Perceived Effects of Integrated Rural Tourism Planning on Communities’ Revenues and Resources Vitality in Makueni County, Kenya

Scolastica Twili Nzomo

Abstract

Rural Tourism is regarded as a key economic activity and a conservation tool for rural tourism resources in many developing countries. In Kenya, tourism is concentrated in urban and coastal regions while marginalizing rural destinations with potentials for tourism product development. Failure to involve communities, lack of sectoral coordination as well as in appropriate destination conservation approaches in rural areas such as Makueni impedes tourism economic benefits. Developing an integrated rural tourism development plan is likely to enhance equity in revenue sharing and future resources vitality for the marginalized local communities. This research aimed to investigate the perceived effect of integrated rural tourism planning on communities’ Revenues and resources vitality in Makueni County. The objective of the study is to determine the perceived effect of integrated rural tourism planning on communities’ revenues and resources vitality in Makueni County. This study used descriptive cross-sectional survey design. The target population size was 182,000 residents and a representative sample of 385 respondents. Purposive sampling was used to identify the study sites while stratified random sampling was used to pick the respondents. Primary data was acquired through the use of questionnaires which were administered to the host community and the tourism developers in the selected sub-Counties. Data was analyzed using SPSS software. Categorical and logistic regression analysis was carried out for all the objectives and significant levels were sought at p ≤ 0.05. The results indicated that Minimizing the misuse of resources (p = 0.01) and consensus on prioritizing beneficiaries (p = 0.04) emerged as the most appropriate ways of achieving equity in revenues Sharing. Building environmental awareness (p < 0.01), respecting local cultures (p < 0.01), niche marketing (p = 0.01) and implementation of the code of conduct (p < 0.01) were identified as the most appropriate conservation measures of enhancing resources vitality in Makueni County. This indicates that integrated rural tourism planning has a positive implication towards achievement of equity in revenues sharing and enhancement of resources vitality in the County. The study recommends that integrated rural tourism planning should involve coordination of various sectors which will enhance equal representation of all the stakeholders in planning and decision making process and hence contribute to equity in revenue sharing. Destination managers ought to lay out emphasis on sustainable use of the available rural tourism resources through building environmental awareness, respecting local cultures, creation of appropriate, niche marketing and implementation of code of conduct in the protected areas of Makueni County.

1.0 Introduction

Rural tourism contributes to the increase in economic viability of marginalized areas, stimulates social regeneration and improves the living conditions of rural communities (Milhalovic & Moric, 2012). It contributes to social cultural benefits in various destinations of the world including America and Asia (Mabey, 2010). A study conducted by Murray and Kline (2015) on rural tourism in North Carolina, USA established that rural tourism contributes to the increase in economic viability of marginalized areas, stimulates social regeneration and improves the living conditions of rural communities (Milhalovic & Moric, 2012). It contributes to social cultural benefits in various destinations of the world including America and Asia (Mabey, 2010). A study conducted by Murray and Kline (2015) on rural tourism in North Carolina, USA established that rural tourism products are gaining popularity among the developed nations. The study indicates that many factors contribute to rural tourism product suitability. These include; connection with the community, the unique aspect of the product and satisfaction.

Sharpley et al. (2008) defines rural tourism as the visitation of people to rural areas and their participation in rural way of life. McGehee et al. (2015) argues that rural tourism comes into existence when the rural products are the key component of the product on offer. He argues that this form of tourism varies from one country to another with various channels of rural tourism having been suggested. These include; interest in farms, nature, adventure, health, education, arts, and heritage; and experiencing living history such as rural customs and local traditions.
Local communities must participate in making decisions for rural tourism development if their livelihood priorities are to be reflected in the way rural tourism is developed (Chok & Macbeth, 2007). Hall (2008) indicates that many destinations still suffer from social and economic consequences caused by failure to involve other sectors in planning and monitoring of rural tourism development. Coordinating sectors and involving stakeholders in tourism destination planning indicates levels of integration.

Honeck (2008) for instance explains that rural tourism is increasingly becoming an important economic sector in Tanzania. Spenceley (2008) observes that rural tourism has proved continued and strong growth in areas of Tanzania which are characterized with high levels of widespread poverty. Increased demand for rural tourism in Tanzania has been contributed by the availability of rural tourism resources both natural and cultural (Scheyvens, 2007)

The main purposes of developing rural tourism destination areas as outlined by the IUCN (1994) is to enhance resources vitality in rural areas through; scientific research, wilderness protection, preservation of species and genetic diversity, maintenance of environmental services, protection of specific natural and cultural features, tourism and recreation, education, sustainable use of natural resources and maintenance of cultural and traditional attributes. Designation of tourism resources in rural areas is one of the most widely used and accepted means of biodiversity conservation throughout the world (Sekhar, 2003). Rural Tourism development has been associated with conservation areas especially national parks and cultural centers which are mostly found in local settings (Butler & Boyd, 2000)

Spenceley (2008) observe that integrated rural tourism planning approach enhances conservation of the rural tourism resources and improves the living standards of the host community through creation of equity in revenue sharing. Tourism Revenue Sharing (TRS) is a wide spread policy intervention in Africa and other regions where rural tourism is practiced with revenues usually shared on a percentage basis (Schroeder, 2008). Archibald and Naughton (2016) argue that tourism revenue sharing helps in meeting conservation cost and improving local community altitude towards conservation. They also explain that the structure and implementation of tourism revenue sharing policies has contributed to failure in achieving equity in revenue sharing among the stakeholders especially in Uganda.

Manyara and Eleri (2009) conducted a study in Kenya to ascertain the economic viability of rural tourism development. They reported that planning for development of rural tourism is important in developing nations. They also indicated that involving community members in the rural tourism activities through empowerment increases their economic benefits such as equity in revenues sharing as well as enhancing the vitality of tourism resources. However, the success of integration of rural tourism planning on the rural tourism and benefits to communities may be niche dependent. Therefore, this study purposed to examine the effect of integrated rural tourism planning of communities’ revenue sharing and resources vitality in Makueni County

2.0 Literature Review

Integrated Rural Tourism Planning and Revenue sharing

Sharpley et al. (2008) defines rural tourism as the visitation of people to rural areas and their participation in rural way of life. Developing rural areas through tourism involves developing rural tourism first (Haghsetan, Mahmoudi & Maleki, 2011). This is attributed to the fact that rural tourism possesses strong social and economic potential for growth of the rural areas. Viljoen and Tlabela (2007) observe that rural tourism is a way of involving the rural population in ventures that call for local ownership and management of tourism facilities in a given destination in order to increase participation by the rural communities in rural development initiatives. Holland, Burian and Dixey (2003) also emphasize the importance of considering appropriate forms of rural tourism as an alternative channel for improving the living standards of local community residing in rural areas. This is attributed to the steady increase of touristic activities in the rural areas of most touristic countries. William (2016) observes that rural tourism is an alternative development strategy in minimizing poverty among the local communities in marginalized areas.

It is evident from the literature that many countries have incorporated tourism activities with the aim of achieving economic development in both urban and rural regions. However, this calls for a balancing act between rural environment, rural population, natural products, the stakeholders in the industry and policy formulators as well as planners (Briedenhann & Wickens, 2004; Hall & Page, 2002). Kenya Rural Development Strategy (KRDS) whose theme is “sustainable livelihood for all” argue that rural development strategies and programs should emphasize on steady growth, while preserving natural resources for present and future generations (Government of Kenya, 2002). Rural development calls for appropriate objectives and strategies which focus on the rural communities and sustainable utilization of the existing resources.
Hall (2008) indicates that many destinations still suffer from social and economic consequences caused by failure to involve other sectors in planning and monitoring of rural tourism development. Coordinating sectors and involving stakeholders in tourism destination planning indicates high levels of integration. Sectors are coordinated through conducting joint meetings, community consultations and adoption of appropriate feedback mechanisms from the stakeholders. Stakeholders are involved through decision making process, idea generation, investment in rural tourism and evaluation of rural tourism programs. Important stakeholders include the local government, regional tourism organizations, private sector and indigenous communities. Mc Kercher (2007) indicates that, rural tourism is an industrial activity that is competing and requires the incorporation of several sectors to enable the local communities benefit from it.

Tourism Revenue Sharing (TRS) is a widely spread policy intervention in Africa and other regions where rural tourism is practiced with revenues usually shared on a percentage basis (Schroeder, 2008). Archabald and Naughton (2016) argue that tourism revenue sharing helps in meeting conservation cost and improving local communities’ attitude towards conservation. Revenue sharing programs take three different forms. First, there are protected area outreach arrangements, where a percentage of park entrance fees is channeled to communities (Archabald & Naughton-Treves, 2016). Second, there are initiatives that involve private companies conducting commercial activities on community land and then sharing proceeds with the community (Ochieng, 2016). Third, there are partnership arrangements, which involve private and public entities as well as communities in operating tourism joint ventures. The accrued revenues are thereafter shared based on written agreements by all the stakeholders (van der Duim, 2015).

The income from rural tourism in the tourism destinations originates from various forms of induced, indirect and direct spending by visitors (Mayer & Job, 2014). Rural tourism revenues are mostly dependent on visitation frequency, length of stay and levels of spending for entrance or similar fees. Generating enough funds to share with local communities is challenging for destination managers since it relies on significant visitation rates (Butzmann & Job, 2017).

Bowman (2011) indicates that development and implementation of rural tourism is a process that results to an important dialogue and policy-making process on how to achieve sustainability in the rural tourism destinations. Jenkins (1994) indicates that government plays a major role in the evolution and development of the rural tourism as well as ensuring equal distribution of revenues accrued form rural tourism. He states that apart from being involved in the formulation of rural tourism policy framework, development and initiation of the national tourism development plan, government in many less developed countries has been actively engaged in rural tourism entrepreneurial activities as regards to the operation and provision of tourism and hospitality facilities and services.

Akama (1997) observes that tourism sector is highly fragmented and may consist of many stakeholders who are involved in the provision of diverse activities and services, which combine to form a tourism product and providing a satisfactory visitor experience. He argues that sectoral coordination is a key facilitator and promoter of tourism development. Dieke (2013) argues that, in most less developed countries where tourism has over the years evolved and developed as a major economic sector, such as in Mexico, Jamaica, Bahamas, India, Indonesia, Egypt, Tunisia, Morocco and Kenya, the socio-economic phenomenon has been achieved mainly through direct government support which has contributed to equity in revenue sharing. Snyman, (2017) explains that sharing of revenues accrued from rural tourism is vulnerable to corruption and therefore, good governance and involvement of all stakeholders in planning and decision making process is crucial.

Ugandan experience shows that collectively shared revenues from rural tourism can reach a wide range of people (Sandbrook & Adams, 2012). However, in Rwanda, membership of local community associations, which involved membership fees determined eligibility for rural tourism revenue sharing, excluded socio-economically disadvantaged residents (Munanura, Backman, Hallo, & Powell, 2016). Schnegg & Kiaka (2018) report from Namibia that their communities retain only a small part of revenues from community-based tourism and relatively few people are direct beneficiaries.

Spenceley et al. (2017) observes that the key component in favorable rural tourism revenue-sharing is to clearly communicate benefits or potential drawbacks to communities in order to foster positive interactions. He also noted that local communities should be involved in planning and decision making regarding the implementation and distribution of revenues accrued from rural tourism.

**Integrated Rural Tourism Planning and Resources Vitality**

Bulte et al. (2008) explain that conservation policies and tourism developers play a crucial role in developing intervention measures to protect the rural tourism resources such as wildlife, culture of the local communities, physical features and historical attractions.
A widespread of tourism resources is in place with over 10% of its land area currently gazetted as national parks, national reserves and forest reserves which are mostly located in rural destinations (Kenya Wildlife Service, 2010). Odunga and Maingi (2011) argue that tourists’ attractions are the backbone of tourism development in Kenya. Western et al. (2009) argue that sustainable tourism development and management of the tourism resources is a major concern in Kenya.

Rural Tourism is one of the most common uses of wildlife and cultural resources in local areas that generate financial benefits and therefore, its significance is increasingly being recognized worldwide (Buckley, 2000; Eagles, 2002; Holden, 2007). Vitality of rural tourism resources reflects an increase in visitation number hence increasing range of tourism and recreational activities as well as increasing commercial tour operations business in rural areas (Buckley, 2002). Rural tourism is increasingly being used by many conservation area managers as a source of revenue to replace or supplement government conservation funding (Balmford et al., 2009). Resources vitality need to balance biodiversity preservation goals with the social and economic needs of local communities living in rural setting (Robinson, 1993). Enhancement of resources vitality will offer potential compensation to local communities who bear most of the costs as a result of resource use restrictions imposed due to the area’s protected status (Mayer, Muller, Woltering, Arnegger, & Job, 2010). Therefore, there is a need for integrated planning in the conservation and management of rural tourism resources to facilitate the maximization of local community benefits. Such benefits act as an incentive for local support for conservation of the resources for their future availability.

Akama (1997) explains that Close to 80% of Kenya’s population reside in rural areas where wildlife resources exist and therefore there is need for integrated planning which will ensure that these resources are available to benefit the present and future generation. Bruyere et al. (2009) observe that recently, the Kenya Wildlife Service is attempting to address some of these historical barriers by facilitating community-based conservation and local involvement.

Tourism is widely linked with other sectors of the economy and as a result it’s planning and development issues cannot be resolved by one stakeholder. Therefore, multiple stakeholders should be involved in protected area tourism planning and development processes. These should include individuals, groups and organizations with an interest in rural tourism. Stakeholders who have interest in protected area tourism planning and development include: communities within and around the protected area, tour operators, tourism-related business owners, environmental organizations, protected area management agencies, visitors to protected areas and volunteers working in the protected area (Brohman, 1996; Eagles, McCool, & Haynes, 2002).

Effective management of the relationship between conservations areas and the surrounding communities is therefore vital to ensure sustainability and vitality of rural tourism resources (Scherl & Edwards, 2007). The sustainability and vitality of rural tourism resources strongly depends on its ability to improve the livelihood of local communities and to enhance residents’ attitudes and behaviors toward conservation of the resources (Liu et al., 2012, p. 2). Community benefits from rural tourism resources and support for conservation can be enhanced when citizens are actively involved in the tourism planning and protected area management activities (Goodwin, 2000; Spenceley & Goodwin, 2007; Timothy, 1999; Tosun & Jenkins, 1996; Tosun & Timothy, 2003).

Okazaki (2008) observes that many tourism studies also fail to identify levels of community participation in rural tourism planning and as a result most participatory tourism development processes have remained unassessed in terms of ascertaining their effectiveness. It is therefore necessary for planners to consider prevailing local, social, cultural, economic and political conditions when engaging in any participatory planning process (Felix, G., Neil, C. & Brent, and L. 2016). Participants in the rural tourism planning process need to have access to financial, information, and human and material resources to facilitate their effective participation in the planning process (Hall, 2008; Paul, 1987; Pearce, 1991; Rowe & Frewer, 2000; Tosun, 2000). Well-informed participants can effectively contribute to deliberations during the rural tourism planning process. (Felix, G., Neil, C. & Brent, L. 2016)

Backman, 2013 observes that most local people that live around conservation areas in developing countries lack basic understanding of issues associated with integrated rural tourism development. In this respect, public awareness and education programmes for the local communities should be a prerequisite and an ongoing exercise for any rural tourism planning process. This will ensure that the local communities are empowered with useful information to facilitate their effective participation in the planning process.

**Structure of Integrated Development Plan on Rural Tourism**

Communities cannot develop in isolation and therefore, integrated development plan ensures that there is a single coordinating framework for community development.
Geyer (2010) defines the integrated development plan as a process by which the planning efforts of different spheres of government and other institutions are coordinated at local government level. There has been a need to integrate rural tourism with other economic activities such as agriculture which exist in rural areas. The integrated development process is meant to enable decisions on matters such as county budgets, land management, promotion of local economic development and institutional transformation through consultative, strategic and systematic processes (Kavita, 2014). He explains that integrated development plan creates a balance between social, economic and ecological pillars of sustainability by coordinating programs of different sectors and spheres of government. This is illustrated in Figure 1

![Figure 1: Channels of Tourism Integration with Rural Development](image)

### 3.0 Methodology

#### Research Design

This study adopted descriptive cross-sectional survey design. This design facilitated in establishing and describing the relationships among the key study variables (Kothari, 2004). It was cross sectional since it was conducted once to pick out the parameters of a phenomenon at a specific time with an aim of accurately capturing the characteristics of the population in relation to the research topic (Cooper & Schindler, 2003).

The descriptive cross-sectional survey enabled the capture of quantitative and qualitative characteristics to test for significant associations between integrated rural tourism planning and enhancement equity in revenue sharing and future resources vitality in Makueni County (Kothari, 2004). The research design had been used in previous studies by Munyoki (2007), Kinoti (2012) and Njeru (2013).

#### Target Population

The estimated study population was 182,000 people from Makueni County. These included local communities and tourism developers living within rural tourism promotion zones of Makueni County as indicated in Makueni County Integrated Development plan of 2013-2017. The population included 50,299 people from Makindu Sub County, 80,236 people from Kibwezi east sub-county and 51,465 people from Mukaa sub-county.

#### Sampling Procedure and Sample Size

Purposive sampling was used to select the study site, with high, moderate and low rural tourist attractions where by Makindu, kibwezi East and Mukaa sub-counties were selected. Then a stratified random sampling was used to select the respondents from the host community. The study involved the use of census in regard to

---

**Tourism Industry Stakeholders**
- Local community
- Government
- Tourism and hospitality organizations (e.g. hotels, tour firms, restaurants, resorts, tourism entrepreneurs)

**Forms of Rural Tourism**
- Community based tourism
- Cultural and heritage tourism
- Adventure, nature based and ecotourism

**Planning, product development, Coordination, marketing**

**Integrating Result/Rural Development**
- Income
- Employment
- Food availability
- Improved living standards
- Environmental conservation
- Cultural preservation
- Improved infrastructure

**Rural Development Concerns**
- Poverty, unemployment
- Food insecurity
- Inadequate infrastructure
- Inadequate health and education facility

---
tourism developers. Sample size for the host communities was obtained according to Mugenda (2003), using the following formulae:

\[ n = \frac{Z^2pq}{d^2} \]

Where: 
- \( n \) = Required Sample Size when the population is >10,000
- \( Z \) = the standard normal deviate at the required confidence level. In this research \( z=1.96 \) at 95% confidence level
- \( p \) = Population Proportion estimated with desired the characteristic being measured. \( P \) is taken in this research as 0.5
- \( q \) = 1-\( p \)
- \( d \) = the level of significance set. In this research it is 0.05

\[ n = \frac{1.96^2 \times 0.5 \times 0.5}{0.05^2} \]
\[ n = \frac{3.8416 \times 0.25}{0.0025} \]
\[ n = \frac{0.9604}{0.0025} \]
\[ n = 385 \]

The required sample for the host community was 385. Using the number of tourism units in the three sub-Counties; Makindu, Kibwezi East and Mukaa, the number of respondents from the host community were distributed proportionately in the ratio of 6: 4: 3. This gave 178 respondents for Makindu, 118 for Kibwezi East and 89 for Mukaa. Census done for tourism developers resulted to 65 respondents. The total number of respondents was therefore 450 as indicated in Table 2.

| Sub-County     | Number of Tourism units (A) | Respondents from the Tourism developers (B=A*1) | Respondents from the Host Community (C) = (385 to the ratio of 6:4:3) | Total number of Respondents (D)= (B+C) |
|----------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| Makindu        | 30                          | 30                                            | 178                                                             | 208                               |
| Kibwezi East   | 20                          | 20                                            | 118                                                             | 138                               |
| Mukaa          | 15                          | 15                                            | 89                                                              | 104                               |
| Total          | 65                          | 65                                            | 385                                                             | 450                               |

**Data Collection**

Data was collected using self-administered questionnaires. The questionnaires comprised of closed-ended questions with a Likert scale. Primary data was collected directly from local community members and tourism developers in the selected study sites. Secondary data was collected from relevant books, journals, reports, articles and seminars papers.

**Research Instruments**

Two types of questionnaires were used in this research. These included; questionnaire for the host communities and another one for the tourism developers. Questionnaires established the respondent’s demographic characteristics and the perceived effect of integrated rural tourism planning on communities’ revenues and resources vitality in Makueni County.

**Reliability of the Research Instrument**

The reliability of the study was achieved through test –retest method. This was conducted through administration of questionnaires with similar questions addressed to different categories of respondents. Different types of questionnaires tested similar questions addressing the objectives of the study.
Validity of the Research Instruments

A pilot study prior to actual data collection was conducted to ensure validity of the research instruments. Questionnaires were subjected to experts’ opinion. Face validity was enhanced by using headings that were linked to the study topic and research objectives in the questionnaires. These headings were bolded and clearly written in all questionnaires for the different target respondents identified by the researcher. Content validity was enhanced through the researcher by ensuring that the literature reviewed and the questionnaires constructed fully represent the domain of rural tourism development, local communities employment, equity in revenues sharing and future resources economic vitality. Items in each questionnaire were designed to measure the construct of interest.

Data Analysis

Data was analysed using Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) Software. Descriptive analysis was used with data being analysed using frequencies and means. Particularly, data on demographic characteristics of the respondents was analysed by use of frequencies and percentages. This data was then presented in appropriate charts. The responses on the rating of the roles of communities in rural tourism planning, types of employment, developmental planning aspects, sectoral coordination factors, equity in revenue sharing and destination conservation approaches was analysed by use of means and standard deviation and then presented in tables. Response options for the roles of local communities in rural tourism planning, types of employment, developmental planning aspects, sectoral coordination, equity in revenue sharing and destination conservation approaches was given following a five point likert scale. The mean from the five point likert scale data was categorised and weighted as per scale below:

| Responses | Scale Mean Range | Interpretation Guide (Mean) |
|-----------|------------------|----------------------------|
| 5         | 4.5-5            | Very high                  |
| 4         | 3.5-4.49         | High                       |
| 3         | 2.5-3.49         | Average                    |
| 2         | 1.5-2.49         | Low                        |
| 1         | 1-1.49           | Very low                   |

Source: Researcher Constructed Table (2017)

Inferential statistics was used to determine the relationships between variables. Categorical regression analysis was carried out for all the objectives of the study to test the hypotheses and significant levels were sought at p ≤ 0.05. Table 4 indicates the summary of data analysis technique and hypotheses test for the research objectives.

4.0 Results and Discussions

Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

The host community and tourism developers, who represented the main respondents, were asked to indicate the sub-county of their residence on the questionnaire. 38% of the respondents resided in Makindu sub-county, 32% in Kibwezi East sub-county while 30% resided in Mukaa sub-county. Female respondents represented 51% while the male respondents constituted 49% of the sample. The age of the respondents varied ($\chi^2=1.10, df=3, p=0.00$). 43% of respondents were aged between 36-50, 10% had less than 20 years, 8% aged above 50 years while 39% constituted those between the ages of 20-35 years.

The results in figure 2 indicated that 37% of the respondents have an average income of above ksh 30000 per month, 33% earn between ksh 15001-30000 per month while 30% represented those who earn between ksh 0-15000 per month.
Figure 2: Average Income of Host Community Respondents

The tourism developers characteristics differed among the respondents ($\chi^2 = 8.73, df = 1, p = 0.00$). 68% of the tourism developers in Makueni County have an organizational length of operation of less than 10 years while 32% of the tourism developers in the County have an organizational length of operation of between 10-20 years.

The results in figure 3 indicated that 62% of the tourism developers have the mandate of providing infrastructure, 15% have the mandate of conducting tours, 14% have the mandate of providing travel information while 9% have the mandate of Marketing tourism.

Figure 3: Mandate in Kenyans’ Tourism Development

Perceived Effect of Integrated Rural Tourism Planning on Equity in Communities’ Revenue Sharing in Makueni County

The respondents were asked to indicate on the questionnaire whether integrated rural tourism planning affects communities’ revenues sharing. One of the aspect of integrated planning –sectoral coordination was considered. Respondents thus cited the importance of sectoral coordination in rural tourism planning in Makueni County. 89% of the respondents indicated that sectoral coordination is important in rural tourism planning while 11% of the respondents indicated that it was not important.

The respondents were also asked to rate the elements of sectoral coordination which would be applied in rural tourism planning. This was meant to determine the means through which sectoral coordination affects planning outcomes. The rating was in the range of $\bar{x} = 4.18$ to $\bar{x} = 4.64$. The average rating on the elements of sectoral coordination in rural tourism planning was $\bar{x} = 4.34, \sigma = 0.90$. The highest rated element was community consultations ($\bar{x} = 4.64, \sigma = 0.77$), while the least rated element was feedback mechanisms ($\bar{x} = 4.18, \sigma = 1.03$). Joint meeting recorded a high rate with ($\bar{x} = 4.18, \sigma = 0.89$). This is indicated on Table 3.
The respondents were asked to indicate whether the linkage of the various elements of sectoral coordination would facilitate the attainment of equity in communities’ revenues. 91% of the respondents indicated that the linkage of the various sectors in the County would enhance equity in revenue sharing while 9% of the respondents indicated that it would not enhance revenues. The respondents were asked to rate the ways of achieving equity in communities’ revenue sharing in Makueni County. The rating was in the range of \( \bar{x} = 4.13 \) to \( \bar{x} = 4.17 \). The average rating on the ways of achieving equity in communities’ revenue sharing was \( \bar{x} = 4.14, \sigma = 1.02 \). The highest rated element was minimizing the misuse of resources and giving back to the community (\( \bar{x} = 4.17, \sigma = 1.05 \)), while the least rated element was the identification of the potential areas to be promoted (\( \bar{x} = 4.13, \sigma = 0.98 \)). Consensus on who should be given the first priority in terms of benefits recorded a high rate (\( \bar{x} = 4.14, \sigma = 1.02 \)). This is indicated on Table 4.

### Table 4

**Mean Scores Ratings on Ways of Achieving Equity in Revenue Sharing**

| Ways of Revenue Sharing | N   | Mean | Std. Deviation |
|-------------------------|-----|------|----------------|
| Minimizing Misuse of resources | 263 | 4.17 | 1.05           |
| Consensus on prioritizing beneficiaries | 263 | 4.14 | 1.02           |
| Identifying potential areas of promotion | 263 | 4.13 | 0.98           |
| Average Mean            | 263 | 4.14 | 1.02           |

The researcher conducted inferential analysis using categorical regression. This was done to determine the effect of integrated rural tourism planning on equity in communities’ revenue sharing with significant levels sought at \( p \leq 0.05 \). Results indicated that the model was statistically significant. (Adjusted \( R^2 = 0.37, F = 42.87, p < 0.01 \)). This means that 37% of the variance in creation of equity in communities’ revenue sharing can be explained by integrated rural tourism factors. This is indicated in Table 5 and 6 below.

### Table 5: Regression Model

| Multiple R | R Square | Adjusted R Square |
|------------|----------|------------------|
| .61        | .38      | .37              |

Dependent Variable: Equity in revenues sharing
Predictors: Community participation, Developmental planning, Sectoral coordination

### Table 6: Regression ANOVA

| Sum of Squares | df  | Mean Square | F     | Sig.   |
|----------------|-----|-------------|-------|--------|
| Regression     | 108.95 | 4    | 27.24 | 42.87  | .00    |
| Residual       | 181.05 | 285  | .64  |        |        |
| Total          | 290.00 | 289  |      |        |        |

Dependent Variable: Equity in revenues sharing
Predictors: Community participation, Developmental planning, Sectoral coordination

Four independent variables were tested to determine their effect on the achievement of equity in communities’ revenue sharing. These included; community participation, developmental planning, sectoral coordination and destination conservation approaches. Community participation (\( p = 0.05 \)), Developmental planning (\( p < 0.01 \)), Sectoral coordination (\( p = 0.01 \)) and destination conservation approaches (\( p < 0.01 \)) were all significant. This is indicated in Table 7.
Logistic regression analysis was done to determine the significance level of the ways of achieving equity in revenue sharing and also to determine the extend at which sectoral coordination affects revenues. The research findings indicated that Minimizing the misuse of resources (p = 0.01), consensus on prioritizing beneficiaries (p = 0.04) were significant. Identification of the potential areas of promotion (p = 0.60) was insignificant. This is indicated in Table 8.

The results are in agreement with Manyara and ELeri (2009) who observe that integrated planning that involves community members in the rural tourism activities through empowerment increases their economic benefits through creation of equity in revenue sharing. The research finding in Tables 7 and 8 rejected the null hypothesis, that, there is no statistically significant perceived effect of integrated rural tourism planning on equity in communities’ revenue sharing in Makueni County. These results also agree with Hall (2008) who indicates that the achievement of equity in revenue sharing can only be achieved through the involvement of various stakeholders in planning and decision making process of rural tourism.

The findings support the theory of inclusive rural tourism development by (Fernando, 2008). Fernando (2008) explains that inclusive rural development has three elements including the economic, social and political aspects that are necessary for rural development programs. The inclusive approach to development has an economic dimension which includes capacity and opportunity to participate in and benefit from the growth process. The social dimension covers comprehensive social development. The political dimension includes capacity and opportunities to operate in political process.

The results suggested that sectoral coordination as a planning element is an important strategy of ensuring equity in revenues sharing. Coordination of sectors is achieved through consultations, conducting joint meetings and enhancing feedback information related to their level of representation. This forms the political dimension of inclusive rural tourism model. In Makueni, efforts have been made to coordinate the local communities, destination managers and tour operators who act as the main tourism stakeholders.

Representation of all stakeholders in planning initiates dialogue that creates balances on revenues sharing. The perceived recognition and equitable share of revenues from rural tourism business in Makueni represents the economic dimension of inclusive rural tourism development. The revenues generated from rural tourism business in Makueni County are used to develop social amenities such as schools and hospitals around the rural tourism destination. The destination managers also encourage the sponsorship of needy children to attain their education in the institutions of higher learning.
All these have enhanced the improvement in the living standards of the local communities living within the rural tourism destinations in the County. This forms the social dimension of inclusive rural tourism development theory. Ideally, different opinions highlighted by different stakeholders in rural tourism planning are expected to create a balance in revenues sharing.

**Perceived Effect of Integrated Rural Tourism Planning on Resources Vitality in Makueni County**

The respondents were asked to indicate on the questionnaire whether destination conservation approaches affected future resources availability in Makueni County. 94% of the respondents cited that conservation would ensure availability of rural tourism resources that would benefit the future generation while 6% of the respondents indicated that destination conservation would not affect future availability of the rural tourism resources.

Respondents were asked to cite the most important element of integration as provided in the questionnaire. Results indicated that the model was statistically significant. (Adjusted $R^2=0.45$, $F= 61.96$, $p < 0.01$). This means that 45 % of the variance in the achievement of resources vitality in the County can be explained by integrated rural tourism factors. This is indicated in Table 9 and 10:

**Table 9: Regression Model Summary**

| Multiple R | R Square | Adjusted R Square |
|------------|----------|-------------------|
| .68        | .46      | .45               |

Dependent Variable: Economic impacts
Predictors: Community participation, Developmental planning, Sectoral coordination, Conservation approaches

**Table 10: Regression ANOVA**

| Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F     | Sig. |
|----------------|----|-------------|-------|------|
| Regression     | 136.55 | 4           | 34.14 | 61.96, .00 |
| Residual       | 161.45 | 293         | .55   |       |
| Total          | 298.00 | 297         |       |       |

Dependent Variable: Economic impacts
Predictors: Community participation, Developmental planning, Sectoral coordination, Conservation approaches

Results also indicated that destination conservation approaches ($p < 0.01$) emerged the most significant among the four options provided. This is shown in Table 11:

**Table 11: Regression Output Showing Integrated Rural Tourism Factors that Contribute to Resources Vitality**

| Standardized Coefficients | df | F     | Sig. |
|---------------------------|----|-------|------|
| Community participation   | 0.06 | 1    | 1.70 | 0.19 |
| Developmental planning    | 0.05 | 1    | 0.76 | 0.39 |
| Sectoral coordination     | 0.08 | 1    | 1.73 | 0.19 |
| Destination Conservation approaches | 0.59 | 1    | 136.17 | 0.00** |

Dependent Variable: Resources Vitality

Categorical regression analysis was also conducted to determine the significance level of the resources vitality. Resources vitality was indicated by perceived future economic performance of the resources. Results indicated that creation of jobs ($p < 0.01$), development of infrastructure ($p < 0.01$), creation of market for local goods ($p = 0.02$) and trickle down effects ($p < 0.01$) were significant. This is indicated in Table 12.
Table 12
Regression Coefficients showing Perceived Economic Performance of Resources as a Result of Conservation Approaches Adopted

| Standardized Coefficients | Df | F     | Sig.  |
|---------------------------|----|-------|-------|
|                            |    |       |       |
| Creation of jobs          | 0.17 | 0.05  | 1     | 12.60 | 0.00** |
| Development of infrastructure | 0.22 | 0.05  | 1     | 17.09 | 0.00** |
| Creation of market for local goods | 0.15 | 0.06  | 1     | 5.96  | 0.02* |
| Trickle down effects      | 0.18 | 0.06  | 1     | 11.18 | 0.00** |

Dependent Variable: Destination Conservation Approaches

The respondents were asked to rate the conservation approaches that would be adopted in the conservation of rural tourism resources in Makueni County. The rating was in the range of $\bar{x} = 3.48$ to $\bar{x} = 4.39$. The average rating on the conservation approaches which would be adopted in the conservation of rural tourism resources was $\bar{x} = 3.75$, $\sigma = 1.14$. The highest rated conservation approach was building environmental awareness ($\bar{x} = 4.39$, $\sigma = 0.92$), while the least rated conservation approach was implementation of code of conduct in the county rural tourism destinations ($\bar{x} = 3.48$, $\sigma = 1.22$). Respecting local cultures ($\bar{x} = 3.80$, $\sigma = 0.99$), creation of regulations ($\bar{x} = 3.72$, $\sigma = 1.08$) and gazzelment of protected areas ($\bar{x} = 3.62$, $\sigma = 1.48$) generally recorded a high rate. Niche marketing ($\bar{x} = 3.49$, $\sigma = 1.17$) recorded an average rate. This is indicated in the Table 13.

Table 13
Mean Scores Rating of Destination Management Strategies

| Conservation Approaches                  | N   | Mean | Std. Deviation |
|------------------------------------------|-----|------|----------------|
| Building environmental awareness          | 305 | 4.39 | 0.92           |
| Respecting local cultures                | 305 | 3.80 | 0.99           |
| Regulations                               | 305 | 3.72 | 1.08           |
| Gazzelment of protected areas             | 305 | 3.62 | 1.48           |
| Niche marketing                           | 305 | 3.49 | 1.17           |
| Implementing Code of conduct             | 305 | 3.48 | 1.22           |
| Average mean                              | 305 | 3.75 | 1.14           |

Categorical regression analysis was conducted for the above destination management strategies. This was done to determine which destination conservation approach was significant. Results indicated that building of environmental awareness ($p < 0.01$), respecting of local culture ($p < 0.01$), niche marketing ($p = 0.01$) and implementation of the code of conduct at the destination ($p < 0.01$) were significant. Adoption of strict regulations at the conservation areas ($p = 0.26$) and Gazzelment of the protected areas ($p = 0.23$) were insignificant. This is indicated in Table 14.

Table 14
Regression Coefficients Showing the Significance Levels of the above Destination Management Strategies

| Standardized Coefficients | Df | F    | Sig.  |
|---------------------------|----|------|-------|
|                            |    |      |       |
| Building environmental awareness | 0.25 | 0.04 | 1     | 31.73 | 0.00** |
| Respecting local culture   | 0.24 | 0.05 | 1     | 21.75 | 0.00** |
| Regulations                | 0.06 | 0.06 | 1     | 1.25  | 0.26   |
| Gazzelment of protected areas | 0.06 | 0.05 | 1     | 1.42  | 0.23   |
| Niche marketing            | 0.18 | 0.06 | 1     | 7.81  | 0.01** |
| Code of conduct            | 0.24 | 0.06 | 1     | 14.70 | 0.00** |

Dependent Variable: Resources vitality
The results are in agreement with Akama (1997) who observes that integrated planning ensures that rural tourism resources are available to benefit the present and future generation. The research finding on Table 15 and 17 rejected the null hypothesis, that, there is no statistically significant perceived effect of integrated rural tourism planning on resources vitality in Makueni County. The results of this objective suggested that destination conservation measures are very essential in ensuring that the available rural tourism resources are able to meet the present and future financial needs of the local communities. Conservation management strategies such as creating environmental awareness through conducting of regular training programs for environmental education and implementation of code of conduct at the rural tourism destinations are the key determinants in enhancing resources vitality in Makueni County.

The future availability of resources would enable the local communities meet their future financial needs. This is because the availability of the rural tourism resources in future would attract more tourists hence leading to creation of more jobs, development of infrastructure, and creation of market for the local goods from the local communities in the county and enhance trickle-down effect. The above perceived economic performance of resources would therefore improve the welfare of the local communities hence minimizing the poverty levels of the local communities in Makueni County.

Communities in Makueni County participate in the promotion of rural tourism through preservation and respect of their native cultures. The conservation on their culture hence promotes social stability by ensuring peaceful co-existence among the local communities in the County. Ideally, National Environmental Management Authority (NEMA) which is a government parastatal has played a key role in conservation of the rural tourism resources by educating the county residents on the need to conserve the environment. Kenya Wildlife Service (KWS) which is also a government parastatal has helped in the conservation of tourism attractions especially wildlife species in the protected areas in Makueni County. The two parastatals have an implication on the future availability of rural tourism resources in Makueni County.

5.0 Conclusions

The achievement of equity in communities’ revenue sharing in Makueni County is highly influenced by minimization of the misuse of the available rural tourism resources, prioritizing on whom to be given the first priority in terms of benefit sharing among the rural tourism stakeholders and identification of the potential areas to be promoted as rural tourism zones in the county. Community consultations, development of joint meetings and adoption of appropriate feedback mechanisms from the host community also influence the achievement equity in communities’ revenue sharing.

The achievement of resources vitality is highly influenced by creation of environmental awareness to all rural tourism stakeholders, respecting of the local culture of the host community and implementation of code of conduct at the rural tourism destinations in Makueni County. Destination managers have the responsibility of conducting several seminars and training programs for environmental education to the residents as a way of equipping them with the knowledge on the need to conserve the environmental resources for their future benefit.

References

Akama, J.S. (1997). Tourism Development in Kenya: Problems and Policy Alternatives. Progress in Tourism and Hospitality Research 3: 95-105.

Archabald, K., & Naughton-Treves, N.L. (2016). Tourism Revenue-Sharing around National Parks in Western Uganda: Early efforts to Identify and Reward Local Communities. Environmental Conservation, 28(2), 135–149.

Balmford, A., Beresford, J., Green, J., Naidoo, R., Walpole, M., & Manica, A. (2009). A global perspective on trends in nature-based tourism. PLoS Biology, 7(6), e1000144.

Bowman, K. S. (2011). Sustainable Tourism Certification And State Capacity: Keep It Local, Simple, and Fuzzy. International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research, 5, 269–281

Briedenhann, J. & Wickens, E. (2004). Tourism Routes as a Tool for the Economic Development of Rural areas – Vibrant Hope or Impossible Dream? Tourism Management, 25, pp. 71–79

Brohman, J. (1996). New directions in tourism for third world development. Annals of Tourism Research, 23(1), 48–70

Buckley, R. (2000). Tourism in the most fragile environments. Tourism Recreation Research, 25(1), 31–40.

Bulte, E., Boone, R.B., Stringer, R., & Thornton, P.K. (2008). Elephants or Onions? Paying for Nature in Amboseli, Kenya. Environment and Development Economics 13(3): 395–414.

Butler, R. W., & Boyd, S. W. (2000). Tourism and parks: Issues and implications (pp. 39–49). Chichester: John Wiley & Sons.
Butzmann, E., & Job, H. (2017). Developing a typology of sustainable protected area tourism products. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 25(12), 1736-1755.

Chok, S., & Macbeth, J. (2007). Tourism as a Tool for Poverty Alleviation: a Critical Analysis of ‘pro Poor Tourism’ and Implications for Sustainability, *Current Issues in Tourism*, 10 (2&3) 144-164.

Cooper, D. R., & Schindler, P. S. (2003). *Business Research Methods* (8th ed.). Tata, McGraw hill Publishing Co. Ltd.

Dieke, P. U. (2013). Tourism in sub-Saharan Africa: Production-consumption nexus *Current Issues in Tourism*, 16(7–8), 623–626.

Geyer, Y. (2010). *Integrated Development Planning*. Institute for Democracy in South Africa. Pretoria

Goodwin, H. (2000). Tourism, national parks and partnerships. *Issues and implications* (pp. 245–262). Chichester: John Wiley & Sons

Haghsen, A., Mahmoudi, B., & Maleki, R. (2011). Investigation of obstacles and strategies of Rural Tourism Development using SWOT Matrix, *Journal of Sustainable Development*, 4(2). DOI:10.5539/jsd.v4n2p136.

Hall, C.M., & Page, J.S. (2008). The Geography of Tourism and Recreation: Environment, Place and Space. London and New York: Rutledge.

Holland, J., Burian, M., & Dixey, L. (2003). *Tourism in Poor Rural Areas: Diversifying the Product and Expanding the Benefits in Rural Uganda and the Czech Republic* (PPT Working Paper No. 12).

Honeck, D. (2008). *Poverty Alleviation and the Doha Development Agenda: is Tourism being Neglected?* World Trade Organization, Manuscript dated 12 August 2008

IUCN (1994). Guidelines for protected areas management categories. Gland and Cambridge: IUCN.

Jenkins, C. (1994). *Tourism in Developing Countries: the Privatisation Issue*. In Tourism: the State of the Art, Seaton A & ed). Wiley: Chichester; 3-9.

Kavita, E. K. (2014). *Towards an Integrative Tourism Development Framework for Local Communities in Namibia* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Pretoria).

Kenya Wildlife Service (KWS). (2010). *Kenya Wildlife Service Strategic Plan 2008–2012*, Nairobi. KWS.

Kinoti, M. W. (2012). *Green Marketing Practices, Corporate image, Organizational Characteristics and Performance of ISO 9000 and 14000 Certified Organizations in Kenya*. (Unpublished PhD Thesis, University of Nairobi, Kenya).

Liu, W., Vogt, C. A., Luo, J., He, G., Frank, K. A., & Liu, J. (2012). Drivers and socioeconomic impacts of tourism participation in protected areas. PLoS ONE, 7(4), e35420.

Mabey, C. (2010). *Six-step model of change*. Milton Keynes: The Open University Business School

Manyara, G. & Jones, E. (2007). Community-Based Tourism Enterprises Development in Kenya: An Exploration of Their Potential as Avenues of Poverty Reduction, *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 15 (6) 628-644

Munanura, I. E., Backman, K. F., Hallo, J. C., & Powell, R. B. (2016). Perceptions of tourism revenue sharing impacts on Volcanoes National Park, Rwanda: A sustainable livelihoods framework. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 24(12), 1709–1726. doi:10.1080/09669582.2016.1145228

Mayer, M., & Job, H. (2014). The economics of protected areas—A European perspective. Zeitschrift fur Wirtschaftsgeographie, 58(1), 73–97. doi:10.1515/zfw.2014.0006

McGhee, N. G., Knollenberg, W., & Komorowski, A. (2015). The Central Role of Leadership in Rural Tourism Development: A Theoretical Framework and case studies. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 23(8-9), 1277-1297.

Mihailovic, B. (2012). *Tourism and Recreation in Rural Areas*, John Wiley & Sons, Chichester

Mugenda, O. M., & Mugenda, A. G. (2003). Research methods: Quantitative and Qualitative Approaches. Nairobi: African Centre for Technology Studies.

Munyoki, J. M. (2007). *The Effect of Technology Transfer on Organizational Performance: a case of Medium and Large Manufacturing Firms in Kenya*. (Unpublished PhD Thesis, University of Nairobi, Kenya).

Murray, A., & Kline, C. (2015). Rural Tourism and the Craft beer Experience: Factors Influencing Brand Loyalty in Rural North Carolina, USA. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 23(8-9), 1198-1216.

Njeru, W. G. (2013). *Market Orientation, Marketing Practices, firm Characteristics, External Environment and Performance of Tourism Firms in Kenya*. (Unpublished PhD Thesis, University of Nairobi, Kenya).

Ochieng, A. (2016). *Linking Tourism, Conservation and Livelihoods Outside Protected Areas: A Analysis of Sport Hunting Intervention around Lake Mburo National Park, Uganda*. Department of Environmental Science, Wageningen University, Netherlands.

Odunga, P., & Maangi, S. (2011). The Wildlife Tourism Market to Kenya (2002–2003). *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing* 28(1): 62–80. OECD, (Organisation of Economic Co-operation & Development). 1994. *Tourism Strategies and Rural Development*.

Okazaki, E. (2008). A community-based tourism model: Its conception and use. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 16(5), 511–529.

Robinson, J. G. (1993). The limits to caring: Sustainable living and the loss of biodiversity. *Conservation Biology*, 7(1), 20–28.
Sandbrook, C., & Adams, W. M. (2012). Accessing the impenetrable: The nature and distribution of tourism benefits at a Ugandan National Park. *Society & Natural Resources, 25*(9), 915–932. doi:10.1080/08941920.2011.644394

Scherl, L. M., & Edwards, S. (2007). *Tourism, indigenous and local communities and protected areas in developing nations. Benefits beyond boundaries* (pp. 71–88). Wallingford and Cambridge, MA: CABI

 Schroeder, R.A. (2008). Environmental Justice and the Market: The Politics of Sharing Wildlife Revenues in Tanzania. *Society and Natural Resources, 21*, 583–596.

Scheyvens, R. (2007). Exploring the Tourism-Poverty Nexus, *Current Issues in Tourism, 10* (2&3) 231-254.

 Schroeder, R.A. (2008). Environmental Justice and the Market: The Politics of Sharing Wildlife Revenues in Tanzania. *Society and Natural Resources, 21*, 583–596.

Scheyvens, R. (2007). Exploring the Tourism-Poverty Nexus, *Current Issues in Tourism, 10* (2&3) 231-254.

Sekhar, U. N. (2003). Local people’s attitudes towards conservation and wildlife tourism around Sariska Tiger Reserve, India. *Journal of Environmental Management, 69*(4), 339–347.

Sharpley, R., Dalgleish, T., Power, M., & Telfer, D.J. (2008). *Tourism Development in the Developing world*. London: Routledge.

Spenceley, A.E. (2008). *Responsible Tourism: Critical Issues for Conservation and Development*. London: Earthscan

Spenceley, A., & Meyer, D. (2017). *Tourism and Poverty Reduction: Principles and Impacts in Developing Countries*. Routledge.

Snyman, S., & Eagles, P. (2017). Guidelines for tourism partnerships and concessions for protected areas: Generating sustainable revenues for conservation and development. *Report to the Secretariat of the Convention on Biological Diversity and IUCN* (p. 59

Viljoen, J., & Tlabela, K. (2007). *Rural Tourism Development in South Africa. Trends and Challenges*. HSRC Press. Cape Town.