



Me, myself and the Environment

Self-sufficiency of ecotourism projects in
the Lake Naivasha area, Kenya

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Tourists in a boat on Lake Naivasha. © Mark Auer

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Foreword

This study is a result of the collaboration between WWF Netherlands, VU University and the WWF office in Naivasha Kenya. It was initiated by the WWF Netherlands who recruited 2 students of the Environment and Resource Management Master's programme under the supervision of Pieter van Beukering to collect the necessary data during a 6-week internship in the Lake Naivasha region. At the suggestion of WWF Netherlands and WWF Naivasha self-sufficiency of ecotourism and community forestry were chosen as topics of research. This study serves as both a report on findings to the WWF Netherlands and as a thesis for obtaining a degree at the VU University.

The author of this report would like to express gratitude to Bart Geenen, Manager of International Projects for WWF-Netherlands, Pieter van Beukering, researcher at the Institute for Environmental Studies (IVM) at VU University, and the entire team of the WWF's office in Naivasha for helpful comments, guidance and support in data gathering and shaping of ideas. My thanks also go to WWF Netherlands for the financial support and to WWF Naivasha for their support with organizing interviews, logistics, and, when necessary, translation. Special thanks to everybody in Kenya who made this field study an exciting experience. I would also like to express appreciation for the team work and contributions made to this report by Wilfred Schilt. Axel Sturmman's editing comments were indispensable.

Abstract

This report explores the factors that contribute to the self-sufficiency of alternative livelihood options, specifically to community-based ecotourism projects. It bases its findings on the theoretical framework for success of alternative livelihood options outlined by Scheele & Tsaravopoulos in 2008. Similarly to these two authors, the author of this report has supported the theoretical conclusions through visiting the existing sites of the WWF Linking Futures programme in Africa. According to our findings, the self-sufficiency of ecotourism projects is enhanced through; addressing the assets of poor people that contribute to a) the financial feasibility of ecotourism enterprises, b) to the limitation of use of the natural resources, c) to planning for scaling up and reinvestment, and finally d) that the projects will not survive in the long run if the local population does not accept the idea of ecotourism as an option and if it does not participate in, and benefit from, the execution of it.

List of abbreviations

AL	Alternative Livelihood
CAP	Capital
FoKP	Friends of Kinangop Plateau
IDP	Internally Displaced Person
KFS	Kenya Forestry Service
KWS	Kenya Wildlife Service
Ndanamo	Ndanamo Economic Empowerment Group
Netbon	Netbon Ecotourism Site
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
NL	the Netherlands
Tugen	Tugen Cultural Centre
UN	United Nations
UNEP	United Nations Environment Programme
Ututu	Ututu Forest Cultural Centre
WWF	World Wide Fund for Nature

1. Introduction

Livelihoods of mankind have always depended on the use of the natural resources at their disposal. The way the resources were utilized has led to the rise and fall of empires and states. Unfortunately for human kind, we have not learned and therefore still do not use what nature provides in a way that allows for these resources to regenerate and serve the environment and us in the future. Growing populations which need to be fed exacerbate the vicious circle of poverty and natural resource depletion. Among suggested ways to alleviate poverty and address resource conservation are ecotourism, community-based forestry and differentiated agricultural production for the markets in mind. Ecotourism is often hailed as the means to increase income quickly by tapping into the growing tourism sector, while simultaneously being an incentive for communities to invest into the conservation of their breadwinner, the natural resources.

Impoverished communities in developing countries naturally cannot come up with the initial investment necessary for the setup of an ecotourism project. They also lack basic knowledge of the tourism industry nor do they always know what types of services tourists require. This is where external agencies step in. However, both NGOs and development agencies prefer to avoid dependency on their support, and want to see the ecotourism projects started by them flourish on their own in the long run. In a word, they prefer to see the projects become self-sufficient. The research question of this report has to do with exactly that desire: *Which factors are most relevant to a community-based ecotourism project's self-sufficiency?* In the report we use findings from the fieldwork conducted in the Lake Naivasha area in Kenya to present an example of the practical application of these factors.

This report starts with a general background that includes a description of the approach used in identifying the self-sufficiency factors and an analysis of literature on self-sufficiency of ecotourism projects. The report will then continue with outlining the site of the practical example, the Lake Naivasha area in Kenya. This area is one of the sites for the WWF's Linking Futures program that was put together to address poverty alleviation and conservation among other issues, which are outlined in the same chapter. This Practical Application chapter then demonstrates the self-sufficiency of a number of ecotourism projects in the area. We finish with conclusions and recommendations.

2. Background

2.1 Approach

We based our research on the findings of Scheele & Tsaravopoulos (2008) who in their report described in detail which factors can attribute to the success of an alternative livelihood (AL) scheme. This framework of factors has at its base the definition of alternative livelihood that the authors put together: *Alternative Livelihoods are newly-found activities for the people who live by, or in the proximity of, a Natural Protected Area. These new livelihoods are based on, and contribute to, poor people's assets (environmental, financial, social, human, and physical).* These assets are essential for the vulnerability reduction in poor peoples' lives as their presence improves the possibility of dealing with unprecedented circumstances. The presence or absence of a number of specific assets contributes towards the success or failure of an AL project. In order to make the process of identifying assets more easily applicable in practice Scheele & Tsaravopoulos put together a list of four categories further subdivided into 14 factors that can serve as guiding lights of success. (The assets and factors are succinctly presented in Table 2.2 and Table 2.3 and are explicitly elaborated on in Scheele & Tsaravopoulos's report "Alternative Livelihoods in Campo-Ma'an: Assessment Tools and Success Factors"). Although successful in assessing existing projects fully, these factors did not shed enough light on which assets and factors are essential for the AL projects to remain operational upon withdrawal of outside support.

The framework for our research is graphically presented in Figure 2.1. An intervention activity adds to assets by means of starting and/or contributing to the running of an AL scheme. This intervention diminishes with time as the local assets develop sufficiently for the projects to run on their own. Success factors (e.g. balance between public and private sectors, available partnerships, and dependence on multiple AL schemes) are a group within all the available assets, while self-sufficiency factors (e.g. financial feasibility or active participation in execution of the AL by the community) belong to both success factors and available assets. For example, the improvement of the self-sufficiency factor, *active participation in execution of the AL by the community*, increases/improves the success factors of *participatory appraisal* and *long term planning* amongst others. The increase of both the self-sufficiency factors and the success factors will in turn increase/improve assets and thereby reduce the dependency on intervention activities. The glass filling up in the figure represents the reduced vulnerability of local communities.

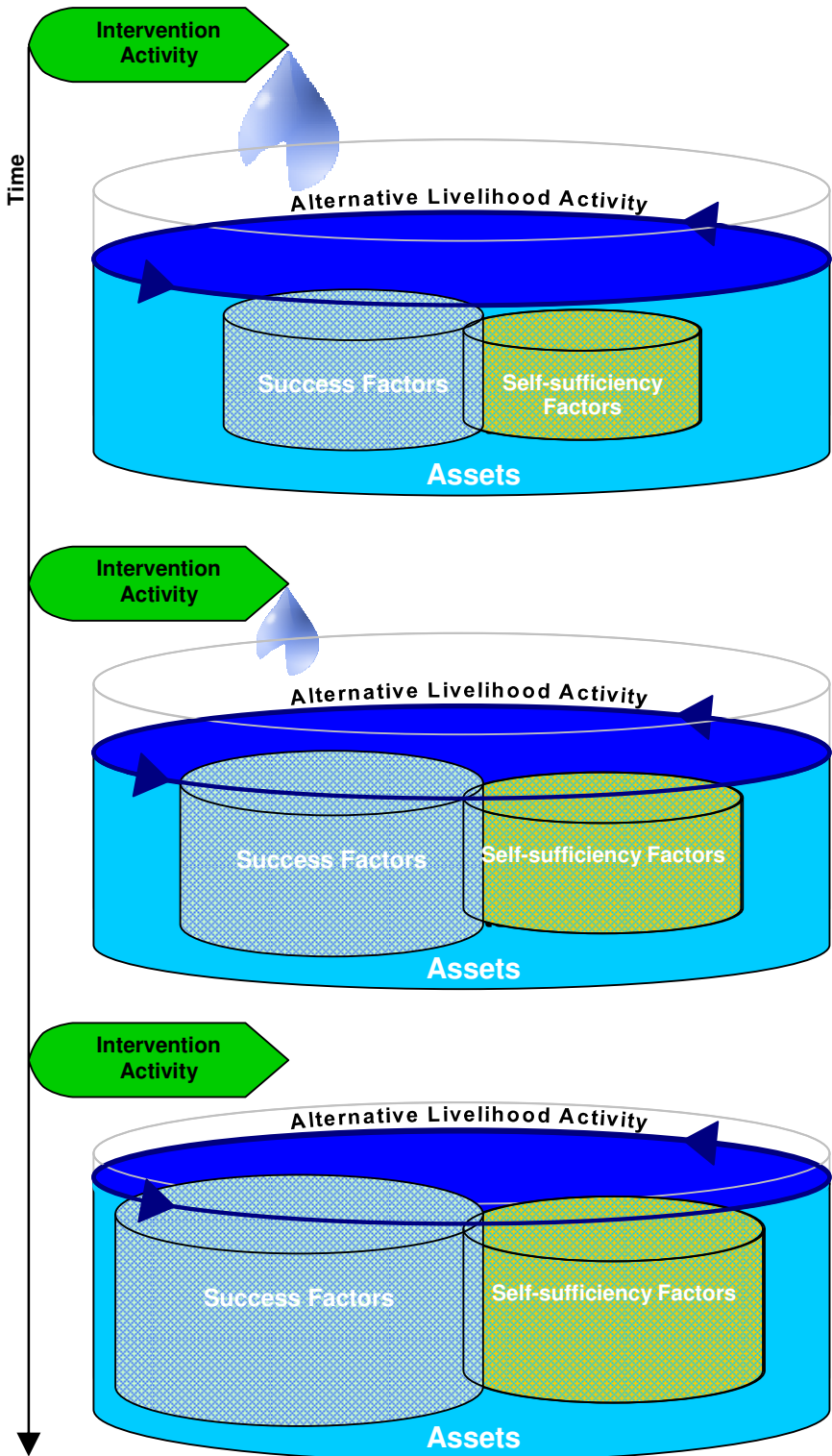


Figure 2.1 Framework of analysis: self-sufficiency of AL projects

In order to address this point we visited several ecotourism sites of WWFs' Linking Futures project in the Lake Naivasha basin over a period of six weeks. During these visits we conducted interviews with key stakeholders and focus groups for the purpose of both assessing the success factors of the current projects and to sieve out those points necessary for self-sufficiency. In total 32 interviews were conducted (Table 2.1) in addition to our participating in the daily activities of the local WWF office. The latter was necessary to try to determine whether the self-sufficiency gaps can be breached by the office team in the remaining time of the Linking Futures programme.

Table 2.1 Interviewees and number of interviews

Interviewees	Number of interviews
NGOs	7
Community-based ecotourism site participants	7
Tour operators and hoteliers	7
Academics	2
Consultants/knowledgeable stakeholders	9
TOTAL	32

Table 2.2 Poor People's Assets (Scheele & Tsaravopoulos, 2008)

Assets	Description	Examples
Environmental	available natural resource stock	land, water, forest available for subsistence exploitation
	environmental protection	starts with creating awareness about resource overuse-poverty connections
Social	social cohesion	networks relationships of trust access to wider institutions of society
Human	aspects relevant to quality of life	skills and knowledge ability to labour good health
Financial	possibility to trade and survive financially	access to markets employment opportunities dependence on more than one source of income
Physical	infrastructure and production equipment available to the community	amenities (water, energy, housing) communication possibilities roads means to set up and run an AL project

Table 2.3 Success and Failure Factors (Scheele & Tsaravopoulos, 2008)

Categories	Factors	Description
Key Design (Approach)	Information	Collection of information on prior examples of this type of project
	Incentives	Strong reasons for the community as to why start the project, including potential benefits
	Learning	Dynamic design process that includes learning from errors
	Multidisciplinary Team	This includes both disciplinary variety as well as local participation
	Partnerships	Partners (NGOs or companies) are helpful for the financial mean and for the know-how. Partnerships should be built on trust, ownership and joint commitment
	Long-Term Planning	Should be included at the initial stages. First results should be significant to demonstrate worthiness of the project to the community.
Implementation	Monitoring	Is important to make adjustments and corrections whenever needed
	Balance between Public-Private Sectors	Too much of either one lead to instability. The balance between the two coupled with the autonomy for management from the local people is best practice
	Connection to Markets	This includes both creation of the links and direct uninterrupted information on prices and trends
	Participatory Appraisal	This means active participation of concerned local people throughout the whole project
	Dependence on Multiple AL Schemes	This provides safety net for the project which creates feeling of relative security and enhances motivation
External Stability	Markets	Market stability for the offered projects is vital for the community since they are usually not experienced in economic affairs
	Peace	Political stability helps guarantee the running of the project in the long-run and improves the feeling of trust towards the partners
	Climate Change/Natural Disasters	Anticipation is the best defence. Here, reliance on different types of AL schemes is vital
Existence of Institutional Framing		Governmental and other institutional limits within which AL schemes operate

2.2 Self-sufficiency of ecotourism projects

For a developing nation not to choose tourism amounts to eventual death according to economists, but to choose tourism is also death according to anthropologists (Lanfant and Graburn, 1992)¹

The self-sufficiency of any activity requires for a number of conditions to be met. For community-based ecotourism projects the conditions comprise those necessary for any tourism activity (2.2.1), as well as those specific to the variously-defined ecotourism projects (2.2.2). For the purposes of this research we identified four categories of self-sufficiency of community-based ecotourism projects (2.2.3). In the following paragraphs we will present those factors in the literature that are assigned to each of these four categories; in 2.2.3(a) those assigned to financial feasibility, in 2.2.3(b) those assigned to limitation of natural resource use, in 2.2.3(c) those assigned to local acceptance and execution, and in 2.2.3(d) those factors that are assigned to scaling up and reinvestment.

2.2.1 Tourism and its self-sufficiency

Tourism is a popular tool for development and conservation. Its popularity is two-fold: both the developing and the developed countries supposedly profit from this activity. The poorer nations get extra income, which heightens their awareness of the importance of a natural resource and thus its protection (Trent, 1996; Alexander, 2000; Walpole and Goodwin, 2001). The richer nations gain through receiving intangible global benefits derived from resource conservation, which have a non-use value difficult to put into monetary terms. By using the natural resource in tourism activities price tags on that resource become more explicit (Goessling, 1999).

In order for tourism activities to start and to continue a few preconditions need to be met. According to Ashley et al. (2000) there should be sufficient *quality products* on offer. Landscapes, wildlife, heritage sites, recreation facilities, etc. are essential for a tourism site to receive a constant flow of visitors. Kruger (2005) adds that wildlife has to be more than just present, but be easily seen; and flagship species are preferred by visitors. Presence of adequate *infrastructure* is essential (Wells, 1992; Ashley et al., 2000). So are the presence and

¹ Lanfant, M.F. and Graburn, N.H.H. (1992) International tourism reconsidered – the principle of the alternative. In V.L. Smith and W.R. Eadington (eds) *Tourism Alternatives: Potentials and Problems in the Development of Tourism* (pp. 88–112). Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press.

variety of *services* (Ashley et al., 2000; NWHO, 1999). Once these conditions have been addressed tourism activities are more likely to succeed in the presence of *effective marketing*, *political stability* in the receiving destination, and *flexibility* to meet customers' changing demands (Wells, 1992; NWHO, 1999).

2.2.2 *Ecotourism and its self-sufficiency*

Ecotourism is a form of tourism with no clear unambiguous definition. A lot of attributes are named as being essential to the concept: conservation, education, local benefits, sustainability, low impact and closeness to nature. Some sources see proximity to a natural resource as important, some see ecotourism as the opposite of mass tourism and thus necessarily small-scale, and still some other try to incorporate the multi-faceted understanding of sustainability in the definition of ecotourism (Cater, 1994; Ceballos-Lascurain in ECOCLUB 2006; Weaver, 1999; Blamey, 1997; Fennell, 2001). In some form or another a natural resource and its use/conservation together with local communities' involvement seem to be the current academic consensus on the definition.

The self-sufficiency factors of an ecotourism project largely depend on the emphasis that the definition carries. If, for example, a supply-side nature-based definition is taken for a base, self-sufficiency will be achieved when addressing issues like possible hiking trail degradation. Similarly, a definition that is more pro-poor and demand-side is more likely to overlook conservation issues and concentrate solely on financial feasibility. For our report we use the all-encompassing definition by the father of ecotourism Ceballos-Lascurain: "environmentally responsible travel and visitation to relatively undisturbed natural areas, in order to enjoy, study and appreciate nature (and any accompanying cultural features – both past and present), that promotes conservation, has low negative visitor impact, and provides for beneficially active socio-economic involvement of local population" with the understanding that the needs of host communities, of the environment and of travellers are addressed.

With this definition in mind – coupled with the awareness that for [community] ecotourism to be self-sufficient it is important to have small-scale, local (or even family) ownership (Khan, 1997; de Kadt, 1992) as well as proximity to a developed country (Kruger, 2005) – we embark on the task of exploring the four categories needed for *community-based* ecotourism projects to be self-sufficient.

2.2.3 Self-sufficiency factors

To us, the self-sufficiency of an ecotourism project means that economic, social and ecological features translate into the independent functioning of a community-based project. Our understanding of self-sufficiency is related to the understanding of sustainability of ecotourism projects by Aylward et al. (1996) and a meta-analysis of ecotourism projects by Krueger (2005). Aylward et al. mention the importance of visitation, finance, ecology and economics. Krueger points out lack of steady stream of tourists, ineffective marketing, alienation of local population as some of the conditions that lead to unsustainability. De Haas (2002) examines the sustainability of community ecotourism projects along the same measuring stick of environmental sensitivity, socio-cultural appropriateness and economic viability. The four categories that we employ in our analysis are a) financial feasibility; b) limitation of natural resource use; c) local acceptance and execution; and d) scaling up and reinvestment.

2.2.3(a) Self-sufficiency factors: financial feasibility

An ecotourism project makes business sense if it creates *revenues*. Increasing revenues can serve as incentives for the project to continue. It is important to make a distinction between revenue and profits – ecotourism projects do not always arrive at a profitable outcome (Krueger, 2005). A steady stream of *visitors* (Aylward et al., 1996) affects both the revenues and the desire by the participants to see the project continue. This stream depends on the effectiveness of marketing strategies. For many community-based projects in developing countries word-of-mouth is the most reliable marketing technique, thus quality of services on offer has to remain impeccable. On the other hand, proximity to a developed country (Haas, 2002) also serves as a good guarantor of a steady stream of visitors. Furthermore, overnight visitor spend more than day visitors (Jones et al., 2009). Similarly, the more *nights the visitors spend* on the ecotourism site the more services they are likely to require and the more revenue is likely to be generated for and by the local community. Also, the more nights the visitors spend, the more the project (the community) is encouraged to offer to keep them entertained and visa versa.

2.2.3(b) Self-sufficiency factors: limitation of natural resource use

Ecotourism sites depend largely on the unique or pristine natural assets of the area. With each successful project the chances of the influx of imitators are high. This in turn can lead to degradation of the very resource upon which the projects rely. Thus, *development restrictions* (Haas, 2002; Aylward et al., 1996) are a useful measure to prevent the degradation. These can come in form of local policies or land management plans. Popularity and success of a

project can also lead to escalated numbers of visitors. *Control of visitor numbers* (Aylward et al., 1996; Krueger, 2005) either in form of setting up maximum allowances per time or through flexible fee structure is advisable to maintain the natural resource. These maximums are dependent on the carrying capacity of the area, which is a vague concept that is difficult to operationalise. 'Carrying capacity' essentially means the maximum number of individuals of a species which can be supported indefinitely by a particular habitat without causing irreversible damage (Aylward et al., 1996) and though exact numbers are of a mysterious nature certain thresholds need to be established. Weaver (1998 in Haas, 2002) claims that *environmental awareness* of both tourists and local population has an important impact on the careful use of a natural resource. Tourists are then likely to limit their current footprint while locals are likely to look out for signs of degradation that can negatively affect their livelihoods.

2.2.3(c) Self-sufficiency factors: local acceptance and execution

An ecotourism project has higher long term chances of survival if the local community knows what it entails and partakes in the managing process. Local acceptance can be generated through *local participation in planning and decision-making* (Haas, 2002). Acceptance can be guaranteed if the local population has *access to the natural resource*, for example in times of a drought or *access to the infrastructure* in times of emergencies (Ashley, 2000). Local execution can be aided by *limiting the foreign investment* to loans designed to stimulate initial development, after which point the *local* community assumes *ownership* and responsibility (Khan, 1997; Haas, 2002; Aylward et al., 1996). Both local acceptance and execution will be accentuated if, especially, financial benefits of the project are *equitably distributed* among community (Scheyvens, 1999; Stem et al., 2003) and do not simply concentrate in the hands of the local business and social elite. To this category also belongs usage of preferably locally-owned and operated services, such as restaurants and souvenir shops (Aylward et al., 1996).

2.2.3(d) Self-sufficiency factors: scaling up and reinvestment

Sharing experience and *learning from others* are necessary for the ecotourism projects to adapt to the challenges of the volatile tourism market. Scaling up and reinvestment, in the case of community-based ecotourism, refers to exactly those activities. *Continuing education* of guides and staff (Aylward et al., 1996) and conservation efforts are both forms of reinvesting into the business. Obviously, for ecotourism projects to continue in the long run there should also be provision in the *planning for the necessary upgrades/expense of the infrastructure* of the project (Krueger, 2005; Wells, 1992).

3. Practical application

In this chapter we apply the self-sufficiency factors described in the previous chapter to projects in the Lake Naivasha area. In order to fully understand the situation in the field we first describe the area. Since our analysis of the ecotourism projects in the region and our conclusions and recommendations follow the objectives of WWF's Linking Futures programme, we find it useful to mention these goals in one of the following paragraphs as well.

3.1 Lake Naivasha

Ecology

Lake Naivasha lies in the Kenyan Rift Valley, approximately 100 km north of the capital Nairobi. It is an area rich in both resources and biodiversity. It boasts two national parks (Hell's Gate and Aberdares), several private wildlife sanctuaries, forests and the lake, which is the only fresh water lake in the Rift Valley and was designated as the second Ramsar site ² in Kenya. The catchment area represents diverse ecological zones that support unique habitats and biological resources that contribute to the regions spectacular socio-economic development. The favourable climate, proximity to Nairobi and fresh water lake are features that have instigated large scale flower farming on the lake shore (Becht et al, 2006). The same factors make the area appealing for tourists; both Nairobi residents and visitors from abroad frequently visit the area. Other activities include livestock husbandry, subsistence farming, fishing and fish trade.

The ecological features upon which the economic activities in the area are based are interlinked, rendering the landscape fragile and susceptible to degradation. Over the last three decades, the basin has experienced a huge growth in terms of economic activities. This has resulted in a large influx of people into the region. Coupled with an uncontrolled population growth this has resulted in an increased use of water and land, and an increase of pollution (Kut & Agevi, 2007); all factors leading to a degradation of the environmental assets in the area.

The rural poor of the Naivasha basin have often not been included in land use management and planning, although their livelihoods are fully dependant on the natural resources in the

area. Prakash (1997) argues that such a top-down management of natural resources could be just as detrimental to the environment as poverty itself. Rather, governments should manage these resources together with the communities dependant on them. Currently, the resources in the basin are not equitably distributed, favouring the government and a few rich interest groups at the expense of the bulk of the population (WWF, 2006a). A co-management scheme including the rural poor could enhance the communities' position in this respect.

People

History and politics

The Lake Naivasha catchment area has been a bone of contention for some time. Originally Maasai land which they used in annual migrations following the rain to accommodate their cattle, this fertile agricultural area was of great interest to the white settlers. In fact, the interest had become so big that by the beginning of the 20th century the area was known as the White Highlands and consisted of huge farms and ranches. Following independence in the 1960s the area was given not to the native Maasai, who are a pastoralist tribe, but rather to the Kikuyu farmers. These factors, combined with the area's proximity to the capital, Nairobi, resulted in political battles on the highest level that escalated into a blooded conflict between the locals after the elections in late 2007. As witnesses put it, neighbours of many years would turn against each other, slaughter each other's families and burn houses. Even though a truce and a power-sharing schemes have been implemented since then, the general feeling of tension and distrust is still there. Also, there are other signs of the distress – internally displaced persons (IDPs) still live in temporary camps and still get once-per-day food provisions from relief agencies.

Effect of NGOs (positive and negative)

As we have already mentioned, Lake Naivasha is within an easy reach of the capital, Nairobi, which is headquarters for the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) and seat to many international and national NGOs (according to the NGO Coordination board of Kenya 505 are currently registered³). The lake, with its drastic natural and man-caused water level changes, would probably be of interest to at least some of the over 190 of them that have protection of the environment in their objectives, and to a number of over 110 that mention community development as a goal. This fact might attribute greatly to the feeling of dependency on the donors that the local population often expresses. The inefficiencies that the high number of same-mandate NGOs might create aside, the local

² Ramsar Convention on Wetlands (1971)

population is comfortable in the knowledge that “there always will be another NGO”. This often contributes to the lack of drive for the projects to succeed.

Visitor Safety and Wellbeing

According to some stakeholders, the area is not safe for visitors. Be it the foreign tourists, who stand out, or the domestic guests. Local population’s attitude toward visitors is less hospitable and more aggressive. The reasons for this are varied. Possibly it is due to the distresses that the area has experienced, to socio-economic reasons (high levels of poverty, high youth unemployment, erratic weather and a lack of feeling of security in tomorrow), or to a presence of a relatively high number of wealthy NGOs and development agencies in the area. The subtle and open demands for money go beyond what can be called “customary” beggars and account for possibly less comfortable exploratory trips that foreign and domestic visitors can undertake.

3.2 WWF Linking Futures programme

It is to this backdrop that the World Wide Fund for Nature Netherlands (WWF-NL) has started its programme ‘Linking Futures’ in the region. This programme is operational from 2007 till 2011, not only in the Naivasha area but also in Campo-Ma’an, Cameroon, and Lower Zambezi region in Mozambique. The goals of this programme start from the premise that local problems can only be tackled by actions on different levels of governance; local (micro), regional (meso) and (inter)national (macro) (the 3M approach). Following this line of thinking, and the hypothesis that poverty and environmental degradation have a causal relationship, three main goals have been formulated:

- Poverty reduction:

To enhance the livelihoods of the rural poor –local communities and indigenous peoples– and to involve the rural poor in the planning and implementation of management regimes in order to ensure a sound and equitable use of biodiversity and ecosystems.

- Building civil society:

To build a network of actors and establish partnerships with other organizations, governments, business and local communities to facilitate sustainable pro-poor development and protect the integrity of ecosystems.

- Influencing policies:

To establish linkages between local poverty-environment problems and national development policy issues at meso- and macro-levels in order to influence the drivers of change and the policy makers/leaders, who can influence those change processes (WWF, 2006b).

³ Information retrieved on July 15, 2009 from <http://www.ngobureau.or.ke/>

In the Lake Naivasha catchment, WWF's activities to achieve these goals centre mainly around building capacity of the rural poor on different topics (WWF, 2006c). Reducing poverty is being addressed by increasing the communities' ability to produce and market agricultural and forest products. Also, the project investigates possible alternative livelihood options, like ecotourism and alternative agricultural products. The capacity of communities and extension officers to engage in sustainable land use practices is being built. These activities are being carried out with the underlying aim to increase production, while limiting the potential degradation of the environment. The goal of building civil society is addressed through concentrating on resource user associations and their capacity to manage these resources on their own at different levels of governance.

3.3 Case studies

The rural population in the Aberdares mountain range is very enthusiastic about the promise that the ecotourism as a livelihood option brings. Many a time at the workshops and meetings we heard how great the potential for ecotourism is in the area. Most of these comments come from observing the foreign tourists who spend money on fancy hotels and lodges for the purpose of viewing wildlife in the national parks and private sanctuaries. In the forest in the area there is no shortage of wildlife. Moreover, the forest is a site of prehistoric caves and is rich in biodiversity. The actual picture of the tourism industry in Kenya is understandably difficult for the rural population to know.

3.3.1 *Tourism development in Kenya*

After independence in the 1960s Kenya was left with only tea and coffee as the main foreign exchange earners. Concentration on tourism was then a conscious choice of the government to develop in terms of not only foreign exchange income but also to achieve economic growth and increase number of available jobs (Akama, 1999). The country did eventually achieve a status of one of the most popular destinations in Africa, only to see it repeatedly being challenged by the internal unrest and world financial conditions. Kenya has come a long way from 800,000 foreign visitors reported in 1989 (Akama, 1999) to almost 2 million in 2007 (KNBS, 2009). In between there were drops in numbers due to internal factors (post-election unrest of the early 90s, tribal violence in the mid 90s, terrorist attacks) and external causes (9/11 aftermath, 2009 financial crisis). Most recently there was post-election violence in early 2008 that immediately resulted in a significant drop in tourist visits.

In this highly volatile market the businesses still look for international arrivals for cash. The revenues, however, do not support this hope. 2007 saw only slightly more than twice the amount of revenues than did 1992, whereas the number of visitors increased almost threefold (Kareithi, 2003; Norton-Griffiths & Southey, 1995; Economic Survey, 2009). Product differentiation potential has also been largely untapped. In 1995 Norton-Griffiths & Southey were reporting heavy reliance on wildlife safaris and in 2003 Kareithi reports on the same tendency. Thus, potential earnings that the tourism sector could bring to Kenya are largely unrealized.

3.3.2 Governmental support for ecotourism

Honey (2008) states that governments should pave the way for the ecotourism practice to develop in a sustainable manner. In Kenya policy-makers as of yet have not adopted the Tourism Act (in 2002 a UN document mentions that the master plan for tourism development is finalized and ready to be implemented⁴) and thus the industry is regulated by a few scattered mentions in different pieces of legislation (Table 3.1). As far as the stakeholders in the tourism business knew, there are no specific provisions and guidelines for *ecotourism* development in the existing laws, in the hopefully soon to be implemented master plan (or Tourism Act) or in the Vision 2030 which is the country-wide economic development plan initiated in 2008. In the roundabout way government consents to the definition and practices outlined by the Ecotourism Kenya (ETK), the non-governmental society that has set up and administers an eco-rating scheme for tourist businesses in Kenya.

Table 3.1 Pieces of legislation that oversee the tourism industry in Kenya

No. in Laws of Kenya	Name of the legal document	Description
CAP 381	Tourist Industry Licensing Act	Licensing of tourism enterprises
CAP 494	Hotels and Restaurants Act	Specifies conditions for licensing and regulation
CAP 376	Wildlife Conservation and Management Act	Looks into tourism enterprises within parks and reserves
CAP 8	Environmental Management and Coordination Act	Provides guidelines on where a tourism site is allowed to be set
CAP 382	Kenya Tourist Development Authority	Provides for the setup of Kenya Tourist Development Corporation, which is charged with the task of provision of financial facilities and advisory services to the tourism industry.

⁴ UN Johannesburg Summit 2002 Country Profile Kenya retrieved on June 26, 2009 from <http://www.un.org/esa/agenda21/natinfo/wssd/kenya.pdf>

As we mention in the previous chapter, definitions accepted by the practitioners help in setting a direction for and in the generation of ecotourism activity. Some practitioners in our case studies indeed enveloped the definition offered by the ETK society (e.g. the Friends of Kinangop Plateau and Netbon Ecotourism Site) while others concentrated on some parts of ecotourism as a concept but did not accept it in its entirety (e.g. the Tugen Cultural Center in Bogoria, Maasai Cultural Center in Hell's Gate National Park, Ututu Forest Cultural Center, Ndanamo Economic Empowerment Group). The ETK society promotes the following understanding of ecotourism: nature and culture based tourism that invests in and supports the protection of the environment, respects local cultures and involves local communities to ensure equity amongst all stakeholders (Murithi, 2009).

3.3.3 The self-sufficiency of ecotourism projects in Lake Naivasha area

During our fieldwork in Kenya, the task to assess whether ecotourism was a viable alternative livelihood option for the communities involved was a challenge. Despite the presence of a number of ecotourism sites and tourism businesses that supported local communities, it was impossible to come across any quantitative data of the income and benefits generated by the community members. Based on the passing comments of a number of stakeholders, though, we could gather that the current benefits of ecotourism sites are low to non-existent. Wages earned working for a tourism business barely cover subsistence costs; social projects like schools and hospitals heavily depend on donor money for supplies; while corruption of some business owners or community group leaders prevents any substantial monetary benefits from trickling down to the community members. Self-sufficiency would obviously be harder to achieve without first addressing these issues.

In the Lake Naivasha catchment area three (potential) community based ecotourism sites were examined (Ututu Forest Cultural Centre, Friends of Kinangop Plateau and Ndanamo Economic Empowerment Group, mapped in Figure 3.1). They all were in various degrees of progress and none has as of yet received paying customers. To provide for comparison and more in-depth analysis, two ecotourism sites in the Lake Bogoria basin (some 200 km from Lake Naivasha basin) were looked at against the stipulations of the same framework. These projects have existed for longer, have enjoyed longer continuous support from the WWF office of the area, have had all the buildings in place and have already received some visitors. They are Tugen Cultural Centre and Netbon Ecotourism Site. The following paragraphs describe the 5 case studies in terms of their self-sufficiency, Appendix III offers

more detailed descriptions of all the projects and the table in Appendix IV provides the full description of each case in terms of success and failure factors.

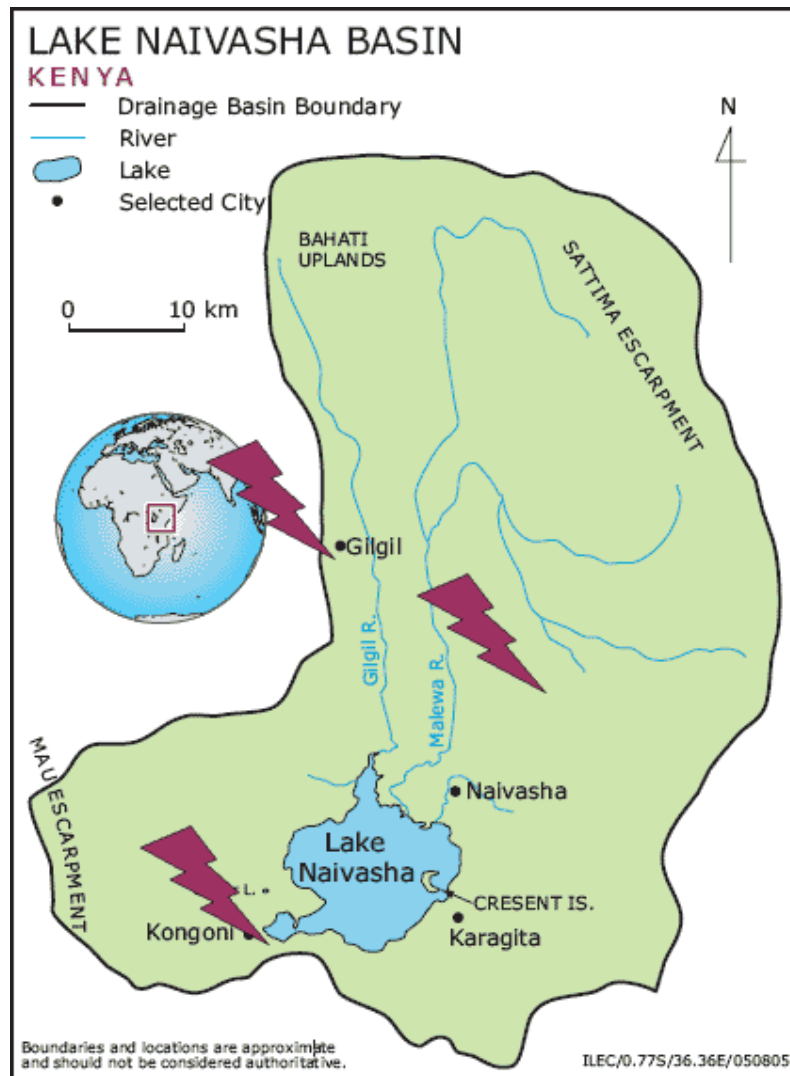


Figure 3.1 Map of Lake Naivasha catchment and positioning of the three ecotourism projects

A concise picture of self-sufficiency of the 5 projects is provided in Table 3.2. Below is a brief description of each of the categories.

Financial feasibility

All the projects have possibilities of receiving revenues due to either their location or marketing approach. Numbers of visitors can be influenced through products on offer or favourable location. Ututu Forest Cultural Centre (Ututu), for example, is located close to a main road, and Friends of Kinangop Plateau (FoKP) cater to many interests. Only two projects have specifically addressed number of nights per visitor in their planning.

Limitation of natural resource use

Development limitations were present for each project in the form of land management plans. Support in the form of local policies was not there. Only one project thought of the possibility of hiking trail degradation and thus control of visitor numbers. For three projects, FoKP, Netbon Ecotourism Site (Netbon) and Tugen Cultural Centre (Tugen), the creation and support of environmental awareness are specifically planned for.

Local acceptance and execution

Ututu and Ndanamo Economic Empowerment Group's (Ndanamo) projects have problems with local participation in planning and decision-making. Ututu is a project that is run by a local businessman, while Ndanamo has not secured enough interest in the project among their members to address planning and decision-making (in the 6 month of existence only minimal activities have been executed, such as registering the group and opening a bank account). Two projects were already being used by communities as sources of information as these projects made themselves available to the needs of community. None of the projects is prepared to let go of donor money. Tugen and Netbon do not mention donor support as imperative. FoKP is the only project not fully owned by the locals – they have an ongoing dispute over ownership with a Nairobi NGO.

Scaling up and reinvestment

The Lake Bogoria projects have in their disposal an informational centre set up by the local authorities to aid in advertising the region and to serve as a meeting point for the (community) tourism projects in the area. This has proven to be an excellent way to exchange knowledge. Ututu and FoKP rely more on their existing networks, while Ndanamo has no support outside existing donors. Continuing staff education is something considered only by the FoKP, while planning for necessary upgrades or expansion are present in all the projects to which it is applicable.

Table 3.2 Self-sufficiency factors of the 5 ecotourism case studies

	Ututu	FoKP	Ndanamo	Tugen	Netbon
Financial feasibility					
revenues					
visitor numbers					
nights per visitor				n/a	
Limitation of natural resource use					
development restrictions					
control of visitor numbers					
environmental awareness					
Local acceptance and execution					
local participation in planning and decision-making					
local access to NR and infrastructure					
ways of limiting foreign investment					
local ownership					
equal distribution of benefits					
Scaling up and reinvestment					
means to share the experience and learn from others					
continuing education of staff				n/a	
planning for necessary upgrades/expansion					

Legend

present in sufficient quantities	
vaguely outlined/needing improvement	
not considered/poorly defined	

Self-sufficient?

Against the stipulation of the framework FoKP and Netbon look to be more likely to arrive at self-sufficiency, especially if the few remaining issues are addressed. Tugen also has a good chance, especially seeing that it does not offer accommodation and is a hands-on museum. Ututu has a number of issues to work on, especially in terms of limiting resource use and local acceptance and execution. Ndanamo at this point is quite far from being self-sufficient and needs a lot of careful planning before the project can be carried out.

4. Conclusions and recommendations

In the previous sections we have looked into factors that attribute to the self-sufficiency of ecotourism projects. Having established that self-sufficiency is more likely if the factors of financial feasibility, limitation of natural resource use, local acceptance and execution, and scaling up and reinvestment are in place, we have applied this knowledge to the cases we found in the Lake Naivasha area. Out of 5 examined cases some fared much better than others in terms of standing on their own in the long run.

The self-sufficiency factors that we have described are only some in the list of assets and success factors necessary for an alternative livelihood project to exist. Enabling conditions in the Linking Futures project area are not fully in place. There is no clear Kenya-wide legal backing for ecotourism projects, nor are there governmental guidelines and tax concessions. Security issues in the Lake Naivasha area prove to be an obstacle for the demand side of ecotourism projects. Coupled with capacity gaps in terms of desire to serve, infrastructural challenges and wish for ecotourism projects to enrich participants quickly we think it is unwise for the WWF's Linking Futures programme to invest into new ecotourism sites in the area, especially in view of limited time constraints. To sum up, there need to be substantial changes on the macro level in terms of regulation and monitoring, on the meso level in terms of guiding and support, and on micro level in terms of attitude (to visitors and towards service industry in general) and market niche concentration (from international to domestic visitors) before capacity building for any specific ecotourism projects can start.

The Linking Futures programme has only one and a half years left in the Lake Naivasha area. It is unfortunate that the timing of many development projects in Africa depends not on checking whether the “developing” people are ready to carry on by themselves, but are rather influenced by budgetary needs and planning of the donor agencies. Despite the careful planning and projections that these latter undertake, it is hard to predict, for example, whether a pastoralist tribe will be easy to persuade to conserve nature or whether a farmer tribe's enterprise will be capable of standing on its own feet within the set time limits. Keeping in mind that in the Lake Naivasha area most of the stakeholders have already mentioned the possibility that the WWF's place there would be easily filled by another NGO, we present below our suggested way to continue with the Linking Futures project area.

- ⇒ To address self-sufficiency WWF should help communities realize the potential of domestic tourism, while encouraging the government and the regional authorities see and advertise this potential as well.
- ⇒ According to an expert who has worked with the communities in the area for many years (Elizabeth Wambugu of KFS) communities are not realistically ready to run their own tourism sites. What they can succeed in, however, is in offering their services as guides, porters and security providers. These are the familiar tasks that provide fast income. Linking Futures can address its objectives of poverty alleviation through aiding in establishing the working relationships between these service providers and interested businesses in the area.
- ⇒ WWF already supports new agricultural production enterprises in the area. In its workshops it can underline the business skills that communities learn through participating in this activity. These skills can in the long run translate into other businesses, including ecotourism ventures.
- ⇒ Trout farming is new for the Aberdares. It has been done by one businessman successfully, and it has been regarded as a good potential by a number of stakeholders. WWF can use this existing business on which to model community-based set ups. Trout farms are an interesting option for demonstrating water harvesting methods, for fish production and for tourism.
- ⇒ For the self-sufficiency of any project and for highlighting conservation and the nature-poverty connection WWF could get involved in school outreach programmes that already exist in the area. FoKP, Malewa Trust and SiSA (Signature Super Adventure club) already have working programmes in place. These groups teach children about conservation and causes of environmental degradation. Equipped with this knowledge the children are in the long run more likely to address the environmentally damaging behaviour by developing respect for and affinity with the environment in which they live.

More generally and, we believe, very importantly, we recommend that WWF decides on the definition of ecotourism that is suitable to its goals. This will help in providing the new projects with a clear objective. If conservation is encouraged from the onset, for example, then the planning of the project will include measures to incorporate conservation in its activities. This way both success and self-sufficiency factors can be better addressed and measured.

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Appendix I. Monitoring and evaluation

Monitoring success of an AL scheme

The purpose of monitoring is to reduce uncertainty when it comes to decision-making and planning. It provides information on trends and changes and suggests how activities might be adjusted (Pannell & Glenn, 2000; Abbot & Guijt, 1998). Monitoring can help in assessing the local environment, in measuring impacts and in providing accountability. If done by the community itself, it can improve community's ability to record and analyze change through participating in a structured process that emphasizes shared learning (Abbot & Guijt, 1998).

Monitoring usually happens against a set of indicators. These could be provided by, for example, a donor agency. They could also be worked out using more bottom-up approach, on community level. These latter might be more relevant to the local level and be meaningful to the community. Both approaches to setting up indicators come with difficulties. Top-down might produce results that are difficult to interpret and thus are meaningless for local decision-makers. Bottom-up might take years to create and they might be too detailed or too selective towards interests of major stakeholders (Fraser et al., 2006; Crabtree et al., 1998). Valentin & Spangenberg (2000) warn that the indicators should not be derived from some aggregate data, as this process undermines the crucial transparency. Reed & Tharakan (2004) specify that involving local communities in indicator development is useful, as it will help the participants in clarifying the reasons for the interventions, in refining the design and the activities within the intervention, and in elucidating the resources to be used in undertaking the interventions. As to the choice of indicators, Pannell & Glenn (2000) say their today's costs should not exceed their tomorrow's direct and indirect benefits. They argue this cost-benefit balance to be a subjective choice of a decision-maker for whom the indicators provide the information: if she/he has high discount rate and values present more, the indirect future benefits of monitoring impacts will be not interesting to her/him. The authors continue with the suggestion that if an indicator does not have the potential to change a management choice, it has no value, economic, social or environmental, other than perhaps its intrinsic-interest value. Relevant to monitoring alternative livelihoods, indicators need to capture the essence of poverty-environment dynamics, they need to be adaptive to different natural and social environments and they need to help the key stakeholders – namely, local communities – to respond effectively to the conditions in which they live (Reed & Tharakan, 2004). In short, indicators should be

simple but not too generic and too broad, as well as limited in numbers, and transparent in methods of calculation (Valentin & Spangenberg, 2000; Reed & Tharakan, 2004).

WWF Linking Futures' goals include poverty reduction while maintaining biodiversity, building civil society and influencing policies. In short, we are monitoring environment-poverty dynamics. In our stipulations we will broadly follow the categories of indicators that Reed & Tharakan (2004) put forward. They suggest that indicators for community-based projects should be that of: status (of environment, of linkages between it and poverty), enabling conditions (including institutional arrangements, economic policy and environmental management), and social capital (rural mobilization, influence on decisions, etc).

Methods of data collection

When choosing a suitable method of data collection for indicators, it is important to optimize tradeoffs between the cost of learning and the usefulness of information (Chambers, 1994). This can be done by assessing aspects such as quantity, relevance and accuracy, following the strategy of 'optimal ignorance' (Campbell, 2001); the importance of knowing what is not worth knowing, i.e. the level of ignorance that can be afforded. When measuring indicators, money and time can be wasted by pursuing a too detailed analysis of certain indicators while a general overview would suffice. On the other hand, a too general approach could cause important details to be overlooked. With this in mind, in this section we will consider a selection of methods of data collection for indicators, namely household surveys, key informant interviews and focused group discussions.

Household survey

This is a very widely used method of data collection. A household survey consists of a set of questions designed to indicate the views, characteristics and activities of people at the household level. Researchers visit a sample of the studied population at home, use the phone, internet or mail to create a database of answers, which consist of quantitative and sometimes also qualitative data. The results provided by this data may then be generalized to draw conclusions about the entire population from which the sample was drawn. As a tool, household survey is useful because it creates *a dataset of the characteristics and opinions of the entire community*, and not just the elite leaders of the community projects. Also, by conducting the

same survey on a regular basis, *trends in the community may be observed*. The drawbacks of household survey as a method are (Groves, 1989):

- sampling errors (non-random sample; random sample that is too small)
- researcher errors (leading questions; style of questioning)
- time- and effort-intensive

Key informant interview

A key informant interview is the questioning of a person very involved and informed in the project under research (Scheele & Tsaravopoulos, 2008). Informants are interviewed intensively over an extensive period of time, while covering a large amount of topics (Tremblay, 1957). The primary advantage of using this method is the *quality of data that can be obtained in a relatively short period of time* (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Some pitfalls of this method are similar to the ones of the household survey, i.e. researcher errors. Other pitfalls have mainly to do with the choice of key informant (Marshall, 1996; Tremblay, 1957). She or he might be:

- partial due to own stake or position in the programme
- unwilling to share important information
- not knowledgeable on the community opinion of the topic
- interested in giving invalid information

As when using a survey, while conducting key informant interviews the researcher can also create a bias in the results. The way a question is worded is one of the most essential elements determining how the interviewee will answer (Patton, 1990). By asking questions that are leading, unclear or dichotomous, the interview might not yield the desired results. Patton (1990, chap. 7) provides a manual on how interview questions should be worded, and it is important for the interviewer to follow such guidelines.

Focus group discussion

Focus group discussions can be used to provide the researcher with a general and balanced impression of a project (Scheele & Tsaravopoulos, 2008). Here the researcher does not ask all the questions. Rather, group interaction takes place which can prompt additional information the researcher did not expect to find and thus to ask for (Kitzinger, 1995; Morgan, 1997). This method *may provide information not disclosed by interviews or questionnaires*

(Kitzinger, 1995). It has the *ability to provide condense and useful information in a short period of time*. Its efficiency can even exceed individual interviews, because the views of different people are observed in a single discussion (Morgan, 1997). Also, focus group discussions *do not discriminate against illiterate people and promote input from people hesitant to be interviewed on their own* (Kitzinger, 1995). The main disadvantage, along with researcher errors, is (Morgan, 1997) group dynamics. This latter may lead to:

- uniformity of information
- withholding of information
- polarization of the group and thus more excessive views

The choice of method of data collection is an important factor in the quality and cost of an indicator. Household surveys can provide a very good overview of certain aspects of the entire community, while the costs are high. Key informant interviews may provide an equally good overview using less time and money but are prone to much more bias and flaws. Focus groups have advantages of both, but they also have weaknesses of their own. When designing a set of indicators for a monitoring programme, the most plausible option is to decide on a combination of the three methods, while also using documents and statistics from alternative sources.

Indicators

Following the above analysis of indicators and its method of collection, we have created a possible monitoring scheme to assess the successes and failures of the Linking Futures programme in Lake Naivasha. Table I.2 shows our suggested indicators, linked to the impact-oriented goals of the Linking Futures programme (WWF, 2006). It presents the type of indicator (status, enabling condition or social capital, after Reed & Tharakan (2004), the method of data collection and the academic source (if any).

Table I.1 *Impact oriented goals of the Linking Futures programme (numbers refer to the numbers in Table I.2):*

1: Poverty reduction	1.1: Increased competitiveness of the poor (benefit sharing NR, compensation resource use, legal framework, access rights).
	1.2: A designed and implemented incentive structure that promotes equitable and sustainable use of land, water and forests.
	1.3: Process of change to sustainable land-use practices that facilitates sustainable livelihoods and decreases vulnerability.

2: Building civil society	2.1: Strengthened capacity of CBOs to voice the needs of the rural poor and advocate pro-poor changes at the appropriate levels.
	2.2: Established and supported network of actors working on nature and poverty that has the capacity to implement appropriate actions.
	2.3: Established strategic partnerships with development organisations and the private sector.
3: Influencing policies	3.1: Management plans include the rights and needs of the rural poor and minority groups.
	3.2: Strengthened representation / participation of the rural poor and minority groups at the highest appropriate level of land management authority ensured.
	3.3: Pro-poor and pro-environment policies integrated into national and sub-national development strategies and programs.

Table I.2 List of indicators

Goal	Indicator	Source	Type	Method of collection	Comments
1.1	Percentage of revenue flowing to project participants	-	Enabling conditions	Key informant interviews with project participants	This indicator could show the success of the project in terms of benefit sharing and poverty reduction
1.1	Ratio of project-leader income to project participants income	-	Enabling conditions	Survey of project leaders and members	Shows whether there is an equal benefit sharing in place, or that the elite takes the benefits
1.1	Distance from producers to selling points	Valentin (2000)	Enabling conditions	Sales records	A measure of 'access to markets', if producers can sell their products far away, their competitiveness is increased
1.1	Ratio of project-participants income to average local income	Belcher et al (2003)	Enabling conditions	Survey about income of participants. Statistical information on average income of community as a whole	If the income of the participants is higher than that of the rest of the community, the project probably has increased their income. However, the project could also have richer people as participants to begin with, a baseline is necessary
1.1	Percentage of revenues saved and re-invested	Harger & Meyer (1996) (World Bank)	Enabling conditions	Interview with financial chairman of the project	Reinvestment of the revenues into the project is a measure of self-sufficiency.
1.1	Funds received	UNDP	Enabling conditions	Interview with project's financial manager	If the government, or other investing agencies, provides funds or credit to the project, it is successful in their eyes.
1.1	Ratio of income derived from project to total income of participants	Shyamsundar (2002)	Enabling conditions	Survey of project participants	Measure of the projects' success in terms of creating an alternative source of income
1.2	Number of people that have adopted an alternative sustainable livelihood (beekeeping, etc.)	Empaform (2005)	Status	Key informant interviews with leaders of AL projects	Gives a very clear picture of how deeply the AL is embedded in society
1.2	Percentage of those who adopted an AL that are women, youth	-	Social capital	Key informant interview with leaders of AL projects	Provides information on whether the project is successful in providing equal opportunities to marginalized groups
1.2	Ratio of female/youth income share to female proportion of participants	Dijkstra & Hanmer (2000)	Social capital	Survey of female participants	Measure of whether women and youth are equally benefiting from the project

Goal	Indicator	Source	Type	Method of collection	Comments
1.2	% of women/youth on management boards of CBOs and CSOs	-	Social capital	Review of project documents	Measure of whether women and youth are equally represented in the decision making bodies of the projects
1.3	Number of women, youth present at decision-making meetings. Ratio of input from women and youth to all participants	Empaform (2005)	Social capital	Review minutes of meetings: how often do women or youth make statements	A measure of how much women and youth are participating in the project
1.3	Turn-out at community wide elections. Percentage of voters that are women, youth, indigenous people	UNDP	Social capital	Voting records / Representative sample of the voters surveyed	The turn-out at the elections shows whether the community cares for the institution (e.g. WRUA, CFA). The number of marginalized people voting shows whether they are participating equally
1.4	Awareness of relationship land-use practices and environment	Harger & Meyer (1996) (UNEP)	Status	Household survey	Awareness of environmental issues is vital to the success of projects
1.4	Perceived vulnerability of people's lives (climate change, hunger, education, income etc.)	-	Social capital	Household survey	Vulnerability reduction shows the success of the project. This should be a longitudinal study and could include questions such as 'if your farm is flooded, where would you turn for help'
2.1	Number of meetings attended by CSOs, at what level of policy	Empaform (2005)	Enabling conditions	Key informant interviews with project leaders	Shows the ability of CBOs to voice their needs higher up. Distinction should be made between micro, meso and macro level meetings
2.1	Representation of rural poor in a CBO (ratio poverty of leaders to poverty of other participants/community members)	-	Social capital	Key informant interviews with leaders of AL projects, household survey of other participants/community members	Measure of the representation of poor in the CBO. Poverty could be assessed by measuring what is perceived as wealth by the local population, for example the number of livestock owned
2.1	The household number of memberships in associations	Rodriguez & Pascual 2004	Social capital	Household survey	Shows the participation of community members in CBOs
2.1	Number of successful proposals for funds from government	Empaform (2005)	Enabling conditions	Key informant interviews with project leaders	If government responds to requests by poor-peoples organisations, they have effectively voiced their needs

Goal	Indicator	Source	Type	Method of collection	Comments
2.2	Number of cross-visits CBO has done	Empaform (2005)	Social capital	Key informant interviews with project leaders	Can show how active the CBO network is
2.2	Number of regional seminars of similar CBOs	Empaform (2005)	Social capital	Key informant interviews with project leaders	Can show how active the CBO network is
2.3	Amount of partnerships		Enabling conditions	Interview with CBO people	Distinction between different types of partnerships must be made
3.1	Number of references in each management plan to women, youth, poor	Empaform (2005)	Social capital	Review management plan	When women or youth are mentioned it is probably because they receive extra rights/benefits
3.2	Number of meetings attended by CBO, at what level of policy	Empaform (2005)	Enabling conditions	Records of meetings attended, or key informant interviews with CBO leaders	Shows the participation of CBOs at different levels of governance
3.2	Representation of rural poor in CBO (ratio poverty of leaders to poverty of other participants/community members)	-	Social capital	Key informant interviews with leaders of AL projects, household survey of other participants/community members	Measure of the representation of poor in the CBO. Poverty could be assessed by for example the number of livestock owned
3.2	Accountability of leaders to community (transparency, perceptions)	Agarwal (2001)	Social capital	Focus group discussion with participants of projects	If leaders are accountable to community, they will serve them well
3.3	Number of successful proposals for funds from government	Empaform (2005)	Enabling conditions	Focus group discussion with leaders of AL project	If funds are readily available from the government, apparently the right policies are in place
3.3	Investment by government in pro-poor and pro-environment policy		Enabling conditions	Review of government budget allocations on different levels	When governments invest in pro-poor and pro-environment projects, the proper policies are in place
3.3	number of policies that protect environment per year that were translated into local implementation guidelines		Enabling conditions	Review of government documents	Policies at national level do not necessarily lead to an improved situation locally. The policies need to be incorporated into local governance.

Who should monitor?

➤ *In general*

All development agencies and NGOs have ways of monitoring progress of programmes that they implement. Unfortunately, these institutions enter the local arena only for a short period of time and thus cannot provide but for the monitoring of more immediate output. To be able to monitor impacts of development programmes, consistent data collection and analysis should be performed for a long period of time to show the trends of change. Once the development agencies and NGOs leave the projects, communities themselves and the governmental bodies are the ones left behind. These are the decision makers for whom monitoring is relevant.

Who should monitor depends on the way indicators were drawn. The “top-down” more general (and usually donor suggested) indicators might mean less to the local stakeholders. These indicators also usually come with a methodology of data collection and interpretation that the communities might not know or understand. In this situation governmental bodies will be of more use in collecting and processing data. Granted, of course, that they themselves find the information provided by the indicators useful. If they don't they will not go into the trouble and expenditure. If, however, communities were involved in creating indicators meaningful to them as well as processes of gathering and reading the data, then the results of the achieved analysis would be easily and more effectively used by the local stakeholders (Fraser et al., 2006).

Since information gathering could be very costly for communities themselves (Abbot & Gujit, 1998) and the decisions that affect communities most directly are normally made on the meso level, the logical suggestion is then for governmental bodies that have vertical reach from top politicians to the bottom resource users to act as data collectors, processors and users.

➤ *In Lake Naivasha context*

In Lake Naivasha context there is a number of governmental bodies to whom monitoring socio-economic and environmental changes in the basin could be useful. The most obvious examples include Kenya Wildlife Service (KWS) and Water Resource Management

Authority (WRMA). Both these institutions have direct connections to the policy makers in Nairobi via their head offices; they are also accessible to the local communities for information and guidance and have communities as targets of various activities. Moreover, they both run beyond the multiple administrative and bureaucratic borders within the catchment.

KWS has been involved in community development for some time. In order to lessen human-wildlife conflict and limit the instances of killing of wildlife KWS has been incorporating communities into their activities. Local residents have been hired as guides, social projects have been initiated and community enterprises (campsites, conservancies, cultural tourism opportunities) have been started⁵. KWS is an important governmental institution as it is in charge of national parks which are significant revenue-creators for the government. KWS already has a research department which performs animal counts and environmental impact assessment, thus there is already a knowledgeable information-gathering and processing body. On the other hand, despite two national parks in the Lake Naivasha catchment and human-wildlife conflict being relevant to all, KWS is a self-sufficient institution that does not get involved in politics on the local level. This is a limitation for monitoring because the main decision-makers, who are flexible enough to respond to the information provided by the collected data quickly, are on the levels of villages, locations and divisions.

WRMA's best selling point as data collector and processor is its outreach to the entire catchment and its field of work that involves many stakeholders on different local levels. According to our interviewee, however, the organization is not very interested in monitoring socio-economic improvements caused by various projects. Environmental impact is the most interesting to them.

Together with WWF Netherlands, we thought universities to be the missing link that could help with data collection. In the presence of baseline study for the region involving a PhD student in database creation and Master's students in annual data collection was our proposed way to go. Informing the stakeholders that this data exists would then initially be

⁵ As per personal communication with Nelly Palmeris (Hell's Gate National Park Senior Warden), Leanard Juma (KWS Training Institute lecturer on ecotourism) and Philip Wandera (former KWS Community Development Officer)

facilitated by non-governmental bodies. This involvement could soon become redundant, because information travels in Kenya via word-of-mouth and once initial introduction is done the rest can be left to its own course. Ideally, information provided by the data would be available to all for own interpretation. However, as one of the stakeholders pointed out to us, information sharing between institutions is not one of Kenya's strong points. A way to reach compromise could be to use KWS capacities for data processing but in partnership with division and district environmental officers who would then provide access to the results to the broader audience. University/universities would be the data collectors and they would be able to provide consultations based on the scientific knowledge.

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Appendix II. Usual pitfalls for community-based ecotourism projects

Community-based ecotourism projects are a popular means of achieving rural development and conservation of natural resources. The parallel between money made through a resource that leads to the protection of this resource has been drawn by many in the academic world (for example, Healy, 1988 in Langholz, 1996; Trent, 1996; Nuttall, 1999; Alexander, 2000; Walpole and Goodwin, 2001). There are also those that draw this conclusion tentatively, outlining a number of conditions that need to be met (Krueger, 2005; Isaacs, 2000; Goessling, 1999). The strategies that the authors mention are limiting the visitor numbers, education of both the locals and the tourists on nature degradation and conservation, comprehensive management and control of the natural area, inclusion of communities in benefit-sharing and decision-making and others. Without these conditions natural resource becomes degraded or exhausted. Krueger (2005) supports this claim by the fact that only in 17% of the examined 251 cases there was a positive effect on conservation by the ecotourism projects. As some authors put it, community-based conservation continues to represent a potential alternative, currently unrealized (Campbell & Vainio-Mattila, 2003).

Apart from the factors that negatively affect the “conservation” part of the idea of ecotourism, there are a number of factors that undermine the “income generation for communities” part. Tourism industry is highly competitive and thus is very difficult to enter without enough patience, financial assets and business knowledge. Since communities usually start ecotourism projects in hope of quick and easy cash, their disappointment at the initial results is likely large. This in turn negatively affects perseverance in the activity. Communities rarely arrive at a profit with an ecotourism project, most what they can hope for is some additional revenue (Kruger, 2005). “Local involvement and participation” most often than not mean that communities rent out their land to the private businesses and thus create income for some social projects. They could also provide services like cultural dances and visits to the villages for tourists, or serve the visitors at lodges and on campsites that are more often than not privately owned (Kiss, 1994). And although all these activities achieve the goal of income generation, through participating in them local communities do not improve their capacity. They do not, for example, gather new useful skills and knowledge in order to be able to support themselves in the changing circumstances in the long run.

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Appendix III. Case studies in detail

Ututu Forest Cultural Centre



Figure III.1 The site of the Ututu Forest Cultural Centre (under construction); manager of the project William Mulari

Ututu Forest Cultural Centre is conveniently located about 3 km off the main road between Nairobi and Nakuru. It is situated in the vicinity of Gilgil town which is a comfortable one and a half hour drive from Nairobi along a well-paved road. The area around the project has suffered from bad drought and crop failure for years. According to WWF Lake Naivasha's Robert Ndeti during the land reallocation this area was given to farmers instead of original pastoralists, and these former have not been successful in growing their crops. In fact, despite it being the rainy season, the rains in the area during the time of the interview were scarce and the majority of the population still lives on one meal a day offered by relief agencies (William Mulari).

William is the owner of the nearby family business *Gilgil Weavers and Spinners*. He and his



Figure III.2 Ututu Forest Cultural Centre development map

family make carpets and clothing from local wool and not local cotton. They employ 20 spinners in the area and sell their wears to local hotels and Nairobi businesses. They have a good reputation with a few tour operators in Nairobi that could be used for marketing of the ecotourism project.

According to William, he's had the ideas for a community-based ecotourism site for a number of years but was unable to guarantee enough interest from the community until Nakuru Wildlife Conservancy (NWC) NGO helped with finances to pay for building of the huts. As a manager with experience, William has a detailed plan of how the site should look (Figure III.2), what its unique selling points are and how and to whom it should be marketed. In preparation for visitors he has had one of his sons trained as a guide of local area, forest and pre-historic caves.

Self-sufficiency in the long run.

Within the borders of our framework the following factors of self-sufficiency were recognized:

- Financial

The project is run by a dedicated person with managerial skills and experience of being a businessman. Initial connections to the markets are already established. Position near a major road that connects the capital Nairobi with the very popular national park in Nakuru is a good selling point for the international tourism traffic that uses the road. Planning that involves domestic tourism can provide the necessary diversification during the low season for international visits. Initial investment in construction of the site and its amenities is picked up by NGOs.

- Limited natural resource use

This project is situated in semi-arid area rather devoid of trees but in the proximity of a forest. The main source of energy for cooking is charcoal. Ecotourism project can provide extra income to be used for paraffin, for example, so the trees might stop being cut. At the same time the effect of visitor numbers on the forest which provides main entertainment are not considered. More visitors are viewed as positive outcome easily accommodated by building extra houses. The limited access to water in the region does not deter the project from wanting to drill a borehole for the visitors' needs. Conservation activities are not part of the project planning.

- Local acceptance and execution

Although the manager has had the idea of an ecotourism site for a while, he was unable to persuade the community to participate in its creation until an NGO came up with the funds that were used as an incentive. From this information one could probably assume that local acceptance of the benefits that the project will bring them is limited to short-term financial gains. The services for the project (guiding, catering, cleaning, entertainment) can be provided locally. Guide has already been trained and it is manager's son. Beyond that a Maasai village in the area was informed that they can get money from tourists coming to visit them in order to learn about their culture and to buy their crafted wears. We have not heard about profit-sharing mechanism between the site and the community being in place.

- Scaling up and reinvestment

These activities have not been planned for. However, based on the weaving business that the manager has created and whose capacity for production he has increased as he saw the need, scaling up and reinvestment in order to run the business successfully will take effect.

Needs to be addressed.

At the time of our interview there were still physical asset limitations that needed to be addressed: the project was looking for funding for a borehole and a windmill or solar panels for electricity. Other issues that we identified as needing to be addressed for the project to become self-sufficient in the long run include:

- ⇒ Encouraging community acceptance by explicitly outlining what the community can do and what it can expect to get
- ⇒ Creating a rotating schedule of jobs that can be performed by the community members to ensure equal distribution, sharing of knowledge and possible employability to other tourism sites in the area
- ⇒ Creating a system of minimizing tourist footprint on the forest and local environment (designated trails, trash disposal and collection, limited usage of water) as well as a system of conserving the forest on which the site depends on (“no trees-no tourists” message, tree planting and nurseries to provide diversification of income, water harvesting technologies)

Based on our framework and analysis, this project has a potential of becoming a successful business. However, community benefits and conservation activities need to be addressed in order to make the project an alternative livelihood option for the local population.

Friends of Kinangop Plateau ecotourism site



Figure III.3 Friends of Kinangop Plateau self-contained bandas and dormitory (left) and group centre

Friends of Kinangop Plateau (FoKP) was started in 1997 as a youth conservation group. The idea came about following an inspirational stay of a foreign researcher who instilled in the 7 boys who formed the group the sense of curiosity about birds and the sense of urgency in terms of protection of bird habitat. The group has developed to comprise of 15 different programmes since the members quickly realized that conservation activities cannot

go without environmental education and poverty alleviation projects. They perceive illiteracy as being one of the main stumbling blocks for the environmental message to reach the local population, so they are involved in school outreach and adult literacy classes as well. The main objective of all the activities is to convey the message of habitat protection and conservation. Thus, the group is involved from 3 perspectives: environmental (conservation activities, bird counts twice a year), social (school outreach and adult education) and economical (honey production, ecotourism). They look at the success of their project through considering the number of people from the area that comes to them for and with information about human-wildlife interactions. If people know to go to FoKP with it, the project has been successful in creating awareness.

The group is active not only on local level. They try to get authorities from the administrative level of division and even province involved by offering them information on what is going on with the group and inviting them for visits. Word of mouth advertising gets them known and supported in the area.



Figure III.4 Artifacts at Kikuyu cultural museum at the FoKP

connections to the organic farms in the area to supply fresh produce to them.

Their ecotourism site comprises of a dormitory-style building that can accommodate 12 people as well as 3 self-contained bandas (houses) each capable of housing up to 4 people (still under construction). Moreover, the site includes a building that serves as a Kikuyu tribe cultural museum (Figure III.4), a covered fireplace gathering point/bar, and the group's centre which also serves as classroom and gathering point. The packages that they serve to potential tourist are diverse (history of the area, landscapes, bird-watching, archeologically important caves) and they aim at 3 night stays per package. The site has

Self-sufficiency in the long run.

Within the borders of our framework the following factors of self-sufficiency were recognized:

- Financial

Product diversification, planning for varied domestic and international clientele and sound business ideas for service development make this project look financially viable in the long run. Of an added value is the comment by the monitoring and bird expert of the project Andrew Mwangi that once the projects starts running there will be no need for further donor support of group's activities.

- Limited natural resource use

Inherent in each activity conservation objective leaves an impression of positive impact on the forest in the area. A good example of the approach is the 15% of profit of any activity that needs to go towards conservation, specifically bird counts.

- Local acceptance and execution

The 300 visitors to the group's centre per month speak of local acceptance of the group's activities. In terms of execution of the services on offer to visitors, guides have been trained, cultural dance group is operational. Rotation of jobs within the community to ensure information sharing and equitable benefits would be a plus.

- Scaling up and reinvestment

Based on the scheme set up for the honey project reinvestment has been thought through. The donated beehives are given to farmers at a deposit and small monthly fee that is set aside for investing into new beehives, subsidizing beehives to those who can't afford it and into investing into a vehicle for the ecotourism project. Scaling up can be achieved through using the centre's records, library and staff sharing information.

Needs to be addressed.

The physical assets still necessary for the project are a borehole for water and a four-wheel drive vehicle to pick up the visitors. The infrastructure near the project leaves much to be desired and on rainy days one cannot move by any other means except on foot in rubber boots or via a 4WD. Other issues that we identified as needing to be addressed for the project to become self-sufficient in the long run include:

- ⇒ Addressing the long-standing dispute over ownership of the land with the ecotourism structures on it that the group has with a local NGO and partner Nature Kenya (affiliate of Birdlife International)
- ⇒ Including visitor impact on the area in the planning. Issues of trash collection, laundry washing, possible trail destruction have not been mentioned by the interviewees
- ⇒ Connection with the private businesses in the area will be a plus for sharing experiences, addressing concerns and adjusting products. *Outdoor Africa's* Alnavaz Amlani is willing and interested to cooperate and can be a useful source for the group.

Ndanamo Economic Empowerment Group's ecotourism project



Figure III.5 Lakeshore upon which Ndanamo group's ecotourism project depends on

This project is still at its infancy. In the last six months the subgroup of the umbrella Ndanamo Economic Empowerment Group (Ndanamo) has obtained an official registration and opened a bank account. There were no solid plans in place, so in the following paragraphs only the ideas of the group will be outlined and assessed.

The site intends to be a camping ground for the foreign visitors and the weekend crowd that escapes Nairobi seeking change of scenery. The group as of yet was not planning to tap into product planning or differentiation – they rely more on visitors entertaining themselves in the area. Granted, the relative proximity to Hell's Gate National Park and to Crater Lake allows for an easy outing. In the distant future they wanted to add a solid structure of a gathering hall to the camp site. Marketing ideas included brochures and maybe eventually a website.

On the self-sufficiency side, the situation looks rather grim.

- Financial

The benefit sharing with the umbrella group is 60 to 40, with the bigger part going away from the executors of the project. There are no ideas of writing proposals for financing – for most activities the group relies on help of donors. Returns are expected to come

relatively quickly. There are agricultural projects that the umbrella group also relies on, but at the time of the interview they were still minimum 4 months away from generating any income.

- Limited natural resource use

The group's idea of ecotourism is that of employment and income provider. Since the camp site is going to be very basic, wood and water will be required by the visitors. There are no plans yet for any guiding activity so the natural resource in the area, already heavily depleted, will be under more pressure. Planning of conservation activities of any type are limited to possibly planting some decoration trees and bushes on the site.

- Local acceptance and execution

Because tourism landmarks in the area are quite obvious and it is not hard to come across a well-paying foreigner, the locals see tourism as a great money-making activity. However, nobody is aware of what it takes to run a tourism business and how tourism enterprises have been struggling for over a year now. As to execution, there is obviously no good manager in place who is passionate about the project and its outcome and there is very limited knowledge as to what tourists actually want when they come to visit.

- Scaling up and reinvestment

The project's idea of sharing benefits with the umbrella group does not allow for much income to trickle down to the implementers. If any income is created the 40% left for the people who work for the project will not be enough to guarantee interest in reinvesting in the site to increase future income. Scaling up can happen only if there is a chance of success and a possibility of learning. The chances for success within this project are limited whereas learning from the business in the area is hard to achieve due to their distrust of community projects.

The above mentioned level of services might be interesting only to a small segment of visitors – backpackers, who normally travel on the cheap. Kenya is not popular with backpackers as there are not many opportunities to find travel companions for the usually travelling in solitude young people. Domestic tourists are accustomed to nice well-groomed and well-kept surroundings of private camping sites on the lakeshore which offer on-site bars and restaurants. International tourists usually come to the area to visit Hell's Gate National Park which already has its own camping site with all the facilities in place. The group does not know any of these details, obviously does not have enthusiasm to start the project and does not have any inkling on what tourists need and want. These factors lead us to believe that this group requires too many resources to allow for an operational site, and these are better spent on projects elsewhere.

Tugen Cultural Centre (Lake Bogoria basin)



Figure III.6 Tugen Cultural Centre: storage construction (left) and museum artifacts pointed out by guide and manager

This example of an ecotourism site comes from the area that is the project area for a different WWF office. The NGO has been in Lake Bogoria basin for over 10 years and it was interesting to see the progress of what has been achieved. Lake Bogoria team had a very challenging task to persuade a few tribes of pastoralists to start taking care of the environment. They combined the cultural belief of never cutting a tree with a beehive on it with the need for extra income and helped set up honey cooperative. In this long time span a number of pro-ecotourism activities were achieved, including establishment of an informational centre for tourists, visitors and researchers and successful work of an educational centre at the gates of the Lake Bogoria National Reserve (LNBR). The informational centre is a product of interested participants from 4 administrative divisions in the area. The purpose of the centre is to advertise the region, including all the projects that are on offer, community and otherwise. The centre aims at, among other goals, providing a level playing field for all these projects.

One of the projects on offer will definitely be the Kalenjin museum – Tugen Cultural Centre. Its creator and manager Joseph Cherutich has collected a lot of relics that used to serve the traditional Kalenjin household. The site offers the story of each object and a hands-on experience of using some of them. The site is located along the only road that leads to LBNR⁶ and this location serves as free advertising. Joseph has shared a number of ideas of how he wants to proceed and was very susceptible to the ideas that were offered to him. He was very curious to learn about similar projects elsewhere.

From the self-sufficiency perspective, financial viability of the project is under question due to a serious drop in visitor numbers to LBNR especially due to post-election violence. At the time of the interview the site had not seen visitors in many months. The entrance fee of a bit over 7 USD per person might be too steep for domestic visitors. Limitation to the use of the natural resource in this case depends more on the fact that there are multiple AL projects operational in the area than on the success of the Centre itself. Joseph is the assistant chief of the village where the Centre is situated. In this manner the site has more chances of acceptance by the locals due to this connection to leadership structure. The project is executed by Joseph and another woman who lives on the museum site and offers visitors chances to be photographed with a local in the traditional dress. Thus the services are completely offered by the community members. In the scaling up and reinvestment category Joseph has ideas of how to attract more visitors and keep them entertained, while the informational centre is a great venue for sharing his experiences and ideas.

Netbon Ecotourism Centre (Lake Bogoria basin)



Figure III.7 Netbon Ecotourism Centre in Lake Bogoria basin and its manager Jeremiah Kiprotich Kobetbet

Netbon Ecotourism Centre project is run by a group that is situated in the village of Majo Moto (Hot Water). The project is right next to the hot water stream which serves as a great

⁶ LBNR entertains 70-100 thousand visitors yearly, 90% of which are local (according to Daniel Koros, WWF Lake Bogoria)

selling point. The location of a very old tree under which the conscripts were drafted for the WWII fronts on the site definitely helps with storytelling around the fireplace.

The group running the project has been in existence since 1994. From the onset it used tree nurseries as means to finance proposal writing for the projects necessary for the area, mainly irrigation. The idea of an ecotourism site is not new – in 1998 they already had a consultant from the Kenya Tourism Development Corporation check feasibility of an ecotourism project and pronounce it as impossible due to lack of water and infrastructure. The idea persisted and in 2001 the project received funds from a Finnish NGO. Official launching time is 2003.

The group is set up in the following manner: there is an umbrella group that is in charge of construction, overseeing, general investment, looking for visitors, and 4 sub-groups. The sub-groups get to decide what they do with their income (to share among members or reinvest). 20% of revenues go to the umbrella group to perform its duties. The sub-groups are in charge of 1) tree nurseries, 2) camping and trail, 3) curio or souvenir shop, and 4) traditional entertainment and fee for the excursion to local village. The project also aims at educating the visitor by offering the carbon-offset programme.

There are two accommodation types on offer: 3 bandas that can sleep 3 people each and a camping space/tent sleeping option. The visitors so far have been mainly people from the region who served more as idea-providers than as guests. Domestic visitors (average duration of stay 3 nights) and especially international visitors (average duration of stay 2 nights) are quite rare. These two categories have also proven rather unwilling to book any other services on offer.

Self-sufficiency of the project in the long run can be assessed in the following manner:

- Financial

The project offers a variety of services to suit the needs of their clients (athletic activities, hikes, bird watching, history). There are also many ideas in the books of how to diversify what's on offer even more (swimming pool). Help with advertising, improvement of infrastructure, trail security and information sharing are the benefits that the group hopes to achieve through the information centre of the mid-Rift. The site's enthusiastic and far-looking manager is a plus. However, the prices that the site charges do not reflect the level

of comfort that the visitor can expect. The single bed is between 10 and 20 USD for resident and between 45 and 57 USD for non-resident guests. The use of nature trails, swimming in the stream, cultural dance all come at hefty extra charges. Domestic visitors do not like to pay extra whereas international guests would require a higher level of comfort for these prices. Both these factors might limit the potential of return visitors and of the word of mouth advertising.

- Limited natural resource use

Even though up to the moment of the interview the ecotourism project was not producing much revenue, the group's activities have affected positively the level of destruction of forest in the area. Their awareness raising strategy was also based on underlying the importance of trees for bees and vice versa (honey is a very important product for the area). The group had had a very difficult task of persuading 2 ethnic hunter groups and 1 ethnic pastoralist group about the importance of environmental protection. The group is starting up an animal sanctuary to help raise awareness about the need to protect wildlife. Thus in the long run the activities of the group will affect the natural resource positively. The successful operation of the ecotourism project will be helpful but not deciding in this process.

- Local acceptance and execution

Tourism is not new to the area, so the local population knows that this activity can be beneficial to them. Above all, the group's activities are managing to persuade the locals that protection of nature is a useful. The connection between acceptance of usefulness of the natural resource and the benefit that protection of this resource creates for the ecotourism project will be an easy message to convey. The whole project is run by the local community members only. The manager (who has been in this position for a few months) is very keen to run the business side of the project well.

- Scaling up and reinvestment

The manager's ideas for reinvestment included building a swimming pool and investing in more buildings for the guests. At the time of the interview the camp fire place was being constructed to accommodate a large group that was due to arrive. The venue for scaling up and sharing the ideas with other groups interested in similar activities is provided via the information centre.

Needs to be addressed.

The physical assets that can help with better service provision is a vehicle that can take guests to the National Reserve, to the neighbouring Lake Baringa for boat riding and also serve as means to help hikers move their baggage while walking the mid-Rift trail. Other issues that we identified as needing to be addressed for the project to become self-sufficient in the long run include:

- ⇒ Including visitor impact on the area in the planning. Issues of trash collection, laundry washing, possible trail destruction have not been mentioned by the interviewees
- ⇒ Organizing visits to the community-run or privately owned businesses for the purpose of learning about the needs of tourists and the level of services they require, as well as business-specific strategies (creating all-inclusive packages, special deals, etc.)

⇒ Addressing the current system of prices: at the moment they do not correspond to the level of comfort the visitor can expect. A more realistic system might prove beneficial to the word of mouth advertising and repeat visits.

One more example



Figure III.8 Maasai village near Hell's Gate National Park (left) and its visionary guide and entrepreneur

Mobilizing communities to create means of helping themselves out of poverty is the task that many NGOs and development agencies set as a goal. The success rate of such a scheme is usually higher if the local people themselves had already formed an idea of what they want to do. The success rate is most likely going to increase if the people that NGOs and development agencies approach have already figured out a way within the existing society structure where they can fit with their idea and have started shaping the idea into reality. This way the feeling of dependency on the donor agency for funds and solutions has less of a chance of being developed.

This report revolves around self-sufficiency of community-based enterprises. In our view for the purposes of self-sufficiency it is crucial that communities know that they can run projects on their own, through partnerships and connections that they were able to generate themselves. The Maasai village near Hell's Gate National Park in Naivasha is a place that does not call itself an ecotourism site but whose members are involved in community development, nature preservation and income generation. The few members of the village came with the proposal to the warden of the National Park that they serve as rangers for the park – they have the knowledge and the skills already. For the same reason they offered their skills as guides at a set rate. Their village is right next to the viewing spot used by the tourists and the village women are encouraged to sell their beadwork nearby. In plans there is building of a traditional hut especially for the guests who want to experience traditional

Maasai living. With the consent of the warden of the park the marketing of this venture can be done through the park and act as an additional selling point to the park. Currently tourists can visit the village at a set fee with prior booking. Part of the money generated through these activities goes to the village fund that builds schools for the village children, and next in the plans is running water. On the environmental part activities are organized for the villagers to be aware of the plastic trash that they generate – at the moment of the interview the first trash pick up and burning action was set to take place the following day. Ledama, village's guide and entrepreneur (Figure III.8) is in charge of many of these projects. And even though traditionally the young people are to listen to the elders, the village is slowly accepting and incorporating his ideas in their otherwise very traditional ways.

Appendix IV. Table of Success and Failure Factors for 5 ecotourism case studies in Kenya's Rift Valley

Table IV.1 Table of Success and Failure Factors for 5 ecotourism case studies in Kenya's Rift Valley

	Ututu Forest Cultural Center	Ndanamo Economic Empowerment Group	Friends of Kinangop Plateau	Tugen Cultural Center, Bogoria	Netbon Ecotourism Site, Bogoria
Definition of ecotourism	Because it is close to a natural resource	To provide employment for the rural youth's development	Habitat conservation, social cohesion, income generation	Preservation of culture	Leaving positive footprint at destination that serves as a message to community to do conservation
Key Design /Approach Factors					
Information	Study of specific types of projects is undertaken, including market study, local features			None known	In 1998 Kenya Tourism Development Corporation assessed feasibility and said "no" due to no water and no infrastructure
Incentives	William wanted to do this for community, community started only when a donor arrived. He has plans of generating income from nature-related activities	They see the project as money-generating activity for community development issues, but which specific projects - still not sure	Conservation was the ultimate incentive, ecotourism project is a means to reach this goal	Cultural preservation was the owner's interest for a long time and the project is a means to achieve that	Income provision for the various groups within the community that are affiliated with the project.
Learning	None mentioned	None mentioned	Idea exchanges/competition with Kenvo (a group with similar setup and goals, located about 50 km away)	Possible future connection with other projects through information centre	Possible future connection with other projects through information centre
Multidisciplinary approach	Planning done by the manager William, financial support provided by Nakuru Wildlife Conservancy	Planning has not even started, only registration and bank account in place	Planning done by Resource Mobilization Centre, through Nature Kenya	One-man project, WWF Bogoria help with ideas and their realization	Planning done by the group, in 1998 pronounced as financially unfeasible, afterwards a few NGOs got involved

	Ututu Forest Cultural Center	Ndanamo Economic Empowerment Group	Friends of Kinangop Plateau	Tugen Cultural Center, Bogoria	Netbon Ecotourism Site, Bogoria
Key Implementation Factors					
Partnerships	<u>NGO</u> : Nakuru Wildlife Conservancy (limited)	<u>NGO</u> : World Vision, WWF (both mainly financial)	<u>NGO</u> : Nature Kenya (agreement problems), IUCN (funds to buy land), various donor organization for agricultural programs, <u>Government</u> : personal contacts with authorities (Ruth)	<u>NGO</u> : WWF <u>Government</u> : via information centre	<u>NGO</u> : various, including WWF. <u>Government</u> : coexistence tactics with the local authorities -
Long-term planning	Expansion envisioned but long term objectives of the project not specified	Not considered, except for profit sharing - 60% to the umbrella group	5 year plan subdivided into goals for 1-2 years, following vision 2030. Profit sharing: each group has to dedicate 15 % to conservation and specifically monitoring	Money from the project is to go towards secondary school for the village	Tree nurseries was the main goal at the onset; income generation for various groups and conservation envisioned and discussed (20% to umbrella group)
Monitoring	Employment generation (not explicit)	Employment possibilities for youth (not explicit)	Bird population 2x year count. Determinants of success: more than 300 visitors to the centre with many repeat visits; awareness - do people know where to go to complain about birds; number of meetings at different levels the group is invited to, including on the issues of human-wildlife conflict	Possibility to finance projects necessary for the community	Determinant of success: number of tourists
Balance between public and private sector	Tourism Act is still in preparation. What exists is scattered number of rules and regulations. Government bodies that participate in shaping up tourism market are: Ministry of Tourism and its marketing partner Kenya Tourism Board, KWS, KFS, Museums of Kenya, National Environmental Management Authority. None of the projects has private partners.				
Connection to markets	Good location, existing connection to operators in Nairobi through the weaving business	Positioning near the Crater Lake, just off the road to Nakuru. No clear understanding of tourism market, marketing, what clientele wants	Difficult to reach location but concentration on niche markets (bird watchers, domestic history curious, landscape + culture tourism. No direct links to Nairobi or the Lake but the Lake businesses have heard of the site + were interested in one of the components (museum); connections to the Museums of Kenya in Nairobi	Good location - on the road to the Lake Bogoria National Reserve (though signs for the site are still in planning), good relationship with the information centre of the Rift; no outside marketing	Rather difficult to reach location but next to one of the gates to the Lake Bogoria National Reserve; members of Ecotourism Kenya and through them got their clients by participating in an international conference; no direct links to private hotels or operators

	Ututu Forest Cultural Center	Ndanamo Economic Empowerment Group	Friends of Kinangop Plateau	Tugen Cultural Center, Bogoria	Netbon Ecotourism Site, Bogoria
Participatory appraisal	Community got involved only when funding came; community interest mostly comes from the ability of the project manager to persuade	Potential is recognized by many because of the number of tourists arriving at the Hell's Gate National Park and the lake businesses; project was set up following group's own idea	Suggestions by anybody in the groups are taken to the meetings and discussed	Small project, the manager is the assistant chief - thus normal village ways of influencing decisions and getting the information	Awareness raising of the importance of trees (bees), importance of good tourism business; carbon offsetting for tourists to do; starting up a sanctuary to raise awareness of animal protection
Multiple AL schemes	Private business (weaving) employs 20 within the community	Via umbrella group (sericulture, apiculture, agriculture)	Via umbrella group (apiculture, rabbit rearing, cultural dance group)	None	Apiculture
External Stability Factors					
Global markets	World financial crisis has left many of the tourism businesses in the area below their carrying capacity. Even Oserian Lodge that claims to have highest bed occupancy has managed to be achieve only 40% bed occupancy rate. Internationally, Kenya as a destination is still viewed with distrust due to internal political unrest of early 2008				
Internal peace	Aided from outside, agreement on power sharing after the post-election violence of 2008 is not very stable. Though it provides for functioning of the country, political squabbles are frequent and scandals are plentiful. Private hotel managers in the area were concerned that before the tourism industry gets a chance to recuperate from the last election, the new one might result in renewed instability				
CC/natural disasters	Climate change affects the pattern of rains and has resulted in rains arriving a month later and with it in insufficient quantities. At the same time, when flush floods came during the time of our stay top soils got heavily eroded due to the lack of tree cover (one hotel owner had to provide many bags for the washed-away soil to be carried on donkeys back up). Both the factors increase food insecurity, which is exacerbated by the fact that the government does not have enough granaries to provide for all the population if disaster strikes, and isn't investing in new ones				
Institutional Framework Factors					
Influential governing bodies	National government and its local representation are influential in terms of policy-making. Implementation and monitoring/policing are problematic. New rules provide for possibilities of local/communal implementation and policing. Here, however, NGOs have to step in to fill in the funding gap.				

Appendix V. Setting up an ecotourism project: toolkit

In 2001 Richard Denman prepared a report for WWF International titled "Guidelines for Community-based Ecotourism Development" where he presented 4 stages and 12 steps of setting up an ecotourism site, outlined below.

PART A: CONSIDERING WHETHER ECOTOURISM IS AN APPROPRIATE OPTION

1 Considering the potential conservation gain

There needs to be a clear understanding of the relationship between local communities and conservation and how this might be improved through their involvement in ecotourism.

2 Checking the preconditions for ecotourism

Before pursuing community-based ecotourism the suitability of the local area should be checked and fundamental preconditions met.

3 Adopting an integrated approach

Rather than being pursued in isolation, community-based ecotourism should occur in the context of other options and programmes for conservation, sustainable development and responsible tourism.



PART B: PLANNING ECOTOURISM WITH COMMUNITIES AND OTHER STAKEHOLDERS

4 Finding the best way to involve the community

Effective structures are required to enable the community to influence, manage and benefit from ecotourism development and practice.

5 Working together on an agreed strategy

Close consultation with the community and other stakeholders should lead to an agreed vision and strategy for ecotourism, which has environmental, social and economic aims and attainable objectives.

6 Ensuring environmental and cultural integrity

The level and type of tourism planned and developed must be appropriate for the area's natural resources and cultural heritage and consistent with the community's wishes and expectations.

PART C: DEVELOPING VIABLE COMMUNITY-BASED ECOTOURISM PROJECTS

7 Ensuring market realism and effective promotion

Ecotourism projects must be based on an understanding of market demand and consumer expectations and how to place the product offer effectively in the market place.

8 Putting forward quality products

All community-based ecotourism products should offer a high quality of visitor experience and be subject to a rigorous business plan.

PART D: STRENGTHENING BENEFITS TO THE COMMUNITY AND THE ENVIRONMENT

9 Managing impacts

Specific steps should be taken within the community to minimise the environmental impact and maximise the local benefit of ecotourism.

10 Providing technical support

Communities will require ongoing access to advice and support in the development, management and marketing of responsible, good quality ecotourism products.

11 Obtaining the support of visitors and tour operators

Ecotourism experiences should raise awareness of conservation and community issues among visitors and tour operators and include mechanisms for enlisting their support.

12 Monitoring performance and ensuring continuity

Ecotourism projects should be designed and managed for long-term viability and success.