

**COMMUNITY-BASED TOURISM, GUEST SATISFACTION AND
SUSTAINABLE LIVELIHOODS OF COMMUNITY MEMBERS LIVING
ADJACENT TO MISSIONARY GUESTHOUSES IN WEST POKOT
COUNTY, KENYA**

**BY
NG'ORIARITA PLIMO JONATHAN**

**A Thesis Submitted to the School of Tourism, Hospitality and Management in
Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Award of Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy in Tourism Management**

Moi University

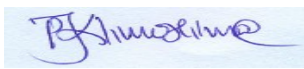
2025

DECLARATION

DECLARATION BY THE CANDIDATE

This thesis is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other University. No part of this thesis may be reproduced without prior written permission of the author and/or Moi University.

Ng'oriarita Plimo Jonathan



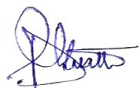
Date: 25th March, 2025

Reg. No: SBE/D.PHIL/TOU/014/09

DECLARATION BY SUPERVISORS

This thesis has been submitted for examination with our approval as University supervisors.

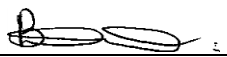
Prof. Damiannah M. Kieti



Date: 25th March, 2025

Department of Tourism and Tour Operations Management
Moi University

f Prof. Timothy Sulo (Deceased)



Date 25th March, 2025

Moi University, Eldoret, Kenya.

Prof. Jacqueline Korir



Date 25th March, 2025

Department of Hotel and Hospitality Management
Moi University

DEDICATION

To my Parents and Family

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I humbly acknowledge the roles and contributions of the following in the process of writing this thesis:

Prof. Damianah M. Kieti, Prof. Timothy Sulo (Deceased) and Prof. Jacqueline Korir, my supervisors, for their selfless constant guidance, encouraging advice, unlimited support and professional criticisms during the entire period of developing this thesis.

The Organization of Social Science Research in Eastern and Southern Africa (OSSREA) for organizing and allowing me to participate in a Training Course in Research Methodology under the Research School for Eastern and Southern Africa (RESSESA). This experience acquainted me with more exposure and experience in the field of research.

I appreciate my classmates at the Department of Tourism and Tour Operations Management and RESSESA with whom we shared cordial and good working relations during coursework and thesis writing. The staff of the Department of Tourism and Tour Operations Management, and the School of Tourism, Hospitality and Events Management Moi University where I started the PhD journey and School of Tourism, Hospitality and Events Management who provided an enabling environment and support for completion of this thesis.

Lastly, may God bless all those who assisted me in one way or the other in making my studies a success.

ABSTRACT

West Pokot County is home to many missionary guesthouses (MGHs), which function as community-based tourism (CBT) enterprises with the potential to significantly enhance the sustainable livelihoods of the local community. However, their role in community-based tourism development has often been overlooked, and they face challenges such as inadequate tourism industry support. Additionally, guest satisfaction has not been adequately addressed, limiting the potential of MGHs to attract and retain visitors. Understanding and enhancing guest experiences through improved facilities, service quality, and cultural engagement could strengthen their contribution to local tourism and economic development. This study determined the effect of CBT on sustainable livelihoods, with a particular focus on the moderating role of guest satisfaction in the relationship between CBT and sustainable livelihoods of eleven MGHs in West Pokot County, Kenya. Specifically, the study determined the effect of local participation (LP), rural tourism (RT) and activities and programs (AP) on sustainable livelihoods (SL); the moderating effect of guest satisfaction (GS) on the relationship between LP and SL, AP and SL; RT and SL and demographic characteristics and socio-economic benefits. Sustainable Livelihoods Framework guided the study, which adopted sequential explanatory research design. The target population comprised 7,103 household heads and 550 guests from eleven (11) MGHs. The sample size was 369 household heads and 236 guests sampled using systematic and simple random sampling techniques. Qualitative data was collected through eleven focused group discussions with guesthouse management committees, interviews with eleven managers, four church officers and two County tourism officials all selected purposively. Quantitative data was analyzed using Multiple Linear Regression and Process Macro, while qualitative data used content analysis. The regression model had a coefficient determination R^2 of 0.312, indicating that CBT explained 31.2% variation in sustainable livelihoods. Local participation ($\beta_1=0.052$, $p=0.001$), activities and programs ($\beta_2=0.130$, $p=0.001$), and rural tourism ($\beta_3=0.344$, $p=0.001$) all had a positive and significant effect on sustainable livelihoods ($p<0.05$). Process Macro results found statistically insignificant interactions between LP and GS ($\Delta=.0014$ $f(1,151)=.2150$, $p=.6436$), AP and GS ($\Delta=.0004$ $f(1,151)=.0607$, $p=.8057$) and RT and GS ($\Delta=.0010$ $f(1,151)=.2147$, $p=.6438$) as the $p>0.05$. The interviews revealed that the local community actively participates in MGHs through the election of committees and provision of supplies, establishing strong connections. Additionally, church networks and guests serve as key marketing channels for the guesthouses, which contribute to tourism development. The study concludes that community-based tourism affects sustainable livelihoods and socio-economic benefits. Guest satisfaction moderated the relationship between CBT and sustainable livelihoods. The study recommended enhancing local participation through increased activities and programs to boost sustainable livelihoods and promote rural tourism (RT) by innovating new products, while also engaging in flagship tourism projects with significant potential to support community-based rural tourism. This study contributes to the body of knowledge by supporting the government's policy of diversifying the country's tourism offerings, particularly through the expansion of tourism to rural areas and communities in Kenya.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION	ii
DEDICATION	iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iv
ABSTRACT	v
TABLE OF CONTENTS	vi
LIST OF TABLES	xii
LIST OF FIGURES	xiv
ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS	xv
OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF TERMS	xvii
CHAPTER ONE	1
INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.0 Overview	1
1.1 Background Information to the Study.....	1
1.2 Statement of the Problem.....	7
1.3 Objectives of the Study	10
1.3.1 General Objective.....	10
1.3.2 Specific Objectives.....	10
1.4 Hypotheses	11
1.5 Research Questions	12
1.6 Significance of the Study	13
1.7 Scope of the Study	14
1.8 Limitation of the Study	15
CHAPTER TWO	17
LITERATURE REVIEW	17
2.0 Introduction.....	17
2.1 Concept of sustainable livelihoods	17
2.1.1 The livelihood Components and Sustainable Livelihood Framework (SLF) .	19
2.2 Concept of Community-Based Tourism	22
2.2.1 Principles of sustainable community-based tourism.....	25
2.2.2 Community Based Tourism (CBT) Success factors	28
2.2.3 Community-Based Tourism and Sustainable Development	30
2.2.4 Community-Based Tourism Initiatives	31

2.3 Local Participation in Community Based Tourism	32
2.3.1 Key Elements of Community-Based Tourism Development and benefits	40
2.3.2 Local management and empowerment of community members	42
2.3.3 Building Linkages between tourism and the local community livelihoods	44
2.4 Rural Tourism	45
2.4.1 Building Sustainable Community-Based Rural Tourism.....	47
2.4.2 The concept of accommodation in rural tourism	50
2.4.3 Guesthouse facilities as accommodation segment	51
2.4.4 GHs Enterprises within Rural Tourism and Economy.....	53
2.4.5 Role of government in the development of GHs in rural areas.....	54
2.4.6 Endowments of rural areas with tourism Rural Resources	56
2.5 Activities and Programmes of MGHs as Community-Based Tourism ventures ...	56
2.5.1 Bringing local producers into the supply chain.....	60
2.6 Socio-Economic Benefits of Tourism.....	61
2.7 Guest Satisfaction and Community-Based Tourism.....	65
2.8 Theoretical Framework.....	67
2.8.1 Social Exchange theory	67
2.8.2 Stakeholder Theory	69
2.8.3 The Theory of Assimilation	70
2.8.4 Sustainable Asset Pentagon.....	71
2.9 Summary and Gap Identified in Literature	73
2.9.1 Knowledge gap that the study sought to bridge	73
2.10 Conceptual Framework.....	75
CHAPTER THREE	79
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	79
3.0 Overview	79
3.1 Study Area	79
3.1.1 Location.....	79
3.1.2 Climatic Conditions	80
3.1.3 Topographic Features	81
3.1.4 Farming Activities.....	84
3.1.5 Political landscape	85
3.1.6 MGHs in West Pokot County.....	85
3.1.7 Location of MGHs	86

3.1.8 Population density	89
3.2 Research paradigm.....	90
3.3 Research Design.....	91
3.4 Target Population.....	92
3.5 Sample Design	96
3.5.1 The sampling frame.....	96
3.5.2 Sample size.....	98
3.5.3 Sampling Techniques	100
3.6 Data Collection	102
3.6.1 Data types and sources	102
3.6.2 Data collection instruments.....	103
3.6.2.1 Structured questionnaires	103
3.6.2.2 Interview schedules	104
3.6.2.3 Focus group discussions	106
3.6.3 The Pilot study	107
3.6.4 Measurement of Variables	109
3.7 Validity and Reliability.....	112
3.7.1 Validity.....	114
3.7.2 Reliability.....	115
3.8 Data Analysis.....	116
3.8.1 Data Screening and Cleaning.....	116
3.8.2 Descriptive Analysis	117
3.8.3 Inferential Analysis	117
3.8.4 Assumptions of Multiple Regression	118
3.8.5 Multiple Linear Regression.....	119
3.8.6 Process Macro	119
3.8.7 Pearson Correlation.....	120
3.8.8 Qualitative Analysis	121
3.9 Ethical Considerations	123
CHAPTER FOUR.....	124
DATA ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION.....	124
4.0 Overview.....	124
4.1 Response Rate.....	124
4.2 Missing values	124

4.3 Demographic Information of Local Community	125
4.3.1 Personal Information of Local Community Households.....	126
4.3.2 Category of local community	128
4.3.3 Descriptive data of Households.....	129
4.3.4 Nature and households' reliance on MGHs	131
4.3.5 Local Community Awareness of MGHs	134
4.4 Demographic Characteristic of the MGHs Guests.....	136
4.4.1 Guests' Social Information.....	137
4.4.2 Guests' Economic Information	138
4.4.3 Guests previous experiences	140
4.4.4 Guest expectations and experiences with attributes of the MGHs.....	142
4.4.5 Likelihood of MGHs engaging in tourism activities once in this area.....	143
4.4.6 Guest satisfaction with MGH attributes	144
4.4.7 Services at MGHs.....	145
4.4.8 Guests' expectations, experiences and satisfaction of the MGHs in West Pokot	146
4.4.9 Qualitative results on Guest expectations, experiences and guest services ..	147
4.5 Descriptive Statistics for Variables.....	149
4.5.1 Local Participation of Households in MGHs	149
4.5.2 Activities and programmes of CBT	152
4.5.3 Rural tourism.....	156
4.5.4 Sustainable livelihood's Assets in West Pokot County, Kenya.	161
4.5.4.1 Financial Assets	162
4.5.4.2 Human Assets	163
4.5.4.3 Natural Assets.....	166
4.5.4.4 Physical Assets	167
4.5.4.5 Human Assets	169
4.5.5 Socio-Economic Benefits	172
4.5.5.1 Economic benefits of MGHs to households	172
4.5.5.2 Social Benefits of MGHs to Households.....	174
4.5.6 Impacts of the MGHs on local communities' lifestyles	177
4.5.7 Challenges faced by MGHs.....	178
4.6 Inferential Statistics	179
4.6.1 Assumptions of Multiple Linear Regression.....	179

4.6.1.1 Normality.....	180
4.6.1.2 Linearity – Scatter Plots	182
4.6.1.3 Testing for Homogeneity of Variances	183
4.6.1.4 Testing for Multicollinearity	184
4.6.1.5 Testing for Independence of Errors	185
4.6.2 Multiple Linear Regression Analysis.....	186
4.6.3 Hypothesis Testing.....	187
4.6.4 Process Macro Analysis	190
CHAPTER FIVE	196
SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, DISCUSSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND	
CONCLUSIONS	196
5.1 Introduction.....	196
5.2 Summary of Findings.....	196
5.3 Discussion	200
5.3.1 Local participation and Sustainable Livelihoods	200
5.3.2 Activities and programmes of CBT in MGHs and Sustainable Livelihoods	204
5.3.3 Rural tourism and sustainable livelihoods	210
5.3.4 Guest satisfaction as a moderator of CBT and sustainable livelihoods	215
5.3.5 Socio-Economic Analysis of MGHs	216
5.4 Conclusions.....	226
5.5 Contributions of the Study	228
5.5.1 Theoretical Contributions.....	228
5.5.2 Contextual Contributions	230
5.6 Recommendations of the Study	232
5.6.1 Recommendations for practice.....	232
5.6.2 Policy Recommendations	233
5.6.3 Managerial Recommendations	234
5.7 Recommendations for Future Research	234
REFERENCES	235
APPENDICES	259
Appendix I: Questionnaire for Households (Local Community Members).....	259
Appendix II: Questionnaire for Tourists/Guests	266
Appendix III: Interview Schedule	270
Appendix IV: Interview Schedule for Guests	271

Appendix V: Focus Group Discussion Schedule for Management Committee	
Members	272
Appendix VI: Map on Location of West Pokot County.....	273
Appendix VII: Map of the County's Administrative/Political Units	274
Appendix VIII: Plate 1 – 4 (The MGHs)	275
Appendix IX: Recommendation Letter for Data Collection	279
Appendix X: Plagiarism Report	279

LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1: Livelihood assets	18
Table 2.2: Typology of Community Participation	35
Table 2.3 Typology of participation	39
Table 2.4: Attributes of capacity building in Community-based rural tourism	49
Table 2.5: Challenges/Barriers of Community-based rural tourisms	55
Table 2.6: Possible Community-based tourism activities in a community.....	59
Table 3.1: Constituency and County Wards in West Pokot County.....	85
Table 3.2: Population density per sub-county.....	90
Table 3.3: Target Population of Local Community	94
Table 3.4: Target Population for Tourists (MGHs guests).	95
Table 3.5: Sampling Frame.....	97
Table 3.6: Sample Size Determination	99
Table 3.7: Codes for interview schedules conducted.....	105
Table 3.8: Codes for Focus Group Discussion	107
Table 3.9: Measurement of Study Variables.....	111
Table 3.10: Reliability Results.....	116
Table 3.11: Coefficient, r	121
Table 4.1: Univariate Statistics	125
Table 4.2: Household Heads Demographic Information	127
Table 4.3: Category of community association with MGHs	129
Table 4.4: Descriptive data of Households	130
Table 4.5: Nature and extent of households' reliance of MGHs (%) (N=358).....	133
Table 4.6(a): Local communities Awareness of the MGHs in their localities.....	134
Table 4.6(b): Local communities Awareness of the MGHs in their localities	135
Table 4.7: Demographic Information of Guests	137
Table 4.8: Social Information on MGHs	138
Table 4.9: Personal Information of Guests	139
Table 4.10: Guests previous experiences.....	141
Table 4.11: Guests' expectations and experiences at the MGHs in West Pokot County	143
Table 4.12: Likelihood of MGHs guests Engaging in tourism activities once in this area	144

Table 4.13: Guest Satisfaction with attributes of MGHs	145
Table 4.14: Guests'/Visitors rating of services received at the MGHs, (n=155 (%)).	146
Table 4.15: Pearson Correlations	147
Table 4.16: Descriptive Statistics on Local Participation	151
Table 4.17: Descriptive Statistics for Activities and Programs of CBT	154
Table 4.18: Descriptive Statistics for Rural tourism.....	159
Table 4.19: Summary of interview responses on contribution of MGHs to rural tourism	161
Table 4.20(a): Descriptive Statistics for Financial Assets (Sustainable Livelihoods)	163
Table 4.20(b): Descriptive Statistics for Human Assets (Sustainable Livelihoods)..	164
Table 4.20(c): Descriptive Statistics for Human Assets (Sustainable Livelihoods)..	167
Table 4.20 (d): Descriptive Statistics for Physical Assets (sustainable livelihoods).	168
Table 4.20 (e): Descriptive Statistics for Social assets (sustainable livelihoods).....	170
Table 4.21: Summary of interview on the impacts of MGHs as CBT on livelihoods assets	171
Table 4.22: Descriptive Statistics Perceived economic benefits of MGHs to Households.....	173
Table 4.23: Descriptive Statistics for Perceived Social Benefits of MGHs to Households.....	175
Table 4.24: Test of Homogeneity of Variances	184
Table 4.25: Collinearity Diagnostics ^a	184
Table 4.26: Collinearity Statistics.....	185
Table 4.27: Model Summary ^b	186
Table 4.28: ANOVA ^a	187
Table 4.29: Coefficients ^a	187
Table 4.30: Summary of Hypotheses Test Results	189
Table 4.31: Model Summary for LC, guest satisfaction & sustainable livelihoods ..	191
Table 4.32: Conditional Interactions LP*GS*SL	192
Table 4.33: Model Summary activities/programs, guest satisfaction & sustainable livelihoods.....	192
Table 4.34: Conditional Interactions AP*GS*SL.....	193
Table 4.35: Model Summary RTD, GS and SL.....	194
Table 4.36: Conditional Interactions RTD*GS*SL	194

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1: Sustainable Livelihoods Framework	21
Figure 2.2: Eight rungs on the ladder of citizen participation	37
Figure 2.3: The tourism business operation and a variety of linkages.....	45
Figure 2.4: Diversity of rural tourism resource endowments	56
Figure 2.5: Sustainable Asset Pentagon.....	72
Figure 2.6: Conceptual framework	78
Figure 3.1: Map of West Pokot County showing the location of the MGHs.....	80
Figure 4.1: Local communities' awareness of the activities of MGHs in their localities	135
Figure 4.2: Guest expenditure.....	140
Figure 4.3: Transport used by MGH guests.....	142
Figure 4.4: Payment for guest trip	142
Figure 4.5: Q-Q Plot of Local Participation in MGH	180
Figure 4.6: Q-Q PLOT for Activities and Programmes.....	181
Figure 4.7: Q-Q Plot of Rural tourism	181
Figure 4.8: Q-Q Plot for Sustainable Livelihoods	182
Figure 4.9: Linear relationship of variables	183

ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

AP	Activities and Programmes
ASAL	Arid and Semi-arid Lands
BC	Baptist Church
CBO	Community Based Organizations
CBRT	Community-Based Rural Tourism
CBT	Community-Based Tourism
CIDP	County Integrated Development Plan
CL	Comparison Level
ELCK	Evangelical Lutheran Church of Kenya
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GoK	Government of Kenya
HHhds	House Hold Heads
IRC	Isiolo Resort City
KII	Key Informant Interviews
KVDA	Kerio Valley Development Authority
KWS	Kenya Wildlife Service
LAPSSET	Lamu Port South Sudan Ethiopia Transport Corridor
LDCs	Least Developed Countries
LP	Local Participation
MDG's	Millennium Development Goals
MGHs	Missionary' Guest Houses
MPFSC	Marich Pass Field Studies Centre
NLM	Norwegian Lutheran Missions
PRSP	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper

RCEA	Reformed Church of East Africa
RT	Rural Tourism
SET	Social Exchange Theory
SL	Sustainable Livelihoods
UNEP	United Nations Environment Programme
UNWTO	United Nation World Tourism Organization
WCED	World Commission on Environment and Development
WTO	World Tourism Organization

OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF TERMS

Activities and Programs	These are the activities and programmes of the MGHs that support the various aspects of the local communities' livelihood assets.
Community	A social group with a common territorial base and a sense of shared interests and belongings (Robertson, 1989).
Community Based Tourism (CBT)	Tourism that promotes community participation in financing, development, management, and ownership (Beeh, 2017). The community is the main actor and focus of CBT (Briones, Yusay, &Valdez, 2017). In this study community-based tourism was conceptualized as local participation, activities and programmes and rural tourism
Guest	Person who pays for overnight accommodations and receives the hospitality offered by a host (Causevic & Lynch, 2009)
Household	A group of people who eat from a common pot, and share a common stake in perpetuating and improving their socio-economic status from one generation to the next.
Livelihood(s)	Denotes the means, the activities, and the assets by which an individual or household make a living (Ellis, 1999). In addition, a livelihood is not just about income and employment, but it involves more complexities and diverse strategies for living (Chambers & Conway, 1992).

Local participation	Refers to the forms of involvement and engagement of people in decisions affecting their lives.
Rural tourism	The development of tourism which utilizes the local resources in a sustainable manner and also minimizes detriment to the local community and the environment. Goodwin (2011); Tosun (2001); WTO (2005).
Sustainable Livelihood	Sustainable livelihoods encompass human, social, physical, financial and natural assets (DFID). These assets form the foundation for people's ability to pursue and maintain their livelihoods in a way that is sustainable over time.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Overview

This chapter presents the background information to the study, the problem statement, research objectives, hypotheses and research questions, the significance of the study; the scope of the study and limitations of the study.

1.1 Background Information to the Study

Tourism is a major global economic driver, contributing 10% to global GDP and generating 1.5 trillion USD in exports (UNWTO, 2017). In Kenya, tourism has been a key economic sector, though its benefits have been unevenly distributed, particularly in rural areas (Mbai, 2018). Community-based tourism (CBT) has emerged as a promising model for local development, enabling communities to diversify their livelihoods and improve economic conditions through active participation in tourism (Tosun, 2020). West Pokot County, with its rich cultural and natural assets, presents an opportunity to leverage tourism for sustainable development, despite facing challenges such as inadequate infrastructure and low community involvement in decision-making (Mwaura et al., 2020).

Missionary Guesthouses (MGHs), originally established by missionaries in the region, have evolved into key tourism establishments offering lodging and supporting local employment (Wangari et al., 2021). These guesthouses represent a model for rural tourism in Kenya, which could help empower local communities by involving them in tourism-related activities, such as guiding and handicrafts, while fostering economic stability (Boley et al., 2020). However, challenges persist, including a top-down

approach to tourism development and external influences that may limit community control and participation (Tosun, 2020).

Despite Kenya's strategic initiatives, such as the Vision 2030, tourism development has often been dominated by multinational corporations, resulting in economic leakages and insufficient local benefits (Hannan, 2008). The Kenyan government has recognized the need to focus on rural tourism to diversify economic opportunities and reduce reliance on traditional sectors such as agriculture (Mugambi & Ngeno, 2019). West Pokot has the potential to capitalize on its cultural and natural attractions, yet the region faces obstacles like poor infrastructure and insecurity, which hinder tourism growth, (Kenya Wildlife Service, 2010).

Community-based tourism (CBT) has been increasingly recognized as a transformative model for fostering sustainable tourism that provides direct socio-economic benefits to local communities. By emphasizing local participation, ownership, and equitable distribution of benefits, CBT promotes the involvement of residents in tourism activities, helping to reduce poverty, conserve cultural and natural resources, and improve overall community welfare (Tosun, 2020; Yao et al., 2022). CBT aims to empower local communities, enabling them to diversify their income sources and engage in small-scale businesses, thus enhancing their living conditions and contributing to social capital (Boley et al., 2020). This form of tourism has been particularly impactful in rural areas, where it offers economic diversification opportunities and leverages the unique cultural and natural assets of a region (Moyo et al., 2018).

Community-Based Tourism (CBT) is a form of tourism that places local communities at the heart of tourism development, emphasizing local participation, ownership, and

equitable distribution of benefits. CBT seeks to empower communities by involving them in all stages of tourism planning, development, and management, ensuring they directly benefit from tourism activities. This model not only focuses on economic gains but also aims to preserve cultural heritage, conserve natural resources, and improve social cohesion within communities (Tosun, 2020). To evaluate the effectiveness of CBT, several indicators have been developed to measure the extent to which local communities' benefit, their level of involvement, and the sustainability of the initiatives. These indicators include economic impact, which assesses financial benefits such as income from tourism-related businesses, job creation, and revenue from local products and services (Yao et al., 2022). Social and cultural impact measures the extent to which local culture is preserved and promoted through activities like cultural events, handicrafts, and heritage tours, while also including social benefits like improved access to education and healthcare through tourism revenue (Boley et al., 2020). Environmental impact evaluates the sustainability of tourism in relation to environmental conservation, including the preservation of natural resources and the promotion of eco-friendly practices (Tosun, 2020). Community engagement measures the level of local community participation in tourism decision-making, from planning to management, ensuring they have a voice in the development of tourism policies (McGehee & Andereck, 2017).

Local participation is a key principle of CBT, allowing community members to play an active role in tourism decision-making. This ensures that tourism development aligns with local values, needs, and aspirations. Participation can range from direct involvement in tourism businesses, such as running guesthouses, guiding, and selling local crafts, to participating in planning committees that shape tourism policies and initiatives (Byrd et al., 2017). According to Lee (2019), local participation enhances

tourism sustainability by fostering a sense of ownership and responsibility towards the environment and cultural heritage. Furthermore, when communities are involved in tourism, they are more likely to feel empowered and motivated to ensure responsible tourism practices. Studies by Telfer and Sharpley (2018) highlight that local participation in CBT not only increases economic benefits but also strengthens social networks and creates opportunities for community members to showcase their traditions and values.

CBT initiatives often involve a variety of activities and programs designed to benefit both the local community and tourists. These include cultural experiences, such as traditional dances, storytelling, and cooking classes, which promote cultural preservation and provide income for local artisans and performers (Tosun, 2020). Ecotourism activities, such as wildlife tours, hiking, and bird-watching, are increasingly popular in rural areas, raising awareness about environmental conservation while providing financial support for conservation efforts (Gössling et al., 2019). Additionally, CBT often promotes local handicrafts and products, allowing local artisans to benefit from tourism by selling their goods to visitors, creating a sustainable income source (Yao et al., 2022). Many CBT projects also offer training and capacity-building programs, such as hospitality training for guesthouse staff, guiding training, and business management courses, which enhance the community's ability to manage tourism effectively and improve service quality (Mwaura et al., 2020).

Rural tourism, which focuses on rural areas and their unique cultural and natural assets, is closely linked to CBT. This form of tourism aims to diversify the local economy, promote sustainable land use, and preserve the rural way of life (Sharpley

& Roberts, 2020). In rural areas, traditional livelihoods like agriculture and pastoralism face challenges due to changing market conditions and climate change. Tourism offers an alternative income source that complements these livelihoods while promoting environmental and cultural conservation (Pforr et al., 2021). When combined with CBT principles, rural tourism offers numerous benefits, including the development of small businesses, infrastructure improvements, and the preservation of natural resources. In regions like West Pokot County, rural tourism initiatives, such as cultural festivals, visits to heritage sites, and eco-tourism projects, can revitalize local economies while allowing communities to retain control over tourism development and management (Karanja et al., 2021). Rural tourism can also address poverty by providing new employment opportunities and improving access to services like healthcare and education (Wanyama et al., 2020).

CBT represents a holistic approach to tourism development that empowers local communities, preserves cultural and natural resources, and promotes sustainable economic growth. It includes activities like cultural exchanges, eco-tourism, and the development of local enterprises, which contribute to community-driven rural tourism. By benefiting local livelihoods and aligning with the broader goals of sustainable development, CBT plays a crucial role in fostering tourism that supports both local communities and the environment (Tosun, 2020; Boley et al., 2020).

Guest satisfaction plays a crucial role in the success of tourism ventures, as it directly impacts the sustainability and long-term viability of tourism businesses (Boley et al., 2020). Research indicates that satisfied tourists are more likely to return to a destination, recommend it to others, and contribute to the local economy through their spending (Boley et al., 2020). The relationship between guest satisfaction and the

broader socio-economic benefits of tourism has yet to be fully explored, particularly in the context of CBT in rural areas. Understanding how guest satisfaction moderates the relationship between community-based tourism and sustainable livelihoods is critical to optimizing the impact of tourism on local communities.

West Pokot County, a predominantly rural area in Kenya, has embraced community-based tourism (CBT) through Missionary Guesthouses (MGHs) to support tourism development. The county relies mainly on agriculture and pastoralism, but these sectors face challenges related to climate change vulnerability. Despite its rich cultural heritage and natural beauty, tourism in the region has been underdeveloped due to poor infrastructure and lack of coordinated management. MGHs present a unique opportunity for local communities to engage in tourism, promoting economic stability, employment, and social well-being (Boley et al., 2020). However, factors like limited community involvement in decision-making, inadequate infrastructure, and external influences, such as religious organizations' dominance, hinder the full potential of MGHs to improve sustainable livelihoods (McGehee & Andereck, 2017; Telfer & Sharpley, 2018). Assessing the impact of MGHs on sustainable livelihoods is essential for understanding how tourism can contribute to long-term socio-economic development in the region (Wanyama et al., 2020; Wangari et al., 2021).

The MGH model incorporates community-based tourism principles, allowing locals to participate in decision-making, tourism activities, and capacity-building efforts. These guesthouses offer accommodation, cultural exchanges, handicraft sales, and guided tours, enabling locals to benefit from tourism while preserving their cultural values (Moyo et al., 2018). This model can empower communities by fostering skill-building and entrepreneurship, ensuring tourism is sustainable and culturally appropriate.

However, challenges such as limited local capacity, unequal participation, and external influences from religious organizations and government agencies can undermine local autonomy and hinder the positive impact of tourism on livelihoods (Tosun, 2020; Byrd et al., 2017). These issues emphasize the need for inclusive tourism practices that prioritize local empowerment.

This study aims to address this gap by investigating the role of old missionary guesthouses and missionary centres in supporting CBT development and the resultant impacts of this community-based tourism on the livelihoods of the local host communities as well as the moderating effect of guest satisfaction on the relationship between CBT and the sustainable livelihoods of local communities in West Pokot County living adjacent to MGHs.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Despite Kenya's success in tourism at the national level, with significant contributions to GDP and alignment with Vision 2030's economic goals, tourism development is still concentrated in a few regions, particularly along the coast and around national parks. This geographical concentration limits the equitable distribution of tourism benefits especially to rural communities where high levels of poverty persist (Koster, 2019). Additionally, challenges such as foreign dominance in the tourism industry, weak local economic linkages, and minimal involvement of indigenous communities in the sector hinder equitable benefit-sharing, leaving local communities with limited opportunities (Koster, 2019).

Community-based tourism (CBT) has been proposed as a potential solution to sustainable livelihoods, as it emphasizes local control and equitable distribution of benefits. The government has increasingly focused on CBT as a means of addressing

these disparities and promoting socio-economic growth (Koster, 2019). Community-based tourism (CBT) has gained attention as a potential solution for promoting sustainable development and addressing socio-economic inequalities in regions that traditionally have limited access to the benefits of tourism (Koster, 2019). As an approach that emphasizes local participation, CBT seeks to involve communities in the planning and management of tourism, thereby ensuring that benefits are equitably shared. Local participation, activities and programs, and rural tourism have been identified as key components in the successful implementation of CBT, offering opportunities for community empowerment and the creation of linkages between tourism and local economies (Tosun, 2006; Kamarudin, 2013a).

Despite the potential of Community-Based Tourism (CBT), limited research has been conducted on its impact on sustainable livelihoods, particularly in rural areas like West Pokot County. That is, academic research into community-based tourism (CBT) development in rural regions of Kenya such as West Pokot remain underdeveloped. Even less understood is the role of old missionary guesthouses and missionary centres in supporting CBT development and the resultant impacts of this community-based tourism on the livelihoods of the local host communities as well as the level of guest satisfaction with the services they receive at the guesthouses; a gap that this research sought to address.

Sustainable livelihoods, measured by financial, human, natural, physical, and social assets, offer a comprehensive framework for understanding how tourism affects the well-being and resilience of local communities (Srisantisuk, 2015). While CBT has been shown to contribute to economic growth and poverty reduction, its effectiveness

in supporting sustainable livelihoods remains underexplored, especially in the context of rural tourism (Lane, 2009; Zhao, 2009).

Furthermore, guest satisfaction, which is hypothesized to moderate the relationship between community-based tourism and sustainable livelihoods, has not been sufficiently explored in this context. Given the significance of guest satisfaction in shaping tourism outcomes, it is important to examine how factors such as service quality, safety, and staff performance influence both local community engagement in tourism and their livelihoods. Therefore, this study aims to investigate how community-based tourism, measured by local participation, activities, programs, and rural tourism, influences sustainable livelihoods in West Pokot County, Kenya, while considering the moderating role of guest satisfaction in addressing socio-economic challenges in the region.

This study focuses on Missionary Guesthouses (MGHs) in West Pokot County, Kenya, as a form of community-based tourism (CBT). These guesthouses, owned by local communities through churches, generate income and attract visitors. However, research on their role in CBT, particularly regarding local participation, sustainable livelihoods, and socio-economic benefits, remains limited. Additionally, this study will examine the moderating effect of guest satisfaction on the relationship between MGHs and their impact on community-based tourism development. Guest satisfaction plays a crucial role in tourism sustainability, influencing visitor retention, word-of-mouth promotion, and overall business viability (Prayag, Hosany, & Odeh, 2013). As a moderator, guest satisfaction can strengthen or weaken the impact of MGHs on local tourism development, making it essential to assess its role in enhancing their contribution to community livelihoods.

The study is also informed by established theories such as Social Exchange Theory, which emphasizes reciprocal relationships in CBT but has not fully explored long-term satisfaction; Stakeholder Theory, which highlights the involvement of diverse interests but lacks guidance on managing them for equitable outcomes; and the Theory of Assimilation, which offers insight into how communities adapt to tourism, though its cultural and social impacts on West Pokot remain underexplored. Furthermore, the Sustainable Livelihoods Framework calls for a comprehensive approach to improving well-being, yet the specific role of tourism in supporting sustainable livelihoods has not been sufficiently researched.

This study aims to fill these gaps, applying these theories to examine MGHs' role in improving guest satisfaction and local community livelihoods, with the goal of providing a comprehensive understanding of MGHs as community-based tourism ventures in West Pokot.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

1.3.1 General Objective

To examine the effect of community-based tourism on sustainable livelihoods of local communities living adjacent to Missionary guesthouses and the moderating effect of guest satisfaction on the relationship between community-based tourism and sustainable livelihoods of local community living adjacent to MGHs in West Pokot County, Kenya

1.3.2 Specific Objectives

1. To determine the effect of local participation on sustainable livelihoods of local community living adjacent to MGHs in West Pokot County, Kenya.

2. To establish the effect of activities and programs of CBT on sustainable livelihoods of the local community living adjacent to MGHs in West Pokot County, Kenya.
3. To determine the effect of rural tourism on sustainable livelihoods of the local community living adjacent to MGHs in West Pokot County, Kenya.
4. To determine the moderating effect of guest satisfaction on the relationship between community-based tourism and sustainable livelihoods of the local community living adjacent to Missionary Guesthouses in West Pokot County, Kenya
5. To assess socio-economic benefits of tourism to the local community living adjacent to Missionary Guesthouses in West Pokot County
6. To evaluate managers' perceptions of community-based tourism and its impact on the sustainable livelihoods of the local community living adjacent to missionary guesthouses in West Pokot County, Kenya.

1.4 Hypotheses

- H₀₁ There is no effect of local participation on sustainable livelihoods of the local community living adjacent to MGHs in West Pokot County, Kenya
- H₀₂ There is no effect of activities and programs of CBT on sustainable livelihoods of the local community living adjacent to MGHs in West Pokot County, Kenya
- H₀₃ There is no effect of rural based tourism on sustainable livelihoods of the local community living adjacent to MGHs in West Pokot County, Kenya

- H_{04a} There is no moderating effect of guest satisfaction on the relationship between local participation and sustainable livelihoods of the local community living adjacent to MGHs in West Pokot County
- H_{04b} There is no moderating effect of guest satisfaction on the relationship between activities and programs and sustainable livelihoods of the local community living adjacent to MGHs in West Pokot County
- H_{04c} There is no moderating effect of guest satisfaction on the relationship between rural tourism and sustainable livelihoods of the local community living adjacent to MGHs in West Pokot County

1.5 Research Questions

1. What is the perceived nature and awareness level of community-based tourism of the local community living around missionary guesthouses in West Pokot County, Kenya?
2. What are the perceived roles of missionary guesthouses towards sustainable livelihoods of the local community and community-based tourism development in West Pokot County, Kenya?
3. What are the perceived impacts of community-based tourism on sustainable livelihoods of the local community living around West Pokot County, Kenya?
4. How do the local communities perceive missionary guesthouses as community-based tourism ventures and the impacts on sustainable livelihoods of the community in West Pokot County, Kenya?
5. What are the socio-economic benefits of tourism to the local community living adjacent to Missionary Guesthouses in West Pokot County

1.6 Significance of the Study

Tourism plays a vital role in driving national, regional, and destination growth, as well as in promoting community development. Introducing tourism in diverse destinations can significantly improve livelihoods and distribute the benefits of tourism more evenly across regions and communities. This study's findings on the potential of Missionary Guesthouses (MGHs) to facilitate sustainable, community-based rural tourism may be valuable for both county and national governments in understanding the guesthouse model within Kenya. It is crucial to recognize the role of guesthouses in tourism development, their acceptability among local communities, and their impact on the local economy.

The results of this study may support the growth of local tourism and provide communities with a deeper understanding of the tourism industry. The recommendations derived from the study have the potential to help improve the guesthouse concept in Kenya. Furthermore, the study aligns with the Kenyan government's policy to expand tourism to rural and peripheral destinations, contributing to its successful implementation.

Additionally, this research contributes new insights to the existing literature on guesthouses, both in Kenya and beyond, especially regarding the role of missionary establishments in tourism development. This study opens new frontiers in understanding how missionary guesthouses can be integrated into the tourism industry, offering both county and national governments a fresh model for rural tourism development. It also presents a new perspective on community involvement in tourism and generation of valuable knowledge on the importance of partnerships in tourism development.

Given the limited research on guesthouses as a tourism product in Kenya, particularly in rural areas, this study fills a significant gap in the literature. It provides essential data and insights that can benefit students, researchers, policymakers, and practitioners interested in the role of guesthouses in fostering tourism development in rural and peripheral regions.

Ultimately, this study justifies its pursuit by contributing to a better understanding of the relationship between missionary work in challenging destinations and sustainable tourism development. It offers valuable information to explain how tourism can meaningfully enhance the socio-economic well-being of host communities.

1.7 Scope of the Study

This study examined the effect of community-based tourism on the sustainable livelihoods of local communities living adjacent to missionary guesthouses in West Pokot County. Community-based tourism was defined in terms of local participation, activities and programs, and rural tourism, while sustainable livelihoods were assessed based on financial, human, natural, physical, and social assets. The study also established the moderating effect of guest satisfaction on the relationship between community-based tourism and sustainable livelihoods of the local community. Additionally, it compared the socio-economic benefits of tourism in relation to the demographic characteristics of the local community living adjacent to missionary guesthouses. Finally, the study assessed managers' perceptions of community-based tourism and the sustainable livelihoods of the local community living adjacent to missionary guesthouses in West Pokot County, Kenya.

The study was conducted from January to September 2017 in West Pokot County, Kenya. Respondents included members of the local community living in villages

adjacent to eleven guesthouses, MGH staff, guests/tourists, guesthouse managers, management committees of all eleven guesthouses, income-generating unit (IGU) officers of the churches, and tourism officials from the West Pokot County Government. A mixed-method approach was used to collect data through questionnaires, interview schedules, and focus group discussions. Data were analyzed using multiple linear regression and Process Macro for quantitative data, while qualitative data were analyzed through content analysis.

1.8 Limitation of the Study

Though this study was expected to add into the knowledge base in the field of tourism, and specifically in the area of stakeholders' role in developing tourism in rural areas, this study was limited by the fact that it only generalized in the context of new rural destinations who are faced with similar infrastructural challenge as West Pokot County. Also, since this study was not a census, a limitation was that some of the population (those who were not selected for this study) did not have an opportunity to participate and their input not factored.

One of the primary challenges in data collection was reaching participants, particularly those in the remote areas that were difficult to access due to inadequate infrastructure, geographic isolation, or safety concerns. This challenge could have resulted to incomplete or non-representative samples, potentially affecting the study's validity. To address this, the researcher leveraged local networks, community leaders with established trust with the community. By enlisting their support, the researcher gained better access to respondents. Additionally, flexible data collection schedules and the use of mobile-based data collection methods ensured that participants in various locations are included, even in hard-to-reach areas.

Differences in language between the language used in research (English) and participants' language (vernacular) led to miscommunication or confusion during interviews. Misunderstandings can affect the accuracy and quality of the data, especially if respondents interpret questions differently or struggle to express their views. To overcome this barrier, the researcher employed bilingual interviewers and translators who were familiar with the local dialect. This approach ensured that communication was clear and that participants accurately conveyed their thoughts.

Participants felt uncomfortable or distrustful of the research process, particularly when discussing personal, financial, or sensitive issues. Building trust was essential to overcoming this challenge. The researcher spent time in the community to establish rapport, ensured that participation was voluntary, and clearly explained the purpose of the study. Guaranteeing anonymity and confidentiality was crucial to alleviate fears about privacy. Educating participants on the benefits of the study was done to encourage their involvement and see the direct advantage to their community.

In some areas, difficult terrain or a lack of transportation options hindered the ability to reach participants, particularly those in isolated locations. Such logistical challenges delayed the research process. To overcome this, the researcher used local transportation methods and enlisted field assistants who were familiar with the area. The underdeveloped areas lack of access to technology prevented the use of digital tools for effective data collection, such as recording interviews. As a solution, the researcher opted for offline mobile devices that do not require continuous internet access.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This chapter discusses literature related to the variables of the study. It begins with sustainable livelihoods which is the dependent variable followed by community-based tourism in terms of local participation, activities and programs and rural tourism which were the independent variables. The literature also discusses guest satisfaction which was the moderating variable and socio-economic benefits which accrue to the local community. The chapter concludes with a theoretical framework that represents the gap in the study and the relationship of the key concepts illustrated in the conceptual framework.

2.1 Concept of Sustainable Livelihoods

This section aims to shed light on how local communities utilize their endowment of assets to achieve meaningful outcomes. To enhance their livelihoods, these communities require access to a broad range of livelihood assets. However, rural pastoralist communities face challenges stemming from limited access to these assets. Many struggle to access the resources they need, highlighting the need for mechanisms that can help them creatively leverage available assets to ensure their survival. These communities typically have access to several types of assets, including human capital, social capital, physical capital, financial capital, and natural capital.

A livelihood consists of the capabilities, assets, and activities necessary for individuals to earn a living (DFID, 2000). In this context, livelihoods encompass what local community members use to meet their daily needs. According to Scoones

(1998), livelihoods are considered sustainable when they can withstand stress and recover from shocks while preserving or enhancing their assets and capabilities, without depleting the natural resource base. Furthermore, for livelihoods to be sustainable, they are shaped by the social relations and institutions that guide an individual or community's ability to earn a living (Ellis, 2000).

At the heart of the sustainable livelihood model is the interaction between assets, activities, and outcomes within a mediating environment. This environment is influenced by enabling policies and best practices (DFID, 2000). Specifically, the DFID sustainable livelihood model highlights the importance of policy initiatives that foster sustainable livelihoods, such as improving access to quality education and healthcare, increasing opportunities for marginalized groups, and promoting the conservation and sustainable management of natural resources. These actions collectively create a more favorable physical, social, and institutional environment that supports poverty reduction efforts (DFID, 2000).

Table 2.1: Livelihood assets

Livelihoods Assets	Explanation
Social Assets	Cooperation, network interconnectedness, family support, friendships, relationship to trust/ exchanges, partnership and collaboration, and political participation.
Physical Assets	Child/elderly care, secure shelter, clean affordable energy, information, banking and access to related services, basic consumer needs, affordable transportation, tools and equipment, natural resources, air and water quality.
Human Assets	Skills, knowledge, ability, employability and earning power, good health, leadership.
Financial Assets	Income from productive activity; available finances/savings; regularity of inflow of money from government transfers, family, gifts and payment in kind, credit ratings, leadership.
Personal Assets	Motivation, self-esteem, self-confidence, self-perception, emotional well-being, assertiveness and spirituality.

Source: Srisantisuk, 2015

The basic livelihood model focuses on the household as the key social unit for investigation, even though external threats may be of a broader, social or public nature. It is also people-centered, placing individuals at the core of development (Ellis, 2000). This study aims to explore how MGHs in rural communities contribute to the sustainability of livelihoods and socio-economic development in destination areas. These MGHs are locally owned tourism enterprises that play a crucial role in supporting local livelihoods. The DFID framework (2000) is particularly suitable for understanding local livelihoods, as it highlights the primary factors that influence rural communities, particularly those facing challenges in meeting their daily needs while utilizing available resources. The livelihood framework model, therefore, offers valuable insights and identifies key issues that need to be addressed to improve livelihood opportunities for local communities.

2.1.1 The livelihood Components and Sustainable Livelihood Framework (SLF)

The livelihood framework comprises five key components: vulnerability context, livelihood assets, transforming structures and processes, livelihood strategies, and livelihood outcomes (DFID, 2000).

The vulnerability context refers to the external environment or situation in which rural communities live. The livelihoods of local communities, as well as the availability of assets, are significantly impacted by shocks and seasonality, factors over which these communities often have little or no control. Issues such as drought, famine, population growth, resource depletion, economic shifts, and technological changes are just some of the trends these communities face. Additionally, they must contend with shocks like malnutrition, hunger, inflation, conflicts, and insecurity. In essence, the environmental conditions in which these communities exist have a direct influence on

the availability of livelihood assets and the choices they make to achieve sustainable outcomes.

This component of the framework highlights how local communities utilize their available asset endowment to achieve meaningful livelihoods. For rural communities to improve their livelihoods, they require a diverse range of assets. However, rural pastoralist communities often face challenges due to limited access to these assets. To ensure their survival, there is a need for mechanisms that enable innovative use of the available resources. Local communities typically possess the following types of assets: human capital, social capital, physical capital, financial capital, and natural capital.

In enterprise development, human capital represents the skills and knowledge available within the community. It is essential for running businesses, such as guesthouses, in a way that supports stable economic activities and contributes to the achievement of livelihood objectives (DFID, 2000). Human capital is a critical asset, as it is required to effectively utilize the other types of capital (DFID, 2000).

Social capital refers to the social resources needed by MGHs and local communities to reach their livelihood goals. These resources are built through local networks and the social cohesion of individuals within the community (DFID, 2000). Social capital is vital because it strengthens other types of capital by fostering efficient economic relationships, facilitating innovation, and promoting knowledge development and sharing (DFID, 2000).

Natural capital encompasses the natural resources found within a locality that provide services essential for the livelihood of its residents. These resources—such as land,

water, and biodiversity—offer stocks from which goods and services are derived. This asset is closely linked to the vulnerability context, as many shocks affecting people's well-being, such as climate-related events, are natural in origin. For communities reliant on natural resource-based activities, natural capital is indispensable for their food security and overall well-being (DFID, 2000).

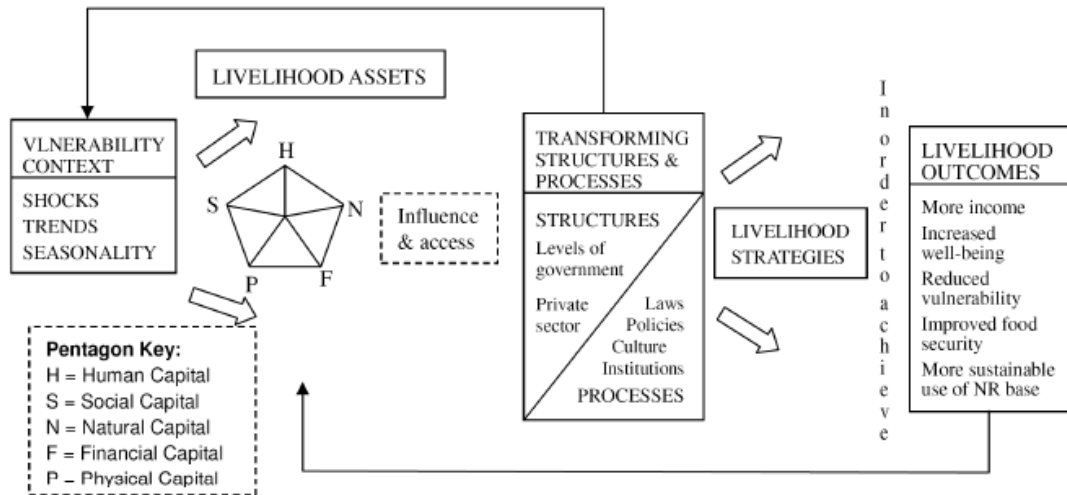


Figure 2.1: Sustainable Livelihoods Framework

Source: DFID, (1999)

Physical capital refers to the infrastructure, tools, equipment, and man-made goods necessary to support livelihoods. Developing these physical assets often involves altering the physical environment to help communities achieve their livelihood goals. Tools and equipment improve efficiency in various livelihood activities. A lack of adequate infrastructure or appropriate tools is a key dimension of poverty and a significant barrier to achieving sustainable livelihoods (DFID, 2000).

Financial capital refers to the financial resources that poor rural communities rely on to achieve their livelihood objectives. These resources can be internally generated within the community or externally provided, such as loans, grants, or subsidies from development partners. In rural communities, the lack of financial capital is often a

major constraint to tourism investments, as it forms a fundamental barrier to the establishment and growth of tourism businesses in these areas.

2.2 Concept of Community-Based Tourism

A community is defined as 'a group of people living in the same locality', with some including a notion of ecosystem or habitat, (Milne, 1998). According to the UNWTO (McIntyre, 1993), the concept involves: 'every community, whether city, town, village or rural area, includes the people who live there, the property owners who may not be residents, and local government authorities. This therefore shows that a community is a body of people living in the same locality and having something in common. Urry (1995) identified four different uses of the term of community:

'First, the idea of community as belonging to a specific topographical location. Second as defining a particular local social system; third, in terms of a feeling of 'communitas' or togetherness and fourth as an ideology, often hiding the power relations which inevitably underlie communities' (Kim, 2013). Community-based tourism therefore referred to as community-based ecotourism (Harris and Vogel, 2005; Kim 2013). It is a community-based practice that provides contributions and incentives for natural and cultural conservation as well as providing opportunities for improved community livelihood, (Kim, 2013). Therefore, community-based tourism centres on the involvement of the host community in planning and maintaining tourism development in order to create a more sustainable industry (Hall, 2003; Kim, 2013).

Community-based tourism is managed and owned by the community, for the community, with the purpose of enabling visitors to increase their awareness and learn about the community and local ways of life (Kim, 2013). In addition,

community-based tourism provides alternative economic opportunities, which are essential in rural areas (Kim, 2013). It has the potential to create jobs and generate entrepreneurial opportunities for people from a variety of backgrounds, skills and experiences, including rural communities and especially women. In all of the instances that are of importance to a community-based tourism development program, the defining characteristics of a community must be represented. The locality that is shared by the community and how it is managed becomes a crucial factor for the success of an ecotourism venture. Economic benefits for stakeholders and how they are distributed means that a community has become an economic unit; and by forging collaborative arrangements between communities, public and private sector, a community becomes a unit of cultural and social Relationships (Kim, 2013).

Although it has evolved over time, the origin of the term “community-based tourism” can be traced to 1988 when it was first coined by Louis- Antoine Deroi to acknowledge tourism that fostered intercultural communication and understanding between hosts and guests (Deroi, 1988; Reggers et al, 2016). Pearce (1992) further expanded on this to envisage an equitable flow of benefits to all stakeholders affected by tourism through the use of consensus-based decision-making and local control of development (Reggers et al, 2016). The key principles of community-based tourism include a primary concern for the destination community and support for the aspirations of these communities in engaging in tourism (Reggers et al, 2016).

According to Blackstock (2005, p. 40), CBT “has parallels with participatory planning philosophies, which also advocate greater community control of processes at the local level”. Although there are three main partners involved in sustainable tourism planning and development collaboration: the private sector, public sector and the local

residents, CBT is developed and build with the local community as the main and valuable stakeholder (Timur and Getz, 2008), and understanding the values and conceptualizations of the local communities is key to the success of CBT collaboration (Bentrupperbaumer, Day, & Reser, (2006), Nursey-Bray (2006), Reggers et al, (2016).

Community based-tourism (CBT) concept is new addition to the tourism industry and it has close bond with home stay and guest house concept (Iryany, 2010; Wiljesundra and Gnanapala, 2016). According to Kunjuran & Hussin (2013), community-based tourism stresses direct involvement of the host community in tourism activities and it will empower the local communities in different aspects such as social, economic, and political. The real CBT projects get local people's involvement directly in tourism development project. According to Mann, (2000) and Wiljesundra and Gnanapala (2016), CBT always encourage the host community to work together or to involve actively with tourism developers to get the maximum benefits from the tourism projects which are taking place within their region. Mostly, CBT projects are taking place in the rural areas which are enriched with natural resources (Wiljesundra and Gnanapala, 2016). Home-stay and guest house programmes are one of the best options to get active involvement of local people for tourism projects (Hamzah, 2009; Wiljesundra and Gnanapala, 2016). According to Hatton (1999) and Wiljesundra and Gnanapala, 2016), another benefit of the home-stay and guest housing tourism is that it has stimulated local community and opened up their minds. It further says that Home-stay and guest house tourism supported to develop and enhance the socio-economic level of the host community if they seriously get involved.

Community-based rural tourism is a new concept and it is still evolving. To understand community-based rural tourism, it is proper to first understand community-based tourism; which is tourism that takes account of environmental, social, and cultural sustainability, and is managed by and belongs to the community, in order to enable visitors to learn about the community's lifestyle. It is the interaction between the visitor and the host that involves significant participation by both and that generates economic and conservation benefits for communities and their surroundings. On the other hand, UNWTO (2012) defines rural tourism as tourist activities carried out in rural environments that are intended to interact with rural life and to inform about the traditions and lifestyle of the inhabitants and about the attractions in those areas.

According to Community-based rural tourism alliance (2014), Community-based tourism is "Tourist experiences that are planned, sustainably integrated with the rural environment, and developed by the organized local inhabitants for the benefit of the community." It is tourism in which a community, usually a rural one, welcomes tourists and shares its lifestyle and traditions through the provision of tourist services, with particular emphasis placed on tourism sustainability issues (SNV, 2007). It includes all tourist activities that take place in rural settings, in a planned and sustainable way, with the participation of the local inhabitants organized for the benefit of the community, and in which rural culture is the key component of the product.

2.2.1 Principles of sustainable community-based tourism

The principles of sustainable community-based tourism (CBT) are centered around fostering participation, stakeholder involvement, local ownership, business linkages,

resource sustainability, community goals, cooperation, carrying capacity, monitoring, accountability, training, and positioning (Teng, 2020; Scheyvens & Biddulph, 2018).

Participation is key, with local communities encouraged to engage in the planning, development, and management of tourism in collaboration with the government and industry players. Special attention should be given to ensuring the involvement of indigenous groups, women, and marginalized communities to guarantee that the benefits of tourism are distributed equitably (Gartner, 2019). Stakeholder involvement emphasizes consulting all relevant stakeholders and empowering them to make decisions related to tourism while keeping them informed about sustainable development (Timur & Getz, 2020).

Local ownership ensures that tourism development offers quality employment opportunities for residents, enabling community members to benefit from and contribute to tourism initiatives (Gundersen & Nyhus, 2018). Additionally, establishing local business linkages helps maintain tourism spending within the destination by encouraging local businesses to support tourism services, reducing the leakage of money to outside suppliers (Bramwell & Lane, 2020). Sustainability of the resource base involves the responsible use of environmental resources, ensuring their long-term management, conserving biodiversity, and safeguarding cultural heritage (Pookaiyaudom, 2012; Telfer & Sharpley, 2018).

The community goals principle promotes a harmonious balance between the needs of visitors, the community, and the destination. This is achieved through comprehensive community support and ensuring that tourism development aligns with social, cultural, economic, and human objectives (Murphy, 2018). Cooperation among all stakeholders—government agencies, businesses, local residents—ensures that tourism

management remains cohesive and avoids conflicts, optimizing benefits for all parties involved (Dangi & Jamal, 2019).

Carrying capacity involves assessing tourism development impacts to differentiate between mass tourism and alternative models. This includes evaluating the physical, environmental, social, and cultural limits of tourist sites to ensure that development does not exceed the area's capacity (Bramwell & Lane, 2020). Monitoring and evaluation are integral to establishing tourism guidelines, with regular impact assessments to track the success and sustainability of tourism ventures. Developing performance indicators and setting threshold limits helps measure these impacts and success (Teng, 2020). The principle of accountability demands that the use of public resources, such as water, air, and common lands, is managed responsibly to avoid exploitation (Khan & Maher, 2017).

Training is essential, as all tourism stakeholders—including staff, local communities, and tourists—must be educated on sustainable practices. Raising awareness through training, marketing, and tourism campaigns will support the transition to more sustainable tourism models (Zhao et al., 2021). Finally, positioning involves promoting tourism activities that highlight local cultural identity, reinforce the sense of place, and reduce poverty, all while offering quality experiences for visitors (Gartner, 2019; Scheyvens & Biddulph, 2018). These principles collectively aim to build a sustainable tourism industry that benefits both the local community and visitors, ensuring the long-term viability of both environmental and socio-cultural resources.

2.2.2 Community Based Tourism (CBT) Success factors

The success factors of community-based tourism have also been examined by scholars. These factors include community participation, community attachment, Benefit Sharing, Resource Sharing, conservation of tourism resources, collaboration among stakeholders, securing external support from stakeholders, local ownership, local leadership, scale of tourism development among others (Karacaoğlu and Birdir, 2017).

Community participation in community-based tourism (CBT) involves active engagement from community members throughout all stages of the process, including planning, implementation, and evaluation. Community members contribute to decision-making, voice their opinions, and share their knowledge with others while working toward a shared vision for tourism development (Yıldırım & Bayram, 2020). Community attachment refers to the bonds formed among community members, driven by personal connections like friendship and family networks, which foster social integration and a sense of belonging (Lee et al., 2018). Benefit sharing ensures that tourism profits are equitably distributed among all members of the community, not just a few individuals, with public institutions contributing to regional development (Bianchi, 2021).

Resource sharing involves pooling community resources, such as time, labor, and money, to effectively implement CBT initiatives. Local residents may contribute to maintaining tourism facilities, share knowledge, and engage in joint efforts like distributing promotional materials for the region (Smith & Paddison, 2020). In line with this, conservation of tourism resources highlights the importance of protecting environmental and cultural assets to support sustainable tourism development

(Ocampo et al., 2019). Collaboration among stakeholders is a key aspect, where community members and external actors such as local and central governments, private sectors, and NGOs, collaborate to enhance regional infrastructure, marketing, and overall tourism promotion (Bianchi, 2021).

Securing external support from stakeholders helps enhance community capacity by providing guidance and financial resources, which improve the skill sets and occupational opportunities of community members (Hassan & Coudounaris, 2019). Local ownership of natural and cultural resources enables community members to manage and make decisions related to tourism development. These members take active roles not only as employees but also as entrepreneurs, owning and managing tourism-related businesses (Mowforth & Munt, 2020). Local leadership is crucial for directing tourism development, fostering community participation, and creating connections among stakeholders to facilitate effective communication and action (Yang et al., 2020).

The scale of tourism development refers to how tourism is developed and managed in line with the community's needs, priorities, and available resources. Projects may involve individual or multiple destinations, and their success is closely tied to meeting local demands (Zhao & Zhang, 2020). Tourist satisfaction is impacted by the quality of tourism services and the hospitality of the host community. Tourism developments that improve local infrastructure, such as healthcare, education, and transportation, also enhance the quality of life for local residents (Gursoy et al., 2020). Local innovations emerge as local entrepreneurs introduce new, attractive, and unique tourism products in response to community needs and desires (Zhao & Zhang, 2020).

A shared sense of responsibility ensures that all community members contribute to the planning, organization, and management of CBT activities, which support sustainable development. This includes shared responsibilities for maintaining cultural and environmental resources and minimizing negative impacts on the socio-cultural environment (Ocampo et al., 2019). Local authenticity refers to the community's pride in and sharing of their traditional ways of life, cultural heritage, and craftsmanship. This authenticity helps create a unique identity that attracts tourists while fostering a sense of pride among the community (Lee et al., 2018). Local distinctness highlights the unique features of a destination that differentiate it from other tourism locations, thereby enhancing tourism satisfaction and supporting long-term growth (Bianchi, 2021).

2.2.3 Community-Based Tourism and Sustainable Development

Community-based tourism (CBT) is deeply connected to the concept of sustainable development as both emphasize the importance of local community participation in fostering more equitable and comprehensive development (Aref & Redzuan, 2019). CBT shares the core objectives of sustainable development by aiming to create social equity, environmental sustainability, and long-term economic viability. Unlike many conventional tourism models, CBT does not primarily focus on generating profits for external investors, but instead seeks to maximize benefits for local community members (Agyei & Kwaku, 2019). This makes CBT an alternative form of tourism that prioritizes sustainable community development (Brown et al., 2018).

By celebrating local and indigenous cultures, CBT helps prevent the decline of local communities and supports their resilience in both social and ecological terms, contributing to broader sustainable development goals (Zhang et al., 2020). This

approach focuses on managing tourism resources with the active participation of local people, ensuring that tourism development benefits the community and protects environmental resources (UNWTO, 2021). CBT is especially concerned with the social and environmental impacts of tourism, aiming to ensure that tourism development aligns with local values and needs (Pattison & Santos, 2021).

As a relatively new segment of the tourism industry, CBT has grown rapidly due to the realization that local communities must play a central role in tourism planning and development. Literature on CBT identifies key components for successful tourism development, including community involvement, empowerment, leadership, benefit-sharing, collaboration and networking, effective marketing and promotion, and conservation of resources (Kayat, 2014; Santos et al., 2020). These elements are critical for ensuring that tourism initiatives are both sustainable and beneficial to the host communities.

2.2.4 Community-Based Tourism Initiatives

Tourism literature identifies various models of CBT initiatives ranging from public to private sector partnerships and joint ventures; and most debates on these ventures is about the benefits accruing to the local communities and most scholars have recommended the need to reduce the involvement and participation of external agents in CBT undertakings (Halstead, 2003). However, without these external arrangements, a CBT project may never produce results and intended benefits. For example, by partnering with domestic or international tour companies that purchase CBT products or services, the initiative becomes part of a network of available activities promoted by that operator, (Rachel et al, 2016). Marketing to the domestic market through partnerships with local hotels and operators can also help to build

capacity in order to better cater to foreign markets in the future. Support from NGOs, government officials, and private sector companies can counter against the usual barriers associated with CBT and can create a positive cycle of development (Tasci et al., 2014; Kontogeorgopoulos et al., 2014; Rachel et al, 2016). Iorio & Corsale (2014) research reported the value of external networks in developing a successful CBT project in Viscri, Romania (Rachel et al, 2016).

Marketing is an essential factor for CBT success as local communities “lack the essential marketing expertise, resources and networks to attract tourists in sufficient numbers to enable the venture to earn break-even profits and more’ (Mtapuri & Giampiccoli, 2013, p. 10; Rachel et al, 2016). Clear access to market and knowledge of who will buy or use the product is imperative. Many successful forms of marketing by CBT’s are partnerships or networks with outside tour operators, emphasizing the importance of collaborations. Whilst it may be more beneficial to adopt an autonomous approach, the reality is that these communities do not have the skills or resources to be able to market their goods and services to attract the tourists (Mtapuri & Giampiccoli, 2013; Rachel et al, 2016).

2.3 Local Participation in Community Based Tourism

A participatory community is considered a fundamental aspect of sustainable tourism development (Chikuta & Rautenbach, 2021; Gössling & Hall, 2021). Swarbrooke (1999) emphasized that the host community should play an active role in tourism planning, with potential involvement in managing local tourism operations (Gössling & Hall, 2021). Community participation in tourism development has been extensively debated for several reasons. First, involving local stakeholders in development processes tends to result in more suitable decisions and greater local motivation (Pang

& Lyu, 2020; Gössling & Hall, 2021). Second, local involvement is often associated with stronger support for environmental conservation and protection efforts. Third, tourism, as a service-oriented industry, depends on the cooperation and goodwill of host communities (Simmons, 1994; Chikuta & Rautenbach, 2021). Furthermore, visitor satisfaction increases when local residents take pride in and support their tourism industry (Gössling & Hall, 2021).

Community participation is integral to the Community-Based Tourism (CBT) model, which emphasizes participation, community organization, and socially and environmentally responsible development (Burgos & Mertens, 2017). CBT focuses on local community control over tourism development, with three essential components: community involvement, equal economic access, and political empowerment, enabling the community to make decisions (Djou et al., 2017). While participation is seen as vital, its implementation and understanding can vary depending on the context.

Government agencies, NGOs, and local experts should facilitate workshops and courses within the community to build local capacity. Additionally, training in tourism management and business skills is critical for enabling CBT enterprises to operate effectively as formal suppliers within the tourism industry (Serrano & Orellana, 2021). Evidence of complementary training programs in areas such as handicraft production, guiding, and naturalist skills further supports the growth of CBT (Serrano & Orellana, 2021). Training efforts should be adapted to local realities, including factors such as educational levels, language barriers, workshop fatigue, and the specific skills needed for the CBT initiative (Serrano & Orellana, 2021).

Literature highlights success stories where local communities have benefited from capacity-building and training programs, gaining employment through improved skills and knowledge. For example, Sebele (2010) discusses how the Makuleke community in South Africa benefited from such training programs, resulting in local economic and social development (Serrano & Orellana, 2021).

Collaborations and partnerships are crucial in managing the risks associated with CBT. As with any business, partnerships help mitigate risks by facilitating market access. According to Scheyvens (2002), collaboration is essential to reduce the failure rate of CBT, as it is rare for such initiatives to be entirely initiated and managed by the community alone. External expertise and connections are necessary for success, as many rural tourism providers lack essential skills and knowledge (Iorio & Corsale, 2014; Ebrahimi & Khalifah, 2014). Some community enterprises may have hospitality skills, but often lack awareness of market demand, product presentation, or effective marketing networks (Bramwell & Lane, 2000; Mitchell & Hall, 2005). As local participation is contingent on the capacity of participants, collaboration with government, NGOs, and the private sector is essential to ensure the commercial viability of CBT initiatives (Serrano & Orellana, 2021).

Tosun (2006) highlighted that while the case for community participation in tourism development is well-established, the specific forms of participation desired by various interest groups in a tourism destination have received limited attention in the literature. Community participation is often contextualized as a broad term that encompasses different levels (local, regional, or national) and forms (manipulative, coercive, induced, passive, spontaneous) depending on site-specific conditions. Tosun (2006) developed a typology of community participation in tourism, categorizing it

into three levels: spontaneous, induced, and coercive participation, which can be further explored through the models developed by Arnstein (1969), Pretty (1995), and Kim (2013).

Table 2.2: Typology of Community Participation

Spontaneous participation	Induced participation	Coercive participation
Bottom-up; active participation; direct participation; participation in decision making, authentic participation; self-planning	Top-down; passive; formal; mostly indirect; degree of tokenism; some manipulation; pseudo-participation; participation in implementation and sharing benefits; choice between proposed alternatives and feedback	Top-down; passive; mostly indirect; formal; participation in implementation, but not necessarily sharing benefits; choice between proposed limited alternatives or no choice; paternalism; nonparticipation; high degree of tokenism and manipulation

Source: Tosun (2006)

Arnstein (1969: 216) defined citizen participation as “the redistribution of power that enables the have-not citizens, presently excluded from the political and economic processes, to be deliberately included in the future.” This process includes enabling marginalized groups to influence how information is shared, how goals and policies are set, how resources are allocated, and how benefits like contracts and patronage are distributed. Ultimately, this form of participation is about empowering citizens to bring about social reform and share in the benefits of society. The key aspect of this definition is the redistribution of power, highlighting the importance of both inclusivity and equity in decision-making (Kim, 2013).

Community participation is not only about involvement in planning processes but also encompasses the broader concept of civic virtue—defined as “the common good, a result of people participating together in a shared endeavor which they perceive to be

meaningful” (Arai & Pedlar, 2020). Active involvement by residents fosters a sense of belonging and unity, as shared goals create stronger community ties. Even residents who are not directly involved in the participation process ultimately benefit from the sense of increased cohesion and collective action within the community (Wilson & Baldassare, 1996; Kim, 2013). This sense of community solidarity is crucial for the overall well-being and empowerment of individuals and groups within the community (Tosun, 2020).

Arnstein’s (1969) *Ladder of Citizen Participation* remains one of the most influential models for understanding and evaluating community involvement. Developed from his analysis of the participation programs during the Great Society of the 1960s, this model outlines eight levels of participation (Arnstein, 1969; Kim, 2013). These levels are grouped into three broad categories—nonparticipation, tokenism, and citizen power—reflecting varying degrees of authentic citizen involvement and influence. This typology serves as a useful framework for examining the dynamics of community participation and assessing the effectiveness of different participatory initiatives in terms of power redistribution and genuine engagement (Liu & Wall, 2020).

In more recent discussions, Arnstein’s framework continues to be adapted and used to critically assess participation in various sectors, including tourism, urban development, and environmental management (González et al., 2021). Scholars have expanded upon the original model to address the complexities of participation in contemporary settings, where power structures are often more diffuse, and stakeholders' roles are more diverse (Tosun, 2020).

Arnstein (1969) identified the lowest levels of participation, 1) Manipulation and 2) Therapy, as methods of nonparticipation where those in power use these strategies to educate or "cure" participants, rather than allowing them to engage in meaningful decision-making processes. The subsequent levels, 3) Information, 4) Consultation, and 5) Placation, are considered tokenistic, providing only minimal input from participants without altering the underlying power dynamics or decision-making systems (Kim, 2013). These levels represent gestures that give stakeholders the illusion of influence but fail to address deeper structural issues (Tosun, 2020).

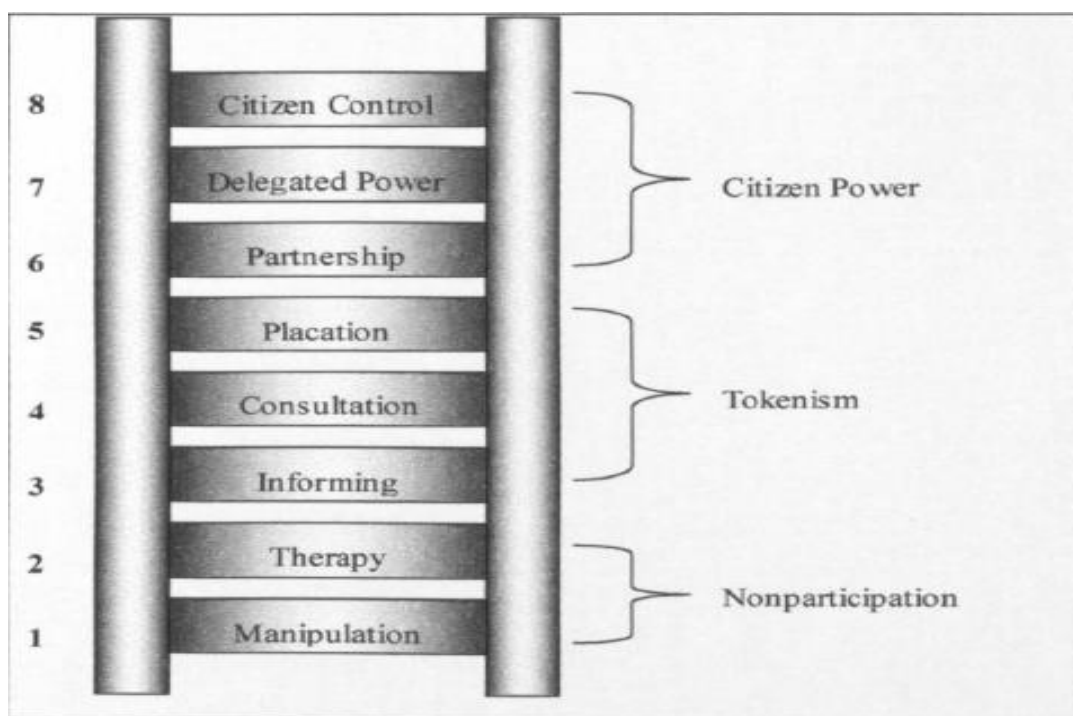


Figure 2.2: Eight rungs on the ladder of citizen participation

Source: Arnstein, (1969)

At the higher rungs of the ladder, 6) Partnership and 7) Delegated Power, participants are afforded opportunities to make decisions in conjunction with traditional power holders. Finally, at the top level, 8) Citizen Control, participants gain full authority over decision-making processes, effectively shifting control to the community (Arnstein, 1969).

Arnstein's typology divides participation into three main categories: Non-participation, Degrees of Tokenism, and Degrees of Citizen Power. Non-participation refers to initiatives that appear to involve the public but, in reality, are designed for planners to explain decisions that have already been made. Degrees of Tokenism allow stakeholders to voice their opinions but give them no actual power to influence decisions. Finally, Degrees of Citizen Power provide stakeholders the opportunity to not only voice their interests but also directly shape the decisions that affect them (Arnstein, 1969; Kim, 2013).

Building on Arnstein's framework, Pretty (1995) introduced a more nuanced classification of community participation, which includes seven types that range from passive participation to self-mobilization. Passive participation occurs when individuals are told what will happen, with decisions made unilaterally by authorities, while self-mobilization represents the highest form of participation, where communities take initiatives independently, without influence from external institutions (Pretty, 1995; González et al., 2021). This type of participation marks a shift toward a more autonomous and empowered community that can make decisions and manage resources without relying on outside authorities.

Pretty's model highlights the evolving nature of participation, from minimal engagement to complete self-directed action, and emphasizes the importance of empowering communities to control their own development (González et al., 2021). Pretty's model outlines seven levels of community participation, ranging from passive participation to self-mobilization, each reflecting varying degrees of external involvement and local control, thus revealing the power dynamics at play (Pretty, 1995; González et al., 2021). These levels provide a useful framework for

understanding the spectrum of community participation, from more passive or manipulative forms to those that are more authentic and interactive, which involve deeper engagement and shared decision-making. However, these typologies are not without limitations. According to Tosun (2006), they fail to address several crucial factors, such as the number of citizens involved, significant barriers like paternalism, racism, gender discrimination, and cultural barriers to participation in tourism, as well as ownership of services. Moreover, these models do not adequately account for the intensity and longevity of participation, which are essential in assessing sustainable community engagement (Tosun, 2020).

Table 2.3 Typology of participation

Passive Participation	Participation does not take the responses of the participants into consideration and where the outcome is predetermined. Information shared belongs only to external institutions.
Participation in Information Giving	People give answers to questions where they do not have the opportunity to influence the context of the interview and often the findings are not shared.
Participation by Consultation	People are consulted and their views are taken into account. However, it does not involve their decision-making.
Participation for material incentives	Participation involves people taking incentives in Materials and Incentive cash or kind for their services provided. In such cases the disadvantage is that there is no stake in being involved once the incentives end.
Functional Participation	Participation occurs by forming into groups with predetermined objectives. Such participation generally occurs only after major decisions have been already taken.
Interactive Participation	People participate in information generation and its subsequent analyses that lead to action plans and implementation. It involves different methodologies seeking various local perspectives thereby involving people in decision-making about the use and quality of information.
Self-Mobilization	Being independent of any external interventions, people participate and take initiatives to change systems. The develop contacts for external inputs, but retain control over the way resources are managed.

Source: Pretty et al, 1995

While local communities may initially be placed higher on the participation ladder, enthusiasm for continued involvement can diminish over time due to external factors such as political instability or economic challenges (González et al., 2021). It is critical that community participation does not merely involve decision-making authority, but also ensures that local people receive tangible benefits, such as financial rewards, social inclusion, and decision-making power (Butler, 1999; Milne, 1998). Effective participation requires that stakeholders—planners, facilitators, and managers—evaluate the merits of different types of participation and ensure that the process is inclusive and reflective of the community's needs and values (Selin & Beason, 1991; Timothy, 2002).

However, significant barriers to effective community participation in tourism development persist. These barriers include the lack of expertise and training among tourism planning authorities, centralized political traditions that restrict local decision-making, insufficient funding, a lack of stakeholder interest or commitment, competition for resources, and a failure to implement long-term or strategic planning (Butler, 1999; Milne, 1998; Selin & Beason, 1991). These challenges highlight the complexity of fostering meaningful community engagement in tourism and the importance of addressing structural issues in order to achieve sustainable development (Tosun, 2006).

2.3.1 Key Elements of Community-Based Tourism Development and benefits

Participatory planning and capacity building emphasize the importance of strengthening local communities' skills in tourism management. Achieving this can be facilitated through non-formal education and capacity building, which are essential for developing a strong foundation of tourism management skills among residents

(Ruhanen et al., 2015; Navarro et al., 2021). Involving the local community from the planning stages through activities such as participatory tourism resource mapping, asset identification, and visioning exercises has been identified as a key strategy for building capacity (Bramwell et al., 2020; Yılmaz & Yıldırım, 2019). Upskilling in areas like tour guiding, language, communication, hygiene, and safety is also crucial for the successful delivery of Community-Based Tourism (CBT) initiatives (Carlsen et al., 2020). Tourism literature highlights education and training as integral components of capacity building, emphasizing the importance of imparting hospitality and tourism management skills at the community level, as well as essential business skills such as marketing, communication, finance, and governance (Aref & Redzuan, 2020; Binns et al., 2019). Capacity building and community training are often ongoing processes that occur largely on the job, depending on the specific needs and level of training required by a CBT enterprise (Silva et al., 2020).

Building capacity empowers communities to better understand the possibilities within CBT and become more active participants in the process (Mackenzie et al., 2020; West, 2021). This capacity gives communities a competitive edge in the open market (Carlsen et al., 2020) and allows them to transition from beneficiaries to business managers (Pattison & Santos, 2021). However, local communities often hold differing views on tourism development, which can lead to tensions and conflicts—contradicting the primary objective of CBT, which is community development. Addressing these challenges requires assessing the cohesiveness of the community from the outset (Bramwell et al., 2020; Carlsen et al., 2020). The success of CBT initiatives is heavily influenced by the community's ability to collaborate and the degree to which a shared goal exists among its members (Yılmaz & Yıldırım, 2019).

2.3.2 Local management and empowerment of community members

The elements of local management and empowerment in Community-Based Tourism (CBT) are inherently tied to capacity building and participatory approaches throughout the CBT development process. These factors underscore the significance of market linkages and collaboration, which can help mitigate the limited capacity of rural communities to independently manage their tourism ventures (Mackenzie et al., 2020). Scholars emphasize that CBT should be controlled and operated by the local communities themselves (Mtapuri & Giampiccoli, 2020), but often, this ideal is overshadowed by the communities' ability to manage tourism businesses effectively (Bramwell & Lane, 2017). Empowering local communities is therefore crucial for enabling them to manage their own CBT enterprises. According to Ife (2002, p. 208), "community empowerment should provide people with the resources, opportunities, vocabulary, knowledge and skills to increase their capacity to determine their own future and to participate in matters that affect their lives" (cited in Rachel et al., 2016).

Various tourism scholars (Baker & Jamieson, 2020; Epler Wood, 2018; Fennell, 2017; Gutierrez et al., 2020; Jamal & Getz, 2019; REST, 2020; Salzaar, 2017; Wearing & McDonald, 2020; Rachel et al., 2016) have recommended the creation of tourism committees within destinations to ensure local management and empowerment. This will help ensure that tourism is planned, designed, managed, owned, and monitored by community members. Community involvement in the development and management of tourism ventures fosters empowerment, creating a positive cycle where communities increase their capacity to sustain their well-being, leading to greater pride in their cultures (Mowforth & Munt, 2020).

Martain-Haverbeck (2006) studied CBT initiatives among Mayan villagers in Guatemala, demonstrating that the villagers were able to welcome visitors, facilitating both cultural and economic exchanges. This participation improved their livelihoods and overall well-being. Similarly, Massyn and Swan (2002) analyzed the impact of Lekgophung Lodge, a community-owned wildlife tourism lodge in South Africa's Madikwe Game Reserve. Their study highlighted the lodge's direct contribution to household incomes and overall community development, emphasizing the importance of well-structured small businesses that channel resources to local beneficiaries. The study concluded that small enterprises, when designed to benefit local communities, can significantly improve livelihoods and enhance the quality of life by minimizing resource leakages.

Mrema (2015) evaluated the contributions of tourist hotels to socio-economic development in Mto wa Mbu, Tanzania. His findings indicated that local hotels and lodges provided significant employment opportunities and helped finance socio-economic projects, such as schools, healthcare, and clean water, thereby contributing to the community's overall development. Panasiuk (2021) examined tourism infrastructure as a vital factor for regional tourism development, emphasizing the importance of accommodation, food and beverage facilities, and communication infrastructure in shaping tourist experiences and movements.

Ramadhani and Magigi (2013) explored community participation in the tourism industry in Bwejuu Village, Zanzibar, noting that local communities gained benefits from tourism in the form of employment, income, and enhanced infrastructure, such as schools and healthcare services. In a similar vein, Lapeyre (2011) studied the socio-economic impacts of the Grootberg Lodge, a community-public-private

partnership in Namibia. The lodge helped improve the livelihoods of rural households by providing stable employment, training opportunities, and involving community members in tourism management decisions, which helped reduce vulnerability and build financial and physical assets.

Aseres (2015) assessed community participation in Community-Based Ecotourism (CBET) in Choke Mountain, Ethiopia, showing that local communities engaged in activities like accommodation services, cultural performances, and tour services. The study concluded that CBET significantly supported sustainable local development by improving community livelihoods. Lastly, Reggers et al. (2016) examined eco-trekking development on the Kokoda Track in Papua New Guinea, demonstrating how Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) facilitated stakeholder collaboration and capacity building, ensuring that CBT initiatives were both sustainable and aligned with the communities' objectives.

2.3.3 Building Linkages between tourism and the local community livelihoods

West Pokot County is predominantly a pastoralist economy, with approximately 65% of its population relying on pastoralism for their livelihoods (Kenya National Bureau of Statistics, 2019). In Kenya, many tourism activities have been concentrated in areas inhabited by pastoralist communities, such as Maasai land and northern regions. However, these communities often express dissatisfaction with being excluded from the benefits of tourism in their regions. Similarly, other areas with strong tourism development, such as the coastal region, often see local communities bearing the negative impacts of tourism while not reaping its benefits (Kinyanjui, 2020).

Tourism is widely recognized as a significant driver of economic growth and a key source of employment. It holds substantial potential to contribute to local economies,

particularly in rural areas, by improving the livelihoods of marginalized communities (Kiptot et al., 2018). There are several ways tourism companies can create linkages with local communities. For instance, hotels can purchase goods directly from local small and micro-enterprises, while also increasing their recruitment and training of unskilled and semi-skilled local workers (Gakuru et al., 2019). Additionally, hotels and tour operators can form neighborhood partnerships aimed at enhancing the quality of life for residents by supporting local arts, crafts, cultural products, and tourism services. Such partnerships may include developing new excursions or encouraging tourists to spend in the local economy, which could lead to more equitable benefits for the surrounding communities (Wang & Kwek, 2020).

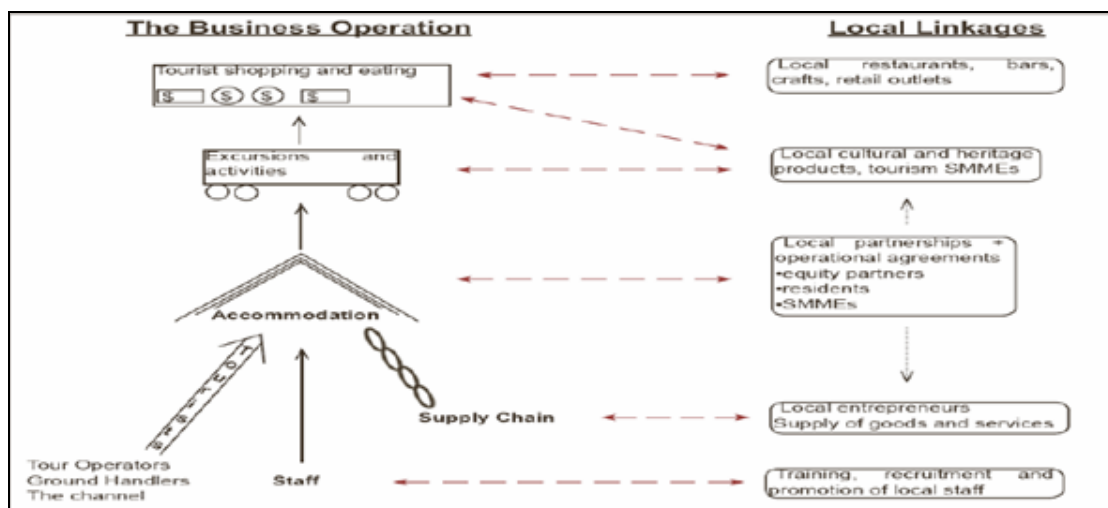


Figure 2.3: The tourism business operation and a variety of linkages

Source: Caroline et al, 2005

2.4 Rural Tourism

Rural tourism, as defined by Lane (2009), is a form of tourism that is situated in rural areas, distinguished by its unique scale, character, and function (Sharpley & Roberts, 2020). A holiday can be considered rural tourism if it meets several characteristics, including being located in rural areas, featuring small-scale buildings and settlements,

being closely connected with local families and people, and representing complex economic, environmental, and historical patterns (Lane, 2009). Rural tourism appeals to individuals who enjoy nature-focused holidays, and it often includes special services such as accommodation, events, gastronomy, outdoor recreation, and the production and sale of handicrafts (Kulcsar, 2018).

In the context of tourism and community development, recent literature highlights the significance of ensuring that tourism yields tangible benefits for local communities, enhancing their living conditions and overall well-being. Community-based tourism (CBT) has been recognized as an effective approach to achieving these objectives. According to recent studies, CBT can improve the quality of life for local residents by creating employment opportunities, supporting small business ownership, fostering social capital, and enhancing cultural awareness (Tosun, 2020; Yao et al., 2022). Additionally, community participation in tourism development enables locals to shape their local economies by influencing the types of businesses and industries that thrive in their regions (Boley et al., 2020).

Community engagement plays a vital role in ensuring that tourism effectively addresses poverty and improves the livelihoods of host communities (Tosun, 2020; Yao et al., 2022). Recent studies emphasize that when local residents perceive tangible benefits from tourism without bearing excessive costs, they are more likely to support and actively participate in tourism development (Tosun, 2020). Early community involvement in the tourism development process is essential for gaining their full support (Boley et al., 2020). This process includes educating and informing local populations about the impacts of tourism, which allows stakeholders to make well-informed decisions regarding tourism activities in their areas (Murphy, 2020).

Failing to involve local communities in the planning and design phases of tourism development can hinder the success of the sector, as communities may withdraw their support for protecting natural environments (Moyo et al., 2018). This typically occurs because residents feel that decisions made without their input will not align with their values (Czarniawska et al., 2018). Consequently, it is crucial to include local communities in the tourism development process to foster their sense of ownership (Tosun, 2020). Tourism developers must recognize the importance of understanding local perceptions and awareness of tourism and its potential consequences, both positive and negative (Byrd et al., 2017).

2.4.1 Building Sustainable Community-Based Rural Tourism

Graci (2017), in her case study of the Cree Village Ecolodge in Moose Factory, Ontario, explored how community-based tourism (CBT) ventures can empower local communities through active participation in decision-making, capacity building, skill development, and fostering entrepreneurial spirits. The study examined how the Cree community in Moose Factory applied a CBT approach to establish one of the world's top ecolodges, demonstrating how such ventures can translate into tangible economic, social, and cultural benefits for the community. The Cree Village Ecolodge not only minimized the negative impacts of tourism but also maximized the positive outcomes by building community capacity and pride, thereby enabling local people to manage their own economy and create a skilled and self-sufficient workforce. Through this model, the ecolodge has provided a platform for developing sustainable livelihoods, promoting tourism as a key economic driver for an otherwise economically challenged island. Moreover, it has generated employment for the local Cree people and serves as a venue for social gatherings, strengthening the sense of community on the island.

In her methodology, Graci (2017) employed a case study approach, conducting an in-depth investigation of tourism development issues in the area. She utilized a snowball sampling technique and carried out eighteen semi-structured key informant interviews with various stakeholders between January and May 2008. The participants included academicians, Aboriginal Chiefs, representatives of provincial and federal government agencies, Aboriginal associations, and tourism operators.

Table 2.4: Attributes of capacity building in Community-based rural tourism

Attribute	Explanation
Ownership	Ownership of the tourism product is crucial for the success of community-based tourism. The Cree Village Ecolodge, fully owned and operated by the local community, played a key role in addressing social, environmental, and economic challenges. By being locally owned, it promoted business opportunities that aligned with local values, fostering self-sufficiency and job creation. The ecolodge provided employment and addressed essential community needs like education and healthcare. With all profits reinvested into the community, it stimulated the local economy, ensuring no leakage (Graci, 2012).
Community Integration	Community-based tourism should be fully integrated into the community to foster joint ownership and authenticity. The Cree Village Ecolodge serves as an important social space for the community, as there are few gathering places on Moose Factory Island. Its design combines Cree values with functionality for the sub-Arctic environment, making it well-received by locals. The ecolodge has helped revitalize aspects of Cree culture and now serves as the island's social hub. It provides a safe space for families in crisis and supports community events, offering meals during funerals and hosting meetings (Graci, 2012).
Building Pride	The Mo'Creebec community has faced historical challenges, including living in substandard conditions and losing cultural traditions due to forced relocation and Christian schooling (Graci & Dodds, 2010; Graci, 2012). As a result, many community members struggle with cultural knowledge, and employees often feel uncomfortable answering visitors' questions about traditions. However, the ecolodge has restored pride by allowing the community to engage in cultural events and learn about their heritage without shame, aligning with the Mo'Creebec's values toward nature (Graci, 2012).
Community Empowerment	Community capacity building empowers locals to make informed decisions and plays a crucial role in tourism product viability. It increases knowledge, skills, and local employment while reducing reliance on government aid. The Cree Village Ecolodge, fully community-owned, prioritizes hiring locals, providing hospitality training, and sourcing supplies from the community. It also offers authentic Aboriginal experiences, such as sweat lodge ceremonies and traditional hunting or fishing, for tourists (Graci, 2012).
Partnerships	The Cree Village ecolodge project succeeded because they worked with outside consultants such as architects and government agencies. Collaborating with other tourism organizations especially when it comes to the promotion and marketing of the destination, has greatly benefited the Moose Factory Ecolodge. The Moose Factory ecolodge has won several awards including being named as Canada's friendliest ecolodge (Canadian Tourism Commission, 2009, Garci, 2012).

Source: Graci, 2012

The interviews provided insights into the current state, benefits, and challenges of Aboriginal ecotourism in Ontario. The findings emphasized that for CBT to be successful, it must incorporate six key attributes of capacity building: ownership, community integration, cultural heritage pride, environmental preservation, community empowerment, and effective partnerships (Graci, 2017) (Table 2.4).

2.4.2 The concept of accommodation in rural tourism

Accommodation is a vital component of the hospitality and tourism industry, encompassing properties like hotels, guesthouses, and bed-and-breakfasts (Jafari, 2005). As the largest subsector of tourism, it represents a significant portion of tourism expenditure and plays a key role in attracting visitors (Sharpley, 2006; Ramugunda & Ferreira, 2016). The sector impacts destination development, tourism demand, and the economy (Sharpley, 2006), with accommodation typically accounting for about one-third of a tourist's total trip expenditure (Ramugunda & Ferreira, 2016).

The quality, location, and density of accommodations, along with supporting infrastructure, significantly influence a destination's appeal and competitiveness (Ramugunda & Ferreira, 2016). Accommodation helps shape the destination's image and supports the motivations that drive visitors (Mansour & Mahin, 2013). Tourism is a key driver of socio-economic growth, offering benefits such as foreign exchange, job creation, and low start-up costs (Brown, 1998).

However, many communities fail to fully benefit from tourism due to poor planning or insufficient capacity (Ramugumba, 2016). Effective planning is essential to integrate tourism elements and ensure sustainable development (Ramugumba, 2016).

Accommodation quality and availability are crucial for guest satisfaction, influencing future tourism through positive word-of-mouth (Ramugumba, 2016; Surya, 2013).

Accommodation development is vital for tourism success, and governments often provide incentives to support it (Surya, 2013; Ramugumba, 2016). Inadequate planning can hinder tourism goals, and while tourism has socio-economic benefits, it can also present environmental challenges (Surya, 2013; Ramugumba, 2016). Accommodation is essential in both rural and urban tourism, contributing to the local economy and serving as a base for exploration (Ramugumba, 2016).

2.4.3 Guesthouse facilities as accommodation segment

A guesthouse, as defined by George (2012), is a residential accommodation offering overnight stays, typically with more than three rooms in a homely setting. These family-run establishments provide lodging, meals, and beverages, similar to small hotels but with shared facilities (Ramugumba & Ferreira, 2016). Guesthouses vary globally in size and operation. For example, the Gasthaus is common in Germany, while the UK features smaller, family-run properties (Henning, 2004). In Spain, *paradores* are prominent, and in France, *Gîtes* offer self-catering rural stays (Lyons, 1993). New Zealand's "home-stay" concept allows tourists to stay with local families (Page, 2009).

In South Africa, guesthouses must have at least four rooms with en-suite bathrooms and public areas for guests (Ramugumba & Ferreira, 2016). The accommodation sector is vital to the tourism industry, which significantly contributes to large events like conferences and sports tournaments (Ramugumba & Ferreira, 2016). Accommodation typically accounts for about one-third of total trip expenditure (Cooper et al., 1998; Ramugumba, 2016).

The success of tourism destinations is closely linked to accommodation, influencing the destination's attractiveness and economic health (Ramugumba, 2016). Factors such as location, quality, and infrastructure play a key role in tourism development (Ramugumba, 2016). Accommodation choices directly impact the type of tourism a region attracts, making it a fundamental element in tourism growth (Ramugumba, 2016).

Rural guesthouses and home-stays offer tourists a chance to experience local culture and traditional lifestyles, and are growing in popularity in rural tourism (Bhuiyan et al., 2013). These establishments provide personalized services, fostering deeper cultural exchanges, and are considered more suitable for early tourism development than large resorts (Bhuiyan et al., 2013).

Guesthouses and home-stays also generate employment and improve local quality of life (Bhuiyan et al., 2011; Bhuiyan et al., 2013). Their success depends on local community involvement, ensuring economic, social, and cultural benefits that support sustainable development (Chaiyatorn et al., 2010; Bhuiyan et al., 2013). Local participation enhances social returns, and operators contribute to community development through economic and social improvements (Bhuiyan et al., 2012; Bhuiyan et al., 2013).

While guesthouses and home-stays share similarities across countries, they differ from hotels, motels, and campsites, addressing lodging needs in ecotourism, rural, and cultural tourism, especially near key destinations (Bhuiyan et al., 2013). These accommodations also help connect local communities with governments for tourism development (Bhuiyan et al., 2013).

2.4.4 GHs Enterprises within Rural Tourism and Economy

Tourism establishments in rural areas, often owned by community organizations, have significantly contributed to the tourism sector's growth. They play a key role in socio-economic development by promoting rural economic growth and providing essential community services (Othman et al., 2018). These establishments help build Community-Based Tourism (CBT) by creating unified efforts, such as local tourism advocacy groups and destination initiatives. Church-run guesthouses typically involve community members, including residents and management committees, to pool resources and strengthen local tourism (Othman et al., 2018).

Church organizations in tourism are flexible, growing alongside demand by hiring paid staff as needed. Tourism advocacy groups connect local communities to external partners, helping secure access to government programs and development grants (Othman et al., 2018). By uniting under church organizations, local communities gain control over tourism development, empowering them to address challenges independently (Murray & Dunn, 1995; Othman et al., 2018).

Guesthouse operators often offer local products, such as food grown on their farms, creating authentic cultural experiences and generating additional income (Hamzah et al., 2018). These programs, common in rural areas, promote the conservation of natural and cultural sites like forests and heritage landmarks (Hamzah et al., 2018).

Involving local communities in guesthouse operations creates job opportunities and improves quality of life (Bhuiyan et al., 2011; Hamzah et al., 2018). They also foster traditional industries, such as handicrafts, as seen in Malaysia, where home-stay programs boosted the local craft sector, allowing women and youth to earn income while sharing local culture (Hamzah et al., 2018). Guesthouses and home-stays

provide alternative economic opportunities, supporting sustainable livelihoods in rural communities (Hamzah et al., 2018).

2.4.5 Role of government in the development of GHs in rural areas

Accommodation establishments, particularly home stays and guest houses, offer tourists the opportunity to interact with local communities, experience cultural heritage, and enjoy natural environments (Bhuiyan et al., 2011). These accommodations provide an alternative to large-scale resorts, with limited capacity and simpler facilities suited for early-stage tourism development (Levitt, 1986). Home stays generate income by offering local food and products and can create job opportunities, enhancing the local quality of life (Bhuiyan et al., 2012). Active community involvement is key to the success of these accommodations, as it ensures economic, social, and cultural benefits for local communities (Chaiyatorn et al., 2010).

Home stays differ from traditional accommodations like hotels and motels, offering a more intimate, locally integrated experience. They support ecotourism, rural tourism, and cultural tourism, addressing accommodation challenges in remote areas (Bhuiyan et al., 2012). They also foster collaboration between the government and local communities to enhance tourism infrastructure.

Tourism is a significant economic contributor in Kenya, promoting foreign exchange earnings and employment (Bhuiyan et al., 2011). As part of Kenya's Vision 2030, the government plans to promote high-value tourism products, including the development of home-stay programs in rural areas to enhance cultural tourism. The government has set a goal to certify 1,000 home-stay sites, recognizing home stays as a key tourism product.

While the concept of home stays is well recognized, missionary guest houses (MGHs) in rural Kenya are a newer development. These guest houses, originally residential properties of missionaries, have been repurposed as income-generating units by local communities through churches. Although tourism experts emphasize community-driven tourism, there is limited research on MGHs as part of community-based rural tourism (CBRT). This study aims to explore the role of MGHs in West Pokot County, examining their socio-economic impact, community perceptions, and contributions to local tourism development.

Table 2.5 Challenges/Barriers of Community-based rural tourisms

Challenge/Barrier	Root Cause
Lack of human capital	Low literacy and poor job skills.
Lack of social capital	Local (poor) communities are often represented in civil society and tourism planning.
Lack of financial capital	Lack of micro credit, or revolving loan facilities.
Regulations and red tape	Certificates required from different ministries to set up small business.
Inadequate access to tourism market	Tourism market may be geared to imports, or package tourism may avoid contact with the poor.
Lack of land ownership and tenure	Least developing Countries have no effective rights of land ownership.
Low capacity to meet tourist expectations	Poor communities may be unaware of tourist expectations, or lack language skills.
Lack of linkages between formal and informal sectors and local suppliers	Tourism enterprise may build on existing relationships with foreign suppliers, rather than seek local linkages.
Inappropriate tourist market	Segment may be largely package that ignores unique culture of destination.
Culture and religious barriers	In some least developing countries, tourism is seemed to be against culture and religion
Lack of infrastructure	Least developing countries do not have adequate infrastructure to accommodate sustainable community-based tourism.
Lack of community power	Local community lack power which bring them together to strategically acquire necessary for economic development.

Source: Adapted from Aref (2011)

2.4.6 Endowments of rural areas with tourism Rural Resources

Rural areas are abundant in diverse tourism resources, including natural landscapes, cultural heritage, historical sites, and man-made attractions. These resources significantly contribute to the appeal of rural destinations, particularly for tourists seeking respite from urban stress and pollution (Gössling et al., 2020). Fig. 2.3 below summarizes a diversity of rural tourism resource endowments.

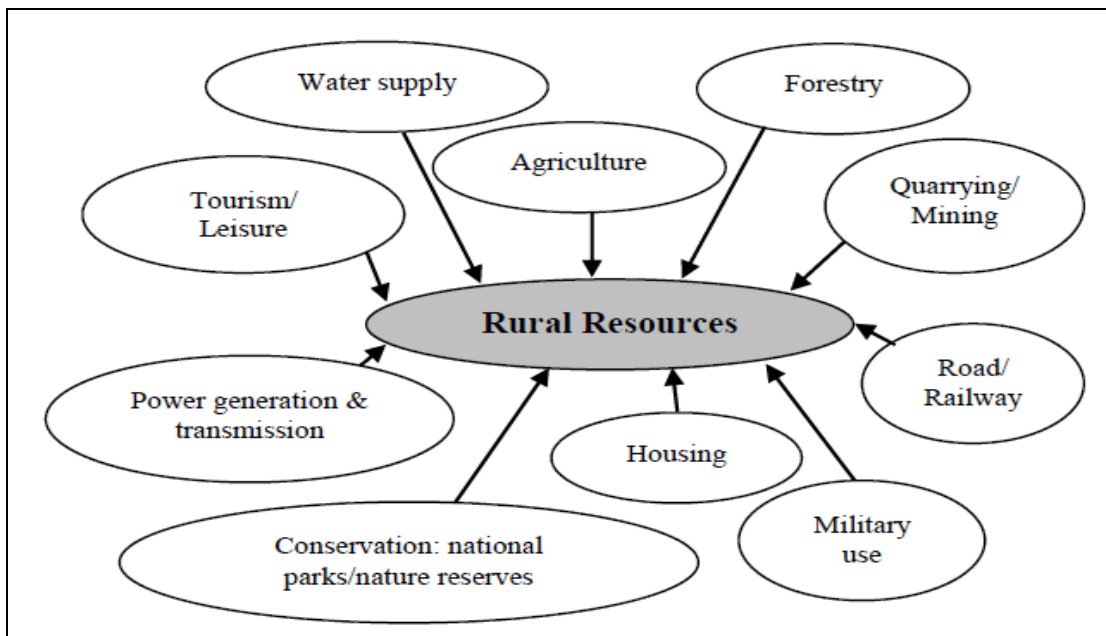


Figure 2.4: Diversity of rural tourism resource endowments

Source: Kamarudin (2013a); Sharpley and Sharpley (1997: 30)

2.5 Activities and Programmes of MGHs as Community-Based Tourism ventures

The key activities engaged in by local communities under the support of the MGHs are examined. In the course of their operations, the MGHs mount activities which involve local communities taking part and which subsequently contribute to the betterment of their livelihoods.

Community-based tourism (CBT) ventures, when designed to align with the needs and aspirations of local community members, can significantly empower these

communities economically. By creating opportunities for local participation in tourism activities, CBT enables communities to generate income, thereby enhancing their economic independence. However, the benefits of such ventures are not always evenly distributed, and in some cases, only a small subset of community members may experience the economic advantages (Baum et al., 2018). In addition to economic empowerment, CBT can help maintain or even enhance the social fabric of local communities. As community members collaborate on ecotourism projects, social cohesion is often strengthened, with families and individuals working together towards a common goal. Some of the revenue generated from tourism can be reinvested into local development initiatives, such as improving infrastructure or building schools (Ceballos-Lascuráin, 2017).

However, not all impacts of CBT ventures are positive. In some instances, these ventures may inadvertently lead to social disharmony and decay, particularly when community members adopt outside values that undermine traditional practices and respect for elders (Simpson, 2017). The cultural disruptions caused by the introduction of external tourism practices can pose significant challenges to the sustainability and long-term success of CBT.

One of the key strategies to ensure the positive outcomes of CBT is capacity building, which has been widely recognized as an essential component in fostering sustainable tourism development (Kiss, 2018; Navarro et al., 2019). Capacity building involves equipping local communities and stakeholders with the knowledge and skills necessary to engage in development activities effectively. Colton (2002) emphasized that capacity building enables communities to understand and embrace change in economic, social, and cultural dimensions. Similarly, Aref and Redzuan (2009) argue

that effective capacity building is crucial for the success of community development, particularly in the context of tourism.

Capacity building programs enable community members and stakeholders to strengthen their ability to actively engage in planning and decision-making processes. In this context, MGHs are designed to enhance the local community's capacity for tourism development and management. However, for this to be effective, the capacity-building of local communities and relevant stakeholders must be thoughtfully considered. This process will contribute to the improvement of local tourism products and services, and without it, the inclusiveness and sustainability of the indigenous tourism sector cannot be achieved.

Community-Based Tourism (CBT) in West Pokot, Kenya, is a growing sector aimed at promoting sustainable development, preserving cultural heritage, and improving local livelihoods. Despite the region's historically limited tourism, several initiatives have incorporated local communities into tourism development. Key activities in West Pokot's Community-Based Tourism (CBT) include church-run missionary guesthouses in Kapenguria and other areas, which provide affordable lodging for both government officials and tourists, thus supporting local employment and income generation (Kaburu et al., 2020). Additionally, the region's cultural tourism draws visitors through the unique traditions, crafts, and ceremonies of the Pokot people, while local programs train guides and promote cultural exchange via events such as traditional dances and storytelling (Okello et al., 2020).

Moreover, local community groups, in collaboration with conservation organizations, actively promote eco-tourism and wildlife conservation efforts, including guiding, community-run lodges, and educational programs (NRT, 2021). At the same time,

community conservancies play a vital role by integrating sustainable tourism with wildlife conservation, offering job opportunities, and encouraging community involvement in resource management (Sambu et al., 2019). The region's mountainous terrain also provides ample opportunities for adventure tourism, such as hiking, mountain biking, and rock climbing, with ongoing efforts to develop infrastructure and train local guides to support these activities (Mwaura et al., 2021).

Table 2.6 Possible Community-based tourism activities in a community

ACTIVITIES	DESCRIPTIONS
Awareness Raising	Community-level seminars on tourism impacts and management, Study tours/exchange visits to other communities involved in tourism
Community Planning	An APPA (Appreciative Participative Planning and Action) was taken to identify community tourism development potential and interests as well as to develop action plans to bring these potentials into reality
Community Organization	Activities were conducted to establish the three Tourism Service Teams and a Community Tourism Management Board
Entry Point Activities	Focused and initiated community involvement. Providing the Cultural Performance Team with traditional costumes and musical instruments and cleaning and organizing the waterfall area
Training Activities	Community-level planning, traditional dance performance, safe food preparation, hosting skills, basic accounting and management continuously provided
Product Development	Formation of the Cultural Performance, Food Service, Waterfall Management Teams, and building of a Community Cultural House
Marketing and Promotion	Trips for local tour operators, brochure design and distribution, participation of the cultural group in tourism festivals in Hue city, as well as featured in television and other media.

Source: SNV, 2004

Furthermore, local farmers showcase their agricultural practices, offering farm stays and hands-on experiences in rural life, which not only generate income but also promote the region's agricultural heritage (Gikonyo, 2020). In addition, programs focused on hospitality, guiding, and business management help empower local communities to effectively manage tourism projects, often with support from church organizations and youth groups (Okello et al., 2020). Lastly, missionary guesthouses are linked to water and health service projects, offering tourists opportunities to contribute to sustainable development through volunteer activities (Wanyama et al., 2020).

Challenges include inadequate infrastructure, such as roads and communication networks, which are being addressed through collaborations between local authorities, the central government, and private investors (Mwaura et al., 2021). Despite these challenges, with continued investment and local participation, community-based tourism in West Pokot has the potential to drive sustainable economic and social development.

2.5.1 Bringing local producers into the supply chain

Accommodation facilities in rural areas can significantly boost local economies by increasing the demand for locally-produced goods and services. These goods range from soft furnishings like crafts and table mats to food items, operational supplies, and guest amenities (Caroline et al., 2005). Purchasing these items from local entrepreneurs stimulates economic growth, fosters local collaboration, and creates cost-saving opportunities through cheaper local products, while enhancing the tourism experience.

Similarly, Nwankwo and Agboeze (2013) found that tourism-related businesses contribute significantly to community development. Their study in Bauchi revealed that active participation in tourism by local communities helps sustain and develop tourism, thus enhancing local economic activities. Tourism-related businesses, which dominate the economic landscape, provide employment and generate income, benefiting all social classes.

Tourism has long been recognized as a viable sector for economic development. According to Anyanwu (1992), and Nwankwo and Agboeze (2013), rural development is a key concern in developing countries, and tourism offers a path to economic sustainability. It can play a pivotal role in lifting nations from poverty through job creation and the generation of foreign exchange (Liu, Sheldon, & Var, 1987). Cooper et al. (2005) and Nwankwo and Agboeze (2013) emphasize tourism's capacity to create millions of jobs and reduce unemployment, acting as a force for poverty alleviation while respecting local cultures and environments.

Bhuiyan, Siwar, and Ismail (2013) examined the socio-economic impact of home stays and found that they significantly improve the local economy. Home stay operators experience increased income, while these accommodations foster environmental conservation, enhance local living standards, and generate employment opportunities. Home stays also provide cultural preservation and are essential for sustainable local development.

2.6 Socio-Economic Benefits of Tourism

Tourism can significantly contribute to regional economic growth and produce social benefits such as job creation, infrastructure improvement, and the development of small and medium-sized enterprises (Kim, Uysal, & Sirgy, 2012). However, both

economic and social well-being must be considered during tourism development to ensure sustainability. Poorly planned tourism, particularly in ecologically sensitive areas, can have detrimental environmental effects (Nyaupane & Poudel, 2011).

Recently, local communities in tourism destinations have increasingly voiced their needs, which have become central to discussions on tourism development, especially in economically disadvantaged regions (Nunkoo & Gursoy, 2012). The rise of community-based rural tourism (CBRT) has emerged as a response to these demands, promoting local involvement in tourism decision-making and fostering environmental and cultural awareness. CBRT aims to achieve sustainable development by ensuring local communities understand the importance of protecting their environments while improving their living standards (Lee, 2013; Sebele, 2010; Ruiz-Ballesteros, 2011).

Studies have explored the positive economic impacts of guest houses and homestays on local communities, often emphasizing a mutually beneficial relationship between visitors and host communities (Wang et al., 2019). These accommodations can contribute significantly to local economies by generating employment opportunities and promoting the sale of locally produced goods and services. Furthermore, tourism development is increasingly recognized as a tool for poverty alleviation, with organizations such as the United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO, 2019) advocating for sustainable tourism as a means to create jobs and reduce poverty, particularly in vulnerable regions.

Recent research by Lee and Kim (2020) found that local communities' perceptions of tourism benefits are influenced by factors such as education, with more informed residents displaying stronger support for tourism development. Additionally, studies by Ritchie et al. (2018) and Kang and Lee (2019) suggest that the impact of tourism

on local communities is shaped by factors including the type and number of tourists, the pace of development, and socio-economic conditions. Residents who experience direct benefits from tourism tend to adopt more positive attitudes toward it (Yang & Wall, 2018). For instance, research by Chhetri et al. (2020) examining perceptions of local communities in rural Nepal found that areas where tourism contributed significantly to the economy reported higher levels of local support for tourism development.

Shone et al. (2020) conducted a study in New Zealand, concluding that regions where tourism is an integral part of the local economy tend to have more favorable attitudes toward tourism development. Their research stresses the importance of sustainable tourism practices to ensure long-term benefits for both communities and visitors. Additionally, Devine et al. (2021) found regional differences in residents' support for tourism, with smaller, more intimate communities expressing lower levels of support. They suggested that strong leadership and governance are crucial for fostering positive attitudes toward tourism in these areas.

Wray et al. (2021) further emphasized that successful tourism development requires strong collaboration among local governments, businesses, and stakeholders. Their study highlighted the importance of shared visions for sustainable tourism, suggesting that such cooperation can enhance regional economic development and improve community well-being.

Tourism in rural areas, when properly planned with active local community involvement, can lead to diverse socio-economic benefits. However, these benefits may vary depending on the type of tourism product offered and the specific context of the community. Recent studies highlight that tourism in destinations like rural villages

in Africa, Southeast Asia, and the Pacific can yield significant socio-economic advantages, such as investments in infrastructure, education, and local enterprises (Lindberg et al., 2019; Okazaki & Sato, 2019). However, in other contexts, tourism may disproportionately benefit certain individuals or groups within the community, limiting its broader socio-economic impact (Mbaiwa, 2021; Kimbu & Tichaawa, 2020).

Research has shown that tourism's benefits are not always equally distributed within rural communities. In some cases, tourism revenues are pooled into communal funds that benefit the entire community, while in others, a small group of individuals may capture most of the benefits (Güzel et al., 2020). Factors such as the local economic structure, political context, and the scale of tourism development play significant roles in determining how equitably the socio-economic benefits of tourism are shared (Williams et al., 2021; Suman et al., 2020). The environmental sensitivity of a region is also a critical determinant, as fragile ecosystems may limit the long-term sustainability of tourism development (Zhang et al., 2022). Furthermore, political structures, including local governance and national policy frameworks, influence the distribution of benefits, with well-designed policies promoting broader community engagement and equitable distribution of resources (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2017).

Recent scholarship emphasizes the potential of tourism as a key driver for socio-economic development, particularly in developing countries. Tourism is recognized for its ability to stimulate economic growth, create jobs, and reduce poverty, especially in rural and remote regions (UNWTO, 2020; Becken, 2020). For least developed countries (LDCs), tourism can provide a comparative advantage over other industries, leveraging natural and cultural assets to foster local entrepreneurship and

improve livelihoods (Visser & Scheyvens, 2020). The labor-intensive nature of tourism also provides employment opportunities for various demographic groups, particularly women and young people, thus supporting inclusive economic development (Scheyvens, 2018; Ritchie & Crouch, 2019).

Moreover, tourism can stimulate local economies by attracting external capital, which is spent on infrastructure, goods, and services. This influx of tourism revenue can foster job creation, improve infrastructure, and provide economic opportunities for communities (Pereira et al., 2019; Weaver & Lawton, 2017). As globalization accelerates, tourism is expected to play an increasingly important role in diversifying national economies and creating development opportunities in underserved areas (UNESCO, 2019). However, sustainable tourism practices and community-centered tourism strategies are crucial for ensuring that the benefits of tourism are equitably shared and do not negatively impact local cultures and environments (Becken, 2020).

2.7 Guest Satisfaction and Community-Based Tourism

Community-based tourism (CBT) has gained increasing recognition as a means of promoting sustainable livelihoods while fostering local development in tourism destinations. As a multi-dimensional approach, CBT emphasizes the active involvement of local communities in tourism planning, decision-making, and benefits, ultimately aiming for both socio-economic and environmental sustainability (McLennan, 2017). In recent years, guest satisfaction has become a focal point in the discourse on CBT, as it is directly tied to the long-term success of tourism ventures and the well-being of local residents (Mosedale, 2017; Nyaupane & Poudel, 2018).

Guest satisfaction in CBT can be conceptualized through the disconfirmation paradigm, where expectations regarding the benefits and impacts of tourism are

compared to the actual experiences. If the benefits meet or exceed expectations, satisfaction prevails, contributing to community support for tourism activities (Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2019). This aligns with the view that CBT should prioritize local needs and empower communities to retain control over tourism development (Richards & Palmer, 2019). Positive community experiences can contribute to greater local involvement in tourism, which, in turn, can enhance the sustainability of tourism initiatives (Simpson, 2018). Conversely, negative experiences—such as a mismatch between local expectations and actual outcomes—can undermine the potential for long-term success (Saarinen, 2017).

Guest satisfaction with tourism development is also closely tied to the broader concept of sustainable livelihoods. Many scholars have emphasized that a successful CBT model requires not only financial benefits but also the preservation of social and cultural values, as well as environmental sustainability (Tosun, 2020). CBT is most effective when local communities are able to leverage tourism to improve their livelihoods, with benefits extending to areas such as education, infrastructure, and healthcare (Wang, 2021). Moreover, a sustainable CBT model should ensure that local communities perceive tourism as a means of enhancing their well-being and securing long-term economic stability (Thompson & McLeod, 2019).

Recent studies indicate that when communities see tangible benefits from tourism—such as increased employment opportunities, cultural exchange, and infrastructure development—tourism is more likely to be accepted and supported (Smith, 2020). Furthermore, effective management and collaboration between stakeholders are crucial for aligning expectations with outcomes and fostering a shared vision for sustainable tourism development (McGehee, 2018). This collaborative approach not

only supports community satisfaction but also contributes to a more equitable distribution of tourism's economic benefits (Miller, 2019).

In conclusion, guest satisfaction plays an essential role in the success and sustainability of community-based tourism. To ensure positive outcomes, tourism initiatives must be designed with active community participation, transparent decision-making, and a focus on both economic and social benefits. By fostering an environment in which communities feel valued and empowered, CBT can contribute to both local livelihoods and sustainable tourism development, ensuring that benefits are shared across generations (Zapata et al., 2019).

2.8 Theoretical Framework

This section seeks to provide a theoretical framework to facilitate the analysis of the contribution MGHs to sustainable local communities' livelihoods and socio-economic development. This research aims at developing a theory on how MGHs can be used to support the development of community-based rural tourism especially among rural communities whose tourism development is at *embryonic* state. The general tourism accommodation sector is diverse and complex. This therefore calls for a multiple approach in collecting and analyzing data on the impacts of these MGHs on the growth of the entire tourism sector in West Pokot County, Kenya. In examining the contribution of tourism to local communities' livelihoods, different models and theories have been used to guide the process of data collection and analysis as explained below.

2.8.1 Social Exchange theory

Social Exchange Theory (SET), developed by Emerson (1962), explains interactions as exchanges of resources between individuals or groups (Ap, 1992). It involves

tangible and intangible resources, such as goods, services, social approval, and status (MoIm, 2003; Kim, 2013). From an economic standpoint, individuals seek to maximize benefits in exchanges, weighing material advantages against costs (Kim, 2013; Turner, 1982). In contrast, anthropologists emphasize that exchange also involves emotional and social interactions (Turner, 1982; Kim, 2013).

In tourism, SET has been applied to understand residents' perceptions of tourism impacts and development (Ap, 1990; Jurowski et al., 1997; Kim, 2013). Researchers have explored how tourism development brings economic benefits, but also socio-cultural and environmental costs (Harrill, 2004; Kim, 2013). SET helps explain residents' attitudes toward tourism by evaluating their exchange of resources, such as support for development or tolerating negative impacts in exchange for benefits (Teye et al., 2002; Kim, 2013).

Community participation in tourism development is crucial for sustainable outcomes. Engaging residents, governments, and businesses in decision-making increases the viability of tourism and aligns community expectations with development (Kim, 2013). When residents participate in tourism planning, it enhances community well-being by maximizing the benefits of tourism (Ap, 1992; Kim, 2013). However, opposition to tourism can hinder development if local communities perceive imbalances in benefits and costs (Ap, 1992; Kim, 2013).

In community-based tourism (CBT), SET is used to analyze the interactions between local communities, tourists, and the tourism industry. By applying SET to tourism in West Pokot County, the research can reveal how these exchanges influence sustainable livelihoods, highlighting the importance of mutually beneficial exchanges for long-term tourism sustainability (Kim, 2013). This study can also provide insights

into how local communities can engage in tourism to enhance socio-economic well-being while preserving cultural and environmental resources.

2.8.2 Stakeholder Theory

A stakeholder is any individual or group affected by or capable of influencing an organization's objectives (Kim, 2013). Stakeholder theory emerged in the 19th century, emphasizing the importance of cooperation and mutuality (Clark, 1984; Kim, 2013). In the 1960s, the Stanford Research Institute proposed that firms should be accountable to stakeholders beyond just stockholders, whose support is vital for a firm's success (Stoney & Winstanley, 2001; Kim, 2013). The theory redefines organizations as entities coordinating and optimizing stakeholder interests (Sautter & Leisen, 1999; Kim, 2013).

Effective application of stakeholder theory requires careful identification of stakeholders and their interests, as stakeholders can vary widely (Sautter & Leisen, 1999; Freeman, 1984). Tourism planning must involve all relevant stakeholders to address the complex interests in development processes (Inskeep, 1991; Kim, 2013). Stakeholders' diverse values shape their views on development, and tourism planners should incorporate their perspectives to avoid conflicts and enhance community collaboration (Yuksel et al., 1999; Hardy & Beeton, 2001; Kim, 2013).

Stakeholder theory has been used in tourism management to emphasize community involvement, knowledge, and long-term participation (Getz & Jamal, 1994; Hall, 1999; Kim, 2013). Case studies suggest that applying a stakeholder approach improves tourism destination management by enhancing job opportunities, infrastructure, and safety (Byrd & Gustke, 2006; Burns & Howard, 2003). Effective

stakeholder involvement should begin early and continue throughout the planning process to ensure all interests are represented (Gunn, 1994; Kim, 2013).

In community-based tourism (CBT), Stakeholder Theory is an effective tool for understanding the relationships between local communities, tourists, and tourism operators. It helps guide sustainable development by balancing the interests of various parties and promoting long-term benefits for all involved.

The application of Stakeholder Theory in this study offered a comprehensive framework for understanding the dynamics of community-based tourism in West Pokot County. By recognizing and addressing the interests, concerns, and goals of all stakeholders involved, the study contributes to the development of a more sustainable and inclusive tourism model that enhances the livelihoods of local communities while preserving the cultural and environmental integrity of the region.

2.8.3 The Theory of Assimilation

The theory of assimilation, based on Festinger's dissonance theory (1957), suggests that consumers compare their expectations with a product's actual performance. If a discrepancy exists, dissonance arises. Anderson (1973) extended this concept to suggest that consumers adjust their perceptions of a product to align with their expectations, thus reducing dissonance. This can be done by either altering expectations to match performance or minimizing the importance of disconfirmation to increase satisfaction (Olson & Dover, 1979). The theory assumes that consumers are motivated to adjust their perceptions or expectations to avoid dissatisfaction.

Peyton et al. (2003) critique Assimilation Theory, noting it doesn't clarify how expectation disconfirmation leads to satisfaction or dissatisfaction. It also assumes

that consumers will always adjust expectations or perceptions when discrepancies arise. Research has shown that controlling product performance can strengthen the link between expectations and satisfaction, suggesting dissatisfaction only occurs with negative expectations.

In community-based tourism (CBT), Assimilation Theory helps explain how local communities, such as those near Missionary Guesthouses in West Pokot County, adapt to tourism. The theory examines how tourism integration affects social, cultural, and economic aspects of the community, influencing both local development and guest satisfaction.

The Theory of Assimilation offers a valuable framework for understanding the dynamics between local communities and tourism development in West Pokot County. By examining how the local population adapts to tourism, both culturally and economically, the study provides insights into the processes that enable communities to benefit from tourism while maintaining their cultural identity and achieving sustainable livelihoods. This perspective highlights the importance of gradual, controlled assimilation that enhances both guest satisfaction and the well-being of local communities, while ensuring the long-term sustainability of tourism in the region.

2.8.4 Sustainable Asset Pentagon

In the context of sustainable livelihoods, an asset pentagon is a visual representation of the different types of capital or assets that communities or individuals use to achieve and sustain their livelihoods. It is part of a broader livelihood framework that focuses on the various resources that contribute to the well-being of people, particularly in rural or resource-dependent communities. These assets are key in

determining how well individuals or communities can respond to challenges, reduce vulnerability, and build long-term sustainability. These assets can be represented by an asset pentagon in a generic livelihood framework (Fig. 2.5).

The assets are interlinked, and each asset contributes to the resilience and sustainability of communities. The asset pentagon is used to assess the relative strength or balance of these assets, helping to identify areas of vulnerability or potential for improvement.

For example, a community with strong social and human capital but limited natural and financial capital may face challenges in creating sustainable livelihoods because they lack access to necessary resources or financial stability. On the other hand, a community with well-maintained natural capital (e.g., fertile land, clean water) can leverage other types of capital to build long-term sustainability and improve livelihoods.

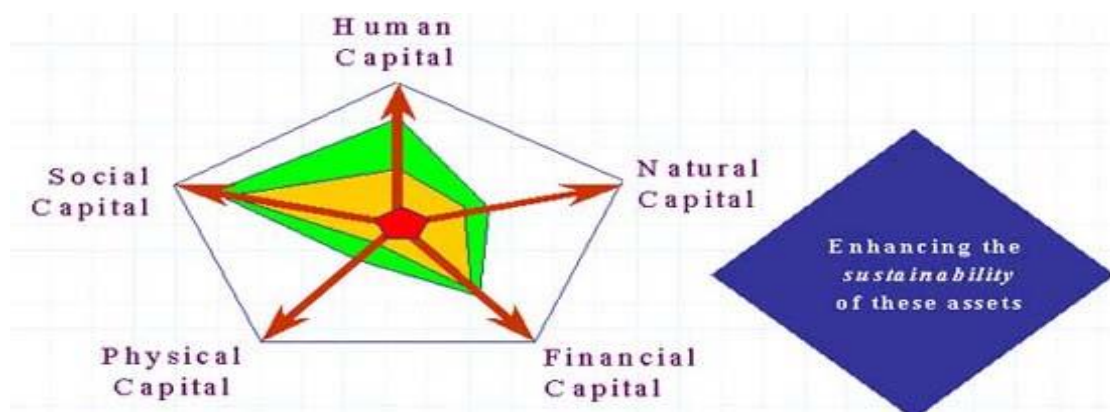


Figure 2.5: Sustainable Asset Pentagon

Source: Srisantisuk, 2015

By assessing the assets and their relationship, organizations and planners can design interventions that strengthen one or more forms of capital to promote resilience, enhance sustainable practices, and improve the livelihoods of communities, especially

in the face of external pressures like climate change, economic downturns, or social challenges.

2.9 Summary and Gap Identified in Literature

Tourism activities in Kenya have been unevenly distributed, with a concentration in certain geographical areas, leaving regions like rural West Pokot County largely underserved by tourism-induced livelihoods. In areas such as West Pokot, there is a lack of strong local tourism advocacy to support the development and diversification of livelihoods. While recent government policy documents and development plans have aimed at promoting tourism in rural regions, including this study area, the implementation of these initiatives remains limited.

Furthermore, several poverty reduction strategy papers emphasize the importance of community-based tourism as a means of socio-economic development. These documents highlight that local communities, who are the custodians of tourism resources, must take the lead in driving the tourism sector, rather than relying on the traditional foreign-owned and run model. To build a sustainable tourism sector, local communities need to be equipped with the necessary skills, market linkages, initial capital, and tourism support infrastructure. Tourism literature advocates for partnerships between local communities and other stakeholders to enhance capacities for tourism development. However, while various partnership models have been explored, the potential of collaborations with missionary organizations has not been thoroughly investigated, which is the focus of this study.

2.9.1 Knowledge gap that the study sought to bridge

Despite the presence of the MGHs in rural parts of West Pokot County, there is no academic literature linking them to the overall tourism development strategy in the

area. Even when the Government of Kenya (GoK) is committing to spreading tourism to rural communities through the certification of 1,000 home stays among rural communities (Vision 2030), the support of these MGHs has not come out yet they are in existence and operational. Overall, no study on community-based rural tourism has examined these MGHs and their pivotal role in supporting tourism development in these areas.

In Kenya, most studies have majored on tourist lodges, eco-lodges and campsites among other tourist facilities located in conservation areas with no attention given to these MGHs located within communities. That is, there is no study that has linked the potentialities of the MGHs located in rural areas to the overall government policy of spreading tourism development to these rural communities who are in dire need of alternative livelihood opportunities to supplement their declining traditional economic livelihoods driven by pastoralism and subsistence agriculture; create employment opportunities; reduce poverty levels; improve quality of life; reduce unemployment among other sought-after benefits. Although the MGHs have the potential to support the penetration of tourism to ‘difficult’ rural areas, their potentiality has not been examined.

This study therefore sought to bridge a gap by bringing the MGHs into overall discussion on community-based rural tourism. Recent discourses on tourism development have centred on the need for local communities to genuinely participate in their local tourism industry including by way of ownership. In a nutshell, despite the existence of the MGHs in West Pokot County over the last thirty (30) years, there remains no research about their existence, their operations and their impacts on the livelihoods of the neighboring communities. That is, there is little information

available linking the MGHs to community-based tourism in West Pokot County. As a result of the realization of this gap, this thesis investigated these MGHs in terms of their operations as community-based tourism ventures and their resultant impacts of the local communities' livelihoods.

2.10 Conceptual Framework

A conceptual framework is important in research because it provides a structured approach for understanding and analyzing the relationships between key variables in a study. It helps clarify the theoretical foundations and assumptions underlying the research, guiding the researcher in defining key concepts, formulating hypotheses, and identifying the direction of relationships between variables (Bryman, 2021). By organizing concepts and variables, a conceptual framework offers a visual or descriptive representation of how these elements are connected, making it easier to design the study, interpret data, and ensure that the research objectives are met (Miles & Huberman, 2018). Moreover, it provides a clear roadmap that can aid in the identification of research gaps and ensures consistency and focus throughout the study (Maxwell, 2013).

The conceptual framework for this study (Figure 2.6) was anchored on the DFID Sustainable Livelihoods Framework (2000). The framework identifies five key asset categories: financial, natural, social, physical, and human capital (Rakodi & Lloyd-Jones, 2002). The study focused on the effect of community-based tourism on sustainable livelihoods of local community members living adjacent to MGHs in West Pokot County and the moderating role of guest satisfaction on the variables.

The dependent variable was sustainable livelihoods measured using financial assets, human assets, natural assets, physical assets and social assets. These five components

comprehensively capture the diverse and interconnected factors that contribute to the long-term well-being and resilience of individuals and communities. Financial assets reflect the economic stability and resources available to individuals or households, which are crucial for maintaining a sustainable livelihood. Human assets, including skills, education, and health, are vital for individuals' capacity to generate income and adapt to changes. Natural assets represent the environmental resources that communities depend on for sustenance and economic activities, making them essential for sustainable development. Physical assets, such as infrastructure and technology, improve productivity and support the overall functioning of livelihoods. Finally, social assets, including social networks and community ties, enhance resilience and facilitate access to resources and opportunities. By measuring sustainable livelihoods through these assets, the study captures a holistic view of the factors that enable communities to maintain or improve their quality of life over time.

Independent variables in the study include local participation was measured using direct, indirect, individual, group, spontaneous indicators, tourism activities was measured using ownership, linkages and partnerships, capacity building and support e.g. technology & community goals indicators and rural tourism was measured using accommodation, tourism image, flagship projects, market destination and community integration indicators. Local participation, activities and programs, and rural tourism are key to community-based tourism (CBT) as they empower local communities, ensure equitable benefits, and promote sustainable development. Local participation enables community involvement in tourism planning, fostering ownership and alignment with local values (Tosun, 2006). Activities and programs offer opportunities for communities to showcase their culture and resources, driving economic growth while preserving traditions and the environment (Kamarudin,

2013a; Sharpley & Sharpley, 1997). Rural tourism focuses on tourism development in rural areas, helping communities benefit from tourism while preserving their identity and improving infrastructure and accessibility (Lane, 2009). Together, these elements create a locally-driven and sustainable tourism model that benefits the community economically, socially, and culturally.

The moderating variable was guest satisfaction measured using quality, safety and security, staff performance indicators and was hypothesized to moderate the relationship between the independent and dependent variables. Guest satisfaction was chosen as a moderating variable because it influences the relationship between independent and dependent variables in tourism. As a moderator, guest satisfaction can strengthen or weaken the impact of factors like service quality, staff performance, and safety on outcomes such as loyalty or repeat visits. Measuring satisfaction through indicators like quality, safety, and staff performance is important because these elements directly shape the guest experience. Higher satisfaction may amplify the effects of other variables, influencing guest behavior and decisions. Thus, guest satisfaction is crucial for understanding how various factors affect customer behavior in the tourism context.

Socio-economic analysis (economic benefits and social benefits) was compared with the demographic characteristics (gender, marital status and category of the respondents) of the local community. Comparing socio-economic benefits with demographic characteristics allows for a deeper, more nuanced understanding of how community-based tourism affects different groups within the local population. This helps in creating policies and strategies that maximize the benefits of tourism while addressing disparities and promoting inclusivity.

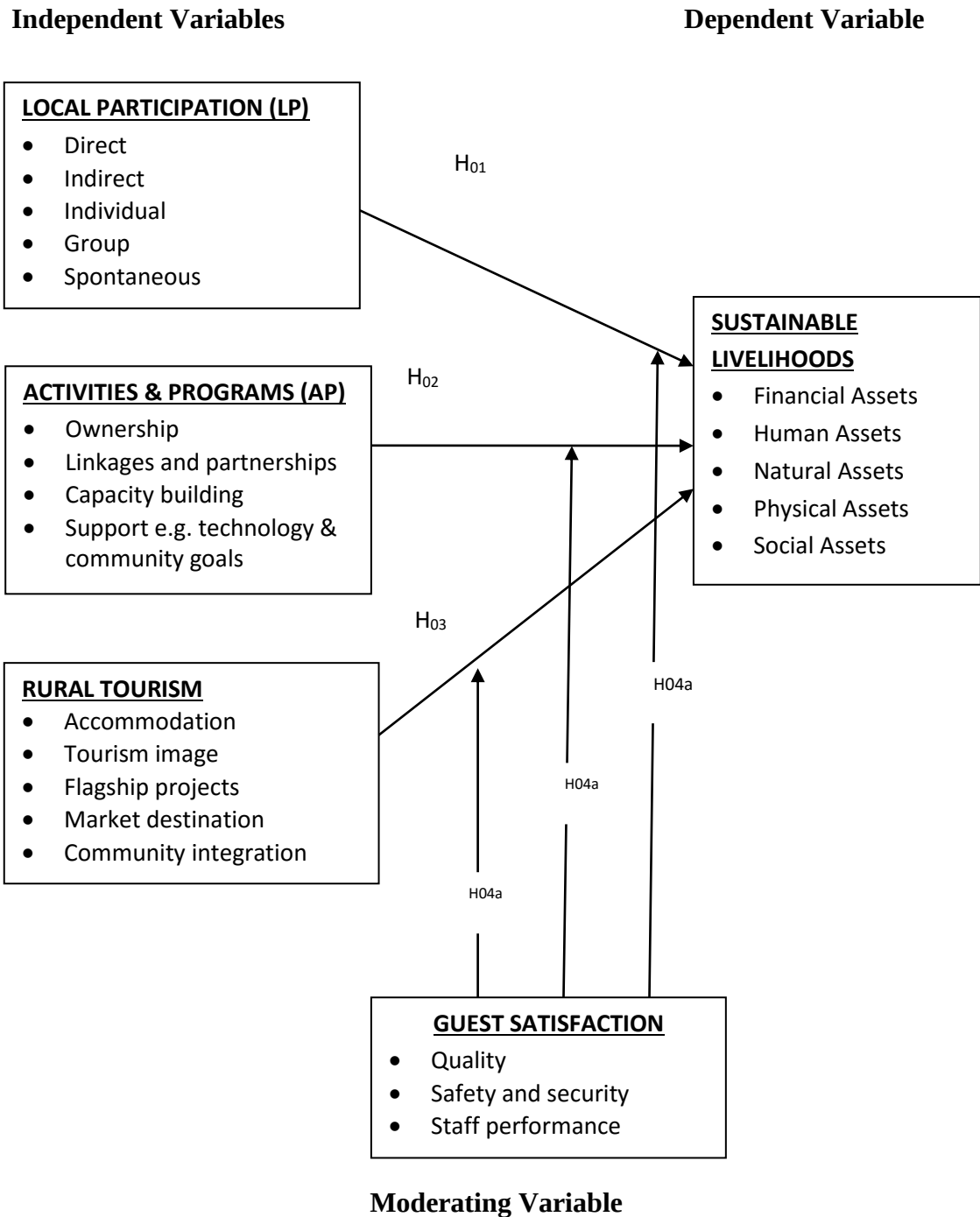


Figure 2.6: Conceptual framework

Source: Modified and adapted from Tosun (2006); Lane (2009); Kamarudin (2013a); Sharpley & Sharpley (1997; Anton (1996); Zhao, (2009) Burns & Holden (1995); Wall & Mathieson, (2006) Srisantisuk (2015)

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 Overview

This chapter discusses the methodological components used to achieve the study objectives. It covers the study area, research design and approach, target population, sampling design, sampling procedures, data collection instruments, validity and reliability of the data collection instruments, measurement of the variable, and data analysis techniques. The chapter concludes with ethical issues considered in the research.

3.1 Study Area

The study was conducted in West Pokot County (Appendix IV).

3.1.1 Location

West Pokot County is one of the 14 Counties in the Rift Valley region. It is situated in the north rift along Kenya's Western boundary with Uganda border. It borders Turkana County to the North and North East, Trans Nzoia County to the South, Elgeyo Marakwet County and Baringo County to the South East and east respectively. The County lies within Longitudes 34° 47' and 35° 49' East and Latitude 10° and 20° North. The County covers an area of approximately 9,169.4 km² stretching a distance of 132 km from North to South, (CIDP, 2013-2017). West Pokot County is divided geographically into four (4) sub-counties, West Pokot, South Pokot, North Pokot and Central Pokot sub-counties. Of the 631,231 inhabitants of the County (KNBS, 2013) majority of them live in rural areas. West Pokot County is one of the fourteen (14) poorest counties in Kenya, (CRA, 2013). West Pokot County has on different

occasions been supported by government and donor relief services so as to save her population.

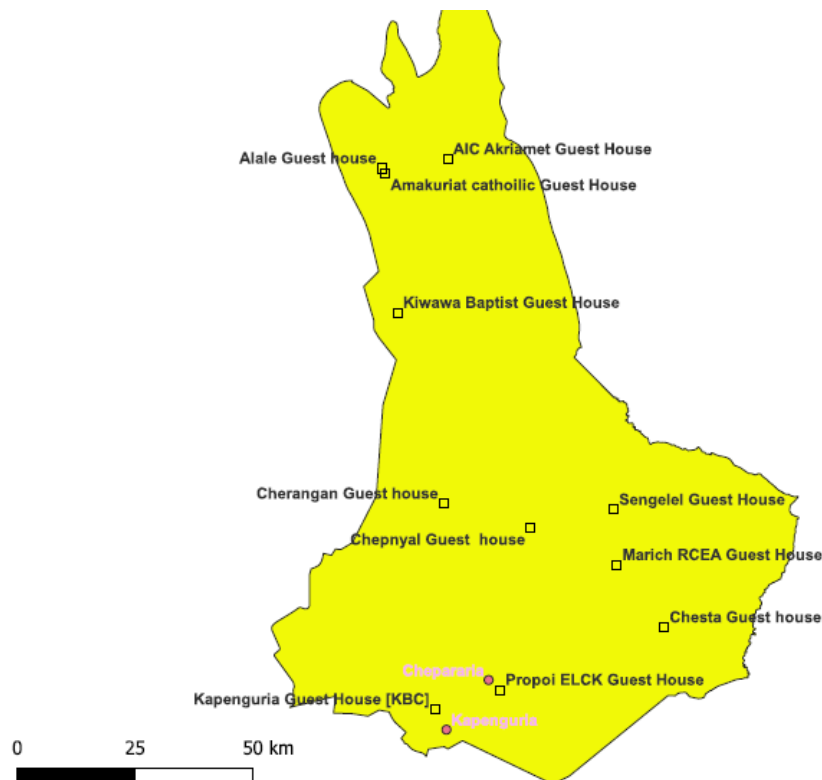


Figure 3.1 Map of West Pokot County showing the location of the MGHS

3.1.2 Climatic Conditions

Being a semi-arid area, the climate of the region is characterized by a Savannah-type of climate. High temperatures are registered during the day, especially during the dry periods (between the Months of September and April). The highly raised areas have lower temperatures somehow lower temperatures. However, weather conditions change with changes in seasons. The hills are intertwined with dry streams all draining to the major rivers, (District Development Plan, 2010). The county has a bimodal type of rainfall. The long rains fall between April and August while the short rains fall between October and February. There is, however, great variation in the total amount and distribution of the rainfall received in the county. The lowlands

receive 600 mm per annum while the highlands receive 1,600 mm per annum, (CIDP, 2013-2017).

The county also experiences great variations in temperature with the lowlands experiencing temperatures of up to 30⁰ C and the highlands experiencing moderate temperatures of 15⁰ C. These high temperatures in the lowlands cause high evapo-transpiration which is un-favorable for crop production. The high-altitude areas with moderate temperatures experience high rainfall and low evapo-transpiration hence suitable for crop production, (CIDP, 2013-2017). Generally, 80% of the County is arid or semi-arid thereby exhibiting arid or semi-arid type of climate.

3.1.3 Topographic Features

The county is characterized by a variety of topographic features. On the Northern and North Eastern parts of the County are the dry plains, with an altitude of less than 900 m above sea level. On the Southeastern part are Cherangani Hills with an altitude of 3,370 m above sea level. Landscapes associated with this range of altitude include spectacular escarpments of more than 700 m. The high-altitude areas have high agricultural potentials while medium altitude areas lie between 1,500 m and 2,100 m above sea level and receive low rainfall in addition to being predominantly pastoral land. The low altitude areas include Alale, Kacheliba, Kongelai, Masol and parts of Sigor. These areas are prone to soil erosion due to flash floods, (CIDP, 2013-2017).

In some parts, water-erosion has resulted in the formation of deep gullies as well as exposure of large rock outcrops. The County is home to some of the tallest mountains in the North Rift such as Mt. Mtello and Mt. Kogh. The highest of these are Mt. Mtello, which rise to 3,415 metres above sea level, Mt. Kogh, which peak at 2,918 metres and Cherangani hills. Large sand deposits are common in the low lands

especially along rivers and streams. These have lately been harvested for purposes of construction within and without the County. The beauty of the County's landscapes is unarguably one of the major attractions yet to be harnessed for purposes of tourism development. The northern part of the County is a lower altitude area (1150-2000 m altitude) while the Southern region is a high-altitude area (2439-3370 m altitude).

The main forests in the county are found in Cherangani Hills. The forest, which forms part of the Cherangani Hills in Lelan, covers an area of 20,857 ha. The un-gazetted forest covers 15,719 ha and consists of rain forests blocks scattered all over the county. These are natural forests dominated by tree species like cedar (*Juniperous procera*) and bamboo (*Aredinaria ehavi*). Plantation forests cover an area of 662 ha of which approximately 34 ha are indigenous and the rest exotic, (CIDP, 2013-2017).

The main rivers in the county are Suam, Kerio, Weiwei and Muruny. Cherangani Hills are the main source of Muruny and Weiwei rivers, while Mt Elgon is the main source of river Suam. River Muruny, Kerio and Weiwei drain northwards into Lake Turkana, while other small rivers join and drain into River Nzoia which in turn drains into Lake Victoria. River Suam drains into Turkwel dam that generates hydro-electric power, (CIDP, 2013-2017).

West Pokot is home to some the oldest rocks found at the earth's surface all over the world: the Precambrian Basement System Rocks. These rocks are metamorphic. This means that they are formed when existing rocks are changed because of high temperatures, high pressures and chemically active fluids. Metamorphic rocks in West Pokot are gneisses. They contain a wide variety of minerals: biotite, hornblende, and quartz-muscovite gneisses. In addition, igneous rocks of intrusive origin are found in some places within the County. These were formed when molten fluid within the

earth's crust intruded into the existing rocks. These rocks are found at the surface, because the cover of the older Basement System Rocks has been eroded in most places. In the south east of West Pokot County, some sedimentary rocks are found at the surface. Loose material originating from denuded existing rocks has been deposited as sediments. In the lower areas, under the influence of time and pressure, they have been consolidated. Sedimentary rocks are characterized by clear, straight layers on top of each other. Scattered over the area, alluvial sediments are deposited. These sediments are still unconsolidated and of very young age.

Gold is the most important mineral found in West Pokot nowadays. It is panned near Marich Pass since the beginning of the 1950's, near Korpu/Turkwel Gorge since the early 1970's and in Alale location since 1981. Especially in the zones of contact metamorphism gold can be found. During weathering of these rocks single grains are released, transported by rivers and deposited in the river beds. Because gold is relatively heavy, the particles are deposited near the source. Gold is panned by the local people. The concentration is not high enough to start large scale gold mining projects. Most probably gold can be panned for many more years and it is likely that new places will be discovered. Other minerals found in the County are copper, cobalt, chromites, nickel, kyanite, asbestos, ruby, limestone and mica. The quantity however is low and the old mining places are abandoned because profits are not sufficient.

Most parts of the County is pastoral land, meaning these communities keep animals such as cattle, goats, sheep and camel keeping has just started as a response to the declining pasture fields occasioned by unreliable rainfall patterns. Animals are therefore the main livelihood sources for communities in the Turkwel region who are also relying on relief food donations to survive, that is over 92% of the target population practice nomadic pastoralism, (District Development Plan, 2010).

3.1.4 Farming Activities

Subsistence crop farming is practiced in the area though on a small scale. These communities farm along fertile streams draining to the dam which again threaten the life of the dam through increased siltation.

Small scale mining is undertaken along major rivers and streams; where alluvial gold mining along Muruny, Turkwel, Orwo and Nasolot rivers. Prior to the inception of the dam, the Turkwel valley was gold-rich, and mining was a booming business in the area before the submergence of the “golden valley”. However, even after the submergence, gold mining along the streams draining to the dam are on-going. This has to a greater extent threatened the life of the dam by way of siltation. In addition, sand harvesting is also on the rise as these communities try to look for alternative livelihood sources for survival.

West Pokot County is good in honey production and this has come in handy to help these communities supplement their incomes. Also, the collection and sell of aloe Vera products has also come in handy to these communities as it has resulted in additional livelihood sources especially among women.

Like most pastoral lands in Kenya, land tenure in most of the study sites is communal in nature. However, specific clans and families have their designated lands although there is no title deed. In terms of use, most of the land is used for unrestricted grazing of animals, small scale mining and. This has resulted in unchecked utilization of pasture resources in the region. Due to overstocking, conflicts arise over water and pasture sharing. In terms of settlements, these communities live in cluster of villages (Manyattas) that are often determined by the existence of water points, road network and pasture availability.

3.1.5 Political landscape

The county has four constituencies namely: Kapenguria, Kacheliba, Sigor and Pokot South and a total of twenty county wards. Kapenguria and Kacheliba constituencies have six wards, while Sigor and Pokot South have four wards each, (CIDP, 2013-2017).

Table 3.1: Constituency and County Wards in West Pokot County

Constituency	Number of County Wards	Area km ²
Kapenguria	6	1,822.5
Sigor	4	2109.7
Kacheliba	6	3,953.2
Pokot South	4	1,284
Total	20	9,169.4

Source: West Pokot CIDP, 2013-2017

3.1.6 MGHs in West Pokot County

Tourism is a vital source of income for Kenya, significantly contributing to the country's economy through foreign exchange earnings and employment creation (Bhuiyan et al., 2011; Bhuiyan et al., 2013). West Pokot County, the focus of this study, is located in the North Rift Economic Bloc (NOREB) of Kenya. Despite its potential, the county, like many other arid and semi-arid regions of the country, faces various socio-economic challenges, including low income, high unemployment, poverty, a lack of tourism accommodation facilities, low levels of urbanization, limited local capacity for tourism development, inadequate investment, poor infrastructure, insecurity, and recurrent drought and famine. Nevertheless, West Pokot boasts abundant natural resources, such as mountains, wildlife, panoramic landscapes, and cultural attractions that have the potential to drive tourism growth.

Although both the national and county governments have prioritized tourism development, it has not fully materialized in West Pokot. Missionary Guest Houses (MGHs) could serve as a key strategy to stimulate tourism in the county, providing local communities with opportunities to benefit from the sector. MGHs are often managed by churches and emphasize Christian values in the tourism industry. These establishments also offer tourists a chance to engage with local communities, experience traditional lifestyles, and learn about local customs and culture. This initiative could create lasting interest among the local population, particularly youth and women, and enhance socio-economic conditions through active participation in MGHs.

For the purpose of this study, MGHs refer to residential homes once occupied by missionaries who worked in rural areas and later left upon completing their mission work. These homes have been repurposed as income-generating units (IGUs) that provide accommodation to travelers in rural communities as well as the local community. The local communities view tourists as development partners and stakeholders, enriching their experience by exposing them to the local culture and way of life. Different countries have various interpretations of home stays and guest houses, but in this context, MGHs refer to buildings originally used by missionaries in West Pokot, which were subsequently handed over to local communities through the parent church to operate as income-generating assets.

3.1.7 Location of MGHs

The location of eleven MGHs is described. Chesta Village, Pokot Central Sub-County, West Pokot County, Kenya: The village played host to the first Evangelical Lutheran Church Missionary under the Norwegian Lutheran Missions (NLM) who

arrived in the area in the late 1970's. The missionary build magnificent residential houses, worked and lived in the area up to the year 2003/2004. Upon their exit, their residential house and other infrastructures were handed over to the evangelical Lutheran church to be run as an income generating guesthouse for the church. Conferences and workshops are also held within the facility. The first paraglider to the area and in the entire West Pokot County was the guest to this village and chest guesthouse.

Marich Village, Pokot Central Sub-County, West Pokot County, Kenya: Marich village play host to the Reformed Church of East Africa guesthouse & Conference centre (RCEA). Other tourist facilities located in the village include the Marich pass field studies centre among other tourist attractions in the area. The village is gate way to Nasolot national reserve and the Turkwel hydroelectricity generating dam.

Mbara Village, Pokot Central Sub-County, West Pokot County, Kenya: Located in a high-altitude area overlooking the Great Rift Valley, Mbara village is home to Sengelel guesthouse built by the Evangelical Lutheran Church Missionary. Presently, the guesthouse is run by the local ELCK church as an income generating Unit and is proving accommodation to mountain climbers and other guests.

Propoi Village, Kipkomo Sub-County, West Pokot County, Kenya: The village is home to the Propoi guesthouse and conference centre own by the propoi ELCK church. Consisting of two (2) sets of residential houses complete with servant quarters, the facility was originally home to Evangelical Lutheran church missionary presently being run by the local church as income generating Unit and is proving accommodation to

Chewoyet Village, West Pokot Sub-County, West Pokot County, Kenya: Chewoyet village is presently home to the headquarters of the Evangelical Lutheran Church, North West Diocese (Also referred to as the ELCK village). This is the village where most of the missionary lived. Several residential houses were built, a host of conference rooms together with a bible college all of which form the ELCK village. It is an expansive village that accommodates many guests and who intend to travel to different rural villages of the county.

Chepnyal Village, West Pokot Sub-County, West Pokot County, Kenya: Chepnyal village play host to Chepnyal catholic guesthouse (visitor palour) built and being run by catholic sisters. The guesthouse provides high-end accommodations to visitors and expatriates to this rural and mountainous village. Through the initiatives of the sisters and the guesthouse, local women are trained on basic hospitality skills such as cake making, bakery and confectionery among other skills.

Cherangan Village, North Pokot Sub-County, West Pokot County, Kenya: Located along the Kenya Uganda Border, Cherangan village is home to another guesthouse built by the Catholic Church. The guesthouse apart from accommodating visitors of the church also offers accommodating to excursionists and visitors to the rural part of the County and to the Karamoja region of Eastern Uganda.

Kiwawa Village, North Pokot Sub-County, West Pokot County, Kenya: Kiwawa village play host to the Kiwawa guesthouse and conference centre. Originally a family house for Dick Hamilton, an American Missionary who settled in the area in the late 1970's and lived up to 2005. He supported many community projects in water, schools and health through the Baptist church. Upon his return with the family to

America, the house was converted into a guesthouse and is presently accommodating visitors to the area and to the larger Karamoja region.

Kauriong Village, North Pokot Sub-County, West Pokot County, Kenya: Kauriong village is home to the Akiriamet guesthouse built by a missionary.

Amakuriat Village, North Pokot Sub-County, West Pokot County, Kenya: Amakuriat village, North Pokot Sub-County is home to Alale Catholic Parish and the Amakuriat Catholic guesthouse (visitor parlour) built and being run by local Catholic Church. The guesthouse (visitor parlour) provides high-end accommodations to visitors and expatriates to this rural village. Through the initiatives of the sisters and the guesthouse, local women are trained on bead work together with other hospitality skills such as cake making, bakery and confectionery among other skills.

Naruoro Village, North Pokot Sub-County, West Pokot County, Kenya: Naruoro village is home to the Alale African Inland Church (AIC) guesthouse and conference centre. Originally a family house for an AIC missionary working in the area, the house reverted to the local church to be run as a guesthouse. Currently providing accommodation to staffs of non-governmental organizations and government officers inspecting projects in the rural area, the guesthouse is now being run by the Church as an IGU.

3.1.8 Population density

Population distribution in the county is influenced by climatic conditions and socio-economic development. Urban areas and high potential agricultural areas have high population distribution and density. The population density for per square km in from 2015 to 2017 is on table 3.2.

Table 3.2: Population density per sub-county

Sub-County/Constituency	Area in Sq. KM	Population 2009		Population 2013		Population 2015		Population 2017	
		Total	Density (persons/ Sq Km)	Total	Density (persons/ Sq Km)	Total	Density (persons / Sq Km)	Total	Density (persons/ Sq Km)
North Pokot/ Kacheliba	3,953.2	156,011	39	192,083	49	213,135	54	236,495	60
Pokot Central/Sigor	2109.7	85,079	40	104,750	50	116,231	55	128,970	61
Pokot South	1284.0	132,100	103	162,643	127	180,469	141	200,249	156
West Pokot/ Kapenguria	1822.5	139,500	77	171,754	94	190,579	105	211,466	116
TOTAL	9,169.4	512,690	56	631,231	69	700,414	76	777,180	85

Source: West Pokot County Planning Unit (2013), Kapenguria

3.2 Research paradigm

Angel and Townsell (2011) identified three primary approaches for conducting social science research: quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods. The research design for this study was guided by the pragmatist paradigm. Pragmatists argue that knowledge is not exclusively tied to either quantitative or qualitative methods but emerges from actions that work, often requiring a combination of both approaches (Neuman, 2014). Before selecting an appropriate research design, it is essential to first determine the underlying research philosophy. According to Creswell (2014), there are three primary philosophical paradigms that shape research design: positivism, which assumes the existence of objective truth; interpretivism, which suggests that knowledge is socially constructed; and pragmatism, which emphasizes that knowledge emerges from actions and their consequences.

The decision to adopt a pragmatist paradigm for this study stemmed from the understanding that community-based tourism dimensions, which were measured using Likert scale questionnaires, align with positivist constructs, while data gathered from interviews require individual interpretation, in line with qualitative methodologies (Creswell, 2014). Pragmatism focuses on solving the research problem by using a combination of methods that offer a comprehensive understanding of the issue at

hand. This approach was particularly suited for exploring the objective reality of community-based tourism and sustainable livelihoods, as well as understanding the subjective narratives of key informants and guesthouse managers.

Given that the concept of Missionary Guesthouses (MGHs) is a relatively new phenomenon in West Pokot County, Kenya, with limited existing research, a flexible design using both quantitative and qualitative methods was necessary. As a result, this study employed a mixed methods approach, which allowed for a richer, more nuanced understanding of the research problem (Creswell & Creswell, 2018).

3.3 Research Design

A research design is the strategic framework for the collection and analysis of data in a way that ensures relevance to the research objectives while maximizing efficiency in the process (Kothari, 2004). It serves as the blueprint for the study, detailing how data will be gathered, analyzed, and interpreted to address the research questions. According to Creswell and Poth (2018), a research design provides the overall structure for a study, helping researchers determine the methods and techniques to be used for data collection and analysis, while aligning them with the study's objectives. Research design is critical because it ensures that the evidence gathered directly addresses the research problem and contributes to answering the research questions in the most valid and reliable way possible (Bryman, 2019).

A well-structured research design ensures smooth implementation by organizing the steps needed for data collection and analysis, ultimately improving the research's efficiency. It allows researchers to gather the necessary information with minimal use of time, effort, and resources (Fetters, Curry, & Creswell, 2019). As Kothari (2004) notes, the choice of research design is influenced by the study's objectives, the types

of data required, and the availability of resources such as time, staff, and funding. To fully comprehend the research design, it is essential to consider key elements such as the research purpose, data categories, and sources of data, as they guide the study's structure and approach (Creswell & Creswell, 2018).

The sequential explanatory research design was employed in this study due to its straightforward and effective mixed-method approach. The main objective of this design is to use qualitative data to help explain or interpret the findings from a primarily quantitative study, particularly when unexpected results arise (Ivankova, Creswell, & Stick, 2019). This explanatory sequential mixed methods design, also referred to as a two-phase model (Creswell & Creswell, 2018), involves first collecting quantitative data, followed by qualitative data collection to clarify or elaborate on the quantitative results. The rationale behind this approach is that quantitative data provides an overarching view of the research problem; however, qualitative data is necessary to refine, expand, or provide deeper insight into the general findings. One of the key strengths of this design is its simplicity, as the process unfolds in clear, distinct stages, making it relatively easy to implement (Fetters, Curry, & Creswell, 2019).

3.4 Target Population

A study population refers to the entire set of units from which a sample is selected for research (Bryman, 2017). It includes all items under consideration in any field of study. When every item in the population is counted, it is called a census inquiry (Kothari, 2019). Understanding the study population is a crucial step in research, as it allows researchers to identify the relevant research variables and characteristics that will provide insight into the population's conditions (Dowdy et al., 2019). In the

context of sustainable tourism, Ritchie (2017) emphasizes the importance of stakeholders in the development of a destination. Key stakeholders include the local communities, tourists, tourism entrepreneurs, environmental organizations, and local government officials (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2017). Their collective vision is essential for shaping sustainable tourism practices.

The target population comprised 35,569 local community members living adjacent to eleven MGHs in West Pokot County (Table 3.3); 4,028 guests using the accommodation and conference facilities at the MGHs (Table 3.4) and tourism stakeholders including county officials, eleven MGH managers, eleven MGH management committee members and sponsoring church representatives. The target population for this study was selected based on the relevance and potential contribution of each group to the research objectives, which included three key groups.

Although the study was conducted in West Pokot County, the specific study has eleven (11) study sites (sub-locations) which house the eleven (11) MGHs hence the reason for their selection. These MGHs provide employment opportunities to the local people; provide market for locally produced goods, accommodation opportunities to travelers visiting, and act as tourism flagships in the rural areas. Further, the MGHs are unique because they are owned by members of the local community through the local churches. Built, equipped and lived by the Christian missionary, the GHs are of good standard and with the right equipment. They are located in hard-to-access rural areas where there is no other tourism support infrastructure.

First, the local community members living adjacent to eleven MGHs, were targeted because they directly experience the social, economic, and environmental impacts of tourism in the region. Their proximity to the MGHs means they are likely affected by tourism activities, whether through employment, cultural exchange, or community development initiatives, and engaging with this group provides valuable insights into the perceptions, needs, and challenges faced by the community regarding sustainable tourism and local development.

Table 3.3: Target Population of Local Community

Study site (Sub- location)	Population			No. of Household	Area (Sq. km)	Pop. Density (Persons/sqr.km)
	Total	Male	Female			
Orwo	3,098	1,643	1,455	647	158.8	19
Seito	1,569	700	869	773	50.9	31
Mbara	4,389	2,179	2,210	747	26.9	163
Propoi	2,117	1,013	1,104	366	8.5	250
Chewoyet	3,947	2,056	1,891	920	8.1	485
Chepnyal	1,735	860	875	320	8.2	211
Cherangan	4,082	2,049	2,033	636	57.1	72
Kiwawa	4,174	2,000	2,174	750	117.4	36
Kauriong	2,986	1,445	1,541	598	53.3	56
Naruoro	3,170	1,595	1,575	540	53.5	59
Amakuriat	4,302	2,169	2,133	806	45.1	95
TOTAL	35,569	17,709	17,860	7,103		

Source: KNBS, 2009

Second, 578 guests visiting the eleven MGHs for accommodation and 3,450 guest for conference (table 3.4) making a total of 4,028 guests were targeted as important stakeholders because they are directly involved in the tourism experience within the region. By understanding their experiences, expectations, and satisfaction levels, the study could gain valuable information on the quality of tourism services and their perceptions of the destination, as well as gather perspectives on the implementation of sustainable practices and potential improvements for future tourism development.

Table 3.4: Target Population for Tourists (MGHs guests).

Sub-County	Sub-Location	Village	Missionary' guesthouses	Accomm Capacity	Conf Capacity
Pokot	Seito	Chesta	Chesta ELCK GH	100	500
Central	Orwa	Marich	Marich RCEA GH	50	300
	Mbara	Mbara	Sengelel ELCK GH	30	200
	Propoi	Propoi	Propoi E.L.C.K GH	15	300
Pokot South					
Pokot	Chewoyet	Chewoyet	Kapenguria E.L.C.K GH	200	1000
West	Sook	Chepnyal	Chepnyal Catholic Community GH	60	400
Pokot	Cherangan	Cherangan	Cherangan AIC GH	50	100
North	Kiwawa	Kiwawa	Kiwawa Baptist GH	30	150
	Kauriong	Akiriamet	Akiriamet AIC GH	6	50
	Amakuriat	Amakuriat	Amakuriat Catholic GH (parlour)	25	200
	Naruoro	Naruoro	Alale AIC guesthouse	12	250
TOTAL				578	3,450

Source: KNBS, 2009 & Guesthouses data, 2015

Third, tourism stakeholders such as county officials, MGH managers, management committee members, and church representatives were included because of their roles in the planning, management, and implementation of tourism strategies in the county. County officials are essential in policy and infrastructure development, while MGH managers and committee members contribute to the operational aspects of tourism management, and church representatives bring perspectives on the intersection of tourism and local values or ethical considerations, especially in a region where faith-based organizations significantly influence community development. Together, these diverse groups provide a comprehensive view of the governance, management, and challenges or opportunities in the development of sustainable tourism in West Pokot County. Consequently, these groups were chosen for their crucial roles in the tourism ecosystem of the region, and their unique perspectives are essential for understanding the broader impacts of tourism on the local community, the guest experience, and the management of tourism resources, ultimately contributing to a more holistic view of sustainable tourism development.

3.5 Sample Design

Sampling design refers to the systematic plan or strategy used in research to select a representative subset of the population for study. It outlines the process of identifying, selecting, and drawing samples from a larger population in a way that ensures the sample accurately reflects the population's characteristics. A well-structured sampling design ensures that the sample is representative, reducing bias and allowing for generalization of the study's findings to the broader population (Neuman, 2014).

The purpose of sampling design is to ensure that the data collected are reliable, valid, and provide insights that can be generalized to the entire population. Sampling design helps researchers save time, effort, and resources by focusing on a smaller, manageable group while maintaining the integrity and accuracy of the results. It also enhances the precision of the research, as the quality of the sample can directly influence the reliability of the study's conclusions (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). By selecting a sample that mirrors the key characteristics of the population, researchers can draw meaningful conclusions that support their hypotheses or research objectives.

The sample comprised households, both local community members and employees of the MGHs, guests to the MGHs, GH management committees drawn from members of the sponsoring church housing the GH. All the eleven (11) GHs have a management committee, income generation unit managers from all the mainstream churches that sponsor the GHs and county officials of tourism.

3.5.1 The sampling frame

To implement any sampling procedure, it is crucial to first create a comprehensive list that assigns a number to each sampling unit (Etikan, Musa, & Alkassim, 2016). The sampling frame (table 3.5) for this study included 7,103 local community members

(households) living adjacent to MGHs and employees of MGHs, 550 guests accommodated at the eleven MGHs, eleven MGH managers, eleven management committee members from the MGHs, four income-generating church units, and two county officials.

Table 3.5: Sampling Frame

Sub-County	Sub-Location	Details		Sample	
		Village	Missionary guesthouses	Households	Accommodation Guests
Pokot Central	Seito	Chesta	Chesta ELCK GH	773	100
	Orwa	Marich	Marich RCEA GH	647	50
	Mbara	Mbara	Sengelel ELCK GH	747	30
Pokot South	Propoi	Propoi	Propoi E.L.C.K GH	366	15
West Pokot	Chewoyet	Chewoyet	Kapenguria ELCK GH	920	200
	Sook	Chepnyal	Chepnyal Catholic GH	320	60
North Pokot	Cherangan	Cherangan	Cherangan AIC GH	636	50
	Kiwawa	Kiwawa	Kiwawa Baptist GH	750	30
	Kauriong	Akiriamet	Akiriamet AIC GH	598	6
	Amakuriat	Amakuriat	Amakuriat Catholic GH (parlour)	806	25
	Naruoro	Naruoro	Alale AIC guesthouse	540	12
TOTAL				7,103	578

Making reference to villages, sub-locations, and sub-counties in sampling and defining the target population was crucial for ensuring a comprehensive and representative sample. These geographical divisions allowed for the capture of real-world variations within the study area, improving the relevance and accuracy of the research. By sampling from multiple villages, sub-locations, and sub-counties, the

generalizability of the findings was enhanced, making the results more applicable to a broader range of contexts within the study region. This approach ensures that the study on community-based tourism, guest satisfaction, and sustainable livelihoods reflects a wide diversity of experiences, socio-economic impacts, and challenges across different localities, ultimately strengthening the validity and generalizability of the research outcomes.

3.5.2 Sample size

Sample size determination is a crucial aspect of social research and is influenced by various factors, including the study's objectives, the population size, the potential for selecting an unrepresentative sample, the allowable sampling error, the desired level of precision, the confidence level, and the degree of variability in the population (Sampson & Grob, 2019). Precision, or sampling error, refers to the range within which the true population value is estimated to fall. This is typically expressed as a percentage point, such as ± 5 percent. Confidence, or the risk level, is grounded in the principles of the Central Limit Theorem, which posits that if a population is repeatedly sampled, the average value from those samples will approximate the true population value. Moreover, the sample values will be distributed normally around the true value, with some samples higher and others lower than the actual population mean. In a normal distribution, approximately 95% of the sample values fall within two standard deviations of the true population value (Field, 2021).

The degree of variability in the measured attributes refers to the spread or distribution of those attributes within the population. In populations with greater variability or heterogeneity, a larger sample size is needed to achieve a desired level of precision (Sampson & Grob, 2019).

For this study, the Taro Yamane's table of 1973 was used to determine the sample size for the households and the tourists. Yamane developed the tables for sample size determination using the formula: $n = N / [1 + N (e)^2]$

where: n = sample size; N = population size (the universe); e = sampling error

$$n = 7103 / (1 + 7103 (0.05)^2)$$

In this study, a sampling error of 0.05 was adopted. Using the Taro Yamane formula, along with the known population of households, the sample size was determined to be 379 households and 236 guests for the quantitative data. Additionally, the sample included 11 guesthouse managers, 11 management committee members from the guesthouses, and 4 income-generating unit managers (sponsoring church representatives).

Table 3.6: Sample Size Determination

Village	Missionary guesthouses	Households			Guests		
		Target Popn	%	Sample Size	Target Popn	%	Sample Size
Chesta	Chesta ELCK GH	773	10.88	41	100	17.30	41
Marich	Marich RCEA GH	647	9.11	35	50	8.65	20
Mbara	Sengelel ELCK GH	747	10.52	40	30	5.19	12
Propoi	Propoi E.L.C.K GH	366	5.15	20	15	2.60	6
Chewoyet	Kapenguria ELCK GH	920	12.95	49	200	34.60	82
Chepnyal	Chepnyal Catholic Community GH	320	4.51	17	60	10.38	24
Cherangan	Cherangan AIC GH	636	8.95	34	50	8.65	20
Kiwawa	Kiwawa Baptist GH	750	10.56	40	30	5.19	12
Akiriamet	Akiriamet AIC GH	598	8.42	32	6	1.04	2
Amakuriat	Amakuriat Catholic GH (Visitor's parlour)	806	11.35	43	25	4.33	10
Naruoro	Alale AIC guesthouse	540	7.60	29	12	2.08	5
		7,103	100	379	578	100	236

3.5.3 Sampling Techniques

Sampling technique refers to the strategy employed by researchers to select individuals who are most suited to participate in a study. According to Creswell (2019), sampling methods are processes through which researchers select respondents who can provide the most unbiased and relevant data for the study. Essentially, a sampling technique enables researchers to identify a manageable sample that represents the population, ensuring effective data collection while minimizing bias. To ensure diverse and accurate representation, this study employed a combination of sampling techniques.

Census sampling was used to select all sub-locations hosting the 11 MGHs, ensuring inclusion of every relevant area. Area sampling was then applied to treat each sub-location independently, followed by proportionate sampling to guarantee each sub-location was fairly represented. Systematic random sampling was used to select household members, utilizing a list provided by the assistant chief's office and the relief food distribution register.

Systematic random sampling was used to select household members for this study because it allows for a more organized and efficient selection process, especially when dealing with a large population. By utilizing a list provided by the assistant chief's office and the relief food distribution register, the researchers ensured that the sample was drawn from an existing, reliable source that represented the target population. The use of these lists ensures that the sample is based on real, accessible data, which helps in maintaining accuracy and inclusivity. Additionally, systematic random sampling involves selecting every n th individual from the list, reducing the potential for bias compared to simple random sampling, where every individual has

an equal chance of being selected. It also simplifies the process by making it more feasible to reach a representative group, particularly when there are large numbers of households involved. This method is particularly useful when a complete, well-ordered list is available, as it helps save time and resources while maintaining randomness and fairness in the selection process.

Additionally, simple random sampling was applied to select guests from the MGHs, ensuring a random and representative sample from the accommodation records. Simple random sampling was applied to select guests from the MGHs to ensure that every guest had an equal chance of being included in the study, which helps reduce selection bias and increases the likelihood of obtaining a representative sample. By choosing guests randomly from the accommodation records, the method ensures that the sample reflects the full diversity of the guest population, including different demographics, preferences, and experiences. This method is particularly useful in studies where the researcher wants to make generalizations about the entire population based on a sample, as it helps enhance the validity and reliability of the findings (Bryman, 2017; Kothari, 2019).

Purposive sampling was employed to target MGH managers, management committee members, income-generating unit managers, and county tourism officers to ensure that the sample consisted of individuals with specific, relevant knowledge and experience related to the objectives of the study. This sampling technique allowed the researcher to deliberately select participants who most likely provided valuable insights based on their roles, expertise, and direct involvement in community-based tourism management and operations. By using purposive sampling, the study ensured that key stakeholders, who have a deeper understanding of the objectives of the study,

were included, thus enhancing the depth and quality of the data collected (Bryman, 2021). This approach is particularly useful when the aim is to gather detailed, expert opinions on a specific topic rather than to achieve generalizability across a broader population.

3.6 Data Collection

This subsection discusses the data types and sources, data collection instruments and validity of the instruments.

3.6.1 Data types and sources

Secondary research involves the use of existing data or resources that have already been collected and published by other researchers or organizations (Saunders et al., 2019). In this study, secondary data was gathered from a variety of sources, including books, journal articles, brochures, the Kerio Valley Development Authority Development Plans, the County Integrated Development Plan 2013-2017, reports, and visitor logs at the guesthouses. This phase also included the collection of secondary data from records, registers, bookings, inquiries, and other relevant documents available at the guesthouses.

Primary data for the study was collected through the use of questionnaires, interview schedules, and focus group discussions. The questionnaires were distributed to households and guests, while interview schedules were used for MGH managers, management committee members, income-generating unit managers of MGHs, and county tourism officers. Focus group discussions were conducted with MGH management committees to obtain deeper insights into their experiences and perspectives on community-based tourism.

3.6.2 Data collection instruments

Multiple instruments were used to collect data which included structured questionnaires distributed to households and guests, interview schedules and focus group discussions. Photos (Appendix VIII, Plates 1-4) of MGHs were also taken to visually document and highlight the facilities, accommodations, and experiences offered, helping to showcase the impact of tourism on local communities, attract potential visitors, and enhance understanding of how guesthouses contribute to sustainable livelihoods of the local community.

3.6.2.1 Structured questionnaires

Questionnaires are a highly efficient method for collecting data from a large number of respondents and allow for the systematic gathering of information. This is especially useful when studying populations or communities where it may not be feasible to conduct in-depth interviews with every participant. Questionnaires can be distributed quickly and easily, and responses can be collected simultaneously from many people (Dillman et al., 2019). Compared to other data collection methods, such as face-to-face interviews or focus group discussions, questionnaires are cost-effective. They do not require significant financial resources to administer, particularly when distributed electronically. This makes them an ideal choice for studies with large sample sizes or when working with limited research budgets (Cohen et al., 2019).

Questionnaires are versatile and efficient tool for data collection with advantages, including efficiency, cost-effectiveness, consistency, and the ability to quantify responses. Their ability to reach large numbers of participants and provide standardized data makes them particularly useful for studies involving broad

populations or complex issues like community-based tourism and sustainable livelihoods. In this study, two sets of questionnaires were used for data collection.

First, 369 questionnaires were administered to local community members (households) systematically selected from the villages housing the MGHs. The questionnaire consisted of both closed-ended and open-ended questions. The questionnaires covered demographic information and awareness and nature of community tourism on a three-point Likert scale in the first sections. The questions on the independent, dependent and moderating variables were collected on a five-point Likert scale for local participation, activities and programs undertaken in community-based tourism, rural based tourism, socio-economic information and sustainable livelihoods.

Second, 236 questionnaires were administered to guests/tourists who were present in the missionary guest houses at the time of data collection. The questionnaire collected data on demographic information, guest expectations, guest services, tourism activities undertaken and guest satisfaction.

3.6.2.2 Interview schedules

Interview schedules are a widely used data collection tool in qualitative research because they allow for structured, in-depth conversations between the researcher and participants. Interview schedules provide a structured framework for data collection that ensures maintaining consistency across interviews, which is essential for comparative analysis. By using an interview schedule, researchers can ensure that they gather relevant information systematically, which helps minimize biases that could arise from unstructured data collection (Adams, 2020). They ensure that relevant questions are asked, minimize bias, and facilitate data analysis by producing

comparable and organized responses. For this study on community-based tourism and sustainable livelihoods, interview schedules provide a systematic approach to explore key issues and generate reliable data.

Interview schedules were used to collect data from eleven managers (MA) of missionary guesthouses (MA-MGH), four church officials from Evangelical Lutheran Church of Kenya (ELCK); Reformed Church of East Africa (RCEA); African Inland Church (AIC) and Catholic Church (CC); two County government tourism officials, County tourism officer (CTO) and County Executive Committee Member (CECM) and eleven guests (G) represented from each of the eleven GHs. The interviews were conducted face to face and lasted about thirty minutes. The codes used are explained in table 3.7.

Table 3.7: Codes for interview schedules conducted

INTERVIEWEE	IDENTIFICATION CODE	MEANING
Managers	MA-MGH1 MA-MGH2 MA-MGH3 MA-MGH4 MA-MGH5 MA-MGH6	MA-MGH7 MA-MGH8 MA-MGH9 MA-MGH10 MA-MGH11
Church Officials	ELCK RCEA AIC CAT	Eleven Managers (MA) of missionary guesthouses (MA-MGH) labeled 1-11 Evangelical Lutheran Church of Kenya Reformed Church of East Africa African Inland Church Catholic Church
County Government Tourism Officials	CTO CECM	County Tourism Officer County Executive Committee Member
Guests	G-MGH1 G-MGH2 G-MGH3 G-MGH4 G-MGH5 G-MGH6	G-MGH7 G-MGH8 G-MGH9 G-MGH10 G-MGH11

3.6.2.3 Focus group discussions

Focus group discussions were used to collect data from MGHs management committees. FGDs provide an opportunity for participants to share their experiences, opinions, and beliefs in a group setting, facilitating a deeper understanding of complex topics. This method is particularly useful for exploring how people perceive a phenomenon, such as community-based tourism, and its impact on livelihoods. The interaction between participants allows for the exploration of nuanced ideas and diverse perspectives (Lunt & Livingstone, 2019). FGDs allow researchers to ask open-ended questions and follow up on responses, enabling the exploration of topics in a flexible, organic manner. The flexibility of FGDs allows researchers to adjust questions based on the flow of conversation and the topics that arise during the discussion, which is particularly useful in exploring unfamiliar or evolving issues in community-based tourism (Morgan, 2020).

Two focus group discussions (FGD) were held with MGH management committees (FGD-MGMC). Each FGD had a total of eleven members represented from each MGH. The researcher settled for a FGD of 11 members each which was above the number of six (6) recommended for a mini FGD by Leedy & Ormrod, (2015) to ensure all information is captured. The FGD were coded as FGD-MGMC-11 where FGD stands for focus group discussion; MGMC stands missionary guesthouse management committee and 1-11 stands for GH numbers 1-11. Codes for focus group discussions are presented in Table 3.8.

Table 3.8: Codes for Focus Group Discussion

TOOL	IDENTIFICATION CODE		MEANING
Focus Group Discussion 1 (FGD1)	FGD1-MGMC1	FGD1-MGMC7	First focus group discussion MGH management committee represented from each of the eleven MGHs.
	FGD1-MGMC2	FGD1-MGMC8	
	FGD1-MGMC3	FGD1-MGMC9	
	FGD1-MGMC4	FGD1-MGMC10	
	FGD1-MGMC5	FGD1-MGMC11	
	FGD1-MGMC6		
Focus Group Discussion 2 (FGD2)	FGD2-MGMC1	FGD2-MGMC7	Second focus group discussion MGH management committee represented from each of the eleven MGHs.
	FGD2-MGMC2	FGD2-MGMC8	
	FGD2-MGMC3	FGD2-MGMC9	
	FGD2-MGMC4	FGD2-MGMC10	
	FGD2-MGMC5	FGD2-MGMC11	
	FGD2-MGMC6		

Focus group discussions captured in-depth insights, stimulated rich discussions, and revealed diverse perspectives. FGDs were valuable in exploring complex and multifaceted topics, such as community-based tourism and sustainable livelihoods, where understanding the social, cultural, and economic dimensions was critical. By leveraging group dynamics and fostering interaction among participants, FGDs provided the researcher with a deeper understanding of the experiences, beliefs, and values of the community.

3.6.3 The Pilot study

Pilot studies play a crucial role in assessing the appropriateness of research methods and instruments, ensuring that they effectively measure the intended variables. These studies allow researchers to refine and improve the research instruments until they are valid and relevant (Creswell & Creswell, 2020). Additionally, pilot testing helps identify and address potential weaknesses or flaws in the research tools, such as questionnaires, before they are used in the main survey. By administering pilot tests, researchers can evaluate the clarity of questions and the respondents' understanding of

the research topic. It also helps gauge the effectiveness of the instruments in achieving the study's objectives (Fowler, 2020).

A pilot test was conducted at AIC Cheptebo GH in Elgeyo Marakwet County and Roti Catholic Mission GH in Baringo County. The pilot study evaluated the research instruments, sampling methods, and their relevance to the objectives of the study. Questionnaires were issued to 38 local community members living adjacent to the two guest houses and 24 guests which represented 10% of the sample size. In addition, interview schedules were conducted on 2 managers from each of the hotels.

The results from the pilot study were vital in shaping the main research instruments. Based on feedback, changes were made to the instruments, including harmonizing questions for MGH staff and non-staff to create a unified set of questions for households (local communities). The pilot also provided insights into the optimal timing for data collection and found that the best time for administering questionnaires was between 5:00 PM and 9:00 PM, as this was when most household members were available after completing daily chores, unlike the morning when they were busy with essential tasks. Additionally, the pilot study helped refine and rephrase some questions that were confusing and misunderstood by respondents. It also allowed the researcher to estimate the time needed for respondents to complete the questionnaires, confirming that the actual time taken in the pilot was similar to what was expected in the main study. Overall, the pilot study eliminated redundancies in the questions and improved the clarity and structure of the data collection instruments.

3.6.4 Measurement of Variables

The measurement of study variables are presented in table 3.9. The dependent variable was sustainable livelihoods measured using five assets namely financial, human, natural, physical and social (Srisantisuk, 2015). The dependent variable in this study was sustainable livelihoods, measured using five key assets—financial, human, natural, physical, and social capital—because these assets comprehensively represent the multidimensional nature of livelihoods and their sustainability. Financial capital assesses the income and access to resources necessary for economic stability; human capital reflects the skills, health, and education of individuals that enable them to generate income and adapt to changing circumstances. Natural capital considers the environmental resources and ecosystem services that support livelihood activities, while physical capital includes the infrastructure and tools that enhance productivity. Lastly, social capital captures the strength of social networks and community ties, which are vital for support, collaboration, and resilience. By measuring sustainable livelihoods through these five assets, the study accounts for both material and non-material factors that contribute to the long-term well-being of individuals or communities, offering a holistic understanding of their ability to maintain or improve their livelihood over time (Srisantisuk, 2015).

The independent variable in this study was community-based tourism, which was examined through specific indicators such as local participation, activities and programs, and rural tourism, as these elements are crucial in understanding how tourism can contribute to community development and sustainability. Local participation was measured using direct, indirect, individual, and group participation because these categories capture the various ways in which community members engage in and influence tourism activities, which is essential for assessing the

inclusiveness and empowerment of the community in the tourism process (Tosun, 2006). Activities and programs were measured using indicators like ownership, linkages and partnerships, capacity building, and support for the transfer of technology and achievement of community goals because these factors highlight how tourism initiatives can facilitate skill development, economic opportunities, and community-driven progress, which are key to ensuring sustainable outcomes (Kamarudin, 2013a; Sharpley & Sharpley, 1997). Finally, rural tourism was assessed using the support provided by MGHs in the area, as well as their role in transforming the area's image, acting as flagship projects, promoting the destination, and improving accessibility, because these factors demonstrate how tourism infrastructure can directly impact the local economy, tourism visibility, and overall community development (Lane, 2009). By selecting these specific indicators, the study was able to capture a comprehensive picture of how community-based tourism functions and influences the local community.

Table 3.9: Measurement of Study Variables

Variable	Indicators	Source	Scale
Sustainable Livelihoods	– Financial assets – Human assets – Natural assets – Physical assets – Social assets	Srisantisuk (2015)	- Ordinal - Quantitative
Local Participation	– Direct – Indirect – Individual – Group – Spontaneous	Tosun (2006)	- Ordinal - Quantitative
Activities and Programs	– Ownership – Linkages – Capacity Building – Support e.g. technology transfer and community goals	Kamarudin (2013a); Sharpley & Sharpley (1997)	- Ordinal - Quantitative
Rural tourism	– Accommodation – Tourism Image – Flagship projects – Market destination	Lane, 2009	- Ordinal - Quantitative
Guest Satisfaction with MGH attributes	– Quality – Safety and security – Staff performance	Anton (1996)	- Ordinal - Quantitative
Socio-Economic Benefits	– Economic Benefits – Social Benefits	Zhao, (2009) Burns and Holden, 1995; Wall and Mathieson, (2006)	- Ordinal - Quantitative

Source: Adapted and modified from literature (2018)

The moderating variable chosen for this study was guest satisfaction, as it plays a critical role in influencing the relationship between the independent and dependent variables in tourism research. Guest satisfaction was measured using service attributes such as the quality of facilities and services, safety and security, and staff performance in terms of efficiency, because these are key factors that directly impact

guests' overall experience and satisfaction with their stay (Anton, 1996). A satisfied guest is more likely to exhibit positive behaviors, such as repeat visits or recommendations, which can influence the broader outcomes of tourism development. Additionally, socio-economic benefits were measured using both economic and social indicators. Economic benefits, such as employment and income generation, were considered because these factors are central to assessing the financial impact of tourism on the local community. On the social side, social benefits such as the creation of social cohesion, the development of social amenities, and the revitalization of culture, art, and the social fabric were chosen because they reflect the broader societal impacts of tourism, contributing to the overall well-being and sustainability of the community (Zhao, 2009; Burns & Holden, 1995; Wall & Mathieson, 2006). By selecting these specific indicators, the study captures both the individual satisfaction of guests and the broader socio-economic impacts of tourism, offering a holistic view of how tourism influences local communities.

3.7 Validity and Reliability

Reliability and validity are two essential concepts in research measurement, although they are often used interchangeably, they have distinct meanings in statistics and measurement (Singh, 2007). Reliability refers to the consistency of a measurement instrument, or its ability to consistently measure the same concept across different occasions (Bryman, 2016). Validity, on the other hand, concerns the accuracy of the measurement, or the extent to which an instrument actually measures what it is intended to measure (Adriotis, 2020). Both of these concepts are critical for ensuring the quality and precision of research findings, as they help to minimize errors and biases in data collection.

While reliability assesses the consistency of results, validity measures the relevance and accuracy of the data in relation to the research objectives (Bryman, 2016). It is important to note that a measurement can be reliable without necessarily being valid. For example, an instrument that consistently measures a variable but does not measure what it was designed to measure would be reliable but not valid (Singh, 2007). Therefore, researchers must ensure both reliability and validity to ensure that their findings are both consistent and reflective of the true nature of the phenomenon being studied.

There are different factors involved in assessing reliability, including stability, internal reliability, and inter-observer consistency (Perry, 2004). Stability refers to the ability of a measure to remain consistent over time, ensuring that results for a sample of respondents do not fluctuate (Clark-Carter, 2017). Internal reliability focuses on the consistency of the indicators within a measurement scale, while inter-observer consistency addresses the degree of agreement among multiple observers when recording data (Sapsford, 2019).

In terms of validity, it is crucial to assess whether the data collected truly represent the phenomenon being studied. There are various types of validity, including content validity, criterion validity, and construct validity, each of which assesses different aspects of how well the measurement instrument reflects the underlying concept (Adriotis, 2020). Ensuring validity ensures that the results of the study are not only consistent but also accurate and meaningful.

3.7.1 Validity

According to recent literature, researchers should be concerned with both external and internal validity in order to ensure the accuracy and generalizability of their findings (Bryman, 2021). External validity refers to the degree to which the results of a study can be generalized to other populations, settings, or times, while internal validity pertains to the extent to which the observed effects in a study can be attributed to the variables under investigation and not to confounding factors (Creswell, 2019). In essence, internal validity reflects the rigor with which the study was conducted and considers the potential alternative explanations for observed causal relationships (Robson & McCartan, 2021).

Internal validity is often broken down into several subcategories: face validity, content validity, criterion validity, and construct validity (Bryman, 2021). Face validity refers to the degree to which a measurement appears to measure what it is supposed to measure based on intuitive judgment. It is typically assessed by asking experts or others in the field whether the measure seems to capture the intended concept (Creswell, 2019). Content validity, on the other hand, involves evaluating whether the content of the measurement tool aligns with the existing literature on the subject. It ensures that all relevant dimensions of the concept are covered (Adriotis, 2020). Experts in the field, often through a review of the literature or direct consultation, are involved in establishing content validity.

Criterion validity, also known as instrumental validity, assesses how well a measure corresponds to a criterion or standard measure. This can take two forms: concurrent validity, which examines how well the measure correlates with another established measure of the same phenomenon, and predictive validity, which assesses the ability

of the measure to predict future outcomes (Adriotis, 2020). Construct validity refers to the extent to which a measurement tool truly measures the underlying theoretical concept it is intended to measure. It is often divided into convergent validity, which looks at how well the measure correlates with other measures of the same concept, and discriminant validity, which ensures that the measure is distinct from measures of other, unrelated concepts (Robson & McCartan, 2021).

In this study, face validity and content validity will be ensured by consulting experts in sustainable tourism and socio-economic development. These experts, including the researcher's supervisors, will be asked to evaluate whether the research instrument adequately reflects the relevant dimensions of the study. Additionally, a thorough review of the literature will be conducted to identify the various facets of the concept. Furthermore, the validity of the study will be tested through a pilot survey, which will allow for feedback on the clarity and flow of the questions and help refine the research instrument to ensure it effectively captures the intended information (Creswell, 2019).

3.7.2 Reliability

Reliability refers to the consistency of the constructs measured by an instrument (Creswell, 2019). In this study, the reliability of the questionnaire was assessed through the internal consistency of the indicators related to community-based tourism and sustainable livelihoods. The Cronbach's alpha method was used to evaluate the inter-correlations among the test items, as higher coefficients indicate better reliability of the measuring instrument (Tavakol & Dennick, 2019). According to Hair et al. (2021), a commonly accepted threshold for Cronbach's Alpha is ≥ 0.70 , although it may be acceptable to have values as low as ≥ 0.60 in exploratory research, while

values of ≥ 0.80 are preferred in studies requiring more rigorous reliability standards. In this study, the overall Cronbach's Alpha coefficient was 0.813, indicating good reliability. For each of the individual variables, the reliability analysis revealed Cronbach's Alpha values ranging from 0.689 to 0.897 as shown on table 3.10, demonstrating acceptable to good internal consistency (Tavakol & Dennick, 2019).

Table 3.10: Reliability Results

Constructs	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
Participation of Local Community in MGH tourism programmes	.887	11
Activities and Programs of Community Based Tourism	.839	8
Rural tourism from MGH	.801	10
Sustainable Livelihoods from MGHs	.689	32
Economic Benefits	.897	14
Social Benefits	.763	7
Overall	.813	82

3.8 Data Analysis

Data was analysed using both qualitative and quantitative methods. Qualitative data was analysed using content analysis. Quantitative data used descriptive and inferential statistics. Data collected were coded and entered into SPSS version 22 for purposes of analysis. Data were first screened and cleaned for response rate, missing values.

3.8.1 Data Screening and Cleaning

The collected data was initially edited for accuracy, consistency, completeness, and uniformity to ensure its quality and facilitate coding (Saunders et al., 2019). This step was crucial for maintaining high data quality and ensuring that any inconsistencies or errors were addressed before analysis. Each returned questionnaire was thoroughly reviewed and edited. The data was then entered into SPSS code books in preparation

for analysis, ensuring that the information was properly organized for statistical examination (Field, 2018).

3.8.2 Descriptive Analysis

Descriptive analysis was conducted ostensibly to explore the status of the study variables. The means were used to capture the typical response among local community and tourists, while the standard deviations indicated the variability and therefore it was a measure of consistency of responses to questionnaire items. Response scores on the questionnaire items were elicited on a 5-point likert scale having the following options: 1-don't know; 2-strongly disagree; 3-disagree; 4-agree; and 5-strongly agree. Analysis of the mean response scores was conducted on a continuous scale with the following threshold: $M < 1.5$ —don't know; $1.5 \leq M < 2.5$ — strongly disagree; $2.5 \leq M < 3.5$ -disagree; $3.5 \leq M < 4.5$ —agree; $M \geq 4.5$ - strongly agree. Analysis of general information on respondents' demographics was conducted using frequencies and percentages.

3.8.3 Inferential Analysis

The approaches for inferential analysis included Multiple Linear Regression, Process Macro and Pearson Correlation. Each of these methods was selected based on its ability to test specific hypotheses.

Firstly, Multiple Linear Regression was employed to analyze the effect of each community-based tourism (CBT) dimension on sustainable livelihoods. This method is well-suited for assessing the relationship between multiple independent variables and a dependent variable (Field, 2018). It allows for the exploration of how various CBT components collectively influence livelihoods, providing insights into their predictive power.

Secondly, Process Macro by Andrew F. Hayes (2020) was used for conducting moderation analysis. This tool, integrated with SPSS and SAS, allows researchers to test more complex models involving multiple variables and their interrelationships.

Lastly, Pearson Correlation was applied to examine the relationship between guest expectations, guest services, and guest satisfaction. Pearson Correlation is commonly used to measure the strength and direction of the linear relationship between two continuous variables (Cohen et al., 2018). This method was selected because it enables the investigation of how guest-related factors, such as expectations and services, correlate with overall guest satisfaction.

3.8.4 Assumptions of Multiple Regression

Assumptions of Multiple Regression were tested including normality, linearity, homogeneity of variances, autocorrelation, and multicollinearity (Hair *et al.*, 2010) of data. Normality was tested using quantile–quantile (Q-Q) plots for each community-based tourism dimensions variables and for sustainable livelihoods variable. Data points close to the diagonal line either side were deemed to imply non-violation of normality requirement (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Linearity was tested using bivariate scatter plots between any two variables implied that linearity existed between the two variables. Homogeneity of variance was tested using Levene test of equality of variances of community-based tourism dimensions across the sustainable livelihoods variable. Significant values of the Levene statistics measured at the 5% level were then deemed to indicate violation of the homogeneity of variance assumption (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013), Multicollinearity was tested using Statistic Collin which according to Tabachnick and Fidell, (2013), relates to the correlation matrix resulting from variables that are highly correlated. The threshold for existence

multicollinearity was dimensions (rows) containing more than one variance proportion above 0.50. Autocorrelation was tested using the Durbin–Watson (DW) statistic lying within the critical range $1.5 \leq d \leq 2.5$.

3.8.5 Multiple Linear Regression

To determine the effect of the independent variables on the dependent variable as captured by the null hypotheses H_{01} , H_{02} , H_{03} a multiple regression was undertaken using multiple linear regression model as follows:

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + e$$

Where

- Y: Sustainable Livelihood (SL)
- X_1 : Local Participation (LP)
- X_2 : Activities and Programs (AP)
- X_3 : Rural tourism (RT)
- β_0 : Constant
- $\beta_1 - \beta_3$: Regression coefficients
- e: Error term

3.8.6 Process Macro

The Hayes process macro was developed by Andrew Hayes (Hayes, 2018) and is very convenient for conducting a number of different types of regression analyses that involve moderation and mediation. A macro is a syntax file that contains an elaborate set of syntax commands and is stored on a computer. For simple moderation models (model=1 is the simplest form), the process macro automatically centered the variables. Of primary focus in moderation model is the coefficient for the product of the independent variable and the moderator and its test of significance. PROCESS displays the proportion of the total variance in the outcome uniquely attributable to the interaction, as well as a test of significance, in the section of output labeled, R-

square increase due to interaction. This was equivalent to the change in R^2 when the product is added to the model.

The outcome of this test is the same as that for the test of the null hypothesis that the regression coefficient for the product equals zero. For continuous moderators, the conditional effects of X were estimated when the moderator is equal to the mean as well as plus and minus one standard deviation from the mean. PROCESS also allowed the analyst to select any desired value of the moderator at which to estimate the conditional effect of X . When probing an interaction involving a continuous moderator, the mean, one standard deviation above the mean, and one standard deviation below the mean were commonly used as definitions of moderate, relatively high, and relatively low on the moderator, respectively.

The interaction term was computed and the regression model run, with the interaction term and then simple slopes tested. It does not provide standardized coefficients for this type of model and it does not plot the simple slopes. It provided plot points, which was used for creating a scatterplot in SPSS of the simple slope groups. PROCESS also offers an output option which aided in the construction of a visual representation of the interaction. Data for visualizing the conditional effect of X on Y are based on the mean centered metric because the mean centering option was used in the command line. These values can then be plugged into the graphing program to generate a visual depiction of the interaction.

3.8.7 Pearson Correlation

The Pearson correlation measures the strength of the linear relationship between two variables. It has a value between -1 to 1, with a value of -1 meaning a total negative linear correlation, 0 being no correlation, and + 1 meaning a total positive correlation.

Pearson correlation coefficient was used because the relationships are linear, variables are quantitative, normally distributed and had no outliers. Three relationships were tested between two variables namely: guest expectations and guest satisfaction; guest expectations and guest services; guest satisfaction and guest services.

Table 3.11: Coefficient, r

Strength of Association	Positive	Negative
Small	.1 to .3	-0.1 to -0.3
Medium	.3 to .5	-0.3 to -0.5
Large	.5 to 1.0	-0.5 to -1.0

The stronger the association of the two variables, the closer the Pearson correlation coefficient, r , will be to either +1 or -1 depending on whether the relationship is positive or negative, respectively. Achieving a value of +1 or -1 means that all your data points are included on the line of best fit – there are no data points that show any variation away from this line. Values for r between +1 and -1 (for example, $r = 0.8$ or -0.4) indicate that there is variation around the line of best fit. The closer the value of r to 0 the greater the variation around the line of best fit. Relationship between guest expectations and guest satisfaction, guest expectation and guest services and guest satisfaction and guest services their correlation coefficients.

3.8.8 Qualitative Analysis

Content analysis was employed to analyze data collected from interview schedules and focus group discussions. According to Krippendorff (2019), content analysis is a research method used to systematically analyze and interpret textual data, identifying patterns, themes, or biases within the content. Content analysis is a systematic and objective technique for analyzing the content of textual, visual, or audio data to identify patterns, themes, and meanings. It is widely used in qualitative research to examine interview transcripts, focus group discussions, documents, or other forms of

communication. Through its flexibility, transparency, and ability to process large amounts of qualitative data, content analysis is an indispensable tool for qualitative researchers across disciplines.

The goal of content analysis is to transform qualitative data into a structured format that enables researchers to make inferences about the data's meaning, trends, and implications. One of the key advantages of content analysis is its ability to simplify and organize large amounts of qualitative data into manageable categories, making it easier to identify trends and draw meaningful conclusions (Bengtsson, 2019). This technique is particularly useful when aiming to understand the general messages or underlying meanings in texts, as it allows for the coding of data into predefined categories based on the frequency of related themes or topics (Hsieh & Shannon, 2019).

In qualitative research, content analysis involves several key steps: coding textual data, categorizing these codes into meaningful themes, analyzing the frequency or relationships between these categories, and interpreting the findings within the context of the research question. When applied to interview schedules and focus group discussions, content analysis can reveal the underlying attitudes, behaviors, beliefs, and perceptions of participants regarding the study topic.

In this study on community-based tourism and its effects on sustainable livelihoods, content analysis helped uncover the complex ways in which tourism affects local communities. By analyzing interviews with guests, managers, management committees and county government representatives, content analysis allows the researcher to understand the perceived benefits and challenges of tourism development from multiple perspectives. It also helps identify the factors that

influence the success or failure of community-based tourism initiatives, such as the level of community involvement, governance structures, and the alignment of tourism with local values and needs (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005).

3.9 Ethical Considerations

The study was conducted with careful attention to ethical considerations, including informed consent, privacy and confidentiality, anonymity, and the researchers' responsibility to uphold ethical standards (Merriam & Tisdell, 2019; O'Leary, 2021). Participants voluntarily agreed to participate in the study, and consent was obtained for any form of recording during data collection. Furthermore, respondents were assured that their information would be kept confidential and used solely for academic purposes (Creswell & Poth, 2021).

The researcher obtained a recommendation letter from Moi University, confirming approval to proceed with the fieldwork for data collection. Additionally, authorization was granted by the National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation (NACOSTI), and a research permit was issued.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION

4.0 Overview

In this chapter the results of both the quantitative and qualitative data findings are presented. The chapter begins with preliminary analysis specifically response rate, missing values and demographic analysis of the local community living adjacent to MGHs in West Pokot and MGH guests. Thereafter, descriptive statistics are presented on the independent variables, local participation, activities and programmes and rural tourism followed by sustainable livelihoods (dependent variable) and guest satisfaction (moderating variable). Assumptions of multiple regression and hypothesis results are presented before Process Macro results that tested moderation. Finally, analysis of socio-economic benefits of CBT.

4.1 Response Rate

In this study, 369 households' respondents were targeted. However, 358 questionnaires were returned dully filled and suitable for analysis representing a response rate of 94%. This good response rate was attributed to the close monitoring of research assistants when collecting the questionnaires. On the out of 236 questionnaires distributed to tourists, 155 were returned hence achieving 66% response rate. The percentages attained were good. For the interviews and focus group samples, all the participants participated in the study subsequently representing a 100% response rate.

4.2 Missing values

Univariate statistics provide insights into the distribution of variables, including their mean, standard deviation, and the presence of any extreme values. The mean participation score is 2.597 with a standard deviation of 0.913. There are no missing

values, and no cases fall outside the acceptable range. Activities mean score is 4.181 with a standard deviation of 0.426. Similarly, there are no missing values, and no cases exhibit extreme values. Rural tourism had a mean score of 3.923 with a standard deviation of 0.3083. Like the previous variables, there are no missing values, but there are four cases with scores below the lower acceptable range and two cases with scores above the upper acceptable range. Sustainable livelihoods mean score was 3.885 with a standard deviation of 0.2496. There are no missing values, and no cases are outside the acceptable range. From table 4.1, the number of cases that fall outside range defined by the interquartile range ($Q1 - 1.5IQR$, $Q3 + 1.5IQR$), also known as outliers. In this dataset, there are six outliers for the "Activities" variable and two outliers for the "Rural Tourism" variable.

Table 4.1: Univariate Statistics

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Missing		No. of Extremes ^a	
				Count	Percent	Low	High
Local Participation	358	2.597	.913	0	.0	0	0
Activities and Programs	358	4.181	.426	0	.0	6	0
Rural tourism	358	3.923	.308	0	.0	4	2
Sustainable Livelihoods	358	3.885	.250	0	.0	3	0

a. Number of cases outside the range ($Q1 - 1.5*IQR$, $Q3 + 1.5*IQR$).

4.3 Demographic Information of Local Community

This section captures the quantitative research results from questionnaires administered to household members and MGH staffs. A total of 358 questionnaires were returned dully filled out of the 369 administered throughout the 11 villages hosting the MGHs. In addition, information collected from tourists/guests to the MGHs also formed part of the quantitative data. Presenting this demographic information for the respondents is important in understanding them in light of the

socio-economic significance of tourism. Among the respondents' demographic information examined include: gender, age-bracket, marital status, area of residency, highest level of education, duration of residency in the study area, monthly level of income among others.

4.3.1 Personal Information of Local Community Households

Gender, age and marital status play a crucial role in tourism and at the same time, tourism tends to impact on gender differently. Tourism development initiatives are aimed at empowering women and youths in society and as a result, this study purposed to find out the gender and ages of the respondents. Table 4.2 presents results for respondents' gender; age bracket and marital status, sub-county of residence, highest education level, occupation, GH sponsor church, duration of residency and average household monthly income.

Gender of households scored 51.1% male and 48.9% female which implies that households in West Pokot had more men than women. This is an important attribute of MGHs as it portrays a near balance between gender compared to other sectors of the economy dominated by one gender. With regard to the age bracket, most household were between 30-39 years (39.7%) followed by 20-29 years (33.5%) while other age brackets all recorded percentages below 20%.

Table 4.2: Household Heads Demographic Information

Demographic Variable		Respondents	
		Fq	Percentage
Gender	Male	183	51.1%
	Female	175	48.9%
Age Bracket	Under 20 years	30	8.4%
	20-29 years	120	33.5%
	30-39 years	142	39.7%
	40-49 years	60	16.8%
	Above 50 years	6	1.6%
Marital Status	Married	255	71.9%
	Separated	0	0
	Single	100	27.3%
	Widowed	3	0.8%
Sub-County of Residence	West Pokot	114	31.8%
	Central Pokot	94	26.3%
	North Pokot	116	32.4%
	South Pokot	34	9.5%
Highest education level	Primary school	137	38.3%
	Secondary school	127	35.4%
	Tertiary level	47	13.1%
	University Level	25	7.0%
	No School	22	6.2%
Occupation	Permanent formal	102	28.5%
	Temporary/casual	131	36.6%
	Self employed	125	34.9%
GH Sponsoring Church	Catholic	79	22.1%
	ELCK	167	46.6%
	AIC	67	18.7%
	Baptist	23	6.4%
	RCEA	22	6.2%
Duration of residency	Less than 1 year	4	1.1%
	2-5 years	86	24.1%
	6-10 years	187	52.2%
	Over 10 years	81	22.6%
Average HH monthly income	1,000 and below	55	15.4%
	1,001-4,999	49	13.7%
	5,001-9,999	118	32.9%
	10,001-14,999	65	18.2%
	15,001-19,999	47	13.1%
	20,000 and above	24	6.7%

Source: Field Survey data, 2017

From the results therefore, most of the household were young (<40>20) which could imply that most are unemployed hence were easily accessible for interviews. On

respondents' marital status, majority of household members were married at 71.9% while only 27.3% were single (Table 4.2).

With regard to sub-county of residence West Pokot recorded 114 (31.8%); Central Pokot were 94 (26.3%), North Pokot were 116 (32.4%) and South Pokot were 34 (9.5%). The highest level of education was primary with n=137, 38%, secondary education scored 35.4%, n=127, tertiary education was n=47, 13.1%, university level was n=25, 7% and no-school were n=22, 6.2%. The occupation of the households were reported as permanent formal employment (n=102, 28.5%), temporary or casual employment (n=131, 36.6%) and self-employed (n=125, 34.9%).

The churches sponsoring MGHs are represented by the following numbers and percentages (n=79, 22.15%): ELCK (n=167, 46.6%), AIC (n=67, 18.7%), Baptist (n=23, 6.4%), and RCEA (n=22, 6.2%). In terms of residency duration, the distribution is as follows: less than 1 year (n=4, 1.1%), 2-5 years (n=86, 24.1%), 6-10 years (n=187, 52.2%), and over 10 years (n=81, 22.6%). Regarding average household monthly income, the breakdown is: Kshs 1,000 and below (n=55, 15.4%), Kshs 1,001-4,999 (n=49, 13.7%), Kshs 5,001-9,999 (n=118, 32.9%), Kshs 10,001-14,999 (n=65, 18.2%), Kshs 15,001-19,999 (n=47, 13.1%), and above Kshs 20,000 (n=24, 6.7%).

4.3.2 Category of local community

Table 4.3 presents the distribution of community association with MGHs in terms of two categories: Non-Staffs who were non-MGH employees and Staff/Employee who were MGH employees. Non-Staffs category were (n=271, 75.7%) which was the majority respondents from the community associated with MGHs who are not employed by the guesthouses. Staff/Employees of MGHs category were (n=87,

24.3%) respondents which were a smaller proportion of community who are employed by the MGHs.

Overall, the distribution of community involvement with MGHs represented by those not employed but could be associated in different ways with the minority actively engaged as employees. The duration of staff employed at MGHs indicated less than 2 years (n=33, 37.9%), 2-5 years (n=30, 34.5%) and 6-10 years (n=24, 27.6%) as presented in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3: Category of community association with MGHs

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Category of HH	Non-Staffs (non-MGH employees)	271	75.7	75.7	75.7
	Staff/Employee (MGH employees)	87	24.3	24.3	100.0
Duration of staff employment in MGH	Less than 2 years	33	37.9	37.9	
	2-5 years	30	34.5	34.5	
	6-10 years	24	27.6	27.6	
	Total	358	100.0	100.0	

4.3.3 Descriptive data of Households

Additional demographic data provided by the households included the household size, type, energy source, main water source, main income source and distance to social service. As presented in table 4.4, the highest household size was between 3-5 members (174) followed by 5-10 members (45%); less than 3 members was 4.7% and over 10 members was at 1.7%.

Table 4.4 Descriptive data of Households

Demographic Variable		Respondents	
		FQ	%
Household size	Less than 3 Members	17	4.7%
	3-5 Members	174	48.6%
	5-10 Members	161	45.0
	Over 10 Members	6	1.7
Household type	Mud-walled, grass thatched	103	28.8
	Mud-walled, iron sheet roofed	225	62.8
	Brick-walled, iron sheet roofed	30	8.4
Household energy source	Firewood	256	71.5%
	Charcoal	64	17.9%
	Gas	36	10.1%
	Paraffin	1	0.3%
	Electricity	1	0.3%
Main water source	Tap	114	31.8%
	Borehole	69	19.3%
	River/stream	150	41.9%
	Dam/pan	21	5.9%
	Tanker	4	1.1%
Main HH Income streams	Selling of livestock and livestock products	115	32.1%
	Sale of crops & crop products	110	30.7%
	Sale of wild natural resources collections	90	25.1%
	Formal employment engagement	67	18.7%
	Informal employment engagements	121	33.8%
	Sponsorships and donations	40	11.2%
Distance to Social services	0-2 Km	44	12.3%
<i>Distance to MGH</i>	3-5 Km	285	79.6%
	Over 5 Km	29	8.1%
<i>Distance to School</i>	0-2 Km	209	58.4%
	3-5 Km	148	41.3%
	Over 5 Km	1	0.3%
<i>Distance to water source</i>	0-2 Km	255	71.2%
	3-5 Km	101	28.2%
	Over 5 Km	2	0.6%
<i>Distance to Shopping centre</i>	0-2 Km	220	61.5%
	3-5 Km	136	38.0%
	Over 5 Km	2	0.5%
<i>Distance to Government administrative offices</i>	0-2 Km	181	50.6%
	3-5 Km	174	48.6%
	Over 5 Km	3	0.8%

Source: Field Survey data, 2017

The household type indicated that majority houses were of mud-wall with iron sheet roof (n=225, 62.8%); those with mud wall and grass roof (n=103, 28.8%) and few had brick wall with iron sheet roof (n=30, 8.4%). The household source of energy reported the highest as firewood (n=256, 71.5%); charcoal (n=64, 17.9%), gas (n=36, 10.1%) paraffin and electricity each had (n=1, 0.3%). Main source of water was river/stream (n=150, 41.9%), tap (n=114, 31.8%), borehole (n=69, 19.3%), dam/pan (n=21, 5.9%) and the least being tanker (n=4, 1.1%). The main household income streams was informal employment engagements (n=121); selling livestock and its products (n=115); sale of crops and its products (n=110); sale of wild natural resources collections (n=90), formal employment engagement (n=67) and sponsorship and donations (n=40).

With regard to distance to social services, most respondents distance to MGH was 3-5KM (n=285, 79.6%), 0-2KM (n=44, 12.3%) and over 5KM (n=29, 8.1%). The distance to school was majority 0-2KM (n=209, 58.4%), 3-5KM (n=148, 41.3%) and over 5KM (n=1, 0.3%). Distance to water source 0-2KM (n=255, 71.2%), 3-5KM (n=101, 28.2%), and over 5KM (n=2, 0.6%). Distance to shopping centre 0-2KM (n=220, 61.5%), 3-5KM (n=136, 38.0%) and over 5KM (n=2, 0.5%) and distance to government administrative offices showed that 0-2KM (n=181, 50.6%), 3-5KM (n=174, 48.6%) and over 5KM (n=3, 0.8%)

4.3.4 Nature and households' reliance on MGHs

This study evaluated the nature and extends of the household' reliance on MGHs. Six (6) statements were presented to the household heads and the results are presented in Table 4.5. Evaluating the nature and extent of households' reliance on Missionary Guesthouses (MGHs) was important because it helps to understand the economic and social impacts of these guesthouses on local communities. MGHs are integral to

community-based tourism (CBT) in regions like West Pokot, and their influence on local livelihoods can provide valuable insights into how tourism can contribute to poverty alleviation and sustainable development. By assessing the level of reliance, it is possible to determine the extent to which MGHs serve as a source of income, employment, and community development. This evaluation also highlights the challenges and opportunities for further enhancing the role of MGHs in local economies. Understanding the dynamics of household dependence on MGHs is essential for identifying gaps, promoting inclusive participation, and ensuring that tourism benefits are equitably distributed, ultimately contributing to more sustainable and resilient livelihoods for the community.

From the results most households' reliance on MGHs West Pokot was livelihoods induced by MGH activities (n=88, 24.6%) followed by direct contact with MGH guests (n=83, 23.2) and the least was main source of water supported through MGH initiative (n=21, 5.9%). Central Pokot reliance of MGHs was mainly through direct contact with MGH guests (n=71, 19.8%), followed by induced livelihoods (n=57, 15.9%) and health facilities supported by MGHs (n=56, 15.6% and the least being source of water supported through MGH initiatives (n=39, 10.9%).

North Pokot relied heavily on the main source of water supported by MGHs (n=116, 32.4%), health facilities supported by MGHs (n=91, 25.4%) and household livelihoods induced by MGHs (n=80, 22.3%) and the least reliance on direct contact with MGH guests (n=46, 12.8%). South Pokot recorded the lowest response on reliance on MGHs as compared to the other sub-counties. The household reliance on livelihoods induced by MGHs was (n=19, 5.3%) followed by household livelihoods partly from MGH activities (n=12, 3.4%) and the least being health facilities supported by MGH (n=6, 1.7%).

Table 4.5: Nature and extent of households' reliance of MGHs (%) (N=358)

<i>Extent of households' reliance of MGHs</i>	Frequency (F)	Percent (%)
West Pokot Sub-County (n=114)		
Main household livelihoods directly derived from the MGH activities	38	10.6
Household livelihood partly derived from the MGH activities	53	14.8
Main Household livelihood induced by MGH activities	88	24.6
Main source of water supported through the MGH initiatives	21	5.9
Main health facility supported through the MGH initiatives	26	7.3
Household members come into direct contact with MGH guests	83	23.2
Central Pokot Sub-County (n=94)		
Main household livelihoods derived from the MGH activities	43	12.0
Household livelihood partly derived from the MGH activities	48	13.4
Main Household livelihood induced by MGH activities	57	15.9
Main source of water supported through the MGH initiatives	39	10.9
Main health facility supported through the MGH initiatives	56	15.6
Household members come into direct contact with MGH guests	71	19.8
North Pokot Sub-County (n=116)		
Main household livelihoods directly derived from the MGH activities	58	16.2
Household livelihood partly derived from the MGH activities	64	17.9
Main Household livelihood induced by MGH activities	80	22.3
Main source of water supported through the MGH initiatives	116	32.4
Main health facility supported through the MGH initiatives	91	25.4
Household members frequently come into direct contact with MGH guests	46	12.8
South Pokot Sub-County (n=34)		
Main household livelihoods derived from the MGH activities	8	2.2
Household livelihood partly derived from the MGH activities	12	3.4
Main Household livelihood induced by MGH activities	19	5.3
Main source of water supported through the MGH initiatives	11	3.1
Main health facility supported through the MGH initiatives	6	1.7
Household members come into direct contact with MGH guests	10	2.8

Source: Survey data, (2017)

Generally, the results indicate that the peripheral communities, sited far away from government services depend on the MGHs a lot as presented in Table 4.5. The data suggests that while MGHs have a significant impact on household livelihoods and health facilities, the forms of reliance vary greatly across different regions of Pokot. North Pokot, for instance, benefits heavily from water supply initiatives supported by MGHs, whereas West and Central Pokot households seem to be more reliant on livelihood improvements and direct interaction with MGH guests. South Pokot,

however, appears to have the least engagement with MGH-supported initiatives, as reflected by the lower percentages of households benefiting from MGH activities in that area.

4.3.5 Local Community Awareness of MGHs

This section presents the descriptive statistics for the level and nature of community participation in the activities and programs of the MGHs. The level of awareness of the local communities on the existence of missionary guesthouses in the localities was sought wherein majority were aware (59.8%) while minority of 40.2% were not aware with a Mean=1.40. Awareness on individuals employed at MGHs scored a M=1.37, community involvement with activities of MGHs (M=1.46); importance of benefits of MGHs to the local community (M=2.56) and community knowledge on how to handle MGH guests within the locality (M=1.58). The findings on the local communities' awareness of the MGHs are presented in Table 4.6 (a).

Table 4.6(a): Local communities Awareness of the MGHs in their localities

	Frequency		Mean	Std. Dev	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	YES	NO	Stat	Stat	Stat	SE	Stat	SE
I am aware MGHs existence in my locality	59.8	40.2	1.40	.491	.40	.129	-1.85	.257
I know individuals employed at the GH	65.6	32.7	1.37	.570	1.69	.129	4.20	.257
Community get involved with MGHs	54.2	45.8	1.46	.499	.170	.129	-1.98	.257
I am aware of the importance of MGH benefits	43.9	56.1	2.56	.497	-.25	.129	-1.95	.257
I know how to handle MGH guests	42.2	57.5	1.58	.500	-.26	.129	-1.76	.257
Valid N (listwise)	358							

In addition to the above, the local community indicated their awareness of the quality of products to supply the MGHs with majority of 47% and 24% indicating that they

were aware and very aware respectively and was reflected with a $M=1.96$. Similarly, majority of 51.1% of the local community were aware of their rights while engaging with MGH guests ($M=1.69$). The fact that most of the residents are aware of the MGHs and their activities could be an indication that the MGHs have the support of the local communities. These results are presented in table 4.4(b)

Table 4.6(b): Local communities Awareness of the MGHs in their localities

	Frequencies			Mean Stat	Std. Dev Stat	Skewness Stat	SE	Kurtosis	
	Not Aware	Aware	Very Aware					Stat	SE
I am aware of the quality of products to supply to the MGH	28.5	47.5	24	1.96	.724	.068	.129	-1.09	.257
I am aware of my rights while engaging with the MGHs guests	48.9	33.2	17.9	1.69	.757	.584	.129	-1.04	.257
Valid N (listwise)	358								

Figure 4.1 presents the respondents' level of awareness about the activities of the MGHs found in the four sub-counties.

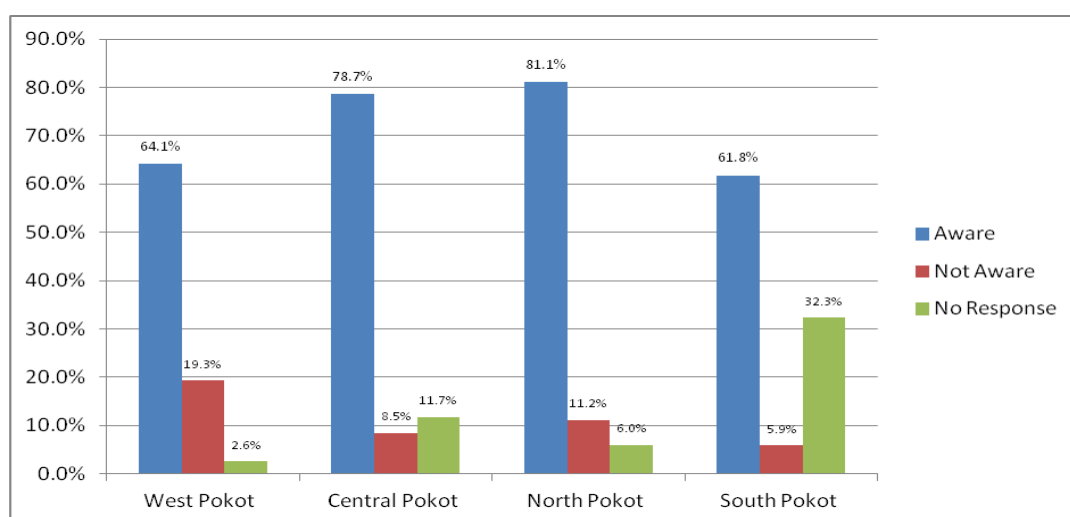


Figure 4.1: Local communities' awareness of the activities of MGHs in their localities

From the findings, majority in West Pokot (64.1%), Central Pokot (78.7%), in North Pokot (81.1%) and South Pokot (61.8%) confirmed their awareness of the activities of

the MGHs with regard to their localities. Those who were not aware of the MGHs activities were in West Pokot (19.3%), Central Pokot (8.5%), North Pokot (11.2%) and South Pokot (5.2%) sub-counties. No response received was from West Pokot (2.6%), Central Pokot (11.7%), North Pokot (6%) and South Pokot (32.3%).

4.4 Demographic Characteristic of the MGHs Guests

Majority (57.4%) of the MGHs guests were male while 42.6% were female. In terms of age, majority were in the 20-29 (34.2%); 30-39 years (27.7%); 40-49 (18.1%) age bracket; 50-59% (12.3%); above 60 years (4.5%) while under 20 years (3.2%) of age. On marital status, majority guests were married (58.7%), single (36.1%), while widowed and divorced/separated were (3.2% and 1.9%) respectively.

The level of education found that majority had university level education (41.9%); tertiary level education (36.1%); secondary level education (19.4%) and primary level education (2.6%). Finally, for occupation, 42.6% guests worked for NGO's/CBO's; 31.0% were self-employed; 18.0% were civil servants; 4.5% were retirees and 3.9% were church employees (Table 4.7).

Table 4.7: Demographic Information of Guests

Information	Respondents		Statistical Test	
	Category	F	%	χ^2 Sig.
Gender of guest	Male	89	57.4	
	Female	66	42.6	
Age Bracket of guest	Under 20 years	5	3.2	
	20-29 years	53	34.2	
	30-39 Years	43	27.7	
	40-49 Years	28	18.1	
	50-59 Years	19	12.3	
	60 Years and above	7	4.5	
Marital Status	Single	56	36.1	
	Married	91	58.7	
	Divorced/Separated	3	1.9	
	Widowed	5	3.2	
Level of education	Primary	4	2.6	
	Secondary	30	19.4	
	Tertiary	56	36.1	
	University	65	41.9	
Indicate your occupation	Self-Employed	48	31.0	
	Civil Servant	28	18.0	
	CBO/NGO employed	66	42.6	
	Church employee	6	3.9	
	Retired	7	4.5	

Source: Field data, 2017

4.4.1 Guests' Social Information

The study sought to understand MGHs guests in terms of their type/category, information source, nature of travel, duration of stay in the area and incomes. From the results, majority of 58.7% of the guests were domestic while 41.3% were international. The international guests' composition included 41.3% Americans, 14.3% Europeans, 7.1% East Africans and 3.2% from rest of Africa.

In terms of information source, majority guests (35.5%) got information through previous visits, 24.5% through friends and family, 21.3% through the church, 17.4% through media publications while 1.35 got information through the internet. On the nature of guests' travel, majority (55.5%) were in a group while 44.5% were

travelling alone. Of the guests' who travelled in a group, majority (43.9%) were in a group of less than five members while 11.6% were had a group membership of 5 and more. For those quests travelling in a group, majority (24.5%) was made up of friends; 14.8% workmates; 11% business associates; 3.2% business associates. 3.2% were composed of family members while 1.9% were missionary group (Table 4.8).

Table 4.8: Social Information on MGHs

Information	Category	Frequency	Percentage
Category of the MGH guest	Domestic	91	58.7
	International	64	41.3
If you are an international guest, indicate your region of origin	East Africa	11	7.1
	Rest of Africa	5	3.2
	Europe	23	14.8
	America	25	41.3
	Total	64	58.7
	Missing System	91	100
How you got information regarding the MGH	Through the Church	33	21.3
	Through Previous Visits	55	35.5
	Through the	27	17.4
	Media/Publications	38	24.5
	Through family & Friends any other (Specify)-through internet	2	1.3
Nature of your travel	Alone	69	44.5
	In a group	86	55.5
If travelling in a group, what is your group size	Less than 5 members	68	43.9
	5-10 Members	18	11.6
	Total	86	55.5
	Missing System	69	44.5
If travelling in a group, what is the composition of your group members	Friends	38	24.5
	Work mates	23	14.8
	Family	5	3.2
	Business associates	17	11.0
	Missionary group	3	1.9
	Total	86	55.5
	Missing System	69	44.5

Source: Field data, 2017

4.4.2 Guests' Economic Information

MGHs guests provided their economic information in terms of duration of stay, monthly income bracket, expenditure while in the area, expenditure items, group size

and reports on their previous visit to the area. The results revealed that majority (54.2%) of the MGHs guests stayed for 1-3 days, 29% had overnight stay, 9% stayed for 4-6 days while 7.7% stayed for 7-10 days. With regard to guests', majority (26.5%) of the guests were in the income bracket of over Kshs.50,000; 18.1% in the 10,000-20,000 bracket; 16.8% in 21,000-30,000 income bracket; 16.1% for those under 10,000- and 41,000-50,000-income brackets and finally 6.5% were in 31,000-40,000-income bracket. On their estimated expenditure while in the area, majority (30.3%) would spend between Kshs 1,000-1,900; 25.2% less than Kshs 1,000; 12.3% Kshs 4,000-4,900; 11.6% over 5,000; 11% Kshs 2,000-2,900 while 9.7% Kshs 3,000-3,900 as presented in Table 4.9.

Table 4.9: Personal Information of Guests

Variable	Category	Frequency (F)	Percentage (%)
What is the duration of your stay in the region/guesthouse	Overnight stay	45	29.0
	1-3 days	84	54.2
	4-6 Days	14	9.0
	7-10 days	12	7.7
Your monthly income brackets (Kshs)	Less than 10,000	25	16.1
	10,000-20,000	28	18.1
	21,000-30,000	26	16.8
	31,000-40,000	10	6.5
	41,000-50,000	25	16.1
	Over 50,000	41	26.5
Estimated expenditure while in the area (Kshs)	Less than 1,000	39	25.2
	1,000-1,900	47	30.3
	2,000-2,900	17	11.0
	3,000-3,900	15	9.7
	4,000-4,900	19	12.3
	Over 5,000	18	11.6

Source: Field data, 2017

In expenditure items, paying for accommodation services emerged as the leading item with 74.8% followed by donations to charity or community (18.7%); buying souvenirs (3.2%); meals (2.6%); and tithes/tokens to staffs (0.6%)

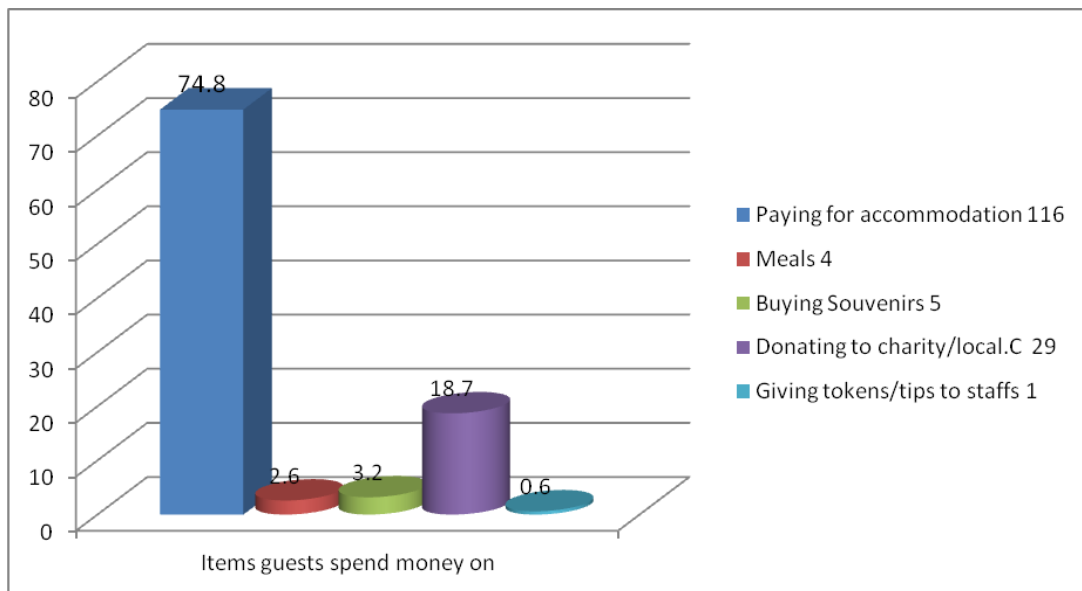


Figure 4.2: Guest expenditure

4.4.3 Guests previous experiences

MGHs previous experiences were assessed in terms of previous visitations to the area, accommodation services, means of transport used, reasons for visiting and the trip financing. From the results as presented in Table 4.10, majority of 51% guests had previously visited the area while 49% were first-time visitors. Guests who have no previous experience visiting MGHs represent an opportunity to expand the reach and impact of community-based tourism. By focusing on education, setting proper expectations, and emphasizing the unique value of these establishments, the industry can successfully attract new guests while also providing positive, lasting experiences that could convert them into repeat visitors. Of those guests who had visited previously, 37.4% had sought accommodation in the same guesthouse; 5.8% had been accommodated in another MGH; 5.2% in a friend's house while 2.6% in private lodging. Further, 23.9% of those who had previously visited the area had come twice; 14.8% visited once; 5.8% visited five and more times; 5.2% visited three times; and 1.3% visited four times. Regarding the reasons for visiting the area, 28.4% had visited

for evangelism and volunteer activities; 23.9% on a mission to visit friends and relatives (VF&R); 21.3% on leisure and relaxation; 12.3% on educational purposes; 10.3% on official government functions while only 3.9% on business visits.

Table 4.10: Guests previous experiences

Variable	Category	Frequency	Percentage
Have you previously visited this area	Yes	79	51.0
	No	76	49.0
If yes above, where did you seek accommodation	In the same Missionary Guesthouse	58	37.4
	In another Missionary Guesthouse	9	5.8
	In private Lodgings	4	2.6
	In friend's house	8	5.2
	Total	79	51.0
		76	49.0
If you have previously visited, how many times	Once	23	14.8
	Twice	37	23.9
	Three times	8	5.2
	Four times	2	1.3
	Five times and above	9	5.8
	Total	79	51.0
	Not previously visited the area	76	49.0
Reason for travel to the area	Evangelism and volunteer	44	28.4
	Leisure and relaxation	33	21.3
	Visiting Friends & Relatives (VF&R)	37	23.9
	Business	6	3.9
	Official Government Functions	16	10.3
	Education purposes	19	12.3

Source: Field data, 2017

In terms of the means of transport used by guests, 58.7% had travelled using a private car; 21.3% a hired van while 20% used a public service vehicle (PSV) as shown on figure 4.3.

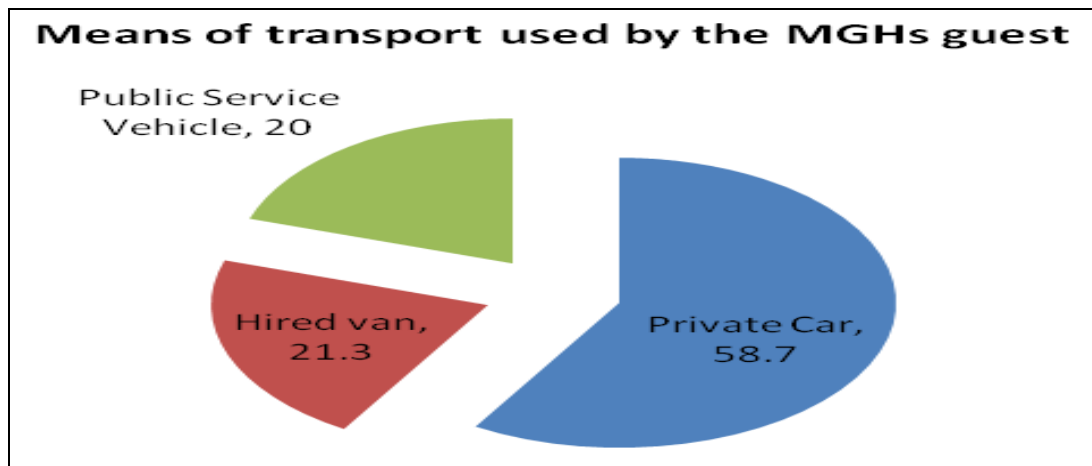


Figure 4.3: Transport used by MGH guests

Source: Survey data, (2017)

Finally, on the guests' trip financing, 69% financed their own trip; 14.2% by their employer; 12.9% by their church, 3.2% by their parents/guardians while only 0.6% secured sponsorship

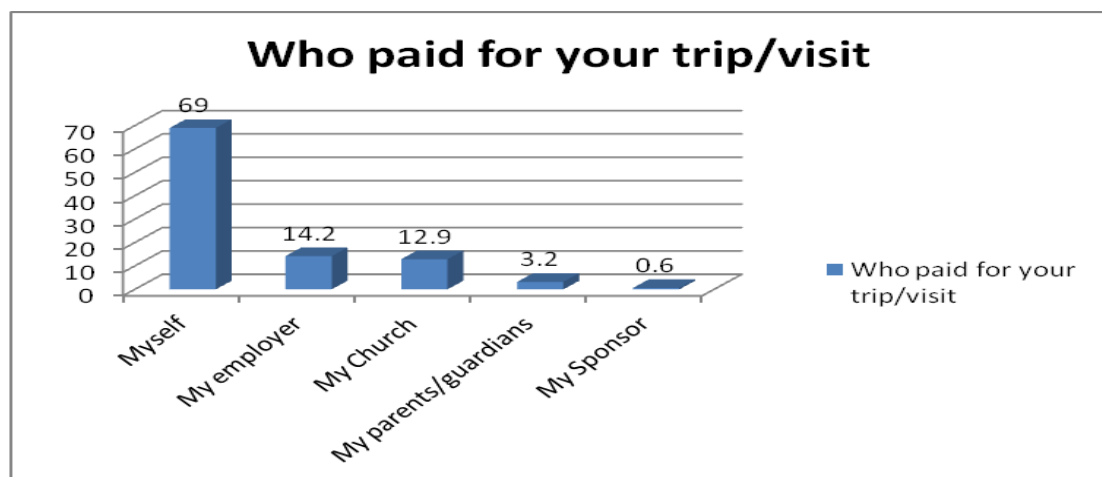


Figure 4.4: Payment for guest trip

4.4.4 Guest expectations and experiences with attributes of the MGHs

The guests' expectations and their ultimate experience at the MGHs were examined. From the findings presented in table 4.11, guests' expectations that exceeded by 50% were the quality of GH linen (67.41%), quality of kitchen utensils (62.21%), general hygiene of GH (60%), toilet & bathroom facilities (59.25%), food quality and service

(58.39%) and general security (55.3%). Those that were rated as being below and not meeting expectations by more than 20% guests were laundry facilities and services (26.08%) and the standard of room furniture (23.15%). Overall, all aspects scored a mean >4.00 which implies that guests' expectations and experiences matched.

Table 4.11: Guests' expectations and experiences at the MGHs in West Pokot County

Aspects/ attributes of the GH expected	EE (%)	ME (%)	BE (%)	DE (%)	NC (%)	MEAN	STD DEV
Food quality and service	58.39	29.47	7.14	3.00	2.00	4.20	.476
Overall GH security	55.30	28.21	5.12	11.37	0	4.22	.474
Laundry facilities and services offered	39.21	32.60	17.39	8.69	2.11	4.00	.000
Standard of room furniture	36.60	39.13	20.05	3.10	1.12	4.21	.483
Quality of utensils	62.21	25.76	5.52	4.34	2.17	4.00	.000
Quality of accommodation	46.36	39.15	11.89	2.60	0	4.22	.474
Toilet and bathroom facilities	59.25	28.19	8.22	4.34	0	4.20	.475
General hygiene of GH	60.00	24.88	12.25	2.87	0	4.22	.474
Staff-Guest interactions	45.61	42.56	9.23	2.60	0	4.00	.000
Quality of GH linen	67.41	27.60	3.52	1.47	0	4.20	.475

5=Exceeded Expectation (EE), 4= Matched Expectation (ME), 3=Below Expectation (BE), 2=Did not meet Expectation (DE), 1=No Comment (NC).

Source: Survey data, 2017

4.4.5 Likelihood of MGHs engaging in tourism activities once in this area

The study sought to know the likelihood of tourist activities that the MGHs guest were likely to engage in during their stay in MGHs. Seven (7) likely tourist activities were presented to the guests and were required to respond to them depending on their likelihood of engaging with them. The responses are captured in table 4.12 below. From a combined result of very important and important, 62.5% rated the likelihood of visiting local shopping/market centers, 58.1% the likelihood of attending church services and crusades, 57.4% the likelihood of engaging in building/repairing community projects and paragliding activities as presented in table 4.12. All the activities listed received a rating of above 50% which implies the likelihood of guests

engaging in all the tourism activities in the area. Overall all activities recorded a Mean>1.7 hence the likelihood of engaging in all the activities was high.

Table 4.12: Likelihood of MGHs guests Engaging in tourism activities once in this area

<i>Tourism Activities likely to engage</i>	Highly Likely		Likely		Unlikely		Mean	Std Dev
	<i>Fq</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>fq</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Fq</i>	<i>%</i>		
Engage in Mountain Climbing in the area	18	11.6%	61	39.4%	76	49.0%	1.67	.807
Touring local homesteads while at this area	25	16.1%	63	40.6%	67	43.2%	1.75	.784
Engage in building/repairing projects	29	18.7%	60	38.7%	66	42.6%	1.76	.748
Attend cultural performances & ceremonies	20	12.9%	68	43.9%	67	43.2%	1.70	.687
Attend church services and crusades	24	15.5%	66	42.6%	65	41.9%	1.74	.712
Visit shopping centers/markets	32	20.6%	65	41.9%	58	37.4%	1.88	.852
Engage in paragliding activities	1	18.7%	2	38.7%	66	42.6%	1.70	.687

Highly likely (3): Likely (2): Unlikely (1)

Source: Survey Data, 2017

4.4.6 Guest satisfaction with MGH attributes

This study sought to find out the level of MGHs guests' satisfaction with various components of guesthouse service attributes where twenty (20) items on MGHs attributes were presented to the guests to capture their satisfaction using a five-point scale ranging from 'very satisfied' to 'very dissatisfied'. From the results guests are very satisfied with most of the services offered in the MGHs based on the responses that attained above 93% apart from conference facilities and tour performance/knowledge that had 30%. However, despite the score of 30% on conference facilities and tour performance/knowledge majority were neutral on the same and were therefore not dissatisfied. Overall, the results indicate that the MGHs

guests were satisfied based on a Mean score >4.1 for all of attributes presented in table 4.13.

Table 4.13: Guest Satisfaction with attributes of MGHs

<i>Aspects of Satisfaction</i>	VS	S	N	D	VD	Mean	STD DEV
	%	%	%	%	%		
Accommodation at MGH	31.0%	67.7%	1.3%	0	0	4.3	.654
Nature & quality of dining	24.5%	72.9%	2.6%	0	0	4.2	.478
MGH road accessibility	25.8%	70.3%	3.9%	0	0	4.3	.486
Safety & security at MGH	21.9%	73.5%	3.9%	0.6%	0	4.2	.500
Quality meals at MGH	23.2%	73.5%	3.2%	0	0	4.2	.507
Value of money in services	24.5%	72.3%	3.2%	0	0	4.2	.475
Attitude of staff to MGguests	23.9%	73.5%	2.6%	0	0	4.2	.483
Overall cleanliness of GH	20.6%	78.1%	1.3%	0	0	4.2	.470
Staff Efficiency/Competence	23.2%	75.5%	1.3%	0	0	4.2	.425
Tour Knowledge /performance	9.0%	21.3%	69.7%	0	0	4.2	.445
Conference facilities at MGH	8.4%	21.3%	70.3%	0	0	4.1	.464
MGH bathroom towels	18.7%	74.8%	6.5%	0	0	4.2	.457

5=Very satisfied (VS), 4=Satisfied(S), 3= Neutral(N), 2= Dissatisfied(D), 1 =Very dissatisfied (VD)

Source: Survey Data, 2017

4.4.7 Services at MGHs

This study sought to find out views on how guests rate the services they receive at MGHs.

Table 4.14 presents the findings on guests' ratings of these services. From the findings, quality of accommodation facilities, meals served, employee friendliness, entertainment, accessibility to GHs and attractions, camping grounds, quality of water supply, conference facilities and awareness of employees of their roles all received high rating >89% when very good and good were combined with all Mean values >4.00. Hospitality of local communities was rated as poor and very poor by 79% of the guests with the lowest Mean at 1.88 (<2.0).

Table 4.14: Guests'/Visitors rating of services received at the MGHs, (n=155 (%))

Services Received	VG	G	S	P	VP	Mean	Std Dev
Accommodation facilities	9	88	2	0	1	4.05	.408
Meals served in the guesthouses	10	89	1	0	0	4.09	.309
Employees friendliness	12	85	3	0	0	4.10	.374
Hospitality of the local communities	1	3	17	41	38	1.88	.852
Entertainment	27	62	11	0	0	4.05	.408
Accessibility to the GHs and attractions	9	88	2	0	1	4.05	.408
Camping grounds	27	62	11	0	0	4.16	.597
Quantity of water supply	9	88	2	0	1	4.05	.408
Conference facilities (Chairs, tables)	9	88	2	0	1	4.05	.408
Awareness of employees to their roles	27	62	11	0	0	4.16	.597

5=Very Good(VG), 4=Good(G), 3=Satisfactory(S), 2=Poor(P), 1=Very Poor(VP)

Source: Survey data, 2017

4.4.8 Guests' expectations, experiences and satisfaction of the MGHs in West Pokot

The relationship between guest expectations, experiences and satisfaction were tested using Pearson Correlation Coefficient as shown in table 4.15. The results on table 4.15 reveal that guest expectations and guest satisfaction attained $r=0.807$ which imply that there is a strong positive correlation between guest expectations and satisfaction hence suggesting that as guest expectations increase, guest satisfaction tends to increase as well. Guest expectations and guest services attained $r=0.339$ which implies that there is a moderate positive correlation between guest expectations and services hence indicates that there is some relationship between guest expectations and the quality of services provided. Guest satisfaction and services attained $r=0.419$ implying that there is a moderate positive correlation between guest

satisfaction and services. This implies that as guest satisfaction increases, the quality of guest services tends to increase as well.

Table 4.15: Pearson Correlations

		Guest expectations	Guest Satisfaction	Guest Services
Guest expectations	Pearson Correlation	-	.807**	.339**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000
	N	155	155	155
Guest Satisfaction	Pearson Correlation	.807**	-	.419**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000
	N	155	155	155
Guest Services	Pearson Correlation	.339**	.419**	-
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	
	N	155	155	155

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Overall, there are strong positive correlations between guest expectations and guest satisfaction, moderate positive correlations between guest expectations and guest services and between guest satisfaction and guest services. This indicates that all three variables are interconnected in the context of guest experiences.

4.4.9 Qualitative results on Guest expectations, experiences and guest services

Interviews were conducted with guests on their expectations, experiences and satisfaction with the overall service in MGHs. The first question was how they financed their trip vacation and what they had to say about the accommodation facility. One of the leaders said:

“My team and I are in this place courtesy of our church in Norway. Every year we send young evangelists some of them pursuing theology and they spent like one month in this place. We visit different churches. To me, it is a dream come true to be among this team. The guesthouse is awesome! there is no difference with our ordinary homes since they were built by our own country people. The guesthouse is well maintained, it gives us a good opportunity to relax after a day’s mission work. The kitchen, ablution and laundry facilities are amazing” (G-MGH5)

In order to understand guest perception on the value for the monies paid for the services offered at the guesthouse facilities and whether value for money can make a tourist facility become more competitive than others, guests were asked about their reaction to the pricing and value for money in this guesthouse. From the response by G-MGH 8, it was evident that guests to the MGHs appreciated and agreed that indeed they received value for money from the services they received at the guesthouses. The guest leaders said:

“Going by the good services we got here, I can say that what we have paid is less. We really had a good experience and we really got value for money.” (G-MGH8)

Local cuisines play a crucial role in orienting tourists to a community or a destination. It represents the cultural manifestation of the local communities in their setting. The guests were asked comment on traditional foods, culture and cultural dances which pointed at the guest enjoyment based on the following statements:

“I’m here doing research. I have resided in this guesthouse for the last two months during the process of data collection. I have enjoyed my stay here and I have enjoyed the local communities’ foods, culture and traditional performances. It is authentic and I will come back after my studies”-(G-MGH7)

“All the foods here are well made and are health sensitive. The Kitchen staffs prepare good food as per your request, they are really experienced, they have not disappointed even once for the last couple of days that I have been here” (G-MGH2)

Guests were asked about their opinion on the hospitality services received at the MGHs which elicited positive responses indicating that they were impressed with the services accorded to them. The guests responded that:

“I have received excellent hospitality services here. The staffs are awesome and very generous” (G-MGH11)

“The guesthouse staffs are courteous, friendly and very punctual. The location of the guesthouse too is fine and the facilities at the guesthouse are excellent” (G-MGH1)

“.... before we started our trip, I was a bit worried about the nature of hospitality services in this destination considering the fact that we knew it was remote and far away from the tourism core areas where service providers are available. However, contrary to my worries, we been treated to excellent hospitality services that are beyond my expectation. I will come back again here” (G-MGH2)

Finally, guests were asked on their approval of the goodness of the MGHs and these were their responses which indicated that they were pleased: Their responses were:

“We had a wonderful time here. Yes, the place is remote but we enjoyed it very much. The staffs are very kind and love they work” (G-MGH4)

“Wow, it’s my first time here. I’m so impressed about the guesthouse, the facilities, the equipment, the staffs and the environment. I didn’t expect to get such a good place here, it’s one of the most amazing places I have ever spent my vacation time, it’s indeed a unique place” (G-MGH8)

4.5 Descriptive Statistics for Variables

This section will present descriptive statistics and qualitative data for the independent and dependent variables. The independent variables were local participation, activities and programs of CBT and rural tourism. The dependent variable was sustainable livelihoods measured by financial assets, human assets, natural assets, physical assets and social assets. In addition socio-economic benefits will include economic and social benefits.

4.5.1 Local Participation of Households in MGHs

This study sought to find out the level of participation of local communities adjacent to the MGHs in West Pokot County. Respondents were presented with statements on 5-point likert scale to rate the extent to which they agree with the community participation in missionary’ guesthouse-driven tourism wherein 5=strongly agree; 4=agree; 3=occasionally, 2=disagree and 1=slightly disagree. The statistics provide

insights into the levels of local participation in various activities related to MGHs in West Pokot.

From the results, local communities participate by electing MGH committees ($M=2.58$), local community hosting MGH guests in their homes attained $M=2.59$, entertaining MGH guests (2.79), with a negative skewness, selling items to MGH guests ($M=1.83$) indicating a lower level of participation with a positive skewness hence a right skewed distribution, participating in workshops, seminars and meetings at MGHs had a $M=2.87$ with positive skewness and giving opinions and decisions on MGH issues ($M=2.55$). The skewness was close to zero indicating a relatively symmetrical distribution in all aspects pertaining local participation while all the kurtosis were slightly negative, suggesting a platykurtic distribution.

Results from this objective indicate that MGHs actively engage members of the local communities, and the local communities embrace activities of the guesthouses. Overall, the results point to participation and involvement of local community as presented in Table 4.16.

Table 4.16: Descriptive Statistics on Local Participation

	N Stat	Mean Stat	Std. Dev Stat	Skewness Stat	SE	Kurtosis Stat	SE
Participate by electing MGH committees	358	2.58	.739	.011	.129	-.317	.257
Host GH guests in their homes	358	2.59	.746	.108	.129	-.381	.257
Entertain GH guests at the MGHs	358	2.79	.869	-.251	.129	-.640	.257
Sell items to guesthouse guests	358	1.83	1.494	1.318	.129	-.113	.257
Participate in Workshops, seminars and meetings at GHs	357	2.87	1.647	.226	.129	-1.325	.257
Give opinions & decisions on GH issues	357	2.56	1.341	.586	.129	-.876	.257
Supply items to the guesthouse	357	2.56	1.341	.586	.129	-.876	.257
Secure employment opportunities at GHs	357	2.87	1.647	.226	.129	-1.325	.257
Participate in GH strategy meetings	357	2.56	1.341	.586	.129	-.876	.257
Guide guesthouse guests around	357	2.87	1.647	.226	.129	-1.325	.257
Receive and welcome GH guests	357	2.56	1.341	.586	.129	-.876	.257
Valid N (listwise)	357						

The success of tourism depends on the level of local communities' awareness and participation in their local tourism sector. The interviews conducted sought to find out how the local communities in villages hosting these guesthouses participate in MGHs. The interview findings pointed out that local community participate in the leadership of the guesthouse through their elected management committees. The management committees are responsible for the operations the guesthouses. They undertake to steer the guesthouses in the day-to-day operations as well as in the development if the overall growth strategy of the guesthouse. Community members said:

“This is a church facility. Members of the church elect the management committees from among themselves. The committee will in turn employ and work hand in hand with the manager to steer the operations of the guesthouse. We can therefore say that the local communities participate in the leadership of the church through the election of the committees members” (CTO)

“When the community elect representatives to the guesthouse management committee, we feel they have participated in the day today management of the guesthouse although through the elected representatives. The community feel they are decision makers when their elected representatives make decisions on their behalf” (MA-MGH1)

“By selling farm produce to the guesthouse, community members earn money. When visitors are many at the guesthouse, the community sell more and no much of farm produce go to waste” (MA-MGH5)

“The recruitment of tour guides, porters, and cultural performance troops from the local community is a good thing, we really like it” (MA-MGH3)

4.5.2 Activities and programmes of CBT

This study sought to situate the activities and programmes of MGHs in West Pokot County within community-based tourism. Local community were presented with statements on 5-point likert scale to rate the extent to which they agree with the community participation in MGHs wherein 5=strongly agree; 4=agree; 3=occasionally, 2=disagree and 1=slightly disagree. That is, the study examined the respondents’ opinion on whether the activities and programmes of these guesthouses are in line with CBT principles.

The statistics provide insights into various aspects related to Community-Based Tourism (CBT) activities and programs related to MGHs in West Pokot. From the results, the activities and programs revealed that MGHs were owned by the local communities ($M=4.34$, $SD=.594$) which indicate a strong perception of community ownership of CBT activities and programs. Linkages with other local business has

M=4.31, SD=.582 indicating a positive perception of linkages with local business. The local community's pursuit socio-economic goals supported by MGHs had M=4.25, SD=.597 indicating a strong support for achieving socio-economic goals through CBT activities and programs. MGHs build tourism development capacities of the local communities and other stakeholders recorded a M=4.16, SD=.600 indicating positive capacity building.

With regard to MGHs support for tourism and hospitality skills acquisition and training of local communities had M=4.10, SD=.630 indicating a positive perception of skills acquisition. As concerns MGHs help to position rural areas and communities as tourism destination, M=4.12, SD=.591 indicating positive activities and programmes that support. The findings also indicated that MGHs are accountable to local communities and other stakeholders that attained M=4.08. Finally, MGHs supporting technology transfer within their localities attained M=4.08, SD=.684 indicating positive support. Overall, the statistics provided insights into the importance of CBT programmes and activities within the community. All skewness and kurtosis values suggested a leftward skewed and relatively normal distribution.

Table 4.17: Descriptive Statistics for Activities and Programs of CBT

Statements	N	Mean	Std. Dev	Skewness	Kurtosis		
	Stat	Stat	Stat	Stat	SE	Stat	SE
Owned by the local communities	358	4.335	.5936	-.431	.129	.27	.257
Linkages with other Local businesses	358	4.313	.5821	-.178	.129	-.61	.257
Support socio-economic goals	358	4.251	.5973	-.155	.129	-.52	.257
Build capacities of local communities	358	4.162	.6002	-.157	.129	-.01	.257
Tourism & hospitality skill acquisition	358	4.098	.6297	-.416	.129	.80	.257
Position rural areas as tourism destinations	358	4.123	.5908	-.527	.129	2.44	.257
Accountable of benefits sharing & use of resources	358	4.075	.6839	-.836	.129	2.29	.257
Technology transfer within their localities	358	4.075	.6839	-.730	.129	1.93	.257
Valid N (listwise)	358						

Interview conducted with managers sought to find out what activities and programmes MGHs undertake to support community-based tourism. The responses were:

“Workshops organized by the guesthouse also target at enlightening the local communities on various aspects of accountability at church and household level. By participating in these workshops, the local communities’ leadership skills are further sharpened here. They will know how to choose good members to represent them at the guesthouse management committee” (MA-MGH6)

“Yes, this is the property of the local community. They own it through the church. The local communities’ participate in decision making through their elected leaders who form the management committee members of the guesthouse. Even on sharing the benefits, they still get involved through their elected representatives. It is therefore a communal project (MA- MGH10)

‘This guesthouse belongs to the community members who are members of the sponsoring church that built the guesthouse. The church members actually are the owners of the guesthouse and they are key in electing the guesthouse management committee who in-turn run the operations of the guesthouse and make key decisions on their behalf. It is the guesthouse management committee elected by members of the church who employ us the staffs, they are our bosses but they get their mandate from the owners of the guesthouse who happen to be the members of the sponsoring church”, (MA-MGH9)

One challenge identified with tourism developments among rural communities is the externality nature in terms of ownership. That most tourism establishments are owned by outsiders who do not reside in the said communities and in most cases, these owners repatriate all the earnings while leaving the local communities to bear the negative impacts of tourism. This discussion was engaged during the in-depth interviews with the GH managers and it emerged that the managers held the view that the MGHs are the best model on community ownership of tourism. In all the guesthouses, the managers agreed that the local communities owned the guesthouses in their localities through their churches.

However, there emerged a notable discrepancy issue during the interview. It emerged that it was difficult for community members from other denominations to access the facility. The ownership issue therefore was limited to members of the church denomination whose missionary built the facility. It therefore emerged that any ELCK facility was exclusively run and owned by the members of the ELCK denomination. Local community members from other denominations would only benefit through the corporate social responsibility offered by the MGHs. This can best be summarized in this quote from one of the MGH manager:

“In this area, there are two guesthouses, the AIC guesthouse here and the Catholic guesthouse across the valley. The lines are clear, it is not possible for members of AIC to be involved in the day to day running of the Catholic guesthouse and similarly, the Catholics will not be involved here. But they can still benefit from CSR projects initiated by either of the guesthouses” (MA-MGH3)

The interview sought to find out how the idea to convert the missionary' houses into guesthouses. This interview question was aimed at finding out who inspired the idea: The study confirmed that the exiting missionary together with local church councils

was instrumental in the establishment of the MGH and strategy was crafted by all of them with the missionary leading the process.

The missionary knew very well that the house they had invested in if it will not be converted into a guesthouse will degrade since most of the locals had not capacity to maintain and manage such a facility. They also knew that this guesthouse will be a good income generating unit for the local churches hence this really supported the idea of establishing the facilities. The initial guesthouse management committees were also inducted by the missionary before they left here', (MA-MGH6)

The existences of MGHs in these areas have assisted many families directly and indirectly with households interviewed reporting a significant improvement in their lives due to these MGHs. The local farmers are able to sell their farm produce to the guesthouses thereby earning incomes from these sales. The interview results indicate that they have strong belief in the activities of MGHs especially in supporting the growth of tourism in the area.

“With the initial support we received from the pioneer missionary in terms of the initial cost outlay, we can say that this guesthouse is still economically viable” (FGD-MGMC9)

MGHs have also supported the growth of community-based rural tourism in the area by inculcating strong tourism entrepreneurship culture among members of the local communities especially youth and women. In addition, the infrastructural improvements made by the investments of the MGHs have also eased accessibility thereby boosting tourism in these rural areas.

4.5.3 Rural tourism

This study sought to analyse indicators of rural tourism from data collected from the local community with statements on 5-point likert scale to rate the extent to which they agree with the community participation in MGHs wherein 5=strongly agree; 4=agree; 3=occasionally, 2=disagree and 1=slightly disagree. The support of these

guesthouses in imparting hospitality skills to members of the local communities, providing accommodation to visitors as well as the overall tourism awareness was assessed. Tourism literature examined the role and contribution of accommodation establishments in supporting the growth of tourism development. Evidence exists of places that have seen their tourism grow as a result of flagship accommodation projects especially in rural destinations which are deficient of tourism support infrastructures. It is from this background that respondents were provided with statements on MGHs and support for tourism development and were expected to give their perception on these statements. Respondents were provided with a 5-point likert scale to rate their perception where 5=strongly agree; 4=Agree; 3=Undecided; 2=Disagree and 1=strongly Disagree.

From the responses, frequencies and collapsed percentages mean scores and standard deviations were extracted and interpreted so as to understand the stakeholders' views on role and contributions of MGHs towards sustainable community-based tourism in West Pokot County, Kenya. From the findings, the mean scores for all statements were above 3 (the theoretical mean) indicating all the stakeholders held a positive view that MGHs have huge potential to contribute to tourism development in rural destinations such as the study area of this research (West Pokot County). However, the following statements scored low mean and standard deviation scores which indicates that the stakeholders held low opinion on their ability to support the growth of tourism in the area. A look at the results for the standard deviation scores reveals that stakeholders had a broad range of views regarding the ability of these statements in contributing to the development of sustainable community-based tourism in rural areas.

The aim of the descriptive statistics was to provide insights into aspects related to rural tourism within the local community. From the findings, whether MGHs have stimulated tourism developed in the locality recorded $M=4.02$ indicating a general positive perception of tourism development within the local community. With regard to development and improvement of management capacity and governance of tourism among community members, the $M=3.65$ indicating a moderate perception. MGHs provide resources for local tourism growth had $M=4.05$ indicating a positive perception of the availability of resources for tourism development with albeit higher kurtosis. MGHs enhance local ownership of the tourism sector in the community had $M=3.88$ indicating a moderate perception of tourism ownership.

Pertaining to MGHs contribution to tourism and hospitality skills development of local community, $M=3.82$ indicating a moderate perception of skills development albeit with higher kurtosis. MGHs support for rural tourism by providing accommodation and the positive transformation of touristic image of the community both had $M=3.84$, MGHs acting as tourism development flagship projects in the area had $M=4.31$, MGHs promoting and marketing the area as a tourism destination had $M=3.65$ while MGHs in West Pokot County having improved accessibility had $M=4.17$. All the aspects under rural tourism indicated above moderate perception of local community to the existence of rural tourism. The values of skewness and kurtosis suggest a slightly leftward skewed and relatively normal distribution.

Table 4.18: Descriptive Statistics for Rural tourism

Statements	N	Mean	Std. Dev	Skewness	Kurtosis		
	Stat	Stat	Stat	Stat	S.E	Stat	S.E
Tourism developments in our locality	358	4.02	.639	-.213	.129	.11	.257
Capacity for management and governance of tourism among community members	358	3.65	.847	-.504	.129	.34	.257
Resources for local tourism growth	358	4.05	.575	-.619	.129	2.42	.257
Ownership of own tourism sector in community	358	3.88	.758	-.344	.129	-.13	.257
Skills devt of LC' tourism & hospitality skills	358	3.82	.924	-.088	.129	-1.10	.257
Rural tourism by providing accommodation	358	3.84	.922	-.116	.129	-1.10	.257
Touristic image of the area/community	358	3.84	.921	-.106	.129	-1.10	.257
Tourism development flagship projects the area	358	4.31	.582	-.178	.129	-.61	.257
Promote & market area as tourism destination	358	3.65	.847	-.504	.129	.34	.257
Accessibility to WP County has improved	358	4.17	.662	-.202	.129	-.75	.257
Valid N (listwise)	358						

The interview asked managers to explain how the MGHs have assisted in the development of tourism in the rural area. The responses were:

“I have worked in this guesthouse for the last 7 years and I can say that the guesthouse is a flagship tourism facility in this area, this is the only place where visitors get a place to rest. It is a good thing that supports tourism and even if it is not fully developed, it is a good beginning to tourism in this area. The guesthouse is has potential to set the tone and pace of tourism development in this area” (MA-MGH1)

“Recently, we hosted the guest who is now the first paraglider in the entire county, he went to the mountain cliff in the morning and then flew to Wei-Wei, local were awed by the sight of the paraglider in the sky. This is a new thing in the area and I can tell you, from that day, our clients have gone up, more and more clients are calling to inquire about this place, I think we are adding unto the overall tourism development in this region” (MA-MGH3)

“The MGHs this County and even Kenya at large presents a unique opportunity to develop rural tourism as well as to harness the

touristic potential of these areas. By virtue of being owned by the local community through their local church, this guesthouse therefore presents an excellent opportunity to develop community-based tourism with a wider benefit to majority of the local community members”- (MA-MGH7)

One of the areas captured in the interviews with the MGHs managers is the ability of the guesthouses in incubating a sustainable rural tourism. All the eleven (11) managers held a strong belief that the MGHs in the rural parts of the county have huge potential of incubating and supporting the establishment of sustainable rural tourism in the area. The managers believe can best be captured by one guesthouse manager that had this to say during the interview:

“This is our only place where we receive our visitors were it not because of this guesthouse, visitors would not stop at our area, they would have passed us and may be land in other area.” (FGD-MGMC7)

“In most places, tourism development is pro-investor, its top down but the MGH model here to me is the best. It is bottom-up and the local community is playing a key role. The MGHs can be used to incubate a good tourism model in other rural areas” (FGD-MGMC3)

Being the only hospitality establishments in the rural areas, the MGHs have positioned as the major tourism development flagships in the area. Guests residing in the guesthouses have too participated in several tourism activities like mountain hiking, homestead visits, bird watching, sightseeing, and visit to market centers among other. The guesthouse has also been able to train local guides on-the job who in turn facilitate the guests as they tour around.

Table 4.19: Summary of interview responses on contribution of MGHs to rural tourism

Region	Aspects of Contributions				
	Marketing	Human Resources Development	Institutional Capacity Building	Setting the right standards	Capital support
Central Pokot	Sourcing for clients especially international guests	On-the job training of staffs to work in the GHs	Establishment of MGH management committees	Overseeing best hospitality standards in GH serves	Providing the initial capital support by constructing the house, equipping and also running
South Pokot	Sourcing for clients especially international guests	Training staffs on costing, rationing and other entrepreneurship skills	Establishment of ground rules and regulations	Equipping the GHs with high standard linen, cutlery and other	Coming up with the revenue distribution formula for the GH earnings between the parent church, running costs and other expenses
West Pokot	Sourcing for clients especially international guests	Training staffs on costing, rationing and other entrepreneurship skills	Establishment of ground rules and regulations	Equipping the GHs with high standard linen, cutlery and other	Providing the initial capital support by constructing the house, equipping and also running
North Pokot	Sourcing for clients especially international guests	Training staffs on costing, rationing and other entrepreneurship skills	Establishment of ground rules and regulations	Equipping the GHs with high standard linen, cutlery and other	Providing the initial capital support by constructing the house, equipping and also running

Source: KII interviews findings, 2017

4.5.4 Sustainable livelihood's Assets in West Pokot County, Kenya.

The DFID's (2001) sustainable livelihoods approach was used in examining the perceived impact of MGHs on local communities' livelihood asset resources. The respondents were asked to give their perception regarding these livelihoods' assets. The five (5) livelihood assets were financial, natural, physical, social and human assets that were subjected to the perception of the local communities. Respondents were asked to indicate their perception of livelihood assets of the MGHs using a five-point likert scale as follows: 1=strongly disagree; 2=disagree; 3=neither disagree nor agree; 4=agree; and 5=strongly agree. The mean scores and standard deviations were

extracted from the respondents' responses to the questions. These responses are captured in table 4.21(a-e) below where the mean and standard deviations are captured. Based on these results on the mean and standard deviation, it can be concluded that MGHs positively impact on the local communities' livelihoods assets. The activities of MGHs reinforce development and attainment of livelihood resources by local communities.

4.5.4.1 Financial Assets

Financial assets revealed that re-investment of monies in the local community boosted the economy (M=4.10), there was circulation of money within the local economy (4.08), financial access to credit was easier for the community (M=4.10), local community members earned incomes from MGHs (M=4.05), there was equitable distribution of tourism revenues (M=4.07), MGHs supported income-generating activities for household members and facilitation of cash remittances from sponsors to household members both attained (M=4.09). All Means were >4.0 and the skewness and kurtosis values suggest a slightly leftward skewed and relatively normal distribution. The results are presented in table 4.20(a).

Table 4.20(a): Descriptive Statistics for Financial Assets (Sustainable Livelihoods)

Statements	Std.						
	N	Mean	D	Skewness	Kurtosis		
	Stat	Stat	Stat	Stat	SE	Stat	Std. E
Re-investment of monies in the LC and boosts economy	358	4.10	.676	-.35	.129	-.02	.257
Circulate of money within the local economy	358	4.08	.663	-.32	.129	.09	.257
Financial credit access easier for community	358	4.10	.687	-.29	.129	-.32	.257
Earned incomes from MGHs in their locality	358	4.05	.700	-.17	.129	-.64	.257
Equitable distribution of tourism revenues in community	358	4.07	.723	-.55	.129	.85	.257
Support Income-generating activities for HHs	358	4.09	.722	-.85	.129	1.79	.257
Facilitate cash remittances from sponsors to HHs	358	4.09	.765	-.83	.129	1.24	.257

Interview on MGHs impact on financial assets of local communities' elicited varied responses. It emerged that through MGHs new income earning opportunities were created for local communities and livelihoods of the household members improved.

Some responses were:

"I supply eggs and fruits to the missionary guesthouses when they have guests. When they do not have guests, they don't need my supplies, how I wish they had guests' everyday" (HH-MGH3)

"Since when I secured employment at the MGH, my family's economic condition begun to improve and at the moment, we are living a good life. Generally, our living condition has significantly become better" (HH-MGH9)

"I worked at the MGH during the early constructions and I used my earning to open this canteen...through this, I have educated my children and I live well with my family now. My life changed for the better thanks to the earning I got from the MGHs" (HH-MGH7)

4.5.4.2 Human Assets

Human assets results in table 4.21(b) revealed that bursaries used to educate community members build the skills base ($M=4.10$, $SD=0.714$), MGHs offering

training and hospitality skill development of the local communities (M=4.09, SD=0.689), MGHs employment of the local community (M=4.09, SD=0.722) and support for skills transfer through job training (M=4.06, SD=0.708), improved level of education (M=4.03, SD=0.723) and support for health centers thus overall households' health (M=4.04, SD=0.675). The means indicated a high level of agreement with the statements. Overall, the results reflect a high level of support and agreement with initiatives aimed at education, skill development, and health improvement within the community facilitated by MGHs with all means >4.0. The standard deviation for most statements was relatively low, suggesting that responses were clustered around the mean. The skewness is negative indicating a slight-left leaning distribution while the kurtosis is positive suggesting a slightly peaked distribution.

Table 4.20(b): Descriptive Statistics for Human Assets (Sustainable Livelihoods)

	N	Mean	Std. Dev	Skewness	Kurtosis	
	Stat	Stat	Stat	Stat	SE	Stat Std. E
Financial Assets						
MGHs bursaries educate community for skills base.	358	4.09	.714	-.554	.129	.638 .257
Training and hospitality skill development among LC	358	4.09	.688	-.377	.129	.318 .257
Employ local community when opportunities arise	358	4.09	.722	-.625	.129	.547 .257
Support skills transfer to LC' through on-job training	358	4.06	.708	-.366	.129	-.088 .257
Improved level of Education of HH members	358	4.03	.723	-.672	.129	.778 .257
Health centers have improved HHs' health	358	4.04	.675	-.924	.129	2.697 .257

Tourism literature shows that for local communities to genuinely participate in tourism, they must have the requisite tourism sector skills. Instances where the local communities have been excluded from their own tourism sector due to lack of trained human resources have been reported. Human resource assets are therefore critical for the success of any tourism development, and one of the factors identified in tourism

literature to be negatively affecting tourism among rural communities is the lack of trained man power to run the local tourism. Without adequate local human resources, incidences where outsiders secure critical decision-making jobs in the local tourism industry arise. The local community members since they do not have skills will be left with menial jobs to content with. Like most other rural communities, the major challenge facing tourism development in West Pokot is lack of appropriate tourism and hospitality skills. It is from this background that this study sought to find out how the MGHs had impacted on the human assets of the local communities.

From the interview findings, it emerged that through on-the job training, the MGHs have been able to impart some members of the local community with useful tourism and hospitality skills; and the overall capacity for the local community members to handle guests in the locality has significantly improved. The interview findings therefore revealed that through the MGHs, local community members received important tourism development skills as food cooking skills, house-keeping skills, equipment operations, laundry skills tour guiding among other skills. As a result, members of the local community can serve guests better and to expectation. Some of the employees of the MGHs who served the missionary themselves acquired basic languages such as Norwegian language. They can cook foods preferred by the guests well.

“Personally, I didn’t study tourism but I can tour guide well. By taking the MGHs guests around, I have learned to speak well and I have also learned a lot about birds which is one of the interests to most guests who come here. I have learned a lot in terms of tour guiding” (HH-MGH1)

Focus group discussion on skills acquisition and development indicated that language proficiency and ability to handle guests has been achieved through the existence of the MGHs. Some of the elicited response was that:

“Yes, we have hosted senior government officials in this guesthouse and imagine we did not look for experts to serve them. Our staffs here with the skills gained from the original missionary are very thorough. All our guests have left here satisfied. Our staffs can comfortably handle up to 200 guests at one and they can make foods for different nationalities, of course since the missionary who lived here was from Norway, they are best in serving Norwegian guests” (FGD-MGMC3)

Further, respondents agreed that the local community members had acquired other skills that would not have been possible to acquire had it not been for the MGHs.

According to one FGD respondent:

“We have men in this community who are now experts in plumbing, borehole repairs and solar pump installation. They have now been employed by the County government to serve the entire location because of the skills they acquired in this facility when they worked with the American missionary who built and lived here. We feel that the facility has significantly imparted these skills to us. They still serve the guesthouse well” (FGD-MGMCH3)

4.5.4.3 Natural Assets

Natural assets which provide insights to environmental conservation and resource management revealed that MGHs have boosted conservation and re-vitalization of natural environmental resources ($M=3.91$, $SD=0.705$), contributed towards sustainable use of the local natural resources ($M=3.89$, $SD=0.654$), rehabilitated local community land by boosting productivity ($M=3.86$, $SD=0.566$), stimulated the local communities' conservation efforts ($M=3.80$, $SD=0.810$), improved farm irrigation and good use of idle land through water handling technologies ($M=3.80$, $SD=0.904$) and increased water access to local communities for households and livestock ($M=$). The standard deviation suggests some variability in responses. The skewness indicated a slight left-leaning distribution, while the kurtosis suggests few moderately peaked distribution and others relatively normal distribution.

Table 4.20(c): Descriptive Statistics for Human Assets (Sustainable Livelihoods)

	N	Mean	Std. D	Skewness	Kurtosis	
	Stat	Stat	Stat	Stat	SE	Std. E
Natural Assets						
Conservation and re-vitalization of natural environment	358	3.92	.705	-.85	.129	1.88.257
Sustainable use of natural resource localities	358	3.89	.654	-.55	.129	.93.257
Rehabilitated LC land by boosting productivity	358	3.89	.566	-.49	.129	1.30.257
Stimulate conservation efforts of LC	358	3.80	.810	-.06	.129	-.71.257
Improved farm irrigation to bring idle land to good use	358	3.81	.905	-.72	.129	.47.257
Water access to LC for HHs and livestock	358	5.20	1.038	-.54	.129	.29.257

When examined in light of the local communities' natural assets, the interview results indicated that the MGHs significantly impacted the local communities' natural assets positively. Farming was improved courtesy of the investments made by the MGHs in agriculture among members of the local communities. A community member said:

“We have attended seminars and training on crop production sponsored by the MGHs. This has gone all the way to improve our produce in the farms. The piped water that was brought to us by the MGH has significantly supported horticulture farming in our area”
(HH-MGH5)

In addition, through the guesthouses, the local community at large has also been sensitized on safe environment. They have for instance received incentives to construct toilets, to produce quality agricultural produce, to conserve water resources, to use safe energy & sustainable sources among other life supporting initiatives.

4.5.4.4 Physical Assets

Physical assets which provide insights into aspects of infrastructure and services within the local communities elicited responses on various statements. MGHs have improved road networks in the locality (M=4.47, SD=0.672), water availability (M=3.96, SD=1.001), school facilities infrastructure (M=3.40, SD=1.034), power

connectivity to community ($M=4.02$, $SD=0.639$), security lights enabled ($M=3.65$, $SD=0.855$) and facilitated social services ($M=2.64$, $SD=1.14$). From the findings improved road network and power connectivity scored high mean >4.0 which could imply enhanced accessibility through roads and lighting in the community that are very attractive to visitors hence improve rural tourism. Business community members therefore could easily transport their goods. Farm produce too reached markets much easier due to the roads made by the MGHs. The findings are presented in table 4.1(d).

Table 4.20 (d): Descriptive Statistics for Physical Assets (sustainable livelihoods)

Statements	N	Std.				Kurtosis
		Mean	Dev	Skewness	SE	
Statements	Stat	Stat	Stat	Stat	SE	Stat
Road network improved in the locality	358	4.48	.672	-1.467	.129	3.589
Water availability for community	358	3.96	1.009	-1.057	.129	.735
Improved school facilities	358	3.40	1.040	-.399	.129	-.414
Power connectivity improved	358	4.02	.639	-.213	.129	.105
Security lights enabled	358	3.65	.855	-.486	.129	.286
Facilitate social services (water, dispensaries, schools)	358	2.64	1.140	.483	.129	-.465
Valid N (listwise)	358					

The impact of MGHs on the local communities' physical assets and the interview findings revealed that the MGHs had strongly supported the growth of infrastructure in the area. Notable physical asset which was improved courtesy of the MGHs is the road network. The roads leading to the guesthouses ended up benefiting members of the local communities immensely. The good roads courtesy of the MGHs further supported tourism developments in the area as more and more guests found it easy to access the area even for day visitors. Also, the good roads courtesy of the MGHs have assisted the business community by facilitating mobility in the area. Some of the respondents said:

“Initially, we used to transport our maize and vegetables to the market using donkeys, we are happy that with this road made by the mission, we can now use lorries. We reach the market early and with more produce as compared with when we used donkeys. Much appreciation to the missionary” (HH-MGH3)

“We (MGH) have literary opened up this area. Before the guesthouse, there was no road from the main road to this area. When the missionary came and was allocated this land by the community, he begun by making this good road and as you can see today, the road is one of the best. The neighbors around are now enjoying the good road. If this guesthouse was not cited here, then there would be no road. Also, recently when rural electrification came, the guesthouse was the first to be connected from the main line and then the neighbor now are enjoying it but had it not been because of the guesthouse, individuals would not be able to do get it easily” (MA- MGH2)

4.5.4.5 Human Assets

Social assets revealed that MGH strengthen social bonding among community members by uniting them ($M=2.98$, $SD=1.09$), improved access to social services ($M=2.75$, $SD=1.019$), positively develop relationships ($M=3.51$, $SD=0.945$), inculcate good values that positively impact on community development ($M=3.69$, $SD=0.965$), impacted on management of social organizations ($M=4.13$, $SD=0.564$), ensure local tourism is owned and controlled by local communities ($M=4.06$, $SD=0.572$) and presented local communities with opportunities for host-guest interactions ($M=2.83$, $SD=0.828$). The mean scores suggest moderate level of agreement with the statements. The standard deviations indicate variability in responses. The skewness indicates some slightly right-leaning and others left-leaning distribution, and the kurtosis suggests a relatively flat and others moderately peaked distribution.

Table 4.20 (e): Descriptive Statistics for Social assets (sustainable livelihoods)

Statements	N	Mean	SD	Dev	Skewness	Kurtosis
	Stat	Stat	Stat	Stat	SE	Stat SE
Social bond in community-uniting them	358	2.98	1.09	.40	.129	-.550.257
Social services among local community	358	2.75	1.02	.60	.129	-.028.257
Relationships between local community	358	3.51	.94	-.91	.129	.434.257
Good values positive impact on community	358	3.69	.96	-.73	.129	.443.257
Management of social organizations	358	4.13	.56	-.26	.129	1.268.257
Owned and controlled by the local communities	358	4.06	.57	-.63	.129	2.532.257
Host-guest interaction	358	2.83	.82	.80	.129	.096.257
Valid N (listwise)	358					

Tourism is a social phenomenon and when examined from the social dimension, it emerged that the MGHs impacted positively on the local communities' social assets. The MGHs provided opportunities for social interactions between members of the local community and guests. This interaction led to exchange of knowledge and appreciation of cultures among the interacting parties. In addition, the interview findings revealed that the MGHs had built strong harmony among members of the guesthouse sponsoring church owing the guesthouse and a disharmony between inter-church members of the community. Members of the local community who are not members of the guesthouse sponsoring church felt excluded from the direct benefits of the guesthouse but strongly agreed that they were not excluded from the water, health and education facilities built by the MGHs.

“Since when the first missionary’ arrived here, we have worked with them so well. We have interacted immensely. Even when their mission terms come to an end and they go, they will still refer the new ones to us. Our interaction has been beneficial to us and them. We have taught them our language and we have too learned basics of their language. Some of them now preach in our local language”
(HH-MGH3)

“.....these people (guesthouse management committee) are not good. Imagine our children don’t get their bursaries and uniforms, but we share the water, our children go to the school without a

problem...and also, we get treatment in their dispensary here....”
(HH-MGH2)

Table 4.21: Summary of interview on the impacts of MGHs as CBT on livelihoods assets

Region	Livelihood Assets				
	Financial Assets	Human Assets	Physical Assets	Natural Assets	Social Assets
Central Pokot	Donations from philanthropic GH guests Local youth church earning by offering tour guiding services	On the job training for GH staffs from the local communities	The community through their church owns the GH Supporting the development of road network leading to the GH	Connection of piped water for the community, social amenities and GHs	Enhanced community cohesiveness through churches
South Pokot	Members of the local community supplying to GH gift shops	On the job training for GHs staff from the local communities	Supporting building of schools, health facilities among others		
West Pokot	Guesthouses sourcing vegetables, eggs from surrounding communities	On the job training for GHs staff from the local communities Training women and youth on entrepreneurship skills	Supporting the development of road network leading to the GH	Establishment of model kitchen gardens as demonstration farms for the local community	Organized GH management committees
North Pokot	Philanthropy remittances increasing household incomes	On the job training for GHs staff from the local communities Supporting education through offering bursaries, building schools among other support	Supporting the development of road network leading to the GH	Sponsoring and overseeing water drilling/harvesting and conservation measures	

Source: Survey data, 2017

4.5.5 Socio-Economic Benefits

This sub-section presents data on economic and social economic benefits of tourism.

4.5.5.1 Economic benefits of MGHs to households

Economic benefits remain the single most reason why communities, destinations and countries pursue tourism developments. Evidence exists of communities and destinations that have positively transformed their economic well-being as a result of opening up their areas for tourism developments. Further, economic benefit accruals stand at the centre of the local communities' support or rejection of tourism developments in their localities. It is out of this context that this study sought to find out the local communities' perceptions of the economic impact of the MGHs in their localities. The respondents were provided with nine statements to respond.

The statistics provide information on the responses to items related to various aspects of economic development and empowerment perceived by the local community. Employment is created for local community members by MGHs (M=4.02), market created (M=4.13), household incomes increased by MGHs (M=3.40), local infrastructure network improved (M=4.06), standard of living improved (M=4.13), tourism development linkages with local economic (M=4.02), creation of new income streams (M=3.92), stimulated and empowered household entrepreneurial character (M=3.40). The average score for items attained higher scores indicating stronger agreement with the statements. Standard deviation which measures the dispersion or spread of scores around the mean were low values indicating that responses are clustered closely around the mean, while higher values indicate greater variability. A skewness and kurtosis values suggest a slightly leftward skewed and heavy-tailed distribution (Table 4.23).

Table 4.22: Descriptive Statistics Perceived economic benefits of MGHs to Households

Statements	N	Mean	Std. Dev	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Stat	Stat	Stat	Stat	SE	Stat	SE
Employment opportunities for local community	358	4.022	.6391	-.213	.129	.105	.257
Market created for our local produce	358	4.134	.5640	-.260	.129	1.268	.257
Household incomes	358	3.402	1.0399	-.399	.129	-.414	.257
Local infrastructure network	358	4.056	.5722	-.626	.129	2.532	.257
Standards of living	358	4.134	.5640	-.260	.129	1.268	.257
Linkages with our local economic sectors	358	4.022	.6391	-.213	.129	.105	.257
New income streams in our locality	358	3.916	.7051	-.845	.129	1.876	.257
Empowered local community entrepreneurial character	358	3.402	1.0399	-.399	.129	-.414	.257
Valid N (listwise)	358						

5=Strongly Agree (SA), 4=Agree (A); 3=Neutral (N); 2=Disagree (D); 3=Strongly Disagree (SD)

Source: Survey Data, 2017

Interviews conducted to get views on the economic benefits derived by the local community from MGHs elicited the following responses:

“In a region like ours where no much employment opportunities have been created by the local tourism sector; we appreciate the kind of opportunities created by the MGHs in their respective localities. At least members of the local communities around these facilities have been engaged in one way or the other by the guesthouses, and in the end, they earn some money in form of wages and salaries” (CTO)

“In fact even the unskilled members of the local community still find some manual jobs within these facilities. We applaud them and encourage all the churches to open up such facilities especially in the peripheries where accommodation services remain a challenge” (CECM)

“Since when the missionary lived and worked in these areas, the local communities were given priority in terms of employment, sponsorship and even businesses where they are given chance to supply items to the guesthouse. The economic benefits there largely accrued to the local communities (those living adjacent to the villages hosting the guesthouse). The local community therefore benefit by way of being employed in the guesthouse and also by being given priority to supply items to the guesthouse. For instance, most breakfast items like cassava, sweet potatoes and green maize

are sourced locally here. These initiatives have now supplemented their incomes and livelihoods”, (MA-MGH3)

“.....sincerely, the coming into operation of the guesthouse where people work for pay has really changed how community used to provide labour. In the past, youths would work for the community projects without complaining or absenting themselves, but nowadays, they don't offer their labour for communities' good...”(MA-MGH9)

“I worked at the MGH during the early constructions and I used my earning to open this canteen...through this, I have educated my children and I live well with my family now. My life changed for the better thanks to the earning I got from the MGHs” (HH-MGH7)

4.5.5.2 Social Benefits of MGHs to Households

Tourism developments especially if not well planned and managed can lead to negative social impact upon the destination community. Evidence exists of destinations and communities' whose social fabric has been ruined by tourism development in the area. However, there is also evidence recorded in tourism literature of cases where tourism development could translate to positive social transformation of the local community members. From tourism literature, community awareness of the likely social impacts of tourism in their localities could be step towards managing these impacts by enhancing the positive social impacts and minimizing the negative social impacts of tourism developments upon the destination's communities. This study sought to find out the perceptions of the local communities' members in West Pokot County regarding the social impacts of MGHs on the local communities. Seven statements were presented on a likert scale where 5=strongly agree; 4=agree; 3 neutral; 2=disagree and 1=strongly disagree. The results of these statements are presented in table 4.23.

The statistics provide information on the responses to items related to various aspects of economic development and empowerment perceived by the local community.

MGHs bring visitors closer to the community (M=4.07, SD=0.575), health services (M=4.04, SD=0.576), maintain post-visit contact with guests to MGHs (M=4.14, SD=0.626), cultural exchange between local people and visitors (M=3.94, SD=0.681), contributed to re-vitalization of local culture, arts and crafts (M=4.17, SD=0.662), support establishment of local schools improving literacy levels (M=4.03, SD=0.688) and enhanced social cohesion among local community (M=4.04, SD=0.576). The mean score indicate agreement with the statements. The low standard deviation (0.57519) suggests that responses are relatively consistent. The skewness and kurtosis values suggest distributions close to normal.

Table 4.23: Descriptive Statistics for Perceived Social Benefits of MGHs to Households

	N	Mean	Std. Dev	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Stat	Stat	Stat	Stat	SE	Stat	SE
Visitors are brought closer to us	358	4.073	.5752	.002	.129	-.001	.257
Health services closer to us	358	4.042	.5758	.001	.129	.025	.257
Post-visit contact with guests to MGHs	358	4.143	.6256	-.457	.129	.926	.257
Cultural exchange with local and MGH guests	358	3.936	.6809	-.455	.129	.550	.257
Revitalization of local culture, arts and crafts	358	4.170	.6623	-.202	.129	-.751	.257
Schools in locality improving literacy	358	4.025	.6876	-.032	.129	-.875	.257
Social cohesion among community members	358	4.036	.5762	.001	.129	.025	.257
Valid N (listwise)	358						

Opinions sort from MGHs managers regarding the benefits that accrue to the local communities indicated that the MGHs support the economic empowerment of the local communities especially women by creating different economic opportunities. This is well captured by one MGH manager who had this to say;

“Initially, most women in this area worked in their farms to feed their families. Today, we buy from them some of their produce like fruits and millet flour when we have a big number of guests. We also sell for them their artifacts. In that way, money trickles down to them from the guesthouse. Those who supply us with firewood and charcoal also get something to buy food for their families. Those who cultivate traditional vegetables have ready market with us. Most of our guests love the traditional vegetables and that is why we source from the local communities quite a lot. We also source for milk from the local communities to make tea. In addition, the MGH trains members of the local communities on business skills”, (MA-MGH8)

Tourism developments have at times come into collision with the local communities’ way of life. The local communities’ opinion on whether the MGHs in the locality infringe on their values and way of life. All the managers interviewed had no reservations on their activities of the MGHs unlike other lodging facilities in the area. Their approval sentiments are well captured by the statement by one guesthouse manager who had this to say:

“We know what happens in other lodging facilities and night clubs around, but this is a Christian based facility, our operations are guided by norms and values of the bible, and the local communities have never registered any complain with our activities and operations. We are also parents here, the management committee members are parents as well, our activities are in agreement with the values and way of life of the local community here”, (MA-MGH4)

The MGHs management committees’ opinions on the overall socio-economic benefits accruing to local communities from the guesthouses were sought. The dominant opinion from the MGHs management committees is that cumulatively, the MGHs contribute to socio-economic development.

“Generally, MGHs have created opportunities for economic diversification in our locality, people especially women and youths are now taking up opportunities in tourism. Local youths are taking up tour guiding opportunities; they take tourist up the mountains for hiking and sightseeing” (FGD-MGMC3)

“MGHs in our area have enabled us to understand ways of hosting visitors and benefiting from them; our entrepreneurship initiatives have been developed thanks to the presence of the MGHs in our area. We have also known how to make beads and other items to be sold to tourist. Initially, we have no idea if these beads and wood carvings could be sold” (FGD-MGMC7)

“The workshops sponsored by the guesthouse have taught us how to cook and serve visitors. We are now able to serve senior people through the skills we get from the MGHs workshops. Due to the MGHs in this area, boreholes have been drilled and water connected for the local community. That is, the overall infrastructure in the areas leading to the guesthouses has been done and great assisted the local communities as well” (FGD-MGMC1)

“The fact that whenever they have guests, the guesthouse here invites our traditional dancers to perform is a good thing; this has really given meaning to our cultural traditional groupings. Missionary’ guesthouse guests also benefit the local communities around here especially when they make donations which are channeled through the guesthouse committee. They also donate towards community projects such as schools, churches, and dispensary and water projects among others” (FGD-MGMC5)

4.5.6 Impacts of the MGHs on local communities’ lifestyles

The interviews also sought to establish the impact of the MGHs on the local communities’ lifestyle. The interview findings revealed majority of the local community members believe that the MGH in their localities positively improve their lifestyles. These improvements are as a result of the benefits that accrue to them from the operations of the guesthouses.

“The ability of the guesthouse to create an additional income stream other than from pastoralist and subsistence agriculture makes it strategic to community lifestyle improvements” (HH-MGH8)

The interview responses were therefore positive especially among the staffs, the church members and those closely benefiting from the activities of the MGHs. Most members of the local communities who were not members of the sponsoring church had reservations about the impact of the guesthouse on their lifestyles. The introduction of paid labour by the MGHs in these communities completely worked against the traditional social order where community members provided labour to

community projects without pay. This has somehow weakened the communities' social bonding and cohesion which was initially strengthened by the free provision of community service.

4.5.7 Challenges faced by MGHs

The study also sought to know from the MGH managers regarding the kind of challenges affecting the day-to-day operations. One of the main challenges identified is lack of regular visitors to these facilities. At times, the guesthouse goes unoccupied. This affects their operations since at the end of the month, they must pay for staffs and other operating costs of the guesthouse.

“Yes, one of the main challenges affecting our operations is the underutilization of the facility. When we don't receive guests, it becomes a problem because we lose money. We need assistance in terms of marketing so that we can have visitors the entire month” (MA-MGH7)

“To me, the challenge with the MGHs is that since they are owned by respective churches, they benefit members of the respective church and locks out members who are not enjoying the benefits. In bursaries, first priority goes to children of the church members. Tourism benefits are skewed in favour of the church members. Those who don't go to church or in other churches other than the missionary guesthouse parent church are not benefiting” (MA-MGH8)

“The main challenge facing our operations as MGHs is that we are not well connected with tourism source markets. Efforts should be done to ensure that proper marketing of these guesthouses since they support rural tourisms” (MA-MGH4)

Other managers talked about challenges of accommodation and the geographical location and said:

“Another challenge affecting our operations is the impromptu guests. At times, our guests we would want to book for accommodation may not succeed in getting to us. The network here is a challenge. So at times, they may come thinking that they will secure accommodation here, but when they arrive and the place is

full, they leave dissatisfied. Such guest may not come again” (MA-MGH5)

“The main challenge facing our guesthouse here is its geographical location. It is located far away from the main trading centre. Guests therefore prefer to look for accommodation in the trading centre as opposed to travelling all the way to this facility yet we offer the best services here” (MA-MGH3)

Another manager mention about poor linkage and networks and said:

“Our main challenge is poor linkage to the market. We do not have a robust marketing campaign to popularize the guesthouses. Apart from the networks created through the church, there are no other robust mechanisms put in place by the County and national governments to market these guesthouses. There are times when we do not have guests for up to like one month” (MA-MGH2)

4.6 Inferential Statistics

This section presents the assumptions of multiple regression such as normality, linearity, Homogeneity multicollinearity and autocorrelation. Multiple linear regression model is presented, ANOVA and coefficients for community-based tourism and sustainable livelihoods. The hypothesis results are presented on the effect of local participation, activities and programs and rural tourism on sustainable livelihoods. Process Macro tested the moderating effect of guest satisfaction on the relationship between community-based tourism and sustainable livelihoods.

4.6.1 Assumptions of Multiple Linear Regression

The study postulated that community-based tourism influences sustainable livelihoods. Regression analysis was therefore used to test the posited direct relationships between community-based tourism and sustainable livelihoods. Prior to running the tests, assumptions of regressions were first examined. It is argued that regression analysis and more so multiple regressions works best on the basis of certain assumptions (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013).

4.6.1.1 Normality

Normality in distributions of data across the constructs was examined using the quantile – quantile (Q-Q) plots. Cramer and Howitt (2004), identify normality of distributions as a pre-requisite for conducting multivariate analysis of the type of regression analysis. Loy, Follett and Hofman (2015) observe that Q-Q plots have the ability to point out non-normal features of distributions, making them more suitable for testing normality. In the Q-Q plot, normality is achieved if plotted data representing a given variable follow a diagonal line usually produced by a normal distribution. Local participation in MGHs of households was conceptualized as the first independent variable. The normal Q-Q plot displayed in figure 4.5 indicates that data dots stayed alongside the diagonal throughout the distribution. Local participation data therefore followed a normal distribution.

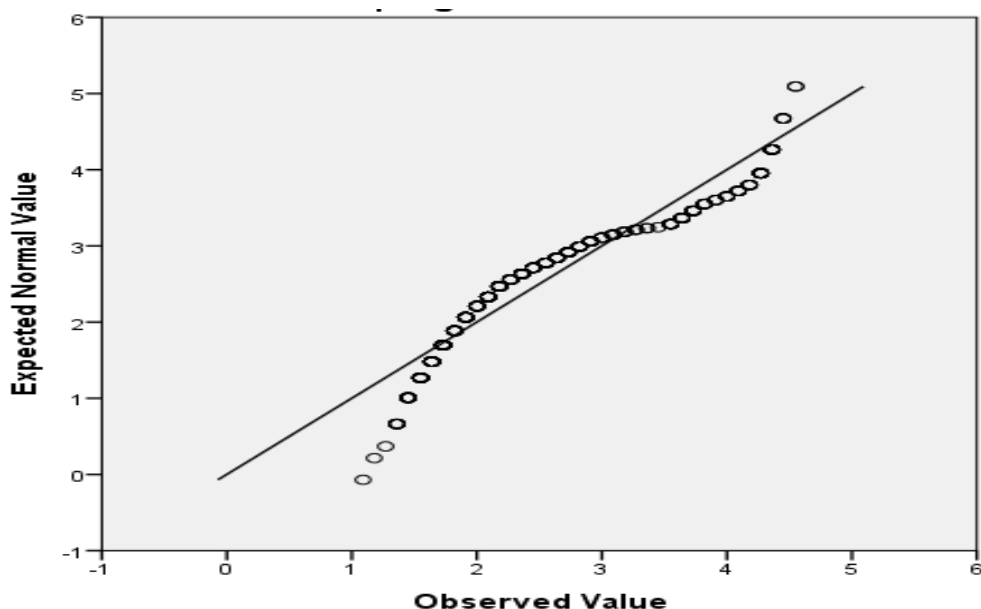


Figure 4.5: Q-Q Plot of Local Participation in MGH

Activities and programs of CBT was the second independent variable that was deemed to have influence on sustainable livelihoods in West Pokot County. The normal Q-Q plot of the CBT activities and programs distribution indicated that

normality assumption was not violated (Figure 4.6). The data dots stayed close to the diagonal line.

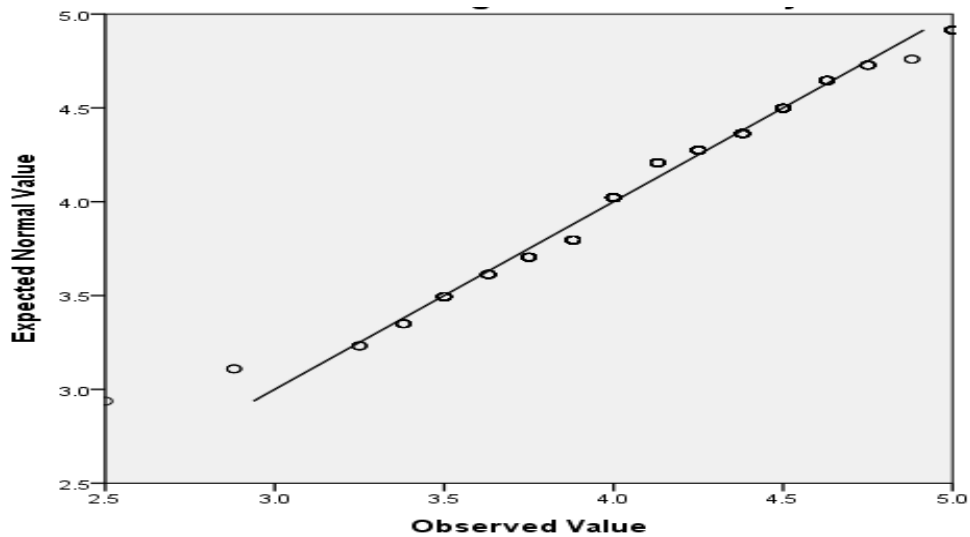


Figure 4.6: Q-Q PLOT for Activities and Programmes

Rural tourism was identified as an essential community-based tourism dimension with ability to influence sustainable livelihoods in West Pokot County. The normal Q-Q plot shows that data dots were largely along the diagonal line, which signifies that data distribution for Rural tourism was normal (Figure 4.7).

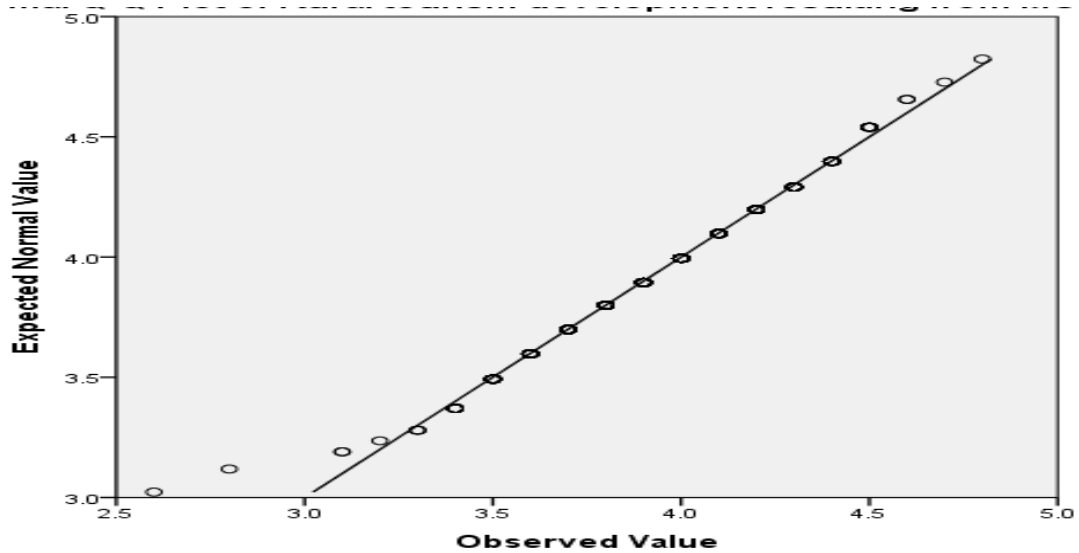


Figure 4.7: Q-Q Plot of Rural tourism

Sustainable Livelihoods was conceptualized as the dependent variable. The normal Q-Q plot displayed in Figure 4.8 indicates that data dots stayed alongside the diagonal throughout the distribution. Sustainable Livelihoods data therefore followed a normal distribution.

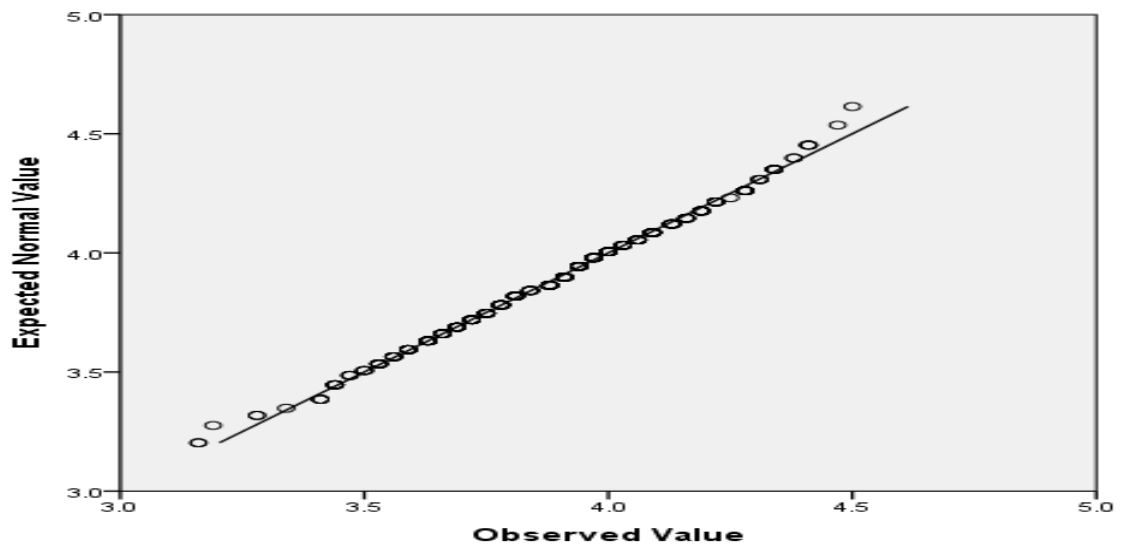


Figure 4.8: Q-Q Plot for Sustainable Livelihoods

4.6.1.2 Linearity – Scatter Plots

The Bivariate Scatter plots were used to examine the degree of linear relationship among the study variables. Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) recognize linearity as one of the assumptions upon which regression analysis is pegged. Linearity among variables was confirmed. Figure 4.9 indicates that linearity assumption for the three independent variables under study was not violated.

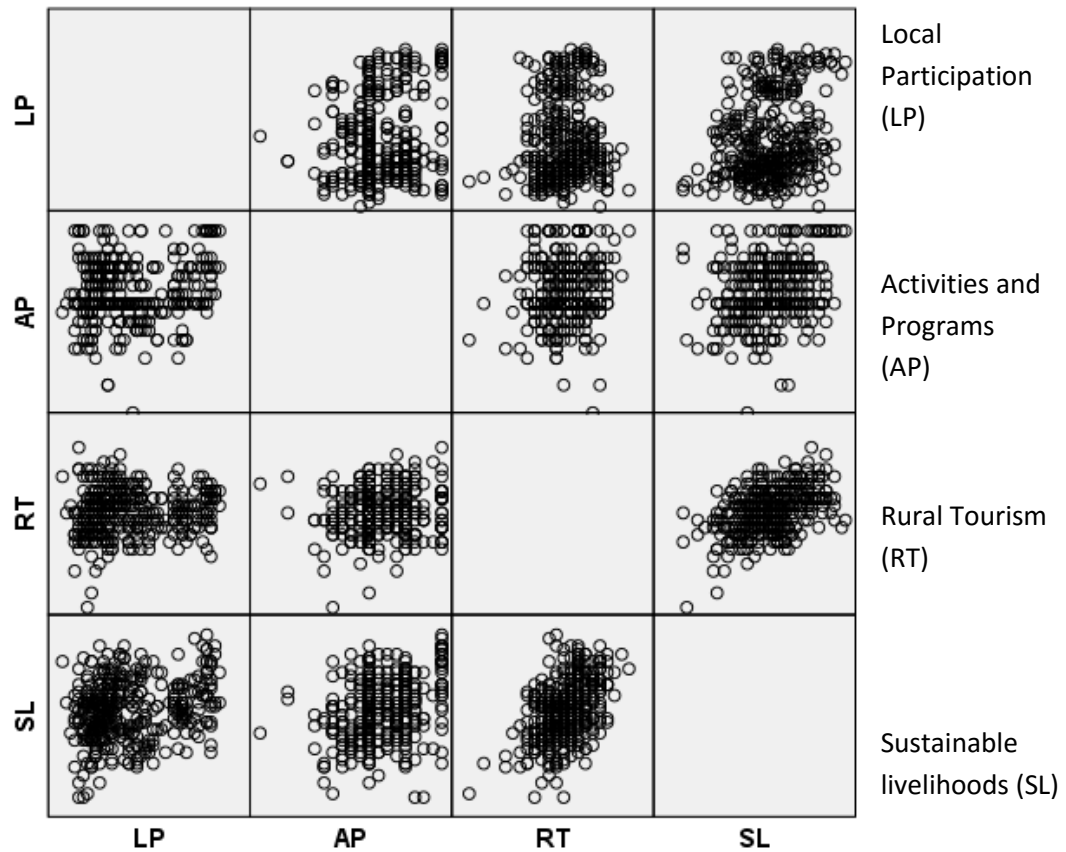


Figure 4.9: Linear relationship of variables

4.6.1.3 Testing for Homogeneity of Variances

Homogeneity of variances was tested using Levene statistics of the four constructs. Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) observe that homogeneity of variances relates to the assumption that variability in the scores of one continuous variable is roughly the same at all values of another continuous variable. Using the 5% level of significant the study tested whether the scores in community- based tourism was the same across sustainable livelihoods. Results shown in Table 4.24 reveal that all the Levene statistics were not significant ($p > 0.05$). The homogeneity of variances assumption was not violated.

Table 4.24: Test of Homogeneity of Variances

	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Local Participation	1.617	14	338	.073
Activities and Programs	1.323	14	338	.191
Rural tourism	1.219	15	341	.255
Sustainable Livelihoods	.613	14	338	.854

Source: Data analysis, (2024)

4.6.1.4 Testing for Multicollinearity

Multicollinearity assumption was tested using the Statistic-Collin instruction in SPSS. Tabachnick and Fidell, (2013), note that multicollinearity relates to the correlation matrix resulting from variables that are highly correlated. The collinearity statistics (Table 4.26) indicated that none of the dimensions (rows) contained more than one variance proportion above 0.50. Multicollinearity assumption was therefore not violated. The Collinearity Diagnostics table provides information on the eigenvalues, condition indices, and variance proportions for each dimension of the model. These diagnostics assess multicollinearity among predictor variables.

Table 4.25: Collinearity Diagnostics^a

		Variance Proportions					
		Condition		Activities			
Model	Dimension	Eigenvalue	Index	(Constant)	Local Participation	and Programs	Rural tourism
1	1	3.908	1.000	.00	.01	.00	.00
	2	.082	6.918	.00	.98	.01	.01
	3	.008	22.777	.02	.01	.82	.26
	4	.003	37.893	.97	.00	.17	.73

a. Dependent Variable: Sustainable Livelihoods from MGHs

Similarly, multicollinearity is tested using variance inflation factor (VIF) for each independent variable, and a VIF value greater than 1.5 suggest multicollinearity. The rule of thumb for a VIF value should be less than ten and tolerance should be greater

than 0.2 (Keith, 2006; Shieh, 2010). This was also supported by the VIF value, which fall below 2 and the least tolerance of 0.2, which is well below the cut-off of 10 and 0.2 respectively. Therefore, there is no violation of the multicollinearity assumption has not been violated. Table 4.26 results showed that all the VIF values for Local participation (1.037), CBT activities and programs (1.047) and Rural tourism (1.014) below the threshold indicating that multicollinearity was not an issue in the study. The collinearity statistics, tolerance, and VIF (Variance Inflation Factor) help assess the multicollinearity among predictor variables in a regression model. Overall, the tolerance values are close to 1, and the VIF values are close to 1 as well, suggesting that there is no significant multicollinearity among the predictor variables in the model.

Table 4.26: Collinearity Statistics

Model	Collinearity Statistics	
	Tolerance	VIF
1		
(Constant)		
Local Participation	.964	1.037
Activities and Programs	.955	1.047
Rural tourism	.986	1.014

a. Dependent Variable: Sustainable Livelihoods

4.6.1.5 Testing for Independence of Errors

Independence of errors was tested using the Durbin–Watson (DW) statistics. According to Hair *et al.*, (2013), regression analysis assumes that regression residuals are independent of one another. In retrospect, a Durbin–Watson statistic in the range $1.5 \leq d \leq 2.5$ suggests lack of autocorrelation (Verbeek, 2012). Results in the model summary (Table 4.27) confirms that the Durbin–Watson statistics for the three independent variables was 1.716 which was within the range $1.5 \leq d \leq 2.5$, an indication of lack of autocorrelation.

4.6.2 Multiple Linear Regression Analysis

Multiple regression analysis was used to analyze causal relationship between a dependent variable and three predictor variables (Hair *et al.*, 2006). The regression coefficient summary was used to explain the nature of the relationship between all the independent variables and the dependent. Based on the multiple regression model the coefficient of determination $R^2 = 0.312$ showing that 31.2% of the variation in sustainable livelihoods can be explained by community-based tourism as summarized in Table 4.27. The adjusted R square of 0.306 depicts that all the community-based tourism in exclusion of the constant variable explained the variation in sustainable livelihoods by 30.6% the remaining percentage can be explained by other factors excluded from the model. Three null hypotheses were tested using multiple linear regression. The results indicated that all the three hypotheses were not supported.

Table 4.27: Model Summaryb

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	R Square Change	Change Statistics				Sig. F Change	Durbin-Watson
						F Change	df1	df2			
1	.558 ^a	.312	.306	.20799	.312	53.392	3	354		.001	1.716

a. Predictors: (Constant), Rural tourism, Local Participation, Activities and Programs

b. Dependent Variable: Sustainable Livelihoods

The ANOVA results on table 4.28 further confirms that the conceptualized multiple linear regression model for sustainable livelihoods on community-based tourism was statistically valid. The regression coefficient was definitely not zero ($F_{3, 354} = 53.392$, $p < 0.05$).

Table 4.28: ANOVA^a

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	6.929	3	2.310	53.392	.001 ^b
Residual	15.314	354	.043		
Total	22.243	357			

a. Dependent Variable: Sustainable Livelihoods

b. Predictors: (Constant), Rural tourism, Local Participation, CBT Activities and Programs

The β coefficients for community-based tourism as independent variable were generated from the model, in order to test the hypotheses of the study. The t-test was used to identify whether community-based tourism dimensions as a predictor was making a significant contribution to the model. Table 4.29 gave the estimates of β -value and the contribution of each predictor to the model.

Table 4.29: Coefficients^a

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		Correlations		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Zero-order	Partial Part
1 (Constant)	1.859	.169		11.028	.001		
Local Participation	.052	.012	.190	4.232	.001	.256	.219
Activities and Programs	.130	.026	.221	4.900	.001	.304	.252
Rural tourism	.344	.036	.425	9.562	.001	.461	.453

β -value for local participation, activities and programs and rural tourism all had a positive coefficient, depicting positive relationship with sustainable livelihoods as summarized in the model as:

$$Y = 1.858 + 0.052X_1 + 0.130X_2 + 0.344X_3 + \varepsilon$$

Where:

Y = Sustainable Livelihoods, X_1 = Local Participation, X_2 = Activities and Programs, X_3 = Rural tourism and ε = error term

4.6.3 Hypothesis Testing

To determine the influence of sustainable livelihoods on community-based tourism, the researcher used multiple regression analysis to test the three hypotheses of the

study. The decision rule for testing this hypothesis was reject H_0 if $p < 0.05$ or do not reject if otherwise.

Hypothesis H₀₁: Local participation has no effect on sustainable livelihoods

The study proposed that there was no significant effect of local participation on sustainable livelihoods in MGHs in West Pokot County, Kenya. To test this hypothesis, the local participation variable was regressed on the sustainable livelihoods variable. Hypothesis H_{01} presupposed that local participation does not affect sustainable livelihoods in West Pokot County.

The study findings depicted that there was a positive significant effect of local participation on sustainable livelihoods ($\beta_1 = 0.052$ and $p = 0.001$). Therefore, a rise in local participation leads to an increase in sustainable livelihoods. Since the $p < 0.05$ the null hypothesis (**H₀₁**) was rejected. Therefore, it can be concluded that local participation had a significant effect on sustainable livelihoods. This implies that for every increase in local participation, there is a resultant corresponding improvement in sustainable livelihood.

Hypothesis H₀₂: Activities and Programs do not affect sustainable livelihoods in WPC

The study proposed that there was no significant effect of Activities and Programs on sustainable livelihoods in MGHs in West Pokot County, Kenya. To test this hypothesis, the CBT Activities and programs variable was regressed on the sustainable livelihoods variable. Hypothesis H_{02} presupposed that activities and programs do not affect sustainable livelihoods in West Pokot County. The study findings depicted that there was a positive significant effect of activities and programs on sustainable livelihoods ($\beta_2 = 0.130$ and $p = 0.001$). Therefore, a rise in activities and

programs lead to an increase in sustainable livelihoods. Since the $p < 0.05$ the null hypothesis (**H₀₂**) was rejected. Therefore, it can be concluded that activities and programs had a significant effect on sustainable livelihoods. This implies that for every increase in activities and program, there is a resultant corresponding improvement in sustainable livelihood.

Hypothesis H₀₃: Rural tourism does not affect sustainable livelihoods in West Pokot County

The study proposed that there was no significant effect of rural tourism on sustainable livelihoods in MGHs in West Pokot County, Kenya. To test this hypothesis, rural tourism variable was regressed on the sustainable livelihoods variable. Hypothesis H₀₃ presupposed that rural tourism does not affect sustainable livelihoods in West Pokot County. The study findings depicted that there was a positive significant effect of rural tourism on sustainable livelihoods ($\beta_3=0.344$ and $p=0.001$). Therefore, a rise in rural tourism leads to an increase in sustainable livelihoods. Since the $p < 0.05$ the null hypothesis (**H₀₃**) was rejected. Therefore, it can be concluded that rural tourism had a significant effect on sustainable livelihoods. This implies that for every increase in rural tourism, there is a resultant corresponding improvement in sustainable livelihood.

Table 4.30: Summary of Hypotheses Test Results

<u>Hypothesis</u>	<u>β – value</u>		<u>– value</u> Results
H₀₁ : Local participation has no effect on sustainable livelihoods in West Pokot County	0.052	.001	Not supported
H₀₂ : Activities and programs has no effect on sustainable livelihoods in West Pokot County	0.130	.001	Not supported
H₀₃ : Rural tourism has no effect on sustainable livelihoods in West Pokot County	0.344	.001	Not supported

Source: Data Analysis, (2024)

4.6.4 Process Macro Analysis

Process Macro was used to determine the moderating effect of guest satisfaction on the relationship between community-based tourism and sustainable livelihoods in MGHs in West Pokot County, Kenya. Moderation analysis was used in testing whether the magnitude of a variable effect on some outcome variable of interest depends on a third variable or set of variables. Specification of model 1 results in the estimation of a moderation model with a single moderator of the effect of X on Y (by W). PROCESS also offered an output option which aided in the construction of a visual representation of the interaction between community-based tourism and guest satisfaction. These values were plugged into the graphing program to generate a visual depiction of the interaction.

H_{04a}: Moderating effect of guest satisfaction on the relationship between local participation and sustainable livelihoods

A multiple regression model was used to investigate whether there was an association between local participation and sustainable livelihoods moderated by guest satisfaction in MGHs. After centering local participation and guest satisfaction and computing the interaction term of local participation and sustainable livelihoods (Aiken & West, 1991), the two predictors and the interaction were entered into a simultaneous regression model.

PROCESS also displays the proportion of the total variance in the outcome uniquely attributable to the interaction, as well as a test of significance, in the section of output labeled — R^2 increase due to interaction. This is equivalent to the change in R^2 when the product is added to the model, $R^2 = .0266$, $F(3,151) = 1.3735$, $p = .2531$ ($>.005$) as

summarized in table 4.31. Together, the variables accounted for approximately 2.7% of the variance in sustainable livelihoods.

Table 4.31: Model Summary for LC, guest satisfaction & sustainable livelihoods

Model Summary						
	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2
	.1630	.0266	.0790	1.3735	3.0000	151.0000
	p					
	.2531					
Model						
	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	3.8487	.0226	170.2550	.0000	3.8041	3.8934
LocPar	.0714	.0458	1.5588	.1211	-.0191	.1619
GueSat	.0948	.0757	1.2518	.2126	-.0548	.2445
Int_1	-.0706	.1523	-.4637	.6436	-.3715	.2303
Product terms key:						
Int_1	:	LocPar	x	GueSat		

Results indicated that guest satisfaction ($\beta=.0948$, $SE=.0757$, $p=.2126$) and local participation ($\beta=.0714$, $SE=.0458$, $p=.1211$) were not significantly associated with sustainable livelihoods in MGHs. The interaction between local participation and guest satisfaction was not significant ($\beta = -.706$, $p=.6436$), suggesting that the effect of local participation on sustainable livelihoods depended on guest satisfaction. Of primary focus in moderation model is the coefficient for the product of the independent variable and the moderator and its test of significance.

When the interaction term between local participation and guest satisfaction was added to the regression model, it accounted for a non-significant proportion of the variance in sustainable livelihoods in MGHs with R^2 Change = .0014, change in $F(1, 151) = .2150$, $p=.6436>.05$ as summarized in table 4.32. Therefore, the null hypothesis H_{O4a} was not rejected.

Table 4.32: Conditional Interactions LP*GS*SL

Test(s) of highest order unconditional interaction(s):					
	R2-chng	F	df1	df2	p
X*W	.0014	.2150	1.0000	151.0000	.6436

Focal predict: LocPar (X)					
Mod var: GueSat (W)					

The regression coefficient of interaction between local participation and guest satisfaction on sustainable livelihoods in MGHs was not significant. Hypothesis H_{04a} stated that guest satisfaction does not moderate the relationship between local participation and sustainable livelihoods in MGHs. The results led to acceptance of the hypothesis H_{04a}. This confirmed that guest satisfaction does not moderate the relationship between local participation and sustainable livelihoods in MGHs.

H_{04b}: Moderating effect of guest satisfaction on the relationship between activities and programs and sustainable livelihoods

PROCESS displayed the proportion of the total variance in the outcome uniquely attributable to the interaction, as well as a test of significance. R-square increase due to interaction and this was equivalent to the change in R^2 when the product is added to the model, $R^2 = .0268$, $F(3,151)=1.3881$, $p=.2486 > 0.05$ as summarized in table 4.33. Together, the variables accounted for approximately 2.7% of the variance in sustainable livelihoods.

Table 4.33: Model Summary activities/programs, guest satisfaction & sustainable livelihoods

Model Summary						
	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2
	.1638	.0268	.0790	1.3881	3.0000	151.0000
						p
						.2486
Model						
	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	3.8493	.0226	170.4721	.0000	3.8047	3.8939
ActsProg	.0930	.0548	1.6976	.0916	-.0152	.2012
GueSat	.0849	.0741	1.1459	.2537	-.0615	.2314
Int_1	.0459	.1862	.2465	.8057	-.3220	.4138
Product terms key:						
Int_1	:	ActsProg x	GueSat			

Results indicated that activities and programs ($\beta=.0930$, $SE=.0548$, $p=.0916$) and guest satisfaction ($\beta=.0849$, $SE=.0741$, $p=.2537$) were not significantly associated with sustainable livelihoods in MGHs. The interaction between activities and programs and guest satisfaction was not significant ($\beta=.0459$, $p=.8057$), suggesting that the effect of activities and programs on sustainable livelihoods was not depended on guest satisfaction.

Of primary focus in a moderation model is the coefficient for the product of the independent variable and the moderator and its test of significance. When the interaction term between activities and programs and guest satisfaction was added to the regression model, which accounted for a non-significant proportion of the variance in sustainable livelihoods in MGHs, R^2 Change=.0004, change in $F(1, 151) = .0607$, $p=.8057 > .05$ as summarized in Table 4.34. The outcome of this test is the same as that for the test of the null hypothesis that the regression coefficient for the product is not equals zero. Therefore, the null hypothesis H_{O4b} failed to be rejected.

Table 4.34: Conditional Interactions AP*GS*SL

Test(s) of highest order unconditional interaction(s):					
	R2-chng	F	df1	df2	p
X*W	.0004	.0607	1.0000	151.0000	.8057

Focal predict: ActsProg (X)					
Mod var: GueSat (W)					

H_{04c}: Moderating effect of guest satisfaction on the relationship between Rural tourism and sustainable livelihoods

PROCESS also displayed the proportion of the total variance in the outcome uniquely attributable to the interaction, as well as a test of significance. R-square increase due to interaction and this was equivalent to the change in R^2 when the product is added to the model, $R^2 = .3190$, $F(3,151)=23.5814$, $p=0.0001 < .005$ as summarized in table

4.35. Together, the variables accounted for approximately 52% of the variance in sustainable livelihoods.

Table 4.35: Model Summary RTD, GS and SL

Model Summary						
	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2
	.5648	.3190	.0553	23.5814	3.0000	151.0000
	p					
	.0000					
Model						
	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	3.8501	.0190	202.8666	.0000	3.8126	3.8876
RuToDev	.4413	.0553	7.9809	.0000	.3320	.5505
GueSat	.0264	.0621	.4260	.6707	-.0962	.1491
Int_1	-.0731	.1579	-.4634	.6438	-.3851	.2388
Product terms key:						
Int_1	:	RuToDev	x	GueSat		

Results indicated that RTD ($\beta=.4413$, $SE=.0553$, $p=.0001$) and guest satisfaction ($\beta=.0264$, $SE=.0621$, $p=.6707$) were not significantly associated with sustainable livelihoods in MGHs. The interaction between rural tourism and guest satisfaction was not significant ($\beta= -.0731$, $p=.6438$), suggesting that the effect of RT on sustainable livelihoods was not depended on guest satisfaction.

When the interaction term between RT and guest satisfaction was added to the regression model, it accounted for a non-significant proportion of the variance in sustainable livelihoods in MGHs with R^2 Change=.0010, change in F (1, 151) = .2147, $p=.6438 > .05$ as summarized in table 4.36. The outcome of this test is the same as that for the test of the null hypothesis that the regression coefficient for the product is not equals zero. Therefore, the null hypothesis H_{04c} failed to be rejected.

Table 4.36: Conditional Interactions RTD*GS*SL

Test(s) of highest order unconditional interaction(s):				
	R2-chng	F	df1	df2
X*W	.0010	.2147	1.0000	151.0000
				p
				.6438

Focal predict: RuToDev (X)				
Mod var: GueSat (W)				

The regression coefficient of interaction between rural tourism and guest satisfaction on sustainable livelihoods in MGHs was not significant. The results led to failure to reject of the hypothesis H_{04c} . This confirmed that guest satisfaction buffered the relationship between rural tourism and sustainable livelihoods in MGHs

When the interactions were introduced into the analysis, the resulting model showed a significant relationship between local participation and sustainable livelihoods in MGHs. When the moderator was added the activities and programs as well as rural tourism there was no significant relationship with sustainable livelihoods in MGHs. This suggested that guest satisfaction had significant moderating effect on the relationship between local participation and sustainable livelihoods in MGHs. However, guest satisfaction buffers the relationship between activities and programs as well as rural tourism and sustainable livelihoods in MGHs.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, DISCUSSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

5.1 Introduction

The chapter presents the summary of findings, discussion, conclusions and recommendations based on the study objectives. The implications for theory and practice are presented as are recommendations for future studies.

5.2 Summary of Findings

The study evaluated the level of local community participation in tourism activities related to Missionary Guesthouses (MGHs) in West Pokot, finding active involvement in activities such as electing committees, hosting guests, entertaining visitors, and attending workshops. However, participation in selling items to guests was lower. Overall, there was a balanced distribution of participation across various activities, indicating strong community engagement in MGH-driven tourism. The study also tested the hypothesis that local participation does not significantly affect sustainable livelihoods, with findings showing a positive and significant effect, leading to the rejection of the null hypothesis. This suggests that increased local participation enhances sustainable livelihoods in the region. Interviews confirmed that local communities play an active role in the leadership of MGHs through elected management committees responsible for overseeing daily operations and contributing to the guesthouses' development and growth strategies.

Activities and programmes and sustainable livelihoods explored the alignment of Missionary Guesthouse (MGH) activities in West Pokot County with Community-Based Tourism (CBT) principles, using a Likert scale to assess local community

perceptions. The results indicated strong community ownership of MGHs, with positive views on their contributions to local businesses, socio-economic goals, capacity building, and tourism skills acquisition. There was also strong support for MGHs' role in promoting technology transfer and accountability to local stakeholders. The study also tested the hypothesis that MGH activities do not significantly impact sustainable livelihoods, finding a positive and significant effect, leading to the rejection of the null hypothesis. Interviews with MGH managers provided additional insights, revealing that the guesthouses facilitate community workshops to enhance leadership and accountability, with strong local ownership through church-based management committees. However, a challenge emerged as access to the guesthouses was largely restricted to members of the sponsoring church denomination, though non-members benefited from corporate social responsibility initiatives. The managers emphasized that MGHs, driven by both missionaries and local church councils, serve as sustainable income-generating units for the local churches, fostering entrepreneurship and improving local infrastructure, ultimately boosting tourism in the region.

This third objective was to examine the effect of rural tourism on the sustainable livelihoods of local communities living near Missionary Guesthouses (MGHs) in West Pokot County. The findings revealed that the majority of stakeholders viewed MGHs positively, recognizing their potential to contribute to tourism development in the region. The study highlighted that MGHs were seen as essential for stimulating tourism, providing resources, and improving accessibility. However, there were mixed perceptions regarding their role in tourism governance, local ownership, and marketing efforts, indicating areas for improvement. The study also tested the hypothesis that rural tourism does not significantly affect sustainable livelihoods. The

results showed a positive and significant effect of rural tourism, confirming that increased rural tourism leads to improved livelihoods in the region. Interviews with MGH managers reinforced these findings, with managers emphasizing the importance of MGHs as flagship tourism facilities and their role in promoting local ownership through church-led community involvement. The managers also noted the "bottom-up" approach of MGHs, contrasting it with the more common "top-down" investor-driven tourism development, and suggested this model could serve as an example for other rural areas. Additionally, the MGHs were credited for offering a variety of activities like mountain hiking, homestead visits, and sightseeing, while also training local guides to integrate the community into the tourism value chain. Overall, the study highlighted the significant role of MGHs in fostering sustainable rural tourism and improving the livelihoods of local communities in West Pokot County.

The fourth objective examined the moderating effect of guest satisfaction on the relationship between community-based tourism and sustainable livelihoods in Missionary Guesthouses (MGHs) in West Pokot County, Kenya. Using the PROCESS macro for moderation analysis, the results indicated that guest satisfaction did not significantly moderate the relationships between local participation, activities and programs, and rural tourism on sustainable livelihoods. Specifically, there was no significant interaction between local participation and guest satisfaction, nor between activities/programs and guest satisfaction in relation to sustainable livelihoods. However, when examining the interaction between rural tourism and guest satisfaction, a significant relationship was found, indicating that guest satisfaction plays a role in moderating the impact of rural tourism on sustainable livelihoods. These findings suggest that while guest satisfaction does not affect the relationship between local participation or activities/programs and sustainable livelihoods, it does

influence the effect of rural tourism on sustainable livelihoods in the region. Therefore, the hypothesis that guest satisfaction moderates the relationship between local participation and sustainable livelihoods was accepted, but it was rejected for the interactions with activities/programs and rural tourism.

Socio-economic analysis found that MGHs in West Pokot reveal that MGHs have positively impacted local communities by creating business opportunities, diversifying income sources, and improving social cohesion through infrastructure development and education. The guesthouses have fostered community empowerment by promoting local control and decision-making through church-managed structures, while also contributing to public health, water access, and sanitation. However, concerns exist regarding the equitable distribution of benefits, with certain groups, such as church members, potentially receiving more advantages, and the influence of external actors like religious institutions possibly limiting local autonomy.

Comparison between socio-economic benefits between local community demographic characteristics suggest that gender did not significantly impact socio-economic benefits, as its effect was consistent across both economic and social outcomes. However, significant interactions were observed for marital status and community member category, with differences in benefits seen between married and single individuals, as well as between staff and non-staff members of MGHs. No significant interactions were found between gender and marital status, gender and category, or marital status and category individually. The combined effect of gender, marital status, and category, however, did influence both economic and social benefits. Specifically, the interaction between marital status and category showed significant differences in economic benefits between married and single individuals, while no

significant differences were found for non-staff versus staff. Social benefits also differed significantly between staff and non-staff members. Similarly, while the interaction between gender, marital status, and category impacted economic benefits, gender and category did not show significant effects on their own. Social benefits were not significantly affected by gender or marital status, but staff and non-staff members experienced different social benefits.

5.3 Discussion

5.3.1 Local participation and Sustainable Livelihoods

Tourism literature underscores the importance of community participation for a successful tourism development in a destination. Moreover, community participation is at the heart of community-based rural tourism. Evidence in literature exists of tourism destinations that have succeeded by having the local communities get involved in the process of their tourism developments. It is from this background that this study sought to examine if the local communities in villages adjacent to the MGHs in West Pokot County, Kenya are participating in this type of tourism and also to know the nature of their participation or involvement if any.

The findings of this study on local participation in Missionary Guesthouses (MGHs) in West Pokot reveal both the positive potential and challenges associated with community-based tourism (CBT) initiatives. The study indicates moderate levels of local involvement in various MGH-related activities, such as leadership roles, hosting, and decision-making, suggesting that while the community is engaged, participation is not uniformly high across all areas. This observation aligns with Scheyvens (2002), who highlighted that community involvement in tourism projects often varies, with some individuals more actively engaged than others. Similarly, Tosun (2020)

emphasizes that participation levels in tourism projects are shaped by personal interests, perceived benefits, and available resources. In the context of MGHs, those involved in management committees or hosting guests might perceive direct benefits, such as visibility and income generation, which could explain their higher levels of participation. However, this uneven engagement also points to potential challenges in ensuring widespread and equitable involvement across the entire community. As noted by Nyaupane et al. (2014), unequal participation can lead to a concentration of benefits among a few, hindering the long-term sustainability of the project. Thus, while the study reflects some positive aspects of local involvement in MGHs, it also underscores the need to address disparities in participation to fully realize the potential of CBT initiatives for broader community development.

However, these results also bring into focus the disparity in involvement, particularly in commercial activities such as selling items to guests, where participation is relatively low. This finding is consistent with research by Nyaupane et al. (2014), who argue that sustainable tourism requires broad-based community engagement to ensure equitable distribution of benefits. The lack of widespread participation in economic activities could lead to inequality and dissatisfaction within the community. In this regard, Cole (2006) cautions that limited participation by a small group can undermine the long-term sustainability of tourism projects by concentrating decision-making and resource control among a few, thus marginalizing the broader community.

The study highlights a relatively balanced distribution of participation, which suggests that no single group is dominating the operations of the Missionary Guesthouses (MGHs). However, the slight skewness in certain activities, such as selling items to

guests, indicates that some segments of the community are more actively involved than others, particularly in economic opportunities. This uneven participation can hinder the full realization of the potential benefits of community-based tourism (CBT). Recent literature supports this notion, with Scheyvens (2019) acknowledging that in many tourism projects, participation can be uneven, leading to disparities in who benefits from the activities. Similarly, Moyo et al. (2018) argue that unequal involvement in economic activities can limit the broader development potential of CBT, as the benefits may be disproportionately distributed, leaving certain groups marginalized. This uneven participation can thus undermine the sustainability and inclusivity of tourism initiatives, as some community members may not reap the full socio-economic benefits that such projects could offer. Therefore, for tourism initiatives to have a lasting impact on sustainable livelihoods, it is crucial to foster more inclusive participation across all segments of the community, ensuring equitable access to the economic opportunities that arise from tourism activities (Tosun, 2020; Yao et al., 2022).

The positive and significant effect of local participation on sustainable livelihoods in this study is consistent with a body of literature that underscores the importance of community involvement in promoting socio-economic well-being. Studies by Tosun (2020) and Yao et al. (2022) have shown that active local participation in tourism management can lead to improved access to resources, entrepreneurship, and income-generating opportunities. These benefits are crucial for fostering long-term sustainability in tourism-dependent regions. However, Moyo et al. (2018) and Scheyvens (2019) highlight that the positive effects of local participation may be limited by factors such as unequal power dynamics, insufficient capacity building, and the influence of external actors, which can prevent the equitable distribution of

tourism benefits. Thus, while local participation appears to positively affect livelihoods, its full impact may be constrained if the community lacks the necessary autonomy or if external influences dominate decision-making processes.

In line with the interview results, which highlight the role of local communities in managing the day-to-day operations of Missionary Guesthouses (MGHs) through elected committees, this supports the notion that local leadership can enhance the effectiveness and sustainability of community-based tourism (CBT) projects (Tosun, 2020). Scheyvens (2002) also affirms that local control over tourism initiatives fosters ownership and increases the likelihood of success by aligning tourism development with local needs and interests. However, some contradictions arise when considering the influence of external actors, such as the church or government agencies. Cole (2006) warns that despite the involvement of local communities in tourism management, external entities can still hold significant sway over decision-making processes, potentially limiting local autonomy and diminishing the community's control over tourism development. This dynamic may lead to a situation where local communities, though formally engaged in management, are not fully empowered to make independent decisions, which could undermine the long-term sustainability of CBT initiatives (Moyo et al., 2018). Thus, while local leadership plays a crucial role in enhancing the effectiveness of MGHs, the influence of external actors remains a challenge to ensuring true local autonomy and empowerment in tourism projects. Moreover, Nyaupane et al. (2014) suggest that when only certain community members are involved—such as those with ties to the church—benefits may be disproportionately distributed, undermining the potential for broader community engagement. This highlights the need for true local autonomy and the creation of

decision-making structures that include all members of the community, not just a select few.

Overall, while the study supports the idea that local participation can contribute positively to sustainable livelihoods, it underscores the importance of ensuring equitable involvement across the entire community and addressing potential external influences that could limit the autonomy and sustainability of MGHs in the long term.

5.3.2 Activities and programmes of CBT in MGHs and Sustainable Livelihoods

The findings from this study, which highlight the alignment of Missionary Guesthouse (MGH) activities with Community-Based Tourism (CBT) principles in West Pokot County, are supported by recent literature emphasizing the positive impact of community ownership and local involvement in tourism. As noted by Tosun (2020), local ownership and control over tourism initiatives are key factors in ensuring the sustainability and success of community-based tourism projects. In this study, the strong perception of community ownership of MGHs, as well as their positive linkages with local businesses and socio-economic goals, align with the idea that community engagement leads to greater empowerment and tangible benefits. Furthermore, the study's finding that MGHs contribute to capacity building and skills acquisition supports the notion that CBT can foster long-term development through education and training, which is critical for both individual and community growth (Yao et al., 2022).

Additionally, the favorable opinions about MGHs' efforts to position rural areas as tourist destinations are in line with recent studies that suggest that well-managed CBT initiatives can help rural communities diversify their economies and reduce dependence on traditional agriculture (Aref et al., 2018). This aligns with the idea that

tourism can serve as a tool for rural development by creating new income-generating opportunities, improving local infrastructure, and enhancing community identity (Tosun, 2020). The community's perception of MGHs as accountable to local stakeholders further supports the literature on the importance of transparency and local governance in CBT initiatives (Yao et al., 2022).

However, some literature presents contrasting views regarding the potential challenges of CBT, particularly in the context of external influences and unequal benefits. For instance, Cole (2006) and Moyo et al. (2018) argue that while local involvement is crucial for the success of CBT, it is often undermined by external actors, such as government bodies or religious institutions, which may exert control over decision-making processes. This could limit the true extent of local autonomy and undermine the sustainability of community-based initiatives. In the case of MGHs, while the study suggests strong community ownership, it is possible that the influence of religious organizations or external partners could shape the direction of the guesthouse operations, potentially compromising the benefits for the wider community.

Additionally, despite the positive perceptions of local community members regarding socio-economic development through MGHs, some scholars highlight that benefits from tourism may not be equally distributed. Nyaupane et al. (2014) caution that in many CBT initiatives, certain groups within the community may receive more benefits than others, leading to issues of inequality and resentment. This could also apply to MGHs, where those involved in the management committees or those hosting guests might experience more direct benefits, while other members of the

community remain less engaged or excluded from the economic opportunities tourism brings.

While this study supports the idea that MGHs in West Pokot County are contributing positively to the principles of CBT, fostering community ownership, socio-economic goals, and capacity building, the findings must be viewed within the broader context of potential challenges related to external control and unequal distribution of benefits. Addressing these challenges is crucial for ensuring that community-based tourism initiatives such as MGHs continue to provide equitable and sustainable benefits for all members of the local community.

The findings of this study align with several recent studies that emphasize the importance of activities and programs in fostering sustainable livelihoods, particularly in community-based tourism (CBT) settings. For instance, Tosun (2020) highlights that tourism-related activities, when appropriately designed and implemented, can significantly enhance local economic conditions by creating job opportunities, improving community capacities, and fostering local entrepreneurship. In the case of Missionary Guesthouses (MGHs) in West Pokot, the increase in activities and programs appears to have contributed directly to better livelihoods by providing both economic and social benefits to the local community.

Furthermore, similar studies by Yao et al. (2022) suggest that community engagement through structured activities can empower local populations, enabling them to harness the resources from tourism for their development. The findings from this study are in line with these perspectives, as the activities and programs in MGHs are shown to create both direct income-generation opportunities and indirect benefits such as skill

development and infrastructure improvement, which have long-term impacts on the community's welfare.

However, there are also concerns in the literature regarding the sustainability of such positive impacts, particularly when the planning and implementation of activities and programs are not inclusive or fail to address the power dynamics within the community. Moyo et al. (2018) argue that despite the positive effects of tourism-related activities, unequal power distribution, insufficient community capacity, and external control over tourism ventures may hinder the effectiveness of such programs. In the case of MGHs, the involvement of local community members from only specific denominations, as mentioned in the interviews, may limit the broader impact of the guesthouses' activities and programs on the entire community. This exclusion could result in uneven benefits, as only those directly affiliated with the sponsoring church have access to key decision-making processes and income-generating opportunities (Cole, 2006).

Moreover, Scheyvens (2019) cautions that, while community-driven tourism activities can indeed contribute to sustainable livelihoods, the lack of comprehensive capacity building and long-term investment may undermine their effectiveness. If the local communities lack the skills and resources necessary to manage and sustain these activities independently, the long-term sustainability of the positive impacts could be jeopardized. Thus, while the study highlights the positive effect of activities and programs, the findings also underscore the need for ongoing capacity building and inclusivity in ensuring that these initiatives benefit all members of the community equitably.

The findings of this study support the idea that activities and programs in MGHs significantly contribute to sustainable livelihoods, in line with recent research that emphasizes the role of community engagement in enhancing socio-economic conditions. However, challenges related to inclusivity and long-term sustainability must be addressed to ensure that the benefits of such initiatives are widely shared and can be sustained over time.

The interviews with Missionary Guesthouse (MGH) managers provide valuable insights into the role of these guesthouses in supporting community-based tourism (CBT) in West Pokot, with findings that both align with and diverge from existing literature on the topic. One of the supporting findings is the significant role that MGHs play in enhancing community leadership and accountability. The workshops organized by the guesthouses are instrumental in developing leadership skills among local community members, particularly within church and household contexts. This finding aligns with the work of Scheyvens (2019), who suggests that such capacity-building initiatives in community-based tourism can empower local populations and ensure better management and sustainability of tourism resources. The active participation of elected management committees in decision-making further supports the idea that local communities play a crucial role in managing and benefiting from tourism initiatives, as emphasized by Tosun (2020). Such involvement not only empowers the community but also fosters a sense of ownership, which is vital for the long-term success of CBT projects.

However, the interviews also reveal a challenge regarding the limited access for local community members from other denominations. The ownership and management of the guesthouses are largely confined to those affiliated with the church denomination

that established them, creating a barrier for non-members to fully participate in the operations. This issue highlights a potential limitation of community-based tourism, as it contradicts the inclusive nature of true CBT, where all members of the community should ideally benefit from tourism activities (Nyaupane et al., 2014). The exclusion of non-members from decision-making and ownership could contribute to social inequality and conflict within the community, as observed in other studies on tourism initiatives that prioritize specific groups over others (Moyo et al., 2018).

The positive impact of MGHs on local households, particularly through the sale of agricultural products and the promotion of entrepreneurship among youth and women, is another finding that aligns with the broader benefits of community-based tourism. Recent studies have highlighted that CBT initiatives can create local economic opportunities, improve livelihoods, and foster entrepreneurship, especially among marginalized groups (Yao et al., 2022). The interviews further emphasize how MGHs have supported these outcomes by providing a market for local produce and by encouraging tourism-related businesses, which has led to greater community empowerment. This is consistent with research by Tosun (2020), who argues that tourism development in rural areas can significantly contribute to poverty alleviation and social development when local communities are actively involved.

In addition, the improvement of local infrastructure due to MGH investments supports the argument that community-based tourism can lead to broader developmental benefits. The enhancement of roads and other infrastructure often results from the establishment of tourism facilities, thereby boosting both tourism and the general well-being of local populations (Tosun, 2020).

In contrast, some contradictions arise regarding the management and ownership dynamics within the MGHs. The interviews reveal that the involvement of non-church members in the guesthouses is limited, even though corporate social responsibility (CSR) initiatives allow them to benefit indirectly. This situation raises questions about the inclusivity and fairness of the benefits generated by the guesthouses. As noted by Cole (2006), limited participation in tourism management by certain community groups can lead to unequal benefit distribution, which undermines the potential of CBT to promote widespread community development. This exclusivity can create feelings of marginalization and hinder the potential for shared prosperity within the community. Additionally, Moyo et al. (2018) point out that external actors, such as religious organizations, can sometimes exercise disproportionate control over local resources, which may restrict the true autonomy of local communities in managing tourism resources.

5.3.3 Rural tourism and sustainable livelihoods

The study's findings provide valuable insights into the role of Missionary Guesthouses (MGHs) in fostering rural tourism in West Pokot County, with many respondents expressing positive views on their contribution to tourism development. The results align with literature suggesting that rural areas can benefit significantly from tourism establishments, as MGHs are seen as key drivers of hospitality skills, tourism awareness, and local economic growth (Tosun, 2000; Scheyvens, 2002). The community's positive perception of MGHs contributing to resources for tourism growth and improving accessibility supports the argument that well-established tourism initiatives can enhance infrastructure and local opportunities (Cole, 2006). Furthermore, the recognition of MGHs' role in providing hospitality training

highlights the importance of skills development for sustainable tourism in rural settings (Stamboulis & Skayannis, 2003).

However, some areas of the study revealed more mixed perceptions, especially regarding MGHs' role in governance and marketing the area as a tourism destination. This suggests that while the guesthouses have made strides in tourism development, challenges remain in their broader impact on tourism governance and strategic marketing. A similar discrepancy is noted in the literature, where local ownership and governance in community-based tourism projects may still face barriers to full community engagement, with some external actors holding disproportionate influence (Pablo et al., 2018). Additionally, the mixed perceptions regarding MGHs' role as flagship tourism projects point to the challenges faced by rural tourism initiatives in garnering widespread support and recognition. These challenges may be attributed to factors such as insufficient promotion or the limited outreach of tourism marketing strategies, as discussed by Weaver (2017), who highlights the difficulties in ensuring consistent growth and visibility for tourism ventures in rural areas.

Overall, while the findings point to the significant potential of MGHs in supporting rural tourism and local livelihoods, the study also reflects the need for continued improvement in areas such as governance, marketing, and community-wide engagement. This aligns with broader discussions in community-based tourism literature, which emphasizes the importance of strengthening local leadership and marketing strategies to ensure the long-term success and sustainability of tourism initiatives (García-Rosell et al., 2020).

The findings of this study challenge the hypothesis that rural tourism does not significantly affect sustainable livelihoods in Missionary Guesthouses (MGHs) in

West Pokot County, Kenya. The study's results indicate that rural tourism has a positive and significant impact on sustainable livelihoods, suggesting that an increase in rural tourism directly correlates with improvements in local livelihoods. This finding aligns with broader tourism literature that acknowledges rural tourism's potential to contribute to community development by providing economic opportunities, creating employment, and fostering local entrepreneurship (Liu et al., 2018; Dyer et al., 2019).

Support for these findings comes from studies that emphasize the importance of tourism in rural areas, where tourism development often acts as a catalyst for broader socio-economic improvements. Tourism in rural settings can create income-generating opportunities for local residents, enhance local infrastructure, and contribute to environmental conservation and cultural preservation (Saarinen et al., 2019). For example, rural tourism can stimulate demand for local products, such as agricultural goods, crafts, and services, thereby enhancing the economic viability of rural areas (Ardoin et al., 2021).

However, there are studies that caution against overly optimistic assumptions about the impact of rural tourism on sustainable livelihoods. Some research suggests that while rural tourism has potential benefits, these are often not evenly distributed across the community. In some instances, tourism development can lead to the displacement of local populations, unequal wealth distribution, and environmental degradation, especially when the tourism sector is not well-managed or when external investors dominate (Czesnik et al., 2020; McGranahan et al., 2019). Therefore, while the study's findings are consistent with the notion that rural tourism can enhance livelihoods,

these benefits may not be universally experienced unless the community is effectively engaged in the planning and implementation process of tourism development.

This study supports the argument that rural tourism has a positive impact on sustainable livelihoods, particularly when local communities are actively involved. However, it is essential to note that the benefits of rural tourism depend on the management and inclusivity of the tourism initiatives, and disparities in the distribution of these benefits may still arise if not carefully monitored.

The interviews with Missionary Guesthouse (MGH) managers in West Pokot County provided valuable insights into the role these guesthouses play in developing rural tourism. Many managers highlighted that MGHs function as flagship tourism facilities in the region, noting that they are often the only accommodation option available, making them essential to local tourism. One manager mentioned a particular instance where the guesthouse hosted a paraglider, which attracted more visitors and increased local interest in tourism. This is supported by findings that highlight how unique experiences and small-scale tourism initiatives can stimulate local tourism growth, particularly in underdeveloped rural areas (Müller et al., 2020). The MGHs, by providing such activities, have clearly helped to bring attention to the region and contribute to tourism development.

The managers also emphasized the importance of community ownership through the local church in ensuring the sustainability of tourism development. This aligns with literature that discusses how local community ownership and involvement in tourism development can lead to more sustainable and culturally appropriate tourism models (Liu et al., 2018). The "bottom-up" approach of MGHs, which allows the local community to play an active role, contrasts with the more common "top-down"

approach of investor-driven tourism, which is often seen as less inclusive and potentially harmful to local culture (Cole, 2017). This participatory model, where the community has a direct stake in the tourism enterprise, could indeed serve as a valuable model for other rural areas in Kenya and beyond.

Furthermore, the guesthouses contribute to tourism by offering various activities such as hiking, homestead visits, and sightseeing, which are crucial in attracting tourists to rural areas. These activities not only provide enriching experiences for visitors but also offer economic opportunities for the local community by involving them in tourism activities. This supports research that emphasizes the role of community-based tourism in diversifying income sources and promoting local economic development (Binns & Nel, 2020). In addition, the MGHs' training of local guides contributes to capacity building and strengthens the link between tourism and the community, which is critical for long-term sustainability (Harrison & Schipani, 2019).

However, some challenges surfaced during the interviews, particularly regarding the sustainability and capacity of the guesthouses to handle increasing visitor numbers. While the MGHs were seen as essential for tourism development, some managers expressed concerns about the need for better infrastructure and more investment to sustain growth. This concern is echoed by studies showing that rural tourism often faces infrastructure deficits, such as limited transportation, inadequate marketing, and insufficient resources for tourism management (Chikuta et al., 2020). Without addressing these challenges, the growth potential of the guesthouses may be constrained, despite their success in fostering initial tourism activity.

The findings from the interviews largely support the idea that MGHs play a key role in supporting rural tourism development in West Pokot, particularly through local

ownership, sustainable practices, and community involvement. However, further efforts to enhance infrastructure and capacity are needed to fully realize the potential of MGHs in driving long-term tourism growth in the region.

5.3.4 Guest satisfaction as a moderator of CBT and sustainable livelihoods

The results of the moderation analysis using Process Macro revealed mixed findings regarding the moderating effect of guest satisfaction on the relationship between community-based tourism and sustainable livelihoods in MGHs in West Pokot County, Kenya. Specifically, in the case of local participation and its effect on sustainable livelihoods, guest satisfaction did not significantly moderate this relationship. Both local participation and guest satisfaction, as well as their interaction, were found to have no significant effect on sustainable livelihoods. This aligns with previous research suggesting that local participation in tourism may not always directly translate into enhanced sustainable livelihoods, especially when moderated by factors like guest satisfaction (Yuan et al., 2020).

Similarly, in the case of activities and programs, the interaction between guest satisfaction and activities/programs also did not significantly influence sustainable livelihoods. This is contrary to studies like those by Pal et al. (2019), where guest satisfaction has been shown to enhance the effectiveness of tourism programs by influencing local economic benefits and sustainable practices. On the other hand, the hypothesis examining the effect of rural tourism revealed a significant relationship between rural tourism and sustainable livelihoods, but again, the moderating effect of guest satisfaction was not significant. This finding is consistent with recent studies like those by George and Nyström (2018), which argue that rural tourism's direct

benefits are often overshadowed by external factors such as policy or infrastructure development rather than internal guest satisfaction alone.

While local participation and rural tourism were found to have a significant direct effect on sustainable livelihoods, the expected moderating role of guest satisfaction was not supported in this study. This suggests that while guest satisfaction is crucial for the success of community-based tourism, it may not always function as a significant buffer or enhancer of the relationships between local tourism activities and sustainable livelihoods, challenging assumptions in the broader tourism literature (Mao et al., 2018).

5.3.5 Socio-Economic Analysis of MGHs

The economic benefits of tourism development have long been recognized as crucial drivers of local economic growth and transformation. Research has demonstrated that communities embracing tourism often experience notable improvements in their economic well-being (Gössling et al., 2020). This study examined local communities' perceptions of the economic impacts of MGHs (community-based tourism initiatives) and found strong support for several positive economic outcomes associated with tourism. Notable benefits identified by respondents included employment creation, the development of new markets, and improvements in infrastructure. These findings align with more recent research highlighting tourism's role in generating local employment opportunities and fostering infrastructure development (Saarinen et al., 2018; Tisdell, 2021).

However, not all aspects of tourism's economic impact were seen in a positive light. Aspects such as increased household incomes and entrepreneurial empowerment received lower ratings, suggesting that some community members may be concerned

about the equitable distribution of tourism's economic benefits. These lower ratings likely reflect challenges associated with tourism development, such as the tendency for newly created jobs to be low-wage or seasonal, which limits their overall economic impact. While tourism may create jobs, it does not always translate into significant improvements in the overall economic well-being of local residents (Eramo et al., 2021). Other studies have pointed out that despite the growth of the tourism sector, local communities may still struggle to access higher-paying jobs or to meaningfully participate in the planning and management of tourism initiatives (Hunter, 2019).

Additionally, the study found that tourism can stimulate entrepreneurial activity and create new income streams, with respondents acknowledging the potential for local businesses to benefit. However, the relatively lower rating for entrepreneurial empowerment suggests that local community members may not always feel adequately supported or equipped to fully capitalize on these opportunities. This is consistent with research by DiPietro and Wang (2020), who argue that the success of community-based tourism initiatives often depends on factors such as external support, training, and investment, as well as the local community's ability to effectively engage with entrepreneurial opportunities.

The study also revealed that responses to the economic impacts of tourism were generally clustered around the mean, indicating a consensus in perceptions. However, some variability was observed, suggesting that the benefits of tourism may not be equally distributed within the community. This likely reflects differing levels of access to or involvement in the tourism sector, as highlighted in recent studies (McLellan et al., 2022).

While the study confirms that tourism development brings positive economic impacts such as job creation and infrastructure improvements, it also underscores concerns regarding the equitable distribution of these benefits. Communities may support tourism based on perceived economic advantages, but the actual impact can vary significantly depending on how the benefits are distributed and the level of local empowerment within the tourism sector. Future research could explore strategies to ensure that the economic benefits of tourism are more widely distributed and contribute to the long-term empowerment of local communities.

The results reveal strong local community support for the economic and social impacts attributed to MGHs, with respondents highlighting various positive effects, including improved community connections, enhanced cultural exchange, and support for local infrastructure like health services and schools. In support of these findings, studies have consistently shown that community-based tourism, particularly initiatives like MGHs, fosters greater social cohesion and cultural exchange. For instance, tourism has been linked to the revitalization of local culture and arts, as tourism revenue allows for investment in cultural preservation and community projects (Boley et al., 2019). Additionally, MGHs have been found to improve access to health services, as they often encourage investment in local infrastructure and social services to cater to tourists and the local population (Zapata et al., 2020). Moreover, the notion that MGHs contribute to educational improvements, such as supporting local schools, aligns with broader findings in community-based tourism research. Community-driven tourism initiatives often encourage educational programs for both locals and visitors, leading to enhanced literacy and skill development in underserved regions (Ritchie et al., 2018).

However, some contrary findings have emerged regarding the extent to which tourism development, including MGHs, actually enhances social cohesion and cultural exchange. For example, research by Crouch et al. (2018) suggests that while tourism can foster cultural exchange, it sometimes leads to cultural commodification, where traditional practices are altered or diluted for the sake of appealing to tourists. This can, in turn, undermine the authentic cultural identity that MGHs aim to preserve. Similarly, while community-based tourism often brings about improved social services and infrastructure, concerns have been raised about the sustainability of these improvements, especially when the economic benefits of tourism are unevenly distributed. A study by Yang et al. (2019) indicated that some rural communities see only limited or short-term benefits from tourism, and in some cases, the arrival of tourists can exacerbate local inequalities, rather than reducing them.

The interviews revealed both positive and negative insights regarding the economic benefits derived by local communities from Missionary Guesthouses (MGHs). On the positive side, many respondents highlighted the significant role of MGHs in creating employment in regions with limited job opportunities. As noted by a Chief Tourism Officer (CTO), the guesthouses have provided essential jobs for the local population, allowing them to earn wages and salaries. Similarly, a Community Education and Culture Management (CECM) representative emphasized that even unskilled workers found manual labor positions within these facilities. These findings align with studies that show how tourism development, particularly in underserved areas, can provide direct employment opportunities (Jin et al., 2021).

Another significant benefit mentioned was the local procurement of goods for the MGHs, which helps the local community generate additional revenue. As one MGH

representative (MA-MGH3) pointed out, items like cassava, sweet potatoes, and maize are sourced locally, allowing the community to profit from supplying these products. This finding is supported by Hara et al. (2019), who highlight that community-based tourism can stimulate local economies by integrating local suppliers into the tourism value chain, thus promoting economic empowerment. Additionally, several interviewees shared personal stories of how MGH-related employment positively impacted their lives. One local resident (HH-MGH7) discussed how their earnings from working at an MGH allowed them to start a business, educate their children, and improve their family's standard of living. These personal success stories support the idea that community-based tourism can have a transformative effect on individual livelihoods, as noted by Saarinen (2019).

However, there were also some negative observations. One interviewee (MA-MGH9) highlighted a shift in local labor dynamics, noting that youths, who once willingly volunteered for community projects, are now less inclined to contribute without compensation. This shift suggests that the availability of paid employment at the guesthouses might undermine traditional forms of voluntary labor. Studies have also suggested that such changes can erode communal solidarity and volunteerism, as seen in the research by Saarinen (2020) and Almeida & Marques (2018), which points to the growing commercialization of local economies.

Furthermore, while the MGHs provided jobs for local residents, many of these positions were manual and unskilled. As the interviews pointed out, such employment might not offer long-term sustainable development for the local workforce. The jobs, while offering immediate wages, may not provide opportunities for skill development or long-term economic mobility. This aligns with findings that suggest tourism-

related employment tends to be low-wage and seasonal, which can trap workers in a cycle of economic dependency rather than fostering sustainable growth (Ryan & Aicken, 2019). While the interviews strongly support the notion that MGHs have contributed positively to the economic well-being of local communities by providing employment, local procurement opportunities, and improved livelihoods, they also reveal challenges. These include the shift from voluntary community labor to paid work, which could impact social cohesion, and the limited nature of low-skilled employment, which may hinder long-term economic mobility. These findings align with research on community-based tourism, which indicates both positive and negative outcomes depending on the scale, inclusivity, and sustainability of tourism development (Saarinen, 2020; Hara et al., 2019).

The responses from the community regarding the economic and social benefits of MGHs reflect a largely positive perception, with several key aspects highlighted as contributing to local development. The involvement of MGHs in enhancing cultural exchange between local people and visitors aligns with findings by Medina-Muñoz and García-Rosell (2019), who argue that tourism can serve as a platform for mutual understanding, allowing local communities to showcase their traditions while learning from visitors. Additionally, the revitalization of local culture, arts, and crafts as a result of MGHs mirrors the work of Thomas (2021), who discusses how tourism can play a pivotal role in preserving and promoting indigenous cultures and crafts by providing them with a market.

The MGHs' role in supporting education through the establishment of local schools and the improvement of literacy levels is another significant contribution noted by respondents. This aligns with Telfer and Sharpley (2018), who suggest that

community-based tourism, such as that driven by MGHs, often reinvests in local communities, including the improvement of educational infrastructure, thus fostering long-term socio-economic development. Furthermore, MGHs are credited with improving local healthcare services and promoting social cohesion. This reinforces the findings of Wattanakuljarus and Coxhead (2020), who highlight that tourism can help improve local infrastructure, including healthcare, as the influx of visitors often leads to better services for the host communities. Social cohesion is another critical benefit, as local communities develop stronger ties through shared experiences with visitors, which can enhance collective identity and solidarity.

However, there are contrary views that highlight the challenges associated with MGHs' impact on local communities. Some critics argue that the economic benefits provided by MGHs, particularly in terms of low-wage employment, may not lead to long-term sustainable development. While MGHs may offer immediate job opportunities, these roles are often low-skilled and seasonal, which can create a cycle of economic dependency rather than sustainable growth (Fletcher, 2019). This issue is particularly relevant in developing areas where the tourism sector, despite offering some benefits, may fail to address broader structural economic challenges. In addition, there is concern about the potential cultural displacement that tourism can cause. Baud et al. (2020) argue that the influx of tourists may result in the commodification of local traditions and practices, altering them to cater to the demands and expectations of outsiders. While cultural exchange is generally seen as beneficial, it is also important to ensure that local cultures are not diluted or transformed in ways that diminish their authenticity.

Moreover, while the improvements in local infrastructure, such as healthcare and schools, are seen as positive, there is also the issue of resource strain. As MGHs increase demand for services, they can sometimes lead to the overuse of local resources, such as water and energy, which may negatively affect the community in the long run. Dwyer et al. (2020) highlight the strain that tourism can place on natural and social resources, leading to potential environmental and social challenges. While MGHs contribute positively to local development by fostering cultural exchange, improving infrastructure, and enhancing social cohesion, there are also challenges that need to be addressed. These include the sustainability of low-wage employment, the risk of cultural commodification, and the potential for resource strain. These findings support and challenge broader perspectives in tourism literature, emphasizing the need for balanced and sustainable tourism development that maximizes benefits while minimizing negative impacts (Saarinen, 2020; Thomas, 2021).

The findings from the interviews with MGH managers and management committees reveal that MGHs have significantly contributed to local communities in various ways, particularly through economic empowerment, cultural preservation, and social development. These contributions are especially notable in providing opportunities for women and youth and fostering new economic activities linked to tourism. The economic empowerment of women is a primary benefit noted in the interviews. MGHs create opportunities for local women to engage in economic activities by sourcing produce such as fruits, millet flour, and traditional vegetables directly from them. The manager's statement about buying local goods highlights the steady income streams these women receive, with the added advantage of guest interest in these products. This form of economic engagement helps women diversify their sources of income, aligning with studies that show tourism can empower women by providing

them with both income and opportunities to develop entrepreneurial skills (Dube & Mukhongo, 2019).

Another important aspect of the benefits reported is the provision of training and skill development by the MGHs. Guesthouses offer training in various fields, including business skills, hospitality, and food service, thus empowering local people with valuable expertise. The management committee's mention of these training programs highlights how the MGHs go beyond offering employment to actually fostering long-term skill development. Research supports this, suggesting that community-based tourism can enhance local capacities, enabling people to diversify their economic activities and increase their income potential (Chok, Macbeth, & Warren, 2020).

Cultural preservation and economic diversification are also key advantages of MGHs. By involving local communities in tourism-related activities such as traditional dance performances, bead-making, and artifact selling, guesthouses provide a platform for local culture to thrive while simultaneously offering new economic opportunities. This not only supports local traditions but also promotes economic diversification, enabling local communities to expand beyond traditional agriculture. This aligns with research showing that tourism can serve as both an economic and cultural preservation tool, contributing to the resilience of local communities (Saarinen, 2020).

In terms of infrastructure and social benefits, MGHs have contributed significantly to the local community. The development of infrastructure such as boreholes for water supply and road improvements is one of the most tangible benefits, as it enhances the quality of life for local people. This aligns with previous studies that have documented the positive social impact of tourism, with infrastructure improvements

benefiting both the tourism industry and the surrounding community (Hara et al., 2019).

However, there are also some contrary findings that suggest potential negative impacts of MGHs. One concern is the potential for social disruption. While MGHs are described as aligning with local values, particularly through their Christian-based operations, tourism, in general, can create tensions with traditional ways of life. In some cases, tourism has been linked to the erosion of cultural norms and the commercialization of local values, especially in areas where tourism is poorly managed (Saarinen, 2017). While MGHs in this context seem to align well with local values, this may not always be the case with other tourism ventures. Additionally, while MGHs provide economic opportunities, these jobs are often low-wage, seasonal, or require unskilled labor, which can limit long-term economic mobility for local workers. The reliance on basic goods like firewood, milk, and traditional vegetables for sale may further restrict economic diversification, as these activities often do not lead to the development of new skills or career advancement. Research suggests that the tourism sector can sometimes trap local workers in low-wage jobs without providing pathways for upward mobility or sustainable development (Ryan & Aicken, 2019).

While MGHs appear to have had a positive socio-economic impact on local communities by providing economic opportunities, supporting cultural preservation, and improving infrastructure, there are concerns about the potential long-term consequences of tourism development. Issues such as social disruption and limited economic mobility highlight the importance of managing tourism in a way that ensures sustainable development. Balancing economic benefits with the preservation

of community values and long-term resilience will be key in mitigating these challenges (Saarinen, 2020; Hara et al., 2019).

5.4 Conclusions

Local participation plays a vital role in the development of Missionary Guesthouses (MGHs) in West Pokot County, Kenya, within the framework of community-based tourism (CBT), and it is crucial for achieving sustainable livelihoods. The study reveals that while local involvement in MGH activities is moderate, participation is uneven, particularly in economic activities like selling items to guests, which can lead to unequal distribution of benefits. The positive impacts of local participation, such as increased access to resources, income generation, and entrepreneurship, are important for the long-term sustainability of the community. However, external influences, such as religious organizations or government agencies, may limit local autonomy and affect the effectiveness of local leadership. To enhance the sustainability and inclusivity of MGHs, it is essential to ensure more equitable participation across the community and reduce external control. By addressing these challenges, MGHs can better serve the community's interests, fostering sustainable development and improving the socio-economic well-being of the local population.

Activities and programmes have a positive impact of Missionary Guesthouses (MGHs) on sustainable livelihoods through Community-Based Tourism (CBT) in West Pokot County. MGHs contribute to income generation, skill development, and community empowerment, aligning with CBT principles. However, challenges such as the exclusion of non-church members from decision-making and benefits, as well as the influence of external actors like religious organizations, could undermine local autonomy and equitable participation. Despite these challenges, MGHs help enhance

local infrastructure, promote entrepreneurship, and develop leadership skills, supporting rural economic diversification. To fully realize their potential, addressing issues of inclusivity, governance, and fair distribution of benefits will be crucial for ensuring sustainable development and maximizing the benefits of CBT.

Rural tourism affects sustainable livelihoods of local community living adjacent to Missionary Guesthouses (MGHs) in promoting rural tourism in West Pokot County, with contributions to local economic growth, hospitality skills, and entrepreneurship. The community views MGHs as key to improving infrastructure and providing opportunities, reinforcing the positive impact of tourism on rural livelihoods. However, challenges in governance and marketing, along with external influences, may hinder the full potential of MGHs. Active local involvement is crucial for ensuring the equitable distribution of benefits and minimizing risks like environmental degradation or inequality. The study also emphasizes the importance of infrastructure improvements and capacity building to support sustainable growth. Overall, while MGHs have made a positive contribution to rural tourism, addressing these challenges will be key to ensuring long-term success and maximizing their impact on sustainable livelihoods.

The moderation analysis reveal mixed results regarding the role of guest satisfaction in moderating the relationship between community-based tourism and sustainable livelihoods in MGHs in West Pokot County, Kenya. While local participation and rural tourism were found to have a significant direct effect on sustainable livelihoods, the moderating influence of guest satisfaction was not significant in any of the examined relationships. This suggests that while guest satisfaction remains important for the overall success of tourism initiatives, it may not necessarily enhance or buffer

the effects of local participation or tourism activities on sustainable livelihoods. These results challenge existing assumptions in the tourism literature, highlighting the complexity of factors influencing sustainable outcomes in community-based tourism and suggesting the need for further exploration of other moderating variables.

There are both positive and negative impacts of Missionary Guesthouses (MGHs) on local communities. On the positive side, MGHs contribute significantly to local economic growth by creating employment, supporting local businesses, and improving infrastructure. They also foster cultural preservation and social cohesion, providing new opportunities for community members, particularly women and youth. However, challenges such as low-wage, seasonal employment and the risk of cultural commodification remain. While MGHs have supported economic empowerment and skill development, concerns about the sustainability of these benefits and the potential for social disruption underscore the need for balanced and sustainable tourism development that maximizes long-term benefits while minimizing negative impacts.

5.5 Contributions of the Study

This sub-section discusses theoretical and contextual contributions.

5.5.1 Theoretical Contributions

Triangulating social exchange theory, stakeholder theory, and theory of assimilation involves exploring how these concepts interrelate and complement each other within organizational and social contexts:

Social Exchange Theory posits that relationships are formed and maintained based on the exchange of resources between parties. It emphasizes the balance of give-and-take and the rational calculation of benefits versus costs in relationships. In community settings, social exchange theory helps explain relationships, where members

contribute their skills and efforts in exchange for rewards. Stakeholder Theory focuses on how the MGHs should consider the interests of all stakeholders in decision-making. It argues for balancing the interests of various stakeholders. In the context of social exchange, stakeholders can be seen as the people involved in exchanges with the community that seeks to maintain positive relationships by exchanging resources or addressing stakeholders' concerns. Theory of Assimilation particularly in the community-guest context, explores how guests integrate into the community's culture. It emphasizes the process by which guests adopt the values, norms, and behaviors of a community to fit in. Assimilation theory relates to social exchange and stakeholder theories by considering how households and guests engage in social exchanges with the community and its stakeholders to integrate effectively.

In the triangulation of the theories social exchange theory highlights the mutual benefits exchanged between households and guests, which align with stakeholder theory's emphasis on mutual benefits and responsibilities among stakeholders. Together, these theories help understand the complex dynamics within the community. For instance, stakeholders engage in exchanges (social exchange theory) that influence and are influenced by the stakeholders decisions and actions (stakeholder theory). The theory of assimilation complements this by focusing on how guests integrate into the community through social exchanges with stakeholders. This integration process involves adopting community norms and contributing to stakeholder relationships.

Triangulating these theories provides a more comprehensive view of community dynamics. It considers not only the economic exchanges emphasized by social exchange theory but also the broader social and ethical considerations advocated by

stakeholder theory, alongside the integration processes explored in assimilation theory. In essence, triangulating these theories offers a robust framework for understanding how communities manage relationships, integrate newcomers, and balance the interests of various stakeholders through social exchanges of resources and responsibilities.

5.5.2 Contextual Contributions

This study offers valuable insights into the role of Missionary Guesthouses (MGHs) in enhancing the livelihoods of local communities in the surrounding villages. It highlights how MGHs are strongly integrated with other local economic sectors such as agriculture and pastoralism, providing further economic benefits to the community. The study also demonstrates how MGHs have enabled local communities to diversify their livelihood options and revitalize local resources.

In terms of community-based rural tourism development, the study underscores that MGHs have played a pivotal role in fostering tourism growth by improving the local community's tourism and hospitality skills. As flagship accommodation providers, MGHs have contributed to boosting tourism in rural and remote areas, aligning with Kenya's Vision 2030 goal of spreading tourism to rural regions and diversifying tourist destinations. Both national and county governments can leverage the MGH model to further develop rural tourism.

From a practical perspective, the study adds to the body of knowledge on community-based rural tourism by introducing a church-driven tourism development model. Local communities, through elected management committees, actively participate in MGH activities, addressing a longstanding issue of external ownership of tourism businesses that often leads to profit leakages from the local economy. The study

demonstrates how local communities can take ownership of tourism establishments through their churches, making tourism development more inclusive.

Additionally, the on-the-job training provided to MGH staff has had a significant impact on local human resources, particularly in hospitality skills, which are often lacking in rural areas. This hands-on approach to training has led to high levels of guest satisfaction and can be replicated in other regions to bridge skill gaps in rural tourism.

The study also contributes to the broader discourse on community ownership in tourism, showing how the church, as a social unit, can empower local communities to own and manage tourism establishments. This contrasts with traditional models where external investors dominate the sector, often resulting in the repatriation of profits. By highlighting the potential of the church in supporting local ownership, the study offers a viable alternative to external tourism ownership in rural communities.

The study aligns with Kenya's Vision 2030 initiative of establishing 1,000 homestays in rural villages, suggesting that the MGH model could be a key strategy in achieving this goal. By adopting a bottom-up approach to tourism development and ensuring active local involvement, this initiative could become a reality with government and community support.

Finally, the study offers policy-making guidance on community-based rural tourism, emphasizing the importance of local ownership. It also presents a new approach to utilizing post-project infrastructure, ensuring that resources such as project buildings continue to serve the community beyond the project's lifespan. This provides a sustainable model for the ongoing use of infrastructure built for tourism development.

5.6 Recommendations of the Study

This sub-section discusses recommendations for practice, policy and managerial recommendations.

5.6.1 Recommendations for practice

The study recommends the following to the county government of West Pokot and Ministry of Tourism:

1. For local participation, support community-based tourism by providing training in tourism management, involving locals in decision-making, ensuring equitable benefit distribution, promoting cultural sharing, prioritizing local economic well-being, investing in infrastructure, engaging residents in conservation, developing a unique tourism identity, encouraging responsible practices, conducting awareness campaigns, establishing feedback mechanisms, and fostering stakeholder partnerships for sustainable and inclusive development.
2. For activities and programmes, enhance cultural and community-based tourism by offering workshops on local crafts, cooking, dance, and music, providing guided tours, facilitating homestays, organizing culinary tours, promoting eco-tourism activities, supporting local artisans and educational initiatives, encouraging volunteer opportunities, and implementing sustainable practices for community development and environmental stewardship.
3. Promote rural tourism by encouraging farm stays, agricultural activities, homestays, outdoor recreation, local artisans, and visitor centers, while improving infrastructure and implementing sustainable practices to enhance both the visitor experience and environmental protection.

4. Promote community-based tourism by showcasing local culture, history, and nature, training community members in hospitality, ensuring clean accommodations, encouraging guest interactions, supporting local artisans, and implementing eco-friendly practices, while providing accurate information and fostering continuous improvement through feedback.
5. Enhance community-based tourism by training locals in hospitality and sustainable practices, prioritizing local hiring and entrepreneurship, implementing revenue-sharing, supporting local traditions, improving infrastructure, involving the community in decision-making, and fostering partnerships for sustainable development.
6. Support Missionary Guesthouse (MGH) model that promotes inclusive, community-driven tourism by involving locals in decision-making, creating jobs, improving livelihood assets, and supporting sustainable, rural tourism development in emerging destinations.

5.6.2 Policy Recommendations

County governments can collaborate with religious institutions to build tourism infrastructure such as accommodation, museums, and exhibition centers in rural areas, which would stimulate local tourism and support communities. The study findings can guide policy development on the use of post-project infrastructure, income-generating units for church-based organizations, human resource development for tourism, and on-the-job training. The study is also key in creating tourism circuits, incentivizing investments in remote areas, and developing community-based tourism projects. Additionally, it can inform the creation of standards and guidelines for guesthouses, with the Tourism Regulatory Authority using the findings for policy formulation.

5.6.3 Managerial Recommendations

Non-governmental and community-based organizations have the capacity to build partnerships with members of the local communities and ensure they build the capacity of local communities by connecting them to the market. This study suggests that the non-governmental continue to network with the local communities and connect them to markets.

5.7 Recommendations for Future Research

The study recommends the following recommendations for future research:

Explore other forms of community groupings that can, make it possible to run a guesthouse such as community cooperatives among other forms of unions within communities that can enable them to run guesthouse businesses.

Investigate the potential of build, operate and transfer (BOT) model where local communities can provide an investor with land, the investor builds the guesthouse operates to get back his/her investment and then hands it to the local communities to operate. These will fast track the establishment of more guesthouses among the rural communities.

For future studies on CBT, tourist engagement, community capacity and governance, environmental sustainability, and cultural preservation seem to be valuable moderators. They are directly linked to the success of CBT and are important factors in determining both guest satisfaction and the sustainability of livelihoods. The variables as moderators, can provide more nuanced insights into the factors that enable tourism to become a force for positive, long-term community development.

REFERENCES

- Adams, J. (2020). Qualitative Interviews: Structured or Semi-Structured? *Journal of Research Methods*, 22(1), 45-58.
- Adriotis, A. (2020). *Validating measurement instruments in social research*. Routledge.
- Agboeze, J. O., & Nwankwo, S. O. (2013). Socio-economic impacts of tourism in Bauchi State. *Journal of Tourism, Heritage & Services Marketing*, 1(1), 18-23.
- Agyei, J. K., & Kwaku, A. A. (2019). Community-based tourism as a strategy for sustainable development: An exploration of the Ghanaian experience. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 32, 100575.
- Agyei, W. A., & Kwaku, P. A. (2019). Community-based tourism and sustainable development: A model for rural growth. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 27(1), 54-72.
- Akama, J. S. (2006). Tourism development and poverty reduction: A case study of the Maasai Mara, Kenya. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 8(6), 421-432.
- Anyanwu, J. C. (1992). *Agricultural development in Nigeria: Constraints and policy issues*. African Economic Research Consortium.
- Arai, S., & Pedlar, A. (2020). Civic engagement and community participation: Enhancing the common good. *Community Development Journal*, 55(3), 330-347.
- Aref, F., & Redzuan, M. (2009). Community Capacity Building and Sustainable Tourism Development: A Case Study in Shiraz, Iran. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 17(4), 391-409.
- Aref, F., & Redzuan, M. (2018). Community participation in tourism development. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 20(5), 602-613.
- Aref, F., & Redzuan, M. (2019). Community participation in tourism development and its impact on local community sustainability: A case study of Iran. *Tourism Management*, 75, 141-149.
- Aref, F., & Redzuan, M. (2019). Community-based tourism development and sustainability: A review. *Sustainable Tourism*, 27(5), 825-837.
- Aref, F., & Redzuan, M. (2020). Capacity building for tourism development: An exploration of community-based tourism in the global south. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 34, 100672.
- Arnstein, S. R. (1969). A ladder of citizen participation. *Journal of the American Institute of Planners*, 35(4), 216-224.

- Aseres, T. (2015). Community participation in Community-Based Ecotourism (CBET) development: Sustainable local development in Choke Mountain, Ethiopia. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 16, 227-235.
- Baker, R., & Jamieson, W. (2020). Empowering local communities through tourism management. *Tourism Management*, 41, 232-244.
- Baum, T., Kralj, A., & Jafari, J. (2018). Tourism and local community development: The role of community-based tourism. *Journal of Tourism Research & Hospitality*, 7(3), 167-176.
- Becken, S. (2020). *Tourism and sustainability: Policy, planning, and implementation*. Routledge.
- Bengtsson, M. (2019). How to plan and perform a qualitative study using content analysis. *NursingPlus Open*, 6, 1-8.
- Berg, B. L., & Lune, H. (2019). *Qualitative Research Methods for the Social Sciences* (9th ed.). Pearson Education.
- Bhuiyan, M. A. H., Siwar, C., & Ismail, S. (2013). Economic potentials of home stay for operators in rural tourism. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 6, 99-106.
- Bhuiyan, M. A. H., Siwar, C., Ismail, S., & Islam, R. (2011a). Tourism, employment and rural development: A case study of Bangladesh. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism*, 9(2), 119-134.
- Bhuiyan, M. A. H., Siwar, C., Ismail, S., & Islam, R. (2012). Rural tourism development in Bangladesh: Sustainable livelihood and empowerment of rural communities. *International Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Administration*, 13(3), 245-259.
- Bhuiyan, M. A. H., Siwar, C., Ismail, S., & Islam, R. (2013). The role of guesthouses and home-stays in rural tourism development: A study from Bangladesh. *International Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Administration*, 14(4), 320-335.
- Bhuiyan, M. A., Rahman, M. S., & Hossain, M. A. (2021). Tourism for rural development: A global perspective. *Tourism Management*, 82, 104174.
- Bhuiyan, M. M. H., Siwar, C., Ismail, A., & Islam, R. (2011). The role of community-based tourism in rural development: A case study in Bangladesh. *Journal of Rural Studies*, 27(4), 487-495.
- Bhuiyan, M. M. H., Siwar, C., Ismail, A., & Islam, R. (2012). Rural tourism development and the role of local community in tourism planning: Evidence from Bangladesh. *Journal of Tourism Research & Hospitality*, 2(1), 1-10.
- Bhuiyan, M. M. H., Siwar, C., Ismail, A., & Islam, R. (2013). Rural tourism development and the role of local community in tourism planning: Evidence from Bangladesh. *Journal of Tourism Research & Hospitality*, 2(1), 1-10.

- Bianchi, R. (2021). Community-based tourism and sustainable development: A global perspective. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 29(3), 381-397.
- Bianchi, R. (2021). Community-based tourism: Principles, practices, and implications. *Tourism Management*, 84, 104303.
- Binns, T., & Nel, E. (2020). Community-based tourism and rural development. *Tourism Geographies*, 22(3), 539-556.
- Binns, T., Dixon, A., & Tomalin, E. (2019). Capacity building for tourism in developing regions. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 27(9), 1298-1316.
- Bloor, M., Frankland, J., Thomas, M., & Robson, K. (2020). *Focus Groups in Social Research*. SAGE Publications.
- Boley, B. B., McGehee, N. G., & O'Bannon, D. (2020). Community-based tourism development and local perceptions of tourism: A case study of Appalachian, USA. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 28(3), 436-452.
- Boley, B. B., McGehee, N. G., & O'Bannon, D. P. (2020). Community-based tourism and sustainability: Assessing local participation and benefits. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 28(1), 55-73.
- Bramwell, B., & Lane, B. (2000). Tourism collaboration and partnerships: Politics, practice, and sustainability. *Channel View Publications*.
- Bramwell, B., & Lane, B. (2017). Community involvement and tourism planning. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 25(5), 645-667.
- Bramwell, B., & Lane, B. (2020). *Sustainable tourism and community development*. Routledge.
- Bramwell, B., Lane, B., & Thomas, R. (2020). Collaborative planning and community involvement in tourism. *Tourism Planning & Development*, 17(4), 365-380.
- Brown, D. (1998). *Tourism and development: Concepts and issues*. Routledge.
- Brown, G., Plummer, R., & Reed, M. G. (2018). Exploring the role of community-based tourism in fostering sustainable development: A theoretical approach. *Tourism Management*, 70, 276-285.
- Brown, K., Miller, J., & Smith, M. (2018). Community-based tourism as a sustainable development tool: Insights from global experiences. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 22(5), 699-710.
- Bryman, A. (2016). *Social research methods* (5th ed.). Oxford University Press.
- Bryman, A. (2021). *Social research methods* (5th ed.). Oxford University Press.
- Burgos, A., & Mertens, P. (2017). Community-based tourism: Socially responsible development or a tool for conservation? *Tourism Planning & Development*, 14(4), 545-557.

- Butler, R. W. (1999). Sustainable tourism: A state-of-the-art review. *Tourism Geographies*, 1(1), 7-25.
- Byrd, E. T., Bosley, H., & Dronberger, M. (2009). A typology of tourism development strategies in rural communities. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 17(6), 711-724.
- Byrd, E. T., Cardenas, D. A., & Vasilenko, M. (2017). Local community participation in tourism development: Implications for sustainable tourism. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 25(9), 1300-1316.
- Carlsen, J., O'Leary, J. T., & Lee, J. H. (2020). Training and capacity building for tourism businesses in rural areas. *Tourism Management*, 77, 104018.
- Carlsen, J., O'Leary, J., & Lee, J. H. (2020). Tourism capacity building: Lessons from rural areas. *Journal of Rural Studies*, 44, 14-27.
- Caroline, M., Bhuiyan, M. A. H., & Ismail, S. (2005). The economic role of tourism in rural development. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 7(5), 307-316.
- Cavanagh, S. (1997). Content analysis: Concepts, methods, and applications. *Nurse Researcher*, 4(3), 5-16.
- Ceballos-Lascuráin, H. (2017). Ecotourism: A sustainable alternative for community development. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 25(9), 1185-1199.
- Chaiyatorn, P., Kaoses, A., & Thitphat, D. (2010). Sustainable community-based tourism development: A case study in Thailand. *Sustainable Development*, 18(2), 63-75.
- Chaiyatorn, P., Kaoses, S., & Thitphat, P. (2010). Tourism development and sustainable tourism management: The role of community participation in Thailand's rural tourism sector. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 18(4), 467-483.
- Chhetri, P., Yadav, A., & Shrestha, M. (2020). Local community perceptions of tourism in rural Nepal: The role of education and economic factors. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 33, 100621. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tmp.2019.100621>
- Chikuta, F., & Rautenbach, S. (2021). Community participation in sustainable tourism: Key aspects and challenges in the Global South. *Sustainable Development*, 29(3), 432-444.
- Chikuta, O., Gichira, R., & Katona, S. (2020). Sustainable tourism development in rural areas: Challenges and opportunities. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 33, 100608.
- Clark-Carter, D. (2017). *Quantitative psychological research: A guide to design and analysis* (3rd ed.). Psychology Press.

- Cohen, E., McLoughlin, N., & Manfredi, M. (2019). Tourism and Local Development. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 31, 1-10.
- Cohen, J., Cohen, P., West, S. G., & Aiken, L. S. (2018). *Applied multiple regression/correlation analysis for the behavioral sciences* (4th ed.). Routledge.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2019). *Research Methods in Education* (8th ed.). Routledge.
- Cole, S. (2017). The impact of tourism on rural communities in Asia. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 22(1), 1-10.
- Colton, J. (2002). Capacity Building: A Key to Community-Based Tourism Development. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 29(3), 713-728.
- Cooper, C., Fletcher, J., Fyall, A., Gilbert, D., & Wanhil, S. (2005). *Tourism principles and practice* (3rd ed.). Pearson Education.
- Cooper, C., Fletcher, J., Gilbert, D., & Wanhil, S. (1998). *Tourism: Principles and practice* (2nd ed.). Pearson Education.
- Creswell, J. W. (2019). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches* (5th ed.). Sage Publications.
- Creswell, J. W. (2019). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches* (5th ed.). SAGE Publications.
- Creswell, J. W., & Creswell, J. D. (2018). *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Methods Approaches* (5th ed.). SAGE Publications.
- Creswell, J. W., & Creswell, J. D. (2020). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches* (5th ed.). Sage Publications.
- Creswell, J. W., & Poth, C. N. (2021). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches* (5th ed.). Sage Publications.
- Czarniawska, B., Kallinikos, J., & Joerges, B. (2018). Organizations as loci of knowledge: A study of the role of local knowledge in tourism development. *Tourism Management*, 65, 65-75.
- Dangi, T. B., & Jamal, T. B. (2019). Sustainability and community participation in tourism development. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 27(4), 491-510.
- DeVeau, M., & Marshall, D. (2008). How beneficial is tourism? An analysis of the economic impact of tourism in Il N'gwesi, Kenya. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 16(2), 124-141.
- Devine, A., Wray, M., & Davies, M. (2021). Resident support for tourism development in rural areas: A regional perspective. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 29(2), 254-271. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09669582.2020.1767094>

- Dickenson, J., Fyall, A., & Leask, A. (1996). Tourism and local economic development. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 23(1), 67-79.
- Dillman, D. A., Smyth, J. D., & Christian, L. M. (2019). *Internet, Phone, Mail, and Mixed-Mode Surveys: The Tailored Design Method* (4th ed.). Wiley.
- DiPietro, R. B., & Wang, S. (2020). The role of tourism development in local entrepreneurship: A review and future directions. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 35, 100683.
- Dixey, L. (2008). Empowering local communities for sustainable tourism development: The role of capacity building. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 10(6), 547-559.
- Dixey, L. (2020). Empowering local communities for sustainable tourism development: The role of capacity building. *Tourism Economics*, 26(3), 449-461.
- Djou, M. K., Baiquni, D., Widodo, W., & Fandeli, C. (2017). Community-based tourism as a tool for local empowerment: A study from Indonesia. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 23, 12-19.
- Duggleby, W. (2020). *Focus Groups: A Practical Guide to Conducting Group Interviews*. Springer.
- Ebrahimi, N., & Khalifah, Z. (2014). Managing tourism development in rural areas: Stakeholders' roles and their relationship. *Tourism Management*, 42, 34-42.
- Elo, S., & Kyngäs, H. (2008). The qualitative content analysis process. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 62(1), 107-115.
- Epler Wood, M. (2018). Empowerment in community-based tourism development. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 70, 51-63.
- Eramo, E. M., Trunfio, M., & Polilli, R. (2021). Economic impact of tourism on local development. *Tourism Economics*, 27(3), 517-535.
- Etikan, I., Musa, S. A., & Alkassim, R. S. (2016). Comparison of Convenience Sampling and Purposive Sampling. *American Journal of Theoretical and Applied Statistics*, 5(1), 1-4. <https://doi.org/10.11648/j.ajtas.20160501.11>
- Fennell, D. A. (1999). Ecotourism: An introduction. *Routledge*.
- Fennell, D. A. (2017). Sustainable tourism and community empowerment. *Tourism Geographies*, 19(2), 315-336.
- Field, A. (2018). *Discovering statistics using SPSS* (5th ed.). Sage Publications.
- Field, A. (2021). *Discovering statistics using IBM SPSS statistics* (5th ed.). SAGE Publications.

- Flick, U. (2020). *An Introduction to Qualitative Research* (6th ed.). SAGE Publications.
- Fowler, F. J. (2020). *Survey research methods* (5th ed.). Sage Publications.
- Gakuru, O., Karani, P., & Muturi, M. (2019). Tourism and local community economic empowerment in Kenya. *Tourism Development Journal*, 17(4), 212-226.
- Gartner, W. C. (2019). Sustainable tourism development in the global community. *Journal of Tourism Research*, 25(2), 61-75.
- George, R. (2012). *Managing tourism in South Africa*. Pearson.
- Gibbs, G. (2019). *Analyzing Focus Groups: A Practical Guide*. SAGE Publications.
- Gikonyo, A. (2020). Rural tourism in Kenya: Opportunities and challenges in Northern Kenya. *Tourism and Development Journal*, 19(1), 55-67.
- Gikonyo, M. (2020). Agricultural Tourism in West Pokot: Opportunities and Challenges. *Journal of Rural Development*, 15(2), 45-58.
- Goeldner, C. R., & Ritchie, J. R. B. (2017). *Tourism: Principles, practices, philosophies* (13th ed.). Wiley.
- González, M. A., López, A., & Rodríguez, A. (2021). Community-based tourism as a tool for sustainable development: A review. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 29(6), 917-938.
- Gössling, S., & Hall, C. M. (2021). Sustainable tourism and the community. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 29(1), 45-59.
- Gössling, S., Scott, D., & Hall, C. M. (2019). *Tourism and Sustainability: Development, Globalisation, and New Tourism in the Third World*. Routledge.
- Gössling, S., Scott, D., & Hall, C. M. (2019). *Tourism and water: Interactions, impacts, and challenges*. Routledge.
- Gössling, S., Scott, D., & Hall, C. M. (2020). *Tourism and water: Interactions, impacts, and challenges*. Channel View Publications.
- Gössling, S., Scott, D., & Hall, C. M. (2020). Tourism and water: Interactions, impacts and challenges. *Environmental Science & Policy*, 108, 1-10.
- Graci, S. (2017). Empowering local communities through community-based tourism: A case study of the Cree Village Ecolodge in Moose Factory, Ontario. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 25(4), 496-512.
- Greiner, C. (2010). Tourism and community development: The importance of infrastructure in rural areas. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 18(4), 503-524.
- Gundersen, M., & Nyhus, P. J. (2018). Local ownership and benefits in tourism development. *Journal of Rural Studies*, 58, 65-72.

- Gunn, C. A. (1994). *Tourism planning: Basics, concepts, cases* (2nd ed.). Taylor & Francis.
- Gursoy, D., Chi, C. G., & Dyer, P. (2020). Local community perceptions of tourism development and its impacts: A case study in the context of sustainable tourism. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 28(4), 492-513.
- Gursoy, D., Chi, C. G., & Dyer, P. (2020). Tourism and quality of life: The role of community attachment. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 35, 100685.
- Gutierrez, E., Kearns, R., & Newton, C. (2020). Local community empowerment in rural tourism. *Tourism Management*, 77, 104049.
- Güzel, S., Yılmaz, Y., & Özgür, T. (2020). The distribution of tourism benefits in rural communities: A case study from Turkey. *Sustainability*, 12(11), 3572. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su12113572>
- Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., & Anderson, R. E. (2019). *Multivariate data analysis* (8th ed.). Cengage.
- Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., & Anderson, R. E. (2021). *Multivariate data analysis* (8th ed.). Pearson.
- Hall, C. M. (2012). Tourism and regional development: A critical review. *Tourism Geographies*, 14(2), 158-179.
- Hall, C. M., & Richards, G. (2000). *Tourism and sustainable community development*. Routledge.
- Hamzah, A., Ibrahim, N., & Afiq, M. (2018). The socio-economic impact of community-based tourism: Case studies from Malaysia. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 20(3), 276-286.
- Hannan, M. (2008). Trouble in the paradise: Tourism and minorities: A case study of Kenya. *Tourism and Development Journal*, 15(4), 340-356.
- Hannan, R. (2008). Multinational corporations and tourism development in Kenya: Impacts on local communities. *Journal of Tourism Research*, 17(2), 45-60.
- Harris, R. (2009). Tourism and rural development. *Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 9(1), 128-141.
- Harrison, D., & Schipani, S. (2019). Community-based tourism and sustainable development. *Tourism Studies*, 13(2), 27-38.
- Hassan, H., & Coudounaris, D. (2019). Community capacity building in sustainable tourism development. *Journal of Sustainable Development*, 12(2), 93-110.
- Hassan, H., & Coudounaris, D. N. (2019). Enhancing community-based tourism through external stakeholder support. *Tourism Planning & Development*, 16(3), 319-335.

- Henning, A. (2004). *Tourism accommodation and facilities in the UK*. Routledge.
- Hennink, M. M., Kiiti, M., Pillinger, M., & Jayakaran, R. (2012). Building community capacity for tourism: Developing a framework. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 39(3), 1340-1360.
- Hsieh, H. F., & Shannon, S. E. (2005). Three approaches to qualitative content analysis. *Qualitative Health Research*, 15(9), 1277-1288.
- Hsieh, H. F., & Shannon, S. E. (2019). Three approaches to qualitative content analysis. *Qualitative Health Research*, 9(3), 127-137.
- Hunter, C. (2019). Tourism development: Implications for local communities. *Tourism Geographies*, 21(2), 213-230.
- Husbands, W. (1984). The impact of tourism on local communities: A case study from Jamaica. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 11(3), 417-433. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0160-7383\(84\)90072-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/0160-7383(84)90072-2)
- Inskip, E. (1991). *Tourism planning: An integrated and sustainable development approach*. Van Nostrand Reinhold.
- Iorio, M., & Corsale, A. (2014). The role of partnerships in community-based tourism initiatives in Italy. *Tourism Planning & Development*, 11(3), 285-302.
- Jafari, J. (2005). The encyclopedia of tourism. *Encyclopedia of Tourism*, 38-40.
- Jamal, T., & Getz, D. (2019). Tourism planning and community empowerment. *Tourism Management*, 56, 75-86.
- Jenkins, C. L. (1991). *Tourism policy and planning*. Routledge.
- Kaburu, J., Otieno, C., & Wambui, J. (2020). Missionary Guesthouses in West Pokot: A Model for Community-Based Tourism. *African Tourism Research Journal*, 28(4), 115-130.
- Kaburu, W. R., Munene, S., & Juma, F. (2020). Missionary contributions to rural development: A case of West Pokot County, Kenya. *African Development Review*, 32(3), 249-263.
- Kang, S., & Lee, H. (2019). Factors influencing local residents' perceptions of tourism in rural areas. *Tourism Review*, 74(4), 791-805. <https://doi.org/10.1108/TR-06-2018-0153>
- Karacaoğlu, S., & Birdir, S. (2017). Community-based tourism: Key principles and strategies. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 19(2), 205-213.
- Karanja, N., Kanyangi, G., & Wambua, M. (2021). Rural tourism and community development in Kenya: Opportunities and challenges in West Pokot County. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 39, 100-112.

- Karanja, S., Ndegwa, J., & Mwaura, M. (2021). Tourism development and local economic growth: The case of West Pokot County. *Journal of Rural Development*, 19(1), 44-59.
- Kayat, K. (2014). Community-based tourism: Key components for successful tourism development. *Journal of Tourism, Heritage & Services Marketing*, 1(1), 10-17.
- Kayat, K. (2014). The role of community-based tourism in the development of local economies: Evidence from Malaysia. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 16(4), 375-387.
- Kennedy, P., & Dornan, M. (2009). Tourism as a tool for poverty reduction. *International Journal of Tourism*, 12(2), 183-196.
- Kenya National Bureau of Statistics. (2019). *Population and Housing Census Report*. Government of Kenya.
- Kenya Vision 2030. (2007). *The Kenya Vision 2030: A globally competitive and prosperous Kenya*. Nairobi: Government of Kenya.
- Kenya Wildlife Service (KWS). (2010). *Tourism development in West Pokot County: Opportunities and challenges*. Nairobi: KWS.
- Kenya Wildlife Service. (2010). *Tourism and wildlife conservation: Strategies for sustainable tourism development in Kenya*. KWS.
- Khan, M., & Maher, P. (2017). Environmental accountability in sustainable tourism. *Environmental Management*, 44(3), 392-403.
- Kim, H. (2013). Community participation and sustainable tourism development. *Tourism Management*, 34, 130-142.
- Kim, H., Uysal, M., & Sirgy, M. J. (2012). How does tourism in a community impact residents? *Tourism Management*, 33(6), 1468-1476. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2012.02.001>
- Kimbu, A. N., & Tichaawa, T. M. (2020). Tourism and community well-being: The dynamics of local participation in tourism planning and management. *Tourism Geographies*, 22(3), 473-490. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14616688.2020.1812532>
- Kinyanjui, M. (2020). The impact of tourism on pastoralist communities in northern Kenya: Challenges and opportunities. *Journal of African Tourism*, 18(2), 134-148.
- Kiptot, E., Ogutu, J., & Thuku, M. (2018). Economic impact of tourism on local communities in Kenya: The case of pastoralist regions. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 26(8), 1245-1261.
- Kiss, A. (2018). Capacity Building for Sustainable Development in Community-Based Ecotourism. *Environmental Conservation*, 44(2), 121-134.

- Krippendorff, K. (2018). *Content analysis: An introduction to its methodology* (4th ed.). Sage publications.
- Krippendorff, K. (2019). *Content analysis: An introduction to its methodology* (4th ed.). Sage Publications.
- Krueger, R. A., & Casey, M. A. (2020). *Focus Groups: A Practical Guide for Applied Research* (6th ed.). SAGE Publications.
- Kulcsar, L. (2018). Rural tourism and sustainable development: A case study from Hungary. *Journal of Rural Studies*, 62, 1-10.
- Kulcsar, L. (2018). Tourism in rural areas: Understanding rural tourism and its characteristics. *Journal of Rural Studies*, 63, 150-159.
- Lane, B. (2009). *Rural tourism: An overview*. In: P. R. Murphy (Ed.), *The tourism and hospitality industry: An introduction*. Elsevier, 13-25.
- Lane, B. (2009). Rural tourism: An overview. *Sustainable Rural Development*, 1(3), 34-56.
- Lankford, S. V. (1994). Attitudes and perceptions of residents toward tourism development. *Journal of Travel Research*, 32(3), 35-43. <https://doi.org/10.1177/004728759403200305>
- Lapeyre, R. (2011). Community–public–private partnerships in tourism: The Grootberg lodge, Namibia. *Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 11(3), 222-235.
- Law, C. M. (1996). *Tourism in major cities*. Longman.
- Lee, C. K., Chang, J. H., & Lee, J. H. (2018). Community attachment and its effects on tourism development: A case study of rural tourism in South Korea. *Tourism Management*, 67, 78-88.
- Lee, C., & Kim, H. (2020). Tourism development and community perception: The role of education and information. *Tourism Economics*, 26(3), 401-417. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1354816620901340>
- Lee, H. (2013). Community participation in tourism: A pathway to sustainable development. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 8, 32-41.
- Lee, H. (2013). Community-based tourism: A critical review of its application to sustainable tourism development. *Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 13(1), 70-78. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1467358413487984>
- Lee, J., Lee, C., & Kim, H. (2018). Community attachment and tourism satisfaction in rural tourism: A case study of CBT destinations in South Korea. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 25, 106-114.
- Lee, T. H. (2019). Community participation in sustainable tourism development: Lessons from rural areas in Asia. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 24(2), 123-136.

- Levitt, T. (1986). *The marketing imagination*. Free Press.
- Lindberg, K., Hall, C. M., & Koo, W. W. (2019). Tourism development and rural communities: Examining the socio-economic effects of tourism. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 31, 37-46. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tmp.2019.06.005>
- Liu, A., & Wall, G. (2020). Revisiting citizen participation: Arnstein's ladder and community development. *Urban Studies*, 57(10), 2156-2174.
- Liu, J., Sheldon, P., & Var, T. (1987). Tourism and economic development. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 14(4), 467-475.
- Liu, Z., Zhang, L., & Huang, X. (2018). Community involvement in sustainable tourism: A comparative study. *Sustainable Development*, 26(5), 413-421.
- Lungwani, M. (2020). Tourism and sustainable development in Kenya: The challenges of rural community involvement. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 35, 100-114.
- Lunt, P., & Livingstone, S. (2019). Focus groups in research: Exploring the complexities of qualitative data analysis. *Research Methods in the Social Sciences*, 55(2), 112-123.
- Lunt, P., & Livingstone, S. (2019). Focus groups in research: Exploring the complexities of qualitative data analysis. *Research Methods in the Social Sciences*, 55(2), 112-123.
- Lyons, G. (1993). *Tourism and hospitality management: A global perspective*. Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Mackenzie, J., Lomas, J., & Robinson, C. (2020). Understanding community-based tourism: Capacity building in rural contexts. *Journal of Rural Studies*, 76, 141-149.
- Mansour, A., & Mahin, A. (2013). Accommodation as one of the key elements of tourism. *Tourism Review*, 18(2), 22-29.
- Massyn, T., & Swan, A. (2002). The Lekgophung Lodge: Community-owned wildlife tourism in South Africa. *Tourism Management*, 23(6), 551-558.
- Mayring, P. (2021). *Qualitative content analysis: A step-by-step guide*. Springer.
- Mbai, C. (2018). Tourism and the economy in Kenya: Growth and Development. *East African Journal of Tourism Management*, 2(3), 20-30.
- Mbai, M. (2018). *Tourism in rural Kenya: Challenges and opportunities for sustainable community development*. *Rural Development Journal*, 33(1), 72-89.
- Mbaiwa, J. E. (2021). *Tourism, development, and sustainability: Evidence from sub-Saharan Africa*. Springer.

- McGeehee, S. G., & Andereck, K. L. (2004). A model of resident reactions to tourism development in rural areas. *Journal of Travel Research*, 43(2), 153-160.
- McGehee, N. G. (2018). Community-based tourism: An exploration of the role of tourism in the development of community sustainability. *Tourism Management*, 67, 230-242. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2018.03.014>
- McGehee, N. G., & Andereck, K. L. (2017). Rural tourism: Impacts and opportunities for local communities. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 65, 93-107.
- McLennan, C. (2017). Sustainable livelihoods and tourism: The role of community-based tourism in development. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 25(1), 32-47. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09669582.2016.1180700>
- Merriam, S. B., & Tisdell, E. J. (2019). *Qualitative research: A guide to design and implementation* (4th ed.). Jossey-Bass.
- Miller, D. (2019). The role of stakeholder engagement in community-based tourism. *Journal of Tourism Research*, 39(2), 156-172. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10446423.2018.1507571>
- Milne, S. (1998). Tourism and sustainability: Development and the global-local nexus. *Tourism Management*, 19(5), 457-462.
- Mitchell, J., & Hall, C. M. (2005). Rural tourism and sustainable rural development. Channel View Publications.
- Mok, C., et al. (1995). Community participation in tourism development: The case of Lijiang, China. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 22(3), 594-616. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0160-7383\(95\)00003-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/0160-7383(95)00003-3)
- Morgan, D. L. (2020). *Focus Groups as Qualitative Research* (2nd ed.). SAGE Publications.
- Mosedale, J. (2017). Theories of sustainable tourism: Community-based models. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 19(5), 423-435. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jtr.2197>
- Mowforth, M., & Munt, I. (2020). Community-based tourism: Sustainable development and community participation. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 80, 102818.
- Mowforth, M., & Munt, I. (2020). *Sustainable tourism development: Community and environmental perspectives*. Routledge.
- Mowforth, M., & Munt, I. (2020). Tourism development and community empowerment. *Routledge Handbook of Tourism and Sustainability*, 1(1), 56-71.
- Moyo, C., Dube, L., & Mhlanga, O. (2018). The importance of community participation in sustainable tourism development in rural areas. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 25, 32-39.

- Moyo, F., Tabe, P. L., & Mwaura, M. (2018). Community-based tourism in rural Kenya: Missionary guesthouses and their role in local empowerment. *Tourism Review*, 73(1), 29-42.
- Mrema, G. (2015). Contribution of tourist hotels in socio-economic development in Mto wa Mbu, Tanzania. *Development Southern Africa*, 32(3), 351-365.
- Mtapuri, O., & Giampiccoli, A. (2020). Community-based tourism: Challenges and opportunities for local empowerment. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 28(4), 542-561.
- Mugambi, M., & Ngeno, J. (2019). Tourism and Vision 2030: Policy frameworks and challenges in rural Kenya. *African Journal of Tourism Studies*, 5(3), 130-148.
- Mugambi, P., & Ngeno, D. (2019). Community-based tourism in Kenya: A pathway to sustainable livelihoods. *Journal of Tourism Development Studies*, 24(3), 202-217.
- Müller, J. D., Fuchs, M., & Wittmer, A. (2020). Flagship tourism projects and local development in rural areas: Evidence from Kenya. *Journal of Rural Studies*, 72, 98-110.
- Murphy, P. (2018). *Community-based tourism: Concepts and strategies for sustainable development*. *Tourism Management*, 34(5), 92-106.
- Murphy, P. (2020). Tourism as a means of poverty alleviation: Community participation and local development. *Tourism Management*, 39, 234-247.
- Murphy, P. E. (1985). *Tourism: A community approach*. Routledge.
- Murray, M., & Dunn, M. (1995). *Tourism and community development: Building local capacity*. *Journal of Rural Studies*, 11(3), 253-268.
- Mwaura, M., Chege, N., & Njoroge, R. (2020). The role of infrastructure in community-based tourism development: A case study of West Pokot County, Kenya. *Journal of Tourism Development*, 22(3), 45-56.
- Mwaura, M., Okello, M., & Otieno, O. (2020). Overcoming Challenges in Rural Tourism Development: The Case of Kenya. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure*, 9(5), 400-419.
- Mwaura, M., Okello, M., & Otieno, O. (2021). Tourism as a tool for rural development in Kenya: Opportunities and challenges. *African Journal of Tourism, Hospitality, and Leisure*, 10(1), 58-72.
- Mwaura, P., Mwangi, A., & Murithi, F. (2021). *Exploring Adventure Tourism in West Pokot: Potential and Challenges*. *Journal of Outdoor Recreation*, 12(1), 23-35.
- Navarro, E., Perales, M., & López, S. (2021). Capacity building and sustainable tourism development in rural communities. *Tourism Economics*, 27(1), 95-113.

- Navarro, M., Ruiz, M., & Baños, A. (2019). *The role of capacity building in achieving sustainable tourism development. Journal of Tourism & Development*, 16(1), 25-41.
- Neuendorf, K. A. (2017). *The content analysis guidebook* (2nd ed.). Sage publications.
- Neuman, W. L. (2014). *Social Research Methods: Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches* (7th ed.). Pearson.
- Njoroge, P., & Gikonyo, A. (2020). Irrigated agriculture and its impact on rural livelihoods: A case study of West Pokot County. *Agricultural Development Journal*, 12(2), 91-105.
- Northern Rangelands Trust (NRT). (2021). *Community wildlife conservancies in Northern Kenya: Enhancing local livelihoods through sustainable tourism*. NRT Report.
- NRT. (2021). *Eco-Tourism and Wildlife Conservation in West Pokot: The Role of Community Conservancies*. Northern Rangelands Trust Annual Report, 2021.
- Nunkoo, R., & Gursoy, D. (2012). Residents' attitudes toward tourism: A meta-analytic review. *Tourism Management*, 33(1), 14-26. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2011.02.014>
- Nunkoo, R., & Ramkissoon, H. (2019). Residents' perceptions of tourism and sustainable livelihoods. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 27(6), 876-894. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09669582.2018.1494605>
- Nwankwo, S. O., & Agboeze, J. O. (2013). Tourism and community development in Bauchi State, Nigeria. *International Journal of Tourism & Hospitality*, 15(2), 10-19.
- Nyaupane, G. P., & Poudel, S. (2011). Linkages between community participation and rural tourism development. *Tourism Management*, 32(5), 1349-1359. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2010.09.005>
- Nyaupane, G. P., & Poudel, S. (2011). Linking tourism, community participation and livelihoods: A case study of Nepal. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 38(4), 1225-1243.
- Nyaupane, G. P., & Poudel, S. (2018). Community-based tourism and its role in sustainable livelihood improvement: A comparative study. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 26(4), 576-591. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09669582.2017.1423082>
- Ocampo, J., Lara, M., & Reyes, M. (2019). Environmental and cultural conservation through community-based tourism. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 27(9), 1309-1325.

- Ocampo, R., Clark, G., & Miller, J. (2019). Conservation and community development through tourism: Lessons from rural areas. *Journal of Ecotourism*, 18(1), 22-39.
- Okazaki, E. (2008). A community-based tourism model: Its conception and application to rural areas in Japan. *Tourism Management*, 29(6), 1174-1187.
- Okazaki, E., & Sato, K. (2019). Tourism and rural development: A global perspective. *Tourism Management*, 71, 1-12. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2018.08.001>
- Okello, M., Kibet, L., & Gacheri, F. (2020). Community and Stakeholder Collaboration in Tourism Development. *Journal of Rural Studies*, 55, 159-171.
- Okello, M., Njoroge, J., & Kibet, G. (2020). Cultural Tourism in West Pokot: Enhancing Community Participation. *Tourism and Heritage Journal*, 18(3), 105-120.
- Okello, M., Wamwangi, L., & Ochieng, P. (2020). Tourism and community development in Kenya's marginalized areas: The case of South Turkana and Nasolot reserves. *International Journal of Tourism and Sustainable Development*, 9(3), 150-164.
- O'Leary, Z. (2021). *The essential guide to doing your research project* (4th ed.). Sage Publications.
- Ondicho, T. (2010). *Tourism, power and politics: The challenges of Maasai involvement in tourism development*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Nairobi, Nairobi, Kenya.
- Othman, N., Kadir, R. A., & Zawawi, F. (2013). Community-based tourism in rural areas: A case study in Malaysia. *Tourism Management*, 38, 147-155.
- Othman, N., Kadir, R. A., & Zawawi, F. (2018). Tourism development and its socio-economic impacts on rural communities in Malaysia. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 20(1), 59-69.
- Page, S. J. (2009). *Tourism management: An introduction* (3rd ed.). Routledge.
- Pakshir, M., & Nair, V. (2011). Homestays and local economic development: A case study from India. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 30(2), 375-384. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2010.08.003>
- Panasiuk, M. (2021). Tourism infrastructure and regional tourism development. *Tourism Economics*, 27(4), 599-616.
- Pang, T., & Lyu, S. (2020). Examining the relationship between community involvement and tourism development: A study of local stakeholders in rural China. *Tourism Management*, 78, 104017.

- Pattison, D., & Santos, M. (2021). Sustainable community-based tourism: Social and ecological considerations. *Journal of Sustainable Development*, 28(3), 220-237.
- Pattison, P., & Santos, E. (2021). Community-based tourism and its social and environmental impacts: A systematic review. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 29(3), 442-460.
- Pattison, R., & Santos, A. M. (2021). Tourism development and capacity building: Moving beyond beneficiaries. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 29(2), 205-221.
- Pereira, A., Pereira, D., & Rodrigues, R. (2019). Tourism and the local economy: Impact on rural communities. *Journal of Rural Studies*, 68, 147-155. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jrurstud.2019.02.005>
- Perry, C. (2004). Reliability and validity in marketing research. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 41(4), 381-391.
- Pfarr, C., Costa, E., & San Martin, G. (2021). The role of rural tourism in community development: Lessons from Kenya and beyond. *Journal of Rural Tourism Studies*, 15(4), 207-222.
- Pfarr, C., Mair, J., & Robinson, L. (2021). *Rural Tourism and Development: A Global Perspective*. Routledge.
- Pookaiyaudom, S. (2012). Sustainability and community involvement in tourism development. *International Journal of Sustainable Development and World Ecology*, 19(6), 504-515.
- Pretty, J. (1995). Participatory learning for sustainable agriculture. *World Development*, 23(8), 1247-1263.
- Rachel, F., Lewis, M., & Donohoe, H. (2016). Community management and empowerment in CBT. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 24(2), 204-220.
- Rachel, F., Lewis, M., & Donohoe, H. (2016). The role of capacity building in community-based tourism. *Journal of Tourism Research*, 14(4), 212-228.
- Ramsa, S., & Mohd, S. (2004). Empowerment and management of tourism businesses. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 31(3), 646-663.
- Ramugumba, B., & Ferreira, S. (2016). Tourism and development: The role of accommodation in destination success. *Tourism Planning & Development*, 13(3), 45-58.
- Ramugunda, L., & Ferreira, L. (2016). The role of accommodation in the tourism industry. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 19, 13-22.
- Reggers, J., Mowforth, M., & Elliott, G. (2016). Participatory rural appraisal in community-based tourism planning. *Tourism Planning & Development*, 13(3), 289-304.

- Richards, G., & Palmer, R. (2019). Community-based tourism: A sustainable path for rural development. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 30, 25-33. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tmp.2019.02.004>
- Ritchie, J. R. B., & Crouch, G. I. (2019). *The competitive destination: A sustainable tourism perspective* (2nd ed.). Cabi.
- Ritchie, J. R. B., Crouch, G. I., & Cooper, C. P. (2018). *Destination competitiveness: A model and framework for analysis*. Routledge.
- Robson, C., & McCartan, K. (2021). *Real world research: A resource for users of social research methods in applied settings* (5th ed.). Wiley.
- Roche, M. (1992). *Tourism, development and the third world*. Longman.
- Roseland, M. (2005). Toward sustainable communities: Resources for citizens and their governments. *New Society Publishers*.
- Ruhanen, L., McLennan, C., & Whelan, J. (2015). Tourism and community development: Exploring the role of education and training. *Tourism Management*, 46, 199-208.
- Ruiz-Ballesteros, E. (2011). Community-based tourism in the global south: The role of local environments and cultures in sustainable development. *Tourism and Development*, 18(3), 311-327. <https://doi.org/10.1080/21568316.2011.605559>
- Ruiz-Ballesteros, E. (2011). Indigenous cultures and sustainable development: The role of community-based tourism in preserving culture. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 7, 77-84.
- Saarinen, J. (2017). Community-based tourism and the sustainability of tourism development. *Tourism Geographies*, 19(1), 14-27. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14616688.2017.1317249>
- Sallam, S., Awad, M., & Makram, S. (2020). The comparative advantage of Kenya in the tourism sector: A review of national strategies. *African Journal of Tourism, Hospitality, and Leisure*, 9(2), 122-134.
- Sambu, M., Kipsang, W., & Ochieng, R. (2019). The potential of tourism in Turkana and West Pokot: A development perspective. *Tourism and Regional Development Journal*, 16(4), 305-320.
- Sambu, P., Ochieng, M., & Baraza, K. (2019). Community-Based Wildlife Conservancies and Sustainable Tourism in West Pokot. *African Environmental Management Journal*, 34(2), 56-70.
- Sampson, L., & Grob, J. (2019). Sample size determination in research: A guide to increasing reliability and precision. *Journal of Social Research*, 45(2), 134-142. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01575954.2019.1625614>

- Santos, E., Mergan, J., & Thomas, K. (2020). Sustainable community-based tourism development: Key elements for success. *Tourism Planning & Development*, 17(2), 213-230.
- Sapsford, R. (2019). *Survey research* (2nd ed.). Sage Publications.
- Saunders, M., Lewis, P., & Thornhill, A. (2019). *Research methods for business students* (8th ed.). Pearson Education.
- Scheyvens, R. (2002). *Tourism for development: Empowering communities*. Pearson Education.
- Scheyvens, R. (2018). *Tourism and development: A critical approach* (2nd ed.). Sage Publications.
- Scheyvens, R., & Biddulph, R. (2018). *Sustainable tourism: A community perspective*. Routledge.
- Sebele, L. S. (2010). Community-based tourism ventures: Potential for sustainable tourism development in Southern Africa. *Tourism Review International*, 14(1), 99-112.
- Sebele, L. S. (2010). Community-based tourism ventures: Potential for success. *Tourism Management*, 31(1), 63-72. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2009.01.014>
- Selin, S., & Beason, K. (1991). Tourism and community development: A review of the literature. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 18(1), 17-29.
- Serrano, G. A., & Orellana, J. J. (2021). Community-based tourism and capacity-building: The importance of training local stakeholders. *Journal of Tourism & Hospitality Education*, 21(2), 116-130.
- Shah, M. S., Kaur, P., & Singh, G. (2020). Socio-cultural impacts of tourism on host communities: A review. *Tourism Planning & Development*, 17(2), 144-161.
- Sharpley, R. (2006). *Tourism, development and the environment: Beyond sustainability?* Earthscan.
- Sharpley, R. (2019). *Tourism and development: Concepts and issues*. Channel View Publications.
- Sharpley, R., & Roberts, L. (2020). Rural tourism and the challenge of sustainability. *Tourism in Rural Development*, 22(1), 45-56.
- Sharpley, R., & Roberts, L. (2020). Rural tourism and the sustainability agenda: Lessons from Kenya's rural tourism sector. *Journal of Rural Studies*, 46, 32-45.
- Sharpley, R., & Roberts, S. (2020). *Rural tourism: An international perspective*. Routledge.

- Shone, M., Morrison, A., & Jenkins, I. (2020). Sustainable tourism development in New Zealand: Perceptions of local communities. *Tourism Geographies*, 22(3), 473-490. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14616688.2019.1616711>
- Silva, S., Costa, R., & Teixeira, C. (2020). Community-based tourism and capacity building: A case study of rural tourism in Portugal. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 34, 100671.
- Simmons, D. G. (1994). Community participation in tourism planning. *Tourism Management*, 15(2), 98-108.
- Simpson, M. (2017). The impacts of tourism on cultural practices in indigenous communities. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 23, 56-64.
- Simpson, M. (2018). Local attitudes towards tourism and the impact of community-based tourism. *Tourism Management*, 62, 285-297. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2017.08.016>
- Sindiga, I. (1999). Tourism and African development: Change and challenges of tourism in Kenya. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 26(4), 113-135.
- Singh, R. (2007). Reliability and validity in social science research: A comprehensive review. *International Journal of Research in Social Sciences*, 1(1), 1-10.
- Smith, K., & Paddison, R. (2020). *The role of local business linkages in community-based tourism*. *Journal of Sustainable Business*, 44(6), 124-133.
- Smith, M. (2020). Community-based tourism and local livelihood improvement in developing countries. *Journal of Tourism and Hospitality*, 37(5), 345-358. <https://doi.org/10.1080/21568316.2020.1777899>
- Smith, M., & Paddison, R. (2020). Resource sharing and community involvement in tourism development: The role of local residents. *Journal of Tourism and Cultural Change*, 18(3), 317-334.
- Stemler, S. (2015). *An overview of content analysis*. *Practical Assessment, Research, and Evaluation*, 7(1), 17.
- Stronza, A., & Gordillo, J. (2008). Community-based tourism and local development. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 35(3), 774-798.
- Suman, A., Kalaiarasan, M., & Ramasamy, M. (2020). An analysis of tourism and its socio-economic impacts in rural communities. *Tourism Economics*, 26(2), 295-310. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1354816619888135>
- Surya, S. (2013). The role of accommodation in tourism development. *Tourism Review*, 18(2), 32-41.
- Tavakol, M., & Dennick, R. (2019). Making sense of Cronbach's alpha. *International Journal of Medical Education*, 10, 53-55. <https://doi.org/10.5116/ijme.5c4e.3f36>

- Telfer, D. J., & Sharpley, R. (2018). Tourism and development in the global south: The need for sustainability. *Tourism Management*, 68, 164-173.
- Telfer, D. J., & Sharpley, R. (2018). *Tourism and development in the global South: The case of community-based tourism in Kenya*. In R. S. Smith & K. Williams (Eds.), *Tourism in Developing Countries: Prospects and Challenges* (pp. 105-120). Routledge.
- Teng, S. H. (2020). Sustainable tourism practices and community engagement. *Journal of Tourism Research*, 28(3), 314-330.
- Thompson, M. E., & McLeod, M. (2019). Understanding sustainable tourism through community participation. *Tourism Economics*, 25(1), 121-137. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1354816618809070>
- Timothy, D. J. (2002). Tourism and community development. *Tourism Geographies*, 4(4), 392-415.
- Timur, S., & Getz, D. (2020). Sustainable tourism: A critical perspective. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 52, 101-113.
- Tisdell, C. A. (2021). *The economics of tourism: A strategic approach*. Routledge.
- Tosun, C. (2006). Expected nature of community participation in tourism development. *Tourism Management*, 27(4), 213-227.
- Tosun, C. (2006). Expected nature of community participation in tourism development. *Tourism Management*, 27(3), 493-504.
- Tosun, C. (2020). Community-based tourism and sustainable livelihoods: The case of Turkey. *Tourism Management*, 81, 104-113. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2020.104113>
- Tosun, C. (2020). Community-based tourism: An exploration of its development and effectiveness. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 28(8), 1291-1306.
- Tosun, C. (2020). The importance of community participation in tourism development: A framework for sustainable rural tourism. *Journal of Tourism Research*, 31(2), 66-82.
- Tosun, C. (2020). Tourism development in the global south: Context, opportunities, and challenges. *Tourism Review International*, 24(3), 23-35.
- UNESCO. (2019). *Globalization and tourism: Trends, impacts, and opportunities*. United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization.
- UNWTO (2017). *International Tourism Highlights*. United Nations World Tourism Organization.
- UNWTO (2018). *International Tourism: A Driver for Development*. United Nations World Tourism Organization Report.

- UNWTO (2018). *Tourism and the Sustainable Development Goals – Journey to 2030*. United Nations World Tourism Organization.
- UNWTO (2019). *Tourism for development: Volume I - Key areas for action*. United Nations World Tourism Organization.
- UNWTO (2021). *Sustainable Development Goals and Tourism: Harnessing the potential of community-based tourism*. United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO).
- UNWTO. (2017). *Tourism and Sustainable Development Goals: Journey to 2030*. United Nations World Tourism Organization.
- UNWTO. (2019). *Tourism and poverty alleviation: New findings and perspectives*. United Nations World Tourism Organization.
- UNWTO. (2020). *Tourism for sustainable development: A catalyst for poverty reduction*. United Nations World Tourism Organization.
- UNWTO. (2021). *Tourism and sustainable development goals: The role of community-based tourism in promoting cultural heritage*. United Nations World Tourism Organization.
- Visser, M., & Scheyvens, R. (2020). The role of tourism in empowering rural women in developing countries. *Tourism Review International*, 24(4), 22-35. <https://doi.org/10.3727/154427220X15802983331447>
- Wang, D., Zhang, H., & Liu, Y. (2019). Impact of rural tourism on local economic development: A comparative study of China's rural guesthouses and homestays. *Tourism Management*, 70, 354-367. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2018.09.009>
- Wang, X., & Kwek, P. (2020). Tourism partnerships and local economic development. *Tourism Economics*, 26(5), 876-893.
- Wangari, M., Mwangi, A., & Gitau, M. (2021). Missionary guesthouses and rural tourism: Exploring their impact on community development in West Pokot County, Kenya. *Tourism and Hospitality Journal*, 18(3), 45-58.
- Wangari, S., Otieno, M., & Owuor, O. (2021). The role of local communities in tourism development: A case study of rural Kenya. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 23(5), 614-627.
- Wanyama, F., Mutua, G., & Mutongi, S. (2020). Water and Health Tourism in West Pokot: Supporting Sustainable Development through Voluntourism. *Journal of Health and Development Tourism*, 9(4), 87-102.
- Wanyama, F., Wanjiru, R., & Muturi, F. (2020). Challenges and opportunities in rural tourism development in West Pokot County, Kenya. *International Journal of Rural Tourism*, 12(1), 34-47.

- Wanyama, J., Njoroge, M., & Musyoka, J. (2020). Rural Tourism as an Alternative Economic Activity: Case Studies from Kenya. *Tourism Planning & Development*, 17(4), 1-14.
- Wearing, S., & McDonald, M. (2020). Tourism management and community empowerment: A critical perspective. *Tourism Management*, 47, 148-162.
- Weaver, D., & Lawton, L. (2017). *Tourism management* (5th ed.). Pearson.
- West Pokot County Government. (2018). *West Pokot County Integrated Development Plan (2018-2022)*. West Pokot County Government.
- West, P. (2021). Empowerment and capacity building in community-based tourism. *Tourism Management*, 82, 104216.
- Williams, A., Tisdell, C., & Hardy, A. (2021). Sustainable tourism in rural communities: Challenges and opportunities. *Tourism Planning & Development*, 18(2), 187-202. <https://doi.org/10.1080/21568316.2020.1778302>
- Wilson, J. Q., & Baldassare, M. (1996). Political participation and community engagement. *American Political Science Review*, 90(4), 787-798.
- Wilson, J. Q., & Baldassare, M. (1996). Political participation and community engagement. *American Political Science Review*, 90(4), 787-798.
- World Bank. (2010). *Kenya's Tourism: Polishing the Jewel*. World Bank Report.
- Wray, M., Davies, S., & Hall, C. M. (2021). Tourism and rural communities: Stakeholder cooperation for sustainable development. *Sustainable Development*, 29(1), 12-24. <https://doi.org/10.1002/sd.2103>
- WTO (World Tourism Organization). (1997). *Tourism and the environment: Sustainable development*. WTO.
- Yang, J., Zhang, H., & Liu, C. (2020). Local leadership in sustainable tourism development: A case study in rural China. *Journal of Rural Studies*, 78, 95-107.
- Yang, X., Zhang, L., & He, X. (2020). Leadership and tourism development: A community-based approach. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 34, 100652.
- Yang, Y., & Wall, G. (2018). Residents' attitudes towards tourism: A meta-analysis. *Tourism Management*, 68, 18-30. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2018.02.001>
- Yao, Y., Zhao, L., & Chen, S. (2022). The role of community-based tourism in sustainable development: Perspectives from the rural areas of China. *Tourism Geographies*, 24(2), 265-282.

- Yao, Z., Liu, Y., & Liu, J. (2022). The role of community-based tourism in rural poverty alleviation: A case study in the Rift Valley, Kenya. *Journal of Sustainable Development*, 23(4), 78-90.
- Yıldırım, G., & Bayram, M. (2020). Community participation and tourism planning: A sustainable development approach. *Tourism Management*, 77, 104022.
- Yıldırım, T., & Bayram, F. (2020). Community participation in community-based tourism development: A case study in Turkey. *Tourism Management*, 76, 103951.
- Yılmaz, A., & Yıldırım, M. (2019). The role of community involvement in sustainable tourism development: An analysis of community-based tourism in Turkey. *Journal of Tourism Research*, 17(5), 459-473.
- Zapata, M. J., et al. (2019). A comparative analysis of community-based tourism and sustainable livelihoods in South America. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 27(2), 189-204. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09669582.2018.1451810>
- Zeng, X., & Ryan, C. (2012). Rural tourism in China: Development, challenges and opportunities. *Tourism Review International*, 16(4), 47-59.
- Zhang, H., Liu, C., & Wang, X. (2020). Cultural tourism and community resilience: Sustainable pathways for rural development. *Journal of Rural Studies*, 75, 104-115.
- Zhang, J., & Zhang, M. (2019). Content analysis as a research method: Applications in tourism research. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 31, 241-249.
- Zhang, Y., Chen, Y., & Li, S. (2020). Exploring the relationship between community-based tourism and local sustainable development. *Sustainable Development*, 28(4), 799-811.
- Zhang, Z., Liang, W., & Hu, S. (2022). Ecological sustainability and the tourism economy: The role of environment in rural tourism development. *Tourism Management*, 82, 104144. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2020.104144>
- Zhao, X. (2009). Tourism as a development tool in developing countries. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 17(3), 169-185.
- Zhao, X., & Zhang, L. (2020). Innovations in tourism services: The role of local entrepreneurship. *Journal of Tourism Management*, 81, 104163.
- Zhao, X., & Zhang, L. (2020). Scale of tourism development and community involvement in rural areas. *Tourism Economics*, 26(3), 351-366.
- Zhao, X., Li, Y., & Zhang, L. (2021). Training and awareness in sustainable tourism development. *Journal of Ecotourism*, 21(1), 55-68.

APPENDICES

Appendix I: Questionnaire for Households (Local Community Members)

Dear Community Member,

Thank you for accepting this survey. This survey seeks to collect data towards a study titled: ***“COMMUNITY-BASED TOURISM, GUEST SATISFACTION AND SUSTAINABLE LIVELIHOODS IN MISSIONARY GUESTHOUSES IN WEST POKOT COUNTY, KENYA”***

You are kindly requested to give information about your household as requested in the questionnaire. Your household has been randomly selected from the 2009 census information and your sub-location household registers (and from staff register for the employees). It should take approximately fifteen minutes of your time to complete. The information will be used for purposes academic research only and any information collected herein will be treated as confidential.

May I take this opportunity to thank you in advance for your co-operation towards the successful completion of this questionnaire.

Thank you,
Mr. Ng'oriarita Plimo Jonathan
Department of Tourism Management
School of Tourism, Hospitality & Events Management
Moi University, Kenya.

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS

S/N	Demographic	Please tick the appropriate answer
A1	Household's category	(a)Staffs (MGH employees) (b) Non-Staffs (Non-MGH employees)
A2	Sub-County of residence	(a) West Pokot (b) Central Pokot (c) North Pokot (d) South Pokot
A3	Gender	(a) Female (b) Male
A4	Age Bracket	(a) Under 20 years old (b) 20-29 years (c) 30-39 years (d) 40-49 years (e) 50 years and above
A5	Respondents' highest education level	(a)Primary school level (b)Secondary school level (c)Tertiary level (d)University Level (e)Never Went to School
A6	Duration of residency in the study area	(a)Less than 1 year (b)2-5 years (c) 6-10 years (d)Over 10 years

A7	Duration of MGH employment (Staffs only)	(a)Less than 1 year (b)2-5 years (c) 6-10 years (d)Over 10 years
A8	Guesthouse Sponsoring Church	(a)Catholic (b)ELCK (c)AIC (d) Baptist (e)RCEA
A9	Church attended by the respondent	(a)Catholic (b)ELCK (c)AIC (d) Baptist (e)RCEA
A11	Household size	(a)Less than 3 Members (b)3-5 Members (c)5-10 Members (d)Over 10 Members
A12	Distance to mission guesthouse	(a)0-2 Km (b)3-5 Km (c)Over 5 Km
A13	Occupation of the respondent	(a) Civil Servant (b) Private sector (c)Self employed (d) Parastatal employee (e)church related employment (f) Unemployed (g) NGO/CBO employed (h) Any other (specify)
A14	If employed, nature of employment	(a) Casual (b)Temporary (c)Permanent (d)Contract (e)Any other (specify)
A15	Household energy source	(a)Firewood (b)Charcoal (c)Gas (d)Paraffin (e)Electricity
A16	Marital Status	(a) Married (b) Single (c) Separated (d) Widowed
A17	Major household income source	(a)Salaries (b)Subsistence farming (c)Pastoralism (d)Business (e)Entertainment (performing dances) (f) Any other (specify)
A18	<u>Distance to Social Services</u> <i>Distance to School</i>	(a)0-2 Km (b)3-5 Km (c)Over 5 Km

	<i>Distance to water source</i>	(a)0-2 Km (b)3-5 Km (c)Over 5 Km
	<i>Distance from respondents' home to health facility</i>	(a)0-2 Km (b)3-5 Km (c)Over 5 Km
	<i>Distance to Shopping Centre</i>	(a)0-2 Km (b)3-5 Km (c)Over 5 Km
	<i>Distance to Government administrative offices</i>	(a)0-2 Km (b)3-5 Km (c)Over 5 Km
A19	Household type	(a)Mud-walled, grass thatched (b)Mud-walled, iron sheet roofed (c)Brick-walled, iron sheet roofed (d) Any other type (Specify)
A20	Household main water source	(a)Tap (b)Borehole (c)River/stream (d)Dam/pan (e)Tanker
A21	Nature and extent of households' reliance of MGHs	(a)Main household livelihoods directly derived from the MGH activities (b)Household livelihood partly derived from the MGH activities (c)Main Household livelihood induced by MGH activities (d)Main source of water supported through the MGH initiatives (e)Main health facility supported through the MGH initiatives (f)Household members come into direct contact with MGH guests
A22	Local communities Awareness of the MGHs in their localities	<u>Aspect of local community Awareness</u> (a)I'm aware of the existence of MGHs in my locality (b)I personally know of people employed at the Guesthouse (c)My community members get involved with the activities of MGHs (d)I'm aware of the benefits of the MGHs to the local community (e)I'm aware on how to handle MGH guests once they visit our villages (f)I'm aware of my rights while engaging with the MGHs guests (g)I'm aware of the quality of products to supply to the MGH

B: Local communities' opinion about impacts of MGHs in the locality.

4-Point Scale: 4 = Frequently; 3 = Occasionally; 2=Somehow; 1 = Not at all (NA)

<i>B</i>	<i>Statement</i>	<i>Frequently</i>	<i>Occasionally</i>	<i>Somehow</i>	<i>NA</i>
B1	Local community secure employment opportunities in MGHs				
B2	MGHs in my locality have had a positive impact in the area				
B3	MGHs driven tourism activities has overall positive impact on the local economy				
B4	MGHs driven tourism activities has overall positive impact on the social fabric of the host community				
B5	MGHs have raised my household's standards of living				

C: Local communities' participation in MGHs

Please rate the extent to which local communities participate in MGHs by scoring the statements below using a 5-Point Scale where: SA = Strongly Agree (5); A = Agree (4); N=Neutral (3); D = Disagree (2); SD = Strongly Disagree (1)

<i>C</i>	<i>Statement</i>	<i>SA</i>	<i>A</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>D</i>	<i>SD</i>
C1	Participate in electing MGH committees					
C2	We can host guests of MGHs in our homes					
C3	We entertain MGH guests at the guesthouse					
C4	We sell items to MGH guests					
C5	We attend workshops and seminars at MGHs					
C6	We give opinions and decisions on MGH issues					
C7	We supply items to the MGHs					
C8	We secure employment at the MGHs					
C9	We are involved in MGH strategy meetings					
C10	We guide guesthouse guests around					
C11	We receive and welcome MGH guests					

D. Activities and programmes of MGHs

Please rate the extent to which you agree on CBT activities and programmes of MGHs by scoring the statements below using a 5-Point Scale where: SA = Strongly Agree (5); A = Agree (4); N=Neutral 3); D = Disagree (2); SD = Strongly Disagree (1)

<i>D</i>	<i>Statements</i>	<i>SA</i>	<i>A</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>D</i>	<i>SD</i>
D1	MGHs are owned by the local communities					
D2	There are strong linkages between MGHs and other Local businesses					
D3	Pursuit of local communities' socio-economic goals are supported by MGHs					
D4	Tourism development capacities of local communities and stakeholders are build by MGHs					
D5	MGHs support tourism & hospitality skill acquisition and training of the local communities					
D6	The MGHs help to position the rural areas and communities as tourism destinations					
D7	MGHs are accountable to local communities and other stakeholders					
D8	The MGHs support technology transfer within their localities					

E. Rural tourism

Please rate the extent to which you agree on the following statements on rural tourism by scoring on a 5-Point Scale: SA=Strongly Agree (5); A=Agree (4); N=Neutral (3); D=Disagree (2); SD=Strongly Disagree (1)

	Statements	SA	A	N	D	SD
E1	MGHs have stimulated tourism developments in our locality					
E2	MGHs have developed and improved the capacity for management and governance of tourism among community members					
E3	MGHs provide resources essential for local tourism growth					
E4	MGHs enhances local ownership of their own tourism sector in our community					
E5	MGHs contribute to development of communities' tourism & hospitality skills					
E6	MGHs support rural tourism by providing accommodation to rural tourists					
E7	MGHs positively transform the touristic image of the area/community					
E8	MGHs have acted as tourism development flagship projects in the area					
E9	MGHs promote and market the area as a tourism destination					
E10	MGHs in West Pokot County have improved accessibility					

E. Sustainable Livelihoods of local communities on MGHs

Please rate the extent to which you agree on sustainable livelihood assets from MGHs to the local communities by scoring the following statements on a 5-Point Scale: SA=Strongly Agree (5); A=Agree (4); N=Neutral (3); D=Disagree (2); SD=Strongly Disagree (1)

F	Financial assets Statements	SA	A	N	D	SD
F1	Monies generated from the MGHs have been re-invested in the local economy and boosted the local community's economy					
F2	Monies generated from the MGHs circulate within the local economy					
F3	MGHs have made financial credit access easier for community members					
F4	Local community have earned incomes from the MGHs in their locality					
F5	MGHs ensure equitable distribution of tourism revenues in the community					
F6	MGHs support Income-generating activities for the household members					
F7	MGHs facilitate cash remittances from sponsors to household members					
G	Human Assets Statements	SA	A	N	D	SD
G1	MGHs give bursaries used to educated community members hence building skills base					
G2	MGHs offer training and hospitality skill development among local community members					
G3	MGHs employ local community members when opportunities do arise					
G4	MGHs support skills transfers to communities' through on-the					

	job training					
G5	MGHs have improved the level of Education of household members					
G6	MGH support health centers which has improved overall households' health					
H	Natural Assets	<i>SA</i>	<i>A</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>D</i>	<i>SD</i>
H1	MGHs have boosted conservation and re-vitalization of natural environmental resources.					
H2	MGHs contribute towards a sustainable use of natural resource localities					
H3	MGHs have rehabilitated community lands by boosting their productivity					
H4	MGHs have stimulated the local communities' conservation efforts					
H5	MGHs water handling technologies have improved farm irrigation and good use of idle land					
H6	MGHs increased water access to communities for household and livestock					
I	Physical assets	<i>SA</i>	<i>A</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>D</i>	<i>SD</i>
I1	MGHs have improved road network in the locality (areas adjacent to MGHs)					
I2	Through MGHs water availability has improved (Piped water & boreholes)					
I3	MGHs have built and improved school facilities infrastructure					
I4	Through MGHs, power connectivity has improved and made easier					
I5	Through MGHs, security lights for the local area have been enabled and improved.					
I6	MGHs facilitate access to basic social services - water, dispensaries, schools					
J	Social assets	<i>SA</i>	<i>A</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>D</i>	<i>SD</i>
J1	MGH strengthen social bond among community members by uniting them.					
J2	MGH has improved access to social services among local community					
J3	MGH positively develop relationships btw communities and the outside.					
J4	MGHs inculcate good values which positively impact on community devt					
J5	MGH impact on management of social organizations e.g local schools					
J6	MGHs ensure local tourism is owned and controlled by local communities					
J7	MGHs present local communities with an opportunity for host-guest interaction					

K. Socio-Economic Benefits

Please rate the extent to which the local communities perceive economic and social benefits from MGHs by scoring the following statements on a 5-Point Scale: SA=Strongly Agree (5); A=Agree (4); N=Neutral (3); D=Disagree (2); SD=Strongly Disagree (1)

K	Economic benefits statements	SA	A	N	D	SD
K1	Employment is created for local community members by					

	MGHs					
K2	Market are created for local produce by MGHs					
K3	Household incomes have been increased by MGHs					
K4	Local infrastructure network have improved by MGHs					
K5	There is improvement of community's standards of living from MGHs					
K6	Tourism development by MGHs has linkages with local economic sectors					
K7	MGH tourism has created new income streams in our locality					
K8	MGHs stimulate and empower household entrepreneurial character					
	Social benefits statements	SA	A	N	D	SD
L1	Missionary' guesthouse brings visitors closer to us					
L2	MGHs bring health services closer to us					
L3	We maintain post-visit contact with guests to MGHs					
L4	MGHs have led to cultural exchange between local people and guests					
L5	MGHs have contributed to re-vitalization of local culture, arts and crafts					
L6	MGHs support establishment of local schools thus improving literacy					
L7	MGHs have enhanced social cohesion among local community members					

THANK YOU

Appendix II: Questionnaire for Tourists/Guests

Dear MGH Visitor/Guest,

Thank you for accepting this survey. This survey seeks to collect data towards a study titled: ***“Community-Based Tourism, Guest Satisfaction and Sustainable Livelihoods of Local Community Living adjacent to Missionary Guesthouses in West Pokot County, Kenya”***. You are requested to give information about your experience as a guest to this facility as requested in the questionnaire. You have been randomly selected from among the guests. It should take approximately fifteen minutes of your time to complete. The survey results will be treated with confidentiality.

May I take this opportunity to thank you in advance for your co-operation towards the successful completion of this questionnaire?

Thank you,
Mr. Ng'oriarita Plimo Jonathan
Department of Tourism and Tour Operations Management
School of Tourism, Hospitality & Events Management
Moi University, Kenya.

Kindly indicate your response by marking or ticking against the choices available

A: Demographic characteristic of the MGHs guests

	Demographic Variable	Sub-variable	
A1	Gender	(a)Male (b)Female	
A2	Age Bracket	(a)Under 20 years (b)20-29 years (c)30-39 Years (d)40-49 Years (e)50-59 Years (f)60 Years and above	
A3	Marital Status	(a)Single (b)Married (c)Divorced/Separated (d)Widowed	
A4	Level of education	(a)Primary (b)Secondary (c)Tertiary (d)University	
A5	Indicate your occupation	(a)Self-Employed (b)Civil Servant (c)CBO/NGO employed (d)Church employee (e)Retired	
A6	Category of visit	(a)Domestic (b)International	
A7	If you are an international guest, indicate your	(a)Within East Africa (b)Rest of Africa	

	region of origin	(c)Europe (d)America (e)Asia	
A8	How did you get information regarding the MGH	(a)Through the Church (b)Through Previous Visits (c)Through the Media/Publications (d)Through family & Friends (e)Any other (Specify)-through internet	
A9	Nature of your travel	(a)Alone (b)In a group	
A10	If travelling in a group, what is your group size	(a)Less than 5 members (b)5-10 Members (c) Over 10 members	
A11	If travelling in a group, what is the composition of your group members	(a)Friends (b)Work mates (c)Family (d)Business associates (e)Missionary group	
A12	What is the duration of your stay in the region	Overnight stay 1-5 days 5-10 Days Over 10 days	
A13	Indicate your monthly income bracket in Kshs	Less than 10,000 10,000-20,000 21,000-30,000 31,000-40,000 41,000-50,000 Over 50,000	
A14	What is your estimated expenditure while in the area in Kshs	Less than 1,000 1,000-5000 5,001-10,000 10,001-15,000 15,001-20,000 Over 20,000	
A15	Items that you will spend money on	Paying for accommodation Meals Buying Souvenirs Donating to charity/Philanthropic donations Giving tokens/tips to staffs	
A16	Have you previously visited this area	Yes No	
A17	If yes above, where did you seek accommodation	In the same Missionary Guesthouse In another Missionary Guesthouse In private Lodgings In friend's house	
A18	If you have previously visited, how many times	Once Twice Three times Four times Five times and above	

A19	Means of transport used by the guesthouse guest	Private Car Hired van Public Service Vehicle Tourist Van Organization's vehicle Any other (Specify)	
A20	Reason for travel to the area	Evangelism and volunteer Leisure and relaxation Visiting Friends & Relatives (VF&R) Business Official Government Functions Education purposes	
A21	Who pays for your trip/visit	Myself My employer My Church My parents/guardians My Sponsor	

B. Engaging in tourism activities in the area

Indicate the likelihood of engaging in tourism activities while a guest at the MGH on a 3-point scale where: 3=Highly likely; 2=Likely, 1= Unlikely

	Statements	3	2	1
B1	There is likelihood of engaging in Mountain Climbing while in the area			
B2	I may tour local homesteads while at this area			
B3	I would engage in building/repairing community projects			
B4	I wish to attend cultural performances and ceremonies while in this area			
B5	There are chances of attending church services and crusades			
B6	I would like to visit shopping centers and open air markets			
B7	I may engage in paragliding activities			

C. Guests' expectations & experiences at the MGHs

Please indicate the extent to which the MGHs met your expectations by scoring the following statements on a 5-point scale where: 5=Exceeded Expectation, 4= Matched Expectation, 3=Below Expectation 2=did not meet Expectation 1= No Comment

	Statements	5	4	3	2	1
C1	Food quality and service					
C2	Overall guesthouse security					
C3	Laundry facilities and services offered					
C4	Standard of room furniture					
C5	Quality of Kitchen utensils					
C6	Overall quality of the accommodation					
C7	Toilet and bathroom facilities					
C8	General hygiene of the guesthouse					
C9	Staff-Guest interactions					
C10	Quality of the guesthouse linen					

D. Guests Services Received at the MGHs

Indicate your rating of the following services received at the MGH on a 5-point scale where: 5=Excellent; 4=Very Good; 3=Good; 2=Fair; 1=Bad

D	Statements	5	4	3	2	1
D1	Quality of accommodation facilities					

D2	Quality of meals served in the guesthouses					
D3	Employees friendliness					
D4	Hospitality of the local communities					
D5	Quality of entertainments					
D6	Accessibility to the guest houses and attractions					
D7	Quality of camping grounds					
D8	Quality and quantity of water supply					
D9	Quality of conference facilities					
D10	Awareness of the employees to their roles					

E. Guests' satisfaction with MGH attributes

Please indicate your level of satisfaction with the following aspects of the MGH where:

5=Very satisfied, 4=Satisfied, 3= Neutral, 2= Dissatisfied, 1 =Very dissatisfied

	Statements	5	4	3	2	1
E1	Quality of accommodation services received at the MGH					
E2	Nature and quality of the dining area					
E3	Accessibility of the MGH from the main road					
E4	Safety & security at the MGH					
E5	Quality of meals served at the MGH					
E6	Overall realization of the value for money in MGH services					
E7	Attitude of staff towards guesthouse guests					
E8	Overall cleanliness of the guesthouse					
E9	Overall efficiency and competencies of the guesthouse staff					
E10	Knowledge and performance of tour guides					
E11	Quality of conference facilities provided at the MGH					
E12	MGH bathroom utilities					

F	Do you recommend others to seek accommodation in the MGHs	Yes	No
----------	---	------------	-----------

Thank you

Appendix III: Interview Schedule

1. How does the local community participate in missionary guesthouse?
2. What activities do MGH undertake to support community-based tourism in the area?
3. What challenges exist with regard to ownership of the MGHs?
4. How were missionary houses converted to guesthouses?
5. How have the MGHs assisted in the development of tourism in the area?

Appendix IV: Interview Schedule for Guests

1. How did you finance your trip?
2. What are your comments about the accommodation facilities?
3. How do you find the price as compared to the value for money received?
4. Comment on the traditional food, culture and cultural dances.
5. How was the hospitality services that you received?
6. What is good about the guesthouses?

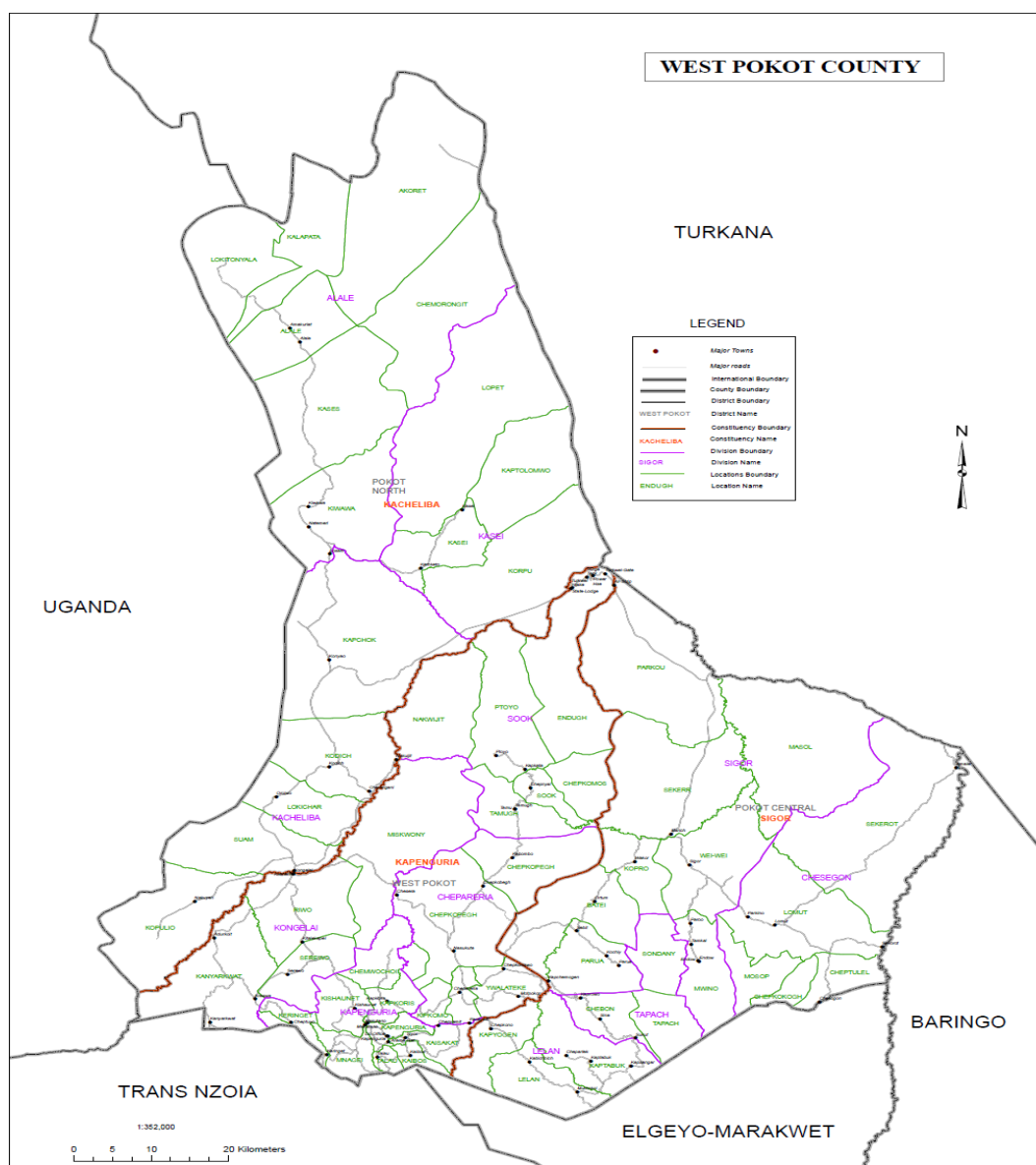
Appendix V: Focus Group Discussion Schedule for Management Committee**Members**

1. How have MGHs assisted the local community?
2. Have skills of the local community been developed with the presence of the missionary guesthouses?
3. What are the impacts of MGHs on the local community?
4. What are the challenges faced by MGHs?
5. How have the MGHs contributed to sustainability in the local community?
6. How do the local communities interact with missionaries and visitors of MGHs?
7. What are the economic benefits derived by the local community from MGHs?
8. What are the social benefits from MGHs?
9. How do MGHs support sustainable rural tourism?

Appendix VI: Map on Location of West Pokot County



Appendix VII: Map of the County's Administrative/Political Units



Appendix VIII: Plate 1 – 4 (The MGHs)



Plate 1: Alale Catholic Guesthouse (Visitors' Palour)



Plate 2 – ELCK Kapenguria Guesthouses



Plate 3: ELCK Propoi Guesthouse



Plate 4: AIC Guesthouse, Kameris



Plate 5: AIC Guesthouse, Akiriamet

Appendix IX: Recommendation Letter for Data Collection



**MOI UNIVERSITY
OFFICE OF THE DEAN
SCHOOL OF TOURISM, HOSPITALITY & EVENTS MANAGEMENT**

Telephone: 0715054320/0754349595
Fax: (053) 43047
E-mail: deansthe@mu.ac.ke

Box 3900
ELDORET
Kenya

Ref: MU/STHE/PG/23

4th July, 2017

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

Dear Sir/Madam,

**RE: RECOMMENDATION LETTER FOR - MR. NG'ORIRITA PLIMO
JONATHAN – SBE/DPHIL/TOU/014/09**

The above named is a bonafide student of Moi University, School of Tourism, Hospitality and Events Management. He is pursuing a Doctor of Philosophy in Tourism Management degree in the Department of Tourism Management.

He has successfully completed his course work and defended his proposal titled: **"Missionaries' Guesthouses, Community-Based Tourism; and Sustainable Local Livelihoods in West Pokot County, Kenya: A Socio-economic Analysis."**

Mr. Plimo has been allowed to proceed to the field for data collection.

Any assistance accorded to him will be appreciated.

Yours faithfully,



**PROF. DAMIANNAH KIETI
DEAN, SCHOOL OF TOURISM, HOSPITALITY & EVENTS MANAGEMENT**

Appendix X: Plagiarism Report



ISO 9001:2019 Certified Institution

SR738

THESIS WRITING COURSE

PLAGIARISM AWARENESS CERTIFICATE

This certificate is awarded to

NG'ORJARIJA PLIMO JONATHAN

SBE/ D. PHIL/TOU/014/09

In recognition for passing the University's plagiarism

Awareness test for Thesis entitled: **COMMUNITY-BASED TOURISM, GUEST SATISFACTION AND SUSTAINABLE LIVELIHOODS IN MISSIONARY GUESTHOUSES IN WEST POKOT COUNTY, KENYA** with similarity index of 5% and striving to maintain academic integrity.

Word count:76200

Awarded by

Prof. Anne Syomwene Kisilu

CERM-ESA Project Leader Date: 10/12/2024