. Most governments in Africa are vertical and based on authorities which make it difficult for the poor communities to grow their social capital for their livelihoods. An example is the various CBTs which have been practicing the top-bottom kind of operation where the local people have little say. Community-driven tourism projects are therefore a better platform to grow social capital because they can build networks within themselves and grow their finances through local SACCOs. He further asserts that social capital is an ingredient for economic development (Putman, 1993).

(ii) Physical capital

Physical capital includes physical structures and rudimentary construction resources required to support a livelihood. This includes roads, transport, housing and telecommunications (Serrat, 2017). These infrastructures are usually owned by the government and are freely accessed without any charges, with a few exceptions where a service fee is expected (DFID, 2000). These physical resources may be owned by individuals or groups who are also responsible for their upkeep and maintenance (Carney, 1999). Inefficient or poor infrastructure affect the quality of the produce and may result in gross inefficiencies and a decrease in the productive capacity of individuals (Blake *et al.*, 2006). For many rural areas, limited access to physical capital, specifically infrastructure, hinders the creation of sustainable livelihoods (Carney, 1999). Serrati, (2010) noted that many organisations measure poverty using the availability of infrastructural assets as the major indicator of well-being. DFID, (1999) cautions that without adequate access to services such as water and energy, human wellbeing depreciates, and a lot of time is spent in non-productive activities such as the collection of water and firewood. The opportunity costs linked with poor infrastructure can hamper education, access to health services and income generation.

Considering the role of infrastructure in facilitating rural development, issues of access and external support are crucial when analysing physical capital. Scholars, like Scoones, (1998), Wang, (2015) and Xu *et al.* (2015), measured physical capital through assessing the productive equipment and basic infrastructure of households. This method classified all the variables for physical capital as either, basic infrastructure or productive equipment.

(iii) **Financial/Economic capital**

Financial capital includes all cash and cash-equivalent resources that can be used to sustain livelihoods of households DFID, (2000). The list encompasses saving at home or in financial houses, all forms of financial credits, remittances, cash and pensions (Scoones, 1998: Carney, 1999: Adato & Meinzen-Dick, 2002). Kratz, (2001) further categorizes this asset as the capital base (cash, credit/debt, savings, and other economic assets, including basic infrastructure and production equipment and technologies) which are essential for the pursuit of any livelihood strategy. There are mainly two categories of financial capital, namely, financial stocks and regular inflow income (DFID, 1999). Available stocks include liquid assets, cash in hand, in the bank, cheques, and other forms of cash assets, such as livestock and grain stores which can be easily converted into cash (DFID, 2000). Financial capital plays an important role as an enabler or 'lubricant' to other forms of capital. It allows the acquisition of capitals, as well as strengthening the capabilities of households. Households with a financially stable background are likely to obtain institutional support and develop productive social networks. For rural households, lack of financial capital is regarded as the main obstacle hindering development initiatives and is also the major driver of unsustainability. It is also vital to consider that having access to financial capital in isolation from other capitals, is not a panacea for poverty reduction in rural areas. While financial capital is an abler of development, it cannot be directly substituted for some intrinsic aspects, like lack of knowledge, therefore, a well-balanced combination of livelihoods is likely to bring more sustainable livelihood outcomes and is the most preferred condition in a society.

Interventions spearheaded to expand financial capital accumulation, require a deep understanding of the types of financial services available to a targeted group (Hemme *et al.*, 2004). This includes an analysis of the nature of financial services they provide and how they are accessed. Other scholars, such as Ellis, (1998), Carney, (1999), Krats, (2001), Serrat, (2017) and Bhandari, (2013) categorised financial capital as household income, savings and investments and access to other financial services and aid. This classification is relevant for operational purposes, so as to know which category is to be emphasized or to advice the people on how to grow their own finances. Financial capital asset influences Human Capital accumulation through enhancement of education or skills (Abubakar, Kassim, and Yusoff, 2015). Furthermore, Ellis, 1999, Allison and Horemans, (2006) maintain that a strong financial capital asset is the backbone of households in rural communities as it can be used to improve the quality of the other capital assets (social, physical, human and natural).

(iv) **Human capital**

Human capital encompasses the skills, knowledge, capabilities and health conditions which enable one to take up various livelihood strategies (Serrat, 2010). While other forms of capital offer some plausible degree of their importance, human capital seems to be at the centre of all capitals (Allisona and Horemans, 2006). This is so because the amount and quality of human capital available to households has a direct bearing on livelihood outcomes. According to Adato and Meizen-Dick, (2002) there are two forms in which human capital can be accumulated - direct or indirect. The direct way of accumulating human capital involves attending schools, workshops or some form of training which can enhance a person's intellectual capacity. Indirect forms of human capital accumulation include, transforming structures and processes, for example, through making changes in institutions or cultures and norms that limit people from accessing health and education (women or people with disabilities) (DFID, 1999). Investing in human capital requires a great amount of sacrifice and willingness to improve one's personal capacity (Farrington, Carney, Ashely and Turton, 1999).

There are numerous indicators which can be used to assess human capacity. These comprise of education attainment indicators, such as years spent at school, quality of education received and other trainings received (Allisona and Horemans, 2006). It also includes leadership potential, life expectancy and available local knowledge. In an attempt to circumvent the difficulties encountered in measuring human capital, the World Economic Forum, WEF, (2013) identified four sub-classes of human capital - education, health and wellness, workforce and employment and an enabling environment. These are, however, not static; they are often changing with time and research.

(v) **Natural capital**

Natural capital comprises of the stock of natural resources that are available, within the environment that are used for deriving livelihoods (Carney, 2003). In addition, Lee, (2008) explains Natural capital as agricultural products, such as crops and livestock as well as rural landscapes. The main components of the natural resource are - land, water, soil, air, forests and genetic resources (DFID, 2000). For households residing in rural areas, Scoones (1998) comments that natural resources form the basis for livelihoods. DFID, (1999) describes livelihood activities to be those activities that are generated from natural resources and they include agriculture, fishing, land, mining and fruit gathering. Natural capital is relevant to the study for its ability to foster livelihood activities in rural communities through conservation of

the natural resources and utilizing them for tourism activities. These activities can include boat riding, birdwatching and wildlife viewing.

Natural capital is the premise which enables the functioning of other forms of capitals. Natural capital can be analysed on the bases of availability, access, quality and variations of these attributes over time. Meanwhile, environmental economists employ direct use, indirect use and non-use values, when evaluating natural capital (Bhandari, 2013). He further asserts that measuring natural capital involves focusing on the flora and fauna, land, water, air and environmental services accessed by a household. This style of classification views natural capital in the form of access and stocks available to the household.

Anchoring on the sustainable livelihood approach to poverty reduction, the study is also informed by Kratz, (2001) who focuses on involving people in both the identification and the implementation of activities, where appropriate, as key to poverty alleviation. According to Kratz, (2001), there are three view of poverty which reinforce the sustainable livelihood approach. The first one is the comprehension that while economic growth may be vital for poverty reduction, there is no spontaneous correlation between the two since poverty depends on the capabilities of the poor to make use of economic opportunities to improve their livelihoods. It is also important to note that poverty, as regarded by the poor themselves, is not just an element of low income (Scoones, 2009), but it also includes other dimensions such as bad health, illiteracy and lack of social services, as well as a state of vulnerability and feelings of powerlessness in general (Carney, 2003, Toner, 2017). It is clearly seen that there is need for more poverty-focused programs that not only empower the community but also alleviate poverty. It is equally important to have alternative programs that can help to empower local communities and build capacity which will in turn, improve their livelihoods. Empowerment is a multi-dimensional concept including economic, social, political, and psychological empowerment. Regular economic gains from formal or informal sector employment and business opportunities can help economically empower the community.

For more understanding of the concept of Sustainable Livelihood Approach (SLA) the following section explores the Sustainable Livelihood Frameworks (SLFs).

2.4.4. Sustainable livelihood framework

The study is anchored on the community-led development approaches that enhance livelihoods. In this study, the community-led development approach is a process of working together to achieve local communities' own goals. Development plans are the vision of the community, where the voice of the community is heard and where the community's interests are a priority. Sustainable livelihood approaches (SLA) can be considered in many different ways (Morse and McNamara, 2013). Krantz, (2001 pp.3 & 4) argues that there are two main ways of using SLA. There is the approach taken by DFID which perceives SLF as a framework for analysis while other agencies, such as UNDP and CARE apply it to facilitate the planning of tangible projects and programmes. Furrington, (2001) contends that as a set of principle guiding development dimensions, any intervention has to be evidence-based, rather than designed in a top-down manner, without satisfactory knowledge of the community. One may then view SLF as a sustainable livelihood checklist that needs to be considered before an intervention is planned. The following section discusses a few Sustainable Livelihood Frameworks that are not only relevant to the study but also serve as a guide in investigating sustainable rural livelihoods.

The sustainable livelihood framework according to Scoones, (1998) (Figure 2.3) is a well-used and accepted SLF; for example, Tao & Wall 2009 used the framework to examine the usage of tourism as a livelihood strategy in Anhui Province in China. Mutaka, (2018) also used it to investigate utilization of available water resource to improve livelihoods, in Kitui County, Kenya.

It demonstrates how, in diverse circumstances, sustainable livelihoods are attained through access to a variety of livelihood resources (natural, economic, human and social capitals) which are taken as a collective in the pursuit of different livelihood strategies (agricultural escalation or intensification, livelihood diversification and migration, tourism as a livelihood strategy).

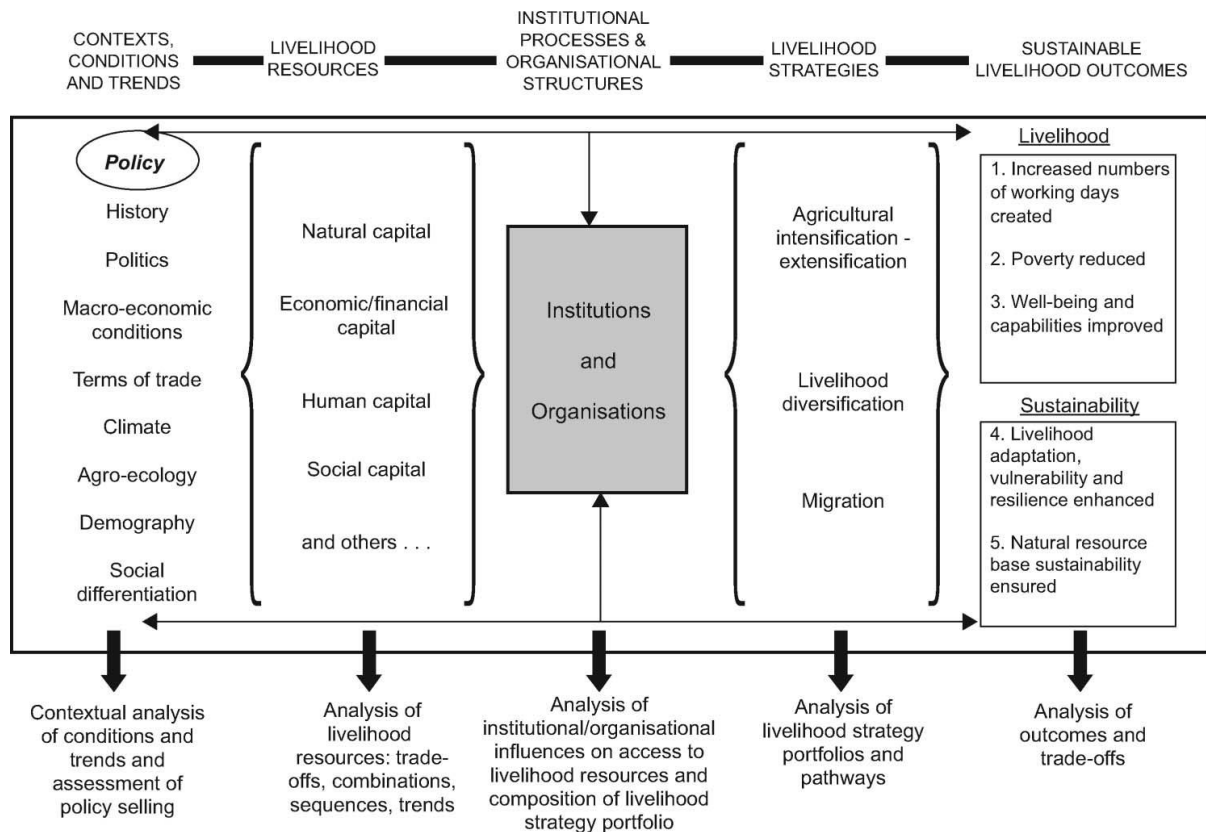


Figure 2.3. Sustainable livelihood framework adopted from Scoones, (1998:4)

A vulnerability context is the external environment in which households exist in such times as during economic trends, shocks and seasonality (DFID, 2000; Carney, 2003, and Scoones, 2009).

While trends, shocks and seasonality bring changes to households' livelihoods, the impact may not, necessarily, be negative always. Vulnerability is purely influenced by external forces, hence, people have limited control over them (Tao and Wall, 2009). Livelihood capitals form the basis on which households construct their livelihood strategies DFID, (2000). Livelihood strategies constitute the various alternatives or options taken by people to strengthen their livelihood outcomes (Scoones, 2009). This implies that a household can choose to have diversified livelihood strategies (Hopwood, Mellor, and O'Brien, 2005).

Livelihood strategies that households opt for may be owned and determined through asset ownership, culture and social organizations, policies or institutions (Carney, 1998). Additionally, livelihood strategy for one household may affect the strategy for other households. This is common in rural livelihood strategies where these strategies are usually based on natural resources, which are a common property for an entire village (Ellis, 2000). Livelihood outcomes are results or achievements derived from livelihood strategy opted for by

a household (Tao & Wall, 2011). Scoones, (2009) further explains that households may execute a certain livelihood strategy to improve food security and enhance nutritional requirements for the family. To investigate and analyse sustainable rural livelihoods, Scoones, (1998) recommends that one needs to ask the following questions:

“Given a particular context (of policy setting, politics, history, agroecology and socio-economic conditions), what combination of livelihood resources (different types of capitals) result has the ability to follow what combination of livelihood strategies (agricultural intensification, livelihood diversification and migration) with what outcomes?”

The questions that arise in Community-driven Tourism Projects are - *What are community tourism resources (for example, natural tourist attractions) that the communities can transform into financial capital? What other tourism capitals can be built from the economic capital for a positive livelihood outcome?* The institutional processes in this framework (Figure 2.3.) may either be formally or informally structured. The main role of these organizations is to mediate the ability to carry out activities for means of survival or strategies for livelihood outcomes. In other words, the institutional structures influence the livelihood outcomes and they may enhance or constrain the people’s ability to earn a living (Scoones, 1998). The framework can be applied to analyse different livelihood outcomes, assessed at different levels, for various categories of people including house clusters, villages, communities or regions. In this study, livelihood diversification is equated to the tourism activities that the local communities are involved in and those that sustain their livelihoods (Scoones, 1998). In this study, It was important to understand the sustainable livelihood approach so as to examine sustainable livelihood framework for tourism.

2.4.5. Sustainable livelihood framework for tourism

The formation of tourism areas and related developments sometimes result in displacement and relocation of local communities (Sirima & Backman, 2013; Su, Wall, & Xu, 2016a). Instances, like the expansion of protected areas, such as National Parks or Heritage sites has resulted in the displacement of communities. Examples are the displacement of the Makuleke people for expansion of Kruger National Park, and the displacement of the people around the Kit Mikayi historical rock to protect it as a tourist site. This disrupts economic arrangements,

socio-political administrations and processes (Sirima & Backman, 2013). The local communities are key to the success of tourism development in an area, in that, they own the attractions; they provide labour and fresh food supplies in tourism establishments; they provide an alternative tourist experience through cultural resources. As important stakeholders in tourism, the host communities and their livelihoods are critical to tourism's sustainability and development of the region. It is, therefore, significant to examine tourism and its contribution to the livelihoods of the community (Su *et al.*, 2018). DFID (1999), Carney, (2002), Allisona and Horemans, (2006) and Serrat, (2017) advocate for a people-centred, holistic and sustainable livelihood approach, based upon five key features - *Livelihood assets* (economic, social, human, physical and Natural), *Vulnerability context* (shocks, trends and seasonality), *Strategies* (activities employed to generate means of household survival) and *Outcomes* (success and objectives that livelihood strategies achieve) (Carney, 2002).

As a rural livelihood choice, tourism needs to be understood in comparison with other traditional rural livelihoods, for example, agriculture, forestry and others (Stone and Nyaupane, 2017). In this sense, tourism is a livelihood opportunity and its distinctiveness can be observed from the angle of production-consumption (Shen, Hughey & Simmons, (2008). Tourism 'products' include tourism-oriented products - accommodation, food services, transportation - as well as common resident-oriented products - infrastructure, security, hospitals - and contextual tourism essentials - landscapes, cultures and public attractions. Kheiri and Nasihatkon, (2016) argue that sustainable livelihood (SL) for tourism is a convergence of sustainable, as well as rural and tourism development. Not only should SL be viewed and analysed in the context of rural development but also in the context of tourism (Mitchell and Hall, 2005; Saarinen, 2007).

Several frameworks attempt to comprehend the intricate relationships between tourism, development and community livelihoods (Kheiri and Nasihatkon, 2016; Wall, 2016 and Mbaiwa, 2018). Salafsky and Wollenberg, (2000) developed a framework to link biodiversity conservation and the people's livelihoods. They argue that when people's livelihoods are dependent on biodiversity only, there is a tendency to exploit some of these biological resources to extinction. The common approach to conserve biodiversity has been the creation of parks and protected areas that have no impact on people's livelihoods (Mbaiwa, 2010; Adams, Aveling, Dickson, and Wolmer, 2004; Nyaupane & Poudel, 2011). These scholars note that the strategy of creation of protected areas causes foreclosure of future land use options, thereby, denying the local communities' other potential opportunities for their improving their livelihoods. The creation of protected areas may result in the eviction of

original occupiers from their land and this may subject them to intensification of poverty (Adams, *et al.*, 2004).

There is a need, in such situations, to provide an alternative source of livelihood for the communities, such as economic substitution activities (Salafsky and Wollenberg, 2000). They further proposed a linked-incentives model where livelihoods are the main drivers of biodiversity. This means that local communities are given an opportunity to benefit directly from biodiversity, and consequently have a motivation to stop external threats (for example, water pollution and corporate logging) to the biodiversity. In the linked-incentives model, Salafsky and Wollenberg, (2000) provide a link between biodiversity (the species, habitat and others) and the livelihood intervention (for example, handcrafts, ecotourism, honey hives, or butterfly production). This link is the driving force behind the order of activities leading to conservation (Salafsky, Gauley, Balachander & Parks, 2001). Salafsky *et al.*, (2001) assert that the gap is closed, if the system is self-preserving so that the linked activities would eliminate internal threats (for example, overhunting and cyanide fishing). This can be done by providing more reliable livelihood options so that the stakeholders no longer practice those biodiversity-damaging activities, like poaching, which they did before (Salafsky and Wollenberg, 2000). These activities should also be able to improve the value of biodiversity for the local people, thus motivating them to take actions to lessen both the internal and external threats to the biodiversity (Salafsky *et al.*, 2001).

Natural resources are fundamental linkages between human beings and natural resources, such as forests and water. People need the natural resources for consumption and may draw a livelihood from them. In order to have a linkage between biodiversity conservation and livelihoods, Waligo, Clarke and Hawkins, (2013) argue that this strategy requires that community development projects generate money and non-monetary benefits, such as leadership training and capacity building for the stakeholders, and that the stakeholders have the capacity to take action to lessen internal and external threats. However, Ashley *et al.*, (2000) content that this linkage, may be inadequate for conservation guarantees, especially, if the stakeholders or the community do not observe the link. Salafsky & Wollenberg, (2000) thus resonate with Ashley *et al.*, (2000); Salafsky *et al.*, (2001); Waligo, *et al.*, (2013), that for conservation to happen, practitioners should come up with a conservation strategy that suits the situation at the site. Salafsky & Wollenberg (2000), then adopted an appropriate mix of strategies, that included protected areas, unlinked incentives, linked incentives and other strategies such as education and awareness. They, however, overlooked community projects that are initiated by the community themselves, for their livelihood sustainability and empowerment.

Tourism, as an important service sector, is different from other productive sectors (Shen *et al.*, 2008). This is because it is intangible and consumed at its place of production. That means that it is not transferable and also cannot be stored; this makes it perishable. Tourism is also perceived differently by different communities, depending on its impact on their livelihoods. Communities may have a positive attitude towards tourism development because they draw an economic value from it, while, another community may perceive it negatively due to its negative social-cultural impacts, such as cultural erosion. Su *et al.*, (2016) and Stone & Nyaupane, (2017) echo this view and add that this is more practical, particularly, for rural development where tourism is used as a livelihood strategy. Shen *et al.*, (2008) argue that the SL approach or conventional tourism research theories may not completely guide tourism to realise sustainable rural development, hence, integration of SL and tourism is required (Mbaiwa, 2010 and Mbaiwa and Stronza, 2011). Based on the above, Shen *et al.*, (2008) suggest that a tourism-livelihood approach is one that is broad and includes core livelihood assets (natural, human, economic, social, and physical capitals), activities related to tourism, and having access to these capitals to provide a means of living. Shen *et al.*, (2008) added ***institutional capital***, as a livelihood asset presented, and they defined it as a platform to provide community's access to tourism markets and tourism-benefits sharing. They further suggested that institutional capital should be a stepping stone for communities to participate in policy-making process. It is a reflection of people's willingness to be involved and should be concerned with better livelihood outcomes (Shen, *et al.*, 2008).

According to Su *et al.*, (2019), a sustainable tourism-livelihood is embedded in a tourism setting within which it can cope with vulnerability, and achieve livelihood outcomes which are economically, socially, environmentally as well as institutionally sustainable without undermining other livelihood diversifications; these sentiments were emphasized by Chambers & Conway, 1992 and Ellis, (2000); sustainable tourism, thus, can only exist within a sustainable destination (Su, Wall & Lin, 2016, Su *et al.*, 2019). A sustainable tourism livelihood approach is consequently purposed to incorporate key principles of SL and tourism (Shen *et al.*, 2008).

A proposed idea under, 'Sustainable Livelihoods Framework for Tourism' (SLFT) by Shen *et al.*, (2008) demonstrated the key features of a tourism livelihoods' system which include assets, tourism-related and non-tourism-related activities, outcomes, institutional arrangements and vulnerability context. In SLFT, tourism is seen as a context in which all factors are embedded, influenced, and precast. Unlike Pro Poor Tourism (PPT) which considers poverty in the tourism arena, (Shen *et al.*, 2008) explains that SLFT integrates key

principles of both the SLA and tourism and offers an organising framework to examine rural development, with tourism as a livelihood strategy. The SLFT proposed by Shen *et al.*, 2008, provides broad intervention measures effected by general stakeholders and focuses on macro level (International and domestic tourism industry). There is a need, therefore, for new theories on tourism development for sustainable livelihood, at the household (micro) level (Su *et al.*, 2016), consequently, the examination of the contribution of CDTPs to communities' livelihoods, in the current research, contributes to this debate.

Rural development is best executed if the local communities are involved in the initial planning process, the operation and management of the development project, as well as in major decision-making, (Blackstock, 2005, Tosun, 2006, Stone and Nyaupane, 2017 and Saguin, 2018). Su *et al.*, (2019), argue that community-based tourism projects provide a sustainable livelihood, if the communities have access to their capital assets. Institutional structures that manage these projects advocate for access to capital assets. There is a need, therefore, to examine the structures in these projects to determine the extent to which they allow the communities to have access to tourism capitals. The current study, thus, investigates the institutional structures and processes that oversee the operation of CDTPs and how they mediate for access to capital assets for communities' livelihoods. Additionally, Serrat, (2010) affirmed that the communities are well informed of their priorities, thus, have full legitimacy to utilize all the resources at their disposal, for sustainable livelihoods (Dongier, Domelon, Ostrom and others, 2003). Based on the above exposés, the following section reviews extant literature on community-driven development, community participation in tourism development, its impacts, as well as an examination of various community participation frameworks. This review will assist in understanding and analysing of the best ways to diversify and enhance communities' livelihoods through community-driven tourism projects.

2.5. Community-driven development

Community-Driven Development (CDD) is a way of providing social and physical services to the poor, organizing economic activities and resource management, as well as empowering the poor and improving governance (Krishna, 2000).

“CDD gives control of decisions and resources to community groups. These groups often work in partnership with demand-responsive support organizations and service providers, including elected local governments, the private sector, NGOs, and central government agencies” (Dongier et al., 2003).

The fact that the communities are in charge of their projects, gives them control of their assets (Dongier *et al.*, 2003), however, literature has documented the failure of CDDs which are supported by donors, NGOs and elected government officials (Zapata 2011; Lucchetti, 2013; Yanes *et al.*, 2019). There is a need, therefore, to put emphasis and support on purely community-controlled projects, where the communities make use of their various forms of their capital to grow their economy and sustain their livelihoods. Dongier *et al.*, add that CDD treats poor people as assets and partners in the development process, building on their institutions and resources. Blackstock, (2005) revealed that support to CDD typically comprises solidification and financing comprehensive community groups, enabling community access to information, and supporting an enabling environment through policy and institutional reform.

In community-based developments, the communities are expected to use their social capital to establish themselves and participate in development processes (Mansuri & Rao, 2004). Accordingly, an idea such as social capital, is critical to how community participation is conceptualized and implemented (Bebbington, Dharmawan and Fahmi, 2004). Earlier scholars such as (Ravallion 2001; Mahony & Van Zyl, 2001) have displayed various benefits of community-driven development approaches. Some of these benefits are:

1. CDD complements market and public sector activities: Literature has shown that policies aimed at national economic competitiveness and state-run public investments do not benefit everyone and in most cases, benefits take a very long time to trickle down to the community (Mahony and Van Zyl, 2002). Markets alone, on the other hand, cannot provide goods and services for poverty reduction. By use of the CDD approach the private sector and NGOs are able to provide some of these services for poverty reduction (Bebbington *et al.*, 2004).
2. Enhances sustainability: As consumers, the local communities are the most legitimate and well-informed of their priorities (Stone and Nyaupane, 2017). Demand is better expressed when the communities contribute to investment costs and control investment choices, hence, making them sustainable (Mbaiwa and Stronza, 2010).

Community-driven development improves service delivery at the grassroots level because the communities are able to make choices of interventions, based on priorities (Mansuri and Rao, 2004; Wong and Guggenheim, 2018). In areas where development projects are driven by the community, it is likely that there will be an increase in social capital, hence, better resource distribution. Furthermore, since responsibilities and resources are devolved to grassroots, development activities are expected to be instantaneous and as a result, poverty should be alleviated (Dongier *et al.*, 2003, Wong and Guggenheim 2018;

Ensiminger, 2017); all these can only be achieved if the communities participate fully in development. The following section examines at community participation in development and the benefits that come with it.

2.5.1 Community participation in development

Community participation in development has been a key deliberation point among scholars in the recent past (Van der Duim *et al.*, 2006; Stroma, 2006; Mbaiwa and Stronza, 2010; Yung and Chan, 2011; Su & Wall, 2014, Rasoolimanesh *et al.*, 2017, Stone & Nyaupane 2017; Su *et al.*, 2019). In addition, strategies for community participation are increasing, yet there is a need to recognise and understand the true nature of empowerment and its influence on local communities (Smith, 2006). Breidenhann and Ramchander, (2006), have identified very appropriate mechanisms that can result in community inclusion and empowerment. McGettingen, Burns and Candon, (2006), for example, advocate a bottom-up approach in community development. Tourism projects in rural areas need to empower the community, socially, economically and environmentally. This is because tourism attractions in rural areas are mainly natural resources and culture, which are owned by the community.

Communities can only be fully empowered if they play part in the inception, development and final product of tourism in their area. Community participation in tourism development provides linkages between tourism and natural resource conservation (Bello *et al.*, 2016) as it leads to community empowerment, through ownership and decision-making (Stone & Nyaupane, 2017). Other benefits of community participation in tourism development are preservation and conservation of natural resources, preservation of people's culture, as well as economic benefits (Bello *et al.*, 2016; Mbaiwa & Stronza, 2010; Okazaki, 2008). In order to understand and address the complexity of community participation in different levels of tourism development, the following section looks at the impacts of tourism on livelihoods of rural communities.

2.5.1.1 Impacts of Tourism on rural Livelihoods

Tourism has both positive and negative impacts on people and especially the host communities' livelihoods. It is therefore paramount to understand some of these impacts before any proposal is made on the best approaches on rural tourism and people's livelihoods, (Nyaupane and Poudel, 2011; Su *et al.*, 2019).

2.5.1.1.1 Potential Positive impacts of tourism on livelihoods

According to Ashely *et al.*, (2000), tourism can support livelihood goals, such as financial security, preservation of communities' culture, facilitation of the building of health amenities, recreation facilities, and education/training centres. Financial security may be provided through employment in tourism facilities, providing trading atmosphere for small-scale entrepreneurs, or providing small-scale business options for unskilled and semi-skilled communities (Gutierrez-Tano, and Garau-Vadell., 2018). Preservation of culture, on the other hand, may be provided through contributing to cultural restoration (Simpson, 2007). Literature is however silent on other potential positive impacts of tourism on livelihoods, such as human capital empowerment and social bond. Through the provision of employment opportunities and small-scale business options, the local communities are able to educate their children, as well as advance their skills. Social networks and bonds are created during cultural events, traditional dance performances to tourists and this also gives the community a sense of pride in their culture.

2.5.1.1.2 Possible negative impacts on livelihoods

Tourism can destabilize economic security, self-determination and health by creating dependence on an unpredictable tourism industry, among the workers; this is also through generating local inflation, caused by the perception that tourists have lots of money so prices on items in tourist hubs tend to be higher, disempowering residents from decision-making, and aggravating the spread of diseases (Gu and Ryan, 2008 and Gu, 2008). Gu, (2008) further argues that conflict with other activities, for instance residents abandoning their agricultural farmlands to engage in tourism activities, and human/wildlife conflicts, are likely to occur. Desertion of agricultural farmlands and farming results in low food production, hence high costs of food items. There is also the over-burdening of physical infrastructure, such as sewage and the water supply (Adams *et al.*, 2004, Leon, 2006, Stone and Nyaupane, 2016). In other studies, tourism has been portrayed as intensifying policy constraints; for instance, it has been seen to avert policy-makers' attention, overlooking assets and infrastructure investment to prioritize tourism over other local activities (Ashley *et al.* 2000; Akama & Kieti, 2007).

The sustainable livelihood concept is driven by arguments that development organizations must be based on an integrated (social, environmental and economic) approach to

management, with organizational culture and values that support collaborative sharing of knowledge and encourage participation of all stakeholders in the process (Karagiannis and Apostolou's, 2004). Previous literature maintains that the poor themselves often know their conditions, needs and should therefore be involved in the designing of policies and projects intended to better their lives (Jacobs and Makaudze, 2012; Sachikonye, Dalu, and Gunter, 2016; Serrat, 2017; Su, Wall, Wang and Jin, 2019). As has been discussed earlier, for the achievement of sustainable development and livelihoods in an area, there has to be a balance between the three dimensions of sustainability - economic, environmental and social. Rural communities have resources, which after they are invested, create new resources which become capital assets (Nyaupane and Stone 2017; Serrat, 2017; Emery and Flora, 2006). It is these invested resources that are divided into capitals, within the sustainability dimensions (Flora, Flora and Gasteyer, 2016). Flora *et al.*, (2016) describe these invested resources as Community Capitals and they divide them into seven capitals - social, human, built (physical), financial, natural (environmental), cultural and political capitals. These community capitals are invested to create a stream and an interaction among them; these create stability in communities' livelihood. This systematic building of capital is discussed below in the form of a framework (Figure 2.4).

2.5.2 Community capital framework

This study explores the Community Capitals Framework (CCF) by Emery and Flora, (2006), which proposes a way to analyse community and their economic development exertions from a system's perspective by - identifying the assets in each capital, the types of capital invested (flow), the interaction among the capitals, and the resulting impacts across capitals. This analytical framework has been chosen for this study as it emphasizes on capital assets which are community endowments that provide sustainable livelihoods for the community. These community capitals are - economic, social, natural, human, physical and political assets. Cultural capital assets have been incorporated and are examined in this section because they are significant in community participation in development, because the traditions, norms and way of life of a community are tourist attractions. Similarly, political capital is momentous because it represents the people's ability to voice out their rights and engage in actions, including lobbying, that contribute to their wellbeing (Flora *et al.*, 2004).

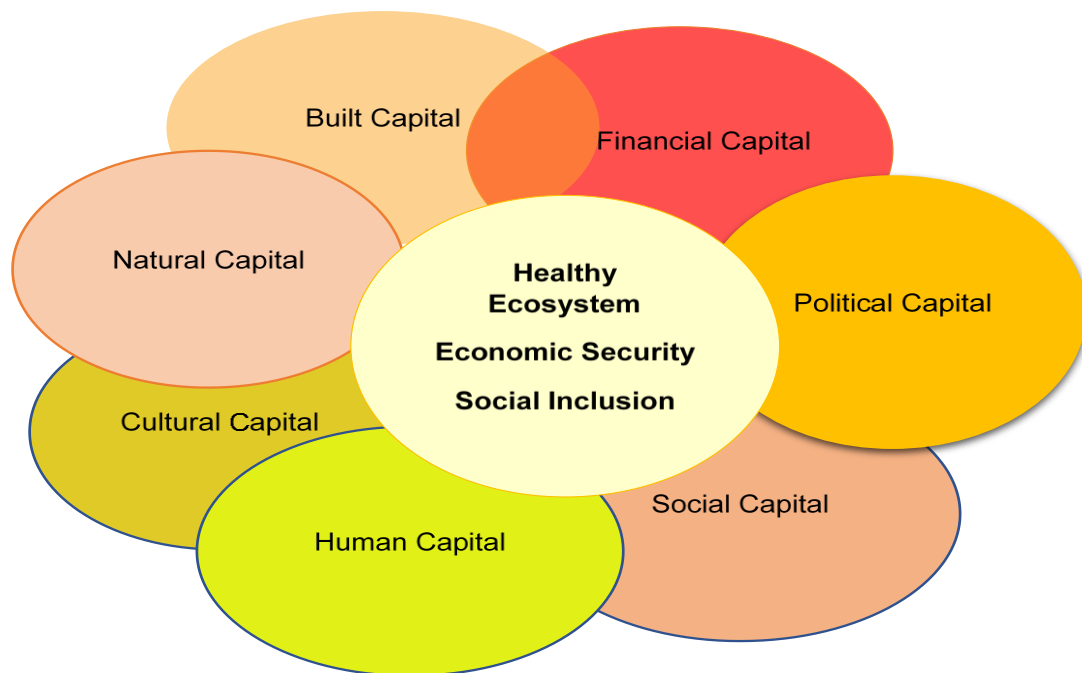


Fig. 2.4. Community Capitals Framework model (Adapted from Emery & Flora, 2006:333)

Natural capital refers to those assets that abide in a location - weather, geographic segregation, natural resources, and natural beauty (Flora *et al.*, 2018). They further allude that cultural capital echoes the way people "know the world" and how they behave, as well as their traditions and language. Cultural capital influences what voices people listen to, which voices have influence in what areas, and how originality, invention, and inspirations develop, as well as how they are fostered (Bebbington, 1999; Flora *et al.*, 2018, Shen *et al.*, 2008).

For the communities living adjacent to tourist attractions, tourism activities are a livelihood just like other livelihood activities, for example, crop farming, fisheries, forestry, thus, tourism needs to be understood as such. In this sense, tourism is a livelihood opportunity and its uniqueness can be examined from the approach of production-consumption (Shen *et al.*, 2008). Furthermore, tourism has long been considered to be an effective catalyst of rural development and revitalization (Akama and Kieti, 2005; Tao & Wall 2009). Su *et al.*, 2016, hence, stress that as significant stakeholders of tourism, destination communities' livelihoods are key to tourism sustainability and regional development. Previous studies have supported the potential for tourism to increase livelihood portfolios and have encouraged tourism activities that provide livelihood diversifications (Su *et al.*, 2019; Lasso & Dahles, 2018; Stone & Nyaupane, 2018). Consequently, incorporation of SL and tourism community capitals is necessary in assessing tourism and community livelihood interactions (Su *et al.*, 2019).

2.5.2.1. Tourism Community Capitals Framework (TCCF) for sustainable livelihoods

In this study, tourism community capitals are the tourism resources that the communities have access to for livelihood diversification. They may be *natural* (wildlife, landscapes, rivers or lakes and others), *economic* (employment in tourism establishments, direct income from tourists and income-generative activities), *social* (social networks, partnership, relations, social groups or clubs that the community participate in), *physical* (restaurants, accommodation facilities and historical attractions), *human* (tourism-related skills, such as tour guiding, housekeeping, curating, marketing and leadership). According to Stone and Nyaupane (2017), most tourism operators and protected-area managements are concerned with conservation and tourism development but not the improvement of the livelihoods of the host community. Additionally, Richard and Hall, (2003) noted that the foundation for sustainable tourism development rests upon guarantees of renewable socio-cultural and economic benefits to the community and its environment. It is necessary, therefore, to separate community capitals in terms of tourism from the livelihood benefits that communities draw from them. To address this, Aquino *et al.*, 2018 developed a tourism social entrepreneurship conceptual framework for sustainable community development. This framework addresses a common objective of developing rural communities and emphasized tourism entrepreneurship which is mainly economic capital, thus, excluding the other community capitals.

It must be borne in mind that, if communities participate fully in tourism development at the grassroots level, they will need to have access to all the capital assets (Serrat, 2010, Stone and Nyaupane, 2017). This is because for sustainable livelihood to be achieved, there is a need for communities to access all the capitals. This study thus proposes an approach which is inclusive, people-centred and not only allows communities to access their tourism capitals but empowers them to utilize them for sustainable livelihoods and economic growth. DFID, 2000; Kratz, 2001; Emery *et al.*, 2006; Serrat, 2017; and Su *et al.*, 2019 reiterated that a sustainable livelihood framework should be people-centred, holistic, and dynamic. Emery *et al.*, 2006 and Stone & Nyaupane, 2017, reveal that all community capitals are interdependent and play a crucial role in maintaining sustainable livelihood. This means that all the capitals are not only important for livelihood but are also useful for communities' development.

Tourism capitals are fully utilized if the communities participate in the operation of the project in the presence of a sound institutional structure, which is community-driven. When one capital is stressed over all others, the other resources are decapitalized, and the economy, natural, or social equity is thus compromised (Flora *et al.*, 2004). As noted by Stone &

Nyaupane 2017, stable communities endeavour to bring economic security to all, adopt a healthy environment, and offer social inclusivity to all residents.

All these frameworks discussed above explain clearly the importance of identifying community capitals and how they assist in sustainable livelihoods. Nevertheless, none of the frameworks exhaustively display tourism capitals and their importance in communities. Scoones, (1998), shows how sustainable livelihoods are attained through utilization of capital assets. He also displays how communities access these capitals through institutional structures. Flora and Emery, (2006) demonstrate how community capitals are invested to create an interaction between them and built on other capitals which in the end result to livelihood stability of a community. It is with this analysis that the study proposes a tourism community capital framework that will assist in examining community driven tourism projects as livelihood strategy.

This proposed Tourism Community Capitals Framework (TCCF) for sustainable livelihoods, intends to have the community participation at the centre in Community-Driven Tourism Projects (CDTPs). Political capital would be added as an asset to understand livelihoods dynamics as suggested by Niehof, (2004) and Baumann, (2000). Adding political capital incorporates meaning through which communities are organized; it also fills a gap in the SLF, leading to a better understanding of governance and source of power, community voice, and access to power and decision-making (Gutierrez-Montes, Emery, & Fernandez-Baca, 2009).

As cautioned by Gutierrez-Montes *et al.*, (2009), the use of one type of capital resources can have a positive or negative effect over other capitals, thus, the proposed TCCF is expected to represent interdependence, interaction and synergy among the capitals. The loss or dilapidation of resources within one capital, hence, may negatively affect one or more capitals because when anyone of the community capitals is severely affected or depleted, the wellbeing of the community is compromised (Emery & Flora, 2006). There is a need, therefore, to have a balance within the capitals, so that all capitals are utilized adequately to regenerate and sustain livelihoods. For example, the natural tourism capitals need to be utilized to generate financial capital that builds up tourism's physical assets, such as restaurants, recreational facilities, accommodation facilities or even transportation fleets. The physical assets are then utilized to generate employment and income for the community, hence, building up human capital, such as tourism skills, social capital, such as market networks, Savings and Cooperate Societies (SACCOs) and hence enhance the overall economy of the region. Consequently, the proposed TCCF would present a more comprehensive guide than the previous sustainable livelihood frameworks displayed in previous literature discussed above. It will be an all-inclusive approach that signifies an auspicious shift toward a more

comprehensive, integrated and effective framework for a successful community-driven tourism project.

2.6. Summary

The Sustainable development goals call for community participation in development and encourage communities to be involved in activities that endorse their sustainable livelihoods. Several sustainable development models discussed in this chapter emphasize a balance between all the three dimensions of sustainability - economic, environmental and social. This directs that there is a need to maximize income, while sustaining a constant or snowballing stock of capital, maintaining resilience and robustness of biological and physical systems, as well as upholding stability of social and cultural systems.

The sustainable livelihood approaches deliberated in this chapter support the concept of communities building on their capital assets that they already have access to. The institutions and structures that the communities have in place are expected to advocate and support mechanisms that allow the communities to access their capital assets. For communities to benefit from the tourism projects that they coordinate and manage, literature has shown that there is need for them to participate fully through proper access to all the capital assets that are within their disposal. To benefit from the abundant natural capitals, like rivers and lakes, wildlife and landscapes, other forms of capitals need to be improved first (for example, social and political capitals) by establishing group networks with good representation to spearhead community's participation in tourism project development. It is evident from literature, that tourism project-development can improve poor people's access to assets through community participation, hence, a change in livelihood options resulting in a better outcome for everybody. There is evidence of existing livelihood frameworks that had been formulated to address livelihood issues of communities who drew their livelihoods from agriculture, forestry, protected areas or nature-based tourism, however, none of the frameworks has been seen to address community-driven tourism projects (CDTPs). Consequently, a Tourism Community Capital Framework (TCCF) for sustainable livelihood has been proposed to guide such CDTPs. For a community-driven tourism project to be successful, there is need for proper planning and management. The following chapter reviews different approaches to tourism planning and management so as to provide a context for the best management approaches for community-driven tourism projects for sustainable livelihoods. A framework is later conceptualized to guide the study in achieving its objectives.

CHAPTER THREE

SUSTAINABLE TOURISM PLANNING AND MANAGEMENT FOR COMMUNITY-DRIVEN TOURISM PROJECTS

3.1. Introduction

Tourism is one of the important social and economic fields of all times serving as an agent of social change subjected to objective laws of social development nexus (Baggio, 2008; Benner, 2019; Lew & Cheer, 2018). Despite it being one of the growing industries of the world's economy, many governments and entrepreneurs have invested in the tourism industry with minimum planning and preparation and in some cases without considering tourism's detrimental impacts on local residents (Mason, 2015; Tosun & Timothy, 2001). The tourism industry depends on local communities for labour, entrepreneurship, as well as the community's goodwill for its operations (Blackstock, 2005; Košić, Demirović, & Dragin, 2017). Communities' full participation and involvement in tourism development is highly dependent on the benefits accrued, therefore, their involvement is crucial to the sustainability of the industry (Košić *et al.*, 2017). Moreover, the benefits accrued from tourism have been identified as the main motivating factor for community participation in any tourism project (Dangi & Jamal, 2016; Dodds *et al.*, 2018; Zielinski *et al.*, 2018). If the communities are to fairly benefit from tourism, they need to be involved from the planning, operation and in all decision-making regarding the projects as these stages are crucial for their sustainability and for sustainable livelihoods of the community (Dodds *et al.*, 2018; Zielinski *et al.*, 2018).

The first section of this chapter explores the benefits of sustainable tourism which are key to communities and for them to comprehend sustainable tourism regarding their livelihoods. The chapter then articulates livelihood strategies and explores Community-driven Tourism Projects (CDTPs) as a livelihood diversification. For CDTPs to succeed as a livelihood diversification for a community, the projects need to be properly managed. The third section, therefore, appraises and deliberates on various planning and management strategies in relation to the development of tourism and looks at various community-based management models. Economic, social, cultural and environmental management are fundamental elements of sustainable tourism development. A balance of these rudiments, which are also referred to as 'sustainable tourism indicators' stimulate growth and development of tourism as affirmed by Chisova, (2015) and Choi & Sirakaya, (2016). Considering these sustainable tourism elements and sustainable rural livelihood as vital pointers for CDTPs, an all-stakeholder collaborative approach framework is conceptualized.

3.2. Benefits of Sustainable Tourism

Tourism development has been an issue of interest among researchers for more than 50 years (Pennington-Gray, 1970; Sharpley, 2009; Nunkoo 2015; Gannon, Rasoolimanesh, & Taheri, 2020). While the early literature aimed to document tourism trends and contribution of tourism to global economy, more recent tourism development research has been seen to focus on sustainability; this has resulted in more literature displaying the problems that arise from unsustainable tourism. Recent examples include the side effects of mass tourism in the Bali Islands of Malaysia (Chong, 2020), and social-cultural impacts of ecotourism on park-adjacent communities in Ghana (Acquah, Nsor, Arthur, & Boadi, 2017). These cases demonstrate how unsustainable tourism can destroy the appeal of a well-sought-after tourist attraction, through overcrowding and traffic congestion, negative environmental impacts such as air, water and noise pollution, as well as through poor waste-management practices. Researchers have also illustrated major negative socio-cultural impacts of unsustainable ecotourism which were meant to benefit communities adjacent to tourist hubs and protected areas. Some of these negative impacts include, bordering-communities losing farmlands and pasture lands to protected areas, local residents paying inflated prices for goods and services in ecotourism hubs, and increased pressure on existing infrastructure and amenities. Others include, erosion of cultural practices due to tourist-centric adaption (Acquah *et al.*, 2017 & Chong, 2020). These examples are confirmed by the observation that unsustainable tourism invariably depletes the same tourism which is expected to enhance the economy and sustain the livelihoods of the host community. This means that if the communities are to benefit from tourism, sustainable practices are inevitable.

As studies have identified unforeseen negative outcomes of tourism development (for example, pollution, natural and cultural resource depletion, habitat destruction, seasonality, low wages and vulnerable working conditions) (Mbaiwa, 2003; Davis & Morais, 2004; Caravan 2014, Higgins-Desbiolles, 2018), tourism scholars have responded by relating tourism with the emerging conceptions of sustainability, such as United Nations development goals, responsible tourism, community empowerment, green tourism and ecotourism (Sofield 2003; Kiper, 2013; Getahun, 2018 & Hall, 2019). These sustainability concepts emphasized development practices that incorporate economic, social and environmental dimensions, thus, sustaining tourism is the driver of tourism policies, planning and management today, and is the current debate on tourism development, globally. Sustainable tourism emphasizes long-term coordination of tourism activities with the community, economic enhancement, preservation of environment and management of resources (Guo, Jiang, & Li, 2019; Siakwah,

Musavengane & Leonard, 2020). In other words, it is a development practice that is expected to meet the economic needs of the people without compromising the natural and cultural resources of the community. One way of achieving sustainable tourism in an area is utilizing the natural resources in a sustainable manner to improve and maintain quality of life of the local community (Strydom, Mangope & Henama, 2019). Consequently, tourism development should be designed to socially benefit the people, generate income and provide long-term livelihoods to those communities.

Sustainable tourism has been seen to maintain rural communities well, by providing many benefits to them and thus recent debates have encouraged communities to participate in tourism development through homestay programmes and community-driven tourism activities (Hulu, Baiquni, Fandeli & Wirasanti, 2018; Lo, Choi, Mohamad & Chin, 2018). These benefits include, provision of business opportunities, jobs for local communities, conservation of cultural and natural resources (Zapata, 2011; UNWTO, 2015; Lo *et al.*, 2018). Tourism is also known to support the construction of public facilities, amenities and infrastructure, (Yanes *et al.*, 2019). Most tourism natural resources are found in rural areas; thus, these resources provide some of the most sought-after tourist attractions, therefore if they are well managed, they should benefit the local communities in these areas. Furthermore, since tourism is consumed at the point of production, it can provide indirect income as well as direct purchases and later boost the economy of an area. Despite such prospects, and the increasing attention focusing on sustainable tourism to benefit the host communities, there seem to be few or no benefits whatsoever to the communities residing in the vicinity of tourist attractions. There is a need, therefore, for properly-organized programmes that would enable communities to tap into and benefit from tourism. These programmes need to be well managed to allow rural communities to benefit fully from tourism, as a livelihood strategy. Livelihood strategies are various and may also be an amalgamation of activities and choices that people make or undertake to realise their livelihood goals (DFID, 2000; Khatiwada, Deng, Paudel & Khatiwada, 2017). These strategies are discussed below.

3.3. Livelihood strategies

Understanding community's livelihood strategies is pivotal for poverty reduction in rural areas. Numerous studies have identified livelihood strategies as a way of poverty reduction in communities and households (Nyaupane & Poudel 2011; Liu, Chen & Xie 2018; Vyas 2019). Eradication of extreme poverty is one of the sustainable development goals. The World Bank defines absolute poverty as "living on less than \$1.25 a day for low-income countries and on

less than \$2 a day for middle-income countries” (World Bank 2014:90). According to the World Bank (2014), many of the poorest people in the world live in remote, rural areas where they depend mostly on ecosystem resources for livelihoods. Different households in rural areas are likely to possess potential access to different livelihood assets; this results in households’ participation in different livelihood strategies, which are likely to have different impact on the poverty status (Ellis, 2007; World Bank, 2014). Understanding livelihood strategies existing in households in a given community can result in improvements in the local-level policy design intended to alleviate poverty and assist individuals to increase their ability to improve their own living standards (Ellis, 2007; Vyas 2019; Khosla & Jena 2020).

Households in rural areas combine various income-generating and social activities to construct a portfolio for better livelihood outcomes (Khawwaja *et al.*, 2017). These activities include creative activities, investment strategies, self-businesses, generative choices, agricultural intensification and employment, among others (Scoones, 1998; DFID, 2000; Wang, Peng, Xu & Wang, 2019; Takaza & Chitereka, 2020). Households in rural areas can either gain their livelihood through methods of increasing production per unit area over asset investment, intensification in labour contributions, expanding land under farming, or diversifying to a variety of non-farming income-earning activities (Scoones 1998; Peng *et al.*, 2019). Furthermore, individuals or households may also move away and seek a livelihood in another place, either temporarily or permanently. Some studies refer to this kind of movement as ‘migration’ (Tao and Wall, 2009; Khawwaja *et al.*, 2017). The other option of livelihood strategy is to pursue a collective number of strategies together or in sequence. For example, a household may do farming, run a tourist curio shop and do tour-guide services. People can engage in different livelihood strategies, however, the capital assets (human, social, financial, natural and physical) a household has access to, are significant in determining the livelihood strategies the household can engage in for a positive livelihood outcome (Pour, Barati, Azadi & Scheffran, 2018). In other words, the livelihood capital assets influence household’s choice of livelihood strategies (Liu, Chen, & Xie, 2018), thus, designing a reasonable choice of livelihood strategies and diversification.

3.3.1 Significance of capital assets to livelihood strategies.

The capital assets that a community or households often make trade-offs and choices about comprise of Human, Social, Physical, Financial and Natural (Scoones, 1998; Serrat, 2017; Shoeb-Ur-Rahman, Simmons, Shone, & Ratna, 2020).

A community or household will need human **capital** to navigate different livelihood strategies. Knowledge, education and skills enable an individual to take up either an employment or

engage in an income-generating activity, although, he/she needs to be healthy and fit to do various types of work for a living. The skills or the quality of human capital a community has will determine its livelihood outcomes (Woyesa & Kumar 2020) and a knowledgeable and educated community has an advantage as it can access information (Bhandari, 2013; Stone & Nyaupane, 2017). Human capital is vital for tourism project-development because, knowledge and skills in tourism are meant to enhance the community's ability to process tourism project-information, such as, seasonality, tourists' wants, needs and preferences. It is also expected to give them an opportunity to take advantage of the resources at their disposal and make use of them to increase their income. Similarly, acquirement of skills increases the opportunity for employment, and self-employment abilities increase livelihood strategies for households. Recent studies have adapted the sustainable livelihood approach to analyse human capital acquired through tourism development (Çakir *et al.*, 2018, Stone and Stone, 2019; Shoeb-Ur-Rahman *et al.*, 2020), however, none of the studies has adequately addressed human capital acquired through community-driven tourism projects which this study focusses on.

Social capital is also important for it assists in mediating people's access to different assets and the relationships and partnerships that are created within a community assist in bringing them together. Social capital has the ability to enhance economic wellbeing, democracy, and human capital and it can be assessed on various levels, such as individual, community and organisational levels (Serrat, 2017). It is misleading to generalize issues around social capital, as a result, various scholars have made their arguments about social capital based on their areas of interest, such as agriculture, education, and heritage tourism, among others (Nunkoo, 2017; Bisseleua, Idrissou, Olurotimi, 2018; Rodriguez-Giron, & Vanneste, 2019). In respect of communities living in rural tourism-areas or even communities who run tourism projects, social capital is achieved by becoming a member of a tourism project or organization and actively participating in the operations of the project (Khatiwada *et al.*, 2017). Becoming a member of a community tourism-project increases the community's cooperation and this gives them a bargaining power to their rights. Consequently, identifying the social capital for community-driven tourism projects is crucial for wider networking, in search for choices of livelihood strategies.

Physical capital includes goods and assets, infrastructure, basic production resources and technologies required to support a livelihood (Scoones, 1998; Kline, *et al* 2019). Efficient and proper functioning physical facilities are needed for better and adequate production of goods needed for livelihoods (Dewanti, Ayuwat, & Yongvanit, 2019). Dewanti *et al.*, (2019) warned

that the opportunity costs linked with poor infrastructure can hinder education, access to health services and income-generation which may contribute to some degree of poverty. Human beings need to have access to health facilities, electricity and water services for their wellbeing (DFID, 1999). According to Stone and Stone (2019), physical capital assets include water systems, sewers, utilities, healthy systems, schools, business and libraries that a community has access to. From a tourism perspective, physical capital can be all the equipment, buildings, goods, infrastructure and systems used in support of tourism activities (Kline *et al.*, 2019). These may include hotels or lodges, cultural display rooms, museums, curio shops, transportation systems on land, air and sea as well as utility systems used by the tourists, for example, electricity, water and other amenities. Accessibility of physical capital by the community is vital for livelihood strategies and therefore assessing and understanding the physical capital a community has access to, is key for planning and operation of a community tourism-project.

Economic capital asset is the financial capital base which is essential for the pursuit of any livelihood strategy. This may include cash, credit/debt, savings, and other economic assets, (Subbarao, 2020; Gyawali, Tiwari, Bajracharya, & Skotte, 2020). A study conducted by Abbay, Rutten, Azadi, & Witlox, (2019) on social capital found that households with a financially stable backgrounds are likely to obtain financial assistance from banking institutions and they also develop productive social networks. This means that financial capital is important in development initiatives of households and it is also a major driver for sustainability. Subbarao, (2020) and Abubakar, Kassim, & Yusoff, (2015) emphasized that it is vital for communities or households to have access to financial capital for it enables enhancement of human, physical, and natural capital. For example, a household may use its financial capital to enhance family members' education or skills, build a family house or even buy more family farmland, therefore, enabling people to take advantage of economic opportunities will assist in livelihood strategy choices. This can be achieved through provision of means of generating flows of income and production, such as employment opportunities and involvement in tourism income-generation activities, which this study advocates.

Natural capital encompasses the natural resources that households use to derive livelihoods from (Carney, 2003; Serrat, 2017). Rural communities may endow various natural resources including farmlands, wetlands, forests, as well as wildlife reserves, marine resources and spectacular landscapes that may be tourist attractions (Peng, Zheng, Robinson, & Li, 2017; Wang Acheampong, 2020). Evidence in literature has shown that communities in rural areas heavily rely on natural resources for livelihood strategies, such as farming, extraction of minerals and utilization of natural resources as tourist attractions. (Scoones 1998; Khatiwada

et al., 2017; Manlosa, Hanspach & Schultner 2019), however, livelihood portfolios may differ depending on the natural resources that a community may have access to (Scoones 1998; Manlosa *et al.*, 2019). Natural capital is, therefore, a principle asset which enables the functioning of other forms of capitals and which can also be transformed to build other capitals. For example, a household may yield enough farm produce for sale, to enable the household to reduce the risk of shocks and stresses, consequently, it is important to identify the natural capital the communities have in order to analyse the livelihood activities that are derived from them. Identification and analysis of natural capital in this study, is vital for suggestions of appropriate management and conservation strategies for sustainable livelihoods of a community.

Households or individuals pursue different types of strategies, depending on the types of resources (capital base) they have access to. A household or individual will have sustainable livelihood if they have flexibility and choice of livelihood strategy (DFID, 2000; Peng *et al.*, 2017). A community with a combination of economic/financial capital (savings, credit, income), physical capital base (machineries and equipment's), human capital base (skills, knowledge and ability), and social capital base (networks, social relations, affiliations or associations), and with access to natural resource base, hence, is able to successfully pursue different livelihood strategies (Scoones, 1998, DFID, 2000, Su *et al.*, 2019, Su *et al.*, 2016). Nevertheless, a successful pursuit of livelihood strategies will depend also on the institutional structures that are in place in a community (Bebbington, 1999, Munanura *et al.*, 2016). This is because institutional structures influence the access, control and distribution of resources. (Serrat 2017; Shoeb-Ur-Rahman *et al.*, 2020). From this scenario, livelihood strategies are then built, resulting in diverse outcomes, such as well-being, revenues or profits, empowerment and health. (Ellis, 2000; Su *et al.*, 2016,). Rural households may construct a diverse portfolio of activities and social support capabilities in order to improve their standard of living or to minimize risks, in case of disasters, drought or seasonality. It is, therefore, important for a community to understand the capital assets they have access to and the livelihood diversification that can be structured from them. Rural livelihood strategies are regularly and heavily dependent on the natural resource base, just as most tourism developments are grounded on natural resources, such as wildlife and natural sceneries or landscapes. Tourism is also linked with other economic sectors, such as agriculture, as farm produce are supplied to hotels, which results in an increase in the proportion of tourism revenue retained in the community; in this context, tourism activities can be a livelihood diversification. It is essential, therefore, to have rural community-tourism programmes through which the communities can diversify livelihood strategies. This study proposes Community-

driven Tourism Projects (CDTPs) as a livelihood-diversification program; this is discussed below.

3.4. Community-driven Tourism Projects (CDTPs) as a livelihood diversification strategy

In this study, community-driven tourism projects are identified as programs that provide social and physical services to the poor, creating economic activities through the utilization of tourism attractions and resource management. CDTPs are also platforms for community development; they empower the poor and improve governance. Just like other community-driven developments (CDDs), CDTPs give control of resources to community groups (Dongier *et al.*, 2003; Yalegama, Chileshe, & Ma, 2016). These groups may work in partnership with demand-responsive support organization, such as NGOs, tourism-private investors or local-government agencies (Dongier *et al.*, 2003; Casey, 2018). By directly relying on poor people to drive development activities, Labonne & Chase, (2011) and Yalegama *et al.*, 2016, suggest that CDDs have the potential to make poverty-reduction efforts more responsive to demands, more inclusive, more sustainable and more cost-effective than traditional centrally-led programs. This is because, CDTPs use participatory approach where communities are involved in all the operation and management of the project.

Additionally, Wong and Guggenheim, 2018, also noted that CDDs play a key role in poverty alleviation exertions, realizing immediate and lasting results at the grassroots level and complementing market economy and government-run programs. Using CDD approach, the private sector and NGOs are, therefore, able to provide some of these services for poverty reduction (Mathie & Cunningham, 2003; Bebbington, 2004; Arnall, Thomas, Twyman & Liverman, 2013). This study proposes community-driven tourism projects (CDTPs) which use the CDD approach for community development and sustainability of livelihoods.

As consumers, the local communities are the most legitimate and are well-informed of their priorities (Stone & Nyaupane, 2017), therefore, demand is better expressed when the communities contribute to investment costs and control investment choices, hence, making them sustainable. Dongier, (2003) and Mbaiwa & Stronza, (2010) revealed that when Community Based Organizations (CBOs) are allowed to control their investments, there is higher sustainability of resources because the communities are willing to pay for what they want. Furthermore, since responsibilities and resources are devolved to the grassroots level, development activities are instantaneous and as a result poverty is alleviated and all these

are achieved, if and when, the community participates fully in development (Wong & Guggenheim, 2018). The proposed CDTP programs may enable the communities to access tourism resources and utilize them for economic gain, hence, improving their living standards. In such cases the communities can use the projects as platforms to utilize tourism activities for livelihood diversification.

Livelihood diversification is an unceasing adaptive process of adding new activities, while maintaining existing ones or sometimes dropping others, thereby, upholding various and changing livelihood portfolios (Saha and Bahal, 2016). In other words, livelihood diversification is when a household tries to have more than one livelihood activity to lessen its vulnerability. One can say that “a household is diversified if it has other sources of livelihood, in case one does not provide enough or if it fails entirely” (Satgè *et al.*, 2013:11). The study of livelihood diversification which has traversed diverse disciplinary approaches over the years, is characterized by several terms and descriptions. For the purpose of this study, livelihood diversification is explained as the process by which rural tourism communities engage different tourism activities and resources in order to survive or improve their standard of living. Community-driven tourism projects (CDTPs) are platforms which communities in rural areas can use to diversify their livelihood strategies.

Livelihood diversification may be employed for two reasons - (1), as a coping strategy, thus managing impermanent hardship or more lasting adaptation of livelihood activities, when other options are failing to provide livelihood (Ellis, 2000; Kassie, Kim, & Fellizar, 2017); (2), diversification may be used for purposes of asset accumulation or reinvestment (Scoones, 1998; Kassie *et al.*, 2017). Ellis (2000) and Dinku, 2018, further argue that individuals or households may pursue diversification as a choice or as a necessity. Necessitated or non-voluntary diversification may happen because of unintentional or desperation situations caused by natural disasters, such as drought, floods or disasters brought about by civil war, resulting in displacement and desertion of previous assets or loss of employment (Kasie *et al.*, 2017; Dinku, 2018). Another example that may warrant necessary diversification may be inability to continue to undertake arduous agricultural or income-generative activities due to an accident or poor health. On the other hand, diversification by choice refers to choosing to do something different that would earn more income (Nelson and Phillips, 2018). Households or Individuals may choose to do an extra job for additional economic gains, or plant different crops for extra food yield (Ellis, 2000; Gebru, Ichoku, & Phil-Eze, 2018). Other examples may be, educating children to improve their chances of obtaining non-agricultural jobs, saving money to start a business, doing some trading, using money attained from the farm produce

to purchase fertilisers and manures. (Gebru *et al.*, 2018; Nelson & Phillips, 2018). People may migrate to other areas or cities in search of a better employment benefits to support other family members (Tao and Wall, 2009; Kassie *et al.*, 2017).

Tourism development in a rural area may be categorized as an economic diversification. Rural communities may participate in tourism income-generating activities, as well as agricultural or pastoral activities (Munanura *et al.*, 2016). According to Tao and Wall (2009), tourism can be a means for accumulation of resources through income and investment. It can also be an adaptive response during droughts or a means to take pressure off delicate lands and boost household earnings. Many tourism activities entail part-time or casual labour, hence, providing surplus livelihood diversification. These activities are also a major contributor of rural people's economy, hence, uplift the wellbeing of the entire community. Community-driven tourism projects can contribute to the economy of rural communities and their wellbeing, through employment, as well as providing market for traditional handicrafts and farm produce.

Livelihood diversification is a way of households embarking on alternative activities to reduce vulnerability and to cope with shocks, therefore, programs through which these activities are undertaken, need to be sustainably managed. In most tourist destinations, especially in rural areas, natural resources are attractions which are owned by the host communities. It is here that community-driven tourism projects (CDTPs) should be introduced, to protect and conserve such resources and ensure that the communities that rightfully own them, reap the benefits. Eshliki and Kaboudi, (2018); and Mason, (2020), noted that tourism activities influence the lives of the host communities and the environment, therefore, sustainable planning and management of the tourism development is key. One of the major failures of community-based tourism projects has been attributed to poor planning and management (Lenao, 2017; Islam, Ruhanen & Ritchie, 2018; Dodds *et al.*, 2018; Stone & Stone, 2020). It is, thus, vital that community-tourism project-developers devise a sustainable method for tourism planning and management. The following section, therefore, reviews literature on tourism planning and management approaches and later looks at various management models used in different community tourism-projects.

3.6. Tourism Planning and Management

According to Williams and Hall, (2002:126), planning is, or should be, “a process for anticipating and ordering change that is forward looking, that seeks optimal solutions, that is

designed to increase and ideally maximize possible development benefits and, that will produce predictable outcomes”. McCabe, Poole, Weeks and Lepper, (2000:235) state that; “A plan enables us to identify where we are going from here and how to get there – in other words, it should clarify the path that is to be taken and the outcomes or end results”. In addition, Saarinen, Rogerson and Hall (2019:3) described tourism planning as a “potential tool for guiding tourism to a development path that creates benefits and wellbeing beyond the industry and its core operations”. This means that if tourism was to create benefits, its planning and management should not only be targeted at producing a desirable outcome, but also for sustainability.

Accordingly, early tourism researchers called for tourism planning which was future-oriented and strategic decision-making that was aimed at directing human actions to a desired and mutually-agreed directions (Inskeep 1991; Jamal & Getz 1995). For example, Jamal and Getz (1995) advocated a collaborative, more cooperative and integrated planning system, especially, for community-based tourism destinations. Later Hall, (2000) emphasized on sustainable tourism planning practices that not only integrated economic, socio-cultural and environmental principles but were also aimed at fostering an all-inclusive and progressive approach for development. Scholars have reiterated this with the more recent emergence of advocacy for public-private partnership tourism planning and development, thus, with a more corporatized planning approaches (Stanford & Quiver 2016; Frost & Lang, 2018; Saarinen *et al.*, 2019). This is because tourism operates in relationships between the local and global scales as well as with socio-economic and environmental systems. These relations are blatantly characterised by disparities and uneven power structures (Nunkoo, 2017), and for this reason there is need for proper tourism planning and management. Additionally, tourism planning comprises a decision-making process involving the tourism industry and other sectors of the economy, and various sub-national areas and different types of tourism (Tosun & Timothy, 2001; Mason, 2015; Lenao, 2017). It is important to note that tourism planning is not just a process steered by government but one that includes all stakeholders (Tosun, 2002; Aas, Ladkin & Fletcher, 2005; Marzuki & James, 2012; Latip, Rasoolimanesh, Ringle, Jaafar & Mayah, 2017; Rasoolmanesh, Jaafar, & Umar, 2018). Saarinen *et al.*, (2017) asserted that tourism planning should be understood as a potential instrument for guiding tourism on to a development trail that generates benefits and well-being for communities beyond the industry and its principal processes. In addition, they highlighted that extensive socio-economic development in tourism is not an automatic route to success, therefore a poorly-planned tourism project can produce unexpected negative outcomes. Consequently, an integration of all stakeholders in tourism planning and management is key.

Furthermore, Rasoolimanesh *et al.*, (2017) emphasize that the community is an important stakeholder and should take centre stage in the planning and implementation of tourism project development. In order to create a more sustainable industry, Hall, (1996) and Rasoolimanesh *et al.*, (2017) stressed that Community-Based Tourism should be focused on the involvement of the host community in planning and maintaining tourism development. This is because the host communities literally own the natural resources on which tourism development hinges. Sustainable development is the ultimate goal for community development projects (Peerapun, 2018), and since tourism can play an essential role in diverse economic development, a cautious tourism planning that involves the community in all stages of development, is necessary (Byrd & Cárdenas, 2008). Tourism, as an economic activity, has the potential to create employment and subsequently improve the livelihoods of the host community (Owuor, Knerr, Ochieng & Wambua, 2017), therefore, programs that encourage all stakeholder participation in tourism development, go a long way in poverty alleviation in the destination areas (Waligo *et al.*, 2013). It is paramount, thus, to interrogate different planning and management strategies, in order to recommend an appropriate management model for CDTPs. The following sections, therefore, briefly examine tourism planning strategies that are relevant for this study.

3.6.1. Participatory Planning and management

The implementation of operational community-participation processes is key in improving the quality of tourism plans, protecting tourism resources and balancing the numerous benefits from tourism (Tosun & Timothy, 2003). Peerapun, (2018:149), explicates that “Participatory Planning is a set of processes through which varied groups and interests engross together in reaching for a consensus on a plan and its implementation”. Participatory planning can be introduced by any of the parties and the procedures and schedules it will take should be negotiated and agreed upon by participants (Peerapun, 2018). Stakeholders are all those who need to be involved and considered in attaining project goals and whose participation and support are vital to their success (Golder, 2005). Participation by all relevant stakeholders is key and therefore it is necessary for any developer or planner to analyse the various groups of stakeholders and types of participation possible (Stone & Nyaupane (2017); Treves, Wallace, & White (2009); Peerapun (2018).

There are five levels of participation (Peerapun, 2018); ranging from the lowest to the highest, the levels of participation are; “informing, consultation, involvement, collaboration and

empowerment” (Golder, 2005; Peerapun, 2018). A planner can correspond with suitable stakeholders at each level of participation (Peerapun, 2018). In addition, Golder, (2005) alludes that full participation of all stakeholders is key and so is the analysis of the stakeholders. This is because stakeholder participation-analysis helps identify the interests of all stakeholders who may affect or be affected by the project as well as probable conflicts, risks that could jeopardise the initiative as well as identify relationships that can be built during implementation (Golder, 2005). Full participation of stakeholders in both project design and implementation is important because stakeholders’ participation gives people some say over how projects or policies may affect their lives and its essentiality in sustainability (Golder (2005); Peerapun (2011). Additionally, direct involvement of the local community and the inclusion of their indigenous knowledge in the management of local resources provide a valid blue print for participatory management of natural resources (Nzau, Gosling & Rieckmann, 2020). According to Pugh & Potter (2018), community participation in development results in social economic empowerment, good market relations with wider networking, hence, access to funds.

An example of a successful participatory management implementation is a case study by Nzau, *et al.*, (2020). In this study, the project was initiated in order to protect the Arabuko Sokoke Forest at the Coastal side of Kenya. The project has a participatory management team comprising of the government, non-governmental organizations and the local community. The significant pillars of this participatory management project are that - the local community are engaged in the management of the forest, there are different levels of power in the management from the state to the local people, and there is an inclusion of indigenous knowledge in the management of the forest. The local people can derive a livelihood from Arabuko Sokoke forest without depleting its flora and fauna. This means that for a participatory management planning model to succeed, involvement of the local people is key.

3.6.2. Protected Area Management model

The International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN) defines protected area as “an area of land and/or sea especially dedicated to the protection and maintenance of biological diversity, and of natural and associated cultural resources, and managed through legal or other effective means” (IUCN, 1994). IUCN then grouped protected areas into six categories, namely - Strict nature reserve, National park, Natural monument or feature, Habitat/species management area, Protected landscape/seascape area, and Protected area with sustainable

use of natural resources (Stuart *et al.*, 1990; UNEP-WCMC, 2016). The main objective of protection is to safeguard regions that have built up a distinct and valuable ecological, biological, cultural, or scenic character (IUCN, 1994; Masud *et al.*, 2017).

Since the 1940s, the protected-areas model approach has been identified as one of the best models of conservation (Stuart *et al.*, 1990). The protected-area model involved identifying an area endowed with rich natural resources or physical features (Okello, 2005; Stuart *et al.*, 1990) and moving the human population from their traditional habitats (Badola *et al.*, 2018). This meant displacing the people and, in some cases, denying them access to natural resources, which in most cases is a source of their livelihood and source of food and water for their domestic animals (Okello, 2005). Displacing people and preventing them from accessing resources in the protected areas has led to people's resentment towards conservation of resources, such as wildlife (Badola *et al.*, 2018; Figueroa & Rotarou, 2016; Okello, 2005). In most cases the local community is excluded from the initial idea and the planning of the conservation methods (Okello, 2005). This has resulted in human/wildlife conflicts in areas adjacent or around many protected areas (PAs) around the world. Another challenge that has been experienced in PA management is illegal extraction of resources, such as timber and charcoal burning that results in deforestation. For example, 6 villages were dispossessed during the creation of the Korup National Park in Cameroon (Kimengsi, Aung & Pretzsch 2019). In this case, the local community (the 6 villages) were not involved in the initial plan of the park creation. Kimengsi *et al.*, (2019) further recount that although there were promises of resettlement and the provision of livelihood support by the state, it did not honour these promises which left the community with limited land rights, hence, the communities' encroachment into the park for wild-meat hunting and depletion of the forest through logging. In the end, the conservation goals were not met.

3.6.3. Institutional Management model

In the above sections, we have looked at various elements of sustainable livelihood, resources which are combined in pursuance of various livelihood strategies for achievement of different livelihood outcomes, however, it is also necessary to understand the structures and processes that arbitrate the intricate and immeasurably eminent method of attaining a sustainable livelihood (Scoones, 1998). Setting and implementing of policies and legislation are done by public and private organizations, also referred to as 'structures and processes' (Serrat, 2017). These structures and processes enable access to capitals, delivery of services, purchase of

goods and services from the community, to trade and perform other functions that affect livelihoods. Serrat, (2017:3) further adds that “processes are expected to abide by the laws, regulations, policies operational arrangement, agreements, societal norms and practices that in turn determine the way in which structures operate”.

Institutions are the conventions, norms and formal rules of the society, which regularize life, support values, and protect interests of the people (Vatn, 2010). Institutions can be categorized into two groups - formal and informal. Formal institutions have codified rules while informal in-situations have socially shared, openly codified and unwritten rules (Li & Abiad, 1990; Helmke & Levitsky, 2004; Torniainen & Saastamoinen, 2007; Holmes *et al.*, 2013). Institutions through the formal and informal rules determine the nature of the tourism activities which also influence the tourists’ behaviour. Institutions are meant to provide incentives or deterrents to the people which would determine their direct or indirect role in shaping the nature of tourism in a given area (Badola *et al.*, 2018). They control tourism activities and their impacts on the ecological, social and cultural values of an area, and the manner in which the benefits are shared among the diverse stakeholders (Liu *et al.*, 2017). The question we need to ask when examining the operations of CDTPs is - *Do the local communities form part of these institutions?*

Earlier scholars recognize that in the developing countries, the representation of the poor in natural resources management, is more in the informal category of local level institutions (Bjarnegård, 2013; Chappell & Waylen, 2013; Olson, 2014; Thomas, 2004). The formal institutions, on the other hand, are largely preserved as the stronghold of the men, the educated and the rich (Badola *et al.*, 2018; Thomas, 2004). Strong local institutions, however, enhance local communities’ resilience in opposing social, cultural and ecological changes, as well as ensuring equitable benefit sharing (Ogra & Badola, 2014).

In the early 17th and 18th century, the African people preserved and conserved forests as holy grounds, as shrines and for provision of traditional medicine (Reid & Turner, 2004). Subsequently, traditional African institutions that prevented the overuse of natural resources were replaced by western institutions and practices, such as courts of law, fines and fences (Reid, 2001; Reid & Turner, 2004). Later in the 1990s, Communal Property Institutions were formed, some of which became the foundation of community-based natural resource management (CBNRM), such as the CAMPFIRE of Zimbabwe (Fabricius *et al.*, 2013; Ntuli & Muchapondwa, 2018). There are CBNRMs that are currently under the control of communal property institutions in Africa, such as the Makuleke Contractual Park in South Africa and Mara Conservancies of Kenya (Fabricius *et al.*, 2013).

These institutions have rights and control over benefits accrued from ecosystems and other natural resources (Ntuli & Muchapondwa, 2018), nonetheless, the literature has shown that institutions without proper guidelines to control human behaviour, are likely to result in the over-exploitation of natural resources (Reid & Turner, 2004; Ntuli & Muchapondwa, 2018). Apparently, many communities are not able to manage their resources sustainably because they are not represented equitably in these institutions (Schneegg, 2018). Additionally, Ntuli & Muchapondwa (2018) assert that communities do not have easy access to their natural resources because they encounter institutional restrictions and bureaucracy.

Policy-determining structures can only be effective if there are suitable institutions and processes in place, through which policies can be implemented (Serrat, 2017). Attainment of livelihood strategies or livelihood outcomes does not only rest on the access to capital asset base or pressures by shocks and trends but they are also made available by the setting of structures and processes (Serrat, 2017, DFID, 2000, Scoones, 1998). “Institutions are the social cement which link stakeholders to access capitals of different kinds as well as to the means of exercising power and therefore define the gateways through which they pass, whether to positive or negative (livelihood) adaptation” (Scoones, 1998:12). Since these institutions are meant to guard and manage common-pool resources, they need to be governed by all stakeholders to ensure communities’ sustainable livelihoods.

3.6.4. Adaptive Co-Management (ACM)

ACM is a type of adaptive management that empowers resource users and managers in experimentation, monitoring, deliberations and responsive management of local resources, supported by, and working with, various organisations at different levels, according to Hasselman (2017). Tourism destination management can be problematic if and when tourism takes place in a significant reserve or in a natural and cultural heritage which is dedicated to the conservation of species, ecosystems and landscapes or culture (Islam *et al.*, 2018; Saarinen *et al.*, 2017; Saarinen, 2006). Tourism in protected areas may not reach its potential due to poor management due to little cooperation and coordination among stakeholders, which sometimes result in conflicts (Islam *et al.*, 2018). It is imperative, therefore, for the managers to observe the ACMs’ distinctive features which are essential for monitoring of management of tourism destinations or protected areas (Armitage *et al.*, 2010). These features include shared vision, problem definition, interaction and collaboration among multi-scaled actors, distributed control across multi-levels, shared responsibilities and decision-making. The main

aim of an ACM is to resolve natural resource management conflicts, and function, as a means of enhancing governance systems in protected areas or tourism destinations. The following is a case study by Stone & Nyaupane, (2017) on the Chobe Enclave Conservation Trust (CECT), next to Chobe National Park in Botswana. The CECT practices the three-tourism planning and management models discussed above (participatory planning, co-management and institutional management).

Box .1. Chobe Enclave conservation Trust (CECT) - Botswana

According to Stone and Nyaupane (2017), the CECT was formed in 1992 to encourage community participation in tourism and wildlife conservation. It is a community institution which practices community-based tourism and comprises five villages of Mabele, Kavimba, Kachikau, Satau and Parakarungu. CECT is run by a Board of Trustees from these member villages. The villages are in a buffer zone, which is divided into two controlled hunting areas (CHAs) used for hunting tourism and for photographic tourism. The inhabitants of the five villages are the Basubiya tribe who predominantly depend on both subsistence pastoral and arable farming complemented with tourism wages for those who are employed in the tourism establishments. Two members are elected through general membership from each participating village. Altogether, there are 15 board members on the board of trustees. The CECT owns CHAs 1 and 2, a community lodge, six tractors, a brick moulding workshop, two camping sites and two administrative offices.

Benefits: Participation in tourism by CECT is a collective action that harmonizes the role of park and community livelihoods in resource use, building community capitals and enhancing the vitality of natural capital. Through the collective action by CECT communities, mutual trust exists between the community and government, which resulted in low rates of reported illegal hunting, suggesting a positive relationship between tourism and Chobe National Park. Due to employment in the tourism facilities, people's diet has improved as well as improvement of food security. Since the people of Chobe villages are part of the tourism practices in the area, there is reduction in poaching for they understand the importance of wildlife in tourism. (Source: Stone & Nyaupane, 2017).

Tourism takes place in a setting comprising both human and natural features (Mason (2015). The human environment includes economic, social and cultural aspects, as well as, developments (Huang & Huang, 2018; Lis, 2009; Su, Huang & Huang, 2018; Moscardo, 2011). In a real setting, the human environment and the natural environment are linked, and the human activities are both affected by and have an effect on the natural environment (Mason, 2015).

Based on the models reviewed above, it can be concluded that, regardless of the management model, involving the community in management is vital for the success of all tourism projects and, in order to manage project appropriately, stakeholders need to understand the management model best suited for each project. The following section discusses the sustainable tourism indicators that are considered fundamental for operation and management of CDTPs in this study.

3.7. Indicators of Sustainable Tourism for Community-driven Projects

Sustainable tourism is an element of sustainable development that encourages minimization of the socio-economic negative impact of tourism and maximizes the socio-economic benefits to the host community (Edgell, 2019; Higgins-Desbiolles, 2018; UNWTO, 2007). Sustainable tourism is not a discrete or special form of tourism, rather, all forms of tourism should strive to be more sustainable (UNEP and UNWTO, 2005). There are sustainable tourism indicators that influence the growth of tourism, these are - economic, social, cultural, environmental and management (Chisova, 2015). For communities to obtain the maximum benefit from tourism, there is need for tourism sustainability which is achieved through focusing on the indicators for monitoring sustainable tourism (Choi and Sirakaya, 2005).

Sustainable tourism indicators are vital tools in the tourism planning, management and monitoring processes, as they also provide accurate information for decision-making (UNWTO, 2007). These indicators focus on issues relating to economic sustainability, conservation and preservation of cultural assets and social values, and management of projects in a destination (Choi & Sirakaya, 2006; Bulatović & Rajović, 2016). Sustainable tourism indicators for community-driven projects involve utilization of natural resources while observing minimization of destruction of the ecosystem, as well as conservation of biodiversity. This study generates sustainable tourism indicators through synchronization, adoption and review of sustainable tourism indicators as provided by Choi and Sirakaya, (2006); UNWTO (2007); Chisova, (2015), and Bulatović & Rajović, (2016), (Figure 2.1). The indicators also point out the urgency of ensuring community access to natural resources as well as involving community members in conservation. Sustainable tourism is one that preserves and conserves the cultures and values the beliefs and traditions of local communities while recognising the fact that communities need to benefit economically from tourism.

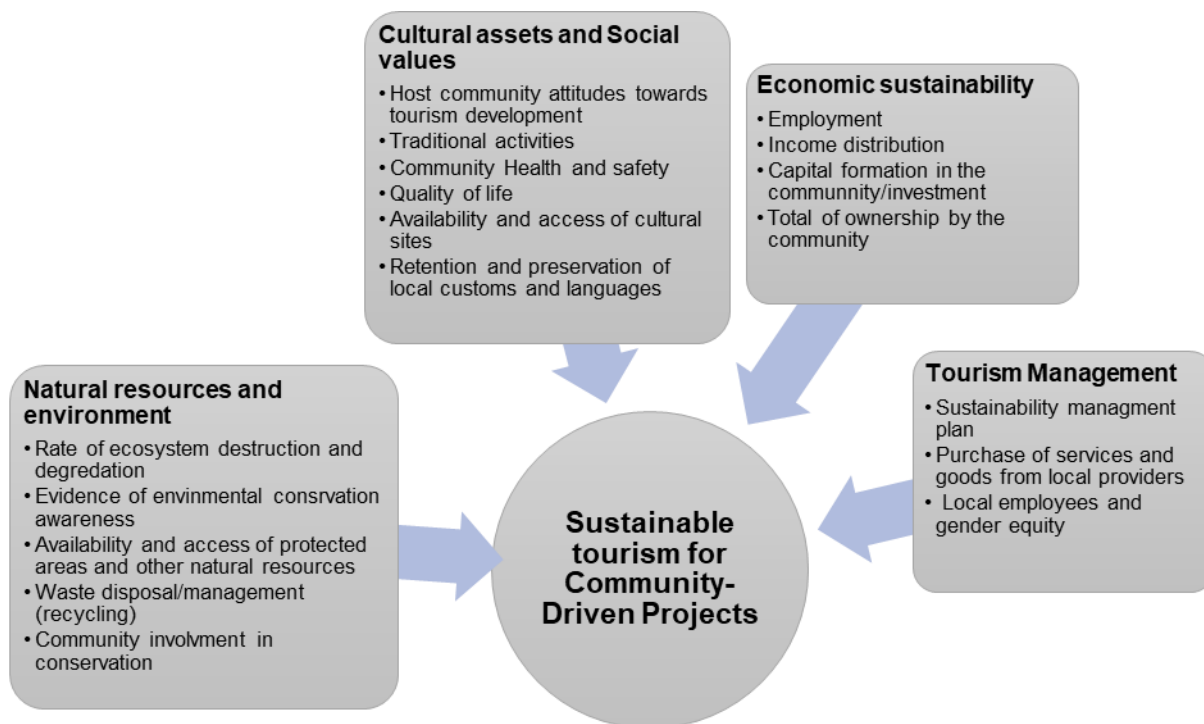


Figure 2.1. Sustainable Tourism Indicators (Author, 2019)

Source: *Researcher's own construction*

The CDTPs need to create employment through tourist-generation activities, such as tour guiding, selling of arts and crafts to tourists and so on. For the projects to succeed and benefit the community, there is need for proper management of these tourism projects. The management structures need to be exclusive, holistic, and community-oriented. The tourism projects ought to purchase services and agricultural supplies from the community, as well as provide a market for traditional artefacts made by the community. Through these efforts the communities should be able to earn a living for their households.

Development of tourism-based community-capital assets improves the overall wellbeing of the community (Stone & Nyaupane, 2017). Much research has maintained that if communities are to benefit from tourism then community participation in tourism development is key (Blackstock, 2005; Rasoolimanesh & Jaafar, 2016; Stone & Nyaupane, 2017). Limited literature, however, has supported the notion that additional benefits are accumulated if the communities have total control of projects, whereby, they collectively make decisions and execute them (Putnam, 2000; Stone & Nyaupane, 2018); for the community projects to succeed, all stakeholders, therefore, need to be involved in their operation. Consequently, guided by the sustainable livelihood concept, tourism planning and management strategies as

well as sustainable tourism indicators, this study conceptualizes an all stakeholder-oriented framework for the operation and management of CDTPs, whereby, communities have majority shares in the project.

3.8. All Stakeholder-oriented conceptual framework for CDTPs

Previous tourism studies identified different stakeholder types with most of them, typically, merging into six broad categories - tourists, industry, local community, government, special interest groups and educational institutions (Getz & Timur, 2012; Markwick, 2000; Mason, 2015; Place, Hall, & Lew, 1998). These stakeholder groups influence tourism development in many ways including, tourism supply and demand, regulation, the management of tourism impacts, human resources and research (Waligo *et al.*, 2013). Waligo *et al.*, (2013) identified key factors influencing stakeholder involvement in sustainable tourism as - “leadership quality, information quality and accessibility, stakeholder mind-sets, stakeholder involvement capacity, stakeholder relationships and implementation priorities”. As stakeholders are influential in realizing sustainability objectives of tourism development, their opinions are fundamental for the development of functional stakeholder involvement tactics (Getz & Timur, 2012; Waligo *et al.*, 2013). In this instance, involving all stakeholders at the initial stage, planning, operation and decision-making on tourism development will eliminate many later disagreements that derail progress in the development of the CDTPs. Furthermore, stakeholders are a fundamental component of sustainable tourism, therefore, their participation is expected to facilitate the implementation of sustainable CDTP.

Sustainable tourism is one that preserves and conserves the cultures of the local communities and values their beliefs and traditions. For communities to benefit socio-economically from tourism, they need to identify the tourism capitals that they have access to. They then utilize these capitals, through tourist-generative activities, such as tour guiding, selling of arts and crafts to tourists, among other activities; they then establish social networks for marketing purposes. Partnership with other organizations is important for networking, marketing, biodiversity conservation, monitoring and evaluation by government and for financial assistance or training. For the CDTPs to succeed and benefit the community, there is a need for proper management of the projects; these management structures need to be inclusive, holistic, and community oriented.

Analysing the sustainable tourism indicators for community-driven projects, the community ought to be the major beneficiaries of these projects. This is because the rural communities own the natural and cultural resources which are the tourist attractions, consequently, the communities need to be involved in the initiation, planning, operation and management of these projects. Other players who might be involved in the project, such as the government, private investors, some donors or Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs), ought to consult with the community on every plan or development, thus, they also need to work with the community towards the accomplishment of the objectives of such projects. The management structure, such as heads of sections, community mobilizers, policy or constitution formulation, major decision-making, ought to be led by the community or their representatives. Figure 2.2. illustrates this framework.

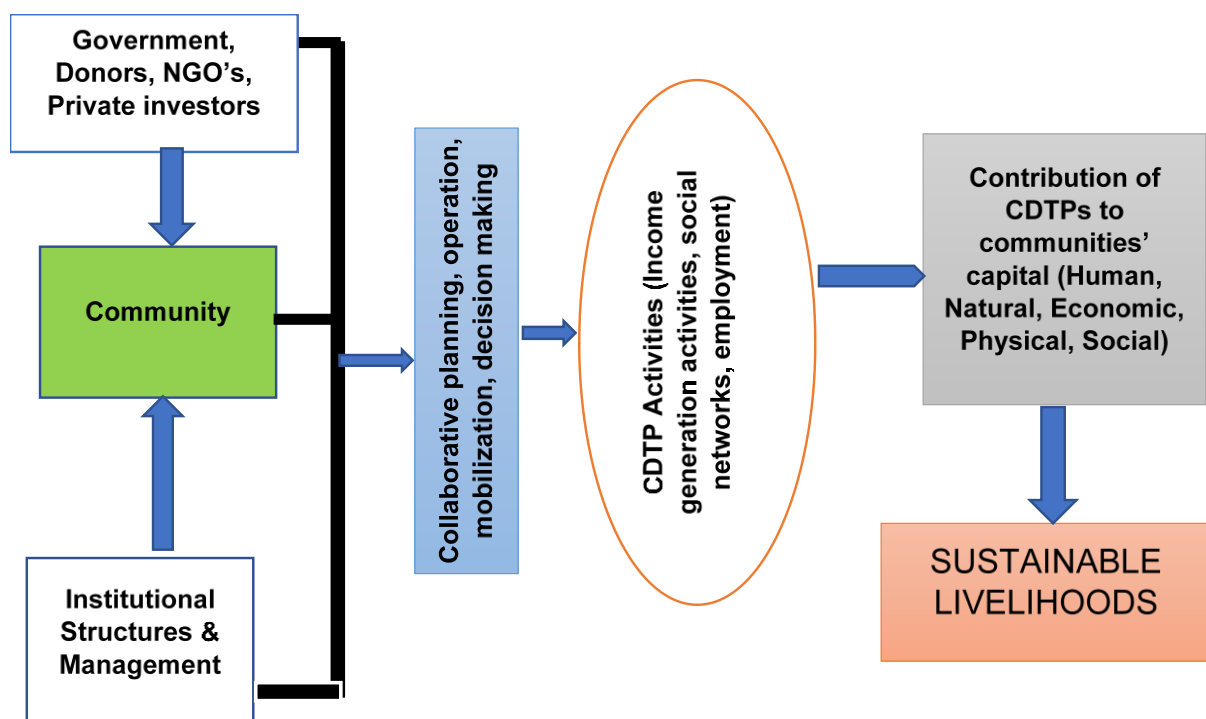


Fig 2.2. All stakeholder-oriented framework for CDTPs

Source: *Researcher's own construction*

While community-driven projects are often seen as vital to any community's growth and success, the planning and management processes by which these projects are operated, are key for attainment of livelihoods.

3.9. Summary

In this chapter, the literature has revealed that Community-driven Tourism Projects (CDTPs) are mandated to contribute to the community's wellbeing as well as keep tourism vibrating as an industry. Livelihood strategies are made possible through access and utilization of capital assets and for sustainable livelihood, the households or communities need to have multiple livelihood diversifications. Community-tourism projects can be livelihood diversification if well managed; for this to happen, sustainable tourism practices need to be present. The sustainable tourism indicators should then act as pointers for community-driven projects, for the attainment of sustainable livelihoods. The CDTPs' management should be people-centered, holistic and inclusive. The study reviewed several community-based tourism planning and management models, amongst them - participatory planning, adaptive co-management, protected-areas model and institutional-management model. Tourism contributes enormously to communities' livelihoods; hence, the communities need to participate fully and actively, in such tourism projects. The study therefore conceptualised a stakeholder-oriented management framework that has the community at the centre, with an element of co-management with other sectors, such as the government, private sector or NGOs. The community members or their representatives need to form part of the management structure of the projects. All stakeholders need to be involved from the initiation of the concept to the end and, in major decision-making concerning the operation of the projects. The communities, therefore, need to drive their own tourism projects for sustainable livelihoods. The following chapter describes the methodological thought processes used to carry out this study.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1. Introduction

A research methodology is a strategy which describes the way research should be carried out. It comprises a system of philosophical beliefs, theories and assumptions which outline the understanding of the research objectives and underpin the choice of research methods (Creswell, 2014). It includes various steps that are adopted by a researcher in a project, along with the logic behind them (Kothari, 2004). First, a detailed description of the study area is presented. This is followed by the research philosophy selected for this study which reflects the researcher's viewpoint in addressing the research problem. This was considered well within the scope of the research design chosen, based on the literature and the confines of the research paradigms. The section then expounds on the research design employed and the research methods applied to conduct the study. The final stage discusses the techniques and procedures used in data collection and analysis.

4.2. Description of the Study areas

The study was carried out in both South Africa and Kenya. In South Africa, the study focused on the Makuleke Contractual Park (MCP) project which is co-managed by the community, South African National Parks (SANP) and three other private partners. In Kenya the Dunga Eco-tourism Association, and Kit Mikayi project of Kisumu Kenya, was selected; these two projects were purposively selected because they are community-driven tourism projects which have promoted development through ecotourism, environmental preservation and conservation practices and are involved in socio-economic activities. Both study areas are popular tourist attractions and their differences in management styles provided a varied platform for investigation of possible livelihood outcomes. Each study area is exhaustively explained below.

4.2.1 Makuleke Contractual Park – South Africa

Makuleke Contractual Park is located in the Pafuri Triangle in the Northern part of South Africa in Limpopo Province (Thornhill and Mello, 2007) (Figure 4.1). The contractual park occupies 24,000 hectares of land on the northern part of the Kruger National Park. The site is on the north bank of the Luvuvhu River and is bordered by Zimbabwe to the north and Mozambique to the east. The region is part of the savannah woodland biome of South Africa, with its vegetation, including savannah grassland, mopane woodland, mountain and gorge vegetation, and riverine forest. It is endowed with a variety of wildlife including elephants, rhinos, buffalo, bushbuck and different species of antelopes, among others.

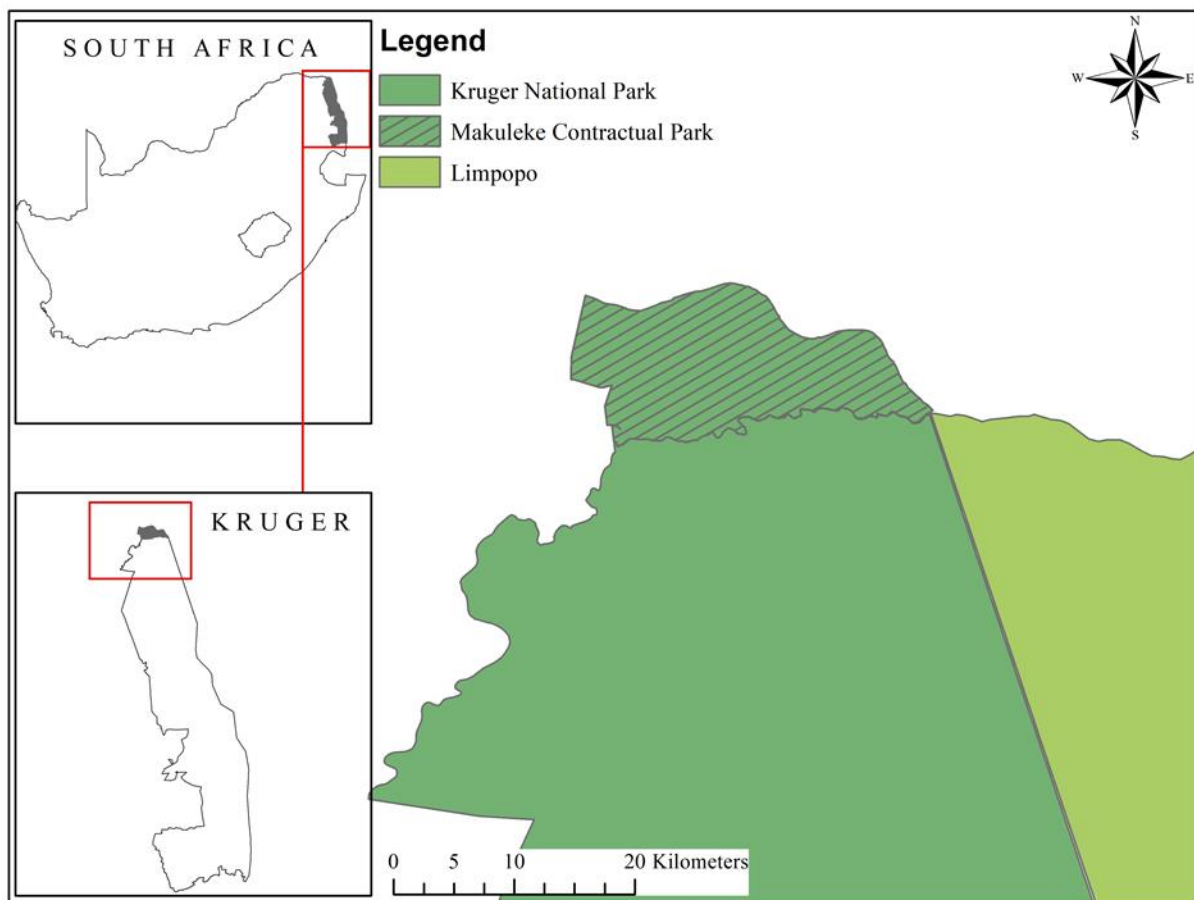


Figure 4.1. Map showing the Makuleke contractual park

Source: *Researcher's own construction (2021)*

The specific areas under study are three villages: Makahlule (Block H), Makuleke (Block I) and Mabiligwe (Block J) under the Collins Shabane Municipality (SA STATS 2019), occupied by the Makuleke community. The Makuleke people belong to the Tsonga tribe which is the

second largest tribe in Limpopo Province. Besides being involved in tourism activities, the households also engage in agricultural activities, such as crop farming, livestock and poultry, among others. The Makuleke tribal traditional body is led by Chief Maluleke and a traditional office is in charge of the community's administration activities. A Cultural Centre located at the tribal office grounds, exhibits the Makuleke history and culture and 5 cottages used as bed and breakfast (BnB) facilities. The community had, previously, been forced out of their ancestral land (original inherited land) for the creation and conservation of the Kruger National Park (Shebab, 2011). The land was later returned to them through the Restitution of Land Rights Act, No 22 of 1994 by the South African government. Shebab, (2011) further affirms that this land was returned to the Makuleke community on condition that they form Community Property Association ("CPA") in terms of the Community Property Association Act 28 of 1996, and that they would preserve its ecological integrity, and use it only for purposes consistent with the preservation of its ecological integrity; in other words, to have the land's pristine nature protected and upheld. The community then signed several contracts with different private tourist investors and allowed them to construct tourist facilities in the Makuleke Contractual Park. The Makuleke communities then moved out of the contractual park to reside in allocated land, outside the Kruger National Park. The contractual park was then to be managed by the private investors, the Kruger National Park and the community through the Makuleke Communal Property Association (MCPA). The MCPA is represented by an Executive Committee (EXCO). The MCPA signed an agreement with these private investors, namely, the Outpost, the Return Africa Pafuri Camp, and the Eco-training. The agreement stated that the investors would contribute a percentage of their annual earnings for the development of the community. The agreement also stated that the investors would employ the Makuleke youth and train them in accordance with eco-training requirements; the Kruger National park would be in charge of biodiversity conservation. Through well-wishers (also known as the "friends of the Makuleke"), the MCP community was able to build the B&B facilities meant to earn a revenue for the MCP community project. These partnerships have contributed to the tourism development which is now evidence in this area. The Makuleke community is involved in biodiversity protection such as environmental conservation and antipoaching. Other activities are ecotourism and Hydroponics Tunnel Farming which is sponsored by the Pafuri Camp.

4.2.2. Dunga Eco-tourism Association (DECTA), Kit Mikayi Historical Rock in Kisumu Kenya

The Kit Mikayi historical rock and Tourist Site is located approximately 29 km west of Kisumu city and within the Lake Victoria region in Kenya (CGK, 2019) (See Figure 4.2). The site is characterized by three naturally organised granite rock formation which is 120m high. According to the curator, Kit Mikayi means “the stone of the first wife”, or “dhako ma mikayi” in Tholuo (local language). Under the rocks are two caves which are perceived to be sacred points and are frequently used by religious sects for worship. The site is also used as a shrine by the Luo community.

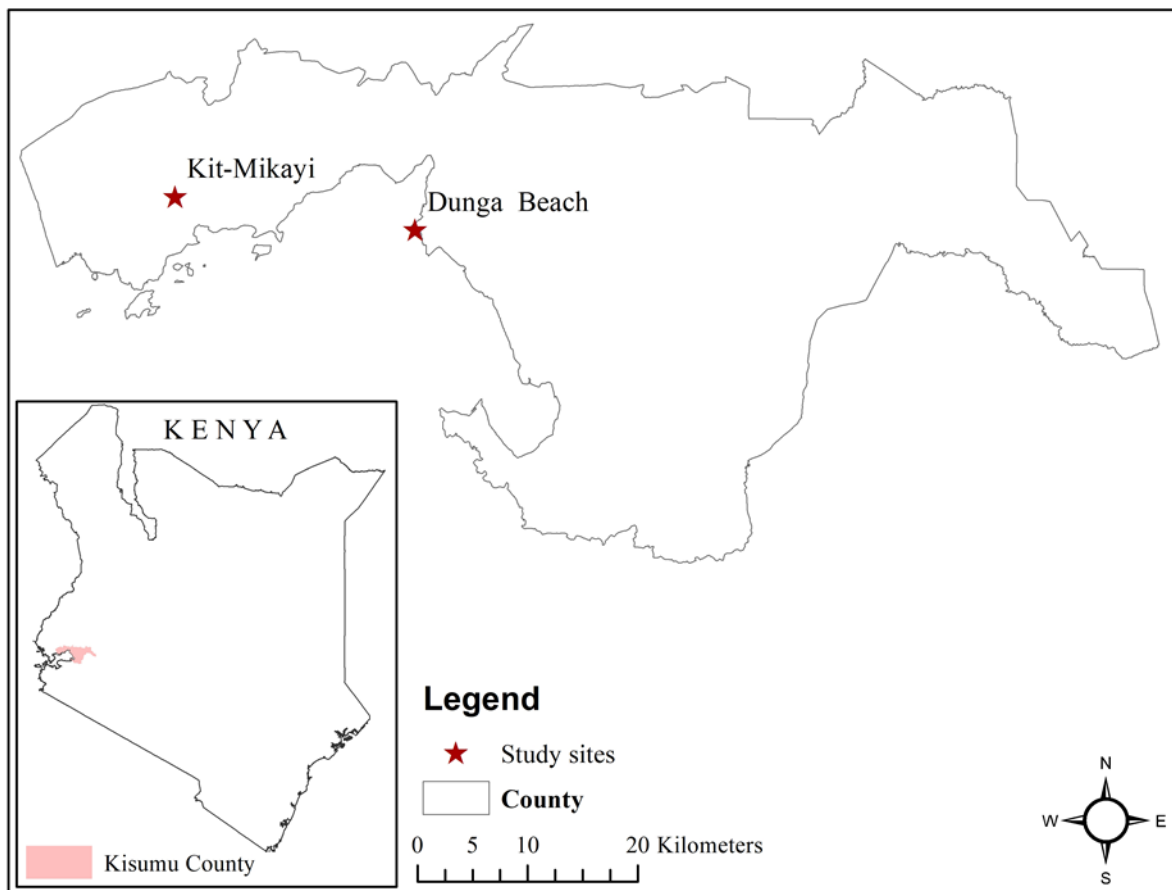


Figure 4.2. Map showing Dunga Beach and Kit Mikayi - Kisumu, Kenya

Source: *Researcher's own construction, (2021)*

Due to its extraordinary formation and the stories around the rock, Kit Mikayi tourist site is frequented by both domestic and international tourists. A dancing group of women (Kageso dancers) usually, entertain tourists with Luo traditional dance.

Dunga Beach on the other hand is 7kms from Kisumu City. Dunga Beach, just like Kit Mikayi is frequented by school children, college students, and other organized groups. It is popular for fresh fish and therefore, a popular lunch stops for people visiting Kisumu city. Dunga Beach is endowed with beautiful lake sceneries with a variety of bird species, sitatungas, hippos and diverse marine life. The activities offered at Dunga beach include, boat rides, the Dunga board walk for birding, fishing and fish selling, as well as selling of traditional handmade artefacts and crafts. The communities here also display their Luo culture in the Pedagogical centre and other curio shops. The two lake attractions (Kit Mikayi and Dunga Beach) provide Kisumu visitors with a satisfactory tourist experience. After an experience of various activities at the beach, tourists make a stop over by the rock to hear narrations about the rock and experience the traditional dances. Due to the heavy flow of tourists at the site, the communities involved in the tourist activities at these attraction sites needed a central regulator for these activities. This saw the creation of the eco-tourism association now called “DECTA” community project. These two tourism attractions in Kenya were selected for the study because they are the most popular around Kisumu City and within the Western tourist circuit and more specifically, because they are purely operated and managed by the local community. The revenues generated from the attractions are meant to benefit the community members involved in the project. These tourist activities have seen Dunga beach and Kit Mikayi grow and develop as tourist destinations.

The following section discusses the research methodology guided by Saunders *et al.*, (2007) research onion model.

4.3. Research Onion Model

Saunders *et al.*, 2007 developed a model of designing research methodology based on theoretical concept of “research onion”. Melnikovas, (2018) noted that the research onion provides detailed explanation of the main stages to be accomplished in order to frame an effective methodology. This study adopted the Saunders *et al.*, 2007 research onion model to design the research methodology step-by-step, starting from a description of the research philosophy and the choosing of approaches. These approaches facilitated the formulation of a research design, which influences the strategies, methods, time horizon and credibility of

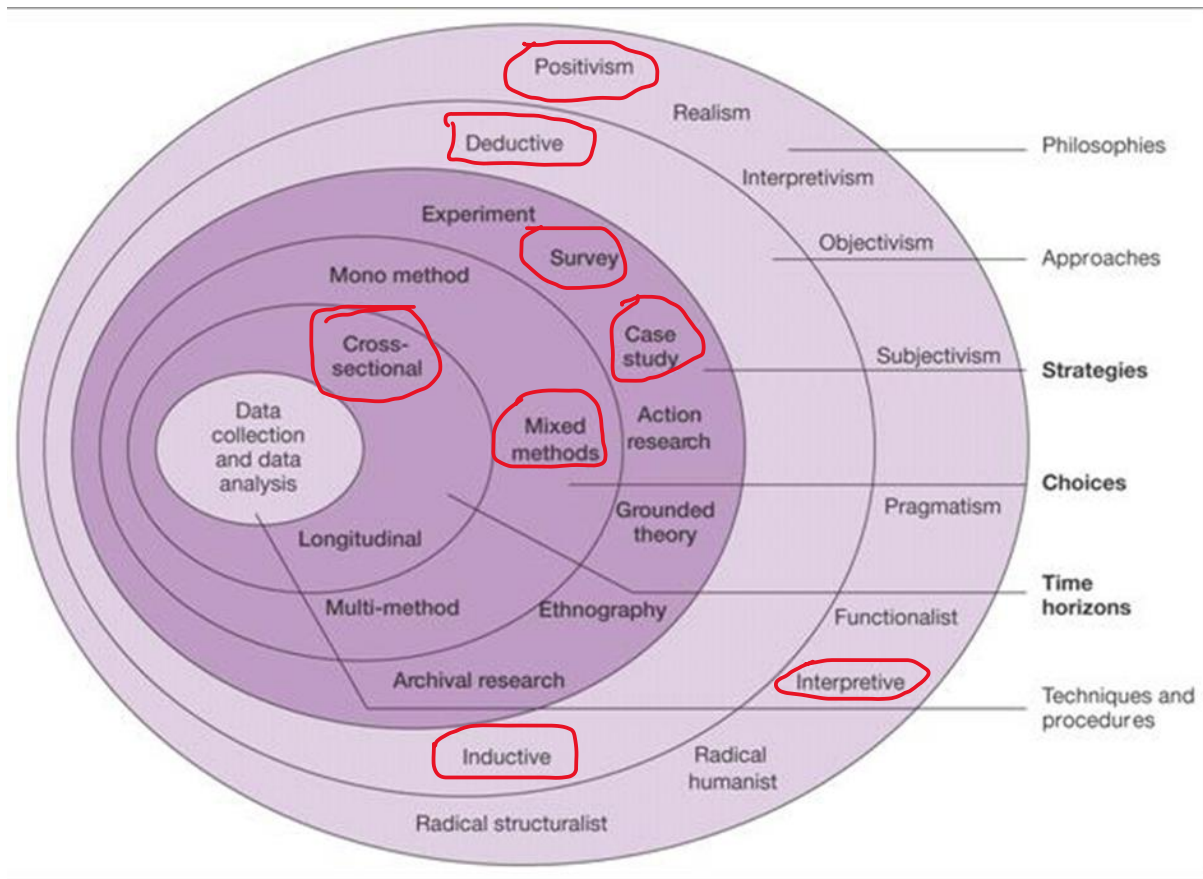
the research findings. Figure 4.3 demonstrates the adopted and modified Saunders *et al.*, (2007) research onion.

4.3.1. Research philosophy and theory development

In scientific research, different paradigms provide a set of beliefs, theories and assumptions setting a philosophical platform for the researcher to work on; they include constructivism, positivism, realism and interpretivism (Creswell, 2014).

4.3.1.1. Research Philosophy

According to Burrell and Morgan, (2017), philosophy is about study of knowledge, reality and existence and comprises ideologies of critical thinking. The term “research philosophy” represents a classification of beliefs and assumptions about the development of knowledge (Saunders *et al.*, 2015). Creswell, (2016) notes that not all paradigms may be suitable for individual researches, therefore, researchers identify the paradigm that suitably informs their research.



○ = Approaches used in research

Figure 4.3. *Research Onion, adopted from (Saunders et al., 2007) and modified by author*

4.3.1.2 Interpretivism

This philosophical approach focuses on the complexity and meanings of situations, interaction among individuals and may engage different methods in order to reflect different aspects of the problem (Black, 2006; Creswell 2016). The fact that the research sought to understand the context under which the CDTPs were operated and the issues around their contribution to livelihoods, meant that the interpretivism philosophical approach was more appropriate for this study.

In order to gather authentic information from a community representation, there was need to come as close as possible to the respondents as recommended by Shekhar *et al.*, (2019). The researcher listened and observed as the participants narrated their stories during focus-group discussions. This gave an insight and understanding about the experiences of the participants as members of the projects, and the challenges they faced in these activities in their attempts to earn a living through the projects. Given the context of the social aspects of the community-driven tourism projects, qualitative data was crucial for interpretation,

revelation of concepts and meanings of the relationships within the community capitals. Qualitative approach was therefore adopted as recommended by Toloie-Eshlaghy *et al.*, (2011).

Interpretivism emphasises that humans are different from physical phenomena because they create meanings, hence, human beings and their social worlds cannot be studied in the same way as physical phenomena (Saunders *et al.*, 2015). The purpose of interpretivist research is to create new, richer understandings and interpretations of social worlds and contexts (Quinlan *et al.*, 2019). This study focused on the different households' representatives, the majority of whom were heads of their families, therefore, their quest to diversify livelihood strategies for their households was vital. Understanding their social networks in the projects and how the projects had impacted individual households' livelihoods essential in this study.

4.3.2. Approaches to theory development

This study reflected on three theory development approaches (**deductive, abductive and inductive**). One approach applied was deductive mainly because of the theories that informed the study, from literature. For instance, the study was guided by the Community Capital Framework (CCF) by Emery and Flora, (2006), so as to better explore the complexities of the capital assets bestowed by the communities in the study areas. The CCF was also modified to formulate a theoretical framework for community-driven tourism projects. The study was also abductive because themes and patterns identified were later located in the conceptual framework and later tested through data collection. In-depth investigations were conducted through interviews with small samples of key informants making the approach also inductive.

As the research required oscillation between theory and data, patterns and categories of themes of the issues raised by the participants in terms of human, economic, natural, physical and social capital, were coded and developed, combining inductive and deductive elements. The CCF was used to design the interviews and focus-group questions as well as the Capital Asset Mapping (CAM) questions and community capital-ranking procedure. The interview and focus-group questions were used as leading guides; therefore, participants were encouraged to talk at length on each subject. This was to capture the participants own understanding of their capital assets and the importance of the tourism project to them, individually. Several issues and themes emerged, inductively, during the interviews and discussions. The inductively-derived themes and issues were negotiated and plotted against the prepared

theoretical framework, altering, modifying and adjusting the framework in the process. This enabled contribution of empirical, as well as theoretical knowledge.

4.4. Formulating Research Design

In this section, three layers of the research onion are uncovered - research strategy, method choices and time horizon. These three layers mainly, focus on the research design that was employed and the justification for choice of the design for the study. The next section will also discuss the time horizon for the study and the credibility of research findings.

4.4.1. Research Strategies

Several scholars have defined research in many ways. From the many definitions that have been offered over the years, there seems to be an agreement that research is a process of enquiry and investigation (Amaratunga *et al.*, 2002; Smith *et al.*, 1992; Santos *et al.*, 2007; Archibald, 2016, Trotter & Mitchell, 2018) and that research is systematic, methodical and it also generates knowledge. Strategy is, therefore, an approach through which one conducts research (Trotter & Mitchell, 2018). In this study, a survey and case study research strategies were employed and are discussed below. A survey was used because it is both comparatively easy to explain and to understand and the strategy allows collection of a huge amount of data, from a large population, in a highly cost-effective way (Thornhill *et al.*, 2009). In addition, it tends to answer the - who, where, how many, and what questions. This research obtained survey data by the use of questionnaires administered to sampled households. Furthermore, the survey strategy allowed collection of quantitative data which was used to suggest possible reasons for relationships between variables. The strategy enabled the researcher to generate findings that were a representative of the target population

4.4.1.2 Case study strategy

Robson, (2002:178) defines a case study as “a strategy for doing research which involves an empirical investigation of a particular contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context using multiple sources of evidence”. According to Kulatunga *et al.*, (2007) case studies provide an opportunity to use multiple forms of evidence to empirically examine a current

phenomenon. They can be useful in providing answers to “how” and “why” questions in exploratory, or explanatory research (Rowley, 2002). The case study strategy, therefore, was of specific significance to this study because the researcher sought to gain understanding of the community-tourism projects, in two different areas, in two different countries. The research also sought to compare the significance of the tourism projects to the two identified communities in South Africa and in Kenya. This resonates with George, (2019) and Sigglekow, (2007) who affirmed that case study uses a variety of contemporary evidence from different sources, hence investigates a phenomenon within its real life context. Kulatunga *et al.*, (2007) postulate that in case studies, data can be collected using multiple methods.

Given the different numbers and categories of people in each case, there was need to use different data collection techniques, such as interviews, focus-group discussions, semi-structured interviews, observation, documentary analysis and questionnaires. Quantitative data collected using questionnaires were triangulated by use of the semi-structured interviews in order to verify the information given in the questionnaires as recommended by Thornhill *et al.*, (2009). This strategy allowed the researcher to analyse and discuss each case separately and later a comparison was done to determine the differences and similarities in operation, management and contribution of the projects to the livelihoods of the communities, in the two cases.

4.4.2. Research method choices

“Quantitative” and “qualitative” are terms which are widely used in research to differentiate both data collection techniques and data analysis procedures. In research the word “quantitate” is mainly used as a descriptor for any data collection technique (such as a questionnaire) or data analysis procedure (such as graphs or statistics) that generates or uses numerical data (Saunders *et al.*, 2009). Quantitative research permits the researcher to acquaint him/herself with the problem or idea to be investigated, and conceivably generate hypotheses (Golafshani, 2003). The quantitative method was used to obtain data on asset mapping and biographical characteristics of the respondents. On the other hand, **qualitative** is used predominantly as a description for any data collection technique (such as an interview) or data analysis procedure (such as categorising data) that generates or use non-numerical data. Qualitative, therefore, can refer to data, other than words, such as pictures and video clips (Saunders, 2003). This study used a qualitative approach to gain detailed understanding of issues on management of the projects and the different impact of the tourism project on

communities' livelihoods. Both methods were found to be useful for this study and are expanded upon below.

4.4.2.1 Hybrid research design

A hybrid research is a combination of two or more methodologies, irrespective of whether it is qualitative plus quantitative or bringing together a mix of different qualitative data collection methodologies involving individual or interacting groups, to produce more detailed and comprehensive results (Carrel, 2019; Haf, 2017). In this study, a combination of different approaches, methods, data collection and analyses were applied to meet the aims of the research project as noted by Bazeley, (2006) and Johnson *et al.*, (2007). Three phases were designed and carried out in an exploratory sequential flow as follows: -

1. Key informant interview guide was used to conduct six (6) in-depth interviews with the management committee members from both sites. Information gathered in these interviews was analysed in order to get a picture of the pertinent issues that were likely to be encountered concerning the project. The data collected was then categorized into themes and patterns. The information gathered from these interviews helped in formulating the focus-group discussion questions; this was very essential background data.
2. A focus-group discussion guide (appendix.5) was followed during the exploratory session. The focus group discussions were implemented through 12 focus groups, with 7 held at Makuleke and 5 at Kisumu. To ensure that participants were free to express their views truthfully the groups were separated based on gender (adult male and adult female); the groups were made up of 7 – 12 members. The participants comprised of registered active members of the Makuleke Contractual Park (MCP), the Kit Mikayi and the Dunga Beach Eco-tourism Association (DECTA). The executive committee and headmen of the Makuleke villages and the DECTA board chair-person were instrumental in identifying the participants for this exercise. Flip charts were used to record the views of each group. Consolidation of responses and preliminary data cleaning followed thereafter. Verbatim data was also recorded during the sessions and themes and patterns were then formulated, accordingly and recorded. The discussions focused on the issues around the community-driven tourism projects and negatives and positive issues came out very clearly during these sessions. The discussions helped in establishing the vital issues in the community as pertains to the projects. Following the results from the discussion-groups' data, open ended

questionnaires on asset mapping and contribution of community-driven tourism projects to livelihoods, were developed.

3. A questionnaire informed by the information collected through the focus groups and interviews above was then designed and administered to 67 household representatives in Makuleke and 54 in Kisumu (a detailed discussion on how this sample was arrived at is provided in the sample size section). A household-information and biographical-data questionnaire (appendix.3) was also used to gather information from the household representatives. This questionnaire in addition to seeking information on the background details of the participants, also facilitated further discussions on - the capital assets the communities had access to, the contributions of the projects to their livelihood, their opinions concerning the management and institutional structures of the projects and the community's participation level in the projects. The questionnaire had open-ended questions which initiated a one-on-one discussion with the household representative. The researcher and the assistants also recorded some observations during the entire process.
4. A further meeting with the household representatives was organized to identify the tourism capital assets that the community had access to. They were then requested to rank the capitals in order of importance. Based on the results of identification and the ranking of the capitals, interviews with key informants were conducted to obtain their perceptions on the results of the ranking and to get their insight and the facts around the importance of the capitals to the community. This paved way to a third step, which was to investigate the contribution the project had made to the community. This was essential to assess the impacts of the project on the communities' livelihoods
5. A desk review of the constitutions and policies used in the projects was conducted. Semi-structured individual interviews with the administrators of the projects were further conducted and analysed qualitatively to clarify some of the contents in the policy documents. Furthermore, group interviews were conducted to clarify the content of some of the quantitative questionnaire results from the community. This was deemed necessary to get the meaning behind some of the data collected.

4.4.2.2. *Justification of Hybrid Research Design Approach*

Hybrid Research methods approach has been used by scholars, such as Fereday & Muir-Cochrane, (2006) and Swain, (2018) to extract data using both quantitative and qualitative

approaches. This research approach was considered suitable for addressing the purpose of this study as it enables triangulation of data and elaboration of the results from one method (quantitative) with the results from the other method (qualitative). The qualitative data collected in steps one and two, assisted in the shaping of a measurement scale for use in step three, where data was collected quantitatively. Consequently, the Hybrid research method approach provided a source that informed the study on measuring variables in the stages of data collection and also expanded and strengthened the study's conclusion. A few tourism studies have used the hybrid research method approach (Kisi, 2019; Fernández-Gámez, Bendodo-Benasayag, & Serrano, 2020) showing its appropriateness, for such a study as this.

4.4.3. Credibility of research findings

4.4.3.1. Reliability and Validity

Reliability refers to the extent to which the data collection techniques or analysis procedures will produce dependable results (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2008); in other words, getting the same findings if the study is repeated (Golafshani, 2003). Validity is the exactness with which the findings reflect the data (Noble & Smith, 2015). Community-entry activities, such as focus-group discussions, built trust between the researcher and participants and this in turn, ensured reliability; the consistency of responses in most of the issues in this study, confirmed reliability. For instance, there was consistency in responses on the contribution of the community-driven tourism projects to the community's livelihoods in both South Africa and Kenyan study-participants (Price *et al.*, 2015). The theoretical literature review informed the development of the data collection instruments and this was useful for establishment of validity of the results. The interview results obtained from the pilot study were the same as the results obtained during the actual research. Similarly, the open-ended questionnaire on the asset mapping during the pilot study gave the same results as the ones obtained during the actual research. This was an indication that there was consistency in results, meaning that the instruments used were reliable, therefore, the results were valid. Furthermore, the research design chosen for this study assured validity and reliability of the research. The utilization of both qualitative and quantitative methods ensured data triangulation, hence, a more comprehensive set of findings. The sample size selected was appropriate to ensure that every selected household representative was given a chance to voice his/her issues regarding the projects and their contribution to livelihoods. Additionally, the meticulous record keeping of interviews and focus-group discussions demonstrated a clear decision trail, thereby, ensuring that interpretation of

the collected data was consistent and transparent. A pilot study was also carried out to assess the feasibility of some vital components before the full-scale study.

4.4.3.1.1 Pilot study

A pilot study is an enquiry conducted on a small-scale before embarking on the actual field work for a study (Ghani *et al.*, 2019). It involves small samples to inform a more appropriate and efficient plan for the research (Kothari, 2004). In social science literature, there is little documented guidance regarding how large a pilot study sample should be, however, Hetzorg (2007) suggested that a pilot study sample-size determination, may be guided by cost and time constraints and recommended a 10% of the final study sample. Given the budget constraint and the distance between the study areas, Hetzorg's (2007) suggestion was considered. The sample size for the pilot study was therefore 10% of 121 total household representatives. For Makuleke 10% of 67 = 7 and Kisumu 10% of 54 = 5 which resulted in a total of 12 household representatives and 2 key informants were interviewed from each side. From the Makuleke site, the chairperson of the project and one concessionaire were interviewed while in Kisumu, the project manager and the project's Savings and Credit Association (SACCO) chairperson were interviewed. The aim of the pilot study was to resolve methodological questions, such as the applicability and relevance of the research instruments and the efficacy of the raw data management (Ghani *et al.*, 2019). In this study, a pilot study was carried out at each of the sites, in order to evaluate viability, adverse events and to eliminate ambiguity in wordings of the questions, so as to improve the study design prior to commencement of the main research. Generally, the pilot study results showed that the two CDTPs were functioning with various tourism activities and were governed by different institutional structures. This prompted an additional interview question guide for key informants. Unclear questions were rephrased, and some removed, therefore, pre-testing of the tools necessitated some wordings being changed, as well as rephrasing of some questions.

4.5. Data collection and data analysis

This is the final layer of the onion which pertains to the techniques and procedures used in data collection and data analysis. According to Sapsford (2006) data collection and analysis exemplify an extensive series of techniques and approaches used in research projects. In this section the following stages are discussed - first the preparation for field work which entailed

preparation of data collection instruments, acquiring ethical clearance and recruitment of research assistants, as well as community-entry procedure; secondly the section will also cover the sampling procedure as well as techniques and procedures used in data collection and the data analysis' methods.

4.5.1. Preparation for field work

The process of data collection followed a systematic procedure. The first step was to obtain ethical clearance, then the development of a data collection plan and data collection instruments. Research ethics is a set of principles and practices that offer moral guidance in a particular field (Price *et al.*, 2015), thus, ethical considerations and access are vital for any research project to succeed (Thornhill *et al.*, 2009).

Ethical clearance certificate for this study was sought and obtained from the University of Venda Research Ethics Committee (Appendix 1), thereafter, permission to conduct the study was sought and obtained from the local leadership of the two study areas, Makuleke (South Africa) and Kisumu (Kenya). This was achieved through holding meetings with the Chief of Makuleke, and the Kisumu County Tourism's Director. A meeting was then arranged with the chairlady of the MCPA executive committee in Makuleke and the Chairperson of DECTA in Dunga Beach, Kisumu. These meetings aided in gaining community entry and assisted in establishing a connection between the researcher and the study participants. After obtaining consent to conduct research, a meeting with the community was arranged, where the intention, aim and nature of the study was explained in detail to the communities and other participants. Participants were informed that their participation was voluntary, and that they were free to withdraw at will. They were also assured that the information gathered was only to be used for the purpose of the study and would not be used for any other purposes without their approval. All data collection tools were accompanied with a consent form that each participant was given to sign before participation (as attached in the appendix).

4.5.1.1 Recruitment of research assistants

Two research assistants were recruited and trained. The training of research assistants was crucial so that they could clearly understand what was expected of them; they were provided with orientation on the qualitative approach and the expectations of the research project. For the South African site, the research assistant team included postgraduate students from

University of Venda, who were also from the Makuleke villages and understood the local language (Xitsonga) well. The traditional leadership had requested that research assistants be part of the local community. In the Kenyan site, the assistant team were students from Moi University who were conversant with the local language (Thuluo) spoken in the study area. The assistants in both sites assisted in explaining in the local language the content of questionnaires and translating in English the response from the communities. They also did the interpretation during the focus-group discussions and during interviews where it was needed.

4.5.2 Study population, Sampling design, techniques and procedures

4.5.2.1 Target inclusion of the population for the survey

Study population is the set of people or participants with the specific attributes of interest and relevance to the study (Asiamah *et al.*, 2017, Creswell, 2003, Kotrlik and Higgins, 2001). Gray (2009) defines a target population in research as the total number of people, organization, objects from which a sample is drawn. The study population for this research was the community members involved in community-driven tourism projects, the organizations that had partnered with the communities and the institutional structures involved in the management of the projects. The study from facts from the survey site and earlier literature, had ascertained that the two selected projects were community-driven tourism projects located in the study areas (Reid & Turner 2004; Awuor, 2016; Jernsand, 2017; Maluleke, 2018). In South Africa, the communities involved in the Makuleke Contractual Park were from the three villages that occupy the Pafuri triangle. These villages comprise Makuleke, Mabilingwe and Makahlule. In Kenya the study population were the communities involved in the Dunga Beach Eco-tourism Association (DECTA) and the Kit Mikayi Historical Rock projects. Since the study was to assess the contribution of community-driven tourism projects to communities' livelihoods, household representation within these population sets was important.

4.5.2.2 Sampling techniques and procedures

A sample design is a strategy for attaining a selected number from a certain population. It is the technique or the procedure a researcher adopts in selecting objects for the sample (Kothari, 2004).

This study employed both probability and non-probability sampling designs. In probability sampling, the chance of a unit being selected is known, while in non-probability the chance of a unit being selected is unknown (Kumar, 2019). The study population and the key informants were purposively selected in accordance with non-probability procedures. The household representatives were randomly selected, hence, probability design. Various steps, techniques and procedures were, therefore, followed to gather data. Simple random sampling technique was used to select the sample from the target population. Data was collected from 67 households, randomly selected from the target population of 80 actively involved households in Makuleke, (South Africa). Similarly, in Kenya, 54 households were randomly selected from the 62 actively involved households in the project. These households were randomly selected from the list of active members, to give a fair representation of the communities that were involved in the tourism projects in both areas (an illustration of the sample frame (Figure 4.4) and sample size calculation is demonstrated below).

Key informants' information was crucial to this study for better understanding of issues related to the projects, such as - how many members the projects had, what capital assets the community had access to and how the projects were operated. It was also important to understand the institutional structures, organisations and management in these projects and their role in the execution of the projects' mandate, in regard to their benefits to communities' livelihoods. The interview questions were structured differently for the different categories. A sample of 15 key informants were purposively selected comprising of executive committee members of the Makuleke Communal Property Association (MCPA) who were - managers from the contractual park concessions in Makuleke (that is, Outpost Lodge, the Pafuri Camp also known as Return Africa, and the Eco Training Camp), Headmen from the three villages Makuleke, Mabilingwe and Makahlule), and an administrative officer in the MCPA office. In Kenya, a total of 6 key informants were sampled and these comprised of county tourism director, managers of the Dunga Beach Eco-tourism Association (DECTA), committee member of the Dunga Beach Management Unit (DBMU), leaders of the women dancers of the Kit Mikayi historical Rock, and the chairman of the Kit Mikayi cooperative. The total 21 key informants from both sites were purposively selected as follows (Table 4.1):

Table 4.1. Sampling for key informants

Key informants	Description	Number of selected participants
Makuleke		
Executive Committee members	MCPA	7
Concessionaires	Outpost lodge, Return Africa, Makuleke Eco Training Camp	3
Warden	(Kruger National Part)	1
Headmen	Makuleke, Mabilingwe and Makahlule villages	3
Administrative officer	MCPA office (Tribal office)	1
Kisumu		
Tourism Director	Kisumu County	1
Managers	Dunga Beach Eco-tourism Association (DECTA)	2
Committee member	Dunga Beach Board Management Unit (DBMU)	1
Women Dancers leader	Kit Mikay	1
Chairman	Kit Mikayi Cooperative	1
Total Key informants		21

4.5.2.2.1 Sample size calculation for the household representation

The sample size was determined based on the information gathered from the management of the two projects as follows:

Makuleke – South Africa

Following the information gathered from the MCPA executive committee (Exco), the Makuleke contractual park has 150 households represented in the project from the three villages under study (Makuleke, Mabilingwe and Makahlule). Out of the 150 households, only 80 were actively involved in the activities of the contractual park project (MCPA). This information was obtained from the attendant register at the MCPA office. The 80 households therefore formed the study's target population for Makuleke, hence, **N = 80**. The study sought a deep understanding of the project's issues and experiences of the people involved in this project,

therefore, a smaller sample was considered, in order to gather more meaningful qualitative data from the people's perspective.

Using the Yamane equation (Yamane, 1973) modified by Mora and Kloet, (2010), the sample size was calculated. The Taro Yamane formula was preferred in this study for it provides a simplified method to calculate and apportion the sample size from the total targeted households. Assuming a degree of variability (i.e. proportion) of 0.5 and a confidence level of 95% (Taherdoost, 2017), the formula is demonstrated below.

The Yamane equation formula is: -

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + N(e^2)}$$

Where **n** is the sample size, **N** is the population size and **e** is the level of precision. Using the household as the sampling unit and setting the sampling precision at **5% (i.e. e=0.05)**. The sample size for the two study areas household representation is calculated as follows: -

Makuleke - N = 80

$$n = \frac{80}{1 + 80(0.05)^2} = 66.6$$

The sample size was therefore **n = 67**

The sample size (67) was then proportionately apportioned to the 3 villages with each being apportioned a sample of 23 households actively involved in the tourism project.

Kisumu – Kenya

In Kisumu, the DECTA records showed that Dunga beach village had a total of 35 household actively involved in the project while Kit Mikayi had 27, making a total of 62 households. The 62 therefore formed the target population of households in Kisumu, hence **N = 62**. The sample size for Kisumu was calculated as follows:

$$n = \frac{62}{1 + 62(0.05)^2} = 53.6$$

Sample size for Kisumu was therefore **n = 54**.

A percentage was then calculated from the total of 62 households to determine the percentage portion for each village as follows: -

Dunga Beach – 35 out of 62 x 100 = 56.5%

Kit Mikayi – 27 out of 62 x 100 = 43%

The sample was therefore apportioned as follows:

Dunga Beach - 56.5% of 54 = 31

Kit Mikayi 43.4% of 54 = 23

4.5.2.2. Study household Sample Frame

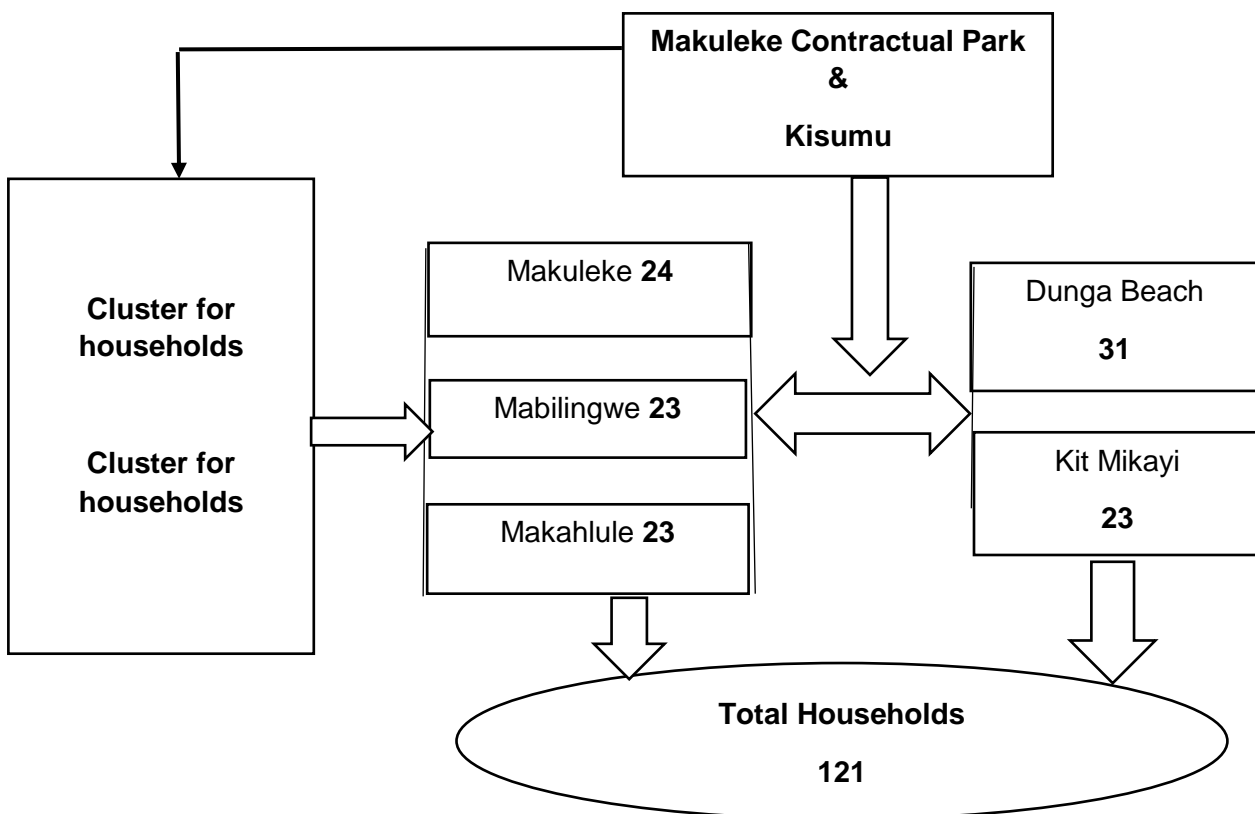


Figure 4.4. Clustered household sample frame for the two study areas

Source: Researcher's own construction

4.6. Data collection techniques

As the study took a hybrid / mixed method approach, various data collection tools and procedures were used as explained in the hybrid / mixed method section above. The procedures are elaborated in the following section.

4.7. Data analysis

Data collected was both quantitative and qualitative, therefore, multiple analytical techniques were used. Quantitative data was captured using excel, coded and exported to the IBM Statistical Package for Social Scientists (SPSS) version 25. The descriptive results were presented as percentages in forms of tables, pie charts and graphs for various variables concerning the household information and profiling the community's capital assets. Qualitative data from interviews was also captured in excel; themes and patterns were identified and coded. Thematic content analysis was used for analyzing and reporting themes found within the interview data. The interviews helped in identifying the management structures and building stories around the operations of the projects, the differences and similarities of participants' views and highlighted unexpected insights. Focus-group discussion data was captured in excel and exported to ATLAS.ti. version 8 software for analysis. ATLAS.ti provides features to centralize all essential information for organizing one's research and has the ability to analyze the data automatically (Friese *et al.*, 2018). This system permits automatic coding, categorizing of themes, locating and presenting of results in the form of networks that show linkages of the phenomena under study (Friese, 2019). Verbatim quotations were transliterated to show relevance of responses. Direct quotes were extracted as products from the output window of ATLAS. ti version 8. This assisted in presenting the narrations surrounding the community-driven tourism projects. The following Table shows a summary of methodology for each specific objective.

Table 4.2. Methodology for each specific objective

Specific Objective	Data Collection methods/techniques	Data analysis method/technique	Data analysis tools/software
1. (i) Demographic characterization, (ii) Identification and evaluation of Tourism Community Capitals	Questionnaires	Descriptive analysis	Microsoft Excel, SPSS
2. Determine of CDTPs contribution to communities' livelihoods	Prioritization ranking, Focus group discussions In-depth interviews Questionnaires	Periodization matrix, Thematic content analysis Descriptive analysis	Microsoft Excel, Atlas.ti SPSS
3. Assessment of Institutional Structures and processes	Document reviews In-depth interviews	Document analysis Recordings Thematic content analysis	Microsoft Excel,
4. Analysis of CDTPs impacts on communities' lives	Focus group discussions In-depth interviews	Thematic content analysis	Microsoft Excel Atlas.ti.

4.8. Summary

This chapter presented a detailed explanation of the study areas and the research methodology that was used to carry out the study. A discussion of the research philosophy demonstrating the thought process and application of methods for the successful completion of the study was then provided. The interpretivism paradigm was supported by the hybrid research design that had a mixture of both quantitative and qualitative approaches was employed for an in-depth understanding of the case studies. The sampling procedures and techniques used were discussed, highlighting how this study employed both probability and non-probability sampling techniques. The sampling frames for both study areas were also provided. Additionally, the data collection and analysis processes carried out were articulated. After discussing the methods employed in this study, the following chapter presents the results on - the characteristics of the participants, mapping of the tourism capitals guided by CCF, identification of the most important capital through ranking, analysis of the contribution of the CDTPs in terms of the capital assets, investigation of the institutional management and organization of the CDTPs under study, as well as an assessment of the impacts of CDTPs on communities' livelihoods.

CHAPTER 5

RESEARCH FINDINGS

5.1 Introduction

In this chapter, empirical results for the four objectives of the study are presented. In the first section the results and discussion on the characterization of community-driven projects' participants as well as community capital-asset mapping are presented. This is followed by results and discussion on the contribution of the projects to the communities' livelihoods, then institutional structures and processes underpinning the tourism projects under study. It was crucial to scrutinize the institutional arrangements under-pinning the projects because institutions influence communities' access to various forms of capitals as well as being the determinants of benefits the communities are likely to derive which, thereby affect their livelihood outcomes.

5.2. Characterization of Community-Driven Project Participants and the Community Capital Mapping (CCM)

In this study, characterization of participants in community-driven projects was done based on social-demographics of the respondents. It was relevant to understand the social characteristics of the household representatives as these influence their participation in the tourism projects. Tourism Community Capitals were identified in order to establish the assets that already existed before the project and those that were invested through the project.

5.2.1. Social demographic characteristics

Communities' participation in tourism projects depends on the people's knowledge, skills, ownership, ability to control, commitment and access to tourism resources (Godwin, 2002; Stone & Stone, 2019; Su *et al*, 2016; Tao & Wall, 2009). Considering the heterogeneity nature of communities, it is necessary to understand how age, gender, education level and competence of the participants contribute to their level of participation. The household headship and family size were an important factor, in this study, in understanding household livelihoods and strategies. The following are the results for social demographic characteristics of the respondents; -

Mkuleke – South Africa

As indicated in Table 5.1, the majority of the respondents were male (53.7%), compared to female respondents who were 46.3%. Of all the participants, 46% were between 18 and 35 years. Male participants who were heads of household were 53% and female 47%, with a significant 46.3% of respondents with a family size of between 6-10 members.

Kisumu - Kenya

Results from Kisumu indicate that the majority of those who participated in this study were male (59.2%) while female was (40.8%). The main tourist activity in the Kisumu project was boat riding which is male-dominated, and this explains the higher percentage of male respondents than women. The participants were mainly between the ages of 18 and 35 years (59.3%), with 25.9% being between 36 and 45 years, 11.1% between 46 and 65 years and 3.7% above 66 years. Male household heads were 64% of all participants while female formed the remaining 36%. From the sample, 70% had a family size of between 1 – 5 members.

Demographic characteristics of individuals such as age, gender, marital status, education, have been considered to be relevant as they are likely to influence the outcome of the phenomenon (Fröberg *et al.*, 2015; Tsui & O'reilly III, 1989; Westin, Jansson, & Nordlund, 2018). The results clearly show that there are some similarities as well as differences in the two cases, in terms of social demographics. For instance, the majority of the respondents in both cases were male aged between 18 – 35 years and they were also heads of their households. This implies that men were more involved in the tourism project activities than women and were in their economic active age (Abimbola & Aluwakemi, 2013). This confirms earlier studies that demonstrated gender inequality in the tourism sector, exclusion of women in many tourism occupations, as well as the fact that gender ideology influences the tourism industry (Costa *et al.*, 2011; Duffy *et al.*, 2015; Sinclair 2005). Another reason for male dominance in tourism activities could be attributed to social-cultural factors that link women with domestic or private spheres of home and men with public domains of the community (Duffy *et al.*, 2015; Feng, 2013). Similarly, the type of tourism activities that these participants engaged in were gendered, in that those who mostly own or operate restaurants, tour guiding, boatmen and drivers were men. These findings are consistent with previous tourism and hospitality studies (Costa *et al.*, 2011; Feng 2013; Xu, 2018) which observed that some tourism work is gendered, hence, some works are considered to be for men due to their masculinity.

As was established by Westin *et al.*, (2018), the participants' demographic attributes have an implication on the final outcome of the research. The demographic variables in the current study had a great significance and association with identified characteristics as confirmed by the measurement of the cross-tabulation across gender, and household headship. The majority of the men who participated in this study were household heads, charged with the households' livelihood strategies, however, the results confirmed that the few females who participated in this study had family responsibilities with Makuleke recording 47% and Kisumu 36% of female household heads. This is an indication that women also play an essential role in household and livelihood strategies (Barclay *et al.*, 2019; Thimmappa, 2019). The household sizes of the respondents of Makuleke were larger (between 6 –10) than those of Kenya that were between 1 – 5 members in the family. Large family sizes may require more livelihood diversification (Abombola & Oluwakemi, 2013; Eneyew & Bekele, 2012; Scoones, 1998), and this means that there was a greater need for their participation in tourism project activities for generation of more income.

Table 5.1. Social demographic characteristics of household representatives

Characteristics	Description	Makuleke	Kisumu
		Percent (%)	Percent (%)
Age	18-35	46.3	59.3
	36-45	22.4	25.9
	56-65	23.9	11.1
	>65	7.5	3.7
	Total	100	100
Gender	Male	53.7	59.2
	Female	46.3	40.7
	Total	100	100
Household Heads	Male	53	64
	Female	47	36
	Total	100	100
Family size	1-5	38.8	70.4
	6-10	46.3	25.9
	11-15	13.4	3.7
	>15	1.5	0
	Total	100	100

(Makuleke n = 67, Kisumu n = 54). This sample size represents the active household members of the tourism projects.

(b) Education Level

Lack of basic education and tourism knowledge was seen as a major constrain and a limitation on communities in actively participating in community-based tourism development (Razzaq *et al.*, 2012). For communities to drive and control their own tourism project, they need to have basic education. The local communities, therefore, need to be equipped with the required tourism knowledge and skills. Examining the education level of the participants in this study was key for an evaluation of the communities' capability to plan, operate and manage the tourism projects.

Makuleke – South Africa

As demonstrated in Table 5.2., in Makuleke, 10.4% of the respondents had attained university type of education with 11.9% having tertiary or technical college level, 19.4% had attained matric, 13.4% Grades 8 – 11 while 12% reached Grades 1 – 7. Only 26.9% of the respondents had no formal education.

Kisumu – Kenya

In Kisumu, 42.65% of the respondents had attained primary level of education, while 22.2% had reached tertiary/technical college level. Only 19.3% had attained university level of education with 18.5% having attained secondary school education level, while only 7.4 had no formal education.

The results show that the majority of the respondents in the two areas had the minimum education level to enable them to make sound decisions in regard to running their tourism projects. An educated community has an opportunity to increase access to information (Bhandari, 2013) and utilize the other tourism community capitals (Natural, Economic, Physical, and Social) (Aref & Marof, 2008; Biggs *et al.*, 2018). Furthermore, educated personnel are believed to be more productive than non-educated ones (Thrane, 2008), and basic education is a central issue in social development and poverty eradication strategies. It can be concluded that the communities had basic education needed to organize and participate in planning and developing their community-driven tourism project.

Table 5.2. Education level (Human Capital)

The Education system in South Africa is slightly different from that of Kenya and therefore the education levels are displayed separately.

Education level	Percentage (%)
Makuleke	
Grade 1 – 7	12.0
Grade 8 – 11	13.4
Matric	19.4
Tertiary/Technical college	11.9
University	10.4
None (illiterate)	26.9
Kisumu	
Primary	42.6
Secondary/High School	18.5
Tertiary/Technical College	22.2
University	9.3
None	7.4

(c) Competence (skills)

Abilities of a community are important forms of human capital needed to combat shocks and stresses of vulnerability; the capabilities of the people enable them to engage in various livelihood strategies (Serrat, 2017). Skills is one of human capital indicators and it was, therefore, important to review the skills the people possessed, to establish their capabilities in managing tourism projects for their livelihoods. The following skill sets were found to be present among the respondents:

Makuleke – South Africa

As demonstrated in Table 5.3, in Makuleke 6.2%, had arts and crafts-making, weaving and curving skills, with 20.8% having tour-guiding and nature conservation, as well as cooking and housekeeping skills, while 26.8% had marketing, accounting and other skills relevant to tourism such as photography, curating and Information Technology. However, 46.2% of the respondents had no skills whatsoever; this could be attributed to the institutional structures present at the project.

Kisumu – Kenya

The respondents in Kisumu possessed skills, such as arts and crafts-making at 31.5%, tour-guiding and nature conservation at 41.8% with 27.8% having marketing, accounting and technical skills which are secondary to tourism development. However, 13% of the respondents did not hold skills relevant to tourism; these results depict well-equipped participants, in skills, for tourism activities.

The two communities have a set of skills needed to operate their tourism projects, successfully. These findings confirm what Stone & Nyaupane (2017) emphasized that for communities to participate in tourism and for tourism business to thrive, the community is required to have knowledge and the skills relevant to tourism development. In Makuleke, however, a lot of sacrifice and commitment was needed to invest in human capital to enable them to participate actively in the tourism projects. Additionally, DFID, (2000) stressed that human capital accumulation necessitates transformation of institutional structures and processes to encourage and enable people to access education and competency. The capacity and quality of human capital that is obtainable in a household have a direct impact on livelihood outcomes (Allison and Horemans, 2006). The more skills and knowledge exist in a household, the more choices they may have for livelihood diversification.

Table 5.3. Skills competency (Human capital)

Skills competency (Human capital)	Makulele	Kisumu
Description	Perc. (%)	Perc. (%)
Arts & Crafts, weaving and curving	6.2	24.1
Tour guiding & Nature conservation, cooking & housekeeping	20.8	44.4
Marketing, accounting & other skills relevant to tourism such as photography, curating and IT	26.8	20.4
No skill	46.2	11.1
Total	100	100

5.2.2. Source of Livelihood

Makuleke

As shown in Table 5.4, below, in Makuleke, 29.8% of the respondents stated social grant as their main source of livelihood, while 20.8% sourced their livelihood from own tourism-related businesses, such as restaurants and cafeteria at the project offices as well as souvenir kiosks. It is worth to note that 19.4% of the respondents stated that their main source of livelihood was through employment in the 3 Makuleke contractual park concessions, as tour guides and hotel workers. The concessions are located inside Kruger National park and they comprise the Outpost lodge, Return Africa Eco-lodge and Eco-training camp; these three have contracts with the Makuleke community. The results also indicate that 4.5% earned a direct income from the project through sale of arts and crafts displayed at the cultural centre, with 7.5% mentioning pension as their main source of livelihood, while 18% mentioned other sources, such as farming and supply of food crops to hotels and restaurants.

Kisumu

The respondents in Kisumu lakeside tourism businesses involved themselves in different activities for livelihood diversification. As shown in the results in Figure 5.4., 50% of the respondents obtained their livelihoods from the tourism project activities; 27.7% sourced their livelihoods through self-employment, such as owning restaurants, fish selling to the local tourists and sale of arts and crafts; 9.2% were employed by the project and another 9.4% obtained their livelihoods from other sources, such as farming. Only 3.7% depended on pension.

The results show evidence of some differences in the sources of livelihood for the two communities. A significant 29.8% of the respondents in Makuleke relied mainly on social grant from the government while in Kisumu, none of the respondents received any grant from the Government. It is, however, worth noting that even though 29% of participants in Makuleke relied mostly on grant for their livelihoods, a cumulative 62% of the participants earned a living from different tourism activities. Similar results from Kisumu indicated that cumulatively, 96.3% of participants drew their earning from tourism activities. These activities range from tour-guiding to running their own tourism-related businesses, hawking artefacts to tourists and supply of farm produce to hotels and restaurants, as well as formal employment in the tourism project. This aligns with previous research that affirmed that tourism is an essential source of employment for local communities (Kline *et al.*, 2019; Manyara, 2007; Sebede, 2010). It can be concluded that the tourism activities provided a livelihood for the two communities under study. The results, therefore, support findings by Kline *et al.*, (2019), Law, (2009), Porter *et*

al., (2018) and Tao & Wall (2009), that tourism activities are an opportunity to provide a livelihood diversification for the communities. Identification of the tourism community capitals that the community has access to is important to enable evaluation of the utilization of these capitals for livelihoods. The following section identifies these capitals and their importance to the communities.

Table 5.4. Source of livelihood

	Makuleke	Kisumu
Source of livelihood	Percent (%)	Percent (%)
Grant	29.8	0
Formal employment by or through the project	19.4	9.2
Self-employed (business such as restaurants, eateries, curio shops)	20.8	27.7
Pension	7.5	3.7
Other sources (hawking crafts, farm produce supplies to hotels)	18.0	9.4
Income from tourism project activities such as tour guiding, curating, dance & song performance incentives (informal employment)	4.5	50.0
Total	100	100

5.3. Community Capital Asset Mapping (CCAM)

Community capital asset mapping denotes taking an inventory of the resources that the communities own, have access to and use for livelihood. It involves identification and classification of the community's capital assets - human, economic, social, physical and natural. In this study, the capital assets comprise - the tourism products or investments in terms of tourist facilities, tourist attractions and other assets that may support the tourism industry. They comprise both natural, artificial and historical, as well as other economic, natural, physical, human and social tourism products. The study made use of the Community Capital Framework (CCF) by Emery and Flora, (2006) to record the tourism community capitals for Makuleke in South Africa and Kisumu in Kenya. Flora *et al.*, (2018) explain that when a community resource or asset is used, invested or exchanged to create new resources, it becomes a community capital. In this vein the following indicators were used as capital components in terms of tourism:

Table 5.5. Tourism Community Capital (TCC) indicators

Tourism Community Capital (TCC)	TCC Components or indicators
Human Capital	Capabilities, Education, Health. Knowledge of tourism industry (Liberto, 2013). Skill sets relevant to tourism e.g. tour-guiding, leadership, and other skills that are needed for tourism services, e.g. cooking, computer skills, knowledge of foreign languages (Su <i>et al.</i> , 2016).
Physical Capital	Tourism facilities (hotels, amusement parks). Infrastructure that support tourism project's smooth operation and efficiency of communities to acquire livelihood e.g. transportation, communication, water, sanitation, electricity (Lund, 2019)
Natural Capital	Natural resources used for tourism e.g. wildlife, Flora & Fauna, river, lakes, water falls (Munanura, 2017). Iconic land formations, e.g. mountains, valleys, gorges (Gios <i>et al.</i> , 2006)
Economic Capital	Income from tourism and related activities e.g. employment in a tourism establishment, Tourism income-generation activities, e.g. tour-guiding, boat-riding. Tourism businesses like restaurants, curio shops. Selling of artefacts to tourists (Tao & Wall, 2009; Su <i>et al.</i> , 2016)
Social Capital	Partnerships, relations, trust, harmony, cohesion Social clubs, community groups networks (Emery & Flora, 2004)

5.3.1 Identification and evaluation of Tourism Community Capitals (TCC)

To analyse the tourism community capitals in the study areas, 7 focus-group discussions were conducted with the sampled household representatives from Makuleke and 5 from Kisumu. The participating groups were prearranged to accommodate both genders. In Makuleke there were 4 groups of Male and 3 groups of females, while in Kisumu there were 3 for male and 2 groups for female. The groups were requested to discuss and identify the capitals and assets in each capital (stock), in their villages. The data collected from these groups were transcribed and uploaded in to Atlas.ti. software version 8 for further processing. The software assisted in coding and categorising themes around the five (5) tourism community capitals (human, physical, natural, economic and social). After identification of the capitals, interviews were conducted with key informants for exhaustive reports on the capitals.

The following tourism capitals and asset components were qualitatively identified by the focus groups in the two study areas. Visual presentation of the capitals and components is illustrated in Figure 5.1.

Human Capital

Human capital is expected to increase the capabilities of communities to utilize other capitals for improvement of their lives. It is relevant to take an account of a community's tourism capitals because, for communities to engage and participate fully in tourism activities, they need to have knowledge of the tourism industry and need to be equipped with skill sets relevant to tourism (Human Capital).

Makuleke

The Makuleke participants were found to have basic education and knowledge of tourism industry. They possessed skilled such as tour-guiding, environmental conservation skills, housekeeping, cooking as well as computer skills for tourism services. These results agree with Boes *et al.*, (2015) who emphasised that tourism development requires knowledge and skills. They had the ability to engage in tourism activities and were in good health. This indicates that the people of Makuleke had the capabilities to operate and manage their tourism project. One respondent said:

“Most of us are educated and have physical energy. If we are employed in the hotels, we can do any work, we can even do tent pitching. There are ladies with cooking skills here, they cook for our visitors in the cottages” another respondent added.

Kisumu

The respondents in Kisumu were found to have basic education and had competence/skills relevant to tourism such as tour-guiding, crafts-making, boat-riding, curating sale and marketing, accounting and computer skills, which are useful for tourism services. A boatman commented:

“All the members of this project have some technical know-how of one activity or the other. That is why you see everybody is busy, either driving a boat, selling fish, or showing tourists around.”

They also had knowledge of tourism development, environmental conservation responsibilities and had an awareness of the tourism industry. They had ability to work (engage in tourist activities) and were in good health. In conclusion, the communities in the two sites had human capital which is a good indication that they can manage tourism projects for sustainable livelihoods. This was also confirmed by earlier results on education level and competence in the demographic characteristics section. Investment in human capital is fundamental for successful tourism project (Liberto, 2013).

Social Capital

Social capital in tourism is built through partnerships and tourism businesses' relations. Social networks are also expanded through tour-guiding and other tourist services (Su *et al.*, 2016). Assessing the social capital in the tourism projects in this research was necessary for a valuation of its role in tourism and sustainable livelihoods. A community with strong social capital, builds trust and acceptance of one another, hence, increases in stock of other capitals (Emery & Flora 2004; Stone & Nyaupane, 2017).

Makuleke

The social capital was identified as built networks, partnerships, and relationships that exist among the participants. In Makuleke, the respondents stated that they participate in traditional dances, hence, displaying their culture and exhibiting a national pride. Makuleke community's social capital is founded on their land history and repossession of the Makuleke land. One of the traditional leaders explained:

“When the Pafuri area was returned to us, it was a memorable event in South Africa and since then, the world now knows us and they come to visit us and our land. The community has earned its brand as the “Makuleke”.

This statement represents pride and sense of identity as a valued capital of a community. Other form of social capital found within the participants of Makuleke were teamwork. They stated that during construction of public facilities, such as road repairs, classrooms and creches, they do the work together as a team. The Exco chairlady stated:

“The Makuleke community established a social-ecological relationship with Kruger National park to conserve biodiversity, hence, integration of social and natural capital. In order to maintain the pristine nature of the park and earn some income, the community partnered with 2 private investors who operate eco-lodges in the Makuleke contractual park. They have also partnered with a training camp that trains the Makuleke youth for as tour guides”.

These findings resonate with Dickinson *et al.*, (2019) who asserted that social capital embraces networking, participation in group activities, relationships and partnerships.

Kisumu

In Kisumu there was existence of social capital through the communities’ participation in traditional dance and conservation programs as testified during the focus-group discussions. Influenced by a stock of other capitals, such as natural and financial capitals, the Kisumu community had built trust in one another to participate in *table-banking groups* and *SACCOs* which involved money savings. This was confirmed by the tour-guides’ leader who said;

“Some of us have joined some savings and credit groups (chamas) where we save some of the earnings from the tourist activities around the beach and boat riding on the lake”

They also participated in other social clubs and had established networks and relationships with the Kenyan Beach Management. Display of their Luo culture in the cultural and pedagogy centres has heightened their cultural identity and gave them a national pride.

Both communities had strong social capital as they participated in cultural exhibitions and dances. They had also established relationships and networks with relevant conservation institutions that provided conservation training programs. A sound social capital is important for community-driven tourism projects, because for people to have confidence in one another, there is need for harmony, cooperation understanding and trust. This is in line

with Jones, (2005) who argues that success of community participation in tourism needs a harmonized and cooperative community.

Natural Capital

The natural capital components are purely natural resources present in the areas of study. Natural capitals which form most of tourist attractions are found within rural areas and are at the communities' disposal. Since natural capitals form major tourist attractions, it is important to record what the communities are endowed with, for an evaluation of their exploitation for tourism development (Gios *et al.*, 2006). Some resources were mentioned by the respondents while others were gathered through observation during research period.

Makuleke

The Makuleke contractual park is a tourist destination with several natural attractions. It is a home to various types of wildlife, such as the elephants, African buffalo, rhinos, nyala antelope (a rare species only found in South Africa), waterbuck and the greater kudu and for watching various bird species. Interviews with the executive committee members noted conservation as one of the benefits of partnering with the South African National Parks (SANP). In confirmation of this, the Kruger National Park (KNP) warden said:

“The wildlife within Makuleke contractual park is managed and controlled by the South African National Parks (SANP), but the members of the community have free access to the park and can also view the animals free of charge (no entry fee for Makuleke members)”.

Having access to the park for members of the community meant that the youth from Makuleke with excursion skills could guide tourists within the park (Su *et al.*, 2016). They could also pitch tents for camping tourists for a fee. The warden also stated that this agreement has resulted in a tremendous reduction in poaching. Free access to the park has had a significant spinoff effect on the Makuleke community's perception of wildlife; as was noted by Mbaiwa and Stronza, (2010), some intangible benefits of tourism assist in wildlife conservation. The partnership with the eco-lodges has also supplemented traditional livelihood, thus, playing an important role in anti-poaching. To exemplify this point one respondent explained:

“The concessions have employed our youth who assist in household expenses, so we do not need to hunt anymore”

Other Natural Capital assets include the spectacular Luvuhu River which is famous for the wildlife watering points, in winter. The area has both semi-arid and riverine flora, such as the Nyala (*Anthocercis zambesiaca* – Leguminosae plant), Baobab and Mokpane trees (photos

in the appendices). The Makuleke contractual park, therefore, is endowed with natural resources that are useful for tourism development. It has an exceptional beauty with eco-tourism opportunities (Reid & Turner, 2004).

Kisumu

Kisumu is an area with diverse natural capitals. These include, Lake Victoria, on which the Dunga beach is formed. Dunga beach is a docking area for fishing boats and an attraction for many tourists who desire boat rides; the site also provides the best view of Lake Victoria. The Kit Mikayi's historical rock draws many tourists from all over the world. Domestic tourists are also frequent visitors, some of whom visit the rock for religious reasons, hence, using the rock as a sacred shrine. The 750m high Kit Mikayi rock gives way to other stone hills that provide a beautiful scenery, and serene camping sites. Other natural capital assets include wetland wildlife such as the Vervet monkeys and Sitatungas. Lake Victoria is also habitat to marine life such as, hippos and a variety of fish and bird species hovering over the lake. Even though Lake Victoria has been invested with a strange weed called Hyacinth, the communities have found ways of using it as a raw material for some crafts. The papyrus grass on the shores of the lake are also useful, as one arts and crafts-maker explained:

“This Hyacinth weed is a blessing in disguise, we use it to make furniture and traditional artefacts for sale. We also use the papyrus grass to make fishing nets”.

The results of the focus-group discussions displayed a community that utilized the natural resources for livelihood. The main livelihood activities were derived from the natural resources. These findings are in line with previous studies that revealed that natural resources provide local communities with sustainable livelihood (Acheampong, 2020; Mbaiwa & Stronza 2010; Stone & Nyaupane, 2017).

Together, the two sites are endowed with rich natural capital, although, the Makuleke's natural endowments are concentrated within a national park (Kruger National Park), the Kisumu's natural capital is situated in a marine environment (Lake Victoria). Both sites have spectacular landscapes and beautiful sceneries, suitable for tourism development.

Physical Capital

Physical capital plays a significant role in increasing the attractiveness of an area and raising its efficiency through the facilitation of the infrastructure. Communities need to access physical capital, specially, those infrastructures that support their livelihoods and

those that support smooth operations of tourism activities. The following physical capital components were identified by the respondents:

Makuleke

The focus group discussions revealed that the Makuleke Contractual Park (MCP) owns the Pafuri triangle (Makuleke land) which is endowed with spectacular natural resources as discussed above. In the villages where the community live, they have access to water, they have boreholes in every village and individual houses have water tanks for water storage. They have access to health care through the health centre situated in Makuleke village. The roads in the three villages are passable with some tared and others are gravel roads. The road that connects Makuleke with Kruger National Park (at the Punda Maria gate) is also tarred; this makes the villages accessible by tourists. The main mode of transportation is by commercial vehicles (taxi) that ferry people from one village to the other. The communities also have schools, churches and community halls. While the researcher was taking short walks through the Makuleke villages, it was observed that the people had access to electricity. The interview results with the household representatives showed that they also had proper sanitation; each home has a septic tank in its backyard. This implies that the communities have physical capital that supports their livelihood. This is in line with previous studies that observed that physical capital is key to sustainable livelihoods (Lund, 2019; Scoones, 1998).

The community also owns cottages which are used as B&B accommodation for visitors; the cottages are well furnished with outside kitchens and a braai area. They also have a cultural centre where they perform traditional dance and exhibit the Makuleke culture, during occasions like Heritage Day.

Kisumu

The community in Kisumu has access to water supplied by the Kisumu Municipality. There is also one borehole at Dunga village, however, the further Kit Mikayi village does not have piped water from the municipality but has one borehole that serves tourists and the communities nearby. The community in Kisumu has accessible roads and access to health facilities. They also have schools and churches.

The physical tourism capital components identified in Kisumu include, the fish eatery restaurants which are famous for fresh fish delicacies. Domestic tourists and Kisumu city residents visit the beach restaurants for lunch. The Pedagogical and cultural centres display

the people's culture and traditions. There is also an amusement park for children. One respondent explained;

“Nowadays we have tourists bringing their children here during weekends because of the amusement park and the weekends are now busy with visitors”.

These results are in line with Kline *et al.*, (2019), that physical capital attracts tourists thus establishing an area as a famous destination.

Other facilities are shady places with benches, where visitors rest as they view the lake and its activities. The Dunga Board Walk provides a high platform for bird watching, filming and a clear view of the lake.

The results indicate that both communities had infrastructure that supported their livelihoods. There is also evidence that they had tourism physical capitals that were used as attractions. The interview results also show that the communities utilized these physical facilities, such as the cultural Centre in Makuleke, the Pedagogical Centre as well as the amusement park in Kisumu for tourism development. Kline *et al.*, (2019) note that physical capital, such as, historical buildings or cultural centres give an image to the area and may serve as a stimulant for growth of other capitals.

Economic Capital

The revenues generated through income from tourism activities have been seen to have a spiralling effect on other community capitals, hence, improving the lives of the local communities (Kline, 2019; Stone & Stone, 2019). Most communities adjacent to tourism attractions have engaged in tourism-related projects for economic gain. Tourism activities create employment and financial gain to the local communities (Tao & Wall, 2009; Stone & Nyaupane, 2017). A well-managed tourism project cultivates tourism activities that accumulate economic capital, hence, better standards of living for the people.

Taking an inventory of the economic capital that communities have is fundamental for evaluation of their contribution to their livelihoods. The following economic tourism capital components were identified in Makuleke and Kisumu.

Makuleke

Interviews with the Executive Committee members indicated that through the partnership with some private investors who have put up some eco-lodges in the Makuleke Contractual Park, employment opportunities have been created and the concessions have

employed several youths from Makuleke since the initiation of the project. The Exco chairperson explained:

“The agreement with the concessionaires has a clause that says that the concessionaires will employ the Makuleke youth and also contribute a percentage of their annual profits from their eco-lodges to the Makuleke Contractual Park project”.

She continued to explain that:

“this monetary contribution to the project is deposited into a trust and used for community development, such as building and improvement of infrastructure in Makuleke as well as to assist needy students with bursaries”.

The household representatives’ interview results confirmed that some youth have been employed by the concessions. One respondent commented:

“My son and my neighbour’s daughter now work for the concessions. My son works at Return Africa as a waiter and my neighbour’s daughter works at the Eco-camp as a housekeeper”.

The results also indicate that even though there are not many income-generation activities in Makuleke, there are a few community members who have engaged in some tourism activities and earn direct income from them. These activities include sale of crafts, traditional beaded jewellerys to tourists at the Punda Maria gate. Some members also own some curio shops and sell artefacts to tourists who visit the project’s cultural centre. The project has also built 5 cottages that are operated as BnB accommodation which earns some income from the project. The benefits accrued from the project and contribution of the project to the community’s livelihood are discussed in detail in the next section.

Kisumu

The foundation for the financial capital for the communities in Kisumu is accredited to the natural capital they had access to. The household representatives’ interview results indicate that the respondents engaged in income-generating tourist activities which provided them with income. These tourist activities include tour-guiding, boat-riding, as well as sale of crafts to tourists through hawking. Other income-generation activities include viewing the historical Kit Mikayi Rock narrations, bird curating, traditional dancing, tour-guiding and camping fee. An

entry fee is charged at the Dunga beach and the historical Kit Mikayi rock gates. Results also indicate that some respondents are employed by the project and others own businesses that are tourism-related, such as restaurants, curio shops and outside markets fish selling to tourists.

The results showed that there is economic capital in the two areas and that tourism development has created employment through partnerships and the income-generation activities provide a livelihood for the communities. These results agree with previous studies that tourism development is a driver of economic capital for local communities (Mbaiwa & Stronza, 2010; Kline, 2019; Stone & Nyaupane, 2017; Stone & Stone, 2019).

The above results imply that both areas are endowed with enormous community tourism capital assets, which if well utilized, could contribute to the livelihoods of the community in terms of human, social, physical, natural and financial capitals. The study results also support findings in recent studies which confirmed that communities in rural areas could benefit through direct employment in tourism facilities (Hallo & Powell, 2016), involvement in tourism income-generation activities, such as investing in enterprises that service tourist industry, such as, restaurants, as well as displaying their cultural endowments to tourists during events (Altman & Finlayson, 2018; Munanura, Backman, Hallo & Powell, 2016; Stone & Stone, 2019). These benefits are examined in the next section, where the contribution of community-driven tourism projects to communities' livelihoods, are presented and analyzed.

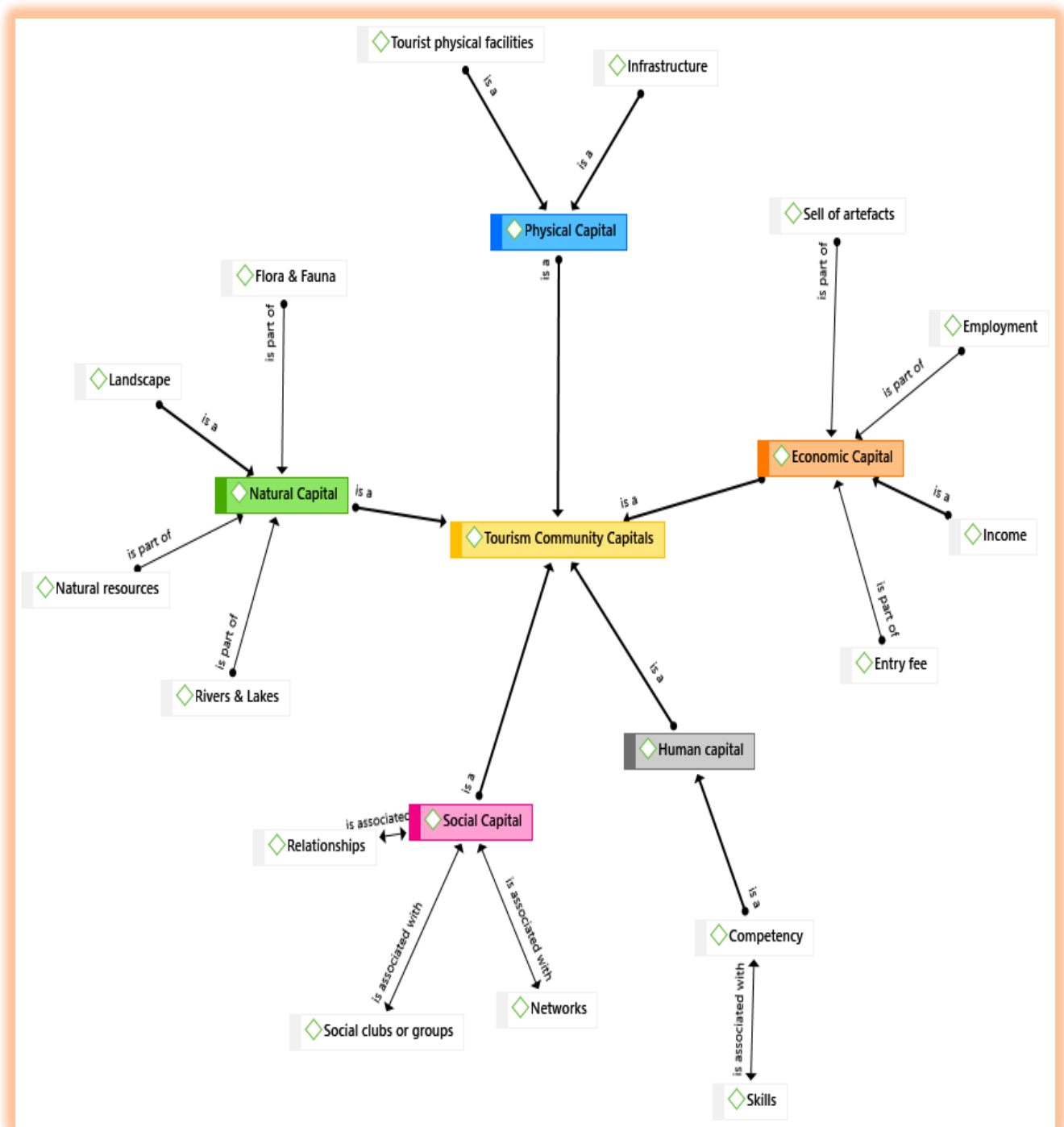


Fig. 5.1 Identified Tourism Community Capitals

Source: *Researcher's own construction*

5.4. Community Driven Tourism Projects' Contribution to the Communities' Livelihoods

Community-Driven Tourism Projects (CDTP) just like Community-Driven Development (CDD), emphasize community control over planning and decision-making in the management and operation of their projects. Diversification of livelihoods through use of income from tourism projects' activities expands the multiple effects of tourism on the communities and their impact on livelihoods (Mbaiwa & Stronza, 2010). For communities to benefit fully from tourism projects, they need to have the capabilities to utilize their natural resources for financial gain. They need to have the ability to network and form relationships for market-creation for tourism products, and they need to have the capabilities to re-invest into physical capital for easy access and for income-generation activities (Blackstock, 2005; Stone & Nyaupane, 2017). In this section the identified capitals in each area are analysed through the guidance of the Community Capital Framework (CCF), bringing out their significance to the community and then drawing out the contributions these tourism projects have made to the communities' livelihoods.

5.4.1 Ranking of the identified Tourism Community Capitals

To facilitate the analysis of the capitals, the focus-groups' participants were asked to rate the capitals on a scale of 1-10 in order of importance and the project's contribution to their livelihoods, where 10 means a capital that has contributed most and 1 means a capital that has contributed least to their livelihoods. They were also requested to provide any additional qualitative explanations as to the reason the capital is important and how it has contributed to their livelihoods. A prioritization matrix was then used to analyse the results by summing up all the scores under each capital as shown in Figure 5.2. The results obtained from the focus groups were then presented to the key informants. In-depth Interviews were conducted with the key informants to get their perceptions on the ranking and for more insights into the ranked capitals by the focus groups and how the projects' contribution to participants' livelihoods. The ranking results depicted similarity outcomes of the priority capital in the two sites as shown in the line chart in Figures 5.2. and 5.3. Both Makuleke and Kisumu participants ranked economic capital as the most important with 44 scores for Makuleke and 38 scores for Kisumu. Their main reason for participation in the project was for economic gain and that is the reason the economic capital was ranked number one. The human and social capital were ranked last in Makuleke (20 scores) while physical capital was least important in Kisumu with 18 scores.

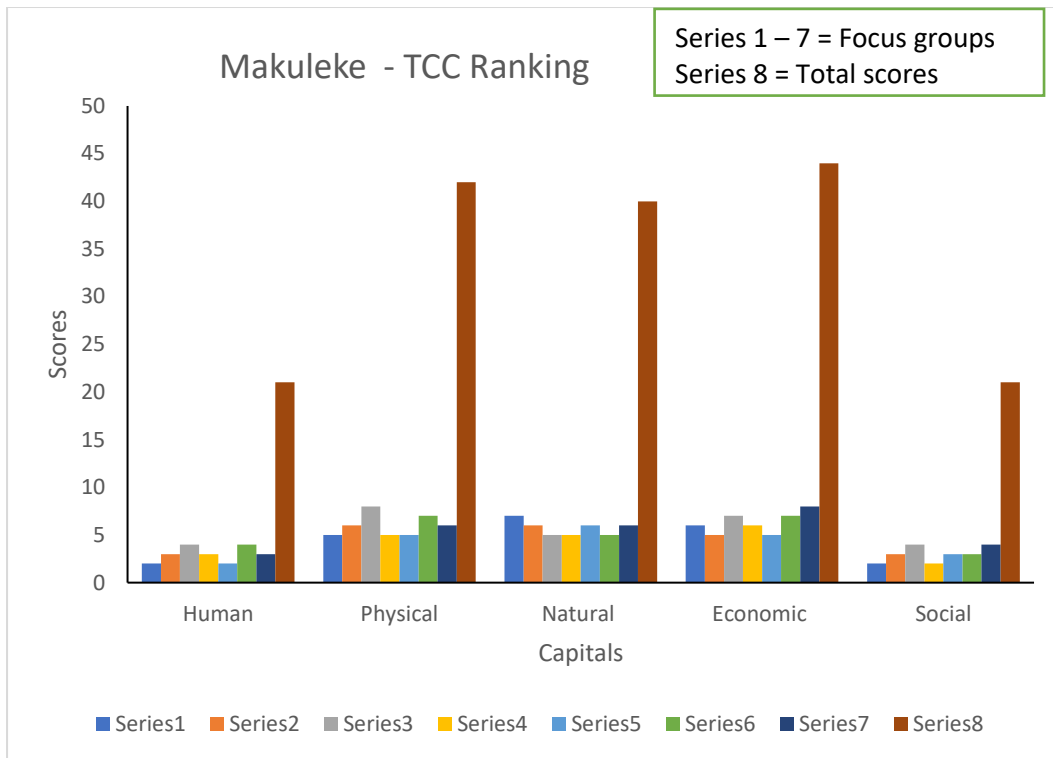


Fig. 5.2. TCC importance ranking – Makuleke (Author, 2020)

Source: Researcher's own construct,

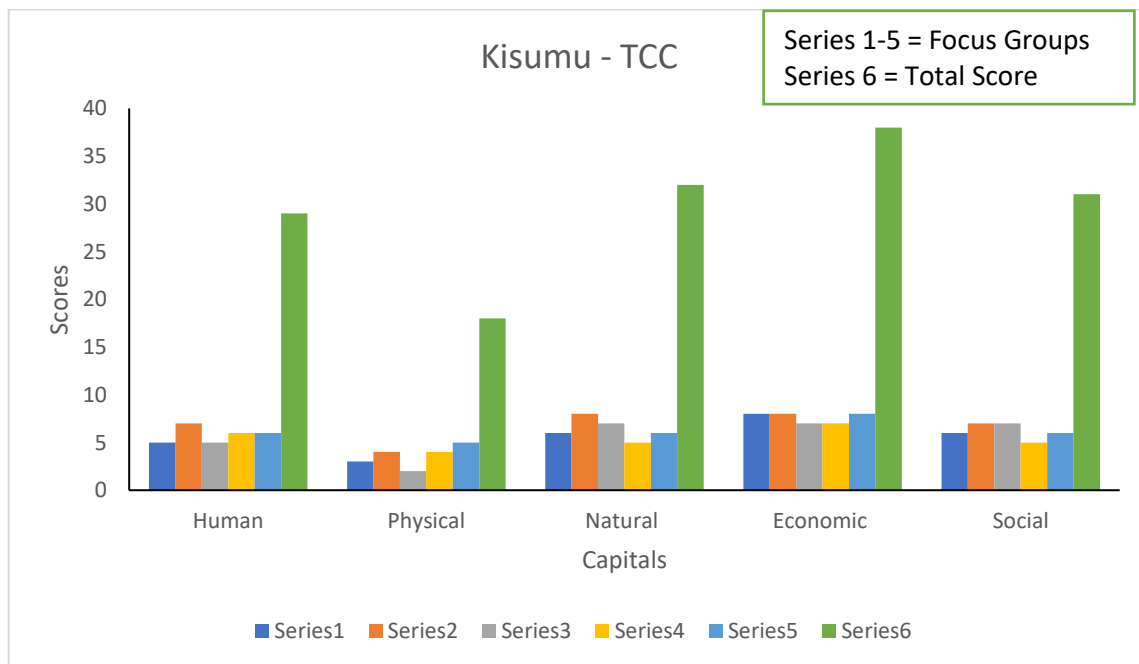


Fig. 5.3. TCC importance ranking – Kisumu

Source: Researcher's own construct

5.4.2 Economic Capital Contribution

Scholars and researchers have adopted the Economic capital description, depending on the issue of focus. The description has also been modified from time to time to suit the issues or the phenomenon under study. Scoones, (1998:8) describes economic/financial capital as “the capital base, such as cash, credit/debt, savings, and other economic assets”. Flora et al., (2018:33), similarly notes economic/financial capital as, “savings, income generation, fees, loans and credit, gifts and philanthropy, taxes, and tax exemptions”. Previous studies focusing on tourism have explained economic capital as income generated from tourism-related activities such as employment in a tourism establishments, income from tourism activities and owned tourism businesses, such as restaurants, hotels, selling of arts and crafts, tourist attractions’ entry fees and traditional dance incentives (Huang, 2019; Liu, 2006; Mustafa & Taye, 2011; Tao & Wall, 2009).

In this study, economic capital assets were interpreted as both direct and indirect income from tourism activities. Direct income is the one attained through daily tourist activities where the service provider or the seller of a tourism-related item is paid directly by the tourist for the service rendered or the item sold, as well as income from employment in a tourism establishment or tourism project. Indirect income includes earning through group savings or group-project businesses, dividends, or organization’s trust fund.

During the ranking of capitals in this study, economic capital was ranked number 1 by both communities with 44 scores by Makuleke and 38 scores by the Kisumu respondents (see Figure 5.2 and 5.3). This implies that the motivation for the communities to join projects and participate in their activities was mainly for economic gain. In this section the projects’ contribution in terms of economic capital are presented. Both qualitative and quantitative approaches were used to achieve the objective.

Makuleke

The Makuleke respondents ranked economic capital as number 1 with 44 scores. Even though the three tourist sites were not involved in many income-generation activities in Makuleke, the project had made agreements with partners who provided employment to the Makuleke youth. This has reduced unemployment in the villages, greatly.

The interviews with the key informants revealed that the Makuleke Communal Property Association (MCPA) Executive Committee (Exco) was mandated to act on behalf of the Makuleke community and to assist the community to realise the objectives of the MCP project. In Makuleke’s case, financial benefits received from the project were indirect. An excerpt from

the contractual agreement between the Makuleke Communal Association (MCPA) and the Private concessions stated that

“.....the concessions would remit a percentage of their annual returns to the MCPA”.

It was noted that the contribution percentages differ from one concessionaire to the next. Another excerpt stated:

“Return Africa would contribute 15% of its annual earnings, and Outpost would contribute 10% of its annual returns. The Eco-training camp will contribute in terms of training 3 Makuleke youths per year in tour guiding and conservation”.

“Kruger National Park (KNP) will contribute through Managing and conservation of biodiversity within the Makuleke Contractual Park”.

When asked approximately how much the concessions contributed per year the executive chairperson explained:

“..In total we receive approximately R1.4 million from the concessions”.

When asked how the money was used, she explained further:

.....60% of this money is used to run the administration of the CPA such as paying wages for MCPA office employees, executive committee meeting allowances, office maintenance and other costs like running and maintenance of the MCPA van. The remaining 40% is used for community development in terms of physical assets such as building community halls, crèche, public library, digging community boreholes and others. It is also used to assist with bursaries disbursed to needy students from the villages”.

Further interview results indicate that the concessions also employ people from the Makuleke community.

The economic benefits are further detailed in Table 6.7 below.

5.4.2.1 Direct income and indirect income

The following Table shows the percentages of the respondents against the economic activities they participated in and approximated amounts earned per person per month. It also shows the funds accrued through indirect earnings for the project.

(a) *Direct income - Makuleke*

As shown in Table 5.6, only 6% of participants in Makuleke were involved in sale of arts and crafts, to tourists entering or coming out of the Kruger National Park. These vendors do not have curio shops by the Punda Maria gate, so they are street hawkers. One lady vendor said:

“...It is not a reliable income, sometimes we sell sometimes we go back with nothing but in a good month I can say..... I earn approximately R1 200”.

Another 15% of respondents participate in song and dance during cultural festivals, such as Heritage Day (this happens once a year). They also perform dances for tourists who visit Makuleke through packaged tours. This happens a few times in a month and therefore earns them only an approximate R600 per person. Only 1.4% of respondents buy food crops from the irrigation scheme that was acquired by the project and supply to the local restaurants. They earn approximately R8 600 per month. One supplier noted:

“This is a good business that takes care of my family needs, but many people complain they don’t have capital that is why many are not involved”.

Employment through the project by the concessions, was found to be one of the main benefits for the people of Makuleke. Results in Table 5.6 show that those employed as tour guides (26.8%) earned a salary of R7 500, housekeepers (9%) earned R5 500, cooks (12%) earned R5 000. Those employed by the project as administrators (4.5%) earned R8 000, accountants (3%) earned R6 000, project secretary/receptionist (3%) earned R5 000, project’s drivers (1.4%) earned R4 000 per month. The employment benefits through the project has improved the livelihoods of many households in Makuleke as one lady (mother of 4 kids) said:

“I thank the MCP for employing me. Things were very bad before I got this job. I could not feed my children or provide them with basic needs. At least now I have a monthly salary and my family’s wellbeing is better”

The above results are in line with the findings of Mbaiwa and Stronza, (2010) who affirmed that employment from tourism has the capacity to improve people’s livelihoods. A few of the respondents (6%) were operating tourism-related businesses, such as restaurants and curio shops. The 6% comprised 2 men who operated restaurants, one next to the project’s office and one at the Makuleke shopping centre. The curio shops were operated by 2 ladies. One curio shop was located at the Return Africa compound while the other was at the Makuleke cultural centre. All the four earned approximately R10 000 a month. This shows that community-driven tourism projects can be a platform for community development from which tourism-related Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs), and micro-enterprises can emerge

and improve the conditions in the local economy, hence, improve local people's livelihoods (Manyara, 2007).

It is important to note that, despite the Makuleke communities sharing borders with the Kruger National Park, and the project having invested in physical facilities for tourism, 12% of the participants did not engage in any tourism income-generation activities. This may be attributed to the institutional structures at Makuleke and that there was low turnout of tourists visiting the site. One respondent claimed:

"There are no visitors nowadays in Makuleke so there's nothing to do"

It was established that the low turnout of tourists was caused by non-marketing of the attractions at Makuleke.

(a) Indirect income - Makuleke

Most profits accrued from the project were paid into MCPA as a trust, amounting to approximately R1.4million per year. The money was used for community development, mostly for development of public facilities (physical capital). During the interview session with the key informants, it was revealed that the 5 cottages which were operated as BnB did not have full occupancy in any given week. It would mostly have 3 guests per week unless during the December holiday when all the 5 cottages would be occupied but only for 2 weeks in December. Due to the low occupancy, it only accrued approximately R63 000 per annum. It was observed that there was no marketing strategy for the attractions in Makuleke and this attributes to the low returns from the facilities.

(c) Direct income - Kisumu

The Kisumu participants ranked economic capital as their number one capital with 38 scores. The main reason that was expressed by the majority of the participants when they were asked why they ranked it as their number one capital was because their engagement in various tourist activities earned them a living. One respondent commented:

This is my everyday hustle and it's everything to me and my family. As long as I have woken up in the morning and have come to work, I go home with bread, milk, and maize flour for my family.

As shown in Table 5.6, the people in Dunga Beach and Kit Mikayi were very involved in various income-generation activities that earned them a daily income. It is observed that the participants were involved in more than one activity. For instance, one could be a boat driver and also a tour guide; one could be a tour guide and also a fisherman. They took the job that

was available at the moment. Sometimes after one takes a turn to ferry tourists on a boat trip, he would receive visitors who needed tour guiding. Most participants, hence, were competent in more than one skill; this gave them more opportunities for livelihood diversification.

Results (Table 5.6) show that 15% of the participants were involved in selling art and craft to tourists visiting the site which earned them an approximate of Ksh.9 000 (R1 385) per month, while 19% participated in song and dance performances to tourists, hence, earning incentives of up to Ksh.6 000 (R923) per month, per person. The results also indicate that 22% were involved in providing boat rides and earned an income of approximately Ksh.22 500 (R3 462), while those involved in tour guiding (44.4%) earned Ksh.31 500 (R4 846) per month, per person. Some tourists preferred to be ferried with canoes which cost Ksh.20/- cheaper than a motorboat for a tour of the lake. Those operating canoes (9.2%) earned approximately Ksh.7 200 (R1 108). There was also 19% of respondents who operated restaurant businesses and owned curio shops in Dunga Beach as well as in Kit Mikayi and earned approximately Ksh.60 000 (R9 232) per month. Some fish vendors (19%) who were mostly women fried and sold fish on an open-air market on the shores of the beach; these earned approximately Ksh.45 000 (R6 923) per month. Because of the constant flow of tourists, the restaurants, curio shops and the fried fish stands were always in business. One restaurant owner remarked:

“Business here is good, even when we don’t have school tour visitors, there are people who come here for lunch from Kisumu City; they like to have fresh fish”.

Administrators employed by the project (6%) earned a salary of Ksh.10 000 (R1 538) per month while those employed as marketing personnel (1.9%) earned Ksh.8 000 (R1 231) per month. Results also indicate that 3.7% were employed as accountants earning a salary of Ksh.8 500 (R1 308), while those employed as secretaries/receptionists (3.7%) earned an approximately Ksh.7 500 (R1 154) per month. The tourism activities have brought economic benefits to the people of Kisumu, thus, providing a livelihood strategy. The findings agree with previous studies that affirmed tourism activities as a livelihood diversification for rural communities (Mbaiwa & Stronza, 2010; Stone & Nyaupane, 2017; Zapata, 2011).

(d) *Indirect income for Kisumu*

The results of the interview with the accountant revealed that the project members had an agreement that each member deposits 10% of his daily earnings with the project’s accountant. This 10% was banked as a savings for the members. At the end of the month, 50% of the profits accrued through the 10% savings is fairly distributed among all members according to their total month’s contribution. The remaining 50% is saved and shared by members at the

end of the year as dividends. The total savings accrued per year were approximately Ksh.232 416 (R35 756). This is what was shared as dividends as shown in Table 6.8. The dividends are given the week of Christmas and an individual member gets a minimum of Ksh.4 000 (R615).

In comparison, the two projects generate income differently and have contributed to the economic capital of the community, also differently.

The partnership of the three (3) concessions with the Makuleke community improved the community's financial/economic capital to some degree. Results indicate that the revenues collected from the tourism project has been invested in community's physical assets, such as the project's office, BnB, public library as well as WIFI installation at the library and in the office, among others. Partnerships in tourism development have been seen to benefit the community through investments in infrastructure as was noted in previous studies (Mbaiwa & Stronza, 2010; Stone & Stone, 2011; Munanura *et al.*, 2016; Spencely *et al.*, 2019). The project has also employed administrative personnel and equipped the office. Through the partnership, several community members have been employed by the concessions ever since the agreement was entered into, in 2008. Kisumu's project on the other hand, had initiated income-generation activities utilizing the natural resources. This has created jobs for the people, hence, daily income for those who participated in the activities.

Table 5.6. Economic Capital Contribution

Direct Income generated from tourism project activities				
	Makuleke		Kisumu	
Tourism activity	Percentage of participants involved	Approx. Earnings in Zar	Percentage of participants involved	Approx. Earnings in Zar
Selling of arts and crafts - through hawking	6	1200	15	1385
Incentives from song & dance	15	600	19	923
Supply farm produce to restaurants, hotels/lodges	1.4	8600	0	0
Motor-Boat riding	0	0	22	3462
Canoeing	0	0	9.2	1108
Tour guiding	26.8	7500	44.4	4846
Own businesses (restaurants & curio shops)	6	10000	19	9231
Employed by project – Administrator	4.5	8000	6	1538
Employed by project - Marketing personnel	0	0	1.9	1231
Employed by project -Accountant	3	6000	3.7	1308
Project Secretary/Receptionist	3	5000	3.7	1154
Projects' Drivers	1.4	4000	0	0
Cooks	12	5000	0	0
Housekeeping	9	5500	0	0
Selling of fish	0	0	19	6923
No direct income from tourism activity	12	0	0	0
Indirect income from the projects				
Approximate cumulative earnings per annum				
	Makuleke		Kisumu	
	Approx. Amount in ZAR			
BnB	63,000.00		0	
Contribution from concessions per annum (25% of annual returns) to Makuleke's trust fund	1.4million		0	
Annual savings	0		35 756	
Dividends per member			615	

NB: The original figures for Kisumu, Kenya were in Kenya shilling and later converted to ZAR at the rate of 0.15755

5.4.2.2 Profits and income reliance for livelihoods

The research sought to know the reliability of the income from the tourism projects, as a source of livelihood.

Makuleke

The results show that only 29% of the respondents in Makuleke mainly relied on the income generated from the project (Figure 5.4). This was because there were no frequent tourists in the site, therefore, there was lack of variety of income-generation activities, however, those employed through the project made the 29% who expressed being satisfied with the salary; that it was enough for their household needs as displayed by the pie chart below. Those owning restaurants and small businesses, like selling artefacts expressed moderate reliance on the project (32%). The rest (39%) indicated non-reliance on the project's income as a livelihood strategy and that they relied on other sources, such as government grant. The low reliance on tourism project for livelihood was due to non-marketed tourism products in Makuleke. Tourism is seasonal, therefore, there was need to market Makuleke so as to regenerate the image of the destination constantly, especially, after any experienced decline in tourists' numbers.

Kisumu

In contrast, the project in Kisumu provided its members with an income which they highly relied on for livelihood (46%) with only 15% expressing low reliance on the project for livelihood. This could be explained by the fact that all members participated in one income-generation activity or another, that earned them a daily pay. Having so many income-generation activities at these attraction sites has given the community a livelihood diversification. One project member commented in Swahili:

“Naamka kila siku nikijua iko mahali naenda kujitafutia riziki ya watoto yangu. Nauza samaki yangu yote. Iko wateja wakununua kila siku. Mimi iko na raha”. Translated

“I wake up every morning knowing that I have a place I can go to and vend for my children. I sell all the fish that I fry because there are customers to consume it. (She bursts into laughter). Am happy”.

It is clear from the above results that the project in Kisumu created an ambiance for the communities to participate in tourism activities that have earned them economic benefits and livelihood diversifications. The interview results for Kisumu indicate that the participants displayed a high dependence on the project for livelihood. Even though in Makuleke,

participants seemed to rely more on other sources rather than income generated from the tourism project, the project had still financed some physical facilities, including the five cottages which if well managed could employ more youth and lessen unemployment in the area. The cultural centre could also provide a market for the Makuleke traditional artefacts if well marketed and is open throughout the year.

It can be concluded that both projects have contributed economically to the livelihoods of the communities.

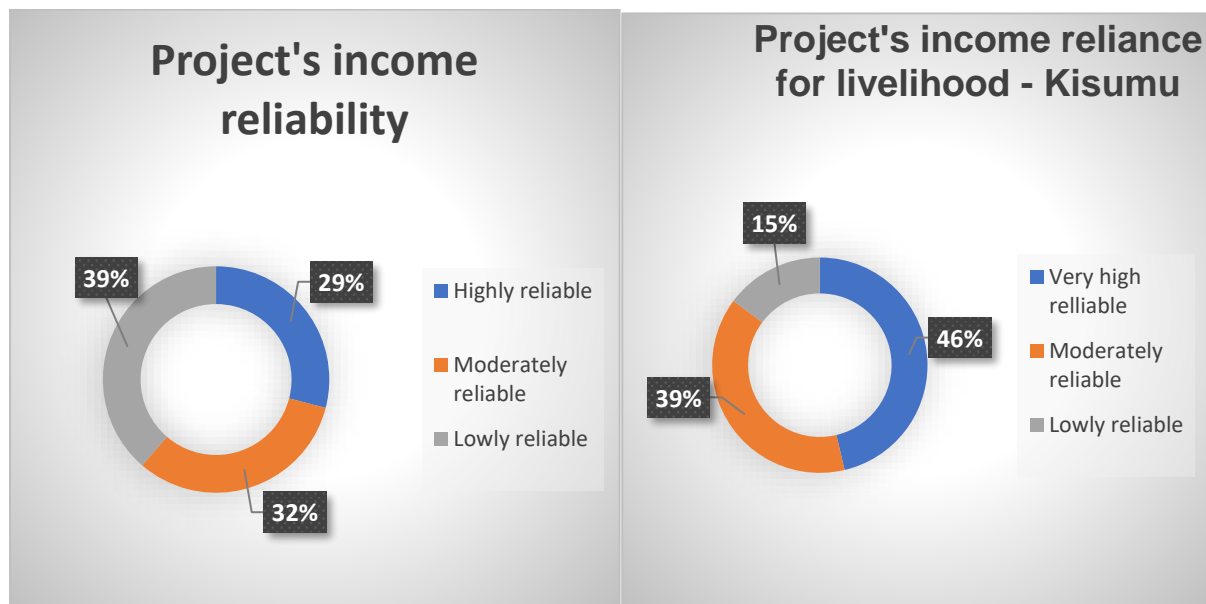


Figure 5.4. Project's income reliance for livelihoods in Makuleke and Kisumu

5.4.3 Physical Capital contributed

In her Community Capital Framework (CCF), Flora, (2018) describes physical/built capital as a human-constructed infrastructure facilitating community development. Additionally, Yazdi, (2019) notes that investment in physical tourism capital stimulates growth of the economy of an area.

Makuleke

The physical capital was ranked as the second most important capital by the Makuleke participants with a total of 42 scores, and that the project had contributed to physical capital of the community enormously. The interviews with key informants confirmed that through the partnership of the MCP and the concessions, the project has managed to invest highly in physical capital.

As shown in Table 5.7, the project had built 5 cottages which are used as BnB which offer accommodation services to tourists. The cottages are circular shaped, and grass thatched, portraying traditional Makuleke hut also known as a “rondavel”. The cottages are a cultural attraction that draws tourists to visit, hence, boosting the image of the area. Another significant physical structure that the project has built in Makuleke is the cultural centre which exhibits the traditional artefacts revealing the history of the Makuleke people; this is also a tourist attraction. These results resonate with Kline, (2017) who note that tourist physical facilities are an attraction to a destination. The project has also purchased 2 tour vans which are used to run errands for the project and transport tourists to Kruger National Park; it has also built a project office which is well furnished with office equipment.

Through the project, other facilities and infrastructure that are supportive of the community’s wellbeing have been built or installed. These include 3 roads that had been repaired by the project - one road leading to the project office, one connecting to Maklule village and one connecting to the main road. The project has sunk 5 boreholes, distributed as - 1 in each village (=3), 1 at the office compound which also serves the cultural centre, the cottages, the traditional offices and the households nearby and 1 at the shopping centre. One lady commented:

“Before we used to fetch water from the dam whose water is not clean but now, we have clean water thanks to the MCP borehole”.

The project has built 5 classrooms in different schools in the 3 villages and 1 crèche at Mabilingwe village. Other physical facilities built by the project include, 1 public library in which

is installed a Wi-Fi, hence, the communities have access to reading materials and free Wi-Fi for research and communication. This means that the community has enough facilities for easy access to education and knowledge. The focus-group discussions revealed that the project had built 3 community halls, one in each village and has assisted in installation of street lights along 5 streets. The communities now have enough space for meetings and have security because the streets are lit. It has also fenced the community graveyard. One old woman recounted;

“For a long time, you could not tell where the graveyard reached because there was no fence. It was so traumatising to the community to imagine that you are trampling on people’s graves. Now a fence has been erected around the community grave yard by the MCP and there is now clear demarcation between the dead and the living”.

The results also indicate that the contributions from the project has built a health centre in Makuleke village and the government has assisted in providing health equipment and staff, therefore, the community now has access to health care. The project has also acquired an irrigation scheme which is leased to willing individuals for farming. This scheme contributes to the project’s profits and supplies villagers with food crops.

Other contributions identified during the focus-group discussions were that those participants employed through the project were able to acquire household items. A fifty-year-old man said:

“My daughter who works at Outpost has bought us a fridge and a new coach”.

Another respondent added:

“I was employed at the Projects’ office two months ago and I have bought a new mobile phone and a TV with the salary that I earn from the project”.

Due to the physical capital acquired through the project (MCP), the Makuleke communities have the infrastructure required to support livelihoods (Emery & Flora, 2004; Lund, 2019), and facilities that serve as attractions and as promoters to tourism development (Kline *et al.*, 2019; Yazdi, 2019). In total, the Makuleke project has contributed 9 tourism physical facilities and 28 public community facilities totalling 37 physical assets. The project, however, needs to invest more in tourism physical facilities that would create income-generation activities, such as restaurants, recreation facilities, museums and market the existing physical attractions.

Kisumu

The participants in Kisumu ranked physical capital as the least important and the one which has contributed minimally, to the community’s livelihoods, however, this does not mean that

there was no physical capital in Kisumu or that the project has not contributed towards people's livelihoods. Results in Table 5.7 indicate that the community tourism project in Kisumu had built 1 restaurant and this was contributing to the projects profits and economically towards the communities' wellness through employment. The project had also built 2 project offices, one at Kit Mikayi historical rock site and another at Dunga Beach. This means that the administrators of the project have a secure place to work from and keep the project's records safe. The project had built a Pedagogy centre which also serves as a cultural centre. The pedagogy centre is visited by tourists who want to know more about the natural resources in the area, the Luo culture and traditions; it also displays Luo cultural artefacts, thus, becoming a tourist attraction. Other physical capital assets that the project has established include a tourists' resting places, shady and with sitting benches; the focus-group discussions revealed that Kisumu's weather is hot (mostly highs of 30^o) and humid, therefore, tourists sit on the benches to have a clear view of the lake and enjoy a cool breeze from the lake. The project has also constructed a boardwalk which provides a high platform for lake viewing, bird watching and filming, as well as an amusement park for children. The park attracts over the weekends, parents who bring their children for fun and to enjoy fried fresh fish from the lake. It had also purchased 2 motorboats which generate money for the project's account.

As regards to other public community facilities, the project had built 1 public toilet at Dunga beach and 2 classrooms (1 at Dunga Primary school, and 1 at Kit Mikayi Primary School); having schools in the villages means that the community have access to basic education. The project has also sunk a public borehole at Dunga village and one at Kit Mikayi. The physical assets contributed by the Kisumu project were 13 tourism facilities and 4 other public community facilities, summing up to a total of 17 physical assets.

There was, however, no health centre in these villages and that meant that the people had to walk long distances to access health care. The roads leading to Dunga Beach has neither tar nor marram grass and they are impassable during rain seasons. The Kisumu project needs to invest more in the community's physical facilities, such as health centres and roads for easy access to healthcare and to tourist attractions.

Household representatives' interview results revealed that individual members of the project have acquired individual household physical assets through the project. These benefits included building own homes, home toilets, purchase of motorbikes and wheelbarrows, among others. One respondent commented:

“This project has helped me a lot. I have actually built a home for my family using the money that I earned from this project”.

In both study sites, there is evidence of physical capital gain through the project, however, the Makuleke project has invested more into the communities' public facilities than the Kisumu project, hence, there was evidence of access to livelihood-support infrastructure, more in Makuleke than there was in Kisumu. The Makuleke project, therefore, has contributed more physical capital to the community than what the Kisumu project has contributed. This is attributed to Makuleke's monetary benefits accrued from concessionaires which are entirely invested into the community's physical assets development. The Kisumu project has invested more into the tourism physical facilities as compared to the Makuleke project. This difference can be attributed to the institutional structures which are different in the two sites.

Physical capital assets are visual evidence of concrete change to the community (Kline *et al.*, 2019) and it can be concluded that the tourism physical facilities in both sites served as attractions, hence, increasing tourists' opportunities to visit and spend money. This creates a “trickledown effect” for the local communities which in the long run improves communities' living conditions and expand livelihood diversification.

Table 5.7 Physical Capital Contribution

Physical capital contributed by/through the project		
Description of facility	Makuleke	Kisumu
Tourism related facility		
Purchased tour van	2	0
Restaurants	0	1
Cottages for BnB	5	0
Built project office	1	2
Cultural Centre	1	1
Tourists' resting places and benches	0	5
Boardwalk Platform	0	1
Motorboat	0	2
Amusement park for kids	0	1
Total tourism related facilities built through the project	9	13
Other community facilities built through the project		
Public Library	1	0
School classrooms	5	2
Crèche	1	0
Dug Public boreholes	5	1
Public Toilet	0	1
Community Hall	3	0
Street lighting	5 streets	0
Wi-fi installation	2 - at Project office & Library	0
Roads repaired (roads leading to attractions)	3	0
Health Centre	1	0
Fenced graveyard	1	0
Acquired an Irrigation scheme	1	0
Total other community facilities built through the project	28	4

5.4.4. Natural Capital Contributed

Natural resources form the bases for livelihood for many households living in rural areas (Scoones, 1998), and they also form the bases for tourist attractions in many rural tourist destinations (Munanura, 2016). Communities in rural areas utilize natural resources for tourism activities and enhance their livelihood diversification (Stone & Nyaupane, 2017).

During the ranking session, natural capital was ranked number 3 by the respondents from Makuleke and number 2 by the respondents from Kisumu. These ranking results imply that natural capital is a valued capital for both communities. The participants in the two sites had different reasons for ranking this capital in the place they did. The data for this section were mainly gathered through observation, group discussions, key-informants' interviews and narratives recorded from the participants. The data were then transcribed, contextualized and presented verbatim.

Makuleke

The Makuleke respondents ranked natural capital as their number 3 capital with 40 scores. The Makuleke Contractual Park within which the project is founded is located inside the Kruger National Park which is endowed with a lot of natural capital assets.

The interviews with the Executive Chairperson of the MCP project revealed that the South African National Parks (SANP), through the Kruger National Park (KNP) was mandated to conserve wildlife and the Contractual Park's biodiversity. One of the clauses of the agreement stated that hunting of wildlife had to stop, and the animals were to be conserved for tourism. She reported that since the contractual agreement was entered into between the Makuleke Community and SANP, poaching had reduced.

It was observed that the Makuleke Contractual Park is endowed with several mammal species, among them the Big Five (lion, rhino, leopard, elephant, and buffalo). There are also smaller predators which include, cheetah, spotted hyena, side-striped jackal, serval, caracal, African wild cat, and wild dog. The herbivore category features giraffe, plains zebra, and over ten types of antelopes including the kudu. There are primates too, such as chacma baboon, vervet monkeys, and bush-babies, as well as plenty of hippos in the rivers. The park is also endowed with different species of birds, including a variety of raptors, water-birds, songbirds.

The extreme diversity of species within the Makuleke contractual park is echoed by the diverse nature of the park's natural features, which include, savanna, acacia thickets, mopane woodlands, fever tree forests, the Limpopo and Luvuhu Rivers which serve as watering corridors for the animals. This combination of features results in stunning scenery, including the spectacular Lanner Gorge and some big baobab trees, which provide ample cool shade for picnics. The MCP is endowed with beautiful sceneries and has a great potential for eco-tourism. These findings are in line with Maluleke (2018) and Reid & Turner, (2004) who described the Makuleke Contractual Park as a place with spectacular features suitable for eco-tourism.

Interviews with key informants indicated that there were three concessions that had signed agreement with the Makuleke community to put up eco-lodges and an eco-training camp in the Makuleke contractual park area; this was also to preserve the pristine nature of the park. The Outpost and the Return Africa are the two Makuleke concessions that operate eco-lodges and part of the agreement was that they would employ personnel from the Makuleke community. Eco Camp Training Institution, on the other hand, would train the Makuleke community youth in tour-guiding and nature conservation. The Makuleke youth who trained with the Econ training camp, as well as some community members are involved in the biodiversity and wildlife conservation programs. During the focus-group discussions, it was discovered that Kruger National Park, which is part of the co-management authorities is mandated to initiate conservation programs and involve the people of Makuleke in biodiversity and wildlife conservation. These programs, however, were not frequently arranged, therefore not many community members have been involved in these conservation programs. One of the Exco member observed:

“KNP is responsible for the day to day conservation management of the Makuleke Contractual Park. From my personal experience I am not convinced that KNP is doing justice to the Makuleke project. SANParks, as a co-management authority should invest more resources in biodiversity management of the Makuleke concession and involve people in conservation programs such as anti-poaching”.

The above sentiment supports Maluleke (2018) that the agreement between SANP and the Makuleke community needs to be reviewed; there seems to be no synergy between the SANP and the interests of the Makuleke people.

Natural capital assets are resources that people use for livelihoods, however, during the group discussions, it was observed that, although, the MCP has so many natural endowments, the Makuleke community members are not utilizing the resources fully. The Makuleke people

know the location of beautiful sceneries of the park, and they also enjoy free entry to the park, yet there are no excursion tours organized by the Makuleke community. They mostly depend on what the concessionaires can offer because this was part of the agreement that the communities would stay out of the park and let the concessionaires conserve the environment and exercise eco-tourism; the park in return would contribute some monetary percentage to the community.

Kisumu

The Kisumu respondents ranked Natural Capital as their number 2 capital with 32 scores. The reasons given by the respondents were that they draw most of their livelihood from the Natural resources as they have created income-generation activities from Lake Victoria and the Kit Mikayi historical rock (shrine). There are various natural attractions along Lake Victoria and Kit Mikayi.

It was observed that the Kit Mikayi Rocks are a natural formation that occurred many centuries ago. From a distance, the site looks like a woman holding a child. There are many historical narratives surrounding the formation of the rock and its significance to the community. The raconteur about the rock remarked:

“Some religious people regard it as a holy place and therefore use it as a worship shrine. Tourists visit the site for different reasons; either for prayers, to view the beautiful site, to listen to the interesting historical narratives; it’s also a serene and pristine grounds for camping, or for research”.

The interview results indicate that the rocks lie on top of each other as high as 750 kms, and the fact that they have been standing there for decades without plummeting down, gives scientists the urge to investigate what holds the rocks and keeps them that high. The area surrounding the rock is ever green and the communities believe that there is water underneath the rock. The people of Kit Mikayi have, therefore, embraced nature conservation by guarding the rock and maintaining its original state; they only need to be assisted to erect a proper fence and a gate.

Dunga Beach is one of the Lake Victoria beaches and is easily accessed from Kisumu City side. Lake Victoria is a fresh water lake, therefore, has several species of fish, including - mud fish, tilapia, Nile patch (Mbuta), fingerlings (omena), and many others. The beach has a proper pier for docking, and this gives it an edge, making it popular for boat rides for those interested in having a cruise tour of Lake Victoria. The area has a lot of bird species as well, thus, popular for birdwatching. It is a habitat for hippos, and this attracts both domestic and international tourists. An organised boat rides provide tourists with an opportunity for a tour to the hippo

point where they view hippos at a close range. Papyrus grass at the shores of the lake is used by the artisans to make artefacts such as mats, fishing hats, shopping baskets and other antiques as was also noted by Wanga *et al.*, (2014). One artisan pointed out:

“These baskets are made from papyrus grass. It is used to carry fish by the fish sellers”.

The group discussions revealed that the artisans also use hyacinth weeds to make artefacts (a photo is included in the appendix). An artisan noted:

Although this hyacinth is a menace to boat-riders and fishermen, it has helped us a lot. We harvest the weed and use it to make beautiful furniture such as chairs, coffee tables and stools”

It was also observed that due to its proximity to Kisumu city, Dunga Beach is a popular lunch stop, therefore, the community has grabbed this opportunity to establish a market and provide visitors with the popular fried fish and ugali (Kenyan pulp); this market also serve the fishermen who do not have to go far to sell their fish. The fried fish sellers await the fishermen by the shores of the lake at Dunga Beach which is located 2kilometres from Impala Sanctuary and the Impala Eco-lodge; these provide spectacular lake views with outstanding eco-tourism activities as well as wildlife and marine life views. These results are in line with Jernsand *et al.*, (2015); Wanga *et al.*, (2014), who describe Dunga Beach as an attractive beach with potential for eco-tourism.

The results depict Kisumu as a site with enormous natural capital which is an attraction for tourism development; this provides evidence that the site is an eco-tourism destination with a lot of tourist activities. The natural capital has been utilized by the community for their livelihoods as is proven by the artisans and boat drivers who ferry tourists to the hippo point.

Lake Victoria, however, faces threats from the hyacinth weed which has infested the lake. The boat-drivers and the fishermen complained that sometimes they are unable to navigate the boats through the hyacinth, therefore are not able to fish enough for the day. The environmental manager noted that several hippos have moved to other areas because the hyacinth has covered their breeding area.

These results represent two community tourism projects which have rich natural capital, however, the institutional structures in these projects are differently managed, hence, the exploitation of these natural resources are executed differently. The Makuleke community has not initiated self-driven tourism activities, hence, do not utilize the natural capital, exhaustively. On the other hand, the Kisumu community has taken full advantage of the natural resources

at their disposal and created tourism activities which enhanced their livelihood diversification. The difference in exploitation of natural resources could also be attributed to the differences in the communities' cultures, lifestyle and social dynamics, such as trust and freedom in exploration.

5.4.5. Human Capital Contributed

Human capital encompasses education, awareness, knowledge and skills relevant to tourism development (Bennet *et al.*, 2011; Stone & Nyaupane, 2017). Awareness and knowledge of tourism, as well as an attitude supporting tourism development is essential for any tourism project; investment in human capital increases prospects of economic growth (Bennet *et al.*, 2011; Razzaq *et al.*, 2013).

5.4.5.1. Skills gained through the project

In the questionnaire seeking information on skills gained through the project, the participants were allowed to select all the skills they had gained. This was because it is practical for people to have more than one skill and it was necessary to note all skills that the participants had gained through the projects.

Makuleke

Human Capital was ranked number 5 by the Makuleke participants. During the focus-groups discussions, the respondents indicated an awareness of tourism development and that is the reason they had partnered with the eco-lodges and SANP, so that they could conserve and preserve the pristine nature of the attractions in the MCP. Nonetheless, they claimed that they were not very well trained in skills relevant to tourism but there were a few members who had learned some skills through the project, as shown in Table 5.8. Some people had multiple skills, for example, some with skills in tour guiding also had conservation or leadership skills.

As shown in Table 5.8, 30% of respondents had acquired tour-guiding skills from the Eco-Training camp which is one of the concessions of the Makuleke Contractual Park. These skills have enabled them to acquire jobs and they are now better placed in the tourism-related job market and therefore, they are able to earn a living and sustain their households' livelihoods. Of all the respondents, 21% (who were also women), mentioned having gained arts and craft skills. Some had learned how to make beaded jewellery while others had learned how to make the Xibelani skirt (traditional dancing skirt). The sales from the crafts earn these women

a living. The results also show that 15% of respondents had gained cooking skills with 13% gaining housekeeping skills; they have gained these skills through on-the-job training as they were employed at the concessions' eco-lodges. Of all the participants, 27% had gained conservation skills while 6% had gained leadership skills.

Those with leadership skills stated being appointed by the Exco from time-to-time, to oversee development of some community projects, such as building of classrooms and other facilities in the village. An allowance is paid for these kinds of appointments. As was noted by Apaliya, Martin and Gasteyer, (2012), leadership skills have also increased these people's self-confidence and improved their ability to interact with other people. Wildlife and the natural resources form the bases of the tourist attractions in Makuleke contractual park and their preservation is important for the future of park. Those who gained conservation skills through the project stated that it had made them better conservationists and anti-poaching advocates.

Kisumu

Human capital was ranked number 4 with 29 scores by the Kisumu respondents. They expressed being aware of tourism development and their attitude towards the project was positive. They stated that because of the project, they had learned several skills as shown in Table 5.8 below. The results indicate that 37% of the respondents had been trained in tour guiding, while 28% had been trained in boat-riding through the Dunga Eco-tourism Association (DECTA) project. The group discussions revealed that when new members join the project, they are trained in these two skills and safety measures in the water. The beach environmental unit had trained 9% of the respondents in environmental and nature conservation which are vital for the maintenance of the beach, the marine life and the activities that provided the people with a livelihood diversification. The participants claimed they had learned how to make various artefacts (19%) including how to make traditional sisal dancing skirt, traditional fishing baskets and mats from papyrus, furniture using hyacinth as well as traditional sandals, beaded jewellery and wood carving. Those employed by the project had gained marketing (7%), accounting (7%) and computer (4%) skills. These skills were learned through job training.

The DECTA project had various sub-groups such as Savings & Credit (SACCO) and other micro savings and credit groups called *Chamas*. These groups had leaders who acknowledged having learned leadership and management skills (11%). They also mentioned learning how to convene and run meetings, as well as decision-making processes (Apaliyah *et al.*, 2012). The managers of the project claimed having enhanced their leadership skills

and how to manage and interact with people. Other skills learned through the project were fishing (19%), kayaking (6%), and curating (6%). The human capital has enabled the Kisumu participants to access and utilize the natural resources available to generate income (Stone & Nyaupane, 2017).

In comparing the two results, there are indications that the participants in Kisumu had gained more human capital from the projects than those of Makuleke. This can be attributed to the fact that there were more income-generating activities in Kisumu that warranted the people to be skills-equipped for these jobs. The institutional structures in the two projects were also different, however, the results in the two study areas provide evidence that the tourism projects have built community capacity through training (Emery *et al.*, 2007). The provision of jobs, in different areas, in these two projects implies that the participants applied the skills that they had acquired for the benefit of the larger community and for livelihood diversification. This agrees with Apaliya *et al.*, 2012, who maintain that improved individual human capital results in improved livelihood outcome and a strong community bond. Building on leadership skills and interaction with people improved the communities' social capital, which is discussed in the next section.

Table 5.8 Human Capital (Skills/competency)

Skills/ competency (Human capital)		
Percentage of participants with different skills		
Description of skill	Makuleke	Kisumu
	%	%
Tour-guiding skills	30	37
Arts & Crafts	21	19
Marketing	0	7
Accounting skills	3	7
Computer skills	4	4
Housekeeping skills	13	0
Cooking skills	15	0
Nature conservation	27	9
Leadership skills	6	11
Boat-driving skills	0	28
Fishing	0	19
Kayaking	0	6
Curating	0	6

5.4.6. Social Capital Contributed

Social capital focuses on the relationships, leadership, partnerships, networks, groups, participation in social and cultural activities, as well as linkages that create a scene for the enhancement of human capital (Emery & Flora, 2006; Stone & Stone, 2019). The project-related social activities the respondents participated in were used as indicators of social capital links, networks, relationships and partnerships that the community had with other institutions. The trust and norms that enabled coordination and solidarity for communities' mutual benefits (Larsen *et al.*, 2004) were also observed.

Makuleke

The Makuleke participants placed the social capital as number 5 on with the same scores (20 scores) as that of human capital.

Interviews with the key informants indicated that the Makuleke community had partnered with some privately-owned eco-tourism facilities based in Kruger National Park and with the South African National Parks (SANP) through the Kruger National Park (KNP). As per the partnerships' agreements, concessions were made which mandated them to contribute towards the development of the community and conservation of wildlife and biodiversity of the Makuleke Contractual Park (MCP). These partnerships have created a linkage between tourism and conservation (Stone & Nyaupane, 2017), however, since the project is a community project, it ought to be operated and managed by the Makuleke community. The executive committee (Exco), therefore, recruited household representatives and the choice to join was entirely the household representative's will.

As shown in Table 5.9, 22.4% of respondents participated in traditional/cultural activities in terms of exhibiting of artefacts in curio shops, participating in traditional dance and songs. The study established that the majority of community members were inactive in traditional activities because the cultural event only happened once in a year. This is because even though they had a cultural centre there were no proper arrangements for cultural events to happen frequently. Moreover, the community too did not have the initiative to produce or display their cultures, however, it is evident that quite a number of respondents (30%) were interested and participated in environmental conservation programs offered by the Kruger National Park. The study established that even though 18% participated in community events, only 30% attended project meetings, with 12% attending annual general meetings (AGM) only. Many are,

therefore, left out in speaking out their opinions on how the project should be operated and how the benefits should be distributed. Drafting of the project's constitution and writing project policy is such an important exercise, because the policies govern the project's operations yet only 7.5% were involved in policy making. Consequently, the majority of the respondents did not influence any decisions made regarding operations or distribution of benefits. Furthermore, only 7.5% participated in the planning and management activities of the project. This explains why only 4.5% of the respondents were involved in decision-making processes of the project. When asked why they were not involved in decision-making on the project, one respondent replied;

“More, often, only the influential and powerful people influence the decisions made. Otherwise, the majority of us members especially women and the elderly are always marginalised in decision making mechanisms”.

The results also show that only 7.5% were involved in leadership roles in the project. This is because there were no social economic income-generation activities within the project like dancing groups, weaving groups, micro credit & savings groups, or even conservation groups that were headed by a community member; the respondents also did not belong to any social clubs. The overall results on social activity participation indicate a low turnout in almost every activity which could be attributed to cultural norms within the communities that make them leave such decisions to the executive management.

Kisumu

In Kisumu, participants ranked social capital as their number 3 capital with 31 scores. During the ranking exercise, the focus-group discussions revealed that unity and trust among the project members was an important thing which enabled cooperation, hence, formation of other social groups.

The results in Table 5.9 indicate that, 29.6% participated in cultural activities, such as traditional dance and songs, making or selling of traditional artefacts and 13% participated in environmental conservation programs. Of all the respondents, 6% were involved in planning and management of the project, such as management of the funds collected on daily basis, project's book keeping, regulation and keeping of the duty rooster for boat operators. Community mobilization encourages people to participate and take part in development (Vijayakumar, 2018). The results show that 7.4% participated in community mobilization while another 7.4% were involved in policy-making. At the close of every day, the DECTA members

converge to get reports of the day's collection and necessitates all members to be present to receive their daily earnings too. The project is well organized with proper records of daily receipts (see appendix 7). At the end of every month the members meet once more to look

Table 5.9. Social Capital

Social activities respondents participated in				
Social Activity	Makuleke		Kisumu	
	Number of participants	Percent	Number of participants	Percent
Cultural activities (traditional dances, song, arts and crafts, etc.)	15	22,4	16	29,6
Environmental Conservation programs	15	22,4	7	13
Planning and management	5	7,5	3	5,6
Community mobilization	12	18	4	7,4
Participate in policy-making	5	7,5	4	7,4
Participate in decision-making	3	4,5	10	18,5
Leadership role in project process	5	7,5	5	9,3
Attend project meetings	20	30	22	40,7
I only attend AGMs	8	12	4	7,4
Belong to a social club or group	0	0	30	55,6

at the total collections for the month. The members present discuss and decide what activities need to be done for the running of the project, for example, payment of wages and commissions, purchase of needed items, and community services. They also take an account of whatever amounts that remain in the project's accounts. At the end of the year the members meet to evaluate the year's activities, share dividends and plan for the following year. This explains the 40.7% meeting attendance, 18.5% decision-making participation with a 7.4% indicating that they only attend the Annual General Meetings (AGMs). The results also show evidence of leadership roles at 9.3%. These are leaders of different sections of the project, such as dance-group leader, tour-guide leader, boat-ride leader, social-club leader and the Sacco chair person. A great number of the respondents (55.6%) belonged to social groups, such as Dunga Beach table banking, boat-riders' merry-go-round social club, and Kageso women dancers. The project, thus created unity and cooperation among the members (McGehee *et al.*, 2010)

Interview results with key informants revealed that, Dunga Eco-tourism Association (DECTA) had partnered with other organizations, such as Moi University who donated a boat for research purposes. This boat is also used for transportation and tours to the lake, thus, earning some revenue for the project. Interview results from the DECTA coordinator revealed that other partners were Nature Kenya and a team of volunteers who helped to build the Dunga Board Walk that sits on papyrus grass. The Beach Management Unit which had also partnered with DECTA oversaw beach cleaning, garbage collection, and ecological training. The project provides community services through building toilets for the nearby schools, donating food stuff and the supply of sanitary towels to girls in Dunga and Kit Mikayi Primary School. The members also respond to rescue calls when a boat capsizes in the lake. In addition, the project provides security services for Dunga Beach, as well as organizing for the cleanliness of the beach. The project provided community service through building toilets for Dunga Primary School, distributing tree seedlings to the communities, distributing sanitary towels to girls in Kit Mikayi Primary, and providing porridge to Dunga Primary School.

The Makuleke respondents' social capital was not very strong for they did not seem to have well-coordinated operations and did not engage in any social clubs, however, the results indicate that they participated in other project's social activities and they had partnered with other institutions for their mutual benefits. Kisumu, on the other hand, displayed a united and well-coordinated working networks. The formation of social groups, such as tour-guide group, boat-riders' group, micro credit and savings groups, helped the community of Kisumu to work

better, earn more and sustain their families. The project had provided a saving's platform for the workers by saving a percentage of their earnings. This gave them an opportunity to utilize the natural capital assets to spiral into economic assets, hence, building into human, physical and social capital assets. This agrees with Emery & Flora, (2006), who concluded that one stock of community capital asset can transform others.

In conclusion, the section deliberated on the benefits of community-driven tourism projects to the community. Through the application of Community Capital Framework (CCF), the study analysed the contribution of community-driven tourism projects to the livelihoods of the participants. Emery & Flora, (2004) argue that community development needs a mix of capitals and that there is a need to have a balance, if a community project development was to succeed. By ranking the capitals, the communities were able to tease out the strength and weaknesses of each capital and realize the areas that the project needed to improve on. Even though the two projects under study were managed under two different institutional arrangements, there is evidence of benefits accrued through both projects. The tourist activities carried out in the two study areas contributed positively in various ways to the build-up of all the five community capitals, namely - human, economic, social, physical and natural capital – thereby contributing to communities' livelihood diversification.

A community which is educated, has skills and is competent, is able to pursue livelihood strategies for a better outcome (Scoones, 1998, Flora *et al.*, 2018). Through the skills (human capital) that communities had acquired, they were able to exploit the natural capital at their disposal to generate economic capital which assisted in improving physical capital and enhanced human capital, through training. Through these skills the Makuleke respondents were employed in concessions and the Kisumu respondents generated direct income from tour-guiding as well as self-employment. The results have shown how attainment of human capital or lack of it can affect people's potential involvement in tourism projects, as was displayed in Makuleke's results and as was also noted by Diedrich *et al.*, (2019). The partnerships which form the best part of social capital in Makuleke have resulted in bridging other capitals' deficits (financial & physical) thus concurring with Flora and Emery, (2004) as well as, Stone & Nyaupane, (2017) that social capital can influence the stock and flow of other capitals. This was also evidenced in Kisumu as the tourism activities brought the participants together as they searched for livelihoods; there was formation of a well-organized solidarity group (social capital) with same interests to coordinate and regulate the activities (Larsen *et al.*, 2004). Tourism development in the two sites opened avenues for livelihood diversification for the communities. The natural resources in Makuleke Contractual Park (inside the Kruger

National Park) have triggered partnerships which have resulted in economic and physical benefits for the Makuleke community. The Kisumu community too has benefited from the tourist activities created through the utilization of the natural resources. This is in line with Stone and Nyaupane, (2017) that improvements in community capitals are motivated by the multiplication of livelihood diversification and choices, enabled by increased tourism income-generation activities. This study has demonstrated an effective application of CCF to community-driven tourism projects. Through the CCF, the study has exemplified how natural capital, in both sites, has been used to create economic capital through which physical, human and social capitals were improved. This supports Gutierrez-Montes, Emery, & Fernandez-Baca, (2009); Kline *et al.*, (2019); Stone & Stone, (2019) who affirmed that one capital can influence the multiplication of other capitals, however, there is need for the communities to recognize the value of the capitals that are at their disposal so as to utilize them fully for their livelihood. This study has established that a sustainable use of natural capitals for tourism development can be a livelihood diversification. This then calls for institutional structures to provide conditions needed by the communities to fully utilize the community capitals for sustainable livelihood.

The institutional structures and management of community-driven projects are discussed further in the following section.

5.5. Assessment of Institutional Structures and Processes

Livelihood strategies and outcomes are transformed by the settings and atmosphere of the structures (Serrat, 2017). Processes are governed by the laws, norms, regulations, operations, agreements and practices through which the tourism projects are operated (Scoones, 1998; Serrat, 2017). Institutional structures for community-driven projects are tasked with mediations and negotiations on behalf of the communities; they have the bargaining power and are also in charge of policy development.

The following section interrogates the institutional structures and processes of the Makuleke Contractual Park (MCP) project in South Africa and the Dunga Eco-tourism Association (DECTA) and Kit Mikayi Rock project in Kenya. The data for this section were gathered through interviews with key informants, observations, group discussions and review of policy documents, agreement documents and other projects-governing constitutions.

5.5.1 Case 1: Makuleke Contractual Park (MCP) project – South Africa

MCP is a community project which is operated through a co-management between Makuleke Communal Property Association (MCPA) and diverse tourism partnerships. Interviews with the Executive Committee revealed that the Makuleke CPA signed a concessionary agreement with Return Africa Camp, the Outpost Lodge, the Eco-Training Camp and South African National Parks (SANP) through Kruger National Park (Shehab, 2011; Maluleke 2018). The MCPA is a management body through which the Makuleke community expects to acquire, hold and manage property communally. All the community members of Makuleke were expected to be members of the MCPA, but only a few were actively involved in the activities of the CPA. The project is operated and managed by an executive committee (Exco) which comprises of 9 members who, according to the MCPA's constitution, are supposed to be drawn from the Makuleke Community. It was, however, observed that the executive committee (Exco), comprised of some elite individuals with only a few village representatives, who most of the time, seemed to be powerless in terms of decision-making.

The MCPA is mandated to ensure biodiversity, responsible tourism development and sustainable use of natural resources in the Makuleke region of the Kruger National Park for socio-economic benefits of the Makuleke people. This was also noted by Reid & Turner who added that an executive committee manages the MCPA on behalf of the community. Interview results with the Exco also indicate that the MCPA holds regular meetings with the partners to

deliberate on the profits from the concessionary facilities, the percentage contribution to the MCPA as per the contractual agreement and the community developments to be undertaken. This means that the Exco manages, controls and operates the MCP project on behalf of the community. The other members of the community are only invited to annual general meetings which are held once in a year or if the committee calls for a special meeting with the community members. An office with operational staff is based at the tribal offices in Makuleke.

The focus-group discussion results exhibited great expectations from the project by members. They expected that the benefits from the concessions would be evenly distributed throughout the community, and that the entire community would benefit from having access to the contracted area. The agreement stated that the revenues would go into a trust fund to be used for funding projects that would benefit the whole community such as schools, crèches, roads, health facilities, community institutions, or even pay dividends. The management (Exco) has managed to build some facilities in the villages, but their efforts are like drops in the ocean since the population of the villages has grown from the time the agreement was signed. There was anticipation that there would also be multiplier effects from these projects which would channel benefits back into the community, such as jobs created through construction of these facilities where the community would provide labour for a fee. The Exco has not initiated any income-generation from the facilities that have been constructed. For instance, the cultural centre is meant to display the Makuleke culture but it only functions during the heritage month (September). The BnB is mostly unoccupied because it's never marketed or advertised. Other expectations were that some individuals, such as the youth would benefit from direct employment and training by the concessions.

The community anticipated that the job and training selection would be according to merit, and that the multiplier effects of this employments would also filter through to the community at large, as one person with a job supports an entire household. One old man claimed:

“We thought that the selection of the youth to be trained or employed would be given to those deserving but this is not the case, I have two sons without a job in my house”.

When asked why most youths are not benefiting from the concessionaire's agreements to employ and train, the Exco chairperson replied:

“At the onset of the agreement, the expectancy was that the concessions would employ up to 50 members of the community per annum. Unfortunately, this has not been possible because of various factors such as: the concessions are private tourism businesses which are out to make profits and employment is only done when there is

a need for staffing. Secondly being in business they would want to employ professionals which the Makuleke community may not have skills for at the time”.

Due to the mentioned factors, this has resulted in the community feeling short-changed and complaining that their youth are not being given jobs by the concessions; this has brought conflicts between the community and the CPA management. The profits accrued from the concessions are used for public projects, as well as running the MCP office and payment of wages of the office workers, nevertheless, the community expressed dissatisfaction with the management of the project and many have opted out of the project’s activities. When informed of the community’s complaints, the MCPA executive chairperson explained.

“The amounts accrued from the concessions are not enough to do quality, tangible and noticeable projects for the community”. The community population has grown with years and the jobs available at the concessions are like a drop in the ocean”.

The MCP project owns 5 cottages that were constructed through external funding. The cottages are fully furnished and ready for occupation, however, this study established that the cottages are barely occupied because no marketing is done to bring them to the limelight, therefore tourists do not know of their existence. Secondly, there is no proper management structure of the running and maintenance of the cottages for them to be operated as a Bed and Breakfast (BnB) facility. The cottages stand next to the cultural centre which is used once a year, during heritage month. The MCPA management seemed to concentrate more on the proceeds from the concessions but not on other facilities which have the potential to generate income and contribute to the livelihoods for the community. This has contributed to the community’s disinterest in the project and therefore non-participation in the activities of the project. Public–private partnerships have, generally, demonstrated high transaction costs both for businesses and communities. The power relations that exist among the various partners have been seen to influence benefits and tourism-development associated responsibilities in Makuleke. As the population of the Makuleke community increases, the demand for employment also increases. The few members of the community who have been offered jobs at the concessionaries seemed to be invisible in the growing community population. The institutional arrangements and their style of management at the Makuleke Contractual Park project have not been favourable to tourism income-generation activities. This shortcoming on the side of the institutional structures has seen facilities which were built for the community’s benefit become dilapidated due to lack of usage. These community facilities have become white-elephant projects which could be income-generation and job-creation haven for the people of Makuleke and a solution to the growing youth unemployment in the area.

The results of this study confirms existing details that the Makuleke community entered into agreement with private interests to build eco-lodges and receive some benefit from the concessionaire's annual profits in the form of trust fund which was to be held by the MCPA on behalf of the beneficiary, the Makuleke people (Fabrius *et al*, 2004; Maluleke 2018; Reid, 2001). In summary, the South African project is a demonstration of a co-management of tourism resources by private businesses and executive members of a community. According to (Berkes, George, & Preston, 1991; Plummer & Fennell, 2009) co-management involves power sharing and responsibility between the various stakeholders including government, private sector and local community who are resource users. Nepal, (2000) explains that the relationship and interaction between all the stakeholders involve entrepreneurship, benefits, as well as tourism activities coordinated, managed and controlled by all the stakeholders. Fennell, Plummer, and Marschke, (2008) assert that one of the advantages of co-management approach is its ability to minimize conflicts between tourism investors, government, and local community as regards to natural resources.

This typology of management, however, is only successful if the local communities are involved in decision-making (Plummer & Fennell, 2009). This is in contrast with the experience at Makuleke contractual park, where the local community members were the main stakeholder yet had no voice in the management and decision-making in the project, although, there were no tourism activities at the MCP. Even though the tourism resources were purposed to benefit the community in the Makuleke Contractual Park project, the project seemed to have had benefit-sharing crisis because the community members were not fully involved in the operations of the project and decision-making.

5.5.2. Case 2: Dunga Eco-tourism Association (DECTA) and the Kit Mikayi project – Kenya

The Dunga Eco-tourism Association (DECTA) and Kit Mikayi Rock project is operated and managed by the people who are involved in the different tourist activities on the site. Interview results from the key informants indicated that the management of the project is drawn from each section of the activities that are carried out at the site. In Dunga Beach, where the DECTA project is operated, there are many activities from boat riding, bird watching, fishing and fish selling, restaurant businesses, ecology learning, arts and crafts businesses, as well as tour guiding. The Kit Mikayi Historical Rock site has activities like tour guiding, traditional dancing, rock viewing and climbing, as well as camping. The group discussions disclosed that

the communities involved in these activities decided to form a social group through which they save their daily earnings and also regulate their daily activities.

The interviews further revealed that the board management unit which oversees the running and operation of DECTA project has a representative from all the sections - the boat operators, the board-walk unit, the fish sellers, the curio shop owners, the pedagogy centre, the restaurant owners, the tour guides and the environmental unit (which is also in-charge of the ecology school) and those responsible for the cleanliness of the beach. It was further observed that the board walk stands on top of a wetland swamp that is largely made up of papyrus reeds; it was built mainly from timber, by a team of volunteers. Visitors walk on the board walk and experience the lushness of the marshlands while watching birds and experiencing the beautiful view of Lake Victoria. Over the board walk are several small boardrooms with quiet and serene environments. These facilities are hired for conferences and workshops and for film shooting and wedding sessions.

Every group that visits the beach is charged an entry fee of Ksh. 30 per person. Boat riding is charged at Ksh.50 - 300 depending on the distance one wishes to cruise. The ecology school charges are Ksh.50 and the board walk is Ksh.70 per person. Once the visitors decide what kind of experience they would like to have, they pay at the DECTA office for the activity and are given a receipt. The office has a record of all the boats and regulate them in such a way that once a boat takes its first trip, it will wait until all the others have taken their first trips before it can take a second one. All the monies collected are captured by issued receipts and kept in the office, by the accountant. At the close of the day the members take a stock of their earnings per activity. Each member then pays 10% of his/her earning to the SACCO. The rest of the money is fairly distributed to all the members who were involved in an activity for that day; the 10% is accumulated and banked. At the end of every month the members again take stock of the savings accrued and then decide the activity that needs to be done for that month. Some of the activities include community services such as - donations of porridge flour and sugar to schools, like Dunga Beach Primary School, distribution of seedlings to communities, repairing of existing boats, purchase of new boats, purchase of binoculars for bird watching and lake viewing, purchase of guide books, receipt books, and the running expenses for the office. After setting aside the money for the selected activity for the month, the members then share 30% of the remaining money equally. At the end of the year, the members once again take a stock of their accumulated profits. They then decide on what to do with the profits, for instance, they can motivate members with Christmas gifts in monetary terms and/or buy a new boat for the DECTA project. The members also practice table-banking

in addition to what they save with SACCO. The table-banking helps them to save and borrow money when the need arises.

The Kit Mikayi Rock site, similarly, is managed by a Kit Mikayi Shrine cultural group which regulates the collection of revenues through entry fees. The revenues collected are used to run the office, pay wages and provide community services, such as distribution of sanitary towels to girls in Kit Mikayi Primary School, and assist the widows in the village. The Kageso traditional dancers entertain visitors and earn incentives from the tourists; at the end of the day the dancers take stock of their daily collections and share it equally amongst the members who participated in the day's activities. The traditional items displayed in the cultural shop are sold and the money is given to the artist who made the item.

Dunga Beach and Kit Mikayi attractions have provided the community with an avenue to earn a livelihood, preserve culture and nature. The community participates in the tourism activities, monitor and manage the project's daily earnings and regulate and manage the operations of the project. Through participation in the income-generation activities, the communities are able to meet their financial, physical and social needs. These observations corresponded with Waweru, (2015) who asserts that people take charge of their development when community-driven project meets their needs.

In summary the two community-driven projects (Makuleke and Kisumu), have exhibited contrast in their institutional arrangements, however, despite the differences in structures and management, there was evidence of benefits for the communities.

The success of a community-driven project can be undermined by uneven power between stakeholder groups (Islam, Ruhanen & Ritchie, 2018). This is evident with the MCP project where the Exco members are engaged elsewhere and only attend MCPA meetings as a side responsibility without much commitment. The results also indicate that the respondents did not influence decisions as to which development or public facility was to be implemented in the villages, rather this decision was influenced by the powerful people in the villages. This reverberates with Tosun, (2006) and Ruhanen, (2013) who argue that the influential stakeholder groups dominate decisions and outcome of community development. Most of the project management committee members (the Exco) have jobs elsewhere and therefore are not committed to initiate or revive income-generating activities where the communities could earn a livelihood. This has left the community with facilities, like the B&B and the cultural centre unutilized for the benefit of the community. To claim rights, voice and power over community capitals, communities need their own political capital through which they can voice out their requirements, make decisions and utilize resources for their livelihoods. This

sentiment was echoed by Bauman *et al.*, (2001) and Stone and Nyaupane, (2017), who emphasized that, transfer of power to the community enhances their political capital. Shoeb-Ur-Rahman *et al.*, (2019) proposed a sustainable livelihood framework for tourism incorporating co-management as a decision-making tool, however, literature has failed to critique existing co-management strategy, in community-driven projects. This study has therefore filled this gap by extensively interrogating the co-management approach at the (MCP) project and exposing its deficiencies.

The Kenyan project on the other hand displayed an egalitarian-benefit sharing management. Egalitarian management represents a sharing approach founded on the principle that all participants are equal and warrant equal rights and opportunities. This approach was made possible by the fact that the management was drawn from the tourism activity-players who also earned from the project's daily activities. All the members were involved in the activities and monitored their daily earnings. The proper regulation and keeping of a roster for the boat rides ensured that every boat operator took his trip each day. The roster keeper made sure that a boat takes its trip only when it was its turn to do so. Good recording saw all the members paid at their due time without any complaints, showing that the members formulated strategies and activities that boosted optimal use of resources for desired outcomes.

The institutional structures and processes displayed in these two Community-Driven tourism projects, influenced the livelihood diversifications, strategies and outcomes of the communities in the two case studies, in one way or another. The following section examines the impact of the projects on communities' livelihoods, in detail.

5.6. Analysis of impacts of Community-driven Tourism Projects on communities' lives

Communities involve themselves in tourism projects for many reasons; one of the reasons is that they use tourism as a livelihood strategy (Munanura *et al.*, 2016; Tao & Wall, 2009). This study sought to establish how community-driven tourism projects impacted communities' livelihoods in Makuleke, South Africa and in Kisumu, Kenya. The earlier results showed that community members had participated in various activities of the project and some of them depended on the project entirely for their livelihood. This meant that they used the tourism projects as a livelihood diversification, hence, they had positive impact on the households' livelihoods. These are categorized in terms of capitals and are elaborated below as positive impact of CDTPs on livelihoods. Earlier results on projects' participation demonstrated some

low turnout in some project activities, especially, those who were reported to have attended annual general meetings (AGM) only and not any other project functions (Makuleke 12% and Kisumu 7%). In this study, involvement of community members in the functions of CDTP was regarded as essential for sustainable tourism development and for sustainable livelihood, hence, the researcher carried further investigations to find out the reasons for this low involvement. This step was necessary for it would give the true scenario and the feeling of the communities before interrogating the impact of the projects on their livelihoods.

5.6.1. Non-participation in some project activities

The community members had various reasons why they did not participate in some of the operations of the projects as shown in the Atlas.ti diagram in Figures 5.5 and 5.6.

Makuleke Contractual Park (MCP) – South Africa

As depicted in the earlier results of participation in the project's activities, 12% indicated that they never participated in any activity but only attended the Annual General Meetings (AGMs). In seeking the reasons for non-participation in a number of project's activities, some of which were crucial, the study established that the main reason emanated from the institutional arrangements, structures and management of the project (Figure 5.5). Poor communication on project issues, lack of proper information channels, and not being invited to deliberate on the project's operations by Exco were some of the extenuating factors attributed to non-participation in some important project activities. The respondents also highlighted unequal distribution of the few opportunities from the concessionaires and they were concerned that the majority of them were not involved in decision-making. This is a coercive type of participation which Tosun, (2006) describes as "manipulative" where power-holders only pass information but do not involve the community in decision-making.

The interview results also portrayed disunity among the communities in the three villages. The point of contention was the benefits and opportunity distribution among the communities in the villages. There were no proper mechanisms to decide who and in which village priority should be given. This has brought squabbles among the communities and sometimes their disengagement from the project's important activities, like regular meetings' attendance. One respondent claimed:

“I have 2 sons who finished school three years ago and have not gotten any jobs. I have approached Exco, but they tell me that the concessions do not have vacancies”.

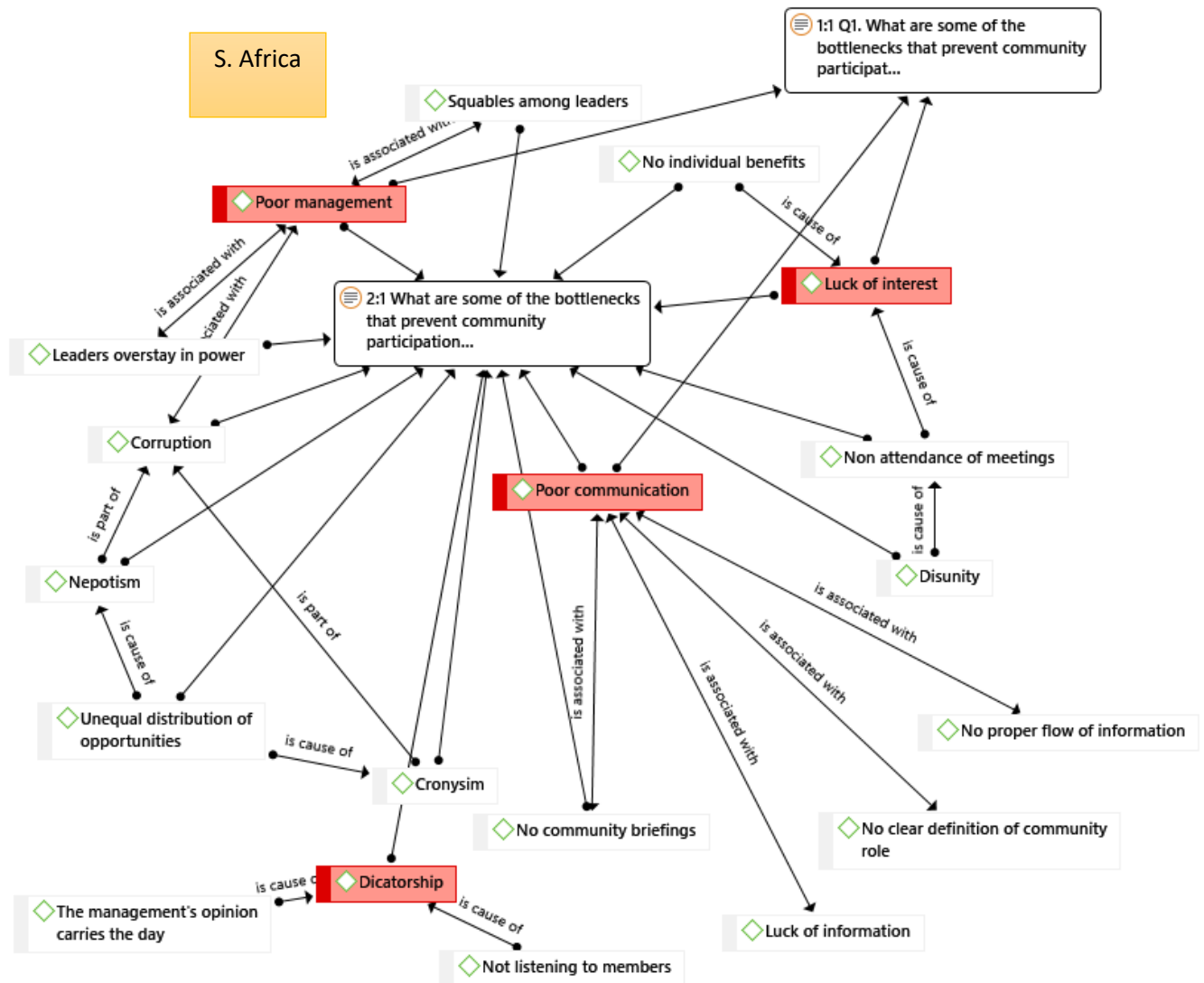


Figure 5.5. Reasons for non-participation in some project activities - S. Africa

Source: Researcher's own construction

Dunga Eco-tourism Association (DECTA), Kisumu – Kenya

In the Kisumu project, of the 7.4% who attended the Annual General Meetings (AGMs) only and not any other activity, stated lack of trust in management and dissatisfaction with distribution of profits as the main reasons for their reluctance to attend other functions, among other issues, as demonstrated in Figure 5.6 below. The results also indicate that they were not satisfied with the revenue reports given by the management. Another factor attributing to

this disengagement include stereotyping (women did not participate in boat-riding and tour-guiding because those jobs were perceived to be for men). Dealing with tourists needed good communication skills, job experience and good command of English and Swahili languages. Some members were not able to communicate in English and Kiswahili, therefore, were not able to participate in tour-guiding. As one way of giving back to the larger community, the project was involved in food and sanitary towels distribution to the nearby primary schools, sinking boreholes and other services to the community. The interview results indicated that the decisions on what community services to be carried out or the amount of money to be used for the services, were made by the management committee only. This discouraged some members from attending regular meetings because they were not involved in such vital decision-making. Some of the participants made low profits and were not able to contribute to the monthly savings-projects and therefore did not see any need of attending some of the meetings.

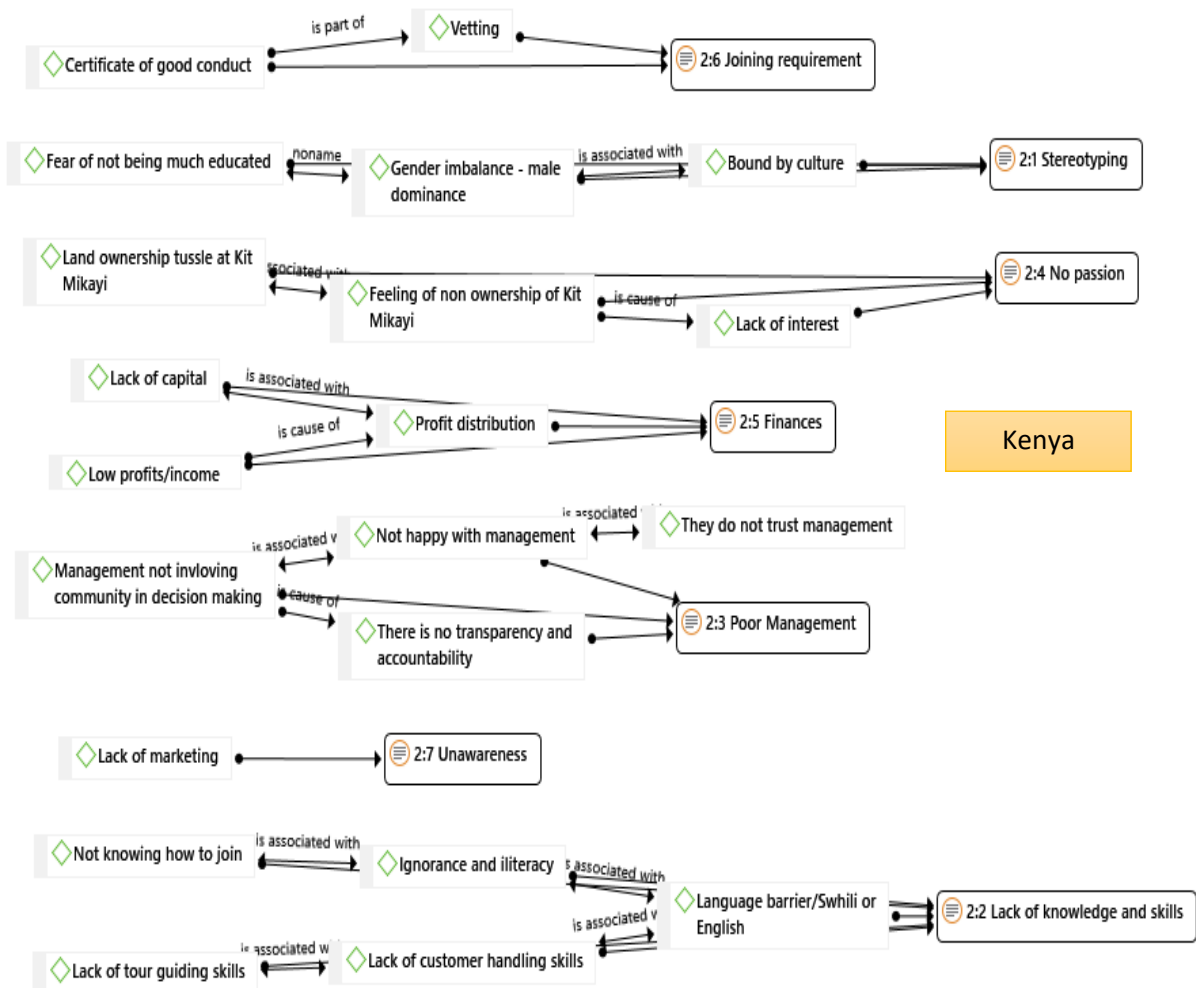


Figure 5.6. Reasons for non-participation in some project activities - Kenya

Source: Researcher's own construction

5.6.2. Distribution of benefits

Distribution of benefits was seen to have brought dissatisfaction to some members of the projects, therefore, it was important to further investigate so as to understand the criteria used and the stories around the distribution. Focus-group discussions were used to gather information from the household representatives on these issues.

Respondents from the two study sites expressed different views on the distribution of benefits as displayed in Figures 5.7 and 5.8.

MCP – Makuleke, South Africa

In the Makuleke Contractual Park project, the profits were accumulated in a trust fund which was used to develop public facilities in the 3 villages. Other benefits were in terms of employment or training opportunities as per the contractual agreement, thus, there was no direct monetary benefits to individual households; nevertheless, the community members expressed dissatisfaction in the way the management distributed the few opportunities that were available for the community. They cited unfairness in selection of the beneficiaries of the opportunities. This discouraged communities from fully participating in the project's activities as shown in the Figure 5.7 below.

In their study Su, Wall & Jin (2016), found that there was unequal distribution of tourism benefits to communities. The findings in this study support Su *et al.*, (2016) findings which also portray that local leadership is a factor that influences tourism development in an area and the impacts of tourism benefits to communities' livelihoods. By not distributing available resources fairly, the management denies the community access to quality of life which may also result to poverty (Gascón, 2015).

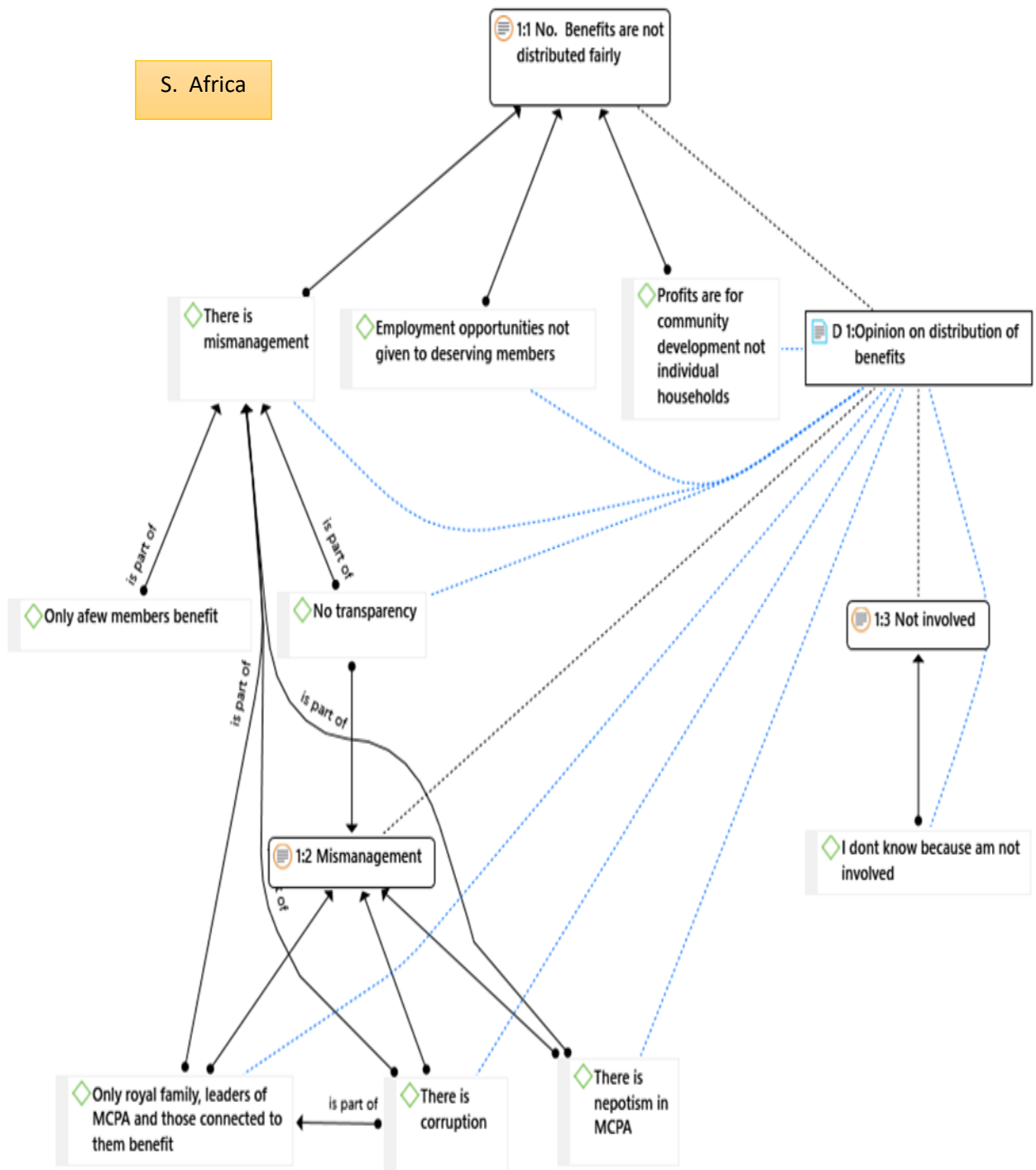


Figure 5.7. Distribution of benefits - Makuleke

Source: Researcher's own construction

DECTA - Kit Mikayi – Kisumu, Kenya

The results in Kisumu portrayed different outcomes. The institutional structure and management in the Kisumu project were different from that of Makuleke, therefore, the benefit distribution was also done differently. The members had daily tourism activities that earned them an income; these were distributed according to the total amount one earned in the day. All the clients paid for their services at the office, were issued with a receipt and records of all such transactions were well kept. The person giving the particular service signed a daily register and at the end of the day a member was paid according to the amounts he/she had accumulated. The members had less complaints about benefits' distribution in Kisumu as shown in Figure 5.8 below. This could be explained by the presence of proper records of daily activities they executed (See Appendix 7).

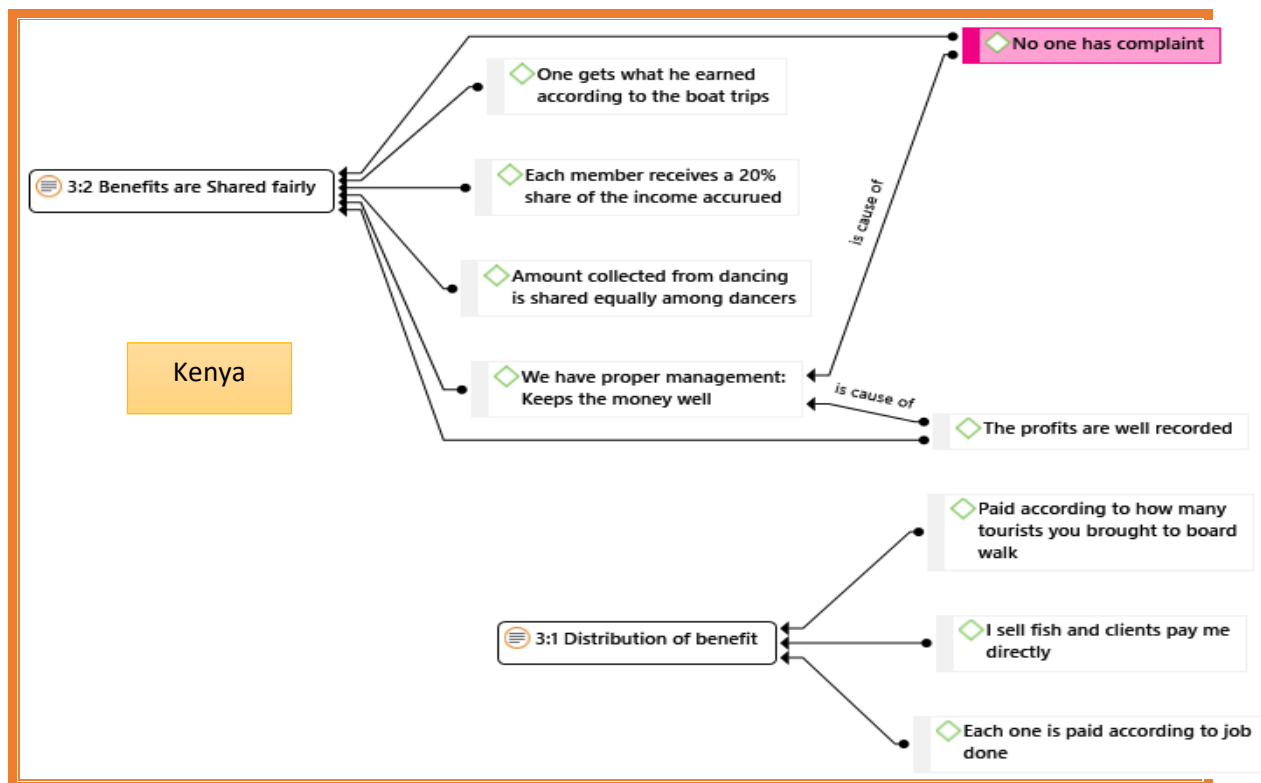


Figure 5.8. Distribution of benefits - Kenya

Source: Researcher's own construction

In comparison, the MCP's benefits in Makuleke were accumulated in a trust and used for physical facilities development as well as employment and training opportunities for members,

however, there was dissatisfaction on how the benefits (employment and training opportunities) were distributed. In contrast, with the DECTA-Kit Mikayi in Kisumu, benefits were distributed according to total work done and total cumulative earning per month, therefore, there were less complaints. As implied by Rylance, Snyman & Spenceley (2017), fair distribution of tourism benefits depends on political good will and accessibility of resources. This enhances positive attitude towards tourism development and participation in tourism activities by local communities. Through fair distribution of the tourism benefits in Kisumu, the communities were motivated to continue participating in tourism activities which improved their quality of life.

5.6.3. Life changes after involvement in the project

The study sought to find out from the respondents if their lives had changed in terms of capital assets after becoming members of the projects and actively participating in them. The question asked was - *What changes have you seen in your life that were brought by the tourism project?* The results were as follows:

5.6.3.1 (a) Economic capital asset

As shown in Figure 5.9, in Makuleke South Africa, the members benefited through employments with the MCPA offices and in the concessions' businesses. This was one of the conditions in the agreement signed between the Makuleke community and the private investors (concessionaires) - that they would employ members of the community in their hotel businesses. The community, however, still had complaints, because as the population grew more employment demands arose, therefore, the concessions were not able to take in as many members as the community had expected. Tourism is a seasonal industry; hence, the hotels did not have full occupancy all the year round; this resulted in low returns and the investors remitting less amounts to the Makuleke trust fund from which public-facility development funds were drawn. A few members of some households did get employment from either the concessions or the MCPA offices and they were able to sustain their families' basic needs; they reported that their lives had changed because they were able to educate their children, feed their family and acquire other basic needs. In addition, through the financial profits accrued through the project, several public facilities were erected or improved (these are shown in the physical capital category).

In Kisumu Kenya (Figure 5.10), the community had direct economic benefits from the project. These findings concur with Lasso & Dahles (2018) study where the communities in Kemondo

island profited directly from tourism activities. The community in Kisumu were involved in income-generation activities in the project which earned them a daily income that sustained their families' basic needs. The members of the project had also started table-banking that earned them extra savings and provided them with loan facilities. The loans helped them in personal and household development as these loans made possible the accumulation of other capital assets, such as physical and human capital. As mentioned earlier, the daily earnings enabled table-banking through which some participants were able to purchase household items and educate their children.

5.6.3.2 (b) Social capital asset

Through the partnership with the SANP, the Makuleke communities had free access to Kruger National Park and were involved in wildlife conservation programs. Other partnerships were with three other concessions built eco-lodges and eco-training camp in the park. The concessions paid some annual contribution to Makuleke's trust fund. As shown in Figure 5.9, through the trust fund the communities were able to develop public facilities, such as lighting the streets, public library, and provide Wi-Fi and electricity connection to some households. One responded stated:

“Due to the lighting of the streets you feel secure walking at night and my children can even study at night because we now have electricity in the house. Life is better and easy”.

Those who were employed through the concessions were able to support their families' wellbeing, provide food and improve their diets. This statement was confirmed by a member, who said:

“At least I have a salary at the end of the month, and I am able to feed my family, buy them clothes and do other small things. I was able to pay Lobola (dowry) for my wife” he said, laughing.

The trust funds, however, were never enough to have a significant impact on all the three villages or every household. The Makuleke community also did not benefit by getting involved in any social groups, welfare or clubs. This explains the responses to the questions on social life changes that showed the majority of respondents claiming that there were no changes in their lives.

In Kisumu (Figure 5.10) the project (DECTA) kept the community together, through their daily tourism activities. These income-generation activities enabled them to enhance the wellbeing of their families, such as in health and education.

“At least I put food on the table every day and my family’s food diet has improved”, one respondent added.

The income from the tourism activities enabled them to be self-reliant; they became members of small table-banking groups and other social groups, such as the Savings and Credit Cooperative Organization (SACCO). In addition, participants interacted well with each other in their place of work and with tourists; they provided community services through food donation to Dunga Primary School, sanitary towels to Kit Mikayi primary school girls and bought groceries for widows in the village. These results depicted social life changes for the community members in Kisumu.

5.6.3.3. (c) Human capital assets

In the Makuleke Contractual Park project, the community members gained various skills (See Figure 5.9), and knowledge, such as cooking international cuisines, as well as wildlife and environmental conservations. These skills were only gained through employment in the concessions, such as Return Africa, Outpost Lodge and Kruger National Park. Other skills gained through such employments were connected to nature and biodiversity, as well as wildlife conservation. Some members also gained other human capital, such as tour-guiding through training by the Eco-training camp. The community members in Kisumu, Kenya (Figure 5.10) gained human capital through involvement in the project’s activities. Some acquired skills and knowledge in tour-guiding, boat-riding, fish-selling, fishing, dancing, table-banking and money-saving. Others were trained in tour-guiding, environmental conservation, safety measures and weaving. Generally, the human capital gained was the experience in all the tourists’ service-activities performed at the Dunga Beach and Kit Mikayi project. The qualitative results are demonstrated in the diagram below.

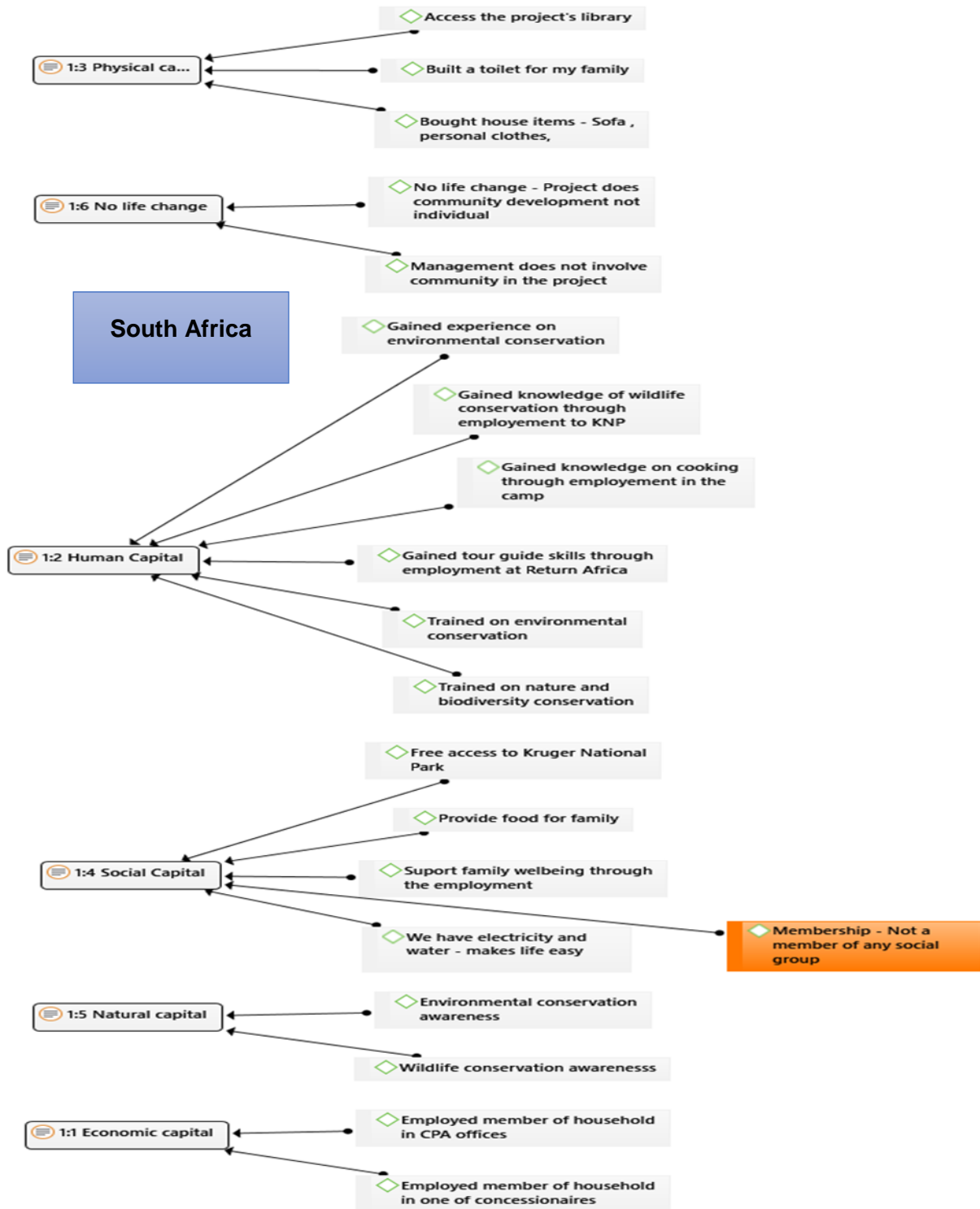


Figure 5.9. Life change after involvement in the project - Makuleke

5.6.3.4. (d) Physical capital

From the Makuleke project (Figure 5.9) the communities had built crèches for the children, sunk public boreholes in the villages and built community library. The library had WI-FI

installed with, therefore, the youth and learners were able to enhance their reading and research in the library. The community members now have water in the villages and their children do not have to travel so far to fetch water. Those community members in Makuleke who were employed by the MCPA office or the concessions have been able to buy household items, such as sofas, personal clothes and those of their family members, and build toilets for households. They stated that, although the salary earned was not enough to buy expensive items like motor vehicles or build houses, it was still enough to feed their family and cater for some basic needs. The community members now had access to a library where they were able to borrow books to read and research, thus, enhancing human capital.

The Kisumu project (Figure 5.10) built shades and benches for visitors (for a better view of the lake), although, the project members also rested on these benches as they waited for customers. The individual members gained some tangible physical capital because they were all involved in some income-generation activity with the project. Some stated that they were able to build new homes for their families, own motorbikes / bicycles, purchase household assets, such as couches, cows, goats, chickens, among others.

5.6.3.5 (e) *Natural capital asset*

The Makuleke community appreciated the natural endowments in the Pafuri triangle and this was the reason they agreed to leave the land for eco-tourism and biodiversity conservation. This marked the birth of the partnership with the SANP and the concessions who were going to put up eco-lodges/camps and conserve biodiversity. In exchange, the community were relocated to the Makuleke villages, hence, owning a new piece of land. The MCPA earns a percentage from the eco-lodges' annual income, and the community members were trained in nature and wildlife conservation; this partnership was also meant to stop poaching. The study established that a few members were able to be trained and are now well informed on biodiversity conservation; in addition, one very positive change from the partnership was that, poaching has reduced, tremendously.

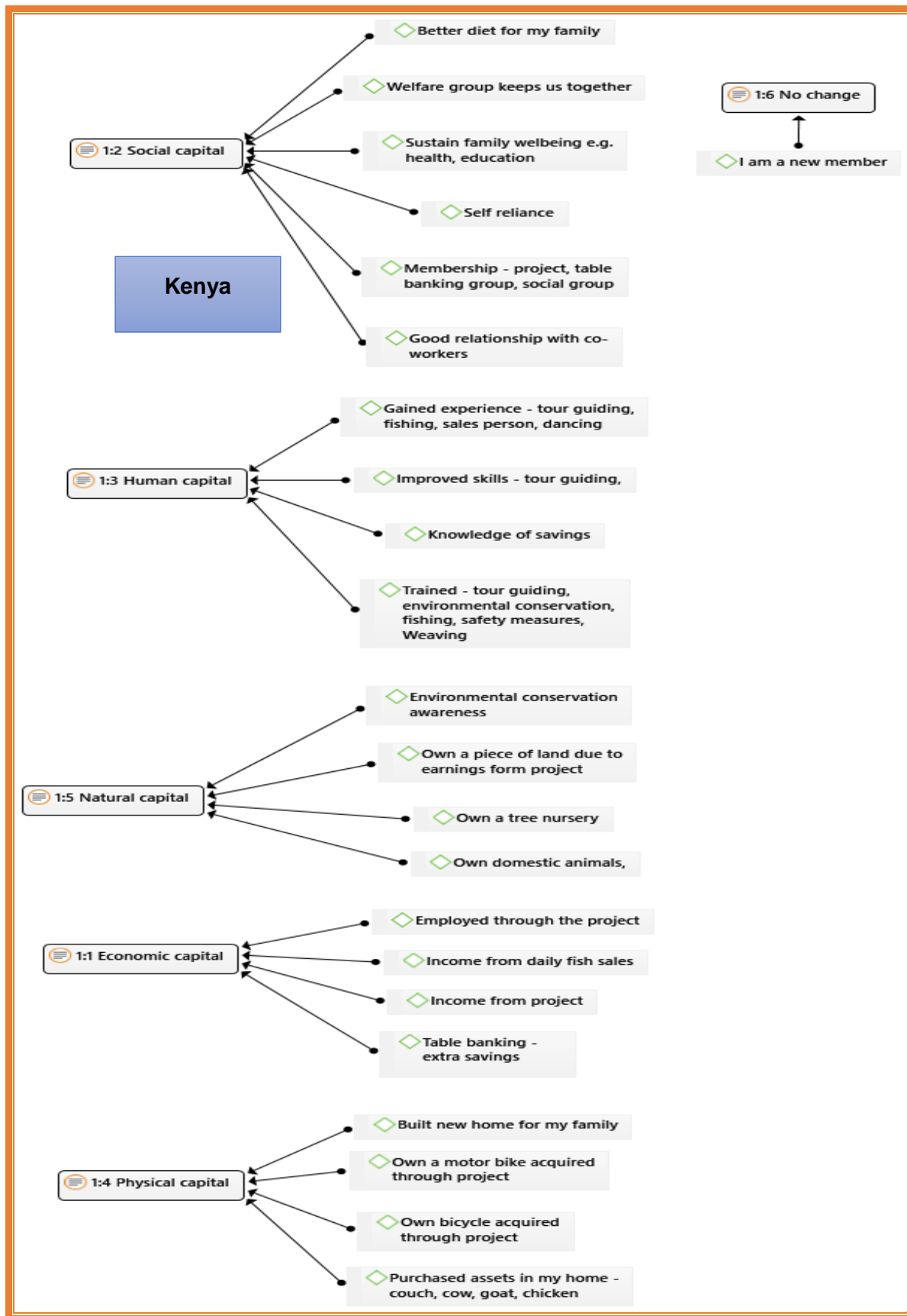


Figure 5.10. Life change after involvement in the project - Kisumu

The Kisumu community in Kenya also gained natural capital through involvement in the project. The fact that most of their income-generation activities were derived from the water mass of Lake Victoria and the natural Kit Mikayi Rock, shows that they appreciate nature and environmental conservation. The Beach Management Unit (BMU) had trained them on environmental conservation; the Unit also had an ecology training session for tourists who wished to be trained on ecology, thereby, boosting their human capital aspect. The project also owned and managed a tree nursery which supplied the surrounding communities with plants. Some members stated that through the earnings from the project as well as loans and savings, they had acquired family properties. One interviewee said:

“The DECTA Sacco gave me a loan which I used to buy a piece of family land and a calf

The results have shown that the Makuleke Contractual Park (MCP) project was a community-development project whose focus was on developing public facilities but not individual household-development projects. In comparison, through the income-generation activities in Kisumu, the community made use of the natural capital asset to make a living, acquire individual, physical as well as natural assets, therefore, their social capital asset improved. In Makuleke, the few community members who benefited individually from some of the capital assets were those employed directly in the project office or by the concessions. The implications of the results are that the Makuleke communities did not fully depend on the community-driven tourism projects as their livelihood strategy, whereas in Kisumu the respondents indicated a high dependency on the project as a livelihood strategy. The contrast here is explained by fact that with one project (Kisumu) the members earned a direct income, while the other one (Makuleke) they earned the income indirectly (through trust). There was co-management of the project between the concessions and the community in Makuleke, however, only a few individuals participated in the management and the operations of the project.

According to Waweru (2015), one of the factors that influences community participation in CDD is their desire for social-economic empowerment through asset capacity building. This was lacking in the Makuleke (MCP) project and the little that was evident, was unrecognized by the community. This was because the population had grown tremendously, and the project could only do a few development projects in a year. Under the leadership of the Executive Committee, the MCP project had built public facilities (*physical capital*) and provided some community services. The institutional structures and management did not initiate any income-

generation activities from any of the assets for the community, therefore, there were only a few tourism-related livelihood diversifications. Unlike Makuleke, the Kisumu project's structures and management provided an ambiance for the community to generate income from the natural tourist attractions. This observation is in line with Serrat, (2017) who argued that institutions and structures provide guidelines that enable people to transform one asset into another. Results recorded low participation in decision-making and management in both projects (*social capital*) which resulted in the communities failing to raise issues of concern. This confirms Tosun, (2006) argument that most tourism communities experience top-down, passive and indirect style of participation. Partial participation in project's activities, had resulted in non-utilization of tourism community assets for livelihoods by some of the members in Makuleke. These results confirm Stone and Nyaupane's, (2017) findings, that non-utilization of community assets result in the spiralling down of community capitals, hence, hindering tourism development. In other words, the membership in the project did not contribute to change in living standards of the Makuleke community as their lives did not change because of the community-driven tourism project.

On the other hand, through the income-generation activities in Kisumu, the community made use of the natural capital asset to make a living (*economic capital*), acquired individual, physical as well as natural assets, and their social capital asset improved. Due to participatory management, the community members were involved in the operation of the project, and decision-making. This encouraged them to form social groups, such as table-banking which enabled them to save and acquire loans for individual household development. The income-generation activities that the community involved themselves in did not require a high level of education; they only needed a basic skill to communicate well in English or Swahili. Furthermore, there was change in peoples' living standards due to project membership and participation, as was also noted by Waweru, (2015). The results indicated that the community in Kisumu benefited from the project, utilised it as a livelihood diversification and their living standards improved due to involvement in the community-driven tourism project. Similarly, some of the public facilities in Makuleke improved and people lived in a better environment with access to roads and provision of electricity connections to their houses.

It is evident from these results that the management of community projects determine the level of participation of community members in these projects and the amount of benefits that can be accrued by communities. This is because institutional structures enable accessibility of resources to communities and encourage them to participate in income generation activities (Scoones, 1998; Tao & Wall 2009; Shoeb-Ur-Rahman *et al.*, 2020).

5.7. Motivating capital for Community Driven Projects

Identifying the motivating capital for community-driven projects is essential so as to enhance the pillars of the capital. Once the project management structures are aware of the driving capital for a community, then they are in a better position to apply mechanisms that would enhance that capital. For example, if the driving capital is economic, then the project needs to create an ambiance for communities to initiate or engage in some income-generating activities for the community. When asked to state which among the capitals stimulated them into joining the community-driven tourism project, the majority of the community members (42.8%) chose economic capital as demonstrated in Figure 5.11. The community-driven tourism projects' contribution and the driving capital results indicated that the economic capital asset was key in the two projects under study and that members joined the projects because they wanted to improve their economic status.

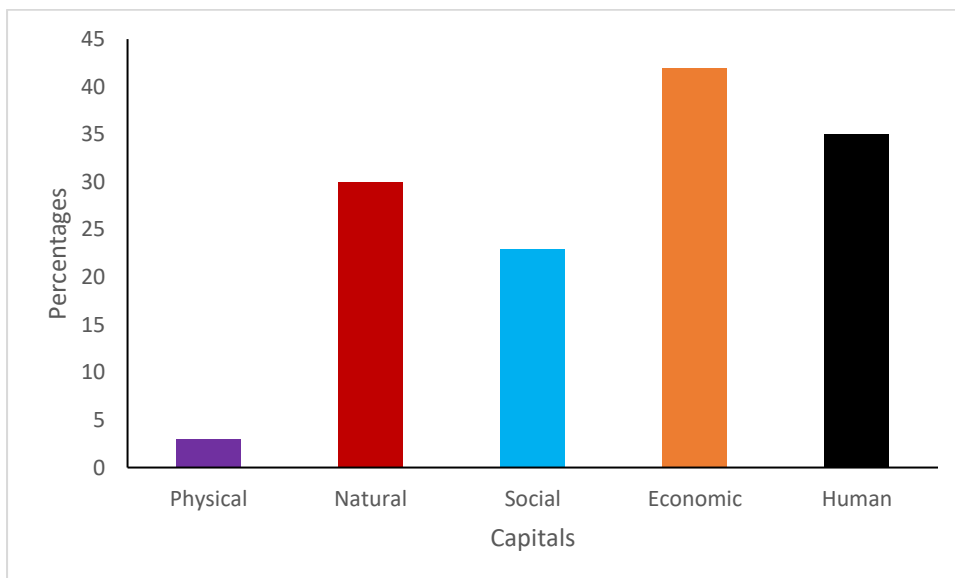


Figure 5.11. Motivating Capital

All the reasons given for selecting the other capitals were pointing to the financial capital as a driver for other capitals. Some of those who selected **Economic capital** said that from this,

they would at least have an income to support their families' needs. The 29.4% of respondents who selected **Natural capital** as a motivator mentioned that if the project had income-generation activities, then they would participate in the activities to earn a living for benefits, like buying land, or domestic animals. The participants who selected **Human capital** (35%) said that they had been trained as tour guides through the project and others noted that they were able to send their children to school because they earned an income through the project. For the 25% of participants selected **Social capital**, mentioned that, through the project, they interacted with one another, obtained earnings from the project which enabled them to join Savings and Credit Cooperative Organization (SACCO), and to access loans; others said that the project's income enabled them to join the table-banking group. Only 2.5% selected **Physical capital**. The reasons given were that the project had built crèches for their children, lit the streets for community safety and sunk boreholes. Others expressed their appreciation for the earnings from the project that enabled them to build homes for their families and purchase household items.

Due to the **economic** gains that came with involvement in these income-generation tourism activities, the communities are motivated to actively participate in the tourism projects. This resonates with Stone & Nyaupane, (2017) who argue that increased tourism income facilitates communities' participation in tourism development, hence, they became members of the project, interact, meet regularly to plan, and participate in social activities (**social capital**). This echoes the sentiments of Owuor, Knerr, Ochieng, Wambua, and Magero (2017) that membership in community groups is a determinant for participation in community tourism. Through such social groups, the community builds networks; for instance, due to the income earned from the tourism activities in Kisumu, the members formed savings and credit groups, such as table-banking or Savings and Credit Cooperative Organization (SACCO) that help them to save and access loans. The loans helped them to purchase household items both tangible / **physical** such as fridges, chairs and others and intangible / **natural** such as land and domestic animals, as well as build homes for their families. According to Kabit (2017), education and training are some of human capital indicators. The profits earned from the tourism activities and employment enabled the members to train themselves in tour-guiding, handcraft (sisal skirt making, Xibelani skirts and beaded jewellery) and boat-riding as well as educate their family members (**human capital**). These acquired skills enabled the trained members to work as tour guides, make and sell artefacts, thus, earning an income; this ploughed back **economic capital**. By identifying the motivating capital in the two community-driven projects, the study has displayed a systematic harmonized flow of assets from one capital to another hence creating a ripple effect.

5.8. Summary

This chapter presented the findings of the study which addressed the four specific objectives. The characteristics of the respondents were examined to analyze the family sizes of the households and the human capital they possessed. This was important because human capital is key in tourism development and in livelihood strategy-decisions. The tourism community capitals were identified and ranked according to their importance in communities' livelihoods. Guided by the community capital framework, the contributions of CDTPs to communities' livelihoods and how they had impacted on the people's lives, were also determined. The study also identified the motivating capital that inspired community members to participate in the activities of CDTPs. This motivating capital led to a ripple effect into growth of other capitals. Based on the livelihood contributions the projects had made to communities, there was need to assess the institutional structures and processes that managed the projects. The results on the impact that the projects had made on people's lives prompted an investigation into the motivating capital that drove the communities to participate in the projects' activities. The results presented and discussed in this chapter (chapter 5) are synthesized in the following section. The following chapter also formulates a community driven-tourism project framework for sustainable livelihood, draws conclusions for the study, highlights contribution to scholarship and makes recommendations.

CHAPTER 6

SYNTHESIS OF THE STUDY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1. Introduction

This chapter focuses on developing a synthesis of each objective's main findings from which main conclusions are drawn, and then the main recommendations drawn from the research. The main recommendation forms the base for the proposed framework for community-driven tourism projects' contribution to sustainable livelihoods of participants.

While there has been extensive literature on community capitals and tourism development, a gap still exists in providing a framework to guide a purely community-driven tourism projects which are not necessarily wildlife based, for maximum benefits and sustainable livelihoods for communities.

This study, therefore, focused on a purely community-driven tourism project in comparison with a co-managed-community tourism project. The Sustainable Livelihood Approach (SLA) was used in this study to provide a theoretical understanding of tourism community capitals, the relationships that exist between institutional structures and the community, and the community's utilization of the tourism capital assets that are at their disposal for their livelihoods. The sustainable livelihood framework (SLF) together with the Community Capital Framework (CCF) provided an extensive theoretical basis on which a more holistic community-driven sustainable livelihood framework for tourism was formulated. The Makuleke Contractual Park (MCP) project in South Africa, and the Kisumu's Dunga Eco-tourism Association together with Kit Mikayi project in Kenya were the case studies. An explanatory hybrid/mixed research method was used to conduct the study. The main aim of the study was to develop a framework to guide the operations and management of CDTPs. This chapter, therefore, presents conclusions and recommendations emanating from the literature reviewed, then conclusions of the findings relating to each objective. Implications of the findings as well as recommendations for each objective are also provided, finally, a conclusion of the study is made.

6.2. Conclusions and recommendations emanating from Literature Review

A lot has been documented regarding community-based tourism and how several people and communities in rural areas have benefited from it, although, scholars have also highlighted how many communities fail to benefit fully from such tourism projects. Some of the reasons for these failures are lack of community members' participation in the operations, management and decision-making in the projects. These have been resulting in unfair sharing of benefits causing the community members to be disinterested in such projects. Another conclusion emanating from literature is that every community has a motivating factor that drives them to participate in the projects and enabling capital that builds up other capitals.

Recommendations emanating from literature is that there is need for development of a proper tool or model to guide community projects, for members to achieve maximum benefits from tourism, for their sustainable livelihood. This study thus developed such a framework to guide community-driven tourism projects. Another recommendation is that there is a need to identify the motivating factor in every community and detect the enabling capital that builds up other capitals. In this study, the factors that drives the communities under study to participate in the projects as well as the enabling capital were identified. The following section provides the summary of the main findings, conclusions and recommendations per objectives.

6.3. Main Findings, Conclusions and Recommendations of the study per objectives

6.3.1 Objective 1: To Characterize Community-driven Projects' Participants and evaluate the Communities' Tourism Capital Assets

The study established that the majority of participants in this study were male, aged between 18 – 35 and this meant that they were mature enough to understand the issues around the project to participate in the study. They had basic education (minimum primary level) which was requisite for tourism-project operation. They were household heads with a family size of 6-10 for Makuleke and 1-5 for Kisumu; these family sizes necessitated a livelihood strategy. The participants also had skill sets which were relevant to tourism such as tour-guiding, craft-making, kayaking, cooking, housekeeping, marketing, accounting and leadership, among others. The study used the Community Capital Framework (CCF) by Emery & Flora, (2006) to categorise the Tourism Community Capitals in the two study areas. The community capital asset mapping results showed that the two areas (Makuleke and Kisumu) had plenty of natural resources that were useful for tourism development. The Makuleke site was endowed with

wildlife and beautiful sceneries that attracted tourists and the Kisumu area too had natural resources that the community utilized to create tourist income-generation activities. The tourist activities brought the participants together to form the Dunga Ecotourism Association (DECTA) project in Kisumu. In order to conserve the pristine nature and beautiful landscapes of the Makuleke Contractual Park (MCP), the Makuleke project was formed through a co-management between the Makuleke Community and private investors who operated eco-lodges within the MCP. The findings also revealed that the two study sites had physical facilities used for tourism, either as attractions or for tourist services such as hospitality, entertainment or recreation facilities

In conclusion the participants had competent human capital for tourism development. Having skill sets relevant for tourism activities is important for operation and management of community-driven project. The skills enabled the participants to acquire employments in the tourism establishments and to actively participate in various tourist activities that earned them an income. The fact that the two projects had brought the communities together and enabled them to form partnerships enhanced the social capital and created a bond among the members. The presence of the five capitals implies that these two sites had the potential for tourism development and livelihood diversifications. The study also concluded that males were more involved in the projects' activities as compared to female participants. This should be taken into consideration in tourism projects aimed at improving rural communities' livelihoods where women form most of the population.

6.3.2. Objective 2: To determine the Contribution of Community-Driven Projects to Communities' Livelihoods

An analysis of the contribution of community-driven projects to communities' livelihoods was achieved through ranking of the tourism community capitals in terms of their significance to communities' livelihood and detailing the projects' contribution to livelihoods. Findings from the study revealed that economic capital was the most important to the communities and that the projects had contributed economically to communities' livelihoods. For Makuleke, the project has created employment through the partnership with private investors (concessionaires). The concessionaires contributed 25% of their annual returns to the project's account. These funds have been used to build physical facilities such as the 5 cottages which are used as BnB and a cultural centre which displays the Makuleke culture. These facilities have generated income for the project and have created employment and income-generation activities such as selling of artefacts, and operation of small tourist businesses, such as restaurants. In Kisumu the project coordinated income-generation

activities using Lake Victoria and Kit Mikayi historical rock. The participants engaged in income-generating activities, such as tour-guiding, boat-riding and selling of artefacts. They had also formed micro credit and savings group through which they saved and borrowed money, some of which was used to start small and medium businesses, such as restaurants, recreation facilities (amusement park), selling of fish and curio shops. The Kisumu project had also organized a savings account, whereby every member saved 10% of their earnings which was shared among the members as dividends. In conclusion, the Kisumu project's enhanced social capital was instrumental in building a financial capital through savings, borrowings and entrepreneurship enhancement. Furthermore, both the Makuleke and Kisumu projects contributed to diversification of the economic base of the communities in these two areas. Another conclusion drawn from the findings is that through the projects, the natural resources of the two study areas were conserved and preserved for tourism. Poaching reduced in Makuleke and eco-lodges were established, and the project also preserved the pristine nature of the Makuleke Contractual Park. The Kit Mikayi Rock, as well as the marine life in Lake Victoria in Kisumu, therefore, have been preserved for tourism. The people of Kisumu utilized Lake Victoria for water-based tourist experiences such as sailing, boating, kayaking and fishing.

The partnerships and relationships (social capital) that the Makuleke projects established with concessionaires benefited the communities in terms of creation of employment opportunities, acquisition of new skills, and development of physical facilities. The income-generation activities in Kisumu established business relations and social networks which created trust and reciprocity among the members. The study concludes that participation in community-driven tourism projects is a viable livelihood strategy for households. The projects provided a livelihood diversification for these communities, therefore, the CDTPs need well-structured institutions and processes which are more livelihood diversification-based.

During the period of this research, the Makuleke facilities were experiencing low returns. This is because tourism is seasonal and destination products need to be marketed all the time to remain competitive. The study established that there was no marketing that was being done for the BnB and cultural centre, hence, the low turnout of tourists. Dependence on international tourists in Makuleke has also contributed to this downturn. This has resulted in non-reliance on the tourism project for livelihood. This study recommends attraction of domestic tourists to mitigate this, keeping the tourism products in Makuleke vibrant and diversifying economic activities for livelihoods. It also recommends proper branding and marketing of the attractions. The traditional leadership of the Makuleke need to revive the cultural activities so that tourists visiting Kruger National Park may make a stop at the Makuleke village to experience the

culture of the host communities. The communities need to make and display their beadwork and other crafts at the cultural centre.

For the Kisumu project, there is need for proper infrastructure. The roads leading to the attractions need to be repaired and possibly tarred for the comfort of tourists.

6.3.3. Objective 3: To assess the Institutional Structures and Processes within the Community Projects

Institutional structures and processes influence livelihood outcomes. The study established that the two projects had different institutional structures through which the projects had different outcomes. The Makuleke Contractual Park (MCP) project was operated through a co-management structure between Makuleke Communal Property Association (MCPA), SANP and private investors (concessionaires). The MCPA Executive Committee (Exco) which comprised of 9 members was mandated to act on behalf of the community to realise the objectives of the project. The findings revealed that through the partnerships, employment opportunities were created, youths were trained, the wildlife and other natural resources were preserved, poaching reduced, and infrastructure in support of livelihood, were built. This is evidence that the community benefited through the project, however, due to increases in population, the concessions have not been able to alleviate unemployment massively and this had resulted in disputes between community members and Exco. There was discontent about the management from the community members, and this affected their full participation in the project activities. The study also established that due to poor participation in the project's activities, such as operations and meeting attendance, many community members were left out in benefits distribution, decision-making as well as policy making processes. In Kisumu, Dunga Eco-tourism Association (DECTA) and Kit Mikayi project, was managed by the participants of different tourist activities at the site and was operated through egalitarian type of management; each section of the activities is represented at management. For instance, the tour-guiding section, boat-riding and restaurant owners, had a representative in the management board. The Joint Management Board coordinated the activities of the tourist attractions and kept records of these activities or services rendered and the persons who executed the services to the tourists. This reduced internal conflicts and increased transparency in benefit sharing. The tourist activities have encouraged participation and expanded livelihood strategies.

The main conclusion on this objective is that community participation in the project's activities is very important and the MCP members might need to re-think and come up with a stable

system of governance with an ambiance for creation of tourist activities. Another conclusion is that the MCP has management issues. The executive committee is a selection of individuals who are engaged in other responsibilities, therefore, are not fully committed to the welfare of the project. The study recommends restructuring of management of the tourism project in Makuleke. The tourist activities at Dunga beach and Kit Mikayi in Kisumu need to be sold as a package. It is easy for tourists to prepare and plan for a packaged tour because it is convenient for them, and they do not have to book for activities, separately.

A co-management system is capable of massive contribution to the community, yet a busy community with variety of tourist income-generation activities experiences more tranquillity with such a system, as seen in the Kisumu project. This is because livelihood strategies are individual household undertakings and not communally managed. The leaders of the projects, therefore, should initiate or encourage income-generation activities which would keep the project members busy, as they diversify household livelihoods.

6.3.4. Objective 4: To analyze the Impacts of Community-driven Projects on Communities' Livelihoods

The findings of the study show that there were some changes in the lives of participants of Makuleke and Kisumu tourism. For human capital, those employed through the project acquired new skills. In Kisumu skills were acquired in job training as different income-activities were executed. This resulted in better utilization of natural capital for tourist-income activities; this increased members' economic base, hence, causing formation of micro credit and savings groups which improved the participants' social capital. The Kisumu community utilized the natural capital (water mass from Lake Victoria and the Historical Rock) and created tourism activities that earned them a living. Tourists visit an attraction if they are aware of its existence and if there are services providers to deliver what the tourists require while enjoying the sceneries or the experiences an attraction may give. By participating in the tourism income-generation activities, the people provided services to tourists who visited the Kisumu attractions and in return they earned a living. The benefits from partnerships in Makuleke improved community's infrastructure (physical capital) and most households benefited from employment opportunities, hence, experiencing an improvement in the quality of lives. In conclusion, the CDTPs in both cases provided a livelihood diversification whose outcome was community wellbeing, reduced vulnerability and improved lives of the participants. The projects provided the communities with income opportunities which offered them of long term socio-economic benefits a sustainable livelihood.

Recommendations for this objective are; Considering that the Makuleke Contractual Park project has the potential for tourism income-generation activities through its Bed and Breakfast facility as well as the cultural centre which can be utilized for cultural exhibitions every day; there is need for community engagement in tourism activities in Makuleke. If well stocked with the people selling items and narrating the Makuleke history and culture, tourists will make a stop over as they visit Kruger National park to enjoy the culture. The leadership of the MCP needs restructuring to have a management which is fully committed to the project. The management needs to advertise the Makuleke attractions including the BnB and the cultural centre to have daily usage, thereby, motivating the community to be fully involved. Other tourism income-generation activities can then be created stemming from the cultural centre and the accommodation facility. Engaging the community members so that they can earn a living is key in any community-tourism project. The economic capital has been proven to be the motivator for participation in the tourism projects in the study. It is, therefore, critical to encourage communities to engage in income-generation activities (economic capital) that will develop other community capitals for sustainable livelihoods.

Considering the conclusions above, the study recommends that for communities to experience a positive change in their lives, they need to be involved in the management of the projects, participate in more income-generation activities, and utilize the profits to improve their human and physical capitals.

The following section provides a Table demonstrating a brief comparison of the main findings, conclusions and recommendations in the two study areas. The comparison assisted in drawing out the differences and contrasts in the two cases and the lessons that can be learned from each area.

6.4. Presentation of the conclusions and cross-comparison per objective and implications

Objective 1: To evaluate the tourism community capitals guided by CCF

Objective 1 (a) and 1 (b)	Findings		Main conclusions/Implication for Rural Communities
	Makuleke – South Africa	Kisumu – Kenya	
(a) Characterization of Community-driven Tourism Projects Participants	Main Characteristics		
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Male aged between 18-35, educated, Headed household, Family size 6 -10, Main source of livelihood – Grant 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Male aged between 18-35, educated, headed household, family size 1-5, main source of livelihood – income from tourism project 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Similar characteristics apart from source of livelihood and family size, requisite level of education for tourism operations, but tourism project was not Makuleke’s source of livelihood.
(b) Community Capital Asset mapping	Community tourism capitals (Human, Economic, Natural, Physical & Social)		
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A few skill-sets relevant to tourism (cooking, conservation, housekeeping, tour guiding, crafts making (human capital) Employment through project (Economic capital) Enormous natural attractions capital (Natural capital) Heavy investment in physical capital Established partnerships (Social capital) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Majority with skill-sets relevant to tourism (tour-guiding, craft-making, conservation, boat-riding (Human capital) Tourism income generation activities (Economic capital) Rich in natural attractions (Natural capital), A few physical facilities, (Physical capital) Established social groups 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Presence of Human capital in both communities - skill sets relevant for tourism with Makuleke registering a need for more tourism-related skills. The two areas endowed with enormous community tourism capitals. <p>The tourism capitals need to be well utilized and managed to contribute to communities’ sustainable livelihoods</p>
Recommendations for objective 1 (a) and (b): Characterization of CDTF participants and Community Capital Asset Mapping			
(i) Women need to be encouraged to participate in tourism project-activities.			
(ii) The tourism capitals need to be well utilized and managed to contribute to communities’ sustainable livelihoods.			

Objective 2: To determine the tourism projects' contribution to communities' livelihoods using CCF

Objective	Findings		Main conclusions/Implication for Rural Communities
<p>To determine the Community Driven Tourism Projects' Contribution to the Community's Livelihoods</p>	<p>Makuleke – South Africa</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Gained skills (tour-guiding, cooking, housekeeping, conservation and other skills relevant to tourism (IT, Accounts, leadership) (Human Capital) • Employment, few income-generation activities, Indirect benefits from trust funds (Economic capital) • Physical facilities for tourism (BnB), project office, cultural centre and vans. Other facilities that support livelihoods (boreholes, road repairs, class rooms, crèches, street lighting, library, Wi-Fi installation) (Physical capital) • Natural resources - (wildlife, bird species, beautiful sceneries – tourist attractions) (Natural capital) • Social - Partnerships, participated in some social activities (conservation programs, planning & management, decision-making), no social club or group 	<p>Kisumu - Kenya</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Gained skills (tour-guiding, cooking, housekeeping, conservation and other skills relevant to tourism (IT, Accounts, marketing, leadership) (human capital) • Employment, income generated from tourist activities, indirect benefits through dividends • Physical facilities for tourism (motor-boats, boardwalk, shady places for resting, amusement park, project offices, other community facilities (toilet, borehole and classrooms) (physical capital) • Lake Victoria, Kit Mikayi historical rock (used as tourist attraction, utilized for income-generated activities) (Natural capital) • Partnerships, participated in social activities (conservation programs, planning & management, decision-making), social groups (micro credit and Savings) (Social capital) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Both communities had gained some skills related to tourism • The projects provided some employment on both sites • Physical capital was acquired through the projects on both sites • Main implication here is that Makuleke gained mostly physical capital and because there were less income-generating activities they did not highly rely on the project for livelihoods. Their social capital was also low; they did not belong to any social clubs or groups • In Kisumu, on the other hand, the community utilized the natural capital assets for tourist activities by earning income from it, and building into economic capital which developed into human, physical and social capital assets • The Kisumu community relied highly on the project for their livelihoods • Kisumu members formed micro credit and savings groups. <p>Overall implication is that CDTPs are a livelihood diversification with outcomes of community wellbeing and reduction of vulnerability for rural communities</p>

Recommendations for objective 2: To determine the tourism projects' contribution to communities' livelihoods using CCF

- (i) More income-generation activities should be initiated in Makuleke.
- (ii) Communities should be encouraged to participate in social group activities for networking and building good relations, for marketing of their artefacts.

Objective 3: To assess the institutional structures and processes within the community-driven tourism projects

Objective 3.	Findings		Main conclusions/Implication for Rural Communities
To assess the Institutional Structures and Processes	Makuleke – South Africa	Kisumu - Kenya	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The co-management model of governance in which power, rights and resources are meant to be shared by all stakeholders did not seem to work well for MCP. • The 9-member EXCO makes decisions. • Not all stakeholders are involved in policy and decision-making. • Some dissatisfied members. • In Kisumu every member participated in an income-generation activity, hence, a daily earning
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Project operated through co-management • Partnership between MCPA and Concessions (SANP, Private investors – eco-lodges) • MCPA – 9 members of Executive Committee (EXCO) • Few community members involved in decision-making • Concessions contribute a percentage of annual return to the project's trust • Trust funds used for community physical facilities' development 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Project is operated through Egalitarian management. Different income-generation activities have group activity leaders who represent them in management. • Project members save 10% of daily earning into project's account • Savings shared as dividends 	
(b) Challenges in project operation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Dissatisfaction with the benefits distribution; for example, few job opportunities resulted in poor community participation in project activities • Mostly benefits were in community trust and were meant 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Dissatisfaction of entry requirements by some members • Members were required to have certificate of good conduct, knowledge of English and Swahili 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Major challenges in Makuleke were as a result of institutional structures, • Not many income-generation activities to keep project vibrant • Poor participation resulted in members' exclusion from decision-making hence missed opportunities

	for public facilities – members did not seem to understand that	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Stereotyping – women were not allowed to operate boats 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In Kisumu due to some members’ lack of conversance with English & Swahili it meant some days without income. • Due to stereotyping women were limited to selling fish
<p>Recommendations for objective 3: To assess the institutional structures and processes within the community-driven tourism projects</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> (i) Management committee should be derived from members. (ii) Community members should be involved in policy and decision-making (iii) Participants need to use their economic capital to enhance human capital (learn English or Swahili) (iv) The community-driven tourism projects have several stakeholders including the tourists themselves and the government. There is a need, therefore, for regular monitoring and evaluation by the government (Ministry of Tourism) to make sure that the conflicts within are sorted out amicably. (v) The Ministry of Tourism also needs to evaluate the constitutions and policies that govern these projects to make sure that they are attainable (vi) There is also need for the government to monitor and follow up implementation of the policies in the projects. 			

Objective 4: To analyse the impacts of community driven tourism projects on communities’ livelihoods

Objective 4: -	Findings		Main conclusions/Implication for Rural Communities
<p>To analyse Impacts of community- driven tourism projects on communities’ livelihoods</p>	Makuleke – South Africa	Kisumu - Kenya	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In Makuleke new skills were acquired, family wellbeing improved • Employment & income activities created through the project • The Makuleke community have livelihood support infrastructure and tourist facilities - clean water and access to many public facilities (physical capital)
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Human Capital – The majority gained new skills, due to project income, family wellbeing improved and there was better diet. • Natural - resources better conserved, preserved pristine 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Human Capital – new skills acquired, due to project income family wellbeing improved, improved diet • Natural Capital – provided income-generation opportunities, project owned tree nursery, 	

<p>(Life change due to project through capital lens)</p>	<p>nature and beauty of tourist attractions, poaching reduced,</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Economic – employment, tourism income-activities, • Physical - tourist facilities (BnB, and Cultural centre) and livelihood-support infrastructure (boreholes, good roads) • Social -Partnerships established, free access to Kruger National park, culture preservation 	<p>individuals purchased family land, domestic animals</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Economic – employment, income- generation activities, regeneration of income through savings, access to micro credit and savings, hence, livelihood diversification. • Physical – Tourist facilities, hence, more job opportunities and income-generation activities • Social – Trust & reciprocity, hence, formation of micro credit and savings groups, 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In Kisumu, the majority of the community benefited financially through the project's tourism income-generation activities. • This enabled them to earn a living, • Economic capital spiralled into other capitals, such as formation of social groups (social capital) • Utilized natural capital for income-generation activities • Participation in social groups • Acquired tourist physical facilities that generate income, individuals acquired physical facilities (built family homes) <p>In the two projects, there was community empowerment in the five capitals.</p> <p>In conclusion, the project contributed to communities' livelihoods as it provided livelihood diversifications.</p> <p>A motivating capital enabled the growth of other capitals.</p> <p>The institutional structures and processes in the two projects influenced the communities' livelihood strategies and outcomes in one way or another.</p>
<p>Recommendation for objective 4: To analyse the impacts of community-driven tourism projects, to communities' livelihoods</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> (i) For the projects to have a more positive impact on people's lives, the people need to be involved in operation and management of the projects. (ii) The communities also need to participate in more income-generation activities for better livelihood outcomes. (iii) The government needs to play its role in terms of provision of facilities and infrastructure, especially, roads that lead to the projects and attractions. 			

6.5. Implications of the Study

Drawing from the challenges encountered in the operation of the two projects and the lessons learnt from each project, the questions one would ask would be - *“What was the motivating factor for people’s participation in the tourism project? What was the enabling capital that spiralled other capitals? How did the enabling capital motivate other capitals?* Each project is unique and may have an enabling factor which might be different for specific project and for a specific community hence this necessitated an identification of the driving capital for the communities’ participation in the projects. In the following section, motivating capital for the two projects is discussed, both as an implication and also to fill the gap that exists in literature; many scholars have not identified this influencing capital that drives the community to participate in tourism projects.

6.5.1. Motivating Capital

Tourism community capitals are assets that enhance tourism in rural areas for community development. Stone & Nyaupane, 2017 describe a motivating capital as that form of capital that provides an empowering factor for other capitals to thrive. In this study a motivating capital is the very key asset that influenced the community to participate in community-driven tourism projects (CDTPs), or the key capital that drove them to become members of the tourism project. The findings of this study have showed that the economic capital was the main entry point for community’s participation in CDTP’s and for spiralling up other capitals.

The communities (Makuleke and Kisumu) selected Economic capital as their motivating or their driver for participation in CDTPs. In other words, the economic capital was the main influence in the project’s membership. The stability of life that comes with job employments, and the financial gain, such as daily income from tourist activities, were the main factors for choosing economic capital as the motivating capital.

All the other reasons given for selection of a capital of their choice was linked to economic capital. In Kisumu, the income-generation activities that were created from utilization of the natural resources (Lake Victoria) encouraged the respondents to participate in the activities to earn a daily living. They engaged in boat-riding, tour-guiding, fishing, and craft-making using papyrus, among other activities. The earnings from these activities and the employment that were created from these activities enabled the participants to form micro credit and savings groups to enable them to borrow and invest in physical assets, such as small enterprises (curio shops and fish selling) thus re-investing in physical capital. The formation of micro credit and savings groups enhanced their trust and reciprocity for one another, hence, improving on

social capital. Through the activities, the participants learned new skills (human capital) and were able to participate in more than one income activity such as tour-guiding and boat-riding. This resonates with Stone & Stone, (2019) who revealed that natural capital stock can be used as a tourism resource that results in creation of employment, hence, creating a financial gain (economic capital). This study also confirms Stone & Stone, (2019) findings that money from tourism activities is able to contribute to livelihood diversification and impact on other forms of capitals, hence, creating a spiralling effect on the capitals.

The Makuleke Contractual Park (MCP) project co-management agreement accumulated economic benefits through employment opportunities and financing development of community infrastructure. The physical facilities in Makuleke, such as the BnB and cultural centre created more employment and provided an opportunity for small scale enterprises such as restaurants and curio shops show re-investment. The institutional structures (political capital) enabled access to capitals and regulated the running of the projects. In conclusion, the economic capital motivated the communities to participate in the projects and that it also stirred development of other capitals, thus, creating a ripple effect. This study has affirmed that one capital can influence or fuel multiple capitals to build a sustainable self-supporting system for the community (Flora, Flora, & Fey, 2004; Kline *et al.*, 2019; Stone & Nyaupane, 2017). Figure 7.1 below demonstrates the ripple effect that was created by the economic capital as it influenced the other capitals to enhance the community's livelihoods.

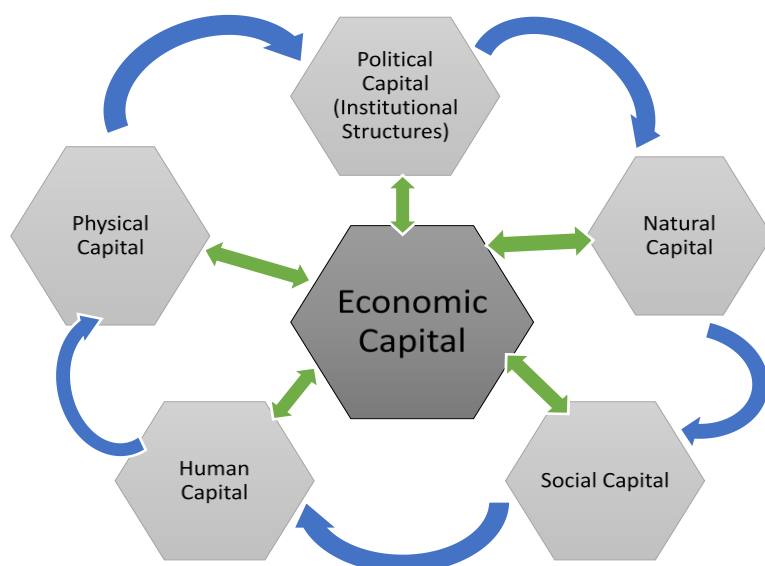


Figure 6.1. Main motivator influencing community capital spiral effect

Source: Researcher's own construction

In identification of the motivating capital, this study has contributed to knowledge and provided ideas to tourism policy makers and especially to community tourism developers.

6.6. Tourism Community Capitals Framework for sustainable livelihoods

From the findings of the study and drawing from the lessons learnt from the two cases and recommendations made, the framework to guide management of CDTPs has been developed as follows:

Sustainable Livelihood Approach (SLA) was established with the trust that livelihoods are sustainable if households can convalesce from shocks, while upholding their stocks of capitals (Scoones, 1998, DFID 2000). From the application and practice of SLA, CCF was introduced by Flora & Flora, (2004), to understand natural resource management in regard to poverty reduction and the dynamics of rural communities. The CCF has also been used as a tool to explain a systemic thinking of spiralling up community capitals for livelihoods. As was discussed in literature in chapters two and three, the community capital lens was used to understand tourism capitals' relationship, within protected area communities.

Participatory approaches in community-driven projects are meticulously connected to sustainability. There is a growing demand for communities' full participation in development as was displayed in chapter three. The tourism community capitals are the pillar for community's sustainable livelihoods, in rural areas. Making use of these capitals is therefore key for not only conservation of natural resources, preservation of culture and development of tourism in a destination, but also for rural communities' livelihoods.

As was discussed in chapter two, Flora & Emery, (2004) developed a community capital framework (CCF), to understand the flow among capitals and the impact of the flow towards community's capability to withstand the process of change in building social capital. Shem, *et al.*, (2008), proposed a Sustainable Tourism Livelihoods Approach (STLA) that suggested that a community participation concept be added as an institutional asset. Tao & Wall 2009 adopted Scoone's 1998 the Sustainable Livelihood Framework to formulate one for tourism, portraying tourism as a livelihood strategy. Chapter two also demonstrated how various scholars, such as Stone & Nyaupane 2017 CCF to assess the dynamic linkages between the capitals and the spiraling of community livelihoods through a systematic thinking perspective. However, despite all these frameworks and models, there seems to be a deficit in the framework that guides community-driven tourism projects (CDTPs) in attempting to achieve sustainable livelihoods. Drawing from the findings and conclusions of the current

study, a Tourism Community Capitals Framework for Sustainable Livelihoods, which is possible for CDTPs, is proposed.

From the findings of the current study, it is evident that a successful CDTP has the community participating in the development process through access, proper use and management of the capital assets. A TCCF for sustainable livelihoods is therefore conceptualized with the community participation in the project as a key component. For example, in the current study, **economic capital** was the motivating capital that drove the communities to participate in the projects' activities of the CDTPs, in Makuleke and Kisumu. The institutional structures (**political capital**), formed from the community were mandated to assist the community in identifying this motivating capital which would encourage the communities to participate in activities around the driving capital or provide an ambiance for the communities to create activities that strengthen this motivating capital. Through these activities, relationships, trust and reciprocity were built (**social capital**), then talks around re-investment in physical tourist attractions (physical capital) started; this resulted in re-generation of revenue (**economic capital**) for the project and for individuals. Through the revenues collected through the tourist activities, advancement of members (**human capital**) is achieved such as through training in new skills which enabled the people to be employed in tourism establishments. The working relationships and trust kept the members together and strengthened the participation bond that was created by the CDTPs. The bond and trust stimulated creation of savings and credit groups which enhanced their livelihoods.

Drawing from literature and the findings of this study, Tourism Community Capitals (TCCs) are described as the tourism resources that the host communities are endowed with and the tourism activities that generate income, keeping them (community) together as they preserve their culture and environment, as well as providing a means of livelihood. The community-invested resources are divided into six capital assets and defined as follows: -

Economic capital : income from Tourism, for example, community-owned hotels and restaurants, camping sites/equipment, lodges, B&B facilities, collections from park/attraction fees, employment in tourism establishments, income generated from small-scale enterprises like curio shops, income generated from other tourism activities such as tour-guiding, boat-riding and incentives from cultural/traditional displays, like dances and songs.

- Human Capital : Abilities, capabilities and potential of individual members of the community in terms of tourism-related skills, such as tour-guiding, arts and crafts-making, languages known, hotel-related skills, such as customer service, food and beverage preparation, and knowledge or experience in tourism and hospitality operations and management, among others.
- Natural Capital : These are natural tourist attractions that are within the area or villages where the communities live and are owned by the community. These includes landscapes, wildlife, waterfalls, water bodies and mountains.
- Physical Capital : Human-constructed Infrastructures that the local communities have access to and are used for or to facilitate tourism activities. These include, land, roads leading to attractions or within the villages, schools, tourism and hospitality training centres, amenities and historical monuments or shrines
- Social Capital : Involves mutual trust, collective identity, being able to work together as a group, being able to maintain and conserve the cultures and traditions of a community, networks, trust, membership in community projects, membership in social groups and SACCOs.
- Political Capital : This capital may comprise the institutional structures and processes of the project. Community's ability to come up with rules and regulations that govern them in terms of tourism resource distribution, ability to mobilize groups for affirmative development action, being able to express and voice out their problems to authorities are part of this. Willingness to participate in tourism development processes, policy and decision-making, being able to manage and operationalize the community-driven tourism project are also included.

The findings of this study indicate that all the 6 capitals are useful to sustainable livelihoods. Drawing from the recommendations emanating from literature and the results obtained in this study, the following framework (Figure 6.2) has been developed to guide the management of CDTPs for attainment of sustainable livelihoods.

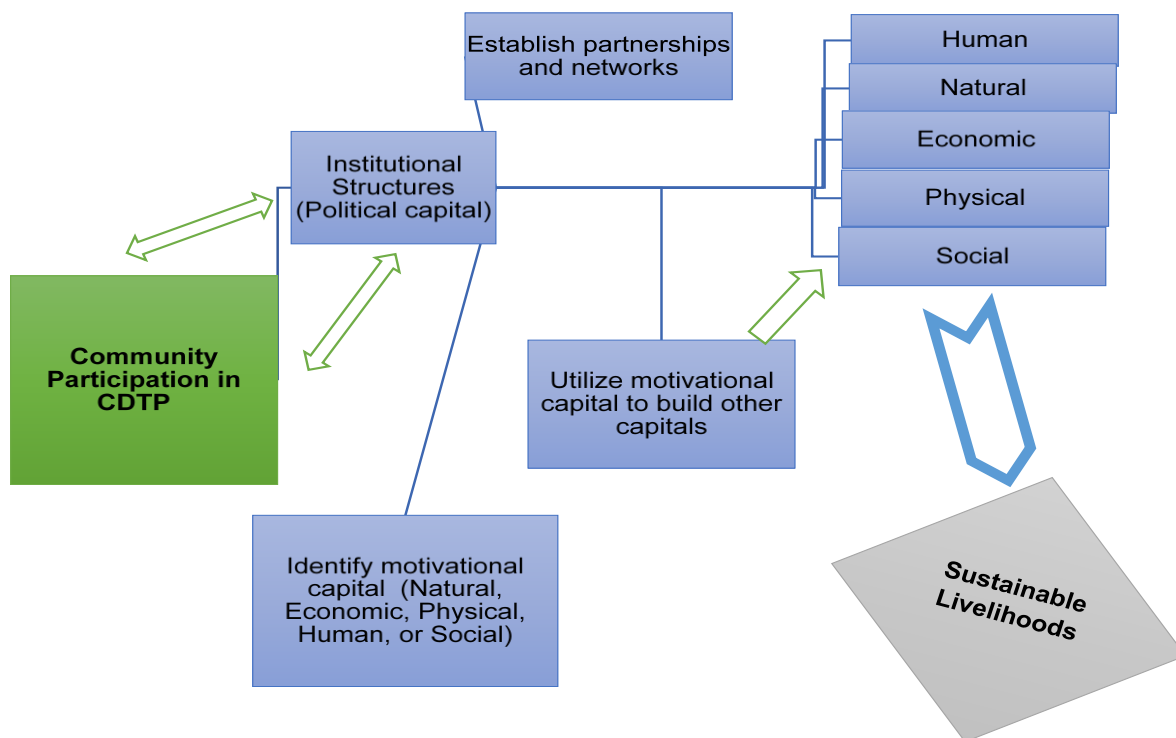


Figure 6.2. Tourism Community Capitals Framework for sustainable livelihoods

Source: Researcher's own construction

The TCCF should therefore be applied as follows:

First, community participation in these tourism projects is key, not only for the development of tourism in the area but also for making tourism a livelihood diversification. This is because most tourism resources are a common pool and the benefits are distributed if all stakeholders are involved in their development and management. As communities participate in CDTPs, the institutional structures (political capital) determine and influence the accessibility of the tourism capitals. The communities then, through the help of the institutional structures, should identify the motivating capital and utilize it to build other capitals to attain sustainable livelihoods. The tourism community capital assets interrelate with each other and that means that for sustainability of livelihoods, it is critical to make use of all capitals that the communities have access to, for sustainable livelihoods. As shown in this framework, community participation in CDTP is a crucial collective action that ensures community livelihoods' sustainability through resource use. Any capital may be a motivating capital in a community.

Devolution of power (political capital), stakeholder participation, capital accessibility and provision of friendly tourism atmosphere are essential for sustainable development of community-driven tourism projects. The political capital needs to be formed by the communities themselves. They know their needs better than anyone else and therefore they should be the ones controlling, managing and operating these projects. The management needs to be formed from the active members of the project not non-participants or some politician or elite members of the community; it is important for the management structures to be community oriented. There is need to identify the capital that motivates members of the community to participate in CDTPs and to encourage the community to engage in activities around that enabling factor. A balance among the capitals for attainment of sustainability is also critical.

This framework provides Tourism communities and leaders with a guiding tool for community tourism projects. It is also an addition to community development theories that exist in literature. It provides scholars with enhanced concepts on attainment of sustainable livelihoods.

6.7. Novelty of the study

6.7.1. Methodological and literature contributions

The Saunders *et al.*, (2007) research onion approach assisted in directing different steps of research in the study. The current study provided a step-by-step research approach on how to apply and peel off the different layers of the research onion on community-driven tourism projects. A comparison of two tourism projects, operated with two different management style and in two different countries, called for a well-thought out research methodology. The diversity in the projects' operations by community members with different levels of education and understanding, gave the stimulus for the in-depth qualitative approach in most parts of the study. During the first 2 phases of data collection, qualitative approach was used to gather information on some vital issues in the projects. This provided validation of the general framework and that provided certain specific elements that aided the development of the quantitative instrument which sought information on the participants' household characteristics and asset mapping. Desk reviews of the projects' constitutions and policies as well as in-depth interviews with both the management and selected community members gave insight into the operations of the projects as well as the impetus to interrogate the implementation processes of the constitutions. The quantitative data enriched the qualitative data in this study. For instance, some information gathered from the quantitative survey were incorporated in the

executive management's interview guide. The usage of multiple methods provided answers for some research questions that could not have been answered using one method. This is in line with Davis *et al.*, (2010) who emphasized that varied research questions may be answered by multiple methods as some results which may be concealed by one method can be revealed with a different one. This study, therefore, provided a layout of laborious methodological measures that can be followed when developing methods for assessing livelihood contributions of community-driven tourism projects. The theoretical grounding of the study, the lessons learned from the two case studies, the procedures followed in identifying the motivational capital and formulation of the framework have provided a lot of literature for future scholars. This contributes to literature for aspiring researchers who may be interested in carrying out research in similar areas or who might be interested to carry out research using multi-methods.

6.7.2. Community Engagement

The use of focus-group discussions and individual in-depth interviews actively involved beneficiaries of community-driven projects' formulation of tourism community capitals' framework, which would guide the management and operations of tourism projects. Participation of different cadres in the identification of the motivational capital for participation in the CDTPs imparted a sense of ownership in the tourism projects. This reflected community engagement practices, hence, contributing to engagement scholarship.

6.7.3. Tourism policies

The study also contributes to tourism development policies in several ways. The interrogation of several tourism planning and management typologies has identified some weaknesses in some commonly-used management strategies, in community-based tourism projects. This study provides information that may, successfully, guide community-based tourism developers. The Tourism Community Capitals Framework (TCCF) for sustainable livelihood may also be used by CDTPs' management for utilization of capitals for maximum benefits in projects and for the provision of sustainable livelihoods. Interrogation and identification of the weaknesses of the existing institutional structures for the two projects, facilitated an understanding of the underlying issues that bring friction between the management and

communities. The management may now examine these grey areas and work towards encouraging communities' participation for sustainable livelihoods.

6.7.4. National Strategies

One of the national strategies culminating from the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) is sustainable development. Sustainable development goals (SDGs) recognize that ending poverty must go hand-in-hand with approaches that build economic growth and address an array of social needs, including education, health, social protection, and job opportunities. The study has contributed to the National Strategies by providing insights on how to tap from the available resources for livelihood diversification and poverty alleviation. This study has presented a viable community-tourism project from which the communities are earning a living; they are able to educate their children and provide food for their families. The communities have grown the economy of Kisumu by engaging in tourism income-generation activities, thereby, alleviating poverty. The Makuleke project has financed public facilities such as health centres, libraries, crèches and lighting of the streets. It has also provided employment opportunities to the community, therefore, through the MCP, the face of the Makuleke villages has changed, due to public facilities that are developed from time to time.

6.8. Recommendations for further research

- (a) The current study had more participation by men than women, in both case studies. There is, therefore, a need for further research focusing on gender and participation in community-driven tourism projects so as to find out the issues that keep women away from full participation in CDTPs.
- (b) This study was carried out on the Makuleke Contractual Park project and the DECTA, Kit Mikayi projects. There is need for further studies to be extended to other areas and other projects within the two countries to identify other tourism community-participation motivating capitals.
- (c) The study formulated a CDTP framework for sustainable livelihood; there is a need for further research to test the framework.

6.9. Conclusions

This study focused on the MCP project in South Africa and DECTA, Kit Mikayi project in Kenya. The projects selected for this study were targeted for their explicit participatory approach. It is

important to note that even though the study compared the cases, its main aim was to present each as a unique example of the variety of projects and communities within which CDTPs function and draw out their livelihood sustainability strategies.

This study was informed by the Sustainable Livelihood Approach (SLA), the sustainable development theories and the Community Capital Framework (CCF). A hybrid research methodology approach was used to critically investigate and analyse community-driven tourism projects and the issues around their contributions towards communities' livelihoods. The Community Capital Framework (CCF) was used as a guide for communities' asset mapping. This helped to detail all the tourism resources the communities were endowed with.

The findings of the study reveal that there were similarities as well as differences in the two projects under study. The project in Makuleke South Africa mainly focused on public facility development (physical capital) with a few employments (financial capital) through the concessions. The Kisumu project, on the other hand, depended on tourism income-generation activities that spiralled into other capitals for communities' livelihoods. The main driver for the community participation in the projects was economic. The two projects had different institutional structures and processes as a result of which the communities experienced different livelihood challenges and outcomes.

The findings reveal that the institutional structures and processes influence the livelihood outcomes. These structures also tend to deviate from original agreements whose mandate is to guide the community to utilize the available tourism resources, manage them and maximize the profits accrued from the resources for their sustainable livelihoods. Instead, decisions are made from top-down and the communities never get a chance to voice their views, needs and priorities.

The study findings presented evidence that community-driven tourism projects which are purely managed and operated by the community, benefit the communities more, making it possible for the communities to draw their livelihoods from them. The impacts of these projects to communities' livelihoods is enormous and if well managed these CDTPs have the potential to sustain entire households' livelihoods.

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Appendices

Appendix 1 Ethical clearance

**RESEARCH AND INNOVATION
OFFICE OF THE DIRECTOR**

**NAME OF RESEARCHER/INVESTIGATOR:
Ms SM Matiku**

**Student No:
17000002**

**PROJECT TITLE: Community driven sustainable
livelihoods framework for tourism: A
comparative study between South Africa and
Kenya.**

PROJECT NO: SARDF/18/IRD/05/1106

SUPERVISORS/ CO-RESEARCHERS/ CO-INVESTIGATORS

NAME	INSTITUTION & DEPARTMENT	ROLE
Dr J Zuwarimwe	University of Venda	Promoter
Dr NN Tshipala	Tshwane University of Technology	Co - Promoter
Ms SM Matiku	University of Venda	Investigator – Student

**ISSUED BY:
UNIVERSITY OF VENDA, RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE**

Date Considered: June 2018
Decision by Ethical Clearance Committee Granted
Signature of Chairperson of the Committee: 
Name of the Chairperson of the Committee: Senior Prof. G.E. Ekosse

UNIVERSITY OF VENDA
DIRECTOR
RESEARCH AND INNOVATION
2018 -06- 13
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"A quality driven financially sustainable, rural-based Comprehensive University"

Appendix 2. Consent form

Research and Innovation
Office of the Director

RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE

UNIVEN Informed Consent

LETTER OF INFORMATION - MAKULEKE

Title of the Research Study : *Community-driven Sustainable Livelihoods Framework for Tourism: A comparative study between South Africa and Kenya*

Principal Investigator/s/ researcher : Matiku S.M. - PhD. Candidate in Rural Development
(Name, qualifications)

Co-Investigator/s/supervisor/s : Dr. J. Zuwarimwe – Co-Promoter
Dr. N. Tshipala - Co Promoter (Name, qualifications)

Brief Introduction and Purpose of the Study: *This study will be carried out in Makuleke Contractual Park which is a contracted park between the Makuleke community and the Kruger National Park (NPSA). The research is intended to collect views of the community and the park officials on the contribution of tourism to communities' livelihoods. The purpose of the study is to develop a community driven sustainable livelihoods framework for tourism.*

Outline of the Procedures: *The participants from the community will be randomly selected and expected to fill in a questionnaire and be involved in guided group discussions that will be constituted by the researcher. Selected participants will be requested to answer some questions in form of interviews. This research will ascertain and highlight the gaps that exist in the tourism policies and gaps in Institutional management of community-driven tourism in Makuleke Contractual Park. It will also identify the tourism investments that contribute to sustainable livelihoods of the community. Recommendations will be made based on the results. At the end of the research a framework will be developed to help the community derive maximum economic benefits from tourism. After attainment of the results and analysis, the researcher will return to the study area to give feedback to the participants.*

Risks or Discomforts to the Participant: *NONE OF THE ABOVE*

Benefits: *(To the participant and to the researcher/s e.g. Publications): Once a workable framework is developed then the community-driven project will accrue better yields which should be shared among all the stakeholders. The researcher will also publish articles resulting from the research conducted.*

Reason/s why the Participant May Be Withdrawn from the Study: *There will be no adverse consequences for the participant should they choose to withdraw. It will be a voluntary exercise.*

Remuneration : There will be no remunerations for participation in this research

Costs of the Study : The participant will not be expected to cover any costs towards this study.

Confidentiality : Names of participants will not be printed on the report. Participant's personal information will be treated with utmost confidentiality and the information given will be unanimously processed in study report

Research-related Injury : *(What will happen should there be a research-related injury or adverse reaction? Will there be any compensation?) This is a social research study and no research-related injuries are expected to occur.*

UNIVEN Informed Consent

Page 1 of 3

Research and Innovation

Persons to Contact in the Event of Any Problems or Queries:

Please contact the researcher Ms. S. Matiku (tel No.0714078434), my supervisor Dr. J. Zuwarimwe (tel no.0735142569) or the University Research Ethics Committee Secretariat on 015 962 9058. Complaints can be reported to the Director: Research and Innovation, Prof GE Ekosse on 015 962 8313 or Georges.Ivo.Ekosse@univen.ac.za

General:

Potential participants must be assured that participation is voluntary and the approximate number of participants to be included should be disclosed. A copy of the information letter should be issued to participants. The information letter and consent form must be translated and provided in the primary spoken language of the research population

CONSENT

Statement of Agreement to Participate in the Research Study:

- I hereby confirm that I have been informed by the researcher, (*name of researcher*), about the nature, conduct, benefits and risks of this study - Research Ethics Clearance Number: _
- I have also received, read and understood the above written information (*Participant Letter of Information*) regarding the study.
- I am aware that the results of the study, including personal details regarding my sex, age, date of birth, initials and diagnosis will be anonymously processed into a study report.
- In view of the requirements of research, I agree that the data collected during this study can be processed in a computerized system by the researcher.
- I may, at any stage, without prejudice, withdraw my consent and participation in the study.
- I have had sufficient opportunity to ask questions and (of my own free will) declare myself prepared to participate in the study.
- I understand that significant new findings developed during the course of this research which may relate to my participation will be made available to me.

Full Name of Participant	Date	Time	Signature
I,

(*Name of researcher*) herewith confirm that the above participant has been fully informed about the nature, conduct and risks of the above study.

Full Name of Researcher

Matiku Susan M.
..... Date..... Signature.....

Please note the following:

Research details must be provided in a clear, simple and culturally appropriate manner and prospective participants should be helped to arrive at an informed decision by use of appropriate language (grade 10 level- use Flesch Reading Ease Scores on Microsoft Word), selecting of a non-threatening environment for interaction and the availability of peer counseling (Department of Health, 2004)

If the potential participant is unable to read/illiterate, then a right thumb print is required and an impartial witness, who is literate and knows the participant e.g. parent, sibling, friend, pastor, etc. should verify in writing, duly signed that informed verbal consent was obtained (Department of Health, 2004).

If anyone makes a mistake completing this document e.g. a wrong date or spelling mistake, a new document has to be completed. The incomplete original document has to be kept in the participant's file and not thrown away, and copies thereof must be issued to the participant.

References:

Department of Health: 2004. *Ethics in Health Research: Principles, Structures and Processes*

<http://www.doh.gov.za/docs/factsheets/guidelines/ethnics/>

Department of Health. 2006. *South African Good Clinical Practice Guidelines*. 2nd Ed. Available at:

http://www.nhrec.org.za/?page_id=14

Appendix 3. Household questionnaire



PRIVATE BAG X5050 THOHOYANDOU 0950 SOUTH AFRICA

School of Agriculture
Institute for Rural Development

Hello, my name is Susan Matiku. I am a Phd. student at the University of Venda and I am conducting a study of the Makuleke contractual Park. The study is for academic purpose and your information will be kept strictly confidential. Your assistance with the completion of this questionnaire will be highly appreciated. Research Topic: *Community-driven Sustainable Livelihoods Framework for Tourism: A comparative study between South Africa and Kenya*

LIVELIHOOD DATA SURVEY FOR COMMUNITY MEMBERS

Name of Village: _____

A. Household Characteristics			
A1. Household information			
<i>(i) Respondents Age: (Please tick where appropriate)</i>			
(a) 18 – 35yrs	[]		
(b) 36-45yrs	[]		
(c) 56 – 65yrs	[]		
(d) 66-70yrs	[]		
(e) Other (specify)		
<i>(ii) Respondents gender (please tick where appropriate)</i>			
(a) Male	[]		
(b) Female	[]		
<i>(iii) Marital status (Please tick where appropriate)</i>			
(a) Married	[]		
(b) Single	[]		
(c) Divorced	[]		
(d) Widow/widower	[]		
<i>(iv) Household status (Please tick where appropriate)</i>			
(a) Head of Household	[]		
(b) Not head of Household	[]		
<i>(v) How many people are members of your household</i>			
(a) 1 – 5	[]		
(b) 6 – 10	[]		
(c) 11 – 15	[]		
(d) More than 15	[]		

B2.4b. Explain the reason for your answer above (C4b)

.....

.....

.....

.....

B2.5. Is there anything you think should be done to have the project collect more revenues

.....

.....

B3. Physical Capital

B3.1. How has the community contributed towards development through the help of the proje

(a) Built schools	
(b) Public boreholes	
(c) Purchased tour van	
(d) Buit a hotel/lodge	
(e) Other (specify	
(f) None	

B3.2. What contributions has the tourism investors done in the development of the village (infr

(a) Built schools	
(b) Built Health centres	
(c) Dug boreholes in the village	
(d) Bought tour van for the project	
(e) Oher (specify)	
(e) None	

B4: Social Capital

C. Community participation in the tourism project

C1. Nature and Characteristics of Tourism Investments in Makuleke Contractual Park

C1a. What are some of the tourism investments in Makuleke Contractual Park (please tick a appropriate)

(a) Hotels	[]		
(b) Campsites	[]		
(c) Wildlife	[]		
b) Landscape attractions e.g gorges	[]		
(d) Other (specify)			

C1b. Under whose management/ownership or control is the investment (please indicate if it owned by community, private owner, SANP, or other

(a) Hotels	[]	
(b) Campsites	[]	
(c) Wildlife	[]	
(d) Landscape attractions e.g Gorges		
(e) Other (specify)		

C2a. Are you a member of the Makuleke Communal Property Association (MCPA)?

Yes [] No. []

B1.5. How are matters affecting you personally addressed in the project?			
(a) Through consensus			
(b) Consultation			
(c) Management			
(d) Not sure			
(e) Other (specify)			
B1.6. Has your life changed since you became a member of the project (living standard)			
(a) Yes	[]		
(b) No	[]		
If Yes explain how		
If No explain why		
B2. Financial Capital			
B2.1. Income generation through tourism project			
B2.1a. Are you involved in any in income generation through the project			
If yes which one?			
(a) Sell of artcrafts	[]		
(b) Supply farm produce to hotels	[]		
(c) Traditional Song and Dance to tourists	[]		
(d) Tour guiding	[]		
(e) Other (specify)	[]		
(f) None			
B2.2. Do you receive any dividends from the tourism project proceeds (amounts collected through the office)		(a) Yes []	(b) No []
B2.2a. If yes What are the terms of payment?			
	<i>Please tick appropriately</i>	<i>indicate how much (R)</i>	
(i) Per day	[]	R	
(ii) Per week	[]	R	
(iii) Other (specify)	[]	R	
(iv) None	[]	R	
B2.3. Indicate the status of the Tourism Project income reliability			
(a) Very highly reliable	[]		
(b) Highly reliable	[]		
(c) Moderately reliable	[]		
(d) Lowly reliable	[]		
(e) None reliable	[]		
(f) Not sure	[]		
B2.4a. In your own opinion do you think the amount accrued from the tourism project is distributed fairly to all members		(a) Yes []	(b) No []

(vi) Source of Livelihood (please tick all appropriate)		
(a) Grant		
(b) Income from Tourism Project membership		
(c) Employed by the contractual park		
(d) Self employed (business)		
(e) Social Pension		
(f) Other (specify)		
(g) None		

B. Household livelihood capital assets: assets levels of livelihoods and vulnerability factors

B1. Human Capital

B1.1 Education level attained (Highest level of education) (please tick where appropriate)

a) Grade 1 – 7	[<input type="checkbox"/>]
b) Grade 8 – 11	[<input type="checkbox"/>]
c) Matric	[<input type="checkbox"/>]
d) Tertiary	[<input type="checkbox"/>]
e) University	[<input type="checkbox"/>]
f) None	[<input type="checkbox"/>]
g) Any other (specify)	[<input type="checkbox"/>]

B1.2 Skills Competency: What is your current competency? (personal skills either traditional or modern)

(a) Technical Skills (specify)	[<input type="checkbox"/>]
(b) Arts & Crafts (specify which one)	[<input type="checkbox"/>]
(c) Marketing skills	[<input type="checkbox"/>]
(d) None	[<input type="checkbox"/>]	
(e) Any other (specify)		

B1.3. What were the skills support received from the project (Makuleke Contractual Park)

(a) Tour guiding Training	[<input type="checkbox"/>]
(b) Tourism Planning	[<input type="checkbox"/>]
(c) Numeracy literacy	[<input type="checkbox"/>]
(d) None at all	[<input type="checkbox"/>]
(e) Environmental conservation	[<input type="checkbox"/>]
(f) Other (specify)	[<input type="checkbox"/>]

B1.4 What have you gained as a result of being a member of the Makuleke contractual park? Please tick where appropriate

(a) Tourism project management (Knowledge & Skills)	[<input type="checkbox"/>]
(b) Economic improvement (employment/more income)	[<input type="checkbox"/>]
(c) Social improvement (Education or Health)	[<input type="checkbox"/>]
(d) Improved food security (more food in the family)	[<input type="checkbox"/>]
(e) None	
(f) Any other (specify).....	
.....	
.....	

C. Community participation in the tourism project

C1. Nature and Characteristics of Tourism Investments in Makuleke Contractual Park

C1a. What are some of the tourism investments in Makuleke Contractual Park (please tick appropriate)

(a) Hotels	[]		
(b) Campsites	[]		
(c) Wildlife	[]		
b) Landscape attractions e.g gorges	[]		
(d) Other (specify)			

C1b. Under whose management/ownership or control is the investment (please indicate if it owned by community, private owner, SANP, or other

(a) Hotels	[]		
(b) Campsites	[]		
(c) Wildlife	[]		
(d) Landscape attractions e.g Gorges			
(e) Other (specify)			

C2a. Are you a member of the Makuleke Communal Property Association (MCPA)?

Yes [] No. []

If **No** explain the reason why you are not a member

.....

.....

.....

C2b. Who are the authorities that run or manage the Makuleke Contractual park

(a) MCPA []	(b) Chief/Headmen []	(c) Community []	(d) Other (specify)
--------------	-----------------------	-------------------	---------------------------

C2c. What is the criteria for selecting the management

(a) Balloting		
(b) Appointment by the Chief/tribal office		
(c) Volunteer		
(d) Any other (specify)		
(e) I don't know		

C3. How did you get to know about the Makuleke contractual park? Please tick one

(a) Introduced by Chief		
(b) Through a friend		
(c) Community meetings		
(d) Other (specify)		

C4. At what level do you participate in the operation of the tourism project

(a) Employed by the project		
(b) Cultural products (Traditional dances, Arts and crafts etc)		
(c) Conservation programs		
(d) Planning and Management		
(e) Community mobilization		
(f) Participate in policy making		
(g) Decision Making		

C5. Are you familiar with the MCPA constitution? Explain and give examples

.....

.....

C6. Looking back to the time before you started getting involved in the Makuleke contractual situation in comparison to now

(a) Much better off	
(b) Slightly better off	
(c) Not sure	
(d) Slightly worse off	
(e) Worse off	

C7. What are some of the bottlenecks that prevent community participation in Tourism projects

.....

.....

.....

C7b. In your own opinion what do you think should be done (and by whom?) to have more community become members of the MCPA and have full or total control of rural tourism projects

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

C8. Do you face any challenges in accessing (getting) the Project profits/dividends? Yes [] No [] explain reason for your answer

.....

.....

.....

C8b. In your own opinion what do you think should be done (and by whom) to improve the way the projet is operated/run and for the community to have access to the profits?

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

C9. What is the role of government in the operation of the Makuleke Contractual Park project?

.....

.....

.....

.....

Appendix 4. Key informants interview schedule



PRIVATE BAG X5050 THOHOYANDOU 0950 SOUTH AFRICA

**School of Agriculture
Institute for Rural Development**

Hello, my name is Susan Matiku. I am a PhD. student at the University of Venda and I am conducting a study of the Makuleke Contractual Park. The study is for academic purpose and your information will be kept strictly confidential. Your assistance in participating in the interview will be highly appreciated.
Title: Community-driven sustainable livelihoods framework for tourism: A comparative study of South Africa and Kenya

Key Informants

Interview Schedule guide

Gender Male [] Female []

Age (Tick whichever is appropriate)

(a) 18 – 35 yrs [] (b) 36 - 45 yrs [] (c) 46 – 55 yrs [] (d) 56 – 65 yrs [] (e) More than 65yrs []

Marital status

(a) Single [] (b) Married [] (c) Widowed []

Highest Level of Education

(b) Primary [] (b) Secondary but not matric [] (c) Matric [] (d) Tertiary []
(e) University [] (f) None []

Employment status

(a) Self-employed [] (b) Employed [] (c) Unemployed [] (d) Retired []

1. What are the tourism investments that exist in Makuleke contractual park? (the investments that the Makuleke contractual park control?).
 - (i) Landscapes - list them.....
 - (ii) Wildlife – list them.....

- (i) Tour Operators.
- (ii) Londges/hotels/Camps - list them.....
- (iii) Small and Medium tourism enterprises.....
- (iv) Arts and crafts.....
- (v) Cultures and traditions.....
- (vi) Any other (specify).....

1. The Makuleke Communal Property Association comprises the following (select all appropriate)

- (i) Executive committee []
- (ii) Community []
- (iii) Others (pecify []

2. How many members of the community are members of the MCPA Executive.....

3. How is the institutions (MCPA) structured? Is it inclusive, do they embrace gender and youth participation?

- (i) How many females.....
- (ii) How many Male Adults
- (iii) How many Youth (both male and female).....

4. What is the role of the Executive committee in the Makuleke Contractual Park Community Project

5. What is the role of the Community in the Makuleke Contractual Park Community Project

6. Does the management invlove the community in running and decision making of the project? give examples

7. Do you and the community understand the tourism policies that govern the operations of the contractual park?

8. In your opinion do you think the policies address the interest of the community? How? give examples

9. Are the policies implimented and at what level are they implimented

11. In your opinion do you think that the policies addresses the sustainability of the livelihoods of the community? Give examples of what the CPA is doing to ensure that
.....
.....
12. How much are the incomes (benefits) accrued from the Contractual park project (per year)? R.....
13. How are the benefits shared among all the stakeholders?
.....
.....
14. How much does each stakeholders/household receive from the tourism project?
.....
15. Are there challenges in relation to distribution/sharing of the tourism benefits and the operation of the project? Explain
.....
.....
16. What do you think should be done and by whom to mitigate the above said challenges?
.....
17. In your opinion would you say that the contractual park project is sustainable? Yes [] No [] Explain why you say so
.....
18. Are there any plans to initiate income generation activities where most community members can participate and earn a living
.....
19. What is the role of government in the operation of the contractual park project
.....

Appendix 5. Focus group discussion guide



University of Venda

PRIVATE BAG X5050 THOHOYANDOU 0950 SOUTH AFRICA

School of Agriculture

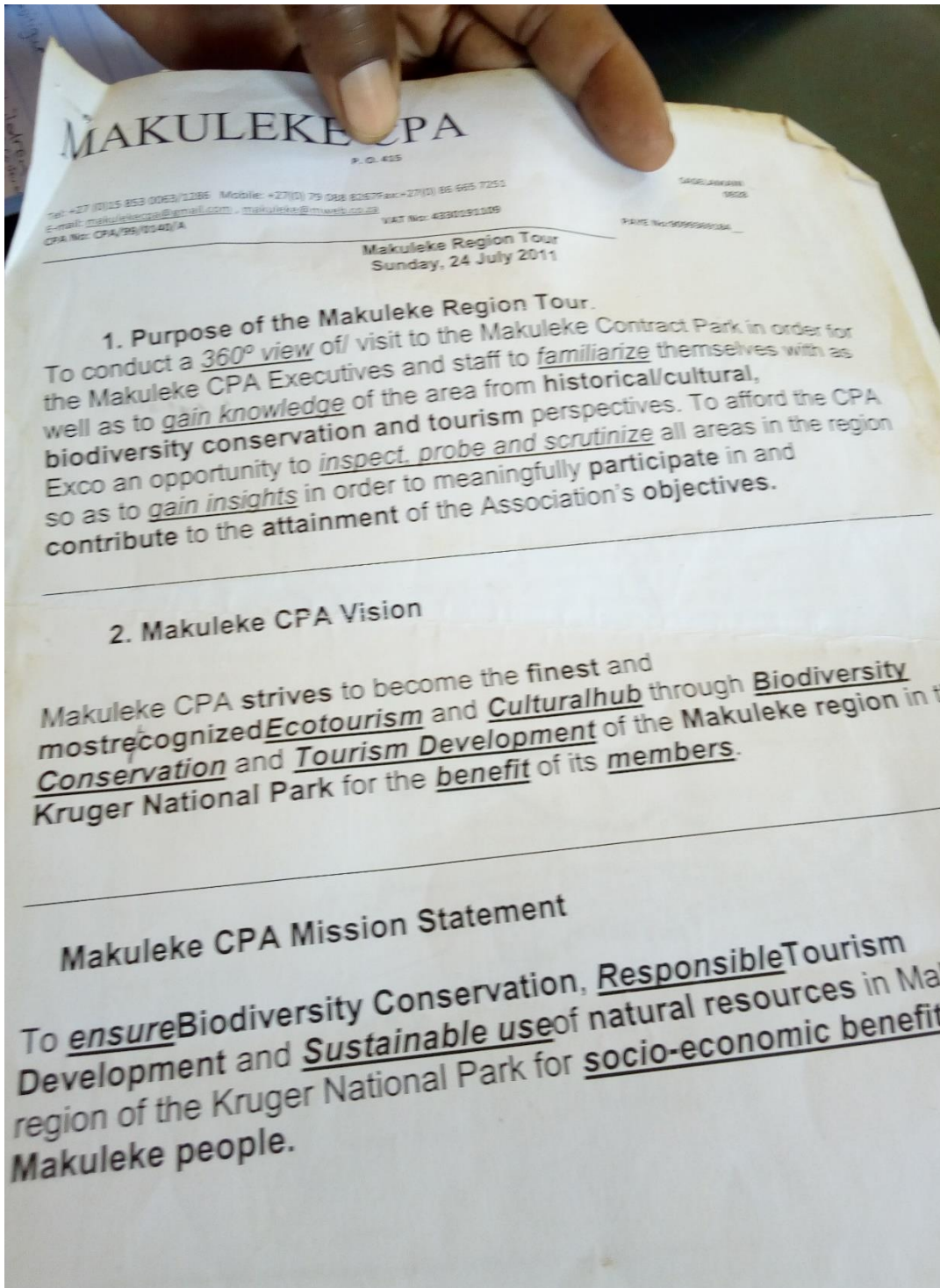
Hello, my name is Susan Matiku. I am a Phd. student at the University of Venda and I am conducting a study of the Makuleke contractual Park. The study is for academic purpose and your information kept strictly confidential. Your assistance in participation in the focus group discussion will be appreciated.

Community/household Reps in groups of 10

Focus group discussion guide

- 1) What capital assets do you own as a community (human, social, economic, natural)
 - 2) What capital assets have you gained through the project? As an individual, as a community?
 - 3) Are you involved in the operation, management of project? At what level
 - 4) (i) What Institutional Structures exist in the governance/management of the tourism project
 - (a) Does the management allow you to participate in tourism project operations e.g. decision making, management, policy making, ?
 - (b) Do they provide any training for (you) community members on the operations of the project (e.g collection of revenues, tour guiding, tourist etiquette etc.)
 - (c) How often do they call community members for meetings and do you attend meetings if no why
 - (d) What are some of the challenges the community faces when they want to
 - (i) access any capitals
 - (ii) access any information regarding the operations and the revenues from the project
 - 5) About how much does each household receive from the tourism collection in a day/month??
 - (b) Is the amount received from the tourism project enough for household expenses??
- Any suggestions to make the project better?

Appendix 6. Makuleke Contractual Park (MCP) project documents



MCP purpose, Mission and vision

Annexure A (Background and geographic Focus & Map of the Makuleke Region)

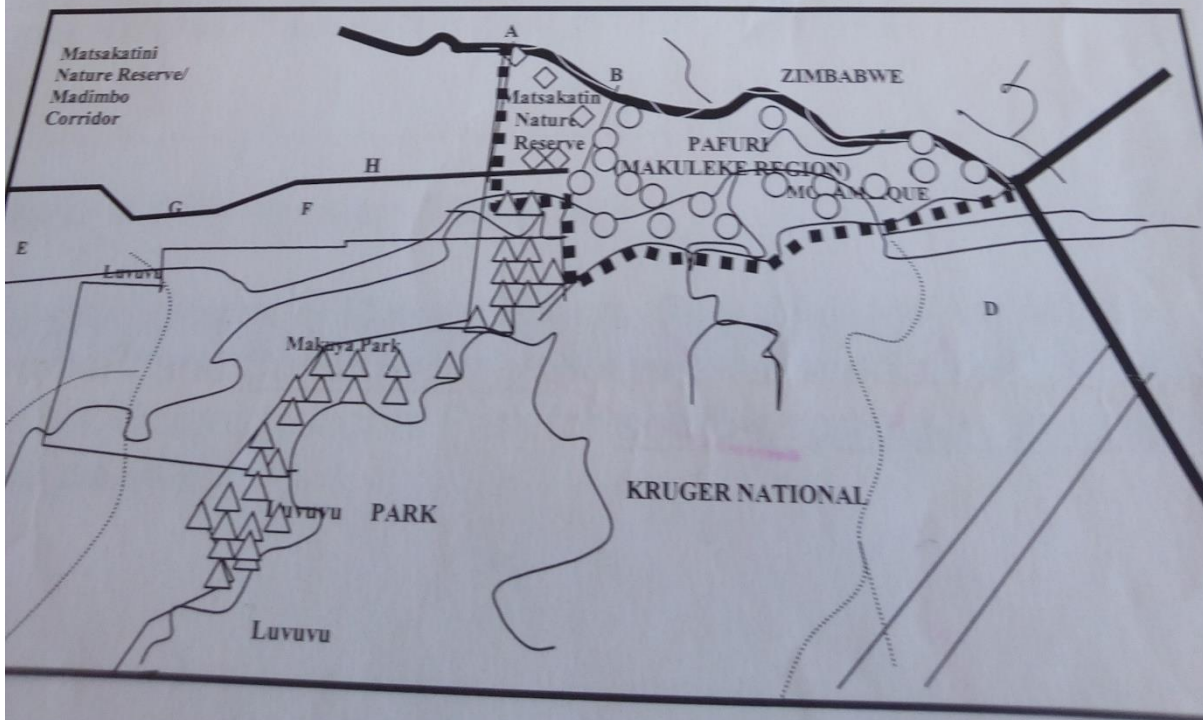
1. Background of the Makuleke region

The origins of the Makuleke Region, formerly known as Pafuri triangle, for example, can be traced to land dispossession and forced removal in the 1960s so that the land could be incorporated into Kruger National Park. The Makuleke community regained the title to the land in 1998 after a restitution of the land rights process. The community then decided to retain the land as part of Kruger National Park to be co-managed by the Makuleke community and the South African National Parks through the Joint Management Board (JMB) for the purpose of conservation and related economic development. The Makuleke region has just been declared as the 18th Ramsar site (Wetland of International Importance) worldwide and first Ramsar site owned by a community. The area is regarded as the biological hotspot in the whole of Kruger National Park and forms part of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park (GLTP). Today, the Makuleke region boasts two upmarket lodges namely, The Outpost and Pafuri camp as well as a wildlife college called the EcoTraining.

2. Geographic focus

This area lies in the northernmost corner of the Kruger National Park bordering upon Zimbabwe and Mozambique. Bordered by the Limpopo River in the north, Luvuvhu River in the south and Mutale River in the west, it contains the lion's share of KNP's biodiversity. The land is elevated in the west, narrowing in width and decreasing in height towards the junction of the two flanking rivers i.e. the Luvuvhu and Limpopo. At the confluence of these two rivers, the area culminates in extensive floodplains. The Makuleke region is part of the Lowveld, which lies at an altitude of between 547 and 152 meters above sea level, below the eastern escarpment of the elevated interior. It is flanked on the west by the Drakensberg and on the east by the Lebombo Mountains, directly north south. The north-south orientating of the Lowveld is absolutely transverse to the drainage pattern that is from the high interior directly to the east, (see the map of the Makuleke region below). The area is strategically the heart of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park comprising South Africa's Kruger National Park, Zimbabwe's Gonarezhou National Park and Mozambique's Parque Nacional do Limpopo.

3. Map of the Makuleke Region



MCP Constitution

Appendix 7. DECTA – Kisumu project activity documents



List of DECTA leaders



Boat-ride receipts



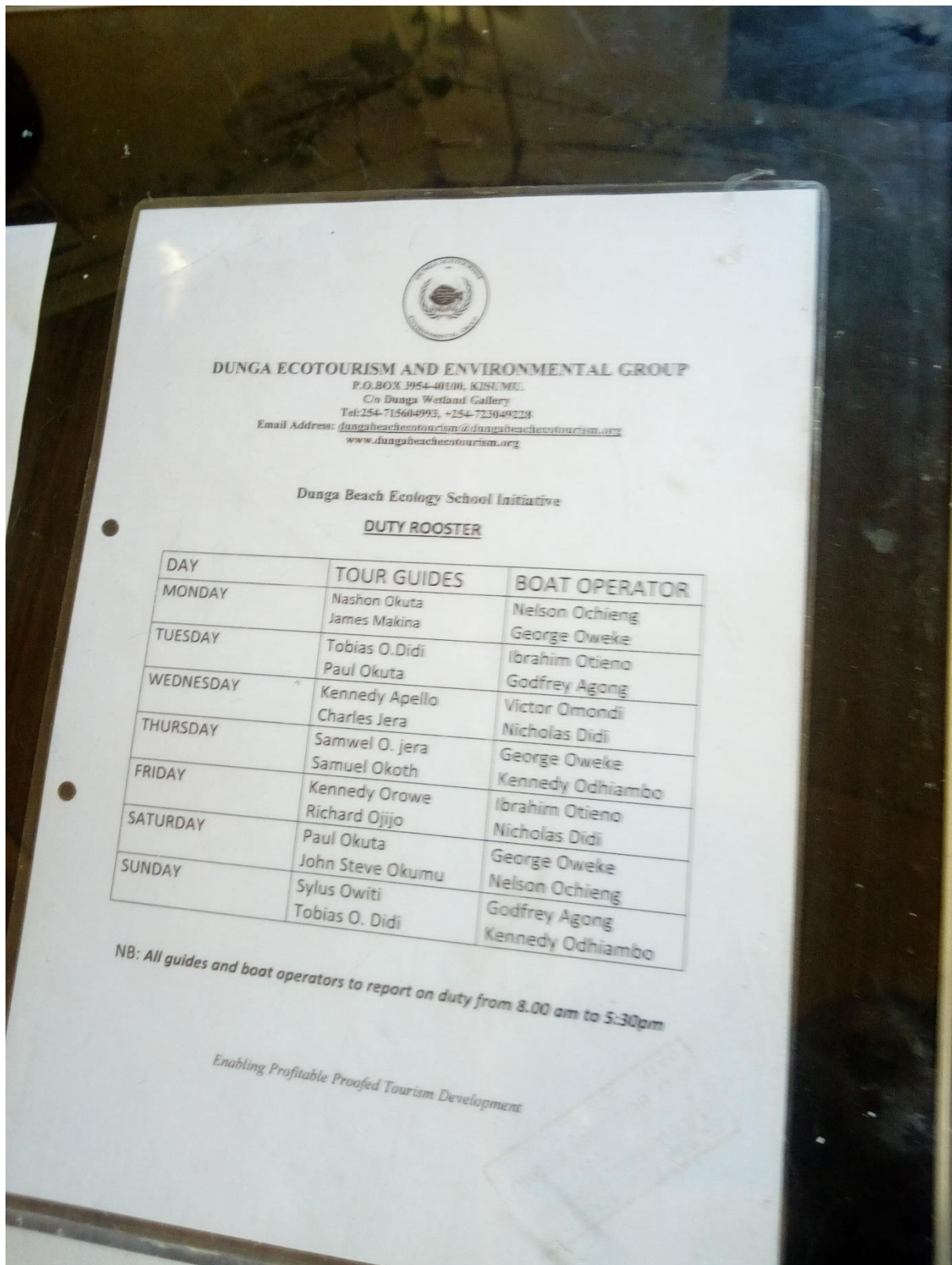
DUNGA ECOTOURISM AND ENVIRONMENTAL GROUP
P.O.BOX 3954-40100, KISUMU.

C/o Dunga Wetland Gallery
Tel: +254-715604993, +254-723049228
Email: dungaecotourism@gmail.com
www.dungabeachecotourism.org

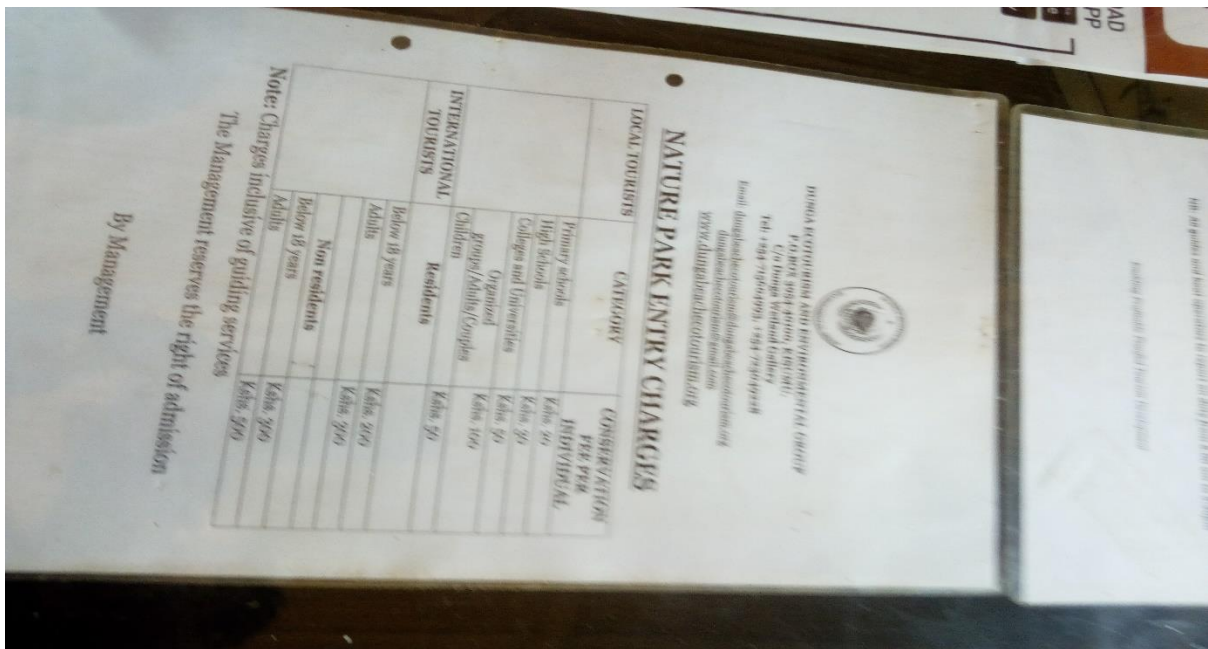
Tour guides allowance payment form – (September)

DATE	NAME	AMOUNT	COMMISSION	ID. NO	SIGN
	William Ochieng'	NIL	NIL	25290707	
	Erick Odhiambo	NIL	NIL		
	Victor Ndong'a	NIL	NIL	29988767	
	Lukas Odhiambo	500	100		
	Ibrahim Otieno	500	100	27493668	<i>[Signature]</i>
	Charles Jera	100	20	13889741	<i>[Signature]</i>
	Kennedy Orowe	1600	320	20592467	<i>[Signature]</i>
	John Steve Okumu	NIL	NIL		
	Samwel O. Jera	2600	520	22994714	<i>[Signature]</i>
	Richard Ojijo	150	30	24428496	<i>[Signature]</i>
	George Oweke	900	180	24421913	<i>[Signature]</i>
	Paul Okuta	100	20	20586770	
	Kennedy Okumu	NIL	NIL	26343449	
	Godfrey Agong'	NIL	NIL		
	Kennedy Apello	500	100	26205128	<i>[Signature]</i>
	Bernard Owino	NIL	NIL		
	Nashon Okuta	200	40	23965571	<i>[Signature]</i>
	James Makina	NIL	NIL		
	Samuel Okoth	NIL	NIL	30334879	
	Nicholas Didi	NIL	NIL		
	Tobias O. Didi	3080	616	13231543	<i>[Signature]</i>
	Michael Denga	1350	270	20086504	<i>[Signature]</i>
	Faith Adhiambo	NIL	NIL	33429026	
	Sylus Awiti	500	100	28090333	<i>[Signature]</i>
	Edgar Ochieng'	1200	240	31104570	<i>[Signature]</i>
	Victorine Obollah	2000	400	20086504	<i>[Signature]</i>
	Boaz Ochieng	150	30	26379812	

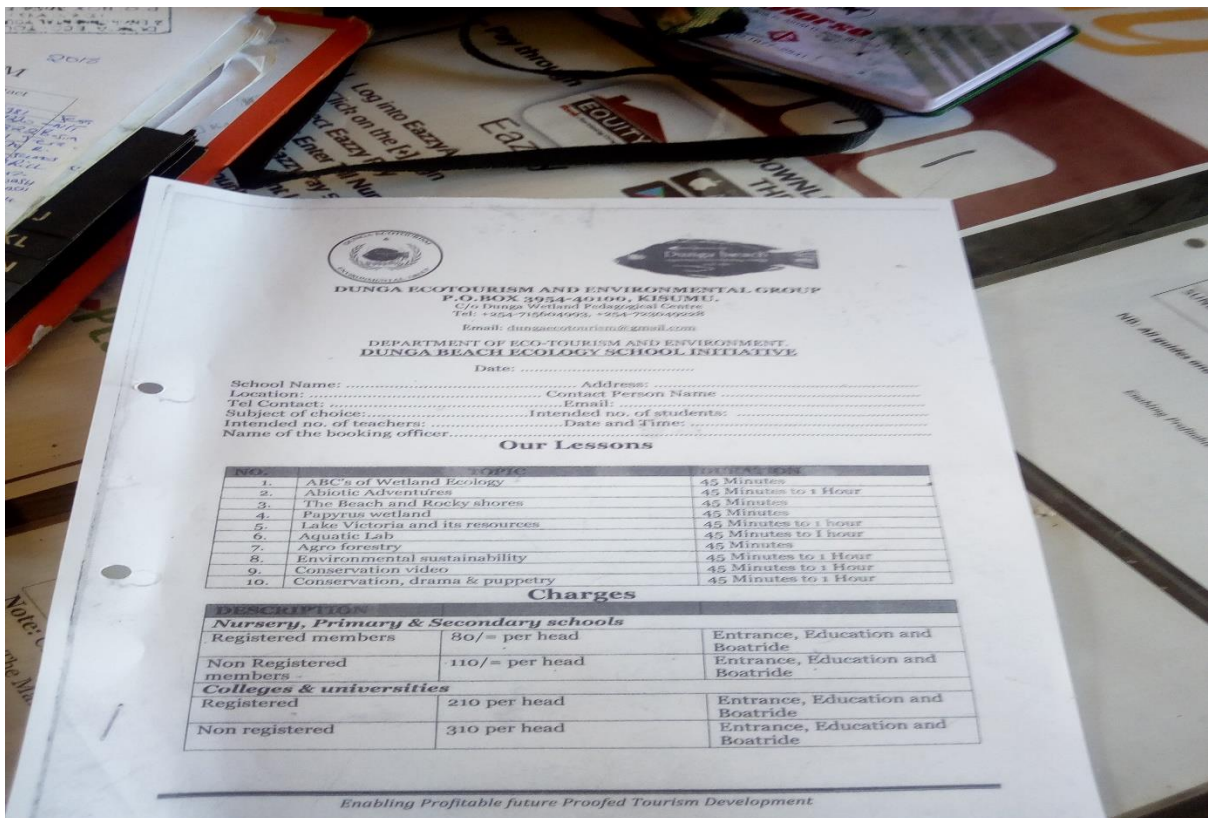
Tour guide commission payment form



DECTA activity duty roaster

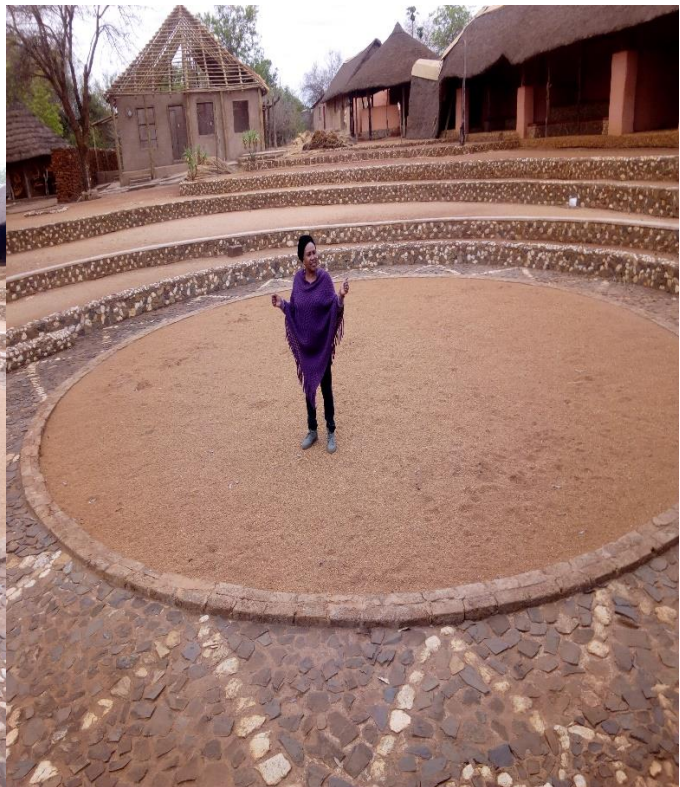


Nature Park entry fee record form



Dunga Beach Ecology school information form

Appendix 8. Makuleke attractions



Cultural Centre dancing ground



The Makuleke cottages – well vanished accommodation facility

Appendix 9. Kisumu attractions



Kit Mikayi Historical Rock



Kageso women dancers of Kit Mikayi - Kisumu



Table made of glass and hyacinth with traditional beaded jewellery on top



More jewellery





Appendix 10. Achievements of the projects (Physical capital)

(a) Makuleke



Makuleke Contractual Park (MCP) Van



Ongoing construction of Creche (next to a community hall) at Mabilingwe village

Achievements of project – Kisumu



Dunga Board Walk platform