

**DETERMINANTS OF DOMESTIC TOURISM PARTICIPATION AND NON-  
PARTICIPATION AMONGST RESIDENTS OF NAIROBI CITY COUNTY,  
KENYA**

**BY**

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## DECLARATION

### Declaration by Candidate

I declare that 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 produced without prior written permission of the author and/or Moi University.

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## **DEDICATION**

This thesis is dedicated to my lovely daughters Stacy and Ashley for being a source of inspiration and the driving force behind the hard work. God bless each one of you in all areas of your life.

## ABSTRACT

Tourism is a key driver of development accounting for 10% of GDP worldwide. Despite the fact that domestic tourism accounts for a significant proportion of this industry globally, its uptake in developing countries is still lower than the international threshold. This study therefore, sought to evaluate the influence of demographic characteristics, travel preferences, motivation and constraints (independent variables) on domestic tourism participation and non-participation (dependent variable) of residents of Nairobi City County. The study hypothesized that there was no significant difference in the independent variables of domestic tourism participants and non-participants. It also hypothesized that there was no relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variable. The main theory informing the study was the motivation-opportunity-ability theory. Descriptive and explanatory sequential research designs were used. The study targeted both domestic tourists (participants) and non-tourists (non-participants) drawn from Nairobi residents aged above 18 years. Systematic sampling was used to pick 337 participants from selected tourist destinations while multi stage sampling was used to select 339 non-participants from shopping centres in Nairobi. Purposive sampling was used to select 4 key informants from institutions involved in domestic tourism. Data was collected using questionnaires and an interview schedule. Reliability test for the questionnaire resulted in an alpha value of 0.875. Binary logistic regression analysis revealed that preferences, ( $B=1.412$ ,  $p<0.001$ ) and constraints ( $B=-1.311$ ,  $p<0.001$ ) significantly predicted participation, while motivation ( $B=.065$ ,  $p=0.515$ , *ns*) was not a significant predictor. The resultant logit model was as follows:  $P_{dt}/(1-P_{ndt}) = \exp(0.943 + 1.412 \text{ preferences} - 0.065 \text{ motivation} - 1.311 \text{ constraints})$ . Chi square results showed that demographic characteristics influenced participation and that they exhibited a mix of both similarities and differences between participants and non-participants. The independent t-test revealed significant differences between participants and non-participants for preferences, motivation and constraints. The participating respondents displayed stronger preferences than the non-participating respondents ( $t = -3.04$ ,  $df = 674$ ,  $p = 0.002$ ). They were also more motivated than the non-participating ones ( $t = -9.96$ ,  $df = 674$ ,  $p = 0.001$ ). Conversely, the non-participating respondents displayed more constraints than the participating ones ( $t = -15.18$ ,  $df = 674$ ,  $p = 0.001$ ). Thematic analysis revealed that domestic tourists prefer affordable products and memorable experiences, are motivated by fun and the need to bond, and are constrained by lack of product variety and cost. The study concluded that the main determinants of participation in domestic tourism were demographic characteristics, preferences and constraints. These variables differed between participants and non-participants. It was recommended that in order to increase participation, there was need to diversify products to meet the preferences of the two groups. Market segmentation based on demographic profiling was seen as key in identification of the most lucrative segments to target with specific products. There was also need to mitigate the main constraints namely; lack of free time and cost of products for participants, and lack of product variety and travel culture for non-participants. The study contributes to new knowledge in domestic tourism participation and non-participation by comparing the two groups, hence enabling formulation of strategies that retain existing tourists and those that convert the non-tourists into active participants.

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**ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS**

ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
ASK	Agricultural Society of Kenya
DTC	Domestic Tourism Council
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GOK	Government of Kenya
KNBS	Kenya National Bureau of Statistics
KTB	Kenya Tourist Board
KWS	Kenya Wildlife Service
MBIE	Ministry of Business Innovation and Employment
MCTA	Mombasa Coast Tourism Association
MOA	Motivation Opportunity Ability
NACOSTI	National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovations
SMS	Short Message Service
SPSS	Statistical Packages for the Social Sciences
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Program
USA	United States of America
USD	United States Dollar
UNWTO	United Nations World Tourism Organization
VFR	Visiting Friends and Relatives
WTTC	World Travel and Tourism Council

## OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF TERMS

<b>Constraints</b>	Challenges or barriers that prevent or limit participation in domestic tourism
<b>Demographic</b>	These are variables that define the attributes of a population <b>Characteristics</b> defined in terms of age, gender, level of education, income, occupation and stage in family life cycle
<b>Domestic tourism</b>	Travel of citizens away from their usual residences for a period not exceeding one year for leisure within their country of origin. It involves a market transaction and may be either an overnight stay or a day trip
<b>Motivation</b>	The factors that are likely to either attract (pull) or drive (push) one to participate in domestic tourism
<b>Non-Participation</b>	Act of not taking part in domestic tourism due to existence of a barrier
<b>Participation</b>	Actively taking part in domestic tourism
<b>Tourism Preference</b>	Availability of products that meet tourism needs. A liking/inclination towards one alternative over the other leading to the selection or choice of that alternative over the rest
<b>Tourist activities</b>	Past times or pursuits carried out for leisure within a tourism destination
<b>Tourist Destination</b>	Place that has one or more tourism activities and is visited for leisure

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## **CHAPTER ONE**

### **INTRODUCTION**

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

#### **1.1 Background to the Study**

Tourism is one the key drivers of development globally. According to UNWTO (2018), tourism accounted for 10% global gross domestic product (GDP) in 2017 with 1 out of 10 jobs arising from tourism. Coming closer home, tourism is one of the major foreign exchange earners for Kenya that resulted in receipts of \$1,879 million in 2017 which accounted for 18.1% of total exports. It also accounted for 9.7% of the country's GDP and was responsible for 9.2% of total employment in the country in the same year (World Travel Tourism Council, 2018). Multilateral organizations such as the World Bank, International Monetary Fund and the UNDP view tourism as a potential tool for economic diversification and regeneration, poverty reduction, post conflict stability, socioeconomic recovery, multilateral integration and peace (Novelli *et al.*, 2012). It is therefore a very significant industry not only to Kenya but to many countries all over the world.

The United Nation in its recommendations on tourism statistics classified tourism into three forms namely domestic tourism, inbound tourism and outbound tourism (United Nations World Tourism Organization, 2010). Inbound and outbound tourism involves international travel while domestic tourism refers to travel within the confines of the country in which one resides. The focus of this study is domestic tourism. The United Nation World Tourism Organisation (2010), further defines domestic tourism as “the activities of persons travelling to and staying in places outside their usual environment

but within their country of residence for not more than one year for leisure, business and other personal purposes not related to work or employment.”

Domestic tourism has been proved to result in a number of benefits both to the local destinations and to the country as a whole. Domestic tourism acts as a shock absorber to destinations as it presents a more predictable and stable demand. Additionally, it is more likely to have repeat visitors and is not prone to fluctuations of international tourism market (World Travel Tourism Council, 2019). Besides, it is less vulnerable to external factors such as disease outbreaks, insecurity, bad publicity, poor weather, natural disasters, travel advisories international political events and exchange rate fluctuations (Scheyvens, 2007; Okello et al., 2012). This is well exemplified by the outbreak of novel corona virus that has affected international travel more than domestic tourism. The latter was already on its way to recovery in most destinations by late 2020 while projections from UNWTO showed that the earliest that international tourism was expected to recover was 2021 (UNWTO, 2020).

Another example is from the Kenya National Bureau of Statistics (2016) who cited terror attacks, negative travel advisories and Ebola outbreak in West Africa as the cause of a 12.6% decrease in international tourism arrivals in Kenya in 2015. The year also witnessed a Ksh. 84.6 billion decline in tourism revenue despite the occurrence of high-level events during this period namely the papal visit, the tenth World Trade Organizations’ ministerial conference and the visit by the US president. Domestic tourism has also been credited as a major driver for the substantial improvement seen in Kenya’s tourism performance for the year 2018 (Tourism Research Institute, 2018).

In essence, domestic tourism cushions the industry against seasonality that characterizes international tourism (Mutinda & Mayaka, 2012 ; World Travel Tourism



Council, 2019). It further acts as a viable buffer for destinations as they experience increasing competition from overseas by destinations with similar products (Cooper *et al.*, 2008 ; Sindiga, 1996). In deed as alluded to by (Yap, 2010), domestic tourism remains one of the backbones of a country's economic progress as it supports the tourism industry when international arrivals are minimal hence reducing the exposure of the tourism industry to fluctuations in international demand.

As observed by Sindiga (1996) and Ndivo *et al.* (2012), domestic tourism plays a key role in both national and regional economic development. It contributes to a country's GDP and employment through direct purchases of goods and services by the various sectors that deal directly and indirectly with the tourists (World Travel Tourism Council, 2018). It also results in import substitution, as the country saves on foreign exchange that would have been used if its citizens engaged in outbound tourism (Magableh & Kharabsheh, 2013). It is therefore a major source of government revenue (GOK, 2007; Cheloti, 2011).

Domestic tourism promotes balanced regional development and backward region's economic growth (Li *et al.*, 2015; Goh *et al.*, 2014). Domestic tourism has been known to ensure spreading of economic development through visits by metropolitan tourists to both popular and less known areas of the country hence redistributing not only tourism flows but also the economic benefits that come with it (World Travel Tourism Council, 2019). This has resulted in numerous benefits including the flow of investment as new commercial and industrial ventures are stimulated, correction of inequitable geographic tourist spread, growth of informal sector and small-scale enterprises, distribution of personal wealth, employment creation, poverty reduction, linkages to other sector of the local economy, provision of a market for locally produced goods and services and

development of the local infrastructure. Domestic tourism can therefore be said to facilitate the adjusting of regional economic development gaps (Wang & Chen, 2013). Additionally, domestic tourism is also seen as a significant contributor to local economies within the destination areas. This is particularly noteworthy in the Kenyan setting in the current era of devolution as domestic tourism becomes a substantial contributor to county economies and their general development agenda. Moreover, domestic tourists tend to avoid prepaid packages and purchase local products and services hence boosting local entrepreneurship, reducing leakages and maximizing benefits to the locals (Schmallegger *et al.*, 2011; Choo, 2015). It also tends to exhibit fewer negative social impacts on the destination since domestic tourists tend to indulge less in hedonistic and potentially problematic behaviour when at home than when abroad (Canavan, 2012). This is reiterated by Kihima (2015) who opined that the Kenyan domestic tourist who travels from Nairobi to Mombasa for hedonism ends up doing the same activities that they would have done in Nairobi.

Domestic tourists also have more realistic expectations of local attractions making it easier to meet and satisfy their needs (Fennell, 2015; Kihima, 2015). They are also less prone to changing tastes (Urry, 2002). The level of investment required for domestic tourism is in most cases less than that required for international tourism demand (Goh *et al.*, 2014). It therefore acts as a simpler substitute for investors compared to international tourism since it has fewer barriers to overcome (Magableh & Kharabsheh, 2013).

Domestic tourism promotes cultural understanding, cohesion, goodwill, national pride and identity. This serves to reduce intertribal conflicts hence promotes peace and cross-cultural understanding (Brouder, 2012; Mazimhaka, 2007; Sheykhi, 2008). It also

contributes greatly to conservation of natural resources (Okello *et al.*, 2005) and awareness of cultural heritage (Magableh & Kharabsheh, 2013).

Fundamentally, it is worth noting that growth in the domestic tourism market increases the value of a tourist destination. The support of the tourism industry by the locals helps to realize improved quality in product and services, maintenance of occupancy levels and ultimately the confidence of international visitors. In some instances, it is domestic tourism that is responsible for launching a tourism destination (Pierret, 2011). Consequently, domestic tourism can indeed be considered to form the basis for international tourism (Sindiga, 1996). A number of countries have indeed developed their tourism industry based on a strong domestic foundation.

Research from South Africa has further demonstrated that domestic tourism tends to play a major role in the sustainability of most successful tourism destinations (The National Department of Tourism, 2012). According to UNWTO (2018) ranking, an analysis of the top five international tourism destinations (France, Spain, USA, China and Italy) reveals that in each of these destinations, domestic tourism outstrips international tourism. Thus, top tourism destinations are often characterised by the presence of a vibrant domestic tourism portfolios. However, though domestic tourism has a strong foundation in developed countries, the less developed ones are yet to reap the full benefits of the same (Telfer & Sharpley, 2007).

Globally, UNWTO estimates that there are approximately three times as many domestic tourists as international ones (UNWTO, 2018). Despite its evident significance, domestic tourism in most developing countries is hugely underexploited and has been often treated as a poor cousin to the seemingly more glamorous international tourism market (Ghimire, 2001). In most of these countries, tourism is seen by many as a luxury

item and not a basic necessity hence the preserve for “rich” foreigners. Its significance to the tourism industry has also been overlooked. Most countries quote tourism performance in terms of international arrivals and foreign revenue generated (Kihima, 2015).

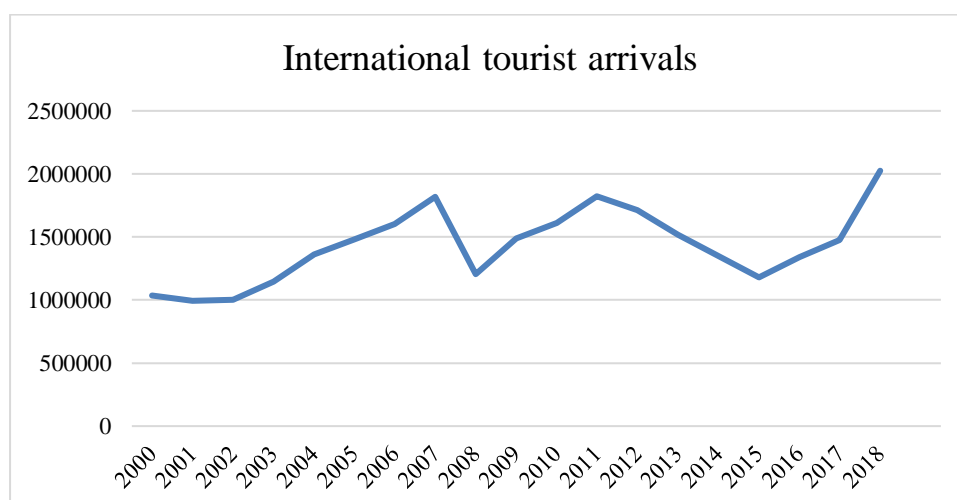
Coming closer home to East Africa, the situation is no different. As stated by Okello & Novelli (2014), domestic tourism amongst Eastern African countries remains an untapped segment. It is less marketed as promotions are mainly centred on international tourism (Scheyvens, 2007). Indeed, majority of the East African residents have not visited prime tourist destinations or seen wildlife in their own countries (Okello & Novelli, 2014). In Kenya, trends show that in the recent past, there has been an increase in domestic tourism numbers and overall tourism growth. This is illustrated by the statistics in the figure 1.1 below which compare domestic and international bed night trends from 2004 to 2018.



**Figure 1.1: International-versus domestic bed occupancy**

**Source: KNBS, 2019**

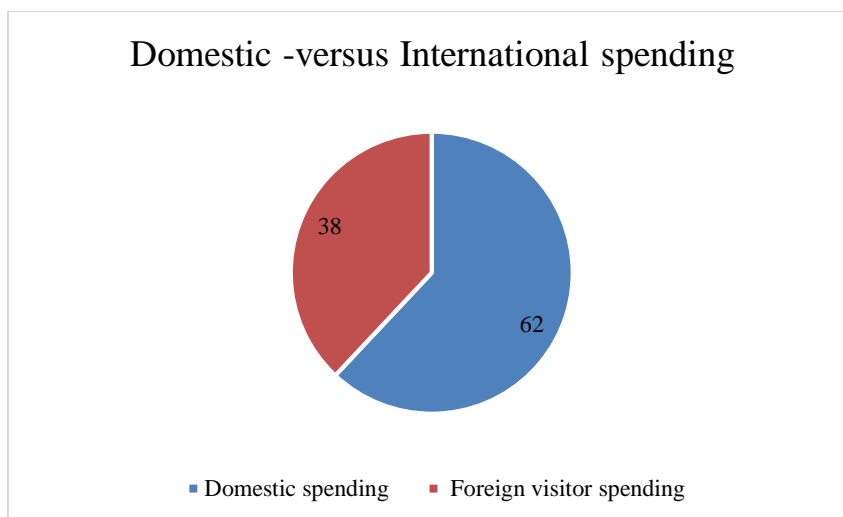
From the statistics, domestic tourism accounted for 52.1% of Kenya's tourism bed nights in 2018. However, despite the improvement in domestic tourism, the country has not been able to achieve its target for domestic tourism. Notably, it has also not been able to achieve the UNWTO threshold of domestic tourism flows that are more than three times those of international tourism. The low uptake of domestic tourism is an issue of concern since it means that Kenya's tourism industry is still highly dependent on the international tourism market which is highly volatile and unstable. The erratic nature of the international market is well illustrated by Kenya's international tourism flows which depict fluctuating trends as shown in figure 1.2 below:



**Figure 1.2: International tourist trends from 2000 to 2018**

**Source: Statistical abstracts from KNBS, 2004 to 2019**

Despite the country's relatively low uptake of the same, domestic tourism still promises to be lucrative in terms of returns and accounts for a substantial amount of total tourism revenues for Kenya as depicted in figure 1.3.



**Figure 1.3: Contribution to GDP of domestic versus international spending**  
**Source: WTTC, 2018**

Domestic tourism is therefore, a segment that clearly warrants more attention in form of research in order to grow the overall tourism industry and ensure that it continues to contribute significantly to the country's GDP. Nonetheless, domestic tourism has remained an undeveloped and under researched theme in African tourism studies mainly due to difficulty in tracking down domestic tourism flows and emphasis by governments and policy makers on foreign tourists (Mazimhaka, 2007; Scheyvens, 2007; Bui & Jolliffe, 2015; Alipour *et al.*, 2013; Ghimire, 2013; Sun *et al.*, 2013). Rogerson (2011) in his paper on the African Tourism Research Landscape pointed out that one of the priority areas for research for African tourism is the nature of the domestic and regional African tourist. Kihima (2015) opined that domestic tourism was not only under researched but the sector largely functions without necessary research support. This is erroneous since the needs of the domestic tourists are not necessarily similar to those of the international in bound tourist (Okello *et al.*, 2012), hence the need for explicit studies on determinants of domestic tourism participation.

## 1.2 Problem Statement

Kenya's National Tourism Strategy (2013-2018) alludes to the fact that the country's domestic tourism is lagging behind signifying that participation in domestic tourism in Kenya is low. In as much as recent marketing efforts have borne fruit and increased domestic tourism numbers, the uptake is still low when placed in the global context where domestic tourism accounts for 80% of world tourism (UNWTO, 2018). Notably, the current domestic tourism performance is still below the Kenyan target of attaining 6.5 million bed nights (Government of Kenya, 2018). This trend raises concern as it depicts a weak domestic segment that cannot adequately cushion the tourism industry against volatilities of the tumultuous international market. There is therefore need to interrogate participation in domestic tourism.

Numerous studies have been carried out on domestic tourism in the Kenyan context. However, these studies do not analyse the factors that affect participation in domestic tourism. Knowing the factors that influence people's travel habits and destination selection is crucial to predicting their future travel patterns (Hudson & Ritchie, 2002). More specifically, the existing studies do not compare factors that contribute to people participating versus not participating in domestic tourism in the Kenyan context. This gap is the focal point of this study. Previous studies that have compared tourism participation and non-participation have focused on international tourism (Blazey, 1987; Alexandris and Carrol, 1997; Gilbert and Hudson, 2000; Kerstetter *et al.*, 2002; Hung and Petrick, 2012; Lai *et al.*, 2013). The few that deal with domestic tourism such as Stone and Stone (2017), Li *et al.*, (2015) and Li *et al.*, (2016), have concentrated majorly on constraints. This has left out other determinants such as preferences, motivation and demographic characteristics. There is therefore, a paucity of studies that compare determinants of participation versus non participation to see whether both

groups are affected by same factors. This comparison is significant in that appreciating the nature of individuals more or less likely to participate in domestic tourism is vital in maintaining existing markets, developing new ones and targeting the right people with the right products (Nyaupane & Andereck, 2007). Concentrating only on the needs, preferences and constraints of existing tourists presents a myopic view of the prevailing scenario Hamel & Prahalad (2007), hence the researcher's choice to adopt a comparative view of both existing tourists (participants) and potential tourists (non-participants).

Understanding reasons why people do not participate in domestic tourism (non-participation) provides information on development of innovative strategies and products which eventually transforms latent demand of the non-participants (potential tourists) into effective demand (Funk *et al.*, 2009). This is critical for those destinations targeting to expand the domestic market like Kenya since it provides a strong foundation for effective marketing and product development. Furthermore, understanding the reasons for non-participation provides a fundamental basis for determining the constraints that a destination needs to negotiate in order to increase participation (Park & Petrick, 2009).

This study therefore seeks to fill these gaps by comparing the demographic characteristics, preferences, motivation and constraints of participants versus non-participants in domestic tourism within Nairobi City County.

### **1.3 Purpose of Study**

The purpose of this study was to evaluate the influence of demographic characteristics, preferences, motivation and constraints (independent variables) on domestic tourism participation non-participation (dependent variable) in Nairobi County. The study



adopted a two-pronged approach where it sought to compare the determinants of participation in domestic tourism amongst participants (tourists) and non-participants (non- tourists) while at the same time evaluating the relationships between the independent and dependent variables.

#### **1.4 Objectives of the Study**

This study was guided by the following specific objectives:

- i. To establish the influence of demographic characteristics on domestic tourism participation and non-participation in Nairobi city county.
- ii. To establish the influence of tourism preferences on domestic tourism participation and non-participation in Nairobi city county.
- iii. To examine the influence of motivation on domestic tourism participation and non-participation in Nairobi city county.
- iv. To examine the influence of constraints on domestic tourism participation and non-participation in Nairobi city county.

#### **1.5 Research Questions**

- i. What are the preferences of domestic tourism participation?
- ii. What is the motivation for domestic tourism participation?
- iii. What are the constraints affecting domestic tourism participation?

#### **1.6 Research Hypotheses**

The study tested the following hypotheses:

- H<sub>01</sub>**- The demographic characteristics of participants are similar to those of non-participants of domestic tourism amongst residents of Nairobi City County;
- H<sub>02</sub>**- There is no significant difference in tourism preferences between participants and non-participants of domestic tourism amongst residents of Nairobi City County;

- H<sub>03</sub>**-There is no significant difference in tourism motivation between participants and non-participants of domestic tourism amongst residents of Nairobi city county;
- H<sub>04</sub>**- There is no significant difference in tourism constraints between participants and non-participants of domestic tourism amongst residents of Nairobi City County;
- H<sub>05</sub>**-Demographic characteristics of residents do not influence domestic tourism participation in Nairobi City County;
- H<sub>06</sub>**- There is no relationship between tourism preferences and domestic tourism participation in Nairobi City County;
- H<sub>07</sub>**- There is no relationship between tourism motivation and domestic tourism participation in Nairobi City County;
- H<sub>08</sub>**- There is no relationship between tourism constraints and domestic tourism participation in Nairobi City County.

### **1.7 Significance of the Study**

This study aims at making a contribution towards gaps in knowledge, practice and theory of domestic tourism participation as identified by literature. The findings add to the existing body of knowledge on determinants of domestic tourism participation hence is beneficial to other researchers and the academia fraternity in general. The study further contributes to knowledge on domestic tourism in the Kenyan context since there is a paucity of authoritative studies on domestic tourism in Kenya.

The findings also contribute to practice and decision making by the various stakeholders in tourism. To the national and county governments, the findings provide information that can be used to inform decision making and formulate evidence-based policies based on real facts on the ground. The findings also form a basis for product

diversification and development for domestic tourism hence facilitating tourism development in previously neglected or under developed areas.

The study also informs marketers both in the private and the public sector. Previously, tourism in Kenya has concentrated on marketing, regulating and licensing without adequate investment in research. Moreover, in order for any marketing strategies to be effective, it is imperative that the needs and wants of the tourists be correctly identified (Kamau *et al.*, 2015). There is also need to avail products that are more flexible and responsive to the needs of the Kenyan domestic consumer as opposed to promoting the one-fit-for-all products to both the international and domestic market. The study therefore provides comprehensive data on domestic tourism product preferences, tourism motivation and constraints against tourism. These form a strong evidence-based foundation useful in guiding the marketing and promotional strategies required to reach out to the Kenyan domestic tourism market.

Finally, the study findings serve to inform domestic tourism product developers by providing information that will enable them to package viable products. The information may also act as a feasibility study for business plans and proposals for investors from the private sector. This will not only enable them to invest in the right projects but also facilitate acquisition of loans from financiers as their choices will be based on an authentic study.

### **1.8 Scope of the Study**

The study sought to evaluate the determinants of domestic tourism participation amongst residents of Nairobi City County by comparing demographic characteristics, travel preferences, motivation and constraints amongst residents participating and those not participating in domestic tourism. The study was guided by four objectives namely:

establishing the influence of demographic characteristics of residents on domestic tourism participation and non-participation in Nairobi city county; establishing the influence of travel preferences of residents on domestic tourism participation and non-participation in Nairobi city county; examining the influence of motivation on domestic tourism participation and non-participation in Nairobi city county; and examining the influence of constraints on domestic tourism participation and non-participation in Nairobi city county.

The study was supported by three theories namely the Motivation Opportunity Ability (MOA) theory, the push and pull theory and the hierarchical constraint theory. It was delimited to domestic tourism activities and respondents within Nairobi City County. Nairobi was seen to be an ideal location for the study because of the following attributes; it is the capital of Kenya with many people of different economic classes and especially so a larger proportion of the middle and upper class; it boasts of a number of attractions; has well developed infrastructure; a highly informed and educated populace; and is the economic hub of eastern Africa. It therefore presented the right mix of antecedents for domestic tourism in terms of economic ability, level of awareness and access to attractions.

The study adopted the explanatory and descriptive research designs. The target population for the study was Nairobi residents aged above 18 years. This was a composite group made up of three sets of respondents. The first set comprised of domestic tourists found in tourism destination areas. These were persons aged above 18 years old found visiting selected tourism attractions within Nairobi City County. Selecting respondents aged over 18 was deemed suitable since these are considered adults capable of making informed decisions on whether to participate in tourism or

not. Systematic random sampling was used to select 337 active domestic tourists within tourism destination areas. The domestic tourists were restricted to Kenyan citizens leaving out expatriates. This was done for ease of identification and also in order to eliminate the influence of different sociocultural backgrounds of the expatriate population.

The second set of respondents encompassed Nairobi residents aged above 18 years who had not participated in domestic tourism, also known as non-participants or non-tourists in this study. These were viewed to form a pool of potential domestic tourists and they provided insights to the reasons for non-participation. Multi stage sampling technique was used to select 339 respondents sampled from shopping centres within Nairobi City County. These were residents who had not only not participated in tourism but were also at the mall for other reasons other than leisure. The last set of respondents was key informants selected from public and private sector institutions involved in the marketing and management of domestic tourism. Purposive sampling was used to select four key informants from domestic tourism stakeholder organizations. These were included to provide information on trends on participation and industry feedback. A questionnaire and an interview schedule were used to collect quantitative and qualitative data respectively. The data was collected between June and December 2017.

### **1.9 Limitations of the Study**

The study was limited by a number of factors that provide opportunity for further research that can generate more comprehensive findings and inform policy. The study was limited to Nairobi City County hence may not be representative of the views of domestic tourists from other parts of the country. Future studies should incorporate the other counties for a more comprehensive output. It was also limited to sites that had differentiated rates for citizens and the other visitors for easy identification of domestic

tourists. These left out sites such as the David Sheldrick elephant orphanage whose pricing is undifferentiated for all visitors. These other sites should be incorporated into future studies. It was also restricted to domestic tourists found within the selected domestic tourist sites leaving out those not visiting the four sites sampled.

Data collection was limited to questionnaires and interviews schedules and therefore, future studies should consider using other tools. The target population was also limited to Kenyan citizens leaving out foreigners residing in Kenya who also form part of its domestic tourism market. Future studies can strive to address this by incorporating a wider scope of domestic tourists.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **2.1 Introduction**

This review aims at positioning the study within the extant theoretical framework of domestic tourism. It commences by providing a detailed overview of the concept of domestic tourism. It goes further to present a synopsis of literature based upon the study variables in the form of an empirical review. These variables are tourism participation and non-participation (dependent variable), demographic characteristics of tourists, travel preferences, motivation for tourism and constraints of tourism, which form the study's independent variables. It also covers the theoretical framework, conceptual framework and finally summarizes the gaps identified in literature that inform the problem being addressed by the study.

#### **2.2 Overview of Domestic Tourism**

Domestic tourism and by extension the term domestic tourist has been defined in various ways in literature. Jafari (2003) defined it as tourism activities practiced by the residents of a particular country within their own country. Kihima (2015) defined it as travelling within one's country for leisure and pleasure. These definitions limited participation to the citizens of the country in question. United Nations World Tourism Organization (1983) provided a wider definition which described a domestic tourist as follows:

“Any person regardless of nationality, resident in a country and who travels to a place in the same country for not more than one year whose main purpose of visit is other than following an occupation remunerated from within the place visited”.

This definition was refined by UNWTO (2010) who defined domestic tourism as:

The activities of persons travelling to and staying in places outside their usual environment but within their country of residence for not more than one year for leisure, business and other personal purposes not related to work or employment. The place of usual residence refers to the geographic place where an individual usually resides and conducts his/her regular life routines. It therefore includes where he/she normally resides, his/her place of work or study and any other place that he/she visits regularly and frequently, even when this place is located far away from his/her place of usual residence or is in another locality except for vacation homes. The activities conducted may or may not involve a market transaction, includes all actions and behaviours in preparation for and carried out during the trip and may be different or similar to a person's routine activities. Where the activities are similar, their intensity and frequency should be higher in the case of domestic tourism.

From the UNWTO definitions, domestic tourists also include non- citizens who reside in the given country where they consume tourism products and services and those from the diaspora who come home for visits (Scheyvens, 2007). As alluded to by Mazimhaka (2007), the domestic tourism market segments include expatriates and diaspora returnees. However, domestic tourists in the context of this study were limited to Kenyan citizens who consume tourism products within the country. The decision to focus on Kenyan citizens as domestic tourists was influenced by three reasons. One, it was assumed that they would be easier to identify at the tourism destination sites as opposed to expatriates who may be confused for international tourists. Secondly, the citizens present a more homogenous group based on social-cultural traits hence easier to establish their determinants of participation rather than expatriates who came from different cultural backgrounds which may moderate their perception. Thirdly, the citizens present a more stable and larger population than the expatriates.



From the aforementioned definitions, domestic tourism in this context therefore refers to the activities of Kenyans travelling to and staying in places outside their usual environment but within the country for not more than one year for leisure. It is inclusive of both overnight stays and the day trips or excursions that comprise of a visit to an area for less than 24 hours with no overnight stay. It is also inclusive of a market transaction.

### **2.2.1 Domestic tourism in Kenya**

Domestic tourism activities in Kenya can be traced back to the 1920's when the colonial administrators and white settlers started going down to the Kenyan coast for holidays (Ochieng & Maxon, 1992). This trend was boosted by the completion of the Kenya Uganda railway which was a great boost to accessibility of the tourism destinations. The establishment of protected areas in the form of national parks and game reserves after the World War II further contributed to the growth of tourism during those early days.

Participation in tourism during those days was mainly restricted to foreigners who were residing in the country at the time. The wealthier tourists indulged in lengthy photographic and hunting safaris while the less affluent ones engaged in game drives and visited the coast. One such documented safari is the one undertaken by Lady Karen Blixen and her lover Dennis Hinch Hatton in *Out of Africa* ([www.museum.or.ke/karen-blixen/](http://www.museum.or.ke/karen-blixen/)). After independence, the industry experienced further growth with an increase in both international tourism and domestic tourism that now included citizens. Since then, the segment though exhibiting growth has been lagging behind the global thresholds where domestic tourism accounts for more than triple the numbers of international tourism. According to the Economic Survey 2019, domestic tourism in Kenya accounted for 52.9% (4,955,800 bed nights) of total bed nights in the 2018 (Tourism Research Institute, 2019). This is not only below the

international standards but also below the country's targets. According to the third medium term plan of the Vision 2030, the country's target for domestic tourism is set at 6.5 million bed nights annually (Government of Kenya, 2018).

For a long time, domestic tourism had been ignored in favour of international tourism both in terms of policy framework and marketing efforts (Okello *et al.*, 2012). This is well exemplified by the distinct gap in terms of policy framework for domestic tourism and sporadic promotional efforts. Though the significance of domestic tourism is acknowledged in sessional paper No. 1 of 2010 which identified domestic tourism as the future of Kenya's tourism industry (Government of Kenya, 2010); and the National Tourism Strategy 2013-2018 which recommended interventions to stimulate growth of domestic tourism (Government of Kenya, 2013), the same was not captured in the first two medium term plans of the country's development blue print, the vision 2030. The third medium term plan 2018-2022 however gives some prominence to domestic tourism (Government of Kenya, 2018).

Furthermore, for many years, there has been no working strategy to provide direction to the sector. This has resulted in reactive and erratic development and promotional efforts for the segment. Indeed Manono & Rotich (2013) assented to this thought when they stated that the past trend has been to remember domestic tourism when international arrivals decline. Domestic tourism is often used as a stop gap measure when international tourists are not forthcoming thus treated as a panacea for a struggling industry rather than a significant market segment (Kihima, 2015). According to Ghimire (2013), even where domestic tourism exceeds international tourism, the development of the latter has often occurred without systematic government planning in most countries.

Tourism marketing and promotional efforts have also been wanting and in the past were generally skewed towards international tourism. Attempts to specifically promote domestic tourism in Kenya can be traced back to 1984 when the domestic tourism council (DTC) was formed under the ministry of tourism (Sindiga, 1996). This body remained inactive till it was dissolved in 2010 due to a number of challenges key among them being lack of funds to carry out its mandate and lack of full stakeholder involvement and participation.

Despite its shortcomings, the DTC was instrumental in stimulating domestic tourism in the country. Some of the strategies employed to promote domestic tourism included offering concessionary rates for hotels during low seasons and sometimes throughout the year; encouraging the building of budget hotels all over the country, free entry to parks during public holidays, promotional messages using mass media, ASK shows; encouraging group tours through clubs such as the wildlife clubs of Kenya in schools and colleges; encouraging organizations to hold their seminars away from offices; holding seminars and workshops with stakeholders (Sindiga, 1996; Omollo, 2008). Before the dissolution of DTC, a domestic tourism strategy taskforce was formed in 2009 to forge the way forward for Kenya's domestic tourism.

The year 2010 is considered the turning point for Kenya's domestic tourism. The ministry of tourism declared it the year of domestic tourism with the goal of instilling a holiday culture amongst Kenyans (Kieti *et al.*, 2014). KTB officially took over the role of promoting and marketing domestic tourism in conjunction with stakeholders. It also started the process of rallying stakeholders towards formulating a domestic tourism strategy. There have been several visible efforts by KTB and other stakeholders to promote domestic tourism since then, amongst them being the 30 million SMS campaign of that ran for 8 weeks from January 2016 to woo domestic tourists; Tembea

Kenya campaign; Twende Tujionee campaign; Twende Ushago campaign; The smart safari promotion; Holidays expos; Using celebrity bloggers and brand ambassadors; Using the magical Kenya website; Using mass and social media and Twende Tujivinjari campaign by KWS (A. Munguti, Personal communication, 1<sup>st</sup> August, 2016) . Other efforts have included provision of buses and guided tours within some KWS parks such as Nairobi and Lake Nakuru National parks during weekends and public holidays (Kihima, 2015).

One of the latest campaigns dubbed Tembea Kenya Travel fest aims to promote domestic tourism through the following activities: encouraging Kenyans to become active participants in domestic tourism, creating a network of stakeholders for exchange of ideas, maintaining a constant flow of information on local tourism, producing tourism print and electronic media, organizing exhibitions, aggressively marketing local tourism through product investigation and analysis, facilitating access to attractions, negotiating for subsidized rates for Kenyans throughout the year (Kenya Tourism Board, 2017). Some studies have argued that price lowering for domestic tourists have a negative impact on the industry as it reduces the benefits. However, this is moderated by the fact though domestic tourists exhibit a lower unit expenditure as compared to the international tourist they have a higher overall volume of expenditure (Pierret, 2011). Furthermore, the country's tourism master plan 2018-2022 as articulated through vision 2030's third medium term plan seeks to promote domestic tourism through collaborations with county governments. These are mandated to identify and utilize existing and potential local attractions for domestic tourism. This includes county-based events such as cultural festivals amongst others (Government of Kenya, 2018).

### **2.2.2 Global Trends in Domestic Tourism**

Domestic tourism is a force to reckon with globally. Reports from (UNWTO, 2018) indicated that there were 1,326 million international tourists against approximately 6 billion domestic tourists globally. In 2017, domestic tourism accounted for 73% of total travel and tourism spending (World Travel Tourism Council, 2019). It is therefore considered to be the key driver of the tourism sector globally. China's domestic tourism for instance has by far out spaced international tourism with the domestic revenue taking up 87% of total national tourism revenue (Wang & Chen, 2013; (EU SME Centre, 2015). It is currently the leading domestic tourism market globally (World Travel Tourism Council, 2019). According to Alipour et al. (2013), domestic tourism in Australia yielded three times more to the economy than international tourism. All these indicate a global scenario where domestic tourism flows are at least more than three times that of international tourism.

Various studies have revealed a range of factors that have contributed to the growth of domestic tourism in various destinations worldwide. Globally, the growing middle class, increase in spending power amongst the domestic consumers, government initiatives promoting new locations and improved transport and economic links between various regions within countries are among the key drivers of the growth of domestic tourism. Moving on to specific countries, China's fast growth of domestic tourism has been attributed to increase in per capita income, improved living standards, increase in leisure time, excellent and varied transport network (ranging from rail, road and air) and structural adjustments in the Chinese economy that have made it more market led (Wu *et al.*, 2000; Wang & Chen, 2013) For instance, since 2013, China has built an average of eight new airports every year and developed a high-speed rail network thereby opening up areas that were previous remote and inaccessible (World

Travel Tourism Council, 2019). The regional differences in tourist flows have been ascribed to socio-economic attributes, transport systems, accessibility and regional development policies (Wang & Chen, 2013). Other factors that have stimulated domestic demand include development of favourable policies such as weekend systems, the golden week and the highway tax cut during public holidays (Goh *et al.*, 2014).

The increase in leisure time in Canada, increasing affluence and resultant availability of disposable income, desire to holiday more than once a year, and the impact of international terrorism have contributed to the growth of domestic tourism in Canada (Hudson & Ritchie, 2002). In New Zealand, expansion of domestic aviation and the presence of regional domestic marketing initiatives have contributed immensely to growth of domestic tourism (Wilson & Simmons, 2013).

Other reasons for growth of domestic tourism especially in developing countries are as follows: growth in people's income especially the middle income earners, globalization and spread of western thinking on the value of leisure and recreation (Scheyvens, 2007), favourable labour legislation concerning annual vacations (Diegues, 2001), availability of moderately priced accommodation and catering services (Shah *et al.*, 2000), and availability of special rates for domestic tourists (Rao & Suresh, 2001).

Domestic tourism in various countries has been shown to display certain distinct trends and patterns that distinguish it from international tourism. In Iran, it depicts a skewed spatial pattern with domestic tourism being concentrated around two destinations namely the Caspian Sea and Shia saints which is a favourite with pilgrimages (Alipour *et al.*, 2013). Distribution of domestic tourism in South Korea shows a tendency to cluster at major urban centres with a large population or coastal areas and islands with tourism attractions (Kang *et al.*, 2014). This contributes to enclave tourism where

activities are highly concentrated in one area. Other studies contradict this and state that domestic tourism is more balanced than international tourism leading to a broader and more balanced geographic spread of benefits and economic development (Goh *et al.*, 2014). Previous studies on Kenya's domestic tourism have also shown a skewed distribution pattern with more than 60% of the domestic tourists concentrated around the coast, Nairobi and the popular parks such as Nakuru, Nairobi, Amboseli, Tsavo and Maasai Mara (Ndivo *et al.*, 2012) (Kihima, 2015).

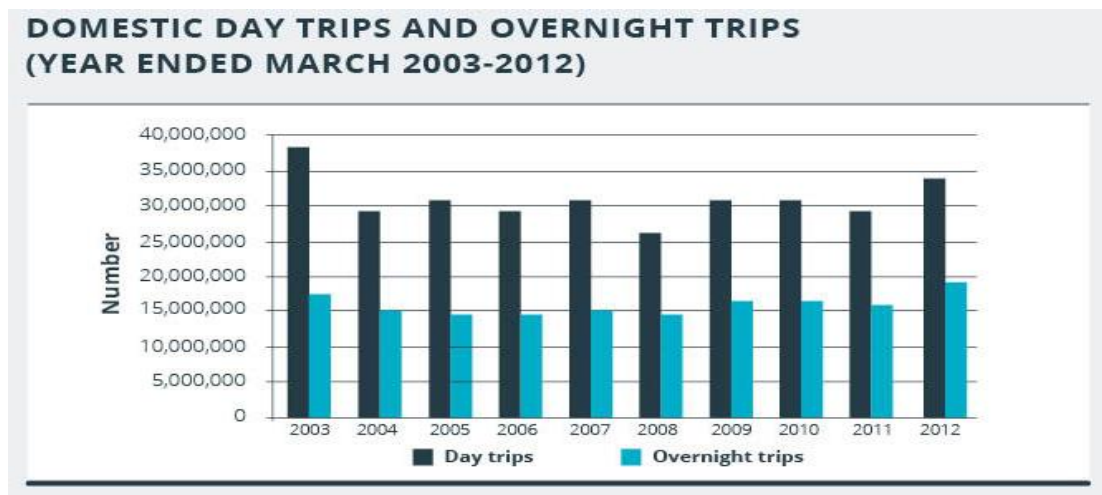
In Australia, domestic tourists tend to travel most during seasons coinciding with the school holidays (Yap & Allen, 2011). The same trend was observed in Kenya by Kihima (2015) who added that domestic tourists also travel during public holidays. He further argued that an intervention was required to reverse this trend as it coincided with the traditional peak season for international tourism leading to congestion at popular destinations. This is further exemplified by the report by the Daily Nation newspaper, Tuesday 20<sup>th</sup> August (2019) indicating that hotels in the Maasai Mara game reserve ran out of beds during the wildebeest crossing in August 2019, which is both peak season for international tourism and also a school holiday (Sayagie, 2019). Majority of domestic tourists also prefer travelling with family, friends, partners or regular contacts (Bui & Jolliffe, 2015). Kihima (2015) alluded to this when he stated that the Kenyan domestic tourist is socially oriented and desires group experiences. Another emerging trend amongst domestic tourists involves taking shorter holidays closer home, a trend known as staycation (Papatheodorou *et al.*, 2010). This trend is rapidly gaining popularity within the domestic tourism market.

The aspect of duration of domestic tourism is complex since it comprises of both day and overnight trips with the former outstripping the latter. The duration of trips for domestic tourism has been thought to depend on purpose of travel. Hudson & Ritchie

(2002) posited that tourists travelling for VFR spent the longest time at the destination while those visiting a resort or attraction spent the shortest time. Previous studies have shown that most domestic tourism trips are short averaging 3 nights (Magableh & Kharabsheh, 2013; Chiu *et al.*, 2015). This trend is also known as the short break segment which represents leisure trips lasting between 1 to 3 nights (VisitBritain *et al.*, 2006). Studies from Kenya have also supported this trend. Mutunga (2012) posited that youth from Kenya were known to prefer short repetitive trips that mainly focus on fun. (Kihima, 2015) reiterated this when he stated that the Kenyan domestic tourist preferred short stays.

Other studies such as survey carried out in New Zealand, have indicated that day trips are more common in domestic tourism compared to overnight trips (figure 2.1 below). This trend has also been supported by Scheyvens (2007), who noted that domestic tourists in Samoa are mainly day trippers with a few staying overnight. Families engaging in domestic tourism in the British Isles have also shown a tendency to mainly do day trips (Canavan, 2012). This implies that tracking domestic tourists by bed nights alone may not yield the correct picture of their flows. Apart from leaving out day trippers, these statistics are often taken from paid accommodation facilities thus leaving out the non-paid options such as domestic tourists staying with friends and relatives, and those using their vacation homes (United Nations World Tourism Organization, 2010). Other measures are therefore required to capture the real scenario. These may include statistics collected from the tourism attraction sites and household surveys on trips taken at specified periods.





**Figure 2.1: Domestic day and night trips for the year ended March 2003-2012**

**Source: Adapted from Ministry of Business, Innovation and Employment, New Zealand, Wilson and Simmons, 2013**

Literature has shown that domestic tourists make travel arrangements both independently and through travel intermediaries. However, majority of domestic tourists travel independently preferring the flexibility of arranging their own itineraries (Cheloti, 2011; Bui & Jolliffe, 2015). They also like to travel in groups with friends, and make independent arrangements (Mutunga, 2012) ; (Hudson & Ritchie, 2002). However, others also prefer discounted packages with inbuilt safety. Families tend to plan their activities around school events making children highly influential in their travel decision making process (Hudson & Ritchie, 2002).

Travel expenditure by the domestic tourist is a significant attribute to a destination. In overall, domestic tourists have been found to be greater spenders than their international counterparts as indicated in table 2.1.

**Table 2.1: Domestic Tourism Spending Versus International Tourism Receipts among Selected Countries in the World**

Country	Domestic travel spending (%)	International tourism receipts (%)
France	71.7	28.3
China	87	13
Italy	76.8	23.2
USA	80	20
Australia	77.3	22.7
South Africa	55.6	44.4
Namibia	77.9	22.1
India	87.2	12.8
Tunisia	54	46
Kenya	61.7	38.3

**Source: Adopted from WTTC, 2018**

According to the World Travel & Tourism Council (2016), domestic tourism spending (2.9%) out spaced international spending (2.4%) in the 2017 with a higher projected growth rate than international tourism of 4.6% by 2023. Additionally, Pierret (2011) argued that domestic tourists seek the lowest possible prices in all segments of the tourism value chain hence more likely to consume local products and services which is a boost to local entrepreneurs.

The domestic tourist spends on various items while on holiday key among them being, accommodation, transport, shopping, food and beverage, souvenirs, entertainment, recreational, entrance fee and tickets to attractions, communication, tips and other miscellaneous expenses (Cheloti, 2011 ; Chiu *et al.*, 2015). Various studies have noted differences in expenditure across these items. According to Geerts (2017), Chinese travellers incurred limited expenditure on accommodation but a higher proportion on shopping. Young domestic travellers in Malaysia incurred the highest expenditure on food and beverage as they tried their level best to save on accommodation by either staying with friends and relatives or seeking the cheapest accommodation facilities (Chiu *et al.*, 2015). Kihima (2015) concurred with this stating that domestic tourists in

Kenya spent most on food and beverages while spending very little on souvenirs, guide services and hotel/airport transfers. Different expenditure patterns have also been noted across different travel purposes. For instance, those travelling for VFR tended to exhibit the lowest overall expenditure since they spent very little on accommodation (Chiu *et al.*, 2015).

Expenditure on domestic tourism is also dependent on demographics. For instance, young travellers expect value for money and are willing to pay a premium price when they believe it is worth it (Glover, 2010). Previous studies have established average expenditures for the domestic tourist in various countries. For instance, the average expenditure by domestic tourism in Vietnam was USD 118 for a three-and-a-half-day trip (Bui & Jolliffe, 2015). A study by (Cheloti, 2011) established the average expenditure for the Kenyan domestic tourist visiting the coast to be \$861.

A review of literature has shown that the characteristics of domestic tourism in various countries differ, an indication that strategies that work for one country may not work for another. For instance, a look at the Chinese and American domestic market shows glaring differences despite the fact that both countries have strong economies. The table 2.2 below provides a summary of the comparison of characteristics of the American and Chinese domestic tourism markets:

**Table 2.2: Comparison of Chinese and USA Domestic Tourism Markets**

<b>Characteristic</b>	<b>China</b>	<b>USA</b>
Source of information	Traditional media	Internet, friends, family
Transport	Public buses, trains, air	Personal cars, Tour vehicles, air
Accommodation and lodging	Low-cost guest houses, Staying with Friends and Relatives	Hotels and motels
Activities	Seek to escape from routine and to relax, like outdoor natural scenery, historical sites	Seek to escape from routine and to relax, like outdoor natural scenery, historical sites
Spending patterns	Highest expenditure on transport, followed by food and accommodation	Highest expenditure on transport, followed by food and accommodation
Duration	Prefer day trips and short overnight trips average 2 days	Prefer day trips and short overnight trips average 2 days
Visitor centres	Lacking	Present
Government role	Policy making and data collection	Deep involvement beyond policy and monitoring to include planning, product development, management and marketing

**Source: Adopted from Wang & Qu, 2004**

Coming closer home to sub Saharan Africa, the country with the strongest domestic tourism sector in the region is South Africa (United Nations World Tourism Organization, 2019). According to the South African Domestic Tourism Marketing Strategy, 2012-2020, the South African domestic market has been segmented based upon their characteristics as shown in table 2.3 (The National Department of Tourism, 2012).

**Table 2.3: South African Domestic Tourism Market Segmentation**

<b>MARKET SEGMENT</b>	<b>CHARACTERISTICS</b>
Spontaneous budget explorers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Aged 18-24 all races</li> <li>-Have about R5,000 disposable income a month</li> <li>-Preference- weekend holiday full of activities compared to a quiet weekend</li> <li>-Motivation-to get away from monotony of daily life, discover new people/places /adventure, add to life experiences and fond memories</li> <li>-Message-Have fun in new/different surroundings, with existing and or new friends</li> </ul>
New horizon families	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Aged 35 and older, blacks, coloureds and Indians</li> <li>-Have R5,000 to R 10,000 disposable income a month</li> <li>-Encouraged by special offers on domestic flights and hotels</li> <li>-Motivation-to educate the children and provide them with opportunity to broaden their perspectives, have quality family time, as a reward for hard work</li> <li>-Message-Spend quality family time and broaden the family horizons while being rewarded for hard work.</li> </ul>
High life enthusiasts	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Aged 25-45, black, coloured and Indian</li> <li>-Have R10,000 or more disposable income a month</li> <li>-Preference- weekend holiday full of activities compared to quiet weekend holiday</li> <li>-Motivation- to boost one's social status, to experience the finer things in life in new and different settings</li> <li>-Message- Domestic travel is the quickest and easiest way to enjoy invaluable and enviable world class experiences</li> </ul>
Seasoned leisure seekers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Aged 25-45, white</li> <li>-Have R5,000 or more disposable income a month</li> <li>-Have a well-established travel culture and appreciate value of travel experiences and memories</li> <li>-Motivation-to escape, relax, spend quality time with loved ones</li> <li>-Message-South Africa has so many different places and ways to escape, relax and spend quality time with loved ones</li> </ul>
Well –to-do Mzansi families	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Aged 25-45, black</li> <li>-Have R10,000 or more disposable income a month</li> <li>-Encouraged by special offers on domestic flights and hotels</li> <li>-Motivation- to escape the city, spend time with friends and family in new and different locations, expose children to alternative ways of life and activities</li> <li>-Message- Break away from daily pressures, whether relaxing with family or having good times with friends</li> </ul>

**Source: Adapted from the S. African Domestic Tourism Marketing Strategy, 2012-2020**

This segmentation has shaped their subsequent marketing messages. It further demonstrates that each country is unique in terms of domestic market characteristics. It also exemplifies how the market characteristics help in shaping marketing messages to ensure that they appeal to the targeted audience.

A study by Kihima (2015) described the Kenyan domestic tourist as being socially oriented rather than activity based, preferring group activities and tending towards psycho centricism. The study isolated the following as characteristics of the Kenyan domestic tourist as shown in table 2.4.

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Is vibrant and has a lot of potential Prefers short stays Has not yet valued tourism Needs encouragement Seeks experiences that rejuvenate and teach Travels during festive seasons Prefers to stay in hotels rather than camps when visiting national parks Has the potential but is uninformed He is a major income earner for the tourism industry today Does not explore tourism destinations expansively
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**Table 2.4: Characteristics of the Kenyan Domestic Tourist**

**Source: Adapted from Kihima, 2015**

This study therefore seeks to extend the discourse and contribute towards understanding the Kenyan domestic tourism market, its characteristics and the factors determining participation in domestic tourism within the Kenyan context.

### **2.3 Tourism Participation and Non-participation**

In order to understand tourism participation and non-participation, it is important to appreciate the travel decision making process. According to Crompton (1979) and (Li *et al.*, 2015), there are two main stages of the travel decision process, namely “whether to go” and “where to go”. The first stage deals with the crucial issue of whether to take a holiday or not i.e. whether to participate in tourism or not to. This decision to travel

or not, is what leads to either participation or non-participation in tourism and is the dependent variable of this study. The second stage dealing with “where to go” focuses on preferences of destinations and what to do once at these destinations. The eventual decision is however moderated by a number of factors commonly referred to as determinants which includes demographic characteristics, preferences, motivation and constraints. These form the independent variables of the study

### **2.3.1 Tourism participation**

This is defined as the act of taking part in tourism. Determinants of tourism participation and by extension tourism demand have been a subject of extensive research. They are defined as factors that determine whether one will participate in the holiday or not, the extent to which participation happens and if so the characteristics of the holiday product that one will eventually consume (Vanhove, 2018). Page & Connell (2020) defined determinants of tourism participation as exogenous factors that shape demand for tourism thus excluding endogenous factors such as motivation.

According to (Bowen & Clarke, 2009), these factors include income, cost, travel desires, value, image of the destination, ease of information search, perceived risk, confidence in travel, distance of the trip, duration of the trip, party size and travel arrangements. Researchers such as Richards (1996), Cooper *et al.*, (2005) and Vanhove (2017) identified gender, education, marital status, income, occupation, place of residence i.e rural or urban setting, infrastructure and access to information as factors that directly affect tourism participation. Vanhove (2017) further grouped the factors into categories including economic factors (income, pricing and time), demographic factors, geographic factors, socio-cultural factors, mobility factors and government/regulatory factors.

A study by Ibimilua (2009) identified infrastructure, tourist amenities and recreational centres as the main determinants of domestic tourism participation in Nigeria. Uysal (1998) categorized the determinants into three main groups namely economic, socio-psychological and exogenous determinants as listed in the table 2.5 below:

**Table 2.5: Determinants of Tourism Demand**

<b>Economic determinants</b>	<b>Social psychological determinants</b>	<b>Exogenous determinants /business environment</b>
-Disposable income	-Demographic factors	-Level of technology
-Per capita income	-Motivation	-Infrastructure/superstructure development
-Cost of living	-Travel preferences	-Safety and security
-Tourism prices	-Attitudes and perceptions	-Product development
-Relative price amongst competing destination	-Level of awareness	-Other supply resources
-Exchange rate differentials	-Past experiences	-Special development e.g. mega events
	-Availability of free time	

**Source: Uysal, 1998**

Other studies have viewed these factors as barriers to participation and moved on to categorize them into intrapersonal, interpersonal and structural constraints (Crawford *et al.*, 1991). Thus, drawn from literature, demographic characteristics, preferences, motivation and constraints will form the basis of the independent variables upon which this study is based. These four variables were selected due to their prevalence in literature on tourism demand. The study will further use the definition of tourism participants by Hung & Petrick (2012) who defined them as those people who actually take a trip for leisure.

In spite of the expansive scope of studies on determinants of tourism demand and eventual participation, most of them have been carried out in the context of international tourism leaving gaps in domestic tourism literature. The study further proceeds to



compare reasons for domestic tourism participation and non-participation. These gaps are what this study seeks to fill.

### **2.3.2 Tourism Non-Participation**

Non-participation in tourism can be defined as the act of not taking part in tourism due to existence of a barrier. Tourism non-participants (also known as non-tourists) have also been defined as those who drop out from an existing activity or do not take part in a new activity due to existence of a barrier (Hung & Petrick, 2012). It has been termed as a conceptual, methodological and managerial challenge to the tourism industry (Gilbert & Hudson, 2000; Kerstetter *et al.*, 2002). This is because the long-term goal of most destinations is to convert non- tourists (non-participants) into tourists (participants). Reasons for non- participation ultimately provide significant constraints that need to be negotiated by tourism developers (Funk *et al.*, 2009). In addition, understanding these reasons and preferences facilitate improvement of tourism services and facilities for market retention and expansion (Li *et al.*, 2016).

Literature has also defined non-tourists as potential tourists who have not participated in tourism activities during the last few years (Kerstetter *et al.*, 2002). According to Li *et al.* (2016) the exact number of years is still controversial amongst scholars. The study by Li *et al.* (2015) applied a threshold of those who have not participated in tourism in the last three years. This study used the threshold of those who have not participated in the last five years since this represents the country's planning cycle. In many countries, non-tourists comprise of a large proportion of the population hence the need to tap into this potential segment. As stated by Li *et al.* (2016) the success of businesses has changed from pursuing larger market shares to generating new markets via developing current non-customers. The significance of non-tourists in the tourism

business and the scarcity of current research on domestic tourism non-participation (Hung & Petrick, 2010; Li *et al.*, 2015; Nyaupane & Andereck, 2007) provides the focus for this study. It seeks to establish reasons for non-participation with the aim of ultimately comparing them to those affecting participation in tourism. This is critical in converting the latent demand presented by the non-tourists into effective demand where they actively participate in tourism.

Non-tourists can be converted into tourists if; they are helped to overcome or negotiate constraints facing them, new products can be developed based on their identified preferences and their interest/motivation in domestic tourism can be stimulated (Li *et al.*, 2016). However as stated by Nyaupane & Andereck (2007), it is important to examine both tourists and non-tourists especially in terms of constraints. The information will facilitate the comprehension of how those already participating are able to negotiate through the constraints. As earlier stated, in this study, the tourists and non-tourists will be referred to as participants and non-participants respectively.

#### **2.4 Demographics Characteristics and Tourism Participation**

Various studies have shown that demographic, geographical, psychographic and behavioural variables influence travel and leisure preferences, decision making process and final participation in domestic tourism (Baker & Crompton, 2000; O'Leary & Deegan, 2005). In actual fact, these four characteristics are commonly used to profile tourists, a process that is significant during market segmentation as shown in table 2.6 below (Holloway *et al.*, 2016). Out of the four profiling attributes, this study focused on demographic characteristics of the traveller. In this study, they were represented by age, gender, marital status, income, occupation, educational level, and stage in family lifecycle since these are considered to be the most commonly used demographics in

analysis of travel behaviour (Blazey, 1987; Gilbert & Hudson, 2000; Nicolau & Más, 2006). In his study on non-participation, Li *et al.* (2015) found out that occupation, income, education, family finance, awareness, gender and health had a significant effect on the probability of one not participating in tourism.

**Table 2.6: General Tourism Market Segmentation**

Attribute	Characteristics	Variables
Demographic	Based upon hard facts or visible characteristics	Age, gender, level of education, income, occupation, marital status, family composition, stage in lifecycle
Geographic	Based upon location of the consumers i.e. where they live	Country, regions, source markets
Psychographic	Based upon aspirational and lifestyle characteristics	Peer groups, reference groups e.g. celebrities, values, attitudes, perceptions, interests, hobbies
Behavioural	Based upon products /services	Frequency of purchases, mode of purchase, source of information

**Source: Adapted from Holloway *et al.*, 2016**

Age has been cited as significant determinant of tourism demand and eventual participation. It determines amount of leisure time available, the freedom to travel, disposable income, the health fitness and mobility of a person. Hall (2005) argued that age was probably the key demographic factor that would affect the future of tourism. As one gets older, their needs and preferences change, often through age cohorts i.e. often in unison with others who are close to his/her age (Solomon, 2010). Age also serves as an indicator of the choice and level of physical activity as well as a measure of the level of involvement in the vacation experience (Odunga, 2010).

When it comes to gender, men and women have been known to differ both physically and physiologically resulting in differences in travel preferences and decision making as attested to by various studies. Ryan (1998) outlines a detailed account of gender differences in leisure pursuits and activity preferences. (Page & Connell, 2020)

acknowledged gender as an important determinant of participation in tourism. For instance, from a motivation point of view, women being the traditional home managers will not be motivated to visit a self-catering facility/holiday as that does not provide escape from the usual home environment. A study by Mutinda & Mayaka (2012) concluded that more females than males participated in domestic tourism, hence reinforcing the notion that women travellers are increasingly forming the highest growth segment in domestic tourism. Contrary to this, Li *et al.* (2015) posited that there were more female non-participants than males. Okello *et al.* (2012) concluded that participation was independent of gender and age.

Education has for a long time been viewed as a means of widening one's perspectives in life, provides experiences of other cultures and establishing curiosity. It is viewed not only as a primary motive for travel but also as a primary indicator of tastes and socio-economic status in society (Odunga, 2005). It has also been proposed that individuals within the same educational cohorts have the tendency to have the same perception, values, tastes and preferences (Kotler, 2003). This means that they will tend to be attracted to the same tourism destinations and products. Others have gone ahead to argue that education is a better predictor of participation in tourism than income (Richards, 1996b). Education broadens horizons, raises level of awareness and stimulates the desire to travel hence increasing the likelihood of participation in tourism (Manono & Rotich, 2013; Torkildsen, 2005).

Income has also been cited as an important determinant of demand for tourism to a destination (Odunga & Folmer, 2004). Dieke (2003) perceived tourism as an activity that was costly and required discretionary income left after catering for routine living expenses. Kihima (2015) further argued that most people in Africa did not view tourism

as a basic survival necessity but rather as a luxury. This makes income a significant determinant of tourism participation. People at different income levels tend to have quite different values, behaviours, and lifestyles which affect their participation in tourism (Peter & Olson, 2010). For instance, Richards (1996b) noted that tourism participation rates were higher in high income groups and amongst professionals. This trend is particularly evident with disposable income where it has been observed that as it increases, participation in tourism increases (Vanhove, 2018). Studies on park visitation by domestic tourists have indicated that participation was highly dependent on income (Okello *et al.*, 2012; Manono & Rotich, 2013).

Despite the economic variable seeming like an obvious determinant, other studies have shown that decrease in prices of cost of local tourism does not automatically translate into increased domestic tourism (Magableh & Kharabsheh, 2013). This means that there are other significant determinants of domestic tourism participation apart from income or cost thus income is also not always positively correlated to uptake of domestic tourism. For instance, studies have shown that in Australia, as disposable income increases, domestic tourism reduces as people choose to travel overseas (Gardiner *et al.*, 2014).

Similarly, increase in debt does not reduce domestic tourism as people may incur debts to finance travel (Yap & Allen, 2011). In addition, Mazimhaka (2007) stated that participation in leisure in most countries extended beyond the growing middle class to include lower middle class who are generally perceived to have lower income. This portends that income alone is not a determinant to participation in tourism. This study seeks to contribute to this debate.

Marital status has also been known to influence travel choices. People's priorities, preferences, decision making process and disposable income vary according to their marital status. A family with young children will have different priorities from a retired childless couple. Solomon (2010) specifically gives an account of the longitudinal changes in spending priorities with changes in marital status. Mutinda & Mayaka (2012) asserted that more singles considered taking a holiday than married people indicating influence of marital status on participation in domestic tourism. Geerts (2017) concurred with this when he stated that career minded singles are more inclined to spend disposable income on themselves by participating in tourism. Indeed, family obligations by married people have been quoted to serve as a limitation to tourism demand (Kotler *et al.*, 2002). This study intends to contribute to this discussion.

The nature of one's occupation has also been touted as a determinant of participation in tourism not only from an income point of view but also from other related factors. According to Li *et al.* (2015), employees with steady jobs that offer paid leave were also more likely to participate in tourism than those without. Self-employed individuals were less likely to participate in domestic tourism due to lack of time. Retirees were also less likely to participate in tourism.

Family life cycle describes the various possible stages that households go through as influenced by effects of age, marital status, income and presence/absence of children (Lawson, 1991); (Oppermann, 1995). There are many variations ranging from the traditional model by scholars such as (Wells & Gubar, 1966) to contemporary ones that have incorporated modern changes such as childless households (Backer & Lynch, 2017; Weaver & Lawton, 2010). Family life cycle is considered a very significant predictor of behaviour hence very crucial in market segmentation (Frash *et al.*, 2008).

The main factors influencing participation from the perspective of family life cycle are; availability of disposable income given family obligations, freedom to travel dependent on family responsibilities, safety based upon perceived risk of travel or the ensuing activities, presence of products tailored to meet both the individual and composite needs of family members, and the desire for socialization for single person households. Differences have therefore been known to differ across the different stages in expenditure (Hong *et al.*, 2005), participation (Lawson, 1991) and preferences (Kim *et al.*, 2020). Backer & Lynch (2017) established that there was a significant difference in family life cycle composition between participation in domestic VFR and non-participation in VFR.

This study therefore seeks to determine the extent to which demographic characteristics of Nairobi residents influence their domestic tourism participation and non-participation in the County.

## **2.5 Travel Preferences and Tourism Participation**

There are a number of studies on tourism preferences and especially their determinants. A study by Kaynak *et al.* (1996) on Irish travellers' perception on determinants of their travel preferences indicated that demographic factors such as age, education, gender, income and marital status influenced travel preferences. A study specific to domestic tourism by Mutinda & Mayaka (2012) alluded to this by stating that the preferences were different amongst different demographic characteristics.

Moving on to specific demographic attributes, a study by Hudson & Ritchie (2002) that observed various market clusters based on age showed that preferences differed greatly across the various clusters hence need for differentiated products. Marital status has also been shown to influence preferences. (Geerts, 2017) indicated that single people

are more inclined to engage in activities that suit them without considering others (e.g. learn a new skill, exotic city breaks, spa retreats, adventure etc.) while married people will prefer family oriented activities that meet the needs of all or where everybody can participate.

Preferences have also been observed across generations. Gardiner *et al.* (2014) in their study on generational effect on domestic tourism looked at three generations namely the baby boomers, generation X, and generation Y. Their characteristics and preferences are captured in the table 2.7 below:

**Table 2.7: Preferences for Domestic Tourism Across Generations in Australia**

	Baby boomers	Generation X	Generation Y
Age	1946-1964	1965-1976	1977-1994
Profile	-Financially stable and not afraid to spend -Price not a determinant	-Grew up in uncertain economic times hence cautious spenders, sensitive to over pricing	-Accustomed to abundance -Consumption oriented -Inclined to spend freely
Preferences	-Emotional satisfaction, novelty	-Fun as they struggle to maintain work-life balance -Comfort	-Novelty, uniqueness, personalized experiences

**Source: Gardinier *et al.*, 2014**

Preferences for accommodation, mode of transportation, food and beverage, activities (Kim & Jogaratnam, 2002) as well as souvenirs (Swanson & Horridge, 2006) by tourists have been subjects of study in the recent past. However, most of these studies concentrate on international tourists whose preferences have been known to differ from those of domestic tourists. This study therefore seeks to fill this gap by examine the preferences of the Kenyan domestic traveller in terms of activities, attractions and accommodation.



Destination preference is a significant factor that influences choice for potential tourists (Hsu *et al.*, 2009). Preferences for domestic tourism have been known to range from low expense activities such as traditional sightseeing to high end special interest tourism (Canavan, 2012). Various destinations have come up with specialized, hedonistic tourist experiences such as wellness spas, green tourist resorts and volunteer tourist experiences which cater to specific needs of niche tourist markets (March & Wilkinson, 2009).

Okello *et al.* (2012) noted that Kenyans enjoyed visiting parks for wildlife just like foreigners. This is supported by Wang & Qu (2004) and Wu *et al.* (2000) who also noted that Chinese domestic tourists were interested in national parks. However, majority of the tourists did not go back to the parks for revisits and expressed interest other recreational products that were lacking within the parks. Ndivo *et al.* (2012) posited that the most preferred destination for domestic tourism in Kenya was the coast while the least preferred was Northern Kenya. This was attributed to availability of a variety of activities in the former destination and lack of awareness /security concerns in the latter.

Cheloti (2011) noted that domestic tourists visiting the Kenyan coast engaged in reading, sleeping, shopping, relaxing, carrying out business transactions and visiting beauty parlours as recreational activities. Kihima (2015) noted that the Kenyan domestic tourists enjoyed shopping, clubbing and visiting other entertainment spots. They however displayed minimal visitation to museums and other cultural sites. South African domestic tourists displayed a preference for shopping, social activities including visiting friends and relatives, participating in night life, visiting natural attractions and beaches (The National Department of Tourism, 2012).

Domestic tourists have also been known to engage in hiking, visiting museums, backpacking, visiting national parks, camping, kayaking and visiting historical sites. Other activities include walking, shopping, swimming, wildlife watching, visiting the beach, cultural and historical sites (Hudson & Ritchie, 2002). Some activities such as bird watching are not considered as being tourist activities by domestic tourists (Canavan, 2012). Others have been known to prefer historical sites, cruising, spas, skiing and scuba diving (Cai *et al.*, 2002).

Food and accommodation represent one of the travel expenses that generally takes up a significant amount of tourism expenditure hence is a serious consideration in the travel decision making process (Cheloti, 2011). Domestic tourists have been known to exhibit a preference for low cost accommodation establishments such as guest houses, campsites, and hostels (Gilbert & Hudson, 2000; Kihima, 2015; Mutunga, 2012). Geerts (2017) noted that Chinese domestic tourists preferred budget hotels and short-term rentals such as those found on online homestay booking platforms.

(Tiwari & Jain, 2009) noted that domestic tourists tended to stick to budget and midrange hotels even when there was an increase in their income. This thought is also supported by Okello *et al.*(2012) who noted that domestic tourists craved for accommodation facilities that were affordable. In addition, they sought facilities that were culturally acceptable, that served familiar food and drinks and whose staff accorded uniform treatment to all its guests. This means that there is need to invest in affordable accommodation facilities for domestic tourism.

There are a number of destinations that have successfully brought on board communities to develop affordable accommodation facilities that are still profitable to

the community. The development of low-cost housing beach huts by the community in Samoa for instance, has been a major boost to domestic tourism in the area (Scheyvens, 2007). Research from Namibia has shown that investing in basic campsites by communities with no paid staff yield more returns for the owners than up market accommodation establishments with paid managers (Ashley & Garland, 1994). It also gives an opportunity for communities to invest in tourism.

A study from the British Isles shows that domestic tourists preferred tents, motorized homes, guest houses and their second homes as accommodation (Canavan, 2012). The second home concept is an additional residence away from the primary residence usually used for vacations, weekends and get-away. It is rapidly gaining popularity especially amongst the more affluent populations.

According to the UNWTO (2018), accommodation preference is related to travel motivation. Travelers seeking adventures are more likely to stay in hostels and tented camps, those seeking relaxation and rest in hotels and secluded resorts while those whose main motivation is socialization are more likely to stay with friends and relatives (Richards & Wilson, 2003). A study by Apleni et al. (2017) noted that majority of participants to religious tourism in South Africa preferred cheap accommodation in form of bed and breakfast or as backpackers. This study also sets to establish the relationship between motivation for travel and preference in domestic tourism.

Apart from general preferences, various studies have presented preferences based upon the demographic characteristics. A study by (Tiwari & Jain, 2009) revealed that the young and single domestic tourists preferred adventure tourism, while the married and middle aged sought mental peace in scenic locations and on religious pilgrimages, travel to places that were near in terms of distance. Comfort and beauty were found to

be of great significance to these domestic tourists. The young have also been observed to display a preference for relaxing on the beach, visiting non-traditional tourist places, participating in events and festivals, sports and adventure, visiting friends and relatives, voluntourism, clubbing (Mutunga, 2012). In India and Thailand, niche markets in adventure tourism have been developed in response to the needs of the young travellers (Omollo, 2008).

Differences in preferences have been observed across the genders. Males preferred sporting and adventure-based activities while females preferred activities within close proximity of where they were staying, cultural events, shopping, and dining (Hsu *et al.*, 2009). In light of this, no comprehensive study has been done to find out what the Kenyan domestic tourist likes to do for leisure and recreation and how this affects their decision to participate in domestic tourism. This is one of the gaps that this study aspires to fill.

The above studies extensively identify preferences for tourism attractions, activities and accommodation especially in the international tourism context. They also evaluate differences across age and gender. However, they do not establish the relationship between these preferences and the other demographic characteristics such as level of education marital status, income, occupation and stage in lifecycle in the context of domestic tourism. Gaps on the relationship between preferences and motivation, preferences and constraints also exist. Moreover, these studies do not offer a platform to compare preferences between participants and non-participants in domestic tourism. This study hopes to shed some light on these gaps.

## 2.6 Motivation and Tourism Participation

Motivation is a concept that has been extensively conceptualized in literature as being essential to understanding tourist travel behaviour (Li *et al.*, 2013; Pearce, 2011). Early tourism scholars defined motivation as the sum of biological and psychological needs or wants that direct, arouse and integrate a person's behaviour and subsequent activity (Dann, 1981; Iso-Ahola, 1982; Uysal *et al.*, 1993). Pearce (2014) redefined it as the sum of biological and socio-cultural forces which energize and generate people's behaviour. Other scholars such as Backman *et al.* (1995) described motivation as a state of need that serves as the driving force to displaying different kinds of behaviour towards certain types of activities and developing preferences to arrive at some expected satisfactory outcome. Page (2007) defined it as a state of need or condition that exerts a push on the individual towards certain types of actions that are seen as likely to bring satisfaction. Motivation therefore, begins with a need, followed by the drive or action to satisfy that need and finally ends with the fulfilment of that need (Bowen & Clarke, 2009). Without the need, there is no motivation and without motivation, there is no demand for tourism hence no participation in the same. Motivation has also been defined as an intrinsic emotion that moves an individual to act in a particular manner (Edginton *et al.*, 2015). Other scholars have also viewed motivation as a process. Robbins (2001) describes it as a process that accounts for an individual's intensity, direction and persistence of effort towards attaining a goal.

According to O'Leary & Deegan (2005) tourism motivation is the combination of needs and desires that affect the propensity to travel. Research on tourism and travel motivation has been extensively carried out as exemplified by studies and theories by (Baloglu & Uysal, 1996; Biswas, 2008; Jang & Cai, 2002; Crompton, 1979; Dann, 1981; Iso Ahola, 1982; Kim & Jogaratnam, 2002; Klenosky, 2002 ; Pearce & Lee,

2005; Plog, 1974; Snepenger *et al.* (2006) and Uysal & Jurowski 1994). Some of the studies focus on general tourist motivation such as, (Bogari *et al.*, 2003; Huang & Sarigöllü, 2008; Pearce & Lee, 2005), while others deal with destination specific motivation (Andreu *et al.*, 2006; Hultman *et al.*, 2015; Li *et al.*, 2009; Rid *et al.*, 2014).

As previously stated, the significance of motivation in tourism cannot be overstated. Travel motivation is considered to be the focal point for tourism studies (Yousefi & Marzuki, 2012). It is one of the key determinants in the decision-making process to participate in tourism (Crompton & McKay, 1997). In deed as stated by Ross & Iso-Ahola (1991) studies in motivation help in understanding the reasons for participation which forms an integral part of this study. Since people are motivated to travel for tourism by various reasons, then it is evident that the successful development and promotion of domestic tourism largely depends on proper understanding of these reasons and the motivation behind them.

Every decision regarding holiday, weekend or one day trips is based on several motives of different strengths. It is the interaction of these motives that generates the ultimate behaviour in an individual as regards to whether to participate or not participate in tourism (Bowen & Clarke, 2009). In deed as suggested by Decrop (2006), an analysis of becoming engaged in a tourist activity should take a broader perspective commonly referred to as the vacation decision making process.

Secondly, understanding motivation is crucial in product development and marketing. Knowing about motivation is useful in helping the industry to meet the needs and desires of their customers (Albayrak & Caber, 2018). Since tourists are motivated to satisfy their needs and wants then understanding tourist motivation becomes key to

tourism product development and marketing (Lee *et al.*, 2004; Kim *et al.*, 2010; Park *et al.*, 2010).

Additionally, tourist motivation sheds light on the needs, wants, expectations and behaviours of tourists which is crucial to the development of long-term and effective marketing strategies for tourism (Bruwer, 2003; Mohammad, 2014). This comprehension results in better tourism products for different market segments (Jang & Wu, 2006). Thirdly, motivation acts as a preliminary point in studying tourist behaviour (Yoon & Uysal, 2005) since it deals with why tourists behave the way they do (Hsu & Huang, 2007). This is significant in an industry that is multi-dimensional and where tourists have many needs and desire varied experiences in a destination (Baloglu & Uysal, 1996). Travel motivations are crucial in understanding tourist demands, their behaviour and in predicting their decision-making procedures, including the decision to participate or not participate (Crompton, 1979; Yoon & Uysal, 2005). Despite its obvious significance, tourism motivation is a difficult area of study due to the unwillingness and or inability of tourists to reflect and express their real travel motives (Li *et al.*, 2013). There specifically exists gaps in authentic studies on the motivation for domestic tourism and how that relates to domestic tourism participation which this study seeks to address.

### **2.6.1 The nature of tourism motivation**

In an attempt to further clarify the concept, various studies have categorised tourism motivation based on different attributes. Edginton *et al.*, (2015) argued that motivation can be categorized into primary and secondary motivation with the former being physiologically based and the latter being those that impact on an individual's interest. Bowen and Clark (2009) identified six categories of motivation. These were; positive

motivation (need to seek positive situations), negative motivation (need to escape negative situations), internal motivation (drive from within an individual), external motivation (drive from external stimuli), cognitive motivation (need for meaning) and affective motivation (satisfaction of feelings and achievement of emotional goals).

The idea of internal and external motivation was also explored by Deci & Ryan (1995) through their self-determination theory. This theory presented motivation as a continuum between intrinsic (internal motivation) and extrinsic (external motivation) levels based on a person's level of autonomy and regulation. Thus, they categorized motivation into three i.e. intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation and amotivation.

Intrinsic motivation can be defined as the innate tendency to do an activity for the inherent satisfaction of the activity itself. It is the inbuilt ability to seek novelty and challenges, to extend and exercise one's capacities to learn and explore new things (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Reiss (2012) defined it as doing something for its own sake. It emanates from the need for autonomy, competence and relatedness while fostering enjoyment and engagement. It is closely linked to feelings of control (Biddle & Mutrie, 2007; Reiss, 2012) and self-determination (Deci and Ryan, 1995). Though intrinsic motivation is authentic, self-initiated and authored, its sustenance and enhancement require supportive conditions. For instance, negative performance feedback such as an unsatisfactory tourism experience will diminish intrinsic motivation and the person will most likely not be driven to participate again. On the other hand, positive performance will enhance intrinsic motivation thus enhancing the likelihood of a return visit to the holiday destination.

Furthermore, people are intrinsically motivated to participate in activities that hold intrinsic interest, appeal of novelty, challenges or aesthetic value to them (Deci and



Ryan, 1995). Therefore, in tourism, there is need to understand the factors that facilitate versus those that undermine this self-drive to participate in tourism. This will facilitate provision of supportive conditions in order for the motivation and ultimately participation to be sustained.

In contrast to intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation is externally driven, non-autonomous, regulated and controlled. It emanates from an external source and is performed to satisfy an external demand or for instrumental value (Reiss, 2012). According to Ryan and Deci (2000), it refers to performance of an activity in order to attain some separable outcome, one that may not be inherently enjoyable or interesting. It also includes motivation driven by the need to demonstrate ability, ego, status, self-esteem and maintain feelings of worth (Nicholls, 1984). This is well demonstrated in tourism where people travel in order to brag, keep up with their peers (Mutinda, 2012), conform to expectations (Holloway, 2016) and to fulfil self-esteem/self-actualization needs (Pearce *et al.*, 2005). In some cases, external motivation is driven by passive compliance i.e. the need to conform to some expected norm (Reiss, 2012).

Amotivation falls on one of the extreme ends of the motivation continuum according to Deci & Ryan (1995). It is a state of lacking the drive to engage in an activity characterized by lack of perceived competence and or failure to value the activity or its outcome (Jennett, 2008). In essence, it is the complete absence of either intrinsic or extrinsic motivation (Legault *et al.*, 2006). In its simplest form, it refers to the state of lacking intention to act, in this case, the intention to participate in tourism.

A motivated people do not act at all or act without intent by just going through the motions resulting in behaviour patterns that cannot be sustained and are unlikely to lead to participation. Amotivation has been attributed to factors such as not valuing an

activity not feeling competent to do it or not expecting the activity to yield a desired outcome (Bandura, 1986; Deci & Ryan, 1995). Consequently, people are not likely to be motivated to participate in tourism if they don't value it, do not feel competent to engage in its activities or do not expect the tourism activity to yield desired outcomes. This study therefore aims at providing an understanding of these issues through examining motivation for the domestic tourist and how that relates to the decision to participate or not participate in domestic tourism.

### **2.6.2 Types of travel motivation in the tourism context**

Travel motivators in the context of tourism can be defined as the inner urges that initiate travel demand (Cooper, 2008). These differ from one person to another depending on their needs and wants that are associated with various tourism products and services (Park *et al.*, 2010). They also differ across gender and age hence the need for market segmentation based upon demographic characteristics (Mohammad, 2014). For instance, the motivations to participate in sports has been shown to vary between men and women with social interaction being predominant across both gender (Tomik *et al.*, 2014). Marital status however did not display significant difference. This study aims at exploring the motivation for travel amongst domestic tourists in Kenya.

Various studies have attempted to categorize travellers based on their purpose of travel. Goeldner *et al.*, (2006) categorized travellers into six groups based on motives for travel as follows: those who emphasized excitement and escape, pure adrenaline/excitement seekers, family and friends-oriented group, naturalists, those who emphasized value of escape and those who enjoyed all of the above.

According to Iso Ahola (1982), personal escape, personal seeking, interpersonal escape and interpersonal seeking motivates tourism and recreation. Personal escape includes

getting away from normal environment, daily challenges or problems and having a change from everyday life. Interpersonal escape on the other hand includes getting away from stressful people, environments and avoiding interacting with others. Seeking personal rewards includes education, relaxation, bragging about experiences, feeling good about oneself and experiencing new things. Seeking interpersonal rewards includes meeting new people, rekindling romantic or family relationships, bringing along friends and interacting with people with similar interests (Snepenger *et al.*, 2006). Mayo and Jarvis (1981) categorized travel motivation based on activities as follows; physical motivators, cultural motivators, interpersonal motivators and status/prestige motivators. Klenosky (2002) identified the following as tourism motivation; experiencing novelty, relaxation, physical fitness, escaping from daily routine, socializing with other people, risk, excitement, learning and obtaining knowledge. Horner & Swarbrooke (2007) identified six typologies of motivators for tourism namely cultural, physical, status, personal development, personal and emotional motivators.

Nickerson (1996) based his argument for motivation on personality and the need to fulfil human needs. He argued that personality influences travel behaviour hence determines destination preferences, interaction with local culture, degree of activity, preference in type and number of companions and opportunity preference. He posited that deep human needs are the basic motivators for tourism. For instance, people go on holiday to avoid pity (Nickerson, 1996). Lee *et al.*, (2004), Park *et al.*, (2010) and Kim *et al.*, (2010) concur that tourists are motivated by the desire to satisfy their needs and wants.

According to Holloway *et al.*, (2016), motivation for tourism can be perceived from two levels. One is the general motivation i.e. those motives that aim at achieving a broad

objective such as getting away from a stressful environment. These emanate from within the individual. The second one is specific motivation which involves the means by which to achieve the general objective e.g. going to a resort that offers relaxation and rejuvenation. This analogy has been likened to the Push-pull theory postulated by (Dann, 1977) with the general motives being compared to the push factors while the specific motives are equated to the pull factors. Therefore, people travel because they are “pushed” into making travel decisions by internal psychological forces and “pulled” by the external forces of the destination attributes (Uysal & Jurowski, 1994).

Building upon the push and pull theory, Crompton (1979) identified nine motives for leisure travel out of which seven were categorized as social-psychological while two were cultural motives. He equated the social-psychological motives to the push factors while the cultural motives were likened to the pull factors. He further conceptualized tourism motivation as a state of disequilibrium. He proposed that prior to the travel experience, an individual will experience a state of disequilibrium in his social-cultural psychological needs Uysal *et al.* (1993) which can be corrected through the tourism experience (Kim & Lee, 2002). It is the quest for the restoration of this equilibrium that drives the person to participate in tourism.

Motives amongst participating tourist have also been known to vary depending on the nature of tourism/leisure activity and destination. There are studies that have specifically looked at motivation for domestic tourism. Rogerson (2004) identified the following as motivation for domestic tourism; visiting friends and relatives, pilgrimage, business travel and leisure travel. Bui & Jolliffe (2011) and (Kozak, 2002) identified relaxation, family bonding, escapism and achievement as intrinsic motivation for domestic tourism. This study seeks to contribute to the narrative.

Other studies look at motivation for tourism in general. According to a study by Vuuren & Slabbert (2012), motivation to visit resorts included social interaction, rest and relaxation, opportunity to participate in exciting activities and learning experiences. Mohammed (2014) identified novelty, relaxation, increasing knowledge, events themselves and activities as motivation for participating in festival tourism. A study on participation in wine tourism by Sekulić *et al.*(2016) revealed the desire to taste different types of wines, getting information about wines and its production as the main motivations. The minor ones included participating in the production process, buying local products from local shops and meeting people with similar interests. A similar study by Pivac (2012) identified the desire to taste wine, gain knowledge on wine, experience city life, learn how to combine food and wine, entertainment, enjoy wine culture and its health aspects, appreciate art and architecture as motives for wine tourism.

A study by Özdemir & Çelebi (2018) identified relaxation, self-reflection, discovery, escape, novelty-seeking, environmental concern and social interaction as push factors affecting slow tourism while engagement was identified as a pull factor. Motivation to participate in some niche products such as religious tourism is unique in that it is driven by a sense of duty and obligation rather than search for leisure and pleasure. For instance, the desire to travel in the early days was driven by religious obligations (Horner & Swarbrooke, 2007). Other motives for religious tourism include travel so as to maintain an identity, satisfy the feelings of nostalgia, experience the transcendent, fulfil teachings of particular religion, acquire knowledge (Timothy & Olsen, 2006), need to be uplifted spiritually and be closer to God (Andriotis, 2009; (Nicolaidis, 2014).

(Buckley, 2012) summarized motivation for adventure travellers into three themes namely; internal performance of an activity (includes thrill, fear, fitness, risk, and achievement), social position (includes friends, image and escape) and place in nature. Schneider & Vogt (2012) identified risk as the key motivator in adventure tourism. According to Hartley & Harrison (2009), self-esteem, relaxation, social interaction, self-fulfilment, thrill and excitement form internal motivation for eco-tourists. Out of these, self-fulfilment and thrill seemed to impact most on the tourists' future attendance intentions hence were crucial considerations in the development of retention strategies.

As aforementioned, age influences motivation. Studies have shown that young people especially students are motivated by entertainment, low cost of holiday, novel experiences and people, drinking opportunities, destinations with a "party reputation", recreation and sporting activities, easy access to cultures, places of historical interest, variety in range of activities, relaxing, seeking knowledge, bragging (Kim & Jogaratnam 2002).

Motivation has also been known to vary depending on cultural orientation as exemplified by Sakakida *et al.* (2004) in their study on Japanese and American students, and Wang & Walker (2010) in their study on Canadian and Chinese students. The Chinese students highly rated relaxation and exploring a new culture (Liao, 2012). Šimková & Holzner (2014) established that the strongest motivator for rural tourists was seeking personal rewards. This was established manifested through attributes such as telling others about their experiences, bragging, seeking inspiration, happiness etc. Movies and television shows also act as a form of external motivation as they influence the viewers to visit destinations (Spears *et al.*, 2012). According to UNWTO (2012),

domestic tourism in Asia and Pacific is family centred with VFR being the main motivation.

### **2.6.3 Motivation and participation**

Seldom is the concept of motivation directly linked to domestic tourism participation in literature. Mohammed (2014) acknowledged challenges in establishing the relationship between what drives a tourist (i.e. motivation) and actual participation in events. Various studies have examined the relationship between motivation and other behavioural constructs such as expectations (Hsu *et al.*, 2010) perception Li *et al.* (2010) behavioural intention (Li & Cai, 2012). There is however, a gap in those that address participation.

Available studies refer tacitly to the influence that motivation has on participation in domestic tourism. Li *et al.*, (2016) posited that non-tourists had a lower internal travel motivation than active tourists. For instance, Šimková & Holzner (2014) in their study on motivation of tourism participants based on the Iso Ahola Escape-seeking model argued that motivation of tourists often conflicts with barriers such as economic factors and lack of free time resulting in non-participation. However, other studies show that for participating tourists, these barriers do not significantly affect motivation and future participation (Sekulic, Madaric and Milavanovic, 2016). The people can still be lured to participate by use of appropriate marketing tools.

A study by (Kozioł & Pyrek, 2014) developed a motivation factor trichotomy based on tourism variables and the kind of tourist behaviour that they trigger when they occur. The positive variables also known as motivators were those that created desire and willingness to participate in a tourism activity e.g. attractions. The neutral variables also known as the hygiene factors were those whose lack resulted in reluctance to participate

in tourism. These include tourism infrastructure and communication networks, safety, accessibility and degree of hospitality of host community. The negative variables or demotivators are those whose presence created a negative attitude towards tourism leading to non-participation e.g. poor climatic conditions, pollution, diseases and conflicts. These form very key considerations when dealing with non-participation. According to the study, in order to promote participation, there was need to get rid of demotivators, optimize hygiene factors and maximize motivators within a tourism destination.

Studies by Ndivo *et al.*, (2017) and Mutinda and Mayaka (2012) asserted that individual push factors were more significant than the pull factors in determining participation in domestic tourism. The most significant push factors included the need to increase one's knowledge, go to places where one has not been, see unique features, experience new/different lifestyles and for thrill/excitement. The least important ones were the need to be like one's peers and to go where others had not gone. This means that marketers needed to work more on these factors than the pull factors. The same study identified pull factors for domestic tourism participation to be; value for money, nice weather, outstanding scenery, destination cost that suits household budget and availability of recreational activities for the whole family. Xu & Chan (2016) supported this when they posited that push motivators were found to contribute more significantly to tourist behaviour than the pull factors hence required more consideration from industry practitioners.

Though motivation for travel has been extensively researched, there are very few studies on domestic tourism motivation (Ndivo *et al.*, 2017). This paucity extends to studies that focus on comparing motivation for people already participating in domestic



tourism and those who are not. This study seeks to contribute towards the motivation debate by identifying the motivation factors for domestic tourism from the view point of participants and non-participants of domestic tourists.

## **2.7 Travel constraints and tourism participation**

Research on constraints to participation emanated from leisure studies dating back to the early 1960's with the general assumption being that they led to non-participation (Buchanan & Allen, 1985; Hung & Petrick, 2012). Tourism studies have increasingly picked up the concept as exhibited by various studies on the subject. These include, Gassiot et al. (2018) and Hua et al. (2013) on travellers with physical disabilities, Li *et al.* (2016) and Li *et al.* (2015) on domestic tourism non- participation; Kruger & Douglas (2015) on domestic tourism consumption; Hung & Petrick (2012) on cruise tourism participation and (Gilbert & Hudson, 2000) on participation in sky tourism).

Travel constraints can be defined as barriers that inhibit people's travel activities (Hung & Petrick, 2010). They are the limitations and difficulties that prevent participation in leisure activities hence by extension participation in domestic tourism. Gassiot *et al.* (2018) conceptualized travel constraints as factors that can inhibit travel satisfaction, motivation and needs. Constraints limit the formation of leisure preferences and prohibit participation and enjoyment of leisure often resulting in non-participation (Crawford & Godbey, 1987).

Travel constraints form a significant component of tourism literature as they are critical to planning and marketing of the same. Destinations need to understand these constraints in order to develop and implement strategies that overcome them hence facilitating participation in tourism (Chen *et al.*, 2011). As posited by (Peterson & Lambert, 2003), constraints help to better understand non-tourist travel decision

making, hence their significance in understanding determinants of participation in domestic tourism. In a bid to understand constraints to participation in leisure activities, various scholars have not only identified the constraints but also moved on to classify and evaluate the interrelationships between them and other factors.

### **2.7.1 Nature /Type of travel constraints**

Literature reveals a plethora of studies that have attempted to classify constraints. Jackson & Searle (1985) viewed constraints to travel as being either internal or external. Poria *et al.* (2009) categorized constraints into physical and social constraints. Freeman & Selmi (2009) classified constraints into physical, attitudinal, financial and communication barriers. Crawford *et al.* (1991) identified three types of constraints namely intrapersonal, interpersonal and structural constraints. The above categorization was expanded by Hua *et al.* (2013) who added cultural barriers hence forming intrapersonal, interpersonal, structural and cultural constraints.

Apart from categorization, early studies also concentrated on identifying the constraints to participation in leisure (Buchanan & Allen, 1985; McGuire, 1983). These merely isolated and listed the barriers or challenges that were perceived to be barriers that prevented participation. Most of these early studies isolated constraints in the context of international travel with very few examining the domestic scenario (Nyaupane & Andereck, 2007). As stated by Li *et al.* (2015), the way constraints such as income, travel distance, time and language barriers affect participation in domestic tourism is quite different from how it affects international tourism. This underscores the significance of exploring barriers in the context of domestic tourism.

From the international perspective, a study by Goeldner *et al.* (2006) identified six types of constraints to travel namely cost, time, health limitations, family stage, lack of

interest and finally fear and safety. Lew *et al.* (2008) identified the following as constraints to travel: lack of free time, lack of disposable income, lack of information, need to stay home and care for the family, personal health/disability, crime concerns, civil unrest and wars, terrorism, disease concerns, personal phobias such as aerophobia, natural disasters, institutional barriers/legal restrictions and negative attitudes of the locals towards tourists.

Lack of money, poor health, time family support or interest were identified as primary constraints to travel by (Blazey, 1987). Tian *et al.* (1996) identified cost, time, difficulty of access, repetition, product failings and lack of interest as main constraints to tourism participation. Korstanje (2011) added to the fear and anxiety debate as a constraint to travelling. Other studies have identified socio-demographic factors as significant constraints to participation in tourism including age, income and life cycle (Kattiyapornpong & Miller, 2009).

Nadirova & Jackson (2000) identified five broad constraints domains that limit participation in tourist activities namely; isolation (e.g. lack of safety, lack of transportation), Knowledge (e.g. lack of information), skills (e.g. disabilities, discomfort in social settings), costs (e.g. administration fees) and commitments (e.g. lack of time). Pizam & Fleischer (2002) identified constraints amongst Israel senior citizens to be lack of leisure time, discretionary income and poor health. Constraints are also experienced for niche tourism products. Time and cost were found to be the most widely experienced and challenging structural constraints according to (Hinch *et al.* 2005). Pivac (2012) identified lack of leisure time, cost, and lack of finances and influence of season as barriers to participation in wine tourism.

Moving to constraints specific to domestic tourism, Scheyvens (2007) identified lack of product diversification, having hotels that are built to meet the needs of the international tourists, accommodation that was not affordable as barriers to domestic tourism. Wang & Chen (2013) and Cai *et al.* (2002) isolated poor service, lack of product diversification, inefficient transport systems especially during peak hours, expensive accommodation with an international orientation as a challenge facing China's domestic tourism. Magableh & Kharabsheh (2013) identified poor infrastructure, focus on inbound tourism, long distances to destinations, high entry fees, spending on external tourism, political disturbances, family size, and lack of publicity/marketing/awareness, time, disposable income, direct transport and attractions as barriers to domestic tourism.

In Africa, constraints to domestic tourism have also been extensively identified by numerous studies. A study by Mazimhaka (2007) identified the following as hindrances to participation in domestic tourism in Rwanda; lack of a tourism culture, insufficient information and financial limitations, lack of product diversification (i.e. over reliance on gorilla tourism). Thapa (2012) identified lack of money, insufficient time, inaccessibility and unsuitable weather as constraints to domestic tourism.

A study carried out by The National Department of Tourism (2012), identified the following as constraints to domestic tourism; the perception that tourism was not affordable, lack of motivation/reason to participate in tourism, lack of a saving for holiday culture, lack of free time, poor travel culture, lack of knowledge of available affordable accommodation options, poor marketing strategies for domestic tourism, lack of tailor made products suited to the domestic market, limited resources dedicated to development and promotion of domestic tourism. Kruger and Douglas (2015) further

identified time, distance and affordability as the main constraints affecting black domestic tourists in South Africa. Lack of product variety, expensive tourism product aggravated by government policies that advocate for high value-low volume approach and lack of travel culture were identified as constraints to domestic tourism in Botswana (Morupisi & Mokgalo, 2017).

Several studies have also identified constraints to domestic tourism in the Kenyan context. These include; lack of disposable income for lower and middle classes, expensive destinations especially hotels, lack of product diversification, outward orientation of the tourism industry towards the international tourist hence lack of products that meet the needs of the domestic traveller, lack of free time, poor marketing to local people, unfamiliar food types in hotels, lack of hospitable treatment to local tourists by service providers, lack of own transport, negative perceptions that tourist destinations are for the rich and foreign, high cost of food and hospitality services within national parks, low education levels and social norms (Kihima, 2015; Okello & Novelli, 2014; Okello *et al.*, 2012; Manono & Rotich, 2013; Ndivo *et al.*, 2012; Sindiga, 1996). In addition to these studies, the Kenya National Tourism Strategy 2013-2018 identifies lack of an enabling environment and lack of knowledge of the potential products by Kenyans as major constraints to domestic tourism in the country (Government of Kenya, 2013). Despite the expansive studies done in identifying the constraints, there is an evident gap in studies that link the constraints to participation and other variables in this study namely motivation, preferences and demographic characteristics. There is also a scarcity of studies that compare constraints as perceived by people who have participated in domestic tourism and those who haven't i.e. non-participants.

### **2.7.2 Constraints and Participation**

As earlier stated, besides identifying constraints, other studies have moved a step further to categorize these constraints and then use models to evaluate the relationship between them and other factors (Crawford & Godbey, 1987; Crawford *et al.*, 1991; Jackson *et al.* 1993; Hubbard & Mannell, 2001) . The hierarchical model by Crawford *et al.* (1991) identified three types of constraints that may inhibit an individual's desire to participate in tourism, namely, intrapersonal, interpersonal and structural constraints. This model was later modified to include the constraints negotiation concept that suggests that constraints can be negotiated to allow for tourism participation (Jackson, Crawford & Godbey,1993, Hubbard & Mannel, 2001). Leisure preferences and ultimately participation is therefore shaped by either absence or negotiation of these three constraints (Gilbert & Hudson, 2000). Hubbard & Mannel (2001) introduced the element of motivation and posited that highly motivated people were more likely to negotiate constraints and eventually participate in leisure activities. Crawford and Godbey (1987) argued that if preference for a given leisure activity is significantly greater than the perceived constraints, then participation will occur despite the presence of barriers.

Scholars such as Kruger & Douglas, (2015) suggest that the negotiation process occurs sequentially with intrapersonal constraints being negotiated first, followed by interpersonal and then lastly the structural constraints. According to (Hinch & Higham, 2011) structural constraints are the ones that prove to be insurmountable making them non-negotiable. Thus, they warrant more attention than the intrapersonal and interpersonal ones. This study seeks to advance this argument.

Various scholars have portrayed a negative relationship between constraints and tourism participation (Crawford *et al.*, 1991; Li *et al.*, 2015). This has however been

refuted by other scholars who posit that when successfully negotiated, constraints stop having a negative effect on participation (Jackson *et al.*, 1993); Hubbard & Mannel, 2001; Peter & Lambert, 2003). There are cases of significant levels of travel even among the most constrained groups as well as significant amounts of non-travel by the least constrained ones (Hung & Petrick, 2012) (Kattiyapornpong & Miller, 2009). A study by Shaw *et al.* (1991) indicated that sometimes those with more constraints participated more in tourism. In other words, with proper negotiation, a person with many constraints can still participate in tourism. Literature has therefore indicated that non-participation is not an absolute outcome of constraints (Jackson *et al.*, 1993). Thus, there is no simple positive or negative relationship existing between constraints and participation (Li *et al.*, 2015).

There are studies that have compared constraints amongst non-participants and participants (Kerstetter *et al.*, 2002). Alexandris & Carroll (1997) argued that non-participants are more constrained from an intrapersonal dimension than the participating tourists hence rendering it more significant to participation than structural and interpersonal constraints. Hudson and Gilbert (2000) used the hierarchical model by Crawford and Godbey (1987) to compare skiers and non-skiers establishing that skiers are affected by structural constraints while non-skiers are affected by intrapersonal constraints. He therefore concurred with (Alexandris & Carroll, 1997). Under structural constraints, cost had the highest score. A study by Hung and Petrick (2012) compared constraints across people participating and those not participating in cruise tourism. The participating respondents displayed fewer constraints, higher level of travel motivation and the ability to negotiate through those constraints as compared to the non-participating ones. Lai *et al.* (2013) established that intrapersonal and

structural constraints were significant to both participants and non-participants while interpersonal constraints were not.

Li *et al.*, (2015) also posited that there were different constraints between existing domestic tourists and the non- tourists. The intrapersonal and structural differences were significantly different between the two groups while interpersonal constraints were the same. The non-tourists were mainly constrained by economic challenges and intrapersonal constraints such as attitude and health. The existing tourists were less discouraged by intrapersonal constraints and more hindered by structural constraints. The study however excluded the role of motivation in explaining non-participation, hence its inclusion in this study.

A similar study by Li *et al.* (2016) also compared constraints amongst participants and non-participants in domestic tourism. Contrary to findings by Li *et al.* (2015), intrapersonal constraints did not play a major role. The participants were constrained mainly by interpersonal constraints and structural constraints in the form of destination factors. The non-participants were constrained by structural barriers in the form of economic factors and leisure time.

Stone & Stone (2017) established that both the participating and non-participating respondents faced similar intrapersonal, interpersonal and structural constraints. However, there were significant differences in two areas. One, the non-participants did not perceive some activities such as viewing wildlife to be tourism since they were similar to what they encountered on a day-to-day basis. Secondly, they also cited lack of family commitment and the inability of families to afford tourism. These represented intrapersonal and interpersonal factors respectively.



Table 2.8 below shows studies comparing constraints to tourism participation and non-participation.

<b>AUTHOR</b>	<b>MAIN GAP COVERED</b>
1. Blazey (1987)	Compared travel participants and non-participants aged over 55 years and above- found significant differences in constraints and demographic characteristics namely gender, age, health and income
2. Alexandris and Carrol (1997)	Compared constraints to participation in sports amongst participants and non-participants, found that non-participants were more constrained especially by intrapersonal constraints
3. Gilbert and Hudson (2000)	Compared skiers and non-skiers – non-skiers experienced more intrapersonal constraints, both groups experienced economic factors and lack of time as a constraint.
4. Kerstetter et al., 2002	-Non-users of nature-based tourism were constrained by lack of knowledge, distance and transportation while users were constrained by previous visitation experience
5. Hung and Petrick 2012	Compared constraints amongst cruisers and non-cruisers, found significant difference between the two groups with cruisers having lesser constraints
6. Lai <i>et al.</i> , 2013	Compared constraints between Chinese outbound tourists and non-tourists, found similarities especially in the intrapersonal and structural constraints which were significant in both groups
7. Li <i>et al.</i> , 2015 and Li <i>et al.</i> , 2016	Analysed reasons for non-participation in domestic tourism in China, isolated intrapersonal and economic constraints as the most difficult to negotiate by non-tourists Analysed influence of constraints on non-participation in domestic tourism, isolated economic and leisure time as main constraints
8. Stone and Stone, 2017	Used the hierarchical model to test constraints amongst domestic tourists and domestic non-tourists in Botswana's protected areas

**Table 2.8: Studies Comparing Tourism Participation and Non-Participation**

As can be seen from the table, most of the studies deal mainly with constraints of international tourism. The few that deal with domestic tourism have concentrated on comparing constraints hence leaving out the influence of other factors such as demographic characteristics, preferences and motivation. Furthermore, the studies are context-specific and do not address the Kenyan situation where no such study has been

carried out. Some of the studies located in the African setting are purely qualitative hence the need for a quantitative study to validate the findings. They also don't examine the relationship between the constraints, preferences, motivation and participation. These are the gaps that this study aspires to fill.

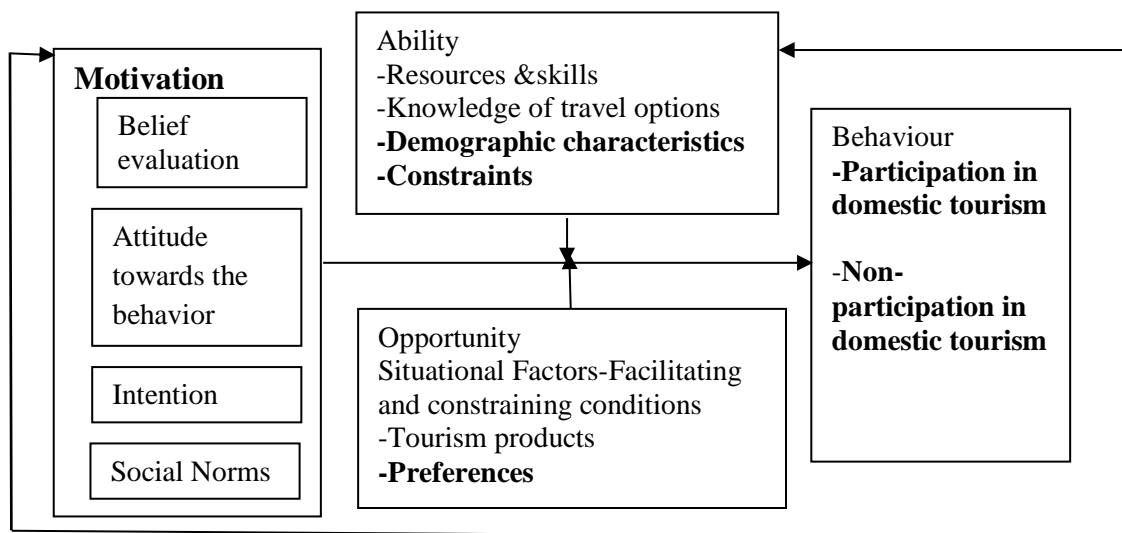
## **2.8 Theoretical Review of Literature**

In order to understand travel behaviour, it is necessary to examine consumer behaviour and travel motivation. Consumer behaviour theories help to clarify how tourists choose products and destinations, the decision-making processes and the constraints they have to overcome in order to actually participate in tourism. Motivation theories on the other hand serve to explain why people travel in the first place. The main theory in which this study was anchored is the Motivation-Opportunity-Ability theory since it combines all the study variables that explain travel intentions and the decision to participate in tourism i.e. Participation and non-participation, Demographic characteristics, preferences, motivation and constraints. It was supported by two other theories namely the Hierarchical Constraints Model which explains travel constraints and the Push-Pull theory which explains travel motivation.

### **2.8.1 The Motivation-Opportunity-Ability (MOA) theory**

This theory was first proposed by MacInnis & Jaworski (1989). The theory postulates that consumer behaviour is as a result of three antecedent factors that influence information processing and decision making leading to either participation or non-participation in tourism. These three factors are motivation, opportunity and ability, hence the acronym the (MOA) theory. It has been used in various consumer behaviour studies including tourism. It was used by Hung and Petrick (2012) to explain travel

intentions in cruise tourism, i.e. the decision to participate or not participate in cruise tourism. It is shown in figure 2.2 below.



**Figure 2.2: Motivation-Opportunity-Ability**

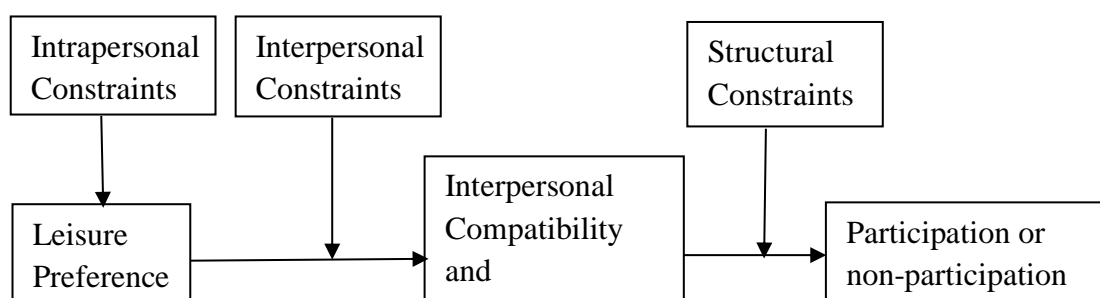
**Source: Olander and Thøgersen, 1995**

Motivation is the inner arousal/drive that is created by among others factors values, goals and psychological needs which can be fulfilled by tourism (Nickerson, 1996). In order to create demand for consumption, the industry needs to recognize the needs and where possible create or stimulate new needs. Motivation to travel is shaped by the person's belief system, attitudes and perception towards tourism in general, what they intend to achieve through travel and societal norms i.e. what others around the person say and do. Opportunity refers to the presence of factors that create the possibility of satisfying the psychological needs. It is represented by the tourism products and consumer preferences for the same. A consumer may be motivated and have the ability but lack opportunities to consume. The industry must ensure that they avail these opportunities by developing a variety of product offerings that satisfy these preferences, and also create awareness to potential clients. There is also need to reduce the perceived risk associated with uptake of new products by continuously providing adequate information on the same.

Ability refers to personal traits, skills and resources required to consume tourism products presented by the opportunities. It is dependent on demographic characteristics, finances, social/cognitive capacity, perception on tourism, knowledge and experience. The industry needs to understand the consumer, their capabilities, how they access and process information and therefore work towards matching the tourism products with these attributes. Motivation, opportunity and ability serve to propel the person into either participating or not participating in tourism. Conversely, lack of these three attributes will present as constraints to participation in tourism. The MOA theory therefore supports this study by shedding light on significant components of travel intention that form variables of this study namely motivation, preferences as part of opportunity, demographic characteristics as part of ability and constraints. It helps to clarify why a tourist would choose a destination or not, what influences a tourist to purchase a service or product hence an understanding of tourism demand and participation.

### 2.8.2 The Hierarchical Model of Leisure Constraints

This study is also supported by the Hierarchical model of leisure constraints by Crawford *et al.*, (1991) as illustrated in figure 2.3.



**Figure 2.3: Hierarchical Model of Leisure Constraints**

**Source: Crawford et al. (1991: 311) and Kotler, Bowen & Makens (2010:151)**

The hierarchical constraints model conjectured that an individual's desire to participate in tourism is inhibited by intrapersonal, interpersonal and structural constraints which interact with preferences towards a specific activity. Intrapersonal constraints are defined as individual psychological qualities or attributes that affect the development of leisure preferences. Rather than intervene between preferences and participation, they instead lead to non-participation (Crawford and Godbey, 1987). Examples of intrapersonal constraints include stress, fear, lack of interest, shyness, depression, anxiety, kin and non-kin reference group attitude, health, perceived self-skill and perceived appropriateness of various leisure activities. These constraints are relatively unstable and may change within a short period. They require more work to overcome them rather than regular place marketing e.g. changing attitudes (Nyaupane & Anderek, 2007).

Interpersonal constraints on the other hand are social factors that emanate within social interactions and exchanges. They occur as a result of interactions with family, friends and acquaintances who may influence preferences and the final decision. They are caused by unavailability of other people thus preventing an individual from participating in activities requiring at least one partner or in which there is strong preference for a co-participant (Nyaupane *et al.*, 2004). It may also present in the form of lack of interest from the significant others to participate in the leisure activity (Gilbert & Hudson, 2000). Interpersonal constraints interact with both preferences and participation and are likely to change across life stages hence depend on marital status, family size and type of activity.

Structural constraints represent external factors intervening between preference for and participation in tourism activities. They are externally derived (Crawford & Godbey, 1987). They include lack of disposable income, lack of opportunity, season, climate,

lack of free time and inaccessibility. They are the most experienced, frequently and challenging type of constraints (Hinch et al., 2005). Within structural constraints, Nyaupane & Alexandris (2007) isolated three sub-constraints namely time, cost and place (e.g. accessibility and weather). Out of three, time and cost were perceived to be most constraining.

Intrapersonal, interpersonal and structural constraints have different effects on preferences for and participation in tourism (Figueiredo *et al.*, 2012). Studies on domestic tourism have shown that out of the three types of constraints, structural constraints are the most predominant (Pennington-Gray & Kerstetter, 2002; Schneider *et al.*, 2012; Thapa, 2012; Okello *et al.*, 2012; Krugger & Douglas, 2015). This is followed by the interpersonal and then intrapersonal constraints. According to Krugger & Douglas, (2015), the most common structural constraint is financial while the most common for interpersonal is disinterest from reference groups e.g. family and friends.

The hierarchical model by Crawford *et al.*, (1991) has been tested by various researchers in nature-based tourism settings. These include Pennington-Gray & Kerstetter (2002) who found that the individual perceptions of constraints differed depending on socio-economic status, family life cycle and age. It was also applied by Stone & Stone (2017) who established that intrapersonal constraints faced by domestic tourists in Botswana were lack of travel culture and the perception that tourism is for white. The study further concluded that interpersonal constraints were the shortage of affordable family accommodation while structural constraints included inaccessibility and lack of finances.

The hierarchical model was later modified into the leisure constraint negotiation model which proposed that constraints are negotiable rather than insurmountable (Jackson,

Crawford & Godbey, 1993). This was again modified by Hubbard and Mannel, (2001) into the constraint-effect-mitigation model which depicts the influence of constraints on participation in relation to motivation and negotiation. It is the most updated constraint model (Hung & Petrick, 2012).

According to the updated model, the ability to negotiate constraints rather than their absence is therefore what determines participation in tourism. Therefore, a person facing many challenges can still be able to participate in tourism. The hierarchical constraints model supports this study by shedding light on the constraints of domestic tourism and how they affect leisure preferences and eventually lead to participation or non-participation in domestic tourism. It also informs the formulation of the variable on travel constraints and the basis for hypothesis testing on the same.

### **2.8.3 The Push-pull theory**

This is one of the most recognized theories in tourism motivation research (Uysal *et al.*, 2008). It started as a sign gestalt paradigm by (Tolman, 1959) and was later advanced by Dann (1977). It is based on the notion that a motivated individual will act on a psychological or physiological stimulus to satisfy a need or to achieve an anticipated goal (Dunn, 1991; Uysal *et al.*, 2008).

Dann (1977) posited that tourism motivation can therefore be viewed from two dimensions namely by push factors and pull factors. The push factors are intrinsic forces that predispose an individual to participate in tourism i.e. instils the desire to travel so as to satisfy various psychological needs ( Li, Zhang & Cai 2016 ; Reihanian *et al.*, 2015). These needs are however not purely psychological but rather include cultural and structural conditions that push people to travel. They are mainly intangible factors such as escape, fun, excitement, social interactions and health (Baloglu & Uysal,

1996). Tourists will select destinations that are more likely to satisfy their needs and expectations (Crompton & McKay, 1997). This is the reason that makes people want to leave their normal residence and escape to a tourist destination. The push factors can therefore be likened to the intrinsic motivation by Deci (1995) and general motives by (Holloway, 2016).

The pull factors on the other hand are external forces that attract an individual to a given destination (Falcão *et al.*, 2015); (Baniya & Paudel, 2016). They can be equated to extrinsic motivation by Deci (1995) and specific motives by (Holloway 2016). Pull factors determine where, when and how the tourist vacations (Li, Zhang & Cai, 2016). They comprise mainly of the attractions that a destination possesses and are majorly tangible in nature e.g. heritage sites, wildlife, beaches, spectacular landscapes etc. (Baloglu & Uysal, 1996; Uysal *et al.*, 2008). Destinations with attractive attributes will pull more tourists to them compared to those without. A study by Li *et al.*, (2016) however discounted the effect of a destination's attractiveness on the decision by non-tourists to participate in tourism and concluded that it was not a significant determinant. In essence people travel because they are pushed by their own internal forces and pulled by the external forces of destination attributes (Bashar & Ahmad, 2010). Chen *et al.* (2011) described push factors as those that are inherent and come from within individuals while pull factors are destination specific.

In his work on push and pull factors in tourism motivation, Dann (1977) further hypothesized that tourism motivation can be conceptualized on two levels, the anomie and ego enhancement. The anomie refers to the situation where people have the desire to escape from everyday routine i.e. the wish to get away from it all, alleviate isolation and provide an opportunity for self-reflection and improvement of self-esteem. It is a representation of an individual's need for love, affection and social interaction. Thus,



people seek to transcend feelings of isolation and anomie in everyday life and in the process achieve social status (Li *et al.*, 2016). Ego enhancement on the other hand is the psychological boost of reality or fantasies where people have the desire to be recognized by others. It is the need for status seeking, fitting in with peers, living up to societal expectations and recognition. Travel provides an opportunity for the realization of this desire.

The push and pull approach by Dann (1977), has been validated by a number of studies as an authoritative theory on tourism motivation research. Crompton (1979) identified nine travel motivations based on the push/pull concept and categorized those into two. The first category was social psychological factors which served to push or direct pleasure vacation behaviour hence associated with push factors. These comprised of escape from everyday environment, discovery and evaluation of oneself, relaxing or participating in recreational activities, gaining certain level of prestige, for regression, strengthening family ties and facilitating their level of social interaction. The second category was the cultural factors which served to lure or attract somebody to the destination hence acted as pull factors. They were perceived to be concerned with the actual destination rather than the internal state of the individual. They consisted of novelty and education.

Crompton & Mc Kay (1997) combined the Dann's push-pull theory with Iso Ahola's Escape-Seeking dichotomy by presenting the push factors as escaping motives i.e. internal stimuli and the pull factors as seeking motives i.e. external stimuli. They perceived the desire to leave the everyday environment behind as the push concept while the pull concept was viewed as the desire to obtain rewards through travel in a contrasting environment. Dann (1981) further developed a two-tier framework that

described the determinants of participation in tourism namely the push domain and the pull domain. The push domain was made up of motivation, socio-economic factors, demographic factors and market knowledge. The pull domain defined the destination attributes, type of facilities, accessibility, maintenance/situational factors and the marketed image. While a destination may host a number of attractions, the decision to visit subsequently depends on the need to travel i.e. the desire to travel precedes the destination decision.

Dann (1981) argued that the push and pull factors reinforced each other in motivating the tourist hence there was need for these to be considered together in product development and marketing. Jang & Cai (2002) identified six push and five pull factors. The push factors were the desire to get novel experiences, escape from routine, seek knowledge, fun and excitement, rest and relaxation, bond with family and friends. The pull factors were attraction to natural and historical environment, cleanliness and safety, outdoor activities, accessible destinations, sunny and exotic atmosphere. The push and pull theory support the study by clarifying the variable on motivation and contributing to hypothesis formulation on the same.

## **2.9 Summary of Gaps**

From the reviewed literature, it is evident that there is a dearth of research focusing on domestic tourism especially in developing countries (Mazimhaka, 2007; Scheyvens, 2007; Rogerson, 2011; Bui & Jolliffe, 2011; Alipour *et al.*, 2013; Ghimire, 2013; Sun *et al.*, 2013). Notably, there is scarcity of authoritative studies on factors influencing demand of domestic tourism at the individual level focusing on socio-demographic characteristics, travel motivations, decision making, travel habits of the domestic tourist, needs and preferences (Payne & Dimanche, 1996; Hudson & Ritchie, 2002;

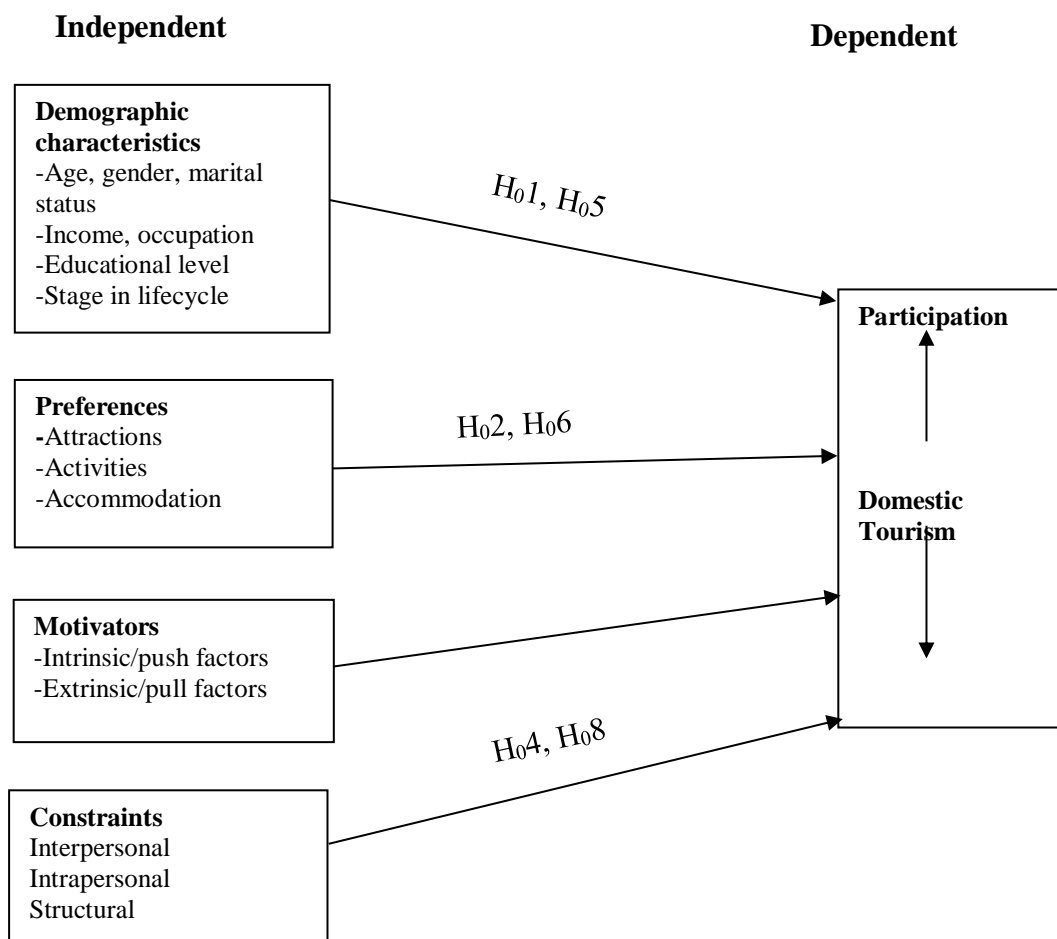
Wang & Chen, 2013; Kruger & Douglas, 2015). Most of the in-depth studies on effect of factors such as income, distance, language barriers etc determine travel demand, most studies concentrate on international tourism. The interaction of these factors in domestic tourism hasn't been deeply explored (Li *et al.*, 2015). Specifically, for Kenya, there is lack of studies on determinants and antecedents of domestic tourism demand (Manono & Rotich, 2013). This means that the determinants of participation in domestic tourism are not clear. None of the above studies move beyond identification of preferences, motivation and constraints of tourism to interrogate the effect of the same on domestic tourism participation.

Another gap is in studies that compare tourists and non-tourists. In deed very few studies compare factors affecting participants and non-participants (Hsu *et al.*, 2009; Kerstetter *et al.*, 2002). Previous studies on domestic tourism in Kenya (Kihima, 2015; Cheloti, 2011; Okello *et al.*, 2012; Ndivo *et al.*, 2012; Manono & Rotich, 2013) have concentrated on the active domestic tourist leaving out the non-participating group. Understanding of the reasons for non-participation paves way for the formulation of strategies that can convert non-participants into participants. The study by Li *et al.*, (2015) advocated for replication of studies on non-participation in other destinations hence the validity of this study. This study therefore seeks to compare factors affecting participants versus non-participants of domestic tourism with the ultimate goal of formulating strategies that not only retain the current tourists but also convert non-participants into active domestic tourists. This study seeks to contribute to knowledge of domestic tourism by addressing the above identified gaps.

## **2.10 Conceptual Framework**

This study was guided by a conceptual framework comprised of 1 dependent variable and 4 independent variables. These variables were derived from the theoretical

framework and literature. The independent variables for the study were demographic characteristics, preferences, motivation and constraints while the dependent variable was domestic tourism participation and non-participation. The study sought to test relationships between, demographic characteristics, travel preferences, travel motivation, travel constraints and; domestic tourism participation and non-participation. It also compared demographic characteristics, travel preferences, travel motivation, travel constraints of participants and non-participants of domestic tourism. The framework is shown in figure 2.4 below.



**Figure 2.4: Conceptual Framework**  
**Source: Researcher, (2019)**

**Demographic characteristics**

These are observable measurements of the target population's attributes that define the nature of both the participating and the non-participating respondents. They include age, gender, level of education, income, occupation, marital status and stage in life cycle. These attributes were measured on nominal scale as count data.

**Preferences**

This is the inclination by an individual towards certain attractions, recreational activities and accommodation facilities that influences the desire and eventually the decision to participate in domestic tourism. These were measured on the ordinal scale using a 5point likert scale.

**Motivation**

This represents the drive that propels or attracts one to participate in tourism. It is depicted by both internal factors (pull factors) and external factors (push factors). These factors were also measured on the ordinal scale using a 5point likert scale.

**Constraints**

These are barriers that threaten to inhibit participation in domestic tourism. This study has conceptualised these as intrapersonal, interpersonal and structural constraints. They were measured on the ordinal scale using a 5point likert scale.

**Domestic Tourism Participation and Non-Participation**

This refers to the intention and ultimately decision to either take a tourism trip or not within one's country of residence. It therefore results either in participation or non-participation in domestic tourism. Participation involves the decision to take a trip and consume domestic tourism while non participation refers to the act of not taking part in domestic tourism activities. It was measured on nominal scale.

## CHAPTER THREE

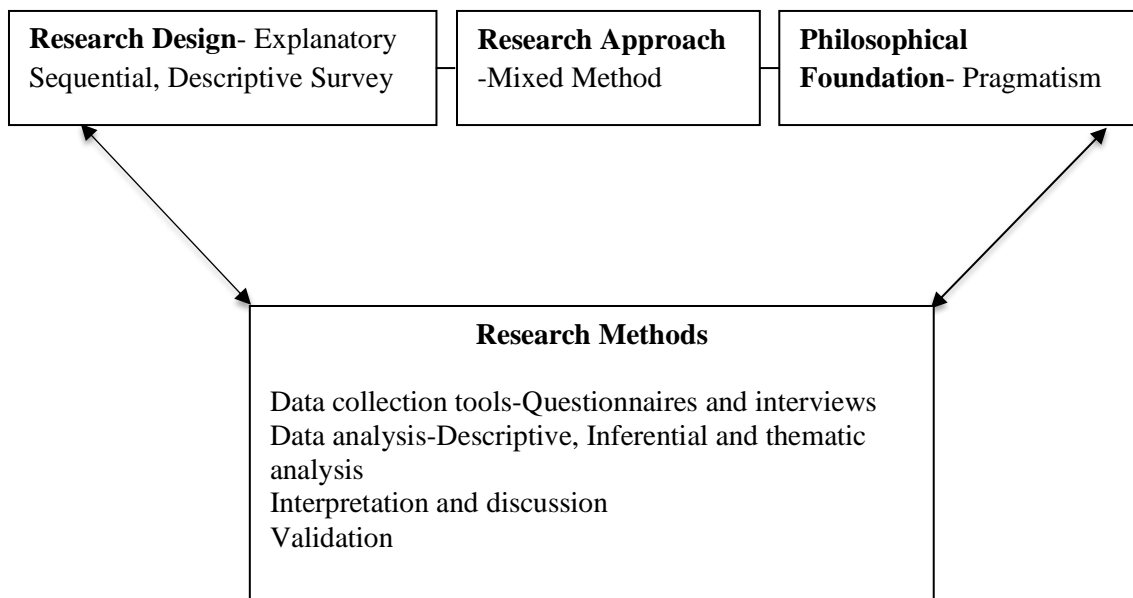
### RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

#### 3.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the methodology that was employed in carrying out the study. It is organized under the following sub-topics; research design, study area, target population, sampling techniques, data collection and measurement, data analyses, instrument validity, instrument reliability, and ethical considerations.

#### 3.2 Research Design

This study used the explanatory sequential and descriptive research designs. It was a mixed method research anchored in the pragmatic paradigm. The overall design was illustrated through a framework adapted from Creswell (2014) as shown in figure 3.1 below:



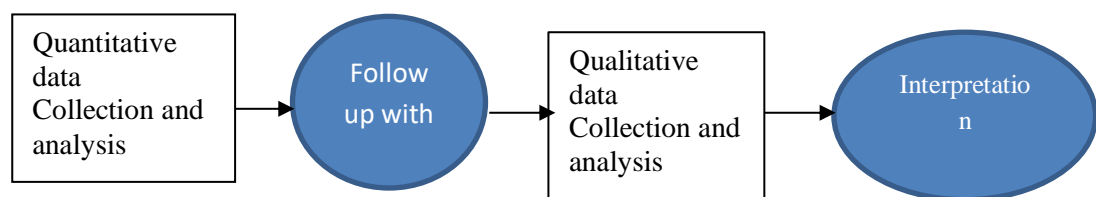
**Figure 3.1: Research Framework**

Source: Researcher 2019, (Adapted from Creswell, 2014)

### 3.2.1 Explanatory Sequential Research Design

The explanatory sequential design is one of the mixed methods research designs (Creswell, 2011). It aims at using a qualitative strand to explain initial quantitative results (Creswell & Clark, 2017). It comprises of two phases, the first being collation and analysis of quantitative data (which provides a general picture) and the second one being collation and analysis of qualitative data which is then used to explain the initial quantitative findings (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). The results from the quantitative phase inform the types of participants to be purposefully selected for the qualitative phase and the types of questions to be asked (Creswell, 2014). The design therefore provides flexibility to adapt second stage findings to the findings of the first stage (Feilizer, 2010). This design was perceived to be suitable for this study as it allowed the researcher to assess trends and relationships in quantitative data and also explain the reasons behind the resultant trends through qualitative data (Bazeley, 2009).

The process is captured by the figure below adapted from Plano Clark (2011):



**Figure 3.2: Explanatory Sequential Design**

**Source: Plano Clark (2011)**

### 3.2.2 Descriptive Survey

A descriptive survey describes the state of affairs of an occurrence as it exists without manipulation of variables (Kombo & Tromp, 2006; Orodho, 2005). It was suitable for this study as it allowed the researcher to quantify, relate and justify attitudes of a large number of respondents hence was useful in determining their opinions, attitudes, preferences and perceptions towards domestic tourism participation (Kothari, 2004;

Lavrakas, 2008). Additionally, this research was carried out as a cross sectional study where the researcher visited the study population once to obtain an overall picture of a situation or phenomenon as it stood at the given point in time (Kumar, 2019). This made it cheap to undertake the study and was simple to analyse since the study population was visited once.

### **3.2.3 Mixed Method Approach**

The study adopted the mixed method approach. According to Tashakkori & Creswell, (2007), mixed method can be defined as research where the investigator collects and analyses data, integrates findings and draws inferences using both quantitative and qualitative approaches in a single inquiry. It is an approach to knowledge (theory and practice) that attempts to consider multiple viewpoints, perspectives, positions and standpoints (Johnson, Onwuebuze & Turner, 2007). It combines elements of quantitative and qualitative approaches (use of both points of views, data collection, analyses and inference techniques) for the broad purposes of breadth, depth of understanding and corroboration/validation.

This approach was seen to be best suited for this study due to various reasons. Firstly, it results in more complete results (Gobo, 2015). Secondly it produces a more complete picture, avoids biases intrinsic to the use of a single method, builds on and develops initial findings (Denscombe, 2008); Creswell, 2014). Thirdly, according to Greene, (2008), it distinctively offers deep and potentially inspirational and catalytic opportunities to meaningfully engage with the differences that matter in today's troubled world, seeking not so much convergence and consensus as opportunities for respectful listening and understanding.



Fourthly, the method also helps to combine the depth of qualitative research and the breadth of quantitative research hence aiding in overcoming the weaknesses of each individual approach (Creswell *et al.*, 2003). Fifthly, it also facilitates collation of multiple forms of data from diverse audiences and multi-level analysis that serve to enrich the findings of the study. The validity of the findings can also be further strengthened through triangulation via using multiple respondents and data collection strategies (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009).

This study used a structured questionnaire as the quantitative tool and an interview schedule as the qualitative tool following a combined mixed method approach. Combining the approaches as opposed to integrating them allowed the researcher prioritize one approach higher than the other i.e. the methods are not given equal weighting (Moran-Ellis *et al.*, 2006). In this case, the quantitative approach was the dominant approach hence given more weighting than the qualitative one which played a complementary role. Since the overall intent was to use the qualitative data to further explain the initial quantitative findings, the research procedure involved administering the questionnaire in the first quantitative phase, followed by analysing the resultant data and then administering the interviews in the second qualitative phase to help explain the survey responses. Thus, the qualitative data collection was built directly on quantitative results (Creswell, 2014).

The analysis of the quantitative data was carried out using descriptive and inferential statistics. Conducting this analysis before the interviews was important as the results helped to identify the participants for the second qualitative phase and also point out the types of questions to ask. The quantitative results were then interpreted and discussed. This was followed by analysis and interpretation of the qualitative data using

thematic analysis. A third interpretation and discussion were then done to show how the qualitative results help to explain and or expand the quantitative results hence providing more depth and insight into the quantitative results.

### **3.2.4 Philosophical foundation of the study**

This study was based upon the pragmatic research paradigm which is one of the mixed method research paradigms. The term pragmatic is taken to mean something that is expedient, common sense or meets purpose of the inquiry. Indeed Hesse-Biber (2015) described it as the “what works approach”. Pragmatists hold that the aim of research should not be to most accurately represent reality nor to provide an accurate account of how things are in themselves but rather should aim at being useful or practical (Rorty & Rorty, 1999; Subedi, 2016). The methods are deemed appropriate so long as they achieve their purpose with focus being on the research product (Biesta, 2010).

According to Creswell (2014), the pragmatic approach is consequence oriented, problem centred, pluralistic and real-world practice oriented. Pragmatists argue that it is not possible to access “truth” about the real world solely by virtue of a single scientific method. According to Creswell & Plano Clark (2011), pragmatism sidesteps contentious issues of truth and realities by accepting that there are singular and multiple realities. In actual sense, pragmatists are anti dualists who question the dichotomy of positivism and constructivism resulting in a convergence of quantitative and qualitative methods (Hanson, 2008; R Burke Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Thus, it is best suited for mixed methods research (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009) as it supports a mix of different research methods as well as modes of analysis (Feilizer, 2010), hence the choice for its use in this study.

### 3.3 Study Area

This study was carried out in Nairobi City County which is the commercial and administrative capital of Kenya. According to the 2019 population census, the city has a population of 4,397,073 contained in 1,506,888 households. Thus, though it is the second smallest county in Kenya, it is the country's most densely populated county at 6,247 persons per square kilometre. It covers an area of 707 km<sup>2</sup>. The County is divided into 17 sub counties/constituencies and 85 wards (County Government of Nairobi, 2018; KNBS, 2019). The full list of these is attached as appendix 5.

The County borders Kiambu County to the North and West, Kajiado to the South and Machakos to the East. It is situated between longitudes 36° 45' East and latitudes 1° 18' South. Standing at 1,798 meters above sea level, it is a high-altitude area that is characterized by fairly cool temperatures ranging between a low of 10°C and a high of 29°C. The area experiences a bi modal rainfall system with long rains occurring between March and May while the short rains come between October and December. Mean annual rainfall is 786.5mm (County Government of Nairobi, 2018). The County's location, topography and climatic conditions have enabled it to have diverse ecosystems that are home to a variety of animal and plants species. The County therefore boasts of various nature-based tourism attractions such as Nairobi National Park, Nairobi Safari Walk, Mamba Village, Giraffe Centre, Nairobi Mini Orphanage, David Sheldrick Elephant Orphanage and three gazetted forests (Karura, Ngong and Nairobi arboretum). In addition to the nature-based attractions, the county has man-made attractions and well-developed tourism infrastructure. It boasts of various luxurious and budget hotels, the best transport infrastructure in the country, two airports, various cultural and heritage sites (such as Bomas of Kenya, National Museum of Kenya and Karen Blixen museum) and various tour firms that deal in domestic tourism.

The County being the economic hub of the country houses 80% of all industries in Kenya. The county's cosmopolitan populace is engaged in various sectors of the economy including crop and livestock production, forestry, agro-forestry, tourism, manufacturing, mining, construction, transport, communication, education real estate, business and financial services. The county therefore, manifests a representation of the various sectors of Kenya's economy. Consequently, it has the largest share of formal sector wage employment (453,000) with an unemployment rate of 14.7% (Nairobi city county Integrated development Plan, 2018). It accounts for 21.7% of total national GDP (KNBS, 2018).

From the attributes described above, it is evident that Nairobi possesses some of the best and most diverse tourism attractions and support infrastructure in the country. This diversity is also reflected in the nature of current and potential domestic tourists who are drawn from various social economic backgrounds. The county was therefore deemed suitable for the study because of its physical and economic attributes, centrality as the capital of Kenya and economic hub of Eastern and central Africa, presence of the best infrastructure in the country and a diverse populace. All these attributes present the necessary mix of prerequisites for domestic tourism in terms of population, economic ability, level of awareness and access to attractions.

### **3.4 Target Population**

A target population is defined as a small portion of the population selected for observation and analysis in a study (Lavrakas, 2008). It therefore refers to the population from which the researcher wants to generalize the results of a study. The target population for this study was domestic tourists and non-tourists aged above 18 years and residing in Nairobi City County. According to this study, a Nairobi resident

is defined as somebody who has resided within the city for a period of not less than one year. Persons aged over 18 were thought to be suitable for this study since they are deemed to have the capacity to make their own decisions including whether to participate or not participate in tourism. Population projections based upon the KNBS 2009 census indicate that there were approximately 4,252,330 people in Nairobi City County in 2017. Out of those, 2,598,458 were aged 18 years and above (County Government of Nairobi, 2018).

The target population was further subdivided into three groups of respondents. The first group encompassed all domestic tourists aged above 18 years found visiting the major tourism destination areas. Since these were found actively engaging in tourism activities within tourism destination areas, they were referred to as participants in this study. In view of the fact that tourism attractions are frequented by both domestic and international tourists, the study targeted sites that had differentiated rates for domestic and international tourists in order to easily pick out the domestic tourists from the international ones. Additionally, the study intentionally targeted domestic tourists visiting attractions that were structured to have a designated entry and exit to facilitate access to the tourists. According to the Nairobi city county Integrated development Plan (2018) and (TripAdvisor, 2017), the main tourism destination areas in Nairobi city county are Nairobi National Park, Nairobi Safari Walk, Nairobi Animal Orphanage, David Sheldrick Elephant orphanage, Bomas of Kenya, Giraffe Centre, Kazuri beads, Mamba village, Ngong forest, Karura forest, Uhuru gardens, Karen Blixen museum and the Nairobi National Museum.

The second group comprised of Nairobi residents aged above 18 years who had not participated in domestic tourism in the last five years. The threshold of 5 years was

chosen since this represents the government planning cycle in Kenya. This group referred to as non-participants in this study, were identified by posing two pre-qualification questions to shoppers at the entrances/exits of various shopping centres in the county. These were the reason for being at the shopping centre and whether they had participated in domestic tourism in the last five years. Establishing the reason for being at the shopping centre was significant since some of the centres have leisure activities that constitute domestic tourism. For one to qualify as a non-participant, they had to be over 18 years, be Nairobi residents, be visiting the mall for other reasons apart from leisure in addition to not having participated in domestic tourism at any other destination within the last five years.

The shopping centres included both high end and modest sites in order to capture residents from all walk of life. The views of this target group served to enrich the study as it yielded information on understanding reasons for non- participation in domestic tourism. This further enabled the researcher to compare variables for this cohort with those of respondents active in destination areas within Nairobi City County. The third and last group was made up of key informants from stakeholder organizations involved in developing, marketing and managing domestic tourism located in Nairobi, Kenya.

### **3.5 Sampling Methods**

This section discussed the sampling techniques used and how the sample size was determined. Both probability and non-probability sampling techniques were used.

#### **3.5.1 Sampling Techniques**

The study used systematic sampling to select participating respondents while and multistage sampling were used to select non-participating respondents. Both are

probability sampling techniques hence ensuring that the different components of the population had equal chance of being selected.

For the group made up of respondents participating in domestic tourism, systematic sampling was used to select a total of 337 domestic tourists from five tourist destination areas within the County. These destinations were selected based upon their popularity as tourism destinations within the city and the documented evidence of domestic tourism (Nairobi city county integrated plan, 2018). Systematic sampling technique was deemed suitable for this study because of its ability to display a higher internal and external validity hence viewed as more efficient/convenient than simple random sampling (Cochran, 1979; (Salkind, 2010). It has also been touted as being useful in sampling flows of people entering a given facility (Lavarkas, 2008).

The technique involves randomly selecting the first respondent and then applying a constant (nth) interval after that (Altinay *et al.*, 2015) . Therefore, at each of the five tourist sites, respondents were approached at the gate. In order to be eligible to participate in the survey, the respondents had to be aged over 18 years and actively participating in domestic tourists at the destination. The first respondent was randomly selected and then every fifth or next willing respondent was interviewed by the researcher and six trained research assistants. The respondents were singled out from the international tourists at the entrance by virtue of the differentiated rates charged at the sites. The identification was done by the research team in conjunction with the staff at the tourism destinations. After confirming eligibility, the researcher team then requested the identified tourists to participate in the survey. The five tourism sites yielded a total final sample of 337 as shown in table 3.1 below. This was less than the initial selected sample of 385 due to non-response or cases where tourists entered into

the attraction site with the questionnaire promising to return the filled copy upon exit but failed to do so.

**Table 3.1: Sampling Frame for Domestic Tourists in Destination Areas**

<b>Destination</b>	<b>Selected sample</b>	<b>Actual respondents</b>
Nairobi National Park	77	74
Giraffe Centre	77	71
Nairobi Safari Walk	77	63
Animal Orphanage	77	68
Nairobi National Museum	77	61
Total	385	337

**Source: Researcher, 2019**

The second group of respondents made up of Nairobi city county residents who had not participated in domestic tourism (non-participants) were selected through the multi stage sampling technique. According to (Lavrakas, 2008) multistage sampling is a complex technique done sequentially across two or more hierarchical levels using one or a mixture of random sampling techniques. In other words, the sample is selected in stages with sampling units in each stage being sub sampled from the larger units at the previous stages. The technique was deemed suitable for this study because it provides a better representative sample in a vast study area that does not have a complete sampling frame at a modest budget hence increasing the study's reliability. It also employs a combination of various methods at the different stages hence reducing margin of error, improving efficiency and precision of results and ultimately increasing their ability to be generalized (Kumar, 2019).

The study adopted a three-stage multisampling design that involved selecting constituencies, then wards and finally the shopping centres. According to the Nairobi city county Integrated Plan 2018, the Nairobi city county is made up of 17 constituencies and 85 wards as shown in appendix 5. The first stage of sampling



involved forming the primary unit or clusters from which the sample was drawn. In this case, the primary units were the constituencies that make up Nairobi city county. The study purposively picked the constituencies that house the tourism destination sites picked for the survey involving active domestic tourists. This was done to create a level playing ground for comparing the participants and non-participants. This step yielded two constituencies namely Westlands and Lang'ata. Since the resultant area made up of 10 wards was deemed to be large for the study, a second stage of sampling was applied to select four wards from the ten wards in the two constituencies through simple random sampling. The selection of four out of ten wards was based on the 30% sample size selection threshold by (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003). The 10 wards were allocated numbers and a computer used to generate four random numbers. This resulted in four wards namely, Karen, Mugumoini, Parklands/Highridge and Kangemi, which formed the secondary sampling units.

Since the study population was still large at this point, a third stage of sampling was applied to the secondary sampling units (the four wards) to arrive at shopping centres which formed the final sampling units. In each ward, all shopping centres were listed and then two shopping centres were randomly picked using a computer, making a total of 8. This approach is similar to that used by Li *et al.*, (2015) and is consistent with suggestions by (Veal, 2017). In the listing of the shopping centres, deliberate efforts were made to include respondents from diverse economic backgrounds. This was done by preparing two lists, one for high end and another for modest shopping centres in each ward identified based on the affluence of the area. These shopping centres formed the sites for the actual survey. The shopping centre was deemed an ideal site for this study because it is a meeting point for people from diverse backgrounds. The technique

was also used in a study by (Mutinda & Mayaka, 2012) on domestic tourism in Nairobi.

The list of the 8 shopping centres selected is indicated in table 3.2.

**Table 3.2: Sampling Frame for Respondents within shopping centres**

Constituency	Wards	Shopping Centre	Selected Sample	Actual Respondents
Lang'ata	Karen	The Hub	48	41
		Galleria	48	44
	Mugumoini	Sunvalley shopping centre	48	42
		Mukunga shopping centre	48	44
	Total for Lang'ata			192
Westlands	Parklands/Highridge	Sarit centre	48	42
		Westage shopping centre	48	43
	Kangemi	Kangemi shopping centre	48	41
		Mountain View mall	49	42
	Total for Westlands			193
<b>GRAND TOTAL</b>			<b>385</b>	<b>339</b>

**Source: Researcher, 2019**

The actual survey at the shopping centres was conducted in form of a street intercept as suggested by (Veal, 2017) who proposed the method as an appropriate technique for conducting tourism surveys at shopping centres, malls or on busy streets. This means that the respondents were intercepted as they either got in or left the shopping centre (with permission from the management and security of the establishments). They were identified by the research team through posing two pre-qualification questions to adult shoppers at the entrances/exits of selected shopping centres within the study area. These were questions on reason for visiting the shopping centre and whether they had participated in domestic tourism for the past five years. Those who met the eligibility criteria were requested to spare some time and take part in the survey. This process took

quite a while since some shoppers didn't meet the criteria or were not willing to spare their time for the survey.

All those who met the criteria were included in the study till the quota for each site was achieved. Additionally, efforts were made to obtain views of both gender by deliberately issuing the questionnaires to respondents of both genders within each site. A total of 339 people successfully completed the questionnaires from the 8 shopping centres. This was a deviation from the initial target of 385 due to incomplete entries, non-response and non-return of the questionnaires.

The last group made up of key informants was subjected to non-probability sampling in form of judgemental sampling. The respondents were purposively selected based on their knowledge and expertise in developing, managing and marketing of domestic tourism. A total of four in depth interviews were conducted from key informants drawn from Nairobi National Park, Kenya Tourism Board, Giraffe Centre and the Nairobi National Museum. These organizations were selected because of the significant role that they each play in domestic tourism. The sample size of four was viewed as sufficient to achieve saturation point where additional interviews would not have yielded any new information (Lowe *et al.*, 2018). The interviews targeted a member of senior management in departments relevant to domestic tourism within each institution who provided both oral information and access to documents such as visitor comments within these institutions.

Specifically, the following personnel were interviewed; the Senior Tourism Officer, Nairobi National Park; the Assistant Regional Manager Domestic Market, Kenya Tourism Board; the Conservation Education and Tourism officer, Giraffe centre; and the Curator, Nairobi National Museum. The interviews lasted approximately 40

minutes and were conducted by the researcher in person. The proceedings of the interviews were noted down in a field book. Insights from these stakeholders were considered to be of significance to this study because they provided information on preferences, motivation, and the constraints against domestic tourism. Thus, the information was used to support the quantitative findings from the surveys.

### 3.5.2 Sample size determination

Since the study was targeting three groups, the sample size for each group was derived separately. The sample size for the first and second groups comprising of participating and non-participating respondents respectively was derived using the formula by Cochran (1977). This is because each of these were large and infinite populations of more than 10,000 for which the Cochran formula was recommended (Kothari, 1999). It has also been used in literature for similar studies. The formula is as follows:

$$N_o = \frac{Z^2 P x Q}{E^2}$$

$N_o$ – Desired sample size

Z- Z value yielding desired degree of confidence (1.96)

P- Estimated population variability, p value (0.5)

Q- Confidence level at a given precision level (1-P)

E- Allowable error (0.05)

herefore, the minimum sample size for the study will be computed as follows:

$$N_o = \frac{Z^2 P x Q}{E^2} = N_o = \frac{1.96^2 (0.5 x .05)}{0.05^2}$$

Since the study aimed at comparing participants and non-participants, the researcher adopted the stated sample size i.e. 385, for each of the two groups. This resulted in a combined sample size of 770. The last group of key informants was subjected to

qualitative sampling techniques where the sample size was purposively determined to be that which provided the required information till saturation point where no new information was emerging. A total of four in depth interviews were carried out.

### **3.6 Data Collection Procedures and Instruments**

The study utilized a structured questionnaire as the main research instrument supplemented by an interview guide. The selection of the tools was guided by the nature of data that the study was seeking to collect, objectives of the study and the time available to carry out the study. Actual construction of the tools was done after extensive review of literature which not only yielded the variables relevant to the study but also acted as a pointer to the items to be included in the tools. In carrying out this process, the researcher followed the seven procedures recommended by (Cohen et al., 2017) namely: formulating clear, specific and measurable research objectives; clearly describing the target population to facilitate development of questions that can be easily understood by the respondent; formulating questions that answer the research objectives,; determining the appropriate level of measurement for each question; determining appropriate statistical technique to be used ; organizing the questions; and consultation of experts in the study area on the relevance of the questions. The extensive literature review and the resultant critical reflection enabled the researcher to execute the first six steps. The last step was achieved through consultation with the researcher's supervisors and lecturers from the Tourism and Hospitality department of Maasai Mara University.

#### **3.6.1 The questionnaire**

The study employed a structured questionnaire as the main research tool. It was administered to the participating and the non-participating respondents. The tool was

viewed to be fit for the study as it facilitated procedural collection of structured data on a wide range of variables from samples that were representative of a defined larger population (Veal, 2017). According to Saunders et al., (2019), a questionnaire is useful in obtaining information on opinions, attributes, behaviours and attitudes. The same questionnaire was used for the participating and non-participating respondents to facilitate comparison of attributes. However, the one for the non-participating respondents had a pre-qualification section with two questions that helped in identifying the respondents. These were; the reason for being at the shopping centre and whether they had participated in domestic tourism in the last five years. The rest of the questionnaire was organized into five sections namely; demographic characteristics of the respondents, travel preferences of domestic tourists, motivation for domestic tourism and constraints against domestic tourism and; domestic tourism participation and non-participation.

The first section on demographic characteristics of the respondents sought to identify the following attributes from the respondents: their age, gender, highest level of education attained, occupation, monthly income, marital status and the stage in family lifecycle. These demographic characteristics not only provided background information on the respondents but also served as variables to the study as it sought to determine the extent to which demographic characteristics influence participation in domestic tourism participation. It was presented in form of closed ended responses.

The second, third and fourth sections of the questionnaire contained items on the remaining study variables and were presented in form of a five-point Likert scale. These variables included preferences, motivation and constraints. The five-point Likert scale presents a more reliable measure of behaviour than a single item since it is made up of

a summation or average of multiple items (Lavarkas, 2008). The respondents were required to show their level of agreement for each item based on their preferences for domestic tourism, motivation for domestic tourism and constraints against domestic tourism.

Section two covered travel preferences of the respondents with regards to preferred attractions, preferred activities to be undertaken while at the tourism destination and preferred type of accommodation. The questionnaire was a five-point Likert scale with responses ranging from 'not preferred' (=1) to 'most preferred' (=5). The third section dealt with the factors that motivate a person to participate in tourism. The factors captured both pull and push factors as revealed by literature. The responses in this section ranged from 'totally insignificant' (=1) to 'most significant' (=5). The fourth section comprised of constraints against domestic tourism participation ranging from intrapersonal, interpersonal and structural constraints. The responses ranged from 'very unlikely' (=1) to 'most likely' (=5). The fifth and last section was made up of items questioning the whether the respondent participated or did not participate in domestic tourism. This was a binary item with only two possible responses-participation or non-participation.

Prior to actual data collection, the questionnaire was pre tested for validity and reliability through a pilot study. The pilot was carried out at the Bomas of Kenya and David Sheldrick (for participating respondents) and at Garden city shopping centre in Kasarani sub-county for the non- participating respondents. A total of 80 respondents were interviewed in the pilot representing 10% of the projected sample for the study as recommended by Creswell (2014). Both the pilot sites were located within Nairobi City County but were not part of the final sampling frame hence did not interfere with actual

study by introducing bias. They were selected based on their similarity to the sites under study hence their ability to simulate the actual study. Pilot testing enabled the researcher to identify problems and address them prior to the actual survey in order to reduce non-sampling measurement error hence improving the reliability and validity of the study (Lavrakas, 2008). Specifically, it accorded the researcher an opportunity to revise and refine the instrument before the final test. It also increased the researcher's understanding of the research area and knowledge of population under study. The researcher was also able to better plan and streamline the administrative and organizational issues of the study. After the pilot, the researcher then went on to make necessary amendments to the tools and to proceed to the field for data collection assisted by research assistants.

The data was collected with the aid of six research assistants. They were inducted on the study objectives and the tool prior to data collection. The training was significant because it served to increase accuracy and consistency in the way the questions were asked and responses recorded by each of the assistants. It therefore served to reduce unethical procedures and errors arising from inaccurate entries. The assistants were then split into two, with one group administering the questionnaire to willing adults within tourism destination areas (participating respondents) and the other one to willing adult residents at shopping centres within Nairobi who had not participated in domestic tourism (non-participating respondents). The tool was administered via a combination of face-to-face survey and self-administered approach. The face-to-face approach improved response rates while allowing more accurate and complete answers. It also provided a chance for clarification of items resulting in high questionnaire response rate (Veal, 2017). The self-administered approach on the other hand enabled the research



team to dispense the questionnaires to respondents entering the target facilities and collect them on their way out.

### **3.6.2 The interview schedule**

The interview schedule was administered to key informants from four tourism organizations namely; the Senior Tourism Officer, Nairobi National Park; the Assistant Regional Manager Domestic Market, Kenya Tourism Board; the Conservation Education and Tourism officer, Giraffe centre; and the Curator, Nairobi National Museum. Each interview lasted approximately one hour and was conducted by the researcher in person. The study employed a semi-structured interview with predetermined, broad and open-ended questions that were meant to facilitate in depth discussions on issues pertinent to domestic tourism participation in Kenya. The interview schedule merely provided a guide to the discussion with the researcher altering the sequence of the questions according to the flow of the responses. Indeed, as posited by (Seidman, 2006) a semi structured interview allows the researcher to be able to “say enough” to be responsive but “little enough” to preserve the autonomy of the participant’s words. The participant is let free to develop their own thoughts/ideas, use their own words and speak their minds (Denscombe, 2008).

The main questions as outlined in the guide were asked to all the respondents and their responses recorded in a field note book. However, the order of asking the questions, the level of probing and the resultant queries depended on the how the respondent answered the main question. Rephrasing and elaboration on the main questions was done from time to time by the researcher in order to extract as much information as possible from the key informant. Posing predetermined questions to all was found to be useful not only in allowing the researcher to have control over the process but also in keeping the

interviewer focused on the study objectives. It also allowed for easy identification of similarities and differences between the informants hence facilitating coding and analysis. On the other hand, having flexibility on the sequence of the questions and level of probing enabled the discussions to flow freely hence giving depth and detail to the ensuing responses (Altinay & Paraskevas, 2015).

The schedule was organized into two sections. Section A was made up of general information questions designed to break ice between the researcher and the respondents. They included items on the name of the stakeholder institution, the role that it played in domestic tourism and the designation of the key informant. Section B contained questions aligned to the study variables namely preferences, motivation and constraints of domestic tourism. It also contained items on strategies for improvement of domestic tourism.

### **3.7 Instrument Validity**

Validity of a research instrument has been defined as the degree to which a test measures what it purports to measure resulting in data that accurately represents the variable being measured ( Mugenda & Mugenda, 2012). It ensures that irrelevant, biased and ambiguous questions are avoided. Denscombe (2008) defines it as the extent to which an instrument yield accurate results while (Jupp, 2014) defined it as the extent to which an indicator or variable adequately measure the theoretical concept it purports to measure. It therefore refers to the accuracy, clarity, soundness, suitability, meaningfulness or technical soundness of the research instrument.

In order to ensure validity of this study, the researcher developed the tools under the expert guidance of the supervisors. Secondly, the tools underwent peer review for editing and further input. Thirdly, the tools were subjected to a pilot study which further

served to identify irrelevant items and missing gaps. The pilot data from the questionnaire was subjected to factor analysis to establish whether all items under the variables met the acceptable threshold of factor loading. The items that had a factor loading of less than 0.4 as recommended by (Field, 2018) were rendered irrelevant hence removed. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test of sampling adequacy was used to test adequacy of distribution values to see if they were adequate for analysis. All values exceeded the threshold of 0.5 as suggested by (Field, 2018). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's test of Sphericity were used to establish the validity of the questionnaire. The results were presented in table 3.3 below:

**Table 3.3: KMO Values for the Study**

<b>Objective</b>	<b>KMO</b>	<b>Chi square value</b>	<b>Significance</b>
Preference	.793	7929.820	.000
Motivation	.819	4731.111	.000
Constraint	.860	8696.072	.000

**Source: Pilot Study data, 2017**

### **3.8 Instrument Reliability**

Reliability is the consistency and dependability of data collected through repeated use of an instrument or procedure under the same conditions (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2012). It refers to the degree of consistency that the instrument or procedures of measurement demonstrate (Best & Kahn, 2006). Reliability is influenced by random error which is a deviation from true measurement due to factors that have not been effectively addressed by the researcher (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003). As random error increases, reliability decreases. To ensure high reliability, the study incorporated various measures as described below.

Before the data collection exercise, care was taken in selecting and training of the research assistants to ensure minimal external variation hence standardization of the conditions under which the measurements took place. The study then employed the internal consistency technique to test reliability of the instrument by deriving its value of Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha as recommended by (Field, 2018). This value determines how the various items on the instrument correlate amongst themselves. The test was administered on pilot data before actual data collection. The researcher selected this technique of determining reliability since it leads to a lower coefficient of reliability hence avoiding erroneous conclusions (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003).

The average alpha value for the study was 0.875 which is consistent with thresholds suggested by (Hair et al., 2016; Sekaran & Bougie, 2016) who posited that instruments with a coefficient of an alpha value of 0.70 and above denote high reliability. The reliability coefficients for the study variables from the pilot are presented in table 3.4 below:

**Table 3.4: Reliability Values for the Study**

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Cronbach's Alpha</b>	<b>Number of items</b>
Preferences	.854	22
Motivation	.866	15
Constraints	.909	20
Total	.870	57

**Source: Pilot Study data, 2017**

### **3.9 Data analyses and presentation**

#### **3.9.1 Quantitative analysis**

The study yielded mainly quantitative data supplemented by qualitative data arising from interviews. The resultant data from the study was then sorted and coded in readiness for analysis.

The quantitative data was analysed using SPSS version 22. To begin with, the response rate was established to ascertain whether the data was valid, reliable and representative enough to facilitate analyses and to allow for meaningful conclusions. The data was then screened to further promote analysis and avoid bias. This was done by checking for cases of missing data, identifying outliers and establishing data normality. Since this was a comparative study, the data set was split into two based on nature of respondents to facilitate comparison of the two groups namely participants and non-participants. Descriptive analysis in form of frequencies and percentages was then applied to the data to summarize it and enable description of patterns and general trends in the data sets. Specifically, the study sought to compute measures of central tendency in the form of the mean and measures of variability in the form of the standard error.

To complete the quantitative analysis, inferential analysis was then applied to test hypothesis. The study was testing for relationships and comparison. The Chi square test was used to test hypothesis on the variables on demographic characteristics. Demographic data is count data and therefore does not meet the assumptions for parametric testing. Specifically, Chi square goodness of fit was used to test for comparison i.e. test for significant difference in demographic characteristics between the participants and non-participants, hence testing hypothesis one. Chi square cross tabulation on the other hand was applied to test for relationships i.e. whether the demographic characteristics (independent variables) influenced the dependent variable (domestic tourism participation and non-participation) hence testing hypothesis five.

The remaining three independent variables namely; preferences, motivation and constraints comprised of rank data hence also failed to meet the prerequisite for parametric testing that requires continuous data. Despite this short coming, the

researcher desired to administer parametric tests because they are not only more robust, but also able to detect a significant difference when there is one hence, avoiding type 1 or type 2 error. Thus, in order to be able to administer parametric tests, the data set was checked to see whether it met the other assumptions of parametric testing namely normality, randomness of the data, large sample size and homogeneity of variance. Having met these requirements, the data was then transformed using square root transformation to enable parametric testing.

The independent t-test (for comparison) and binary logistic regression test (for relationships) were then applied on the transformed values. The independent t- test was best suited to test comparison in this case because it is a robust parametric test that is used to compare the equality of the means of two groups that are not related i.e. are independent. It was used determine if there existed any significant difference between the participants and non-participants with regards to their travel preferences, motivation to travel and constraints against domestic tourism participation. This facilitated a comparison between the two groups and served to test hypotheses two, three and four which were testing significant difference between the two groups.

Binary logistic regression was applied to determine the relationship between the dependent variable (domestic tourism participation and non-participation) and the independent variables (preferences, motivation and constraints). Though multiple and linear regression analysis also tests for relationships between variables, binary logistic regression was deemed suitable for this study since the dependent variable was categorical and dichotomous in nature. As posited by Li *et al.*, (2015), logistic regression is suitable for analysing binary choices between participants and non-participants of domestic tourism. The test was used to determine the probability that a

given combination of independent variables (preferences, motivation and constraints) would result in either participation or non-participation in domestic tourism. It further served to assist in the construction of the binary logit model which is the equation that best predicts the probability of getting a given value of the outcome. It was also used to determine the factors affecting participation as it measures the strength and statistical significance of each independent variable with respect to the probability of moving from one dichotomous dependent variable to the other while keeping the effect of other variables constant. In so doing, it assesses their relative ability to explain both participation and non-participation in domestic tourism.

The assumptions of the binary logistical regression were as follows:

- i. The variables are randomly obtained
- ii. The variables are reliable i.e. measured without error, no missing data
- iii. There is no multicollinearity between the independent variables. Each of the observations are independent of each other and are not highly correlated.
- iv. The sample size is adequate

### **Binary Logistic Regression Model**

$$P_{dt}/(1-P_{ndt}) = \exp(\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3)$$

#### **Where**

$P_{dt}$  = Participation

$P_{ndt}$  = Non-Participation

$P_{dt}/(1-P_{ndt})$  = Ratio of probabilities of participants and non-participants

$\beta_0$  = Constant

$\beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3$  = coefficients of regression

$X_1$  = Preferences

$X_2$  = Motivation

$X_3$  = Constraints

### **3.9.2 Qualitative analysis**

The qualitative data from interviews was subjected to thematic analysis. According to Braun & Clarke (2006) thematic analysis is a technique used to identify, analyse and report patterns. It involves organizing, categorizing and identifying themes emerging from the qualitative data in a way that captures the subject under investigation (Maguire & Delahunt, 2017). The method was deemed to be appropriate for this study as it is suitable for finding out people's opinions, knowledge, experiences and values from a set of qualitative data. It is also applicable to deductive analysis driven by research questions (Clarke & Braun, 2013). The study followed the six phases of analysis as proposed by (Braun & Clarke, 2006) namely ; familiarising with the data, generating initial codes, searching for themes, reviewing the themes, defining the themes and writing up the findings.

Therefore, the researcher, first went through the field notes and transcribed the information into transcripts. Each interview was transcribed into one transcript. Care was taken to capture the information verbatim. During transcription, all names were dropped to ensure confidentiality since anonymity is one of the main ethical consideration for interviews (Francis, 2009). The transcripts were then read and re-read, carefully looking out for common concepts not only within each transcript but also across the entire data set in all the four interviews. Initial analytical observations were noted down. The researcher then went further to assign labels (coding) to significant components of the data that seemed to resonate with the broad research questions. This step served to both reduce and analyse the data as it captured both the semantic and latent meaning from the data set. The codes were then assembled together with their related data excerpts. The ensuing information was then searched to construct themes. Each theme was collated with its relevant codes. It is important to note that the phases



of this process were not linear but rather the researcher moved back and forth, re-reading the transcripts and extracting the required information.

The emerging themes were reviewed to check how the transcripts related to both the coded extracts and the overall data set i.e. whether they told a story. They were also checked to see if they were in line with previous studies or were completely unexpected (Ritchie *et al.*, 2013). The themes were then defined and named by analysing what each was communicating and how it fit into the overall study. These led to some being merged and new ones being created. This process culminated in the construction of a thematic map which is the visual presentation of themes, codes and their relationships accompanied by a detailed description of each (Vaismoradi *et al.*, 2013). Interpretations were then made and conclusions drawn. Finally, the resultant qualitative output was used to corroborate the findings of the quantitative data.

### **3.10 Ethical Considerations**

These are factors that arise from the process of the researcher balancing between one course of action and another not in terms of expediency or efficiency but by reference to standards of what is morally right or wrong (Denscombe, 2007). The following steps were carried out by the researcher in order to adhere to these considerations. A transmittal letter was obtained from Moi University to introduce the researcher to the National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation (NACOSTI) and the management of the organizations targeted by the study. Secondly, a research permit was obtained from NACOSTI which then enabled the researcher to seek for further authorization from the ministry of education and the organizations under study.

These permits and authorization letters served various purposes. One, they introduced the researcher to the management of the various establishments visited for data

collection. Second, they introduced the researcher to the respondents and confirmed authenticity of the data collection exercise as that meant for research purposes only and not to cause any harm. Thirdly, they facilitated cooperation, access to pre-existing data and efficient data collection at the establishments hence eliminating misunderstanding/conflicts between researcher, respondents and the management of those establishments.

For informed consent, the respondents were informed on the purpose of the study, its significance and the use of the resultant data prior to participation. For accuracy, the study avoided omission, fabrication of data and contrivance. Lastly, in order to ensure privacy and confidentiality, the researcher and the assistants ensured that participation was purely voluntary and anonymous. The questionnaires were coded and contained no names of the individual respondents. For the interviews, names of respondents and their institutions were also omitted from the final transcripts which were then labelled as stakeholder one, two, three and four.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### DATA ANALYSIS, PRESENTATION AND INTERPRETATION

#### 4.1 Introduction

This section presents the analysed data and provides interpretation of the same. It elaborates on the response rate from the field and provides information on the preparatory processes applied to the data from the field to identify missing data, outliers and establish normality. It further presents results from both qualitative and quantitative analysis of the data, including hypothesis testing. The study sought to evaluate the determinants of domestic tourism participation and non-participation through comparison and testing of relationships of the variables.

#### 4.2 Response Rate

The study selected a total of 770 respondents out of which 385 (50%) were active participants found in tourism destination areas while 385 (50%) were people who had not participated in domestic tourism. Questionnaires were administered via a mixture of self-administered and face to face surveys. Out of the 770 questionnaires issued, a total of 676 (87.8%) were returned, 337 (87.5%) being participating respondents while 339 (88.1%) were non-participating respondents. This disparity was caused by some of the respondents backing out of the face-to-face survey midway, while others who took the tool with them while entering the survey sites did not return the questionnaires on exit. The researcher found the resultant response rate of 87.8% (676) to be within acceptable range and capable of drawing statistically significant conclusions. This threshold is supported by Barbie (2007) who asserted that a return rate of 70 % and above was very good. The response rate across the various survey sites is captured in table 4.1.

**Table 4.1: Response Rate across the Survey Sites**

Survey site	Number of issued questionnaire	Number of returned questionnaires	Percent of questionnaires returned
PARTICIPATING	385	337	87.5
Nairobi National Park	77	74	96.1
Giraffe Centre	77	71	92.2
Nairobi Safari Walk	77	63	81.8
Animal Orphanage	77	68	88.3
Nairobi National Museum	77	61	79.2
NON-PARTICIPATING	385	339	88.1
Lang'ata	192	171	89.1
Westlands	193	168	87.1

Source: Survey Data, 2019

### 4.3 Data Preparation and Screening

This is a significant stage that determines elimination of bias and success of analysis. It involved detection of missing data, identification of outliers and establishing normality in the data before subjecting it to analysis.

#### 4.3.1 Missing data

It was prudent for the researcher to be on the lookout for missing data which leads to challenges during analysis and eventually bias. Missing data results from incomplete filling of the questionnaire as some of the respondents get tired of filling the questionnaire or inadvertently skip some of the questions. In order to check for missing data, the questionnaires from the field were received, sorted, labelled, coded and entered into SPSS. The data was then tested for frequency of occurrence to cross check illegal entries and missing values. The exercise revealed no cases of missing values hence the total number of valid cases remained 676.

### **4.3.2 Outliers**

The next stage involved screening for outliers. According to Kline (2011), a univariate outlier is a case displaying odd responses compared to the rest of the cases on a single variable of the study while a multivariate outlier is a case showing peculiar responses on more than one variable. The study used skewness and kurtosis to test for univariate outliers as suggested by Kline (2011) with the expected thresholds being values below 3 for skewness and 10 for kurtosis. Any values above these were taken to be as indicator of a univariate outlier. The results for skewness and kurtosis as presented in tables 4.4, 4.5, 4.6, 4.9, 4.11, 4.12 and 4.13, indicated that there were no univariate outlier values. All values for skewness were less than 3 while those for kurtosis were less than 10.

### **4.3.3 Normality**

This last stage of screening involved checking for skewness and kurtosis of the data to establish whether the data displayed a normal curve. As indicated above, the thresholds for normality according to Kline (2011) are values below 3 for skewness and 10 for kurtosis. The data displayed values within the thresholds indicated above hence confirmed a normal distribution as indicated in tables 4.4, 4.5, 4.6, 4.9, 4.11, 4.12 and 4.13. After the screening process, the resultant data was then subjected to further analyses.

## **4.4 Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents and Participation**

The study sought to determine the extent to which demographic characteristics of the respondents influenced their participation in domestic tourism. The study which was targeting both participating and non-participating respondents considered seven demographic attributes namely age, gender, level of education, marital status, occupation, income and stage in life cycle. These were selected because they are the

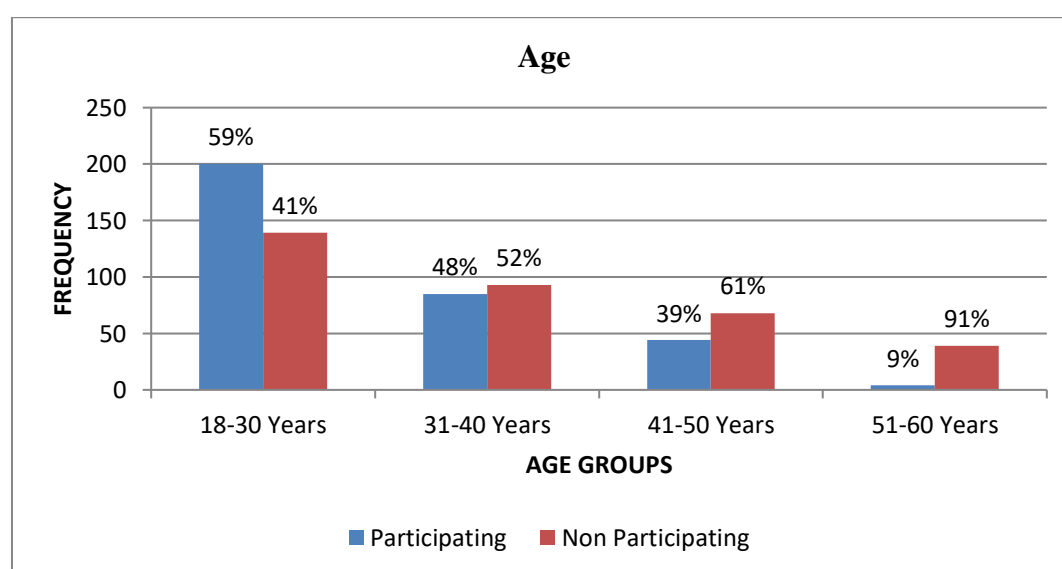
most commonly used attributes in analysing travel behaviour. Descriptive statistics in the form of means and standard error were used to display trends and patterns. The chi square test of goodness of fit was conducted to compare demographic characteristics between participants and non-participants of domestic tourism. The results were then used to test the  $H_01$ , which stated that; demographic characteristics of participants are similar to those of non-participants of domestic tourism amongst residents of Nairobi City County. The null hypotheses were rejected in cases where the p values were less than 0.05 and a conclusion made that the demographic characteristics of domestic tourism participants are not similar to those of non- participants. In the cases where the p values were greater than 0.05, the study failed to reject the null hypothesis and therefore concluded that demographic characteristics of domestic tourism participants are similar to those of non- participants.

Additionally, chi-square cross tabulation was performed to examine the relationship between demographic characteristics of residents and participation in domestic tourism in Nairobi city county. The results were used to test  $H_05$ , which stated that; demographic characteristics of residents do not influence domestic tourism participation. The null hypotheses were rejected in cases where the p values were less than 0.05 and a conclusion made that there was demographic characteristics influenced domestic tourism participation. In the cases where the p values were greater than 0.05, the study failed to reject the null hypothesis and therefore concluded that demographic characteristics did not influence domestic tourism participation.

#### **4.4.1 Age of respondents and participation in domestic tourism**

Descriptive analysis revealed that amongst the respondents aged 18-30 years slightly more than half were participating in domestic tourism (59%, 200) while less than half

were not participating (41%,139). For the respondents older than 30 years, the majority were not participating in domestic tourism. For the cohort aged between 31-40 years, 52% (93) were not participating while 48% (85) were the ones participating. 61% (68) of respondents aged between 41-50 years were not participating with only 39% (44) participating. For those aged between 51-60 years, only 9% (4) were participating with 91% (39) not participating (see figure 4.1). Therefore, the study concluded that the youth were participating more in domestic tourism than the older respondents.



**Figure 4.1: Age of Participating and Non-Participating Respondents**  
**Source: Survey Data, 2019**

Further analysis using the  $\chi^2$  test of goodness of fit to test significant difference between participants and non-participants resulted in differing findings across the various age cohorts. There was a significant difference between the participants and the non-participants for respondents aged 18-30 years,  $\chi^2(1, N=339) = 10.98, p < 0.001$ , with the participants being more ( $N=200$ ) than the non-participants ( $N=139$ ); those aged 41-50 years  $\chi^2(1, N=112) = 5.14, p = 0.023$ , with non-participants being more ( $N=68$ ) than the participants ( $N=44$ ); and those aged 51-60 years old  $\chi^2(1, N=43) = 28.49, p < 0.001$  with non-participants being more ( $N=39$ ), than the participants ( $N=4$ ). However,

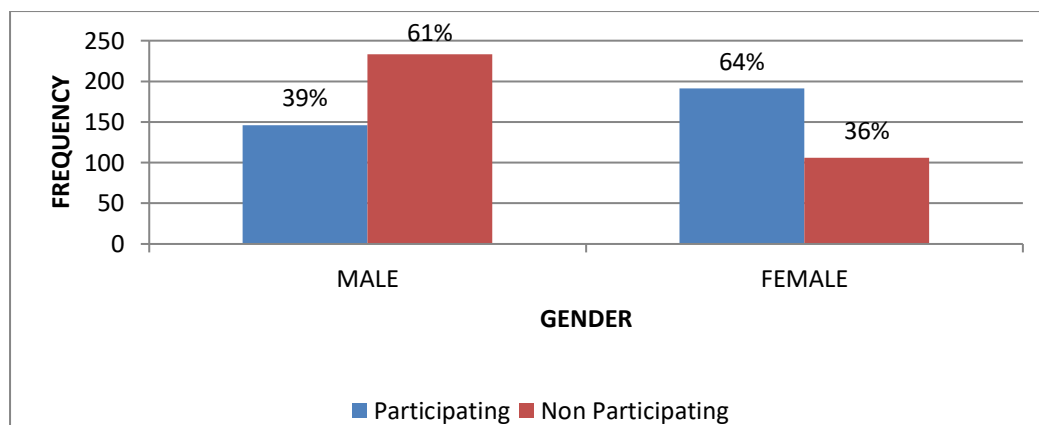
there was no significant difference between the participants ( $N=85$ ) and the non-participants ( $N=93$ ) aged 31-40 years  $\chi^2 (1, 178) = 0.36, p = 0.549, ns$  (see table 4.2). The null hypothesis ( $H_01$ ) was therefore rejected for the younger and older participants (cohorts 18-30 years, 41-50 years and 51-60 years). However, for the middle aged (31-40 years cohort), the study failed to reject the null hypothesis ( $H_01$ ). Thus, the young people were participating more in tourism than the old while the middle aged displayed no difference between the respondents participating in domestic tourism and those not participating.

Lastly, with regards to the relationship between age and domestic tourism participation, the results of the  $\chi^2$  cross tabulation test indicated that participation in domestic tourism was dependent on age,  $\chi^2 (4, N=676) = 48.9, p < 0.001$  with the young people participating more than the older ones (see table 4.3). The null hypothesis ( $H_05$ ) was therefore rejected.

#### **4.4.2 Gender and participation in domestic tourism**

The results further revealed that in terms of gender, slightly more than a third of men (39%, 146) were participating in domestic tourism while almost two thirds (61%, 233) were not. The scenario was reversed for women with almost two thirds participating (64%, 191) while a third (36%, 106) were not participating in domestic tourism (see figure 4.2).





**Figure 4.2: Gender of Participating and Non-Participating Respondents**

Source: Survey Data ,2019

Additionally, the  $\chi^2$  test of goodness of fit was significantly different for gender with males,  $\chi^2 (1, N=379) = 19.97, p < 0.001$ , having more non-participants ( $N= 223$ ) than participants ( $N= 146$ ) while females  $\chi^2 (1, N=297) = 24.33, p < 0.001$  had more participants ( $N= 191$ ) than non-participants ( $N= 106$ ). The study therefore rejected the null hypothesis ( $H_01$ ) and concluded that there were significant differences between the participants and the non-participants with regards to gender, with more females participating ( $N= 191$ ) than men ( $N= 146$ ) (see table 4.2).

The above findings were further reinforced by those from the  $\chi^2$  cross tabulation test which revealed that domestic tourism participation was dependent on gender,  $\chi^2 (1, N=676) = 44.29, p < 0.001$  with females ( $N=191, 56.7\%$ ) participating more than males ( $N=146, 43.3\%$ ) (see table 4.3). The null hypothesis ( $H_05$ ) was therefore rejected and the alternative adopted concluding that domestic tourism participation was dependent on gender.

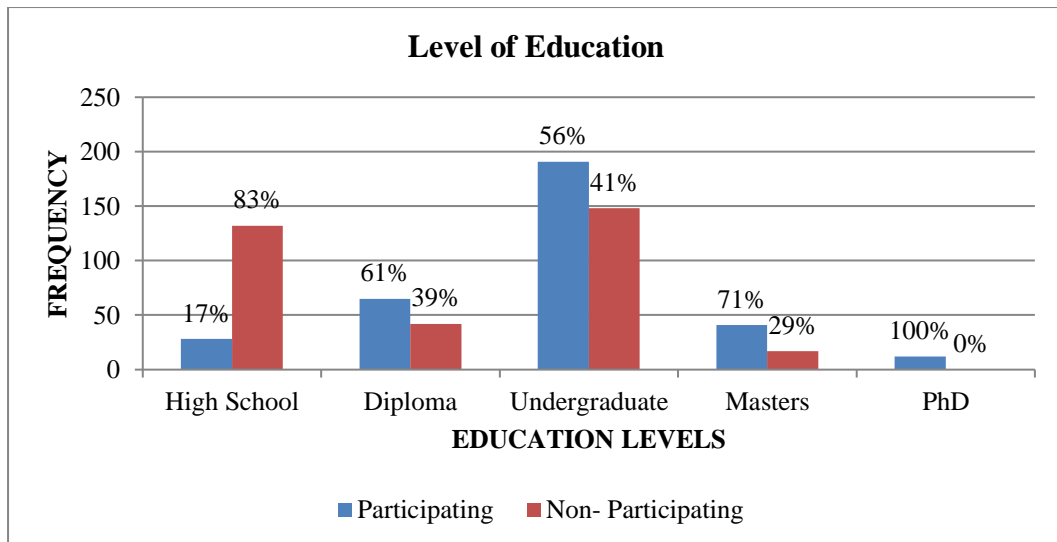
#### **4.4.3 Level of education and participation in domestic tourism**

The respondents were asked to state their level of education and from the responses, the study established that, generally, participation levels increased with increase in level of education. Only a quarter of those with high school education (17%, 28) had

participated in domestic tourism compared to (61%, 65) diploma holders, (56%, 191) bachelor's degree holders, (71%, 41) masters holders and (100%, 12) PHD holders. Conversely, non-participation decreased with increase in level of education. From the study, 83% (132) of respondents whose highest level of education was high school had not participated in domestic tourism, followed by 41% bachelor's degree holders, 39% (42) diploma holders and 29% (17) masters holders (see figure 4.3).

In addition, the  $\chi^2$  test of goodness of fit revealed a significant difference between participants and non-participants across all the levels of education. There were more participants than non-participants for diploma holders ( $\chi^2(1, N=107) = 4.94, p= 0.026$ , participants ( $N=65$ ) non-participants ( $N=42$ ); bachelor's degree holders  $\chi^2(1, N =339) = 5.45, p= 0.02$ ), participants ( $N=191$ ), non-participants ( $N=148$ ); and masters holders  $\chi^2(1, N=58) = 9.93, p=0.002$ ), participants ( $N=41$ ) and non-participants ( $N=17$ ). The trend was however reversed for those whose highest level of education was high school ( $\chi^2(1, N=160) = 67.6, p< 0.001$ ). In this case, the non-participants ( $N=132$ ) were more than the participants ( $N=28$ ). Thus, the study rejected the null hypothesis ( $H_01$ ), and concluded that that was significant difference in participation across the various levels of education with participation increasing as level of education increased.

Concerning the association between education and participation in domestic tourism, the  $\chi^2$  cross tabulation test revealed that domestic tourism participation was dependent on level of education ( $\chi^2(4, N=676) = 99.92, p< 0.001$ ), with the respondents who were more educated participating more than those who were less educated. The null hypothesis ( $H_05$ ) was therefore rejected.

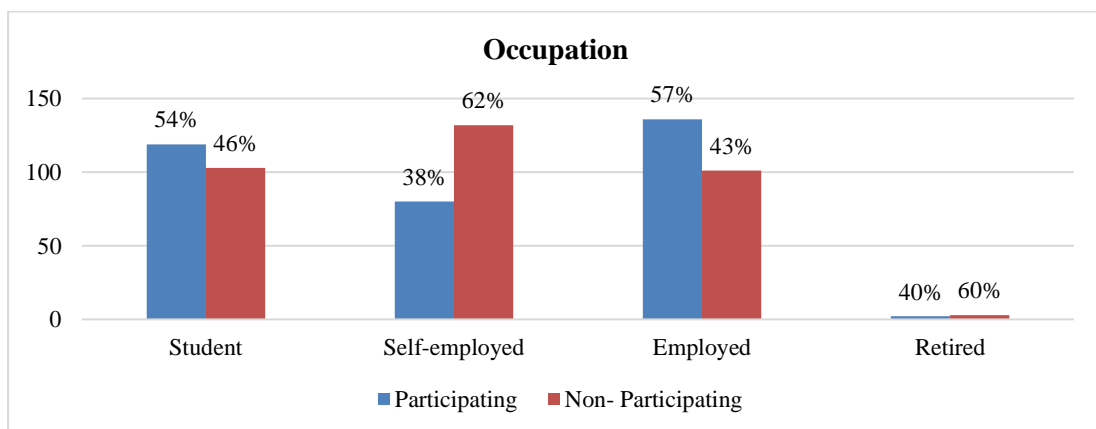


**Figure 4.3: Level of Education of Participating and Non-Participating Respondents**

Source: Survey Data ,2019

#### 4.4.4 Occupation and participation in domestic tourism

In relation to occupation, more than half of the students (54%, 119) and those employed (57%, 136) were participating in domestic tourism. In contrast, majority of the self-employed (62%, 132) and the retired (60%, 3) were not participating in domestic tourism (figure 4.4).



**Figure 4.4: Occupation of Participating and Non-Participating Respondents**

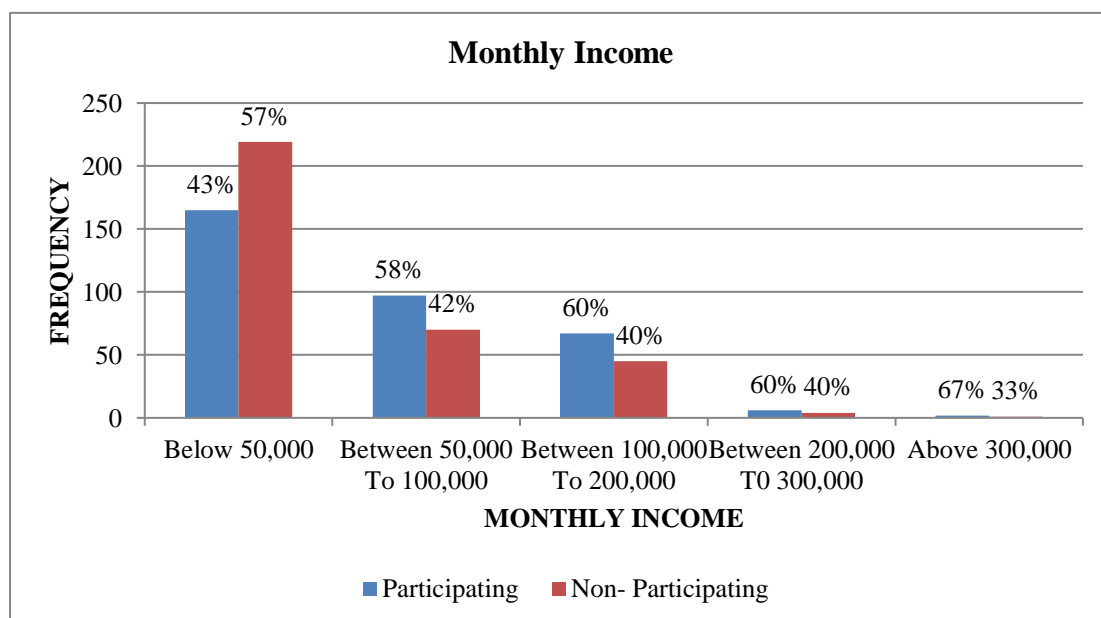
Source: Survey Data ,2019

The  $\chi^2$  test of goodness of fit revealed varied significance across the various types of occupations for participating and non-participating respondents. There was no significant difference for students ( $\chi^2 (1, N=222) = 1.15, p= 0.283, ns$ ), and retired respondents ( $\chi^2 (1, N= 5) = 0.20, p=0.655, ns$ ) with the respondents having statistically similar numbers of participants and non-participants. The study therefore failed to reject the null hypothesis ( $H_01$ ), for students and retired respondents. However, there was significant difference for the employed ( $\chi^2 (1, N=237) = 5.17, p= 0.023$ ) with the participants ( $N=136$ ) being more than the non-participants ( $N=101$ ). There was also significant difference for the self-employed ( $\chi^2 (1, N=212) = 12.67, p< 0.001$ ). However, for this cohort, the non-participants ( $N=132$ ) were more than the participants ( $N=80$ ). The study rejected  $H_01$  and concluded that there was a significant difference between participants and non- participants amongst the employed and the self-employed, with the employed participating more.

In relation to the association between occupation and participation, the  $\chi^2$  crosstabulation test revealed that domestic tourism participation was dependent on occupation ( $\chi^2 (3, N=676) = 19.27, p< 0.001$ ), with those who were employed participating more followed by the students, then the self-employed, and lastly the retired (see table 4.3). The null hypothesis ( $H_05$ ) was therefore rejected.

#### **4.4.5 Income against participation in domestic tourism**

The results of the study showed that majority of the respondents earning below Ksh. 50,000 did not participate in domestic tourism (57%, 219). On the contrary, the rest of the cohorts indicated majority of the respondents participating in domestic tourism with 58% comprising of those earning between 50,000 and 100,000, 60% earning between 100,000 to 300,000 and 67% earning above 300,000 (see figure 4.5).



**Figure 4.5: Monthly Income of Participating and Non-Participating Respondents**

**Source: Survey Data ,2019**

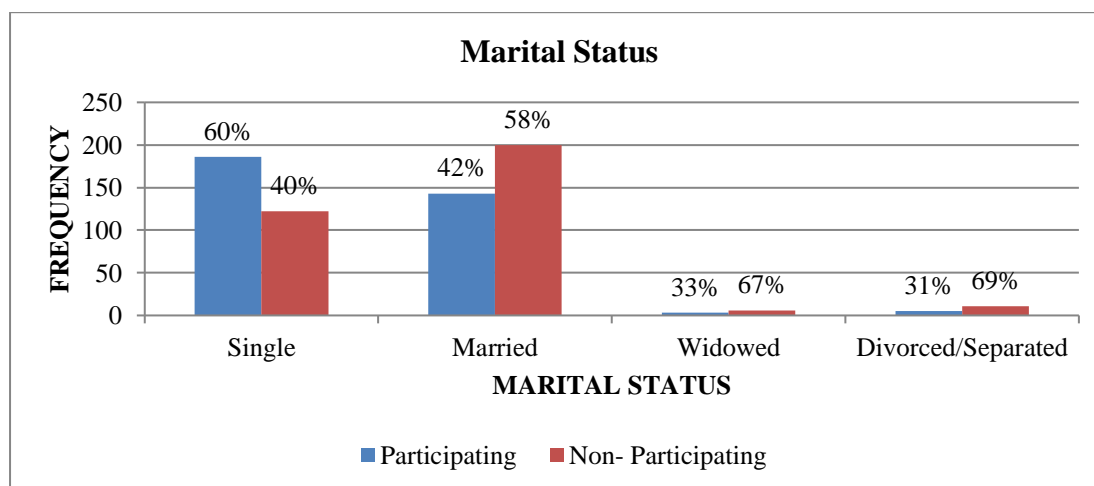
Concerning income, the  $\chi^2$  test of goodness of fit revealed significant differences between respondents earning below Ksh. 50,000,  $\chi^2 (1, N=384) = 7.59, p= 0.006$ , with the non-participants ( $N=219$ ) being more than the participants ( $N=165$ ). There was also significant difference for respondents earning between Ksh. 50,000 to 100,000,  $\chi^2 (1, N= 167) = 4.36, p= 0.037$ ) and those earning between 100,000 to 200,000,  $\chi^2 (1, N= 112) = 4.32, p= 0.038$ . However, in these two cases, the participants were more than the non-participants. In contrast, there was no significant difference for respondents earning between Ksh. 200,000 to 300,000,  $\chi^2 (1, N= 10) = 0.4, p= 0.527, ns$ ) and those earning above Ksh. 300,000,  $\chi^2 (1, N=3) = 0.333, p= 0.564, ns$ ) see table 4.2. Thus, the study rejected the null hypothesis ( $H_0$ ) for the respondents earning below Ksh. 200,000/= and concluded that there was a significant difference in income between participants and non-participants with respondents participating more with increase in income. For respondents earning above Ksh 200,000/=, the study failed to reject the

null hypothesis ( $H_{01}$ ) and concluded that there was no significant difference in income between participants and non-participants.

The  $\chi^2$  crosstabulation test revealed that domestic tourism participation was dependent on monthly income ( $\chi^2(4, N=676) = 17.008, p= 0.002$  with respondents earning above Ksh 50,000/= participating more in domestic tourism compared to those earning below Ksh. 50,000/= (see table 4.3). The null hypothesis ( $H_{05}$ ) was therefore rejected.

#### 4.4.6 Marital Status against participation in domestic tourism

It was evident from the study that majority of the single respondents (60%, 186) were participating more in domestic tourism compared to those who were married (42%, 143), widowed (33%, 3) or divorced (31%, 5) as these had a higher non participation rate (see figure 4.6).



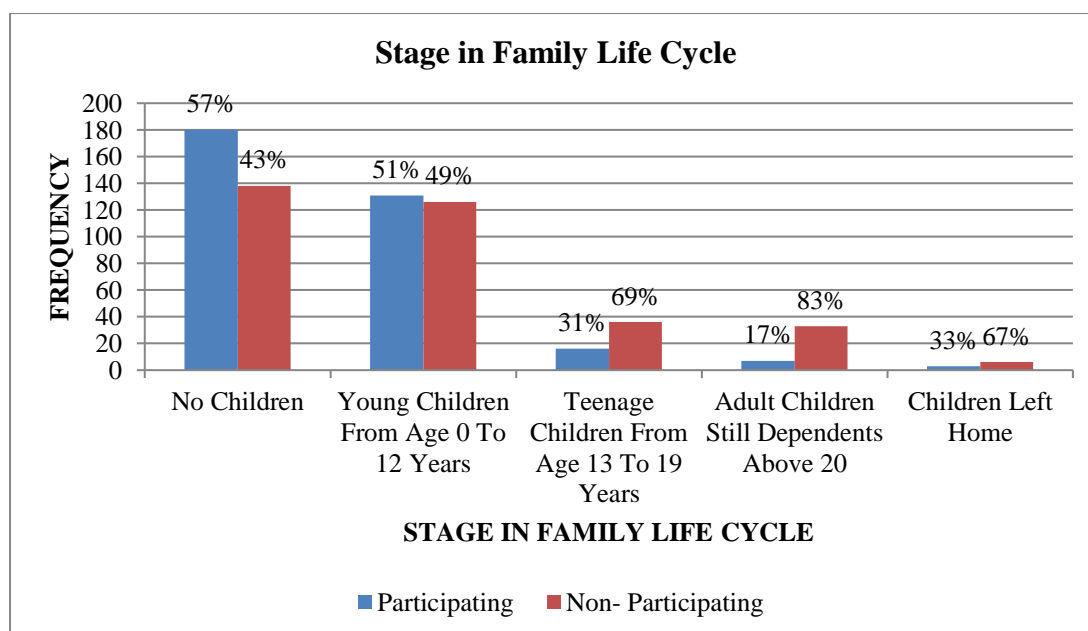
**Figure 4.6: Marital Status of Participating and Non-Participating Respondents**  
Source: Survey Data, 2019

Further analysis using  $\chi^2$  test of goodness of fit revealed both significant difference and non-significant differences across the different categories of marital status. The single and married respondents displayed significant difference between the participants and the non-participants. The singles  $\chi^2(1, N=308) = 13.3, p < 0.001$  had more participants ( $N=186$ ) than non-participants ( $N=122$ ) while for the married,  $\chi^2(1, 343) = 9.47,$

$p=0.002$ , there were more non-participants ( $N=200$ ) than participants ( $N=143$ ) see table 4.2. The singles were participating more than the married, thus the study rejected the null hypothesis ( $H_01$ ) and concluded that there was significant difference in marital status between participants and non-participants for the singles and the married. On the other hand, the widowed  $\chi^2(1, N=9) = 1.00, p=0.317, ns$  and divorced,  $\chi^2(1, N=16) = 2.25, p= 0.134, ns$  respondents displayed no significant differences between participating and the non-participating respondents. Thus, the study failed to reject the null hypothesis ( $H_01$ ) and concluded that there was there was no significant difference in marital status between participants and non-participants for these two categories. The  $\chi^2$  cross tabulation for marital status versus participation revealed that domestic tourism participation was dependent on marital status ( $\chi^2(3, N=676) = 26.02, p < 0.001$ ), with the single ones ( $N= 194, 57.6\%$ ) participating more compared to the married, widowed and divorced categories ( $N=143, 42.4\%$ ) (See table 4.3). The null hypothesis ( $H_05$ ) was therefore rejected.

#### **4.4.7 Stage in family life cycle against participation in domestic tourism**

The study revealed that slightly more than half of the respondents with no children (57%, 180) and those with young children (51%, 131) were participating in domestic tourism. For the remaining cohorts, majority were not participating in domestic tourism. For those with teenage children, only a third were participating (31%, 16), for those with adult children who were still at home, only slightly less than a quarter (17%, 7) were participating while for those with adult children who had left home, only a third were participating (33%,3) (see figure 4.7).



**Figure 4.7: Stages in Lifecycle of Participating and Non-Participating Respondents**

**Source: Survey Data, 2019**

The  $\chi^2$  test of goodness of fit for the respondents with no children, those with teenage children and those with adult children still staying at home displayed significant differences between participants and non-participants. Those with no children,  $\chi^2(1, N=318) = 5.55, p=0.019$  had more participating ( $N=180$ ) than non-participating ( $N=138$ ). Those with teenage children,  $\chi^2(1, N=52) = 7.69, p=0.006$  had more non-participating ( $N=36$ ) than participating ( $N=16$ ). Those with adult children still staying at home,  $\chi^2(1, N=40) = 16.9, p<0.001$  also had more non-participating ( $N=33$ ) than participating ( $N=7$ ) see table 4.2. The study therefore rejected the null hypothesis ( $H_0$ ) and concluded that there were significant differences in the stages in family lifecycle between participants and non-participants for those with no children, those with teenage children and those with adult children still staying at home. The respondents with young children,  $\chi^2(1, N=257) = 0.097, p=0.755, ns$  and those with adult children who had left home  $\chi^2(1, N=9) = 1.00, p=0.317, ns$  displayed no significant difference between its participants and non-participants (see table 4.2). Thus, the study failed to



reject the null hypothesis ( $H_0$ ) for these two categories. Lastly, the  $\chi^2$  test of independence revealed that domestic tourism participation was dependent on the stage of family life cycle of the respondent ( $\chi^2(4, N=676) = 31.23, p < 0.001$ ), with those with no children and those with young children participating more than those with older children and those whose children had left home (see table 4.3). Hypothesis ( $H_0$ ) was therefore rejected.

**Table 4.2: Comparison of Demographic Characteristics of Participants Versus Non-Participants of Domestic Tourism (chi square goodness of fit test)**

<b>VARIABLE</b>		$\chi^2$	<i>Df</i>	<i>P</i>
Age	18 – 30 years	10.976	1	0.001
	31 - 40 years	0.0360	1	0.549
	41 -50 years	5.143	1	0.023
	51- 60 years	28.488	1	<0.001
Gender	Male	19.971	1	<0.001
	Female	24.327	1	<0.001
Education	High School	67.600	1	<0.001
	Diploma	4.944	1	0.026
	Undergraduate	5.454	1	0.020
	Masters	9.931	1	0.002
Occupation	Student	1.153	1	0.283
	Self-employed	12.755	1	<0.001
	Employed	5.169	1	0.023
	Retired	0.200	1	0.655
Monthly Income	Below 50,000	7.59	1	0.006
	50,000 to 100,000	4.36	1	0.037
	100,000 to 200,000	4.32	1	0.038
	200,000 to 300,000	0.41	1	0.527
	Above 300,000	0.333	1	0.564
Marital Status	Single	13.3	1	0.001
	Married	9.47	1	0.002
	Widowed	1.00	1	0.317
	Divorced/Separated	2.25	1	0.134
Life Cycle Stage	No Children	5.547	1	0.019
	Young children aged 0 to 12 years	0.097	1	0.755
	Teenage Children from ages 13 to 19	7.692	1	0.006
	Adult children aged above 20 years still at home	16.900	1	<0.001
	Children left home	1.000	1	0.317

**Source: Survey Data, 2019**

**Table 4.3: Relationship Between Demographic Characteristics of Respondents and Domestic Tourism Participation (chi square test of independence)**

<b>VARIABLE</b>	$\chi^2$	<i>Df</i>	<i>P</i>
Age			
18 – 30 years	48.962	3	<0.001
31 - 40 years			
41 -50 years			
51- 60 years			
Gender			
Male	44.292	1	<0.001
Female			
Level of Education			
High School	99.924	3	<0.001
Diploma			
Undergraduate			
Masters			
Occupation			
Student	19.271	3	<0.001
Self-employed			
Employed			
Retired			
Monthly Income			
Below 50,000	17.008	4	0.002
50,000 to 100,000			
100,000 to 200,000			
200,000 to 300,000			
Above 300,000			
Marital Status			
Single	26.015	3	<0.001
Married			
Widowed			
Divorced/Separated			
Stage in Life Cycle			
No Children	31.231	5	<0.001
Young form age 0 to 12 years			
Teenage Children from ages 13 to 19			
Adult children aged above 20 years still at home			
Children left home			

**Source: Survey Data, 2019**

#### **4.5 Travel Preferences and Participation in Domestic Tourism**

The study sought to establish the influence of travel preferences of residents of Nairobi on domestic tourism participation in the County. These preferences were based on attractions, activities to engage in within the domestic tourism destination areas and accommodation facilities. These were found to be significant from literature since they

acted as the main pull factors determining participation in domestic tourism. A total of twenty-two items were used for study. For attractions, the study used the following items: coastal sites, game parks, cultural /historical sites, sporting/ recreational facilities, spectacular landscapes, health and wellness spas and entertainment facilities.

For activities, the items used were as follows: game drives, sight-seeing, participating in sports/recreational activities, relaxing on the beach, visiting friends and relatives, pampering/meditation, shopping, exploring cultural/heritage sites, wining and dining, dancing/nightlife/clubbing. For accommodation, the items used included luxury or high-cost hotels, budget hotels/guest houses, game lodges/resorts, villas/cottages/self-service apartments, staying with friends and relatives. The respondents were asked to indicate their preferences for the items on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 to 5 where 1 was not preferred, 2 was least preferred, 3 was fairly preferred, 4 was preferred while 5 was most preferred. The study applied the following tests on the data in order to achieve the objective for the variable; descriptive analysis to show trends, the independent t-test for comparison, and binary logistical regression analysis for relationships. The findings from the analysis were presented below.

#### **4.5.1 Preferences for domestic tourism attractions, activities and accommodation**

Descriptive analysis of the trends on preferences for domestic tourism attractions are shown in table 4.4 below.

**Table 4.4: Preferences for Attractions of Domestic Tourism**

<b>Preferences</b>	<b>Nature of Respondents</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Error</b>	<b>Skewness</b>	<b>Kurtosis</b>
<b>Attractions</b>					
Prefer Coastal Sites	Participating	4.31	0.059	-1.734	2.424
	Non-Participating	4.22	0.049	-0.943	0.153
Prefer Game Parks	Participating	4.05	0.059	-1.194	0.973
	Non-Participating	2.41	0.053	0.413	0.211
Prefer Historical Sites	Participating	3.21	0.078	-0.193	-1.258
	Non-Participating	2.91	0.086	-0.029	-1.610
Prefer Sport/Recreational facilities	Participating	3.52	0.083	-0.555	-1.163
	Non-Participating	3.99	0.056	-0.605	-0.876
Prefer Spectacular Landscape	Participating	3.46	0.076	-0.515	-0.984
	Non-Participating	3.27	0.080	0.012	-1.588
Prefer Health/Wellness spa	Participating	3.26	0.078	-0.272	-1.242
	Non-Participating	3.54	0.067	-0.412	-0.484
Prefer Entertainment Facilities	Participating	3.55	0.066	-0.355	-0.910
	Non-Participating	3.80	0.067	-0.247	-1.629

**Source: Survey Data, 2019**

The findings revealed that coastal beaches were a favourite amongst majority of both groups of respondents with the participating displaying a higher mean (mean= 4.31; SE= 0.059) than the non- participating respondents (mean= 4.22; SE= 0.059). However, the preferences for the two groups differed for the remaining attractions. Majority of the participating respondents exhibited preference for game parks (mean = 4.05; SE= 0.059), followed by entertainment facilities (mean= 3.55; SE= 0.066) and then sporting/recreational facilities (mean =3.52; SE=0.083). The least preferred attractions

were cultural/historical sites (mean= 3.21; SE=0.078), followed by health and wellness spas (mean = 3.26; SE= 0.078) and spectacular landscapes (mean=3.46; 0.076).

In comparison, majority of the non- participating respondents preferred sporting/recreational facilities (mean= 3.99; SE= 0.056), followed by entertainment facilities (mean=3.80, SE= 0.067), and then the health and wellness spas (mean= 3.54; SE= 0.067). The least preferred attraction was the game parks (mean= 2.41; SE= 0.053) followed by cultural/historical sites (mean= 2.91; SE= 0.086), and spectacular landscape (mean= 3.27, SE=0.80).

In terms of activities, both groups registered relaxing on the beach as their most favourite activity, with the non-participants (mean= 4.38; SE= 0.041), having a higher mean than the participants (mean= 4.16; SE= 0.067). In addition, the top three preferred activities amongst majority of the participating respondents included taking a game drive (mean= 4.05; SE= 0.059), dancing/clubbing (mean=3.99; SE=0.065) and shopping (mean=3.55; SE=0.068). The least preferred activities were; participating in sporting/recreational activities (mean= 3.25; SE= 0.073), exploring heritage/cultural sites (mean=3.21; SE=0.078) and visiting friends and relatives (mean=3.16; SE=0.088). For the non-participating respondents on the other hand, majority preferred sight-seeing (mean= 4.22; SE= 0.049) and participating in sporting/recreational activities (mean= 4.22; SE= 0.049) and dancing/clubbing (mean=3.84; SE=0.058). The least preferred activities were visiting friends and relatives (mean=3.04; SE=0.054), exploring heritage/cultural sites (mean=3.04; SE=0.073) and taking a game drive (mean= 2.43; SE= 0.054) (see table 4.5).

**Table 4.5: Preferences for Activities of Domestic Tourism**

Preferences	Nature of Respondents	Mean	Standard Error	Skewness	Kurtosis
Game Drives	Participating	4.05	0.059	-1.194	0.973
	Non-Participating	2.43	0.054	0.414	0.110
Sight Seeing	Participating	3.51	0.068	-0.556	-0.622
	Non-Participating	4.22	0.049	-0.999	0.333
Sport/recreation	Participating	3.25	0.073	-0.328	-1.108
	Non-Participating	4.22	0.049	-0.953	0.188
Relax on the Beach	Participating	4.16	0.067	-1.433	0.903
	Non-Participating	4.38	0.041	-0.880	-0.238
Visiting Friends And Friends	Participating	3.16	0.088	-0.160	-1.580
	Non-Participating	3.04	0.054	0.296	-1.287
Meditate/pampering	Participating	3.37	0.074	0.318	-1.131
	Non-Participating	3.14	0.081	-0.196	-1.340
Shopping	Participating	3.55	0.068	-0.477	-0.804
	Non-Participating	3.81	0.054	-0.183	-1.367
Exploring	Participating	3.21	0.078	-0.288	-1.224
Heritage/Culture	Non-Participating	3.04	0.073	-0.375	-0.910
Wining and Dining	Participating	3.40	0.078	-0.465	-1.113
	Non-Participating	4.10	0.050	-0.682	0.295
Dancing/clubbing	Participating	3.99	0.065	1.144	0.413
	Non-Participating	3.84	0.058	-0.260	-1.328

**Source: Survey Data, 2019**

The findings on preferences for accommodation revealed that the participating respondents highly preferred lodges/resorts (mean=3.91; SE=0.063), followed by self-service villas/ apartments/cottages (mean=3.83; SE=0.072) and budget hotels (mean=3.53; SE=0.073). The least preferred were luxury/high-cost hotels (mean=3.30; SE=0.072) and staying with friends and relatives (mean=2.63; SE=0.089). The non-participating respondents on the other hand displayed high preference for budget hotels (mean=4.34; SE= 0.040), followed by self-service villas/ apartments/cottages

(mean=4.33; SE=0.040), luxury/high-cost hotels (mean=2.17; SE=0.054). Their least preferred accommodation was lodges/resorts (mean=2.15; SE=0.055) and staying with friends and relatives (mean=2.02; SE=0.050) (see table 4.6).

**Table 4.6: Preferences for Accommodation for Domestic Tourism**

Preferences Accommodation	Nature of Respondents	Mean	Std Error	Skewness	Kurtosis
Luxury/high-cost hotels	Participating	3.30	0.072	-0.217	-1.047
	Non-Participating	2.17	0.054	0.855	0.759
Budget hotels/guest houses/camp sites/hostels	Participating	3.53	0.073	-0.366	-1.085
	Non-Participating	4.34	0.040	-0.815	-0.035
Lodges/Resorts	Participating	3.91	0.063	-0.880	-0.060
	Non-Participating	2.15	0.055	0.899	0.799
Self-service villas/apartments/cottages	Participating	3.83	0.072	-0.875	-0.439
	Non-Participating	4.33	0.040	-0.796	-0.108
Staying with friends and relatives	Participating	2.63	0.089	0.394	-1.455
	Non-Participating	2.02	0.050	0.798	0.603

**Source: Survey Data, 2019**

#### **4.5.2 Comparison of travel preferences between respondents participating and those not participating in domestic tourism**

The results of the independent t-test results as shown table 4.7 revealed that there was a significant difference in preferences between participating and non-participating respondents ( $t = -3.043$ ,  $df = 674$ ,  $p = 0.002$ ). The participating respondents (mean=3.56,  $SE = 0.037$ ) displayed stronger preferences than the non-participating ones (mean=3.43,  $SE = 0.031$ ). The study rejected ( $H_02$ ) on the basis of the p value was less than 0.05. It was therefore concluded that there was a significant difference in travel preferences between participants and non-participants of domestic tourism.

**Table 4.7: Mean Differences for Preferences, Motivation and Constraints for Domestic Tourism**

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Mean Participating</b>	<b>Mean Non participating</b>	<b>Std. Error Mean participating</b>	<b>Std. Error Mean Non-participating</b>	<b>t statistic</b>	<b>p value sig. 2-tailed</b>
Preference	3.56	3.43	0.037	0.036	-3.043	0.002
Motivation	3.68	3.16	0.045	0.033	-9.964	<0.001
Constraint	2.78	3.67	0.047	0.037	-15.182	<0.001

**Source: Survey Data, 2019**

Moving on to analysis of the specific variables on preferences, the results as displayed in table 4.8 showed the significant differences between participants and non-participants of domestic tourism. apart from three namely; visiting coastal beaches, visiting friends and relatives and exploring cultural/ heritage sites. These displayed equality of means between the participants and the non-participants. Thus, they were preferred equally by the two groups.



**Table 4.8 : Mean Differences Between Preferences of Participants and Non-Participants of Domestic Tourism**

Variable	Mean Participating	Mean Non participating	Std. Error Mean participating	Std. Error Mean Non- participating	t statistic	p value sig. 2-tailed
Prefer coastal beaches	4.31	4.22	0.059	0.049	1.133	0.258
Prefer game parks	4.05	2.41	0.059	0.053	20.753	<0.001
Prefer cultural/historical sites	3.21	2.91	0.078	0.086	2.544	0.011
Prefer sporting/recreational facilities	3.52	3.99	0.083	0.056	-4.657	<0.001
Prefer spectacular landscapes	3.46	3.27	0.076	0.08	1.681	0.093
Prefer health and wellness spas	3.26	3.54	0.078	0.067	-2.682	0.007
Prefer entertainment facilities	3.55	3.80	0.066	0.067	-2.699	0.007
Prefer game drive	4.05	2.43	0.059	0.054	20.229	<0.001
Prefer sightseeing	3.51	4.22	0.068	0.05	-8.297	<0.001
Prefer sporting/ recreational activities	3.25	4.22	0.073	0.049	-10.963	<0.001
Prefer relaxing on beach	4.16	4.38	0.067	0.041	2.828	0.005
Prefer visiting friends and relatives	3.16	3.04	0.088	0.054	1.209	0.227
Prefer pampering/meditation	3.37	3.14	0.074	0.081	2.089	0.037
Prefer shopping	3.55	3.81	0.068	0.054	-2.993	0.003
Prefer exploring cultural/heritage sites	3.21	3.04	0.078	0.073	1.5888	0.113
Prefer wining and dining	3.40	4.10	0.078	0.05	-0.7588	<0.001
Prefer dancing/clubbing	3.99	3.84	0.065	0.058	1.693	0.091
Prefer luxury/high-cost hotels	3.30	2.17	0.072	0.054	12.478	<0.001
Prefer budget hotels and guest houses	3.53	4.34	0.073	0.04	-9.81	<0.001
Prefer game lodges/resorts	3.91	2.15	0.063	0.055	21.033	<0.001
Prefer villas/cottages/self-service apartments	3.83	4.33	0.072	0.04	-6.044	<0.001
Prefer visiting friends and relatives	2.63	2.02	0.089	0.05	5.928	<0.001

**Source: Survey Data, 2019**

## **4.6 Motivation and Participation in Domestic Tourism**

The study sought to establish whether motivation influenced participation in domestic tourism. Fifteen items for motivation for travel drawn from literature were used. These were further categorised into push factors and pull factors. The push factors were fun, relaxation/rest, visiting friends and relatives, new experiences, meeting new people, impressing significant others, family bonding, spirituality/health, adventure and status/prestige. The pull factors on the other hand included attractive destination, great weather, favourable costs/discounts/offers, opportunity to indulge in luxury/pampering and opportunity to gain knowledge (pull factors). The respondents were asked to rate the items on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 to 5 where 1 was totally insignificant, 2 was insignificant, 3 was fairly insignificant, 4 was significant, while 5 was very significant. The data was subjected to descriptive analysis to get trends the independent t-test for comparison between the two groups of respondents and binary logistic regression to test relationships between the variables. The results were used to test hypothesis where those with p values of less than 0.05 were rejected while those that were higher than 0.05 were accepted.

### **4.6.1 Motivation for domestic tourism**

Descriptive analysis revealed that both participating and non-participating respondents were strongly motivated by fun. The non-participating respondents displayed a higher mean (mean=4.48; SE= 0.041) than the participating ones (mean=4.36; SE= 0.058). The participating respondents were further significantly motivated by the need to have new experiences/explore (mean=4.17; SE= 0.070), rest & relaxation (mean=4.09; SE= 0.065), adventure (mean=4.09; SE= 0.068) and family bonding (mean= 3.76; SE=0.75). The least motivating factors for this group was the need to visit friends and relatives (mean=3.29; SE= 0.080), indulge in luxury/pampering (mean=3.25; SE= 0.084), and

for prestige/status (mean=3.18; SE= 0.081) (see table 4.9).

**Table 4.9: Motivation for Domestic Tourism**

<b>Motivation</b>	<b>Nature of Respondents</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Standard Error</b>	<b>Skewness</b>	<b>Kurtosis</b>
Fun	Participants	4.36	0.058	-1.908	3.031
	Non-Participants	4.48	0.065	-1.314	0.927
VFR	Participants	3.29	0.080	-0.302	-1.232
	Non-Participants	2.57	0.079	0.701	-1.013
Rest/Relaxation	Participants	4.09	0.065	-1.314	0.769
	Non-Participants	3.96	0.064	-0.681	-1.095
New Experiences	Participants	4.17	0.070	-1.466	0.885
	Non-Participants	2.98	0.075	0.418	-1.249
Meeting New People	Participants	3.62	0.071	-0.636	-0.588
	Non-Participants	3.11	0.064	0.650	-1.089
Landscapes	Participants	3.59	0.076	-0.512	-1.041
	Non-Participants	3.05	0.067	0.656	-1.241
Great Weather	Participants	3.45	0.080	-0.389	-1.275
	Non-Participants	2.59	0.046	0.590	1.622
Wellness/Health	Participants	3.49	0.081	-0.448	-1.226
	Non-Participants	3.43	0.064	0.149	-1.477
Discounts/Offers	Participants	3.74	0.071	0.788	-0.451
	Non-Participants	3.72	0.060	0.010	1.494
Impressing Others	Participants	3.47	0.082	0.412	-1.305
	Non-Participants	3.06	0.039	0.402	0.184
Family Bonding	Participants	3.76	0.075	-0.801	0.654
	Non-Participants	3.01	0.036	-0.014	-0.763
Adventure	Participants	4.09	0.068	-1.239	0.480
	Non-Participants	3.83	0.066	-0.343	-1.519
Status/Prestige	Participants	3.18	0.081	-0.150	-1.327
	Non-Participants	2.74	0.069	0.749	-0.662
Luxury/Pampering	Participants	3.25	0.084	-0.263	-1.411
	Non-Participants	2.81	0.086	0.412	-1.424
Knowledge	Participants	3.63	0.083	-0.598	-1.205
	Non-Participants	2.05	0.044	1.217	3.053

**Source: Survey data, 2019**

The non-participating respondents also rated rest & relaxation (mean=3.96; SE= 0.064) and adventure (mean=3.83; SE= 0.066) amongst the most significant motivators for domestic travel after fun. However, contrary to their participating counterparts, they rated discounts/offers (mean=3.72; SE= 0.062) and wellness/health (mean=3.43; SE= 0.064) as the next significant motivators. They also differed in what they considered to

be least motivating factors namely; weather (mean=2.59; SE= 0.046), visiting friends and relatives (mean=2.57; SE= 0.079) and knowledge (mean=2.05; SE= 0.044) (see table 4.9).

#### **4.6.2 Comparison of motivation for respondents participating and those not-participating in domestic tourism**

The independent t-test was conducted to compare motivation between participants and non-participants of domestic tourism, and hence test  $H_03$  namely; there is no significant difference in motivation between participants and non-participants of domestic tourism amongst residents of Nairobi City County. The findings of the analysis as shown in table 4.7 revealed that there was a significant difference in motivation between the two groups of respondents ( $t = -9.964$ ,  $df = 674$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ), with the participating respondents (mean= 3.68; SE= 0.045) being more motivated than the non-participating ones (mean=3.16; SE= 0.033). The study therefore rejected the null hypothesis since the p value was less than 0.05. It concluded that there was a significant difference in motivation between participants and non-participants of domestic tourism amongst residents of Nairobi City County.

Specifically, the t-test findings as shown in table 4.10 depict significant differences in motivation between participating and non-participating respondents for majority of the variables apart from three variables that registered non-significant differences. These are rest/relaxation, discounts/offers and spirituality/health. Thus, apart from these three, the two groups are generally motivated by different pull and push factors for domestic tourism.

**Table 4.10 : Mean Difference in Motivation between Participating and Non-Participating Respondents of Domestic Tourism**

<b>Variables</b>	<b>Mean Participating</b>	<b>Mean Non participating</b>	<b>Std. Error Mean participating</b>	<b>Std. Error Mean Non-participating</b>	<b>t statistic</b>	<b>p value sig. 2-tailed</b>
Motivated by fun	4.36	4.48	.058	.041	-1.812	0.070
Motivated by rest/relaxation	4.09	3.96	.065	.064	1.49	0.137
Motivated to visit friends/relatives	3.29	2.57	.080	.079	6.432	<0.001
Motivated by new experiences	4.17	2.98	.070	.075	11.651	<0.001
Motivated by meeting new people	3.62	3.11	.071	.064	5.311	<0.001
Motivated by landscapes	3.59	3.05	.076	.067	5.362	<0.001
Motivated by great weather	3.45	2.59	.080	.046	9.375	<0.001
Motivated by discounts/offers	3.74	3.72	.071	.060	0.238	0.812
Motivated by impressing others	3.47	3.06	.082	.039	4.568	<0.001
Motivated by family bonding	3.76	3.01	.075	.036	8.96	<0.001
Motivated by spirituality/health	3.49	3.43	.081	.064	0.513	0.608
Motivated by adventure	4.09	3.83	.068	.066	2.722	0.007
Motivated by status/prestige	3.18	2.74	.081	.069	4.142	<0.001
Motivated by luxury/pampering	3.25	2.81	.084	.086	3.658	<0.001
Motivated by knowledge	3.63	2.05	.083	.044	16.707	<0.001

**Source: Survey Data, 2019**

#### **4.7 Constraints and participation in domestic tourism**

The study sought to examine the influence of constraints on domestic tourism participation and non-participation. The study used 20 items drawn from literature. These constraints were categorized into structural, interpersonal and intrapersonal factors that could hinder participation in domestic tourism. The respondents rated the items in terms of their likelihood to hinder participation in domestic tourism using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 to 5 where 1 was very unlikely, 2 was unlikely, 3 was fairly unlikely, 4 was likely while 5 was most likely.

The structural constraints comprised of safety concerns, lack of disposable income, poor quality of services/facilities, lack of variety of activities at destinations, accessibility of destinations, weather, better options abroad, overcrowded destinations and lack of free time. The interpersonal constraints were made up of lack of family-oriented activities, lack of travel companions and lack of family-oriented activities. The intrapersonal constraints were; the perception that tourism is for others, previous bad experiences, lack of travel culture, lack of knowledge on where to go, fear of the unknown, lack of personal transport, poor health and disability.

##### **4.7.1 Constraints of domestic tourism participation**

Descriptive analysis was carried out across structural, interpersonal and intrapersonal constraints. The structural constraints differed across the two group as indicated in table 4.11. For the participating respondents, majority rated lack of free time as the most constraining barrier (mean= 3.53; SE=0.075), followed by lack of income (mean= 3.15; SE= 0.078) and accessibility of destinations (mean= 3.08; SE= 0.083). The least constraining barriers were overcrowded destinations (mean= 2.55; SE= 0.082), safety and security concerns (mean= 2.51; SE= 0.079), better options abroad (mean= 2.45; SE= 0.084). For the non-participating respondents, majority rated lack of variety of

activities at destinations (mean= 4.51; SE= 0.045) and lack of disposable income (mean= 4.51; SE= 0.034) as the most likely constraints, followed by lack of free time (mean= 4.04; SE= 0.064). The least likely constraints were safety and security concerns (mean= 2.81; SE= 0.075), better options abroad (mean= 2.64; SE= 0.067), and overcrowded destinations (mean= 2.39; SE= 0.068).

**Table 4.11: Structural Constraints and Participation in Domestic Tourism**

Constraints	Nature of Respondents	Standard		Skewness	Kurtosis
		Mean	Error		
Safety Concerns	Participants	2.51	0.079	0.493	-1.078
	Non-Participants	2.81	0.075	0.173	-1.015
Lack of Income	Participants	3.15	0.078	-0.176	-1.248
	Non-Participants	4.51	0.034	-0.994	0.284
Poor Quality Services/Facilities	Participants	3.05	0.079	-0.099	-1.354
	Non-Participants	3.98	0.050	-0.713	-0.239
Lack of Variety of Activities	Participants	2.99	0.086	0.027	-1.538
	Non-Participants	4.51	0.045	-1.231	-0.324
Lack of Free Time	Participants	3.53	0.075	-0.603	-0.847
	Non-Participants	4.04	0.064	-0.817	-0.553
Accessibility to Destination	Participants	3.08	0.083	-0.029	-1.430
	Non-Participants	3.90	0.068	0.664	-1.249
Weather Conditions	Participants	2.72	0.082	0.300	-1.333
	Non-Participants	3.01	0.065	0.135	-0.613
Better Options Abroad	Participants	2.45	0.084	0.572	-1.194
	Non-Participants	2.64	0.067	0.724	-0.298
Overcrowded Destinations	Participants	2.55	0.082	0.434	-1.265
	Non-Participants	2.39	.068	0.993	-0.118

**Source: Survey, 2019**

The results of the analysis as shown in table 4.12 indicate that the most constraining interpersonal factor amongst participating respondents was family commitments (mean= 3.17; SE= 0.080), followed by lack of family-oriented activities (mean= 2.94;

SE= 0.084), and then lack of travel companion (mean= 2.74; SE= 0.078). For the non-participating respondents, majority felt constrained by lack of family-oriented activities (mean= 4.22; SE= 0.046) followed by family commitments (mean= 4.08; SE= 1.047) and then lastly by lack of travel companion (mean= 4.05; SE= 0.67).

**Table 4.12: Interpersonal Constraints and participation Domestic Tourism**

<b>Constraints</b>	<b>Nature of Respondents</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Standard Error</b>	<b>Skewness</b>	<b>Kurtosis</b>
Lack Family Oriented	Participants	2.94	0.084	-0.009	-1.469
	Non-Participants	4.22	0.046	-1.599	3.810
Lack of Travel Companion	Participants	2.74	0.078	0.179	-1.306
	Non-Participants	4.05	0.067	-1.079	-0.267
Family Commitments	Participants	3.17	0.080	-0.267	-1.267
	Non-Participants	4.08	0.057	-0.735	-0.792

**Source: Survey Data, 2019**

For the intrapersonal constraints, both the participating and non-participating respondents rated lack of transport, lack of a travel culture, lack of knowledge of where to go and the perception that tourism is for others as the most constraining factors to participation in domestic tourism. The magnitude however differed with non-participating respondents registering stronger constraints than the participating ones as shown in table 4.13. Participating respondents rated lack of transport (mean= 3.42; SD= 0.083), followed by lack of a travel culture (mean= 2.65; SE= 0.079), lack of knowledge of where to go (mean= 2.64; SE= 0.076) and perception that tourism is for others (mean= 2.58; SE= 0.080). The least constraining factors were poor health (mean= 2.39; SE= 0.087) and disability (mean= 1.90; SE= 0.081). These are results are shown in table 4.13 below:



**Table 4.13: Intrapersonal Constraints and Participation in Domestic Tourism**

<b>Constraints</b>	<b>Nature of Respondents</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Standard Error</b>	<b>Skewness</b>	<b>Kurtosis</b>
Perception That Tourism is for Others	Participants	2.58	0.080	0.414	-1.206
	Non-Participants	4.26	0.049	-0.535	-1.553
Previous Bad Experiences	Participants	2.52	0.078	0.430	-1.129
	Non-Participants	2.35	0.076	0.586	-0.949
Lack of Travel Culture	Participants	2.65	0.079	0.351	-1.192
	Non-Participants	4.42	0.049	-1.206	0.020
Fear of The Unknown	Participants	2.53	0.081	0.478	-1.148
	Non-Participants	3.73	0.064	-0.592	-0.804
Lack of Personal Transport	Participants	3.42	0.083	0.414	-1.285
	Non-Participants	4.45	0.054	-1.754	2.400
Lack of Knowledge on Where to Go	Participants	2.64	0.076	0.305	-1.119
	Non-Participants	4.41	0.054	-1.651	1.417
Poor Health Disability	Participants	2.39	0.087	-0.550	-0.728
	Non-Participants	3.37	0.074	1.766	3.728
Disability	Participants	1.90	0.081	0.996	-0.302
	Non-Participants	2.19	0.074	0.668	-0.994

**Source: Survey Data, 2019**

The non-participating respondents cited lack of transport (mean= 4.45; SE= 0.054), followed by lack of travel culture (mean= 4.42; SE= 0.049), lack of knowledge of where to go (mean= 4.41; SE= 0.054), perception that tourism is for others (mean= 4.26; SE= 0.049), as the most constraining intrapersonal factors. The least constraining factors were previous bad experiences (mean= 2.35; SE= 0.076), disability (mean= 2.19; SE= 0.074).

#### **4.7.2 Comparison of constraints of respondents participating and those not participating in domestic tourism**

In order to establish whether there was significant difference in constraints between participants and non-participants of domestic tourism amongst residents of Nairobi city county, an independent t-test was conducted. The findings as shown in table 4.7 revealed that there was a significant difference in constraints between the two groups of respondents ( $t = -15.182$ ,  $df = 674$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ), with the non-participating respondents (mean = 3.67; SE = 0.037) registering more constraints than the participating ones (mean = 2.78; SE = 0.047). The study therefore rejected the null hypothesis based on the p value that was less than 0.05 and concluded that there was a significant difference in constraints between participants and non-participants of domestic tourism amongst residents of Nairobi City County.

The findings of the t-test performed on individual variables as shown in table 4.14 revealed that majority of the variables scored significant differences in constraints between the participants and the non-participants. Only 3 out of 22 variables were not significantly different for the two groups. These constraints were better options abroad, previous bad experiences and overcrowded destinations. Therefore, in general, the results suggest that the participating respondents possessed significantly different constraints from the non-participating respondents.

**Table 4.14 : Mean Difference in Constraints for Domestic Tourism between Participating and Non-Participating**

<b>Variables</b>	<b>Mean Participating</b>	<b>Mean Non participating</b>	<b>Std. Error Mean participating</b>	<b>Std. Error Mean Non-participating</b>	<b>t statistic</b>	<b>p value sig. 2-tailed</b>
Constrained by lack of free time	3.53	4.04	.075	.064	-5.179	<0.001
Constrained by lack of travel companion	2.74	4.05	.078	.067	12.751	<0.001
Constrained by family commitments	3.17	4.08	.080	.057	9.282	<0.001
Constrained by poor health	2.39	3.37	.087	.074	8.543	<0.001
Constrained by lack of knowledge on where to go	2.64	4.41	.076	.054	18.931	<0.001
Constrained by safety concerns	2.51	2.81	.079	.075	2.765	0.006
Constrained by lack of income	3.15	4.51	.078	.034	16.072	<0.001
Constrained by poor quality services/facilities	3.05	3.98	.079	.050	9.903	<0.001
Constrained by lack of variety of activities	2.99	4.51	.086	.045	15.67	<0.001
Constrained by lack family-oriented activities	2.94	4.22	.084	.046	13.339	<0.001
Constrained by lack of personal transport	3.42	4.45	.083	.054	10.503	<0.001
Constrained by perception that tourism is for others	2.58	4.26	.080	.049	17.982	<0.001
Constrained by accessibility to destination	3.08	3.90	.083	.068	7.644	<0.001
Constrained by lack of travel culture	2.65	4.42	.079	.049	19.071	<0.001
Constrained by fear of the unknown	2.53	3.73	.081	.064	11.633	<0.001
Constrained by weather conditions	2.72	3.01	.082	.065	2.778	0.006
Constrained by better options abroad	2.45	2.64	.084	.067	1.787	0.074
Constrained by previous bad experiences	2.52	2.35	.078	.076	1.629	0.104
Constrained by overcrowded destinations	2.55	2.39	.082	.068	1.557	0.120
Constrained by disability	1.90	2.19	.081	.074	2.726	0.007

**Respondents Source: Survey Data, 2019**

#### 4.8 Binary Logistic Regression Analysis

The study used binary logistic regression analysis to determine the extent to which preferences, motivation and constraints, predicted the outcome of participation and non-participation in domestic tourism. The findings were then used to test hypotheses and develop the binary logit model for the study. Preliminary analyses were done to ensure that there was no violation of the assumptions of normality, adequacy of sample size and multicollinearity. The dependent variables were participation and non-participation in domestic tourism. The independent variables were preferences, motivation and constraints. The results from the binary logistic regression are presented in tables 4.15, 4.16, 4.17 and 4.18.

**Table 4.15 Omnibus Test of Model Coefficient**

		Chi-square	Df	Sig.
Step 1	Step	416.371	3	.000
	Block	416.371	3	.000
	Model	416.371	3	.000

**Table 4.16: Hosmer and Lemeshow Test**

Step	Chi-square	Df	Sig.
1	9.043	8	.339

**Table 4.17 : Model Summary**

Step	-2 Log likelihood	Cox & Snell R Square	Nagelkerke R Square
1	220.758 <sup>a</sup>	0.653	0.871

a. Estimation terminated at iteration number 8 because parameter estimates changed by less than .001.

**Table 4.18 : Coefficients of Estimates**

Variable	B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp (B)	95% C.I. for EXP(B)	
							Lower	Upper
Step 1 <sup>a</sup> Preferences	1.412	.120	138.296	1	.000	4.103	3.243	5.192
Motivation	-.065	.100	.424	1	.515	.937	.769	1.140
Constraints	-1.311	.140	87.149	1	.000	.269	.205	.355
Constant	0.943	.595	2.509	1	.000	2.567		
Classification table 1	50.1%							
Classification table 2	80%							

The chi square value from the omnibus test of model coefficients  $\chi^2 (3, N=676) = 416.371, p < 0.001$ ; indicated that the amount of variance in participation as explained by the model was significant. The Hosmer and Lemeshow test used to establish the goodness of fit revealed that there was no similarity between the predictions and the observation  $\chi^2 (8, N=676) = 9.043, p = 0.339$ . This means that the model adequately fits the data and the independent variables are good enough to predict participation and non-participation. Additionally, the model correctly predicted 80% of the outcome which is an improvement from the 50.1% before regression as shown by the classification tables. The Cox & Snell R Square and Nagelkerke R Square values for the model shows that it explains between 65.3% to 87.1% of the variability of participation and non-participation. Based on the estimation results as indicated in table 4.18, the following model was developed;

$$P_{dt}/(1-P_{ndt}) = \exp (0.943 + 1.412\text{preferences} - 0.065\text{motivation} - 1.311\text{constraints})$$

The study findings further indicated that the variable with the highest explaining power for participation and non-participation was preferences, followed by constraints and then motivation. Preferences and Constraints were significant predictors while motivation was not significant. The positive regression coefficients imply that a higher

score on the independent variable will result in a higher likelihood of one being a participant in domestic tourism. Thus, as availability of products that match preferences increase, the probability of being a participant also increases. The negative coefficient values on the other hand indicate that the higher the score on these variables, the less likely for one to be a participant. Thus, as constraints increase the probability of being a participant reduces.

Results of the odds ratio from exp  $B$  further indicate that as preferences increase by 1 unit, the odds of participating in domestic tourism increases by 4.103 times. Thus, as the ability of a destination to avail tourism products that match preferences increases, the odds of participation increase by a factor of 4.103, meaning that they are 310.3% more likely to participate in domestic tourism. Conversely as constraints increase by 1 unit the odds of participating in domestic tourism reduces by 0.269 times. Thus, as people become more constrained, the ability to participate in tourism reduces by a factor of 0.269 meaning that they are 73.1% less likely to participate in domestic tourism. The logistic model further indicated that preferences and constraints had a significant effect on domestic tourism participation and non-participation. On the contrary, the effect of motivation on the same was not significant.

#### **4.9 Summary of Hypothesis testing**

To conclude quantitative data analysis, below is a summary of the hypotheses testing presented as a narrative and in tables 4.19 and 4.20 below:

**Hypothesis 1 (Ho1):** *The demographic characteristics of participants are similar to those of non-participants of domestic tourism amongst residents of Nairobi city county.*

This was tested using chi square goodness of fit test. The results from the various demographic characteristics revealed both significant and non-significant differences between participants and non-participants as indicated in table 4.19 below.

**Table 4.19: Differences in Demographic Characteristics between Participants and Non-Participants**

Demographic	Characteristics	$\chi^2$	Df	p	Results
Age	18 – 30 years	10.976	1	0.001	Rejected H <sub>01</sub>
	31 - 40 years	0.0360	1	0.549	Failed to reject H <sub>01</sub>
	41 -50 years	5.143	1	0.023	Rejected H <sub>01</sub>
	51- 60 years	28.488	1	<0.001	Rejected H <sub>01</sub>
Gender	Male	19.971	1	<0.001	Rejected H <sub>01</sub>
	Female	24.327	1	<0.001	Rejected H <sub>01</sub>
Level of Education	High School	67.600	1	<0.001	Rejected H <sub>01</sub>
	Diploma	4.944	1	0.026	Rejected H <sub>01</sub>
	Undergraduate	5.454	1	0.020	Rejected H <sub>01</sub>
	Masters	9.931	1	0.002	Rejected H <sub>01</sub>
Occupation	Student	1.153	1	0.283	Failed to reject H <sub>01</sub>
	Self-employed	12.755	1	<0.001	Rejected H <sub>01</sub>
	Employed	5.169	1	0.023	Rejected H <sub>01</sub>
	Retired	0.200	1	0.655	Failed to reject H <sub>01</sub>
Monthly Income	Below 50,000	7.59	1	0.006	Rejected H <sub>01</sub>
	50,000 to 100,000	4.36	1	0.037	Rejected H <sub>01</sub>
	100,000 to 200,000	4.32	1	0.038	Rejected H <sub>01</sub>
	200,000 to 300,000	0.41	1	0.527	Failed to reject H <sub>01</sub>
	Above 300,000	0.333	1	0.564	Failed to reject H <sub>01</sub>
Marital status	Single	13.3	1	0.001	Rejected H <sub>01</sub>
	Married	9.47	1	0.002	Rejected H <sub>01</sub>
	Widowed	1.00	1	0.317	Failed to reject H <sub>01</sub>
	Divorced/Separated	2.25	1	0.134	Failed to reject H <sub>01</sub>
Stage in Family Life Cycle	No Children	5.547	1	0.019	Rejected H <sub>01</sub>
	Young children (0-12 yrs)	0.097	1	0.755	Failed to reject H <sub>01</sub>
	Teenage Children (13-19yrs)	7.692	1	0.006	Rejected H <sub>01</sub>
	Adult children over 20 still at home	16.900	1	<0.001	Rejected H <sub>01</sub>
	Children left home	1.000	1	0.317	Failed to reject H <sub>01</sub>

The conclusion drawn were based on the p value. In instances where the p value was less than 0.05, the null hypothesis was rejected, meaning that the demographic characteristics of the participating respondents in domestic tourism was similar to those of the non-participating ones. On the contrary, in cases where the p value was more than 0.05, the study failed to reject the null hypothesis, it meant that the participating respondents and the non-participating ones possessed significantly different demographic characteristics.

**Hypothesis 2 (H<sub>02</sub>):** *There is no significant difference in tourism preferences between participants and non-participants of domestic tourism amongst residents of Nairobi city county.* Following the results, the study rejected the null hypothesis and concluded that there was a significant difference between the preferences of participants and non-participants of domestic tourism amongst residents of Nairobi city county.

**Hypothesis 3 (H<sub>03</sub>):** *There is no significant difference in tourism motivation between participants and non-participants of domestic tourism amongst residents of Nairobi city county.* The results revealed that there was a significant difference in tourism motivation between participants and non-participants of domestic tourism. Subsequently, the null hypothesis was rejected.

**Hypothesis 4 (H<sub>04</sub>):** *There is no significant difference in tourism constraints between participants and non-participants of domestic tourism amongst residents of Nairobi city county.* The empirical findings of the study posited that there was significant difference in constraints between participants and non-participants of domestic tourism amongst residents of Nairobi city county, hence rejecting the null hypothesis.

**Hypothesis 5 (H<sub>05</sub>):** *Demographic characteristics of residents do not influence domestic tourism participation .* The results from the study postulated that demographic



characteristics (namely age, gender, level of education, occupation, income, marital status and stage in family lifecycle) influenced participation in domestic tourism. Thus, the study rejected the null hypothesis and concluded that there was a significant relationship between demographic characteristics of residents and participation in domestic tourism.

**Hypothesis 6 (H<sub>06</sub>):** *There is no significant relationship between tourism preferences and participation in domestic tourism in Nairobi city county.* From the results of the study, it was evident that there was a significant relationship between tourism preferences and participation in domestic tourism. The study therefore rejected the null hypothesis and concluded that there was a significant relationship between the preferences and participation in domestic tourism amongst residents of Nairobi city county.

**Hypothesis 7 (H<sub>07</sub>):** *There is no significant relationship between tourism motivation and participation in domestic tourism in Nairobi city county.* The study established that there was no significant relationship between tourism motivation and participation in domestic tourism hence supporting the null hypothesis. The study therefore failed to reject the null hypothesis and concluded that motivation did not significantly influence participation in domestic tourism.

**Hypothesis 8 (H<sub>08</sub>):** *- There is no significant relationship between tourism constraints and participation in domestic tourism in Nairobi city county.* The findings of the study established that there was a significant relationship between tourism constraints and participation in domestic tourism. Consequently, the null hypothesis was rejected and the study concluded that tourism constraints significantly influenced participation in domestic tourism. Table 4.20 summarises the results for testing hypothesis 2 to 8.

**Table 4.20: Summary of Hypothesis Testing**

	<b>Hypothesised path</b>	<b>Statistical test</b>	<b>Basis for rejection/ Fail to reject</b>	<b>Results</b>
H <sub>02</sub>	$\mu$ preferences for participants = $\mu$ preferences for non-participants	Independent t-test	$p < 0.05$	Rejected
H <sub>03</sub>	$\mu$ motivation for participants = $\mu$ motivation for non-participants	Independent t-test	$p < 0.05$	Rejected
H <sub>04</sub>	$\mu$ constraints for participants = $\mu$ constraints for non-participants	Independent t-test	$p < 0.05$	Rejected
H <sub>05</sub>	Demographic characteristics $\neq$ Tourism participation	Chi square test of independence	$p < 0.05$	Reject
H <sub>06</sub>	Travel preferences $\neq$ Tourism participation	Binary logistic regression	$p < 0.05$	Reject
H <sub>07</sub>	Motivation $\neq$ Tourism participation	Binary logistic regression	$p > 0.05$	Fail to Reject
H <sub>08</sub>	Constraints $\neq$ Tourism participation	Binary logistic regression	$p < 0.05$	Reject

#### 4.10 Qualitative analysis

The qualitative study sought to contribute to overall research purpose by answering the following research questions through thematic analysis:

- i. What are the preferences of domestic tourism participation?
- ii. What is the motivation for domestic tourism participation?
- iii. What are the constraints affecting domestic tourism participation?

The study followed a deductive approach where themes identified from literature and the preceding quantitative study were used. These were travel preferences for domestic

tourism, motivation for domestic tourism and constraints of domestic tourism. Additionally, strategies used to stimulate domestic tourism participation emerged as a theme from the interviews and thus is also discussed. The findings from thematic analysis of the interviews conducted from four key informants are captured as appendices 5 and 6.

#### **4.10.1 Travel preferences for domestic tourism**

Thematic analysis of the feedback from the four domestic tourism stakeholders revealed eight travel preferences for domestic tourism namely preference for; nature-based destinations, affordable products/ products offering value for money, novelty/memorable experiences, fun, availability of children's activities, educational products, variety of activities and adventure. These are presented in descending order based on frequency of occurrence as captured in appendix 5

The study findings showed that the domestic tourist had a preference for **nature-based destinations**. This is supported by the following quotes from the interviews;

Stakeholder 1 noted that;

*'The environment is conducive, it's amazing to be at giraffe centre seeing the tall giraffes and their babies, we have Stacy, Kelly and Beatrice, the female ones'. It is a must see for anyone travelling to Kenya and us locals. The experience is wonderful, great, very good awesome and they have very knowledgeable guides. It is a great place to visit when in Nairobi to really see and experience giraffes from close and hear about their lives. It is a great place to visit for children and adults.*

Stakeholder 2 added;

*'Domestic tourists seek activities that get them close to nature such as get away, adventure and natural beauty'.*

Stakeholder 4 commented;

*'Local residents visit to experience the wild in the city'.*

Specifically, there was a preference for places that offered rest and relaxation as stated by stakeholder 3, ‘The place offers a serene environment for relaxation through botanical gardens. It is definitely worth a visit as there is lots of interesting information. I liked the natural history, exhibition and snake park’. These findings echo the sentiments by Okello et al. (2012) on preference for the wildlife product especially for city dwellers who do not interact with wildlife on a day to day basis. Nature based destinations therefore offer a “get away” from city life. They also support the quantitative findings for participating respondents while contradicting those for the non-participants who were not very drawn to wildlife-based products.

The study also revealed that domestic tourists preferred products that were not only **affordable but offered value for money**. This is in tandem with observations by Kihima (2015) and is backed by the quotes below:

*‘First time being at giraffe centre. What beautiful animals. Affordable entrance fee for both residents and non-residents. I had so much fun feeding the giraffes. Loved the whole experience. It is worth the visit and entrance fee’.* (Stakeholder 1)

On the same issue, stakeholder 2 said:

*‘Local travellers prioritise affordability. Cost is very significant; they seek value for money. For example, domestic tourists look for affordable accommodation, most prefer accommodation in budget hotels and staying with friends and relatives, affordability is the main driver’.*

The following quotes are from Stakeholder 3

*‘Affordable entrance fee. It’s within city, good for history and cultural lovers. I advise one to get a combined ticket to access the museum, botanical garden and snake park, where one gets a chance to handle a real live snake. It’s smart that they sell combi tickets for the museums and snake farm. It’s free on Thursdays and Fridays for school children. I didn’t like the fact that you must pay a fee in order to take a photo inside the compound’.*

*‘Affordability is a key consideration. Domestic tourists love the proximity of the park to the city, one can do a half day trip and go*

*back home. It cuts down on costs for accommodation and related expenses. Most also prefer visiting the orphanage and the Safari walk probably because apart from the entrance fee, one doesn't need to own or hire a vehicle as is the case of the park'. (Stakeholder 4)*

The third preference that came out prominently was **novelty and memorable experiences** associated with out of the ordinary, unusual and impressionable encounters that linger in one's mind and create wonderful memories. This is in line with findings by Stone & Nyaupane (2016) who argued that domestic tourists do not consider ordinary activities and usual destinations to be tourism in as much as these may be enjoyed by the international tourists. All the respondents supported this as evidenced by the quotes below:

Comments from stakeholder 1 were as follows:

*'Giraffe feeding is fun, enjoyable and great experience. It was an amazing experience for me and my clients as it was just within the city and it was fun. It is a nice place to visit as part of the city tour'.*

Stakeholder 2 commented as follows:

*'There is increased interest in new tourist destinations such as the western circuit. Local tourists love for random trips. People love random trips, what makes these exciting is the surprise element i.e. not knowing where they are going since they have never been there. One can decide to wake up and take a drive to Naivasha'.*

Stakeholder 3 said:

*'This museum will always be a nostalgic experience for me. I came here many times growing up and the fact that all the displays including the naked cave people are still there is very motivating. I hope they add more culture specific displays. I love this place and will keep visiting along with my little family'.*

Additionally, stakeholder 4 expressed their view on the matter as follows:

*'People visit to experience the wild in the city, get away, have a sense of me time, it's an unforgettable experience'.*

The other preference that emerged was **fun**. It emerged that the domestic tourist preferred products and activities that promised opportunities for fun as backed by the following statements;

*'#fun, #kujiyenjoy, # I was here, # I will be back. Giraffe feeding is fun, enjoyable experience. It was an amazing experience for me and my clients as it was just within the city and it was fun. I had so much fun feeding the giraffes. Good fun, the giraffes are chewing and magnificent up-close. The singles are attracted by fun and adventure'. (Stakeholder 1)*

*'Fun and entertainment are the main drivers for domestic tourists' (Stakeholder 2)*

*'It is fun and educational for the children and for adults since its rich in Kenyan history, it is especially more fun for school children'. (Stakeholder 3)*

The other conspicuous preference from the study was **product variety**. Stakeholder one noted:

*'From my experience, having variety of products at the destination makes the tourists want to stay longer and spend more'.*

Stakeholder 3 stated that:

*'What I liked about the museums was the variety of things to see. The museum and snake park are a place worth visiting with the whole family. It is fun and educational for the children and for adults-rich in Kenyan history'.*

Stakeholder 4 noted that:

*'They like the fact that they can see a variety of animals in their natural settings.' There are also fun activities for the whole families hence great for a family or friends' day out, great for bonding'.*

In addition to general product variety, the findings also showed that domestic tourists preferred **availability of children friendly activities** within destinations. Since most domestic tourists considered these trips an opportunity to bond with family, keeping the children entertained was paramount. This is captured by the comments below:

*'A great place to visit for children and adults, very nice for kids. (Stakeholder 1)*

*'Snake park more interesting for young ones, more fun for school children, nature and school children will like it, good for kids as it is not too big, has a lot of animals for display'. (Stakeholder 3)*

*'Most domestic visitors are school children and families with young children. They consider this a place to take children on weekends when not in school, give them a chance to see live wild animals. (Stakeholder 4)*

The findings further showed that **educational activities** were also identified as a preference. Stakeholder 1 noted:

*'The best place to be as they teach so much about giraffes. Wonderful experience, awesome, very knowledgeable guide. Impressed by the automated system for paying entrance fees and knowledgeable guides.*

Stakeholder 3 had this to say:

*'It was pretty informative as a Kenyan, I learnt new things about culture of other tribes in Kenya. The museum and snake park are a place worth visiting with the whole family. It is fun and educational for the children and for adults-rich in Kenyan history. Excellent for heritage/educational purpose. My first visit, very informative, most likely to bump into school children. Worth a visit as lots of interesting information. Guide pleasant and knowledgeable but felt rushed'.*

The final preference from the findings was **adventure** as supported by the following quotes:

*'The singles are attracted by fun and adventure'. (Stakeholder 1)*

*'The Kenyan domestic tourist is interested in getting close to nature e.g. get away, adventure, natural beauty, has increased interest in sports tourism/special interest tourism such as cycling, special events e.g. theme nights and loves adventure camping'. (Stakeholder 2).*

#### **4.10.2 Motivation for domestic tourism**

The study also revealed that the domestic tourist was motivated by the need to relax/rejuvenate/recreation, bond with significant others, to increase knowledge, peer pressure, fun and the need to get away. It emerged that domestic tourists were pushed to participate in tourism by the **need to relax/rejuvenate and for recreation**. The idea of going for holiday was synonymous to rest and relaxation where one got to recharge and to re-energize. Indeed, as expressed by Stakeholder 2, 'Domestic tourists travel to

get away from the hustle/bustle of life, get some alone time, engage in recreational activities and come back rejuvenated. They seek to enjoy themselves and their hard-earned money.’ Stakeholder 3 also stated, ‘People also come for relaxation and bonding at the botanical gardens.’

The need to **bond with significant others** emerged as a motive for domestic tourism as backed by the following quotes;

*‘Domestic tourists travel for relaxation and recreation, travel as a way of learning more about a new county, discovering new places, features etc, exploration, impressing significant others e.g. spouse, girlfriend, fiancé. They also put family first, value bonding, family activities e.g. quality time with family’. (Stakeholder 2)*

Stakeholder 3 also supported by stating that; ‘Parents also bring their children for a day out, organised groups such as churches also bring young people for visits and socialization’.

Additionally, the findings revealed that the domestic tourist is motivated by the need to learn and **increase knowledge**. This was especially so for young people in learning institutions. As stated by Stakeholder 3, ‘most of the domestic visitors are students who come for educational purposes and research. Stakeholder 2 also supported these sentiments by noting that;

*‘Domestic tourists travel for relaxation and recreation, travel as a way of learning more about a new county, discovering new places, features exploration’*

Domestic tourists are also driven by **peer pressure** to participate in tourism. People are keen to keep up with their reference groups and to fit in. As noted by Stakeholder 2, ‘Domestic tourism is driven by the push/hype from friends of places that they have gone, their stories create the picture in your mind that attracts one to try out for themselves.’



The need to have **fun** experiences was touted as a driver for participation in domestic tourism as local tourists sought products and destinations that promised fun. The desire to be entertained and enjoy the destinations was evident as noted by stakeholder 2 who quipped;

*‘Domestic tourists travel to have fun and get close to nature, there is need to incorporate nature, culture and fun into available destination products.’*

Lastly, the other motivation for domestic tourism that emerged from the study was the **need to get away** from the normal hustle and bustle of everyday life and ordinary experiences. This may involve passive activities like a moment for reflection or active pursuits such as mountain climbing and fishing. Stakeholder 2 supported this by stating that, ‘Local travellers seek opportunities that provide a chance to reflect about day-to-day challenges.’

#### **4.10.3 Constraints affecting domestic tourism**

From the study, the following emerged as constraints for domestic tourism; quality of service and experience, lack of product variety, cost of tourism products, bias towards the international tourism market, perception that tourism is for others, accessibility, lack of disposable income and lack of awareness. It emerged that domestic tourists considered **poor service and unsatisfactory tourism experience** as a key factor likely to hinder participation in domestic tourism. This resonates with their need for value for money and memorable experiences as discussed above. This sentiment is supported by the quotes below:

Stakeholder 1 said;

*‘The facility is small, feels congested. I’ am very disappointed with the customer service, sends a wrong picture for our country, not a good experience. We loved the nature trail; however, it was too short.’*

Stakeholder 2 commented on the same by stating that;

*'The domestic consumer feels like they have unmet needs/are dissatisfied with services by industry.'*

Stakeholder three made the following comments:

*'I arrived at the same time with three busloads of school children, so the museum was crowded. The museum needs sprucing up, some of the displays are tired. It is a great place but needs renovation, re-imagining and integration of modern-day technologies to attract a more varied crowd. The guide was pleasant and knowledgeable but felt rushed. Avoid visiting on Fridays when it is full of school children running wild. The museum is really mediocre and only appears to children who are having historical educational trips. It is very boring, everything basically the same since 1990's even after renovations. Some of the cages in the snake park are empty. The restaurants however are okay. It is disappointing considering the wealth of Kenyan culture that could be included. Only a tiny fraction is represented here'.*

According to stakeholder 4, 'meeting visitor expectations of seeing the big five and other large mammals every time they visit is a challenge since sometimes the animals migrate into the dispersal areas in community lands in search for pasture. Once the herbivores move, the carnivores automatically follow. This leaves the domestic tourist disappointed'. Quality of visitor experience is important not only in attracting new markets but also retaining the existing one since a memorable experience will attract repeat visits while luring the new tourists via word-of-mouth testimonies.

The other emerging constraint was **lack of product variety** as evidenced by the following statements:

Stakeholder 1 supported by stating:

*'Include other forms of wildlife, lack of product variety. Lack of activities for kids/ family-oriented products. Entertainment for kids is lacking, most of them ask "what will I do with the children for entertainment once at giraffe centre. Lovely seeing the giraffes but include more animals/birds for better experience. You have the land. Get a close-up view of the giraffes here and an opportunity to feed them. While it's a fun activity, there really isn't a lot to do once you*

*fed the giraffes. Personally, I preferred Nairobi National Park, where you get to see many more animals.*

Stakeholder 2 re-echoed the need to ‘diversify products away from wildlife’.

Stakeholder 3 also commented:

*‘Though good for family outings, younger children could be bored. It seems like only school children visit, meaning attention has not been given to adult segment’.*

Stakeholder 4 noted that ‘there were limited variety of products /activities, as the predominant activity was game viewing’. This might not appeal to all potential domestic tourists hence the non-participation.

**The cost of tourism products** as a constraint also emerged as a barrier to participation in domestic tourism. As noted by stakeholder 1:

*‘There are no affordable snacks and hot meals, what is available is mainly cold snacks that are overpriced. Review students fee’.*

Stakeholder 2 quipped that the ‘domestic tourist preferred tourism products that were affordable hence cost and affordability were key considerations.’

Stakeholder 3 commented as follows:

*‘Foods and drinks from outside not allowed, however, there is a restaurant within that is quite pricey though. Didn’t like the fact that you must pay a fee in order to take a photo inside the compound.’*

Stakeholder 4 noted that:

*‘Domestic tourists find the cost of food/drinks within Nairobi National Park to be expensive. Much as the entry fee is affordable, the need to hire a tour vehicle and guide is not affordable to many, hence the preference for the orphanage and safari walk. These sites do not require a vehicle’.*

The findings of the study also revealed that some of the respondents felt that the industry was **biased towards the international market**, leaving the domestic market to chance. For instance, stakeholder 2 stated that:

*‘Biased attitude of industry i.e. tours firms, accommodation providers, who have a negative perception of domestic tourism, acts as a barrier in stimulating domestic tourism. Accommodation for example is*

*biased towards international tourists in terms of the menu, table layout etc. Even training institutions are orientated towards the international market in their content and instructional procedures. Products are also tailor-made for inbound tourists.'*

Stakeholder 1 supported this when they stated:

*'Locals are not willing to "kiss the giraffes", which is one the activities that is a favourite with the international visitors. They are also not excited about visiting the nature trail to see plants and bird watching'.*

In the end as noted by stakeholder 2:

*'The domestic consumer feels like they have unmet needs/are dissatisfied with services by industry e.g. a rural farmer with money to spend might have difficulty enjoying his favourite meal with a lot of sophisticated cutlery which they can't use. This inability to fit in, may discourage them from participating in domestic tourism despite the financial ability'.*

The study also revealed that the respondents felt that domestic tourism participation was hindered by the **perception that tourism was for foreigners**. As noted by stakeholder 1;

*'Locals still perceive tourism as the preserve of foreigners.*

This is further supported by stakeholder 2 who noted that;

*'Though there is a changing perception on role of tourism, we still have the "It is not for us" attitude and lack of a travel culture'.*

Additionally, the findings indicated that respondents viewed poor **accessibility** as a constraint to participation in domestic tourism. This was in terms of availability and ease of transportation to, from and within the tourist destination. Stakeholder 1 admitted 'difficulty in accessing the destination for those with no personal vehicles and poor signage to giraffe centre'. The issue of transport within tourism destinations was also shared by Stakeholder 2 who commented on the same by stating that:

*'Much as the entry fee is affordable, the need to hire a tour vehicle and guide is not affordable to many, hence the preference for the orphanage and safari walk. These do not require a vehicle'.*

Lastly, **lack of disposable income** and **lack of awareness** were also mentioned as challenges facing domestic tourism participation. This was well captured by the comments below:

*‘Socio-economic challenges such as limited household incomes affect domestic tourism participation. Domestic tourists lack awareness and have limited knowledge of the options available.’ It however did not come out strongly as a hindrance therefore supporting the argument that income on its own is not a determinant of participation in domestic tourism.*

#### **4.10.4 Strategies for promoting domestic tourism**

The findings revealed that some of the stakeholder organisations **did not have specific marketing strategies** geared towards the domestic tourism market. Most of their marketing efforts were skewed towards the international market. This is supported by the quote from stakeholder 1, ‘there is no deliberate marketing strategy for the domestic market and there is lack of collaborative campaigns with the major marketers and tour operators. Stakeholder 2 also alluded to these sentiments by noting, ‘the existence of skewed marketing towards Maasai, wildlife and the coast’ as the main tourism products’. The findings echo sentiments by (Ghimire 2013; Kihima, 2015). The findings pointed towards haphazard marketing activities especially during times when international tourism was low as evidenced by the following quote, ‘We sometimes use social media like after 2013 when there was a drop in international tourism, such as twitter, Facebook, Instagram, trip advisor and the official website. We use a designated person in charge of public relations to manage these.’ (Stakeholder 1).

The study also revealed that some of the respondents relied on **word of mouth from significant others** as a marketing strategy for the domestic market as noted by stakeholder 1, ‘Through school children who tell their parents, parents know about

giraffe centre through children.’ Stakeholder 3 had this to say, ‘most adults hear about the museum from their school going children’.

The study also revealed that other organizations engaged in creation of **linkages and partnerships** with various stakeholders as a strategy for marketing domestic tourism. These stakeholders ranged from the public sector, to the private sector and local communities. The activities included consultative meetings, joint marketing events and information sharing. Stakeholder 2 expressed the following on the issue;

*‘Our main goal is to improving national domestic tourism strategies in collaboration with stakeholders, that is form strategic partnerships. Towards this, we have moved to create a county engagement framework that brings together all domestic tourism stakeholders at the county level. We have also formed direct partnerships with stakeholders e.g. Sarova hotels and Kenya Airways. We also plan to hold various stakeholder engagement meetings throughout the country’.*

Stakeholder 3 supported this by noting that, ‘the museum collaborates with stakeholders for marketing purposes e.g. magical Kenya’.

The study also revealed **awareness creation** as a strategy used to market domestic tourism as evidenced by the quotes below;

Stakeholder 2 said, *‘Awareness creation is done through intensified marketing initiatives, familiarization trips for the local media, social media, documentaries.’*

Stakeholder 3 added, *‘There is increased use of social media for marketing.’*

Stakeholder 4 noted,

*‘In the past, marketing has been traditional, there is incorporation of modern methods including social media, collaborations with other stakeholders e.g. Twende Tujivinari campaign that was specifically targeting domestic tourists. We have also developed and disseminated marketing materials such as brochures, guidebooks, maps, branded merchandise e.g. t-shirts and other souvenirs.’*

It was also evident from the study that **product improvement** was a strategy to attract domestic tourism. 50% of the stakeholders were cognisant of this fact and had elaborate plans on how to execute the same. As noted by stakeholder 4;

*‘There is need to focus on domestic tourists needs and expectations. Our strategy involves deliberate development and promotion of domestic tourism packages. There are plans to diversify the tourism product to meet and respond to domestic tourism needs thereby attracting them. This would also encourage the tourists to get off the roads, ease congestion as they explore other products apart from game viewing. There is need to manage visitor numbers to avoid exceeding the park’s carrying capacity given that one of its core objectives is conservation. There plans to also improve infrastructure in form of camping sites, accommodation facilities, restaurants, souvenir shops and other amenities to boost the tourism experience. There is the need to infuse distinctive tourism activities that can be carried out sustainably within the park. This includes recreational activities, night game drives and participation in research through wildlife tracking. It also involves providing adequate visitor information on the alternative activities e.g. through a visitor service centre.’*

Stakeholder 3 talked of, ‘incorporating leisure/fun activities in nature-based destinations e.g. watching movies, listening to music, sports.’

The other strategy that emerged was **pricing**. Since the issue of cost and affordability had come out strongly, majority of the stakeholders considered, ‘Pricing strategies to accommodate local travellers such as encouraging the entry of low-cost carriers and other travel models to stimulate domestic demand. It would also help to incorporate value for money in advertising to demystify perception that tourism is expensive i.e. communicate affordability.’ (Stakeholder 2). Others had already instituted some measures as evidenced by the quotes from Stakeholder 3 who commented; ‘In order to encourage young children and cultivate a tourism culture, entrance is free on Thursdays and Fridays for school children.’ Stakeholder 4 talked of ‘reintroduction of tour bus on weekends and VIP tour vans for private hire.’

The use of **Events and Exhibitions** as strategies to market domestic tourism also emerged from the study. Stakeholder 3 stated, 'Exhibitions and events are also used to create publicity e.g. the Nairobi International cultural festival which is held at the museum.' Stakeholder 4 alluded to 'using events for publicity and promoting domestic tourism e.g. local exhibitions, travel expos.

Lastly, the respondents identified the need to improve **quality service delivery** as a strategy to increase participation in domestic tourism. As noted by stakeholder 4;

*'There is need to boost the total visitor experience for the domestic tourist so that they get value for money and time. Interpretation services can be used to improve visitor experience by creating awareness, appreciation and enjoyment of natural/cultural attributes of the park. This includes print media, website, social media and mobile apps. Improvement of signage and interpretation services can allow for self-guiding'.*



## CHAPTER FIVE

### SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### 5.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the summary of findings in response to the study objectives, the conclusions of the study, the recommendations arising from the findings and suggestions for further studies on the subject matter.

#### 5.2 Summary of Findings

##### 5.2.1 Influence of demographic characteristics on tourism participation

The findings of the research confirmed that all the demographic characteristics under the study influenced domestic tourism participation hence were significant attributes to consider for domestic market segmentation. Additionally, out of the seven demographic characteristics, two attributes namely gender and level of education exhibited significant differences across all the cohorts between participants and non-participants. The other five characteristics (namely age, occupation, income, marital status and family life cycle) displayed significant differences across some of their cohorts while others registered no significant difference.

Specifically, for gender, the study findings showed that domestic tourism participation was dependent on gender with more females participating than males. This is consistent with findings by Page & Connell (2020) and Mutinda & Mayaka (2012) who posited that females participated more in domestic tourism than males. The growth of this segment could be attributed to the rise of female-headed households and women empowerment. Contrary to the above, Li *et al.* (2015) opined that in China, males participated more in tourism than females. This difference could be attributed to contrasting socio-cultural backgrounds where in the latter, social norms may be

prohibitive towards exclusive female travel. In such cases, gender in itself becomes a barrier to travel through gender discrimination and gender stereotyping.

The other demographic variable under consideration was education. The findings also showed that domestic tourism participation was dependent on education with participation increasing as level of education increased. These findings are consistent with those by (Richards, 1996; Kotler, 2003; Torkildsen, 2011; Odunga, 2005). Apart from directly influencing one's perspectives, level of awareness, interests, and choice, education in most cases has an impact on one's income and occupation, which are enablers of participation in leisure activities. Thus, the low participation of those with high school education could be attributed to their limited economic ability to afford tourism activities and lack of awareness of the product offers available.

Moving on to age, the study concluded that the youth were participating more in domestic tourism than the older respondents. This implies that the young people were participating more in tourism than the old while the middle-aged displayed no difference between the respondents participating in domestic tourism and those not participating. The cohort aged 31-40 therefore, presents a segment that can be targeted for the conversion of the non-tourists into tourists. These findings concur with those by Solomon (2010) and Hall (2005) signifying the importance of age in determining participation. They are however, contrary to Okello *et al.* (2012) who concluded that participation was independent of age. However, beyond the significance, the results are a pointer to the need to incentivise the older population to participate in domestic tourism by finding out the reasons for their non-participation and offering innovative solutions to overcome them. For instance, Prideaux *et al.* (2001) infers that the older population considers lack of companionship, safety and security concerns, health

concerns and lack of interest as barriers to travel. As opined by Odunga (2010) age not only determines participation but also the nature of products and the level of involvement in tourism activities. Furthermore, this older segment may pose to be more lucrative than the younger market as it comprises of a populace that may be more financially stable hence capable of being high spenders.

Findings on occupation indicated that students and the employed were participating more than the retirees and the self-employed. These findings substantiate sentiments by Li *et al.* (2015) who described the self-employed and retirees as less likely to participate in tourism. Since these two groups have the potential to have both time and income, they also present segments that should be targeted with messages and products that appeal to them.

Participation also seemed to increase with income. This is consistent with various studies that cite income as a significant determinant of participation in domestic tourism (Vanhove, 2018; Manono & Rotich, 2013; Okello *et al.*, 2012). However, there was no significant difference between participants and non-participants for those earning over ksh. 200,000. These findings validate the view that income on its own is not the ultimate determinant of participation in domestic tourism and that those earning more may opt for international tourism instead (Yap, 2010; Magableh & Kharabsheh, 2013; Gardiner *et al.*, 2014). It may also be an indicator of the fact that the current tourism products don't appeal to the high-end market of domestic tourists. There is, therefore, the need to find out the preferences of the local market and offer competitive products offerings. Specifically, there is need to look into special interest tourism products that are customised to deliver unique experiences to this segment as per identified interests and preferences.

The study also revealed significant differences based upon marital status. It was evident from the study that the singles were participating more than the married, divorced and widowed. The singles were participating more than the married, thus the study rejected the null hypothesis ( $H_01$ ) and concluded that there was no similarity in marital status between participants and non-participants for the singles and the married. These results authenticate the opinions of (Geerts, 2017; Mutinda & Mayaka, 2012; Kotler *et al.*, 2002). For the widowed and the divorced, the study failed to reject the null hypothesis ( $H_01$ ) and concluded that there was similarity in marital status between participants and non-participants for these two categories. This segment may be hindered from participating by other constraints such as lack of a companion and financial constraints. It is therefore crucial that tourism product developers and marketers incorporate the social aspects and opportunities for social interactions.

The study further revealed significant differences in the stages in family lifecycle between participants and non- participants for those with no children, those with teenage children and those with adult children still staying at home. Those with no children were participating more while the other two categories were not. The respondents with young children and those with adult children who had left home displayed no significant differences between participants and non- participants. These findings supported those from a study by (Backer & Lynch, 2017) on significant differences between participants and non-participants in domestic tourism for those with no children, those with teenage children and those with adult children still staying at home, while it contradicted the same findings for those with young children and the “empty nesters”. It can, therefore, be extrapolated that families with teenagers and young adults still staying at home participate the least probably due to factors such as reduced discretionary income caused by huge financial commitments towards the

children's educational needs and upkeep as young adults. Since the respondents with young children and the "empty nesters" showed no significant difference between participants and non-participants, these present segments that can be easily targeted. Furthermore, qualitative results showed that there was a gap for destinations with children's activities; which could be explored to provide the allure for this segment.

### **5.2.2 Influence of travel preferences on tourism participation**

From the study findings, it was evident that travel preferences significantly influenced domestic tourism participation. They were also the strongest predictor of domestic tourism participation. This is in tandem with findings from a study by Hsu *et al.* (2009) that concluded that preferences are an important factor that influence the travel decision-making process for potential tourists. Thus, availing of products that cater to these preferences will contribute significantly to increasing participation in domestic tourism. For the participants, it would result in satisfaction with existing products leading to return visits, the desire to try out new products/destinations and word of mouth referrals. For the non-participants, the availability of what they desire may be the "pull" that they require to finally participate in tourism. Furthermore, the results show that travel preferences for domestic tourists and non-tourists are not the same. They differ significantly, hence the need to add variety to the existing domestic product offering. This difference may be the reason behind non-participation as the non-tourists may either be unaware or not able to access their preferred choices amongst the readily available product offerings by the industry (Li *et al.*, 2015). Out of the country's two signature products namely the beach and wildlife (as identified by The World Bank, 2010), the coastal beaches remained a favourite for both sets of respondents. However, game parks and game drives registered as the least preferred amongst the non-participants though it was the second favourite amongst the active domestic tourists.

This preference amongst the participants supports study findings by (Okello *et al.*, 2012). It could be attributed to the current marketing messages which lean strongly towards promoting wildlife tourism.

The reverse trend amongst the non-participants could be due to the restrictive nature of activities that can be carried out in these protected areas compared to a destination like the coast which has a variety of activities (Mutinda & Mayaka, 2012). There is, therefore, a need to integrate the needs of potential tourists into the design of nature-based tourism experiences (Moyle *et al.*, 2017). The non-popularity of game parks as a tourism destination choice for domestic tourism is consistent with findings by Stone & Nyaupane, (2016) who posited that domestic tourists in Botswana did not perceive visiting protected areas as a tourism activity since they interacted with wildlife on a day to day basis. This is further reinforced by Canavan, (2012) who postulated that some activities such as bird watching were not considered to be tourism activities by domestic tourists. The other top preferences for the participants included entertainment facilities and sporting/recreational facilities. In terms of activities, the favourites included dancing/clubbing and shopping. Conversely, the non-participants preferred sporting/recreational facilities, followed by entertainment facilities and then the health and wellness spas. For activities they preferred sight-seeing, participating in sporting/recreational activities and dancing/clubbing. This reinforces the need for additional product offerings and marketing of the same to lure the potential market that is made up of the non-participants. Qualitative data identified the following as preferences for domestic tourism; nature-based destinations, affordable products that offered value for money, new and memorable experiences, fun, product variety, children friendly activities, educational activities and adventure. These findings support the quantitative findings.

In regards to accommodation, both qualitative and quantitative data generally showed a preference for low-cost accommodation. The participants highly favoured lodges/resorts followed by self-service establishments such as cottages/apartments and budget hotels. This is in contrast to non-participants whose most preferred choice was the budget hotels, followed by self-service establishments and then luxury hotels. Thus, both tourists and non-tourists tended to favour low-cost accommodation in the form of budget hotels and self-service establishments. This resonates with qualitative findings and the sentiments by Okello *et al.* (2012) and Kihima (2015) who opined that domestic tourists yearned for affordable accommodation facilities. Bel *et al.* (2014) also supported these findings as their study found that domestic tourists preferred campsites and rural cottages. However, it was evident from the findings that a portion of both participants and non-participants craved high-end accommodation in the form of lodges/resorts and luxury hotels. This could be an opportunity for the industry to provide accommodation as a product offering for fine dining and not only as an accessory for other products. Additionally, since accommodation constitutes a large portion of tourism expenditure Mapelu *et al.* (2013), these facilities could adopt dual pricing based on seasonality and nationality to make it more affordable to the domestic tourist.

### **5.2.3 Influence of motivation on tourism participation**

Cognate to the study findings, it is evident that motivation was a non-significant predictor of domestic tourism participation. Thus, the ultimate decision of whether to participate or not to participate in domestic tourism was dependent on other factors apart from motivation. However, motivation contributed to participation by providing pointers on the nature of products to be developed, constraints that required intervention and the marketing strategies to be used (Kim *et al.*, 2010; Mohammed, 2014 ;Park *et*

*al.*, 2010). As stated by Niemczyk (2013), it is particularly crucial that the marketing strategies emphasize the motives that stimulate behaviour leading to participation in tourism. The relationship between motivation and participation is therefore indirect and is moderated by other factors. For instance, constraints have been found to be a key moderator of motivation for non-participants in tourism (Koziol & Pyrek ,2014)

The study also established that there were significant differences in motivation between the participants and non-participants of domestic tourism, thereby corroborating with the findings by Li *et al.*, (2016). This implies that the two groups are driven by different motives hence require different strategies and products to retain the existing tourists and tap into potential market represented by the non-participants. From the quantitative findings, the highest ranked motivational factors for the participating respondents were the need for fun, new experiences, adventure and rest/relaxation. For the non-participating respondents, they were; fun, rest /relaxation, adventure and favourable costs/discounts/offers. The qualitative findings supported these results by identifying rest/relaxation, bonding, knowledge, fun and the need to get away as domestic tourism motives. Additionally, it incorporated the push from reference groups via peer pressure as a motive. Therefore, in order to sustain participation by the existing market, there is need to incorporate into the current product offering, opportunities for fun, exploration and unique experiences through special interest tourism. It is also critical to develop products that offer value for money and create memorable experiences. Additionally, it is critical to infuse a sense of adventure into products such as wildlife products which may appear “normal” to domestic tourists who may be interacting with them in their daily lives. Additionally, in order to tap into the potential market, there is need to offer affordable products and incentives for the low-end market segments as well as value for money for high end market segments.



The findings also showed that though, generally, there was significant difference between the two groups, three factors namely fun, rest/relaxation and favourable costs/discounts/offers displayed no significant difference despite being highly ranked by both groups. Notably, fun was ranked as the number one motivator by both groups. The quest for rest/relaxation was also ranked favourably by both groups thereby concurring with (Bui & Jolliffe, 2011; Vuuren & Slabbert, 2012; Mohammed, 2014; Ndivo et al., 2017; Özdemir & Çelebi, 2018). Favourable costs/discounts/offers were also well ranked by both groups thereby confirming cost as a significant factor as posited by Mutinda and Mayaka (2012). Thus, both participants and non-participants were pushed by fun and the need to rest/relax and were pulled by favourable costs/discounts/offers. This infers that the domestic tourism product offering needs to incorporate these elements into their product offerings for both groups. For both sets, visiting friends and relatives was ranked very lowly as a motivator for domestic tourism, contrary to findings by (Rodgers, 2004; UNWTO, 2012). Inferring from qualitative data, the idea of a holiday in the Kenyan context comprised of getting away, doing something out of the ordinary, meeting new people and visiting new places. This also resonates with findings on preferences which show that staying with relatives and friends ranked very low. These findings further validate the concept of “anomie” as posited by (Dann, 1977) where people participate in tourism to escape the ordinary and experience new things. Thus, the Kenyan domestic tourists considered the idea of VFR to be more of a social obligation rather than motivation for tourism. Finally, the push factors seemed to score higher as motivators than the pull factors further reinforcing the idea that the former was more significant than the latter in determining tourism participation (Li et al., 2016; Ndivo et al., 2017).

#### **5.2.4 Influence of constraints on tourism participation**

It is evident from the study that both participants and non-participants feel constrained hence supporting the view that constraints do not necessarily lead to non-participation (Hung & Petrick, 2012; Kattiyapornpong & Miller, 2009; Li *et al.*, 2015). Constraints nonetheless affect participation by reducing participation for the current tourists and increasing the likelihood of non-participation for the non-tourists. The results further confirmed previous findings by other scholars that cited lack of free time and income as main constraints to participating in tourism (Gilbert & Hudson, 2000; Li *et al.*, 2016). Notably, in both instances, income did not rate as the number one overall constraint, but rather came second after lack of time for the participating respondents and lack of product variety for the non-participating ones. This is contrary to Okello *et al.* (2012) who postulated that disposable income was the single most important determinant of tourism demand. Thus, more research is required to ascertain other determinants of domestic tourism participation beyond income and constraints in general that strongly influence participation in domestic tourism.

Additionally, the study findings indicate that the constraints facing participants in domestic tourism significantly differ from those facing the non-participants. These results concur with findings by (Hung and Petrick, 2010; Li *et al.*, 2015; Li *et al.*, 2016). Additionally, contrary to what was posited by (Kattiyapornpong & Miller, 2009), the non-participants were more constrained than the participants. Specifically, the most constraining factor for the participating respondents was lack of free time while the lack of variety of products was the strongest barrier for the non-participants. Generally, as per the hierarchical model, the non-participants felt more constrained by intrapersonal factors while the participants were most constrained by structural factors. This agrees with early scholars such as Gilbert and Hudson (2000) who argued that

though both groups were constrained by structural factors in the form of economic issues and time, the non-participants faced more intrapersonal constraints. Consequently, participants and non-participants of domestic tourism should be treated as heterogeneous groups that require different strategies to enhance participation. This implies that there is need to come up with distinct strategies to deal with structural constraints (lack of free time, income and inaccessible destinations) for current domestic tourists and intrapersonal constraints (lack of personal transport, lack of travel culture and lack of knowledge on where to go) together with lack of product variety for the non-tourists. The qualitative findings supported the quantitative results by identifying lack of product variety, cost of products, perception that tourism is for foreigners, poor accessibility, lack of disposable income and lack of awareness as barriers to domestic tourism participation. Additionally, the findings also revealed poor services, unsatisfactory experiences and bias towards the international market as constraints against domestic tourism participation.

For the current tourists, the time constraint implies that domestic tourism offerings need to be designed to align to the available free time such as public, school and religious holidays, incentive packages during employee leave days, and weekends among others. Additionally, there is also a need to package the products in such a way that the needs of people with family commitments such as young children are met. This would be in response to the constraints on family commitments which were also strongly cited in both quantitative and qualitative findings. Other key constraints for participants were lack of personal transport and inaccessible destinations. Thus, transport should be a key consideration when designing packages to cater for those without suitable transport. It is crucial to note that in some of the nature-based destinations, the vehicle needs to be a four-wheel-drive car permitted colours hence eliminating the use of regular family

cars which may not be able to access these destinations (Stone and Stone, 2017). While it may not always be possible to manipulate structural constraints, it is possible to design products that reduce the perception of being constrained (Hung and Petrick, 2012). This principle could be applied to the existing tourists by ensuring they get value for money and go away with a memorable experience which came out strongly in in qualitative data. It is this experience that will guarantee repeat guests and increase participation despite the existence of constraints.

The most constraining factor cited by the non-participating respondents was lack of variety in tourism activities, an attribute that was also strongly supported by qualitative data. This implies that the current product offering as it stands does not meet the needs of the potential domestic tourist market that the industry seeks to harness. This correlated with lack of family-oriented activities which also came out strongly for this group and also through qualitative data. These findings support those of studies by Kihima, 2015; Morupisi and Mokgalo, 2017; Ndivo *et al.*, 2012; Okello *et al.*, 2012; Stone & Stone (2017), The National Department of Tourism (2012), Wang & Chen (2013), Thus, in order to lure the potential domestic tourists, there is need to not only diversify the existing product offering but to ensure that it is tailored to meet the needs of the domestic market. This calls for continuous research on the product preferences for this group. Furthermore, it would be pragmatic to segment the market in order to facilitate optimal positioning of niche products that meet specific needs. Potential segments include families, social groups such as alumni associations and women groups, religious groups, educational institutions, corporate institutions, government, upcoming professionals, and retirees.

Besides lack of product variety, the most constraining intrapersonal constraints for the non-participants was lack of personal transport. This is in tandem with findings by (Kruger & Douglas, 2015; Magableh & Kharabsheh, 2013; Mutinda & Mayaka, 2012; Stone & Stone, 2017) who cited the same as a constraint to domestic tourism participation. As recommended for the existing tourist, stakeholders targeting potential tourists should treat transport as a key consideration when designing packages for this group. Lack of travel culture as postulated by (Manono & Rotich, 2013; Morupisi & Mokgalo, 2017; Mazimhaka, 2007; Stone & Stone, 2017) was also strongly cited as an intrapersonal constraint. This portends that travel culture and more significantly a saving culture for holidays should be instilled from an early age through avenues such as learning institutions and religious forums. Incentive travel at the workplace as part of motivation packages can also help to inculcate this culture. As postulated by Nyaupane & Andereck (2007), intrapersonal constraints require strategies geared towards attitude change which are not often captured by regular place marketing. Lack of knowledge of where to go was also cited as another major constraint as also posited by (Magableh & Kharabsheh, 2013; Mazimhaka, 2007; Mutinda & Mayaka, 2012 ). This could be mitigated by targeted marketing using the segments developed above. The approach would ensure that the marketing messages not only highlight the various destinations and niche products available but that they are also availed via various media suitable for specific niches.

### **5.3 Conclusion**

From the deliberations above, it is evident that demographic characteristics significantly influence domestic tourism participation. Additionally, these characteristics displayed a mixture of both significant and non-significant differences between participants and non-participants. The implication of those that registered

significant difference is that the non-participants under the attributes may be more affected by factors other than demographics such as preferences, motivation and constraints hence the substantial variance. On the contrary, the segments that registered no significant difference denote a thin line between the participants and non-participants hence presenting an easier target for conversion from potential to active domestic tourists. These differences are very useful in segmentation of the domestic tourism market based upon demographic profiling. They can be used to identify the most viable segments for conversion from non-participation to participation in domestic tourism. The segments as identified from the study are; Age (31-40), Occupation (students and retirees), Income (those earning Ksh.200,000-300,000 and above 300,000), marital status (the widowed and divorced) and family life cycle (those with young children and empty-nesters).

It is also prudent to conclude that tourism preferences (which manifest in the form of tourism products) significantly influence domestic tourism participation and are the strongest predictor of participation. It is also evident that preferences of domestic tourist participants differ significantly from those of non-participants. Thus, the current product offering does not appeal wholesomely to the potential market made of non-tourists. The Kenyan domestic tourist seems to be fun-oriented and biased towards activities that require social interaction with others be it, family or friends such as sports and entertainment. They are also seeking variety within one destination, affordable products and opportunities to create memorable experiences.

The study also concluded that motivation was not a significant determinant of participation. However, it seemed to tie in with the other independent variables such as preferences. The need to have fun, adventure, bond with significant others, get away,

relax and rejuvenate, all inform the nature of products that would satisfy the domestic tourist. Product development strategies and marketing activities need to capture and communicate these elements. The findings also indicate that the motivation for those participating in domestic tourism differs significantly from those of the non-participants. The former seemed to be motivated mainly by the need to get away and have new experiences while the latter were motivated by favourable costs and discounts.

Concerning constraints, the study concluded that they significantly influenced domestic tourism participation. Additionally, the constraints affecting the participating respondents differed significantly from those affecting the non-participating ones. It was further noted that both sets of respondents were constrained with the non-participating ones being more inhibited than the participating ones. This clearly shows that constraints can be negotiated or circumvented to still result in participation. Sometimes this may not require total elimination of constraints but rather communication and delivery of experiences that will motivate a person to participate in spite of barriers. The participating respondents were mainly constrained by structural barriers such as time and money while the non-participating ones were constrained both by structural constraints in the form of lack of product variety and intrapersonal barriers such as lack of travel culture and knowledge of where to go.

The study therefore construed that while demographic characteristics, preferences and motivation influenced domestic tourism participation, motivation did not. It was also apparent that since the participants and non-participants exhibited differences in the attributes, it was necessary to use different strategies to retain the existing domestic market and attract the potential one.

#### **5.4 Recommendations**

In view of the study findings, the following recommendations are made to policy makers/planners, the industry and researchers;

- i. In reference to the influence of demographic characteristics on domestic tourism participation, it is critical for the industry to segment the domestic market based upon demographic profiling. Additionally, for the participating respondents, it is imperative to pay attention to both high end and low- end markets. For high end communicate value for money and memorable, unique experiences. For low end communicate affordability and incentives. For the non-participating respondents, it is essential to target the solo older traveller segment to cater for the retirees, empty nesters, the single survivor (widowed or the divorced). Another target group is those with young children and those within the 31-40 years age group who may need a product mix that caters for both individual needs of the adults and those of the young children. There is also need to develop high-end, memorable and unique products that appeal to clients falling with income above 200,000 income. Lastly there is need for policy makers and industry to incentivise the self- employed and the senior citizens to take up domestic tourism. Some of these have flexible schedules and more disposable income than their counterparts hence could prove to be a lucrative segment too.
- ii. In terms of the influence of travel preferences on domestic tourism participation, it is prudent to diversify the product offering to include sports, recreation, entertainment, health, and wellness in order to attract non-participants. This could be done through product bundling which involves combining attractions and activities within a destination to increase their



competitiveness across the various segments. There is also need to diversify the marketing message away from the signature beach and wildlife products targeting the non-tourists in order to raise awareness on the range of available product options. For the participating respondents, there is need to position accommodation as a distinct product offering for fine dining as opposed to merely being an accessory for other products. There is also need to introduce niche activities based upon identified preferences for this group. These should be incorporated into the traditional wildlife product to supplement game viewing. They include entertainment activities, socially interactive activities and family-friendly activities.

- iii. Though motivation did not have significant influence on domestic tourism participation, it informs product preference. The study therefore recommends that industry strives to incorporate fun, adventure, rest and relaxation into tourism products. Specifically, for the existing market, efforts should be made to create products that offer value for money, out of the ordinary experiences, novelty and memorable experiences. In order to lure the non-participating populace, the industry should strive to provide affordable products and increase promotional efforts through information sharing and discounts/offers.
- iv. With regards to constraints the study recommends that industry, planners and policy makers formulate strategies to mitigate lack of free time, income and inaccessible destinations in order to retain the current domestic tourists. There is also need to intervene against lack of product variety including children's activities and family-oriented activities, lack of personal transport, lack of travel culture and lack of knowledge on where to go for the non-participants. For instance, transport should be prioritised by industry as a key consideration when

designing domestic tourism packages. Policy makers can also instil travel culture by promoting incentive travel as part of workplace motivational strategies.

#### **5.4.1 Implications to theory and practice**

From a theoretical perspective, this study contributes to knowledge on the determinants of domestic tourism participation from the perspective of participants and non-participants. It not only sheds light on the relationship between demographic characteristics, travel preferences, motivation and constraints, and domestic tourism participation and non-participation; but also compares how the variables vary between the participants and non-participants. In so doing of participants, it brings out the gaps in literature on domestic tourism participation and non-participation. The study also validates existing studies on determinants of domestic tourism participation and non-participation. From a practical, the findings of this study are key in providing guidance to industry, planners and policy makers on how to retain the existing domestic tourism market and how to attract the potential market made of non-participants.

#### **5.5 Suggestions for Further Studies**

The study has various limitations that could inform future research in domestic tourism participation. Firstly, the study was limited to Nairobi City County hence leaving out domestic tourism participants and non-participants from other parts of Kenya. Future studies could target a wider scope to incorporate other regions and subsequently other types of products apart from urban tourism products that were captured here. Secondly, the variables selected to investigate the determinants of domestic tourism participation were limited to four. Future studies can expand this to look at other variables beyond demographic characteristics, travel preferences, motivation and constraints. Thirdly,

future studies should therefore, incorporate more qualitative approaches so as to gain in-depth meaning and deeper nuances of determinants of participation. Lastly, future studies should expand the target population to include expatriates living in Kenya as part of the domestic tourism market.

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## APPENDICES

### Appendix 1: Questionnaire for participating respondents

#### SECTION A –DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS

1. Age
 

18 – 30	<input type="checkbox"/>
31 – 40	<input type="checkbox"/>
41 – 50	<input type="checkbox"/>
50 -60	<input type="checkbox"/>
Above 60	<input type="checkbox"/>
  
2. Sex (Tick as appropriate)
 

Male	<input type="checkbox"/>	Female	<input type="checkbox"/>
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3. Highest level of education attained (Tick as appropriate)
 

High school	<input type="checkbox"/>
Diploma	<input type="checkbox"/>
Undergraduate	<input type="checkbox"/>
Masters	<input type="checkbox"/>
PHD	<input type="checkbox"/>
  
4. Occupation (Specify)
 

Student	<input type="checkbox"/>
Self employed	<input type="checkbox"/>
Employed	<input type="checkbox"/>
Retired	<input type="checkbox"/>
  
5. Monthly income in Ksh.
 

Below 50,000	<input type="checkbox"/>
Between 50,000 to 100,000	<input type="checkbox"/>
Between 100,000 to 200,000	<input type="checkbox"/>
Between 200,000 to 300,000	<input type="checkbox"/>
Above 300,000	<input type="checkbox"/>
  
6. Marital Status
 

Single	<input type="checkbox"/>
Married	<input type="checkbox"/>
Widowed	<input type="checkbox"/>
Divorced/Separated	<input type="checkbox"/>
  
7. Stage in family lifecycle
 

No children	<input type="checkbox"/>
Young children from age 0 to 12 years	<input type="checkbox"/>
Teenage children from age 13 to 19 years	<input type="checkbox"/>
Adult children still dependent, above 20	<input type="checkbox"/>
Children left home	<input type="checkbox"/>

#### SECTION B PREFERENCES FOR DOMESTIC TOURISM

Kindly rate the following items on a scale of 1 to 5 (where 1 is not preferred, 2 is least preferred, 3 is fairly preferred, 4 is preferred and 5 is most preferred).

8. How would you rate the following as domestic tourism attractions?

<b>Factor</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
Coastal beaches					
National parks and game reserves					
Cultural/historical site					
Sporting /Recreational facilities					
Spectacular landscapes					
Health and wellness spas					
Entertainment facilities					

9. How would you rate the following options as activities to engage in while on holiday?

<b>Factor</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
Game drive					
Sightseeing					
Sporting /recreational activities					
Relaxing on the beach					
Visiting friends and relatives					
Pampering / meditation					
Shopping					
Exploring cultural/heritage sites					
Wining and dining					
Dancing/clubbing/nightlife					

10. How would you rate the following facilities as accommodation options to use while travelling for domestic tourism?

<b>Factor</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
Luxury/ High-cost hotels					
Budget hotels / guest houses					
Game Lodges/Resorts					
Villa/cottages/self-service apartments					
Staying with friends and relatives					

### SECTION C MOTIVATION FOR DOMESTIC TOURISM

11. How would you rate the following as the reason for participating in domestic tourism, in terms of significance on a scale of 1 to 5 where 1 is totally insignificant, 2 is insignificant, 3 is fairly insignificant, 4 is significant and 5 is very significant.

<b>Factor</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
Fun					
Relaxation and rest					
Visiting friends/relatives					
New experiences/exploring					
Meeting new people					
Attractive destination					
Great weather					
Favourable cost/discounts/offers					

Impressing significant others					
Family Bonding					
Spirituality and Health					
Adventure and excitement					
Improve status amongst peers/prestige					
Indulge in luxury/pampering					
Gain knowledge					

#### D CONSTRAINTS OF DOMESTIC TOURISM

12. How would you rate the likelihood of the following factors hindering your travel for leisure to destinations within Kenya, where 1 is very unlikely, 2 is unlikely, 3 is neutral, 4 is likely and 5 is most likely.

Factor	1	2	3	4	5
Lack of free time					
Lack of travel companion					
Lack of family commitments					
Poor health					
Lack of knowledge on where to go					
Safety and security concerns					
Lack of income					
Poor quality of services/facilities					
Lack of variety of activities at destination					
Lack of family/children-oriented activities at destination					
Lack of personal transport					
Perception that tourism is not for me/is a luxury					
Poor accessibility/too far					
Lack of travel culture/interest					
Fear of the unknown					
Weather conditions					
Better options abroad					
Previous bad experiences					
Overcrowded destinations					
Disability					

#### SECTION E TOURISM PARTICIPATION AND NON-PARTICIPATION

13. Kindly select the statement that best describes your domestic tourism participation behaviour.

I have participated in domestic tourism (participant)

I have not participated in domestic tourism (non-participant)

**Thank you for your time**

## Appendix 2: Questionnaire for non-participating respondents

### PREQUALIFICATION FOR NON-PARTICIPATING RESPONDENTS

a) Reason for being at the shopping centre.....

If the reason for being at the shopping centre is not leisure related, proceed to question (b)

b) Have you participated in domestic tourism in the last five years?

Yes  No

If yes, drop out of study, if No, proceed to section A.

### SECTION A –DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS

1. Age

- 18 – 30   
 31 - 40   
 41 - 50   
 50 -60   
 Above 60

2. Sex (Tick as appropriate)

Male  Female

3. Highest level of education attained (Tick as appropriate)

- High school   
 Diploma   
 Undergraduate   
 Masters   
 PHD

4. Occupation (Specify)

- Student   
 Self employed   
 Employed   
 Retired

5. Monthly income in Ksh.

- Below 50,000   
 Between 50,000 to 100,000   
 Between 100,000 to 200,000   
 Between 200,000 to 300,000   
 Above 300,000

6. Marital Status

- Single   
 Married   
 Widowed   
 Divorced/Separated

7. Stage in family lifecycle

- No children   
 Young children from age 0 to 12 years   
 Teenage children from age 13 to 19 years

Adult children still dependent, above 20   
 Children left home

## SECTION B PREFERENCES FOR DOMESTIC TOURISM

Kindly rate the following items on a scale of 1 to 5 (where 1 is not preferred, 2 is least preferred, 3 is fairly preferred, 4 is preferred and 5 is most preferred).

8. How would you rate the following as domestic tourism attractions?

Factor	1	2	3	4	5
Coastal beaches					
National parks and game reserves					
Cultural/historical site					
Sporting /Recreational facilities					
Spectacular landscapes					
Health and wellness spas					
Entertainment facilities					

9. How would you rate the following options as activities to engage in while on holiday?

Factor	1	2	3	4	5
Game drive					
Sightseeing					
Sporting /recreational activities					
Relaxing on the beach					
Visiting friends and relatives					
Pampering / meditation					
Shopping					
Exploring cultural/heritage sites					
Wining and dining					
Dancing/clubbing/nightlife					

10. How would you rate the following facilities as accommodation options to use while travelling for domestic tourism?

Factor	1	2	3	4	5
Luxury/ High-cost hotels					
Budget hotels / guest houses					
Game Lodges/Resorts					
Villa/cottages/self-service apartments					
Staying with friends and relatives					

### SECTION C MOTIVATION FOR DOMESTIC TOURISM

11. How would you rate the following as the reason for participating in domestic tourism, in terms of significance on a scale of 1 to 5 where 1 is totally insignificant, 2 is insignificant, 3 is fairly insignificant, 4 is significant and 5 is very significant.

Factor	1	2	3	4	5
Fun					
Relaxation and rest					
Visiting friends/relatives					
New experiences/exploring					
Meeting new people					
Attractive destination					
Great weather					
Favourable cost/discounts/offers					
Impressing significant others					
Family Bonding					
Spirituality and Health					
Adventure and excitement					
Improve status amongst peers/prestige					
Indulge in luxury/pampering					
Gain knowledge					

### D CONSTRAINTS OF DOMESTIC TOURISM

12. How would you rate the likelihood of the following factors hindering your travel for leisure to destinations within Kenya, where 1 is very unlikely, 2 is unlikely, 3 is neutral, 4 is likely and 5 is most likely.

Factor	1	2	3	4	5
Lack of free time					
Lack of travel companion					
Lack of family commitments					
Poor health					
Lack of knowledge on where to go					
Safety and security concerns					
Lack of income					
Poor quality of services/facilities					
Lack of variety of activities at destination					
Lack of family/children-oriented activities at destination					
Lack of personal transport					
Perception that tourism is not for me/is a luxury					
Poor accessibility/too far					
Lack of travel culture/interest					
Fear of the unknown					
Weather conditions					
Better options abroad					

Previous bad experiences					
Overcrowded destinations					
Disability					

**SECTION E TOURISM PARTICIPATION AND NON-PARTICIPATION**

13. Kindly select the statement that best describes your domestic tourism participation behaviour.

I have participated in domestic tourism (participant)

I have not participated in domestic tourism (non-participant)

**Thank you for your time**



### **Appendix 3: Interview schedule for domestic tourism stakeholders**

Thank you for your time to participate in this research. The purpose of this study is to analyse the determinants of participation in domestic tourism by residents of Nairobi City County. The resulting information will be used purely for academic purposes hence confidentiality is of paramount significance and shall be upheld so by the researcher.

#### **SECTION A- GENERAL INFORMATION**

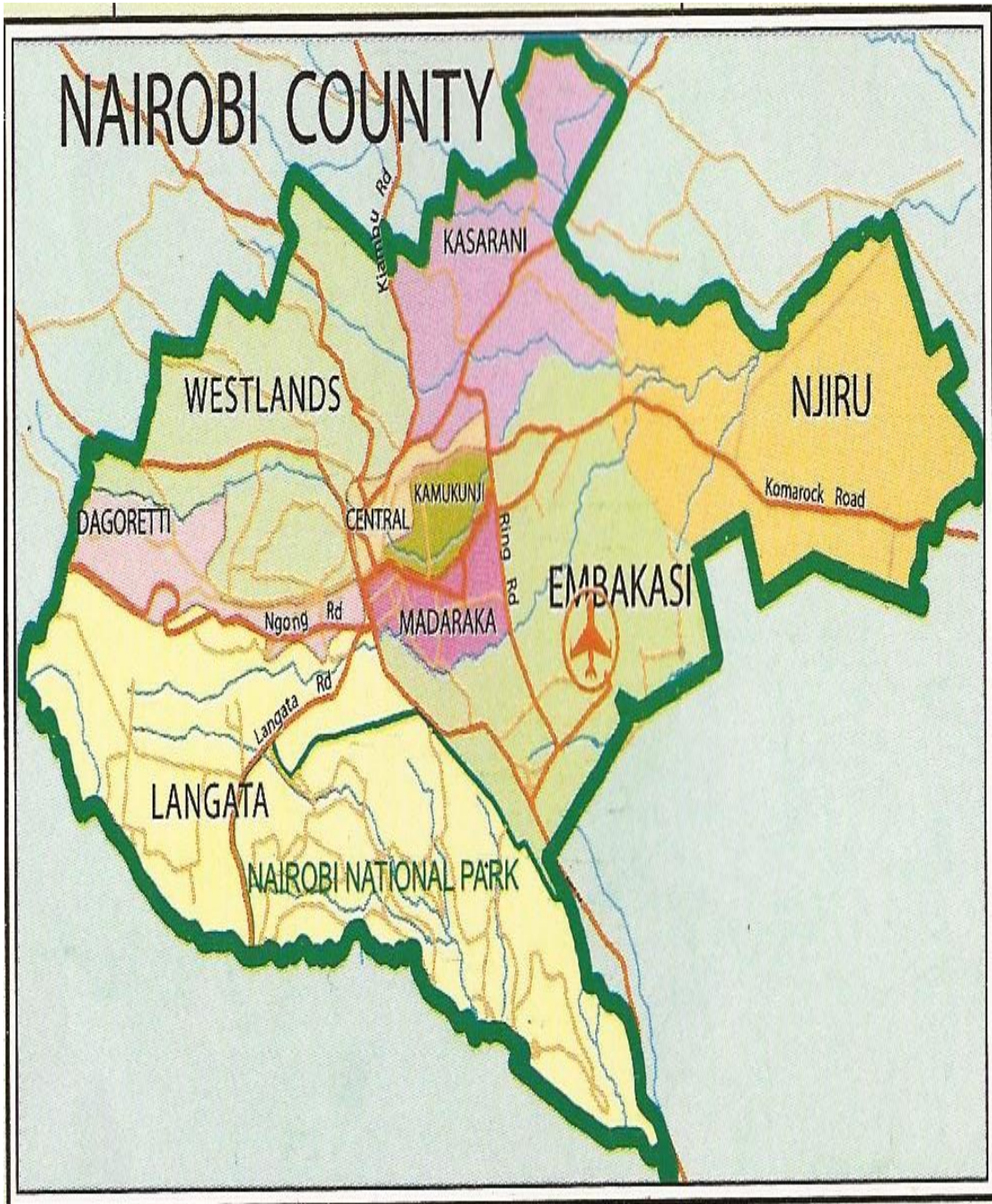
1. Name of the stakeholder institution
2. The role played by organization in domestic tourism
3. Designation of key informant

#### **SECTION B- STUDY VARIABLES**

4. What are the preferences of domestic tourism participation?
5. What is the motivation for domestic tourism participation?
6. What are the constraints affecting domestic tourism participation?
7. What strategies have been put in place to attract/ market domestic tourism in Kenya?

**Thank You**

**Appendix 4: Nairobi City County Map**



**Appendix 5: Nairobi City County administrative units**

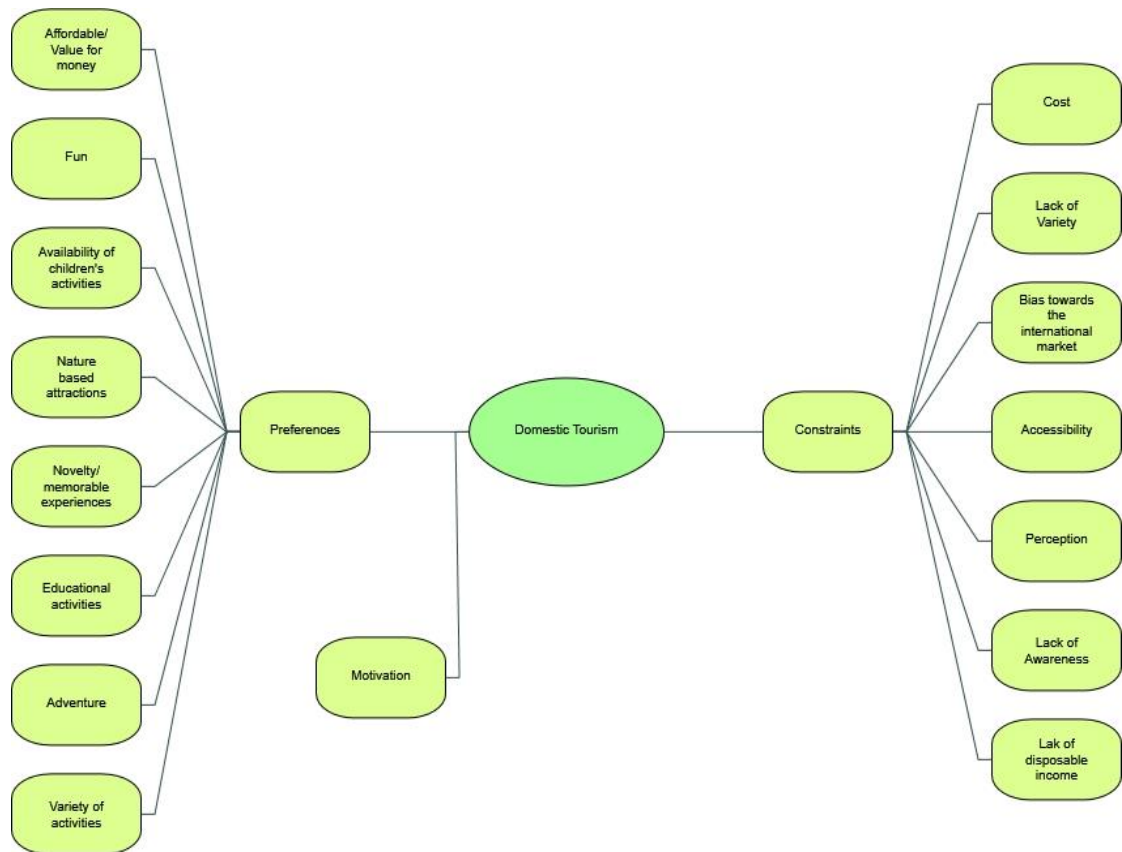
<b>Constituency Number</b>	<b>Constituency Name</b>	<b>Wards</b>
<b>0274</b>	<b>Westlands</b>	<b>Kitsuru, Parklands/Highridge, Karura, Kangemi, Mountain View (5)</b>
0275	Dagoretti North	Kilimani, Kawangware, Gatina, Kileleshwa, Kabiro (5)
0276	Dagoretti South	Mutuini, Ngando, Riruta, Uthiru/Ruthimitu, Waithaka (5)
<b>0277</b>	<b>Lang'ata</b>	<b>Karen, Nairobi West, Mugumoini, South C, Nyayo Highrise (5)</b>
0278	Kibra	Laini Saba, Lindi, Makina, Woodley/Kenyatta Golf Corse, Sarang'ombe (5)
0279	Roysambu	Githurai, Kahawa West, Zimmerman, Roysambu, Kahawa (5)
0280	Kasarani	Clay city, Mwiki, Kasarani, Njiru, Ruai (5)
0281	Ruaraka	Babadogo, Utalii, Mathare North, Lucky Summer, Korogocho (5)
0282	Embakassi South	Imara Daima, Kwa Njenga, Kwa Reuben, Pipeline, Kware (5)
0283	Embakassi North	Kariobangi North, Dandora Area I, Dandora Area II, Dandora Area III, Dandora Area IV (5)
0284	Embakassi Central	Kayole North, Kayole Central, Kayole South, Komarock, Matopeni/Spring valley (5)
0285	Embakassi East	Upper Savanna, Lower Savanna, Embakassi, Utawala, Mihango (5)
0286	Embakassi West	Umoja I, Umoja II, Mowlem, Kariobangi South (4)
0287	Makadara	Maringo/Hamza, Viwandani, Harambee, Makongeni (4)
0288	Kamukunji	Pumwani, Eastleigh North, Eastleigh South, Airbase, California (5)
0289	Starehe	Nairobi Central, Ngara, Pangani, Ziwani/Kariokor, Landimawe, Nairobi South (6)
0290	Mathare	Hospital, Mabatini, Huruma, Ngei, Mlango Kubwa, Kiamaiko(6)

## Appendix 6 : Qualitative analysis codebook

Name	Description	Stakeholders	References	Total
<b>Constraints</b>	<b>Challenges affecting participation in domestic tourism</b>			
Accessibility	Availability of transportation, and ease of navigation to and within the tourist destination	2	3	6
Bias towards the international market	Nature of products, service delivery, training and marketing leaning towards the inbound tourists hence not meeting needs of the domestic tourist	2	7	14
Cost of tourism products	The tourism product is not affordable to most domestic tourists who view it as expensive	4	7	28
Lack of awareness, knowledge	People do not know the range of products/activities available and how to access them	1	2	2
Lack of disposable income	Lack of discretionary income to use for tourism after meeting the obligatory expenses	1	3	3
Lack of variety	The range of tourism products are limited hence not meeting everyone's preferences	4	9	36
Perception	The view that tourism is for foreigners	2	4	8
Quality of service and experience	Poor quality of service, unsatisfactory experiences	4	13	52
<b>Motivation and Marketing strategies</b>	<b>Motivation for domestic tourism and strategies used to motivate people to participate in domestic tourism</b>			
Marketing Strategies	Promotional activities to attract more people to participate in domestic tourism	4	7	28
Motivation	The push and pull factors driving participation in domestic tourism	3	8	24

Name	Description	Stakeholders	References	Total
<b>Preferences</b>	<b>Domestic tourism preferences</b>			
Adventure	Love for destinations that offer excitement, thrill, out of the norm kind of activities	2	4	8
Affordable, value for money	Destinations that are either affordable or even if pricey, they offer value for money	4	11	44
Children's activities	Activities that appeal and are suitable for children accompanying their parents as domestic tourists	3	8	24
Educational	Destination or activities that offer opportunities to increase knowledge in various areas	2	10	20
Fun	Destinations that offer recreation activities, entertainment and other enjoyable/amusing activities.	3	9	27
Nature based destinations	Destination whose main attractions are based on flora and fauna eg a national park	4	13	52
Novelty, memorable experiences	Out of the ordinary, unusual, impressionable experiences that linger in one's mind, creates wonderful memories	4	7	28
Variety of Activities	Love for multiple activities within a destination as opposed to a single activity	3	6	18

## Appendix 7: Thematic Map



## Appendix 8: Research authorization documents

### i) Moi University



**MOI UNIVERSITY  
SCHOOL OF TOURISM, HOSPITALITY AND EVENTS MANAGEMENT  
DEPARTMENT OF TOURISM MANAGEMENT**

Telephone: 0790 850 990/0208001263  
Fax No. (053) 43047  
Telex No. **MOIVARSITY** 35047  
Email: [mudot@mu.ac.ke](mailto:mudot@mu.ac.ke)

Box 3900  
**ELDORET**  
Kenya

Our Ref: MU/TC/TOU/DPHIL/89

6<sup>th</sup> June 2017

The Executive Secretary  
National Commission for Science  
Technology and Innovation  
P O Box 30623 - 00100  
**NAIROBI**

Dear Sir/Madam

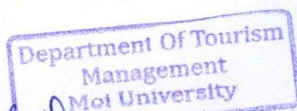
**RE: APPLICATION FOR A RESEARCH PERMIT  
CATHERINE MUYAMA KIFWORO – STHE/DPHIL/TOU/002/15**

Reference is made to the above named who is applying to the National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation for a Research Permit.

Ms. Kifworo is a student at Moi University undertaking a Doctor of Philosophy (Ph. D) degree in Tourism Management in the School of Tourism, Hospitality and Events Management. She has completed defending her Research Proposal titled "*Determinants of Participation in Domestic Tourism amongst residents of Nairobi County.*"

Any assistance accorded to her will be highly appreciated by this institution.

Yours faithfully




**DR. BEATRICE IMBAYA  
HEAD, DEPARTMENT OF TOURISM MANAGEMENT**

Bl/wra

ii) **NACOSTI permit**

**THIS IS TO CERTIFY THAT:** **Permit No : NACOSTI/P/17/67601/18522**  
**MS. CATHERINE MUYAMA KIFWORO** **Date Of Issue : 22nd August, 2017**  
**of MOI UNIVERSITY, 0-100 NAROK, has** **Fee Received :Ksh 2000**  
**been permitted to conduct research in**  
**Nairobi County**  
**on the topic: DETERMINANTS OF**  
**PARTICIPATION IN DOMESTIC TOURISM**  
**AMONGST RESIDENTS OF NAIROBI**  
**COUNTY KENYA**  
**for the period ending:**  
**17th August, 2018**



*[Handwritten Signature]*  
**Applicant's Signature**

*[Handwritten Signature]*  
**Director General**  
**National Commission for Science, Technology & Innovation**



## iii) NACOSTI letter



**NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR SCIENCE,  
TECHNOLOGY AND INNOVATION**

Telephone: +254-20-2213471,  
2241349, 3310571, 2219420  
Fax: +254-20-318245, 318249  
Email: [dg@nacosti.go.ke](mailto:dg@nacosti.go.ke)  
Website: [www.nacosti.go.ke](http://www.nacosti.go.ke)  
When replying please quote

9<sup>th</sup> Floor, Utalii House  
Uhuru Highway  
P.O. Box 30623-00100  
NAIROBI-KENYA

Ref. No. **NACOSTI/P/17/67601/18522**

Date: **22<sup>nd</sup> August, 2017**

Catherine Muyama Kifworo  
Moi University  
P.O. Box 3900-30100  
**ELDORET.**

**RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION**

Following your application for authority to carry out research on "*Determinants of participation in domestic tourism amongst residents of Nairobi County, Kenya,*" I am pleased to inform you that you have been authorized to undertake research in **Nairobi County** for the period ending **17<sup>th</sup> August, 2018.**

You are advised to report to **the County Commissioner and the County Director of Education, Nairobi County** before embarking on the research project.

Kindly note that, as an applicant who has been licensed under the Science, Technology and Innovation Act, 2013 to conduct research in Kenya, you shall deposit a **copy** of the final research report to the Commission within **one year** of completion. The soft copy of the same should be submitted through the Online Research Information System.

**GODFREY P. KALERWA MSc., MBA, MKIM  
FOR: DIRECTOR-GENERAL/CEO**

Copy to:

The County Commissioner  
Nairobi County.

**COUNTY COMMISSIONER  
NAIROBI COUNTY  
P. O. Box 30124-00100, NBI  
TEL: 341666**

The County Director of Education  
Nairobi County

iv) **Ministry of Education, Nairobi****STATE DEPARTMENT OF BASIC EDUCATION**

Telegrams: "SCHOOLING", Nairobi  
 Telephone: Nairobi 020 2453699  
 Email: [rcenairobi@gmail.com](mailto:rcenairobi@gmail.com)  
[cdenairobi@gmail.com](mailto:cdenairobi@gmail.com)

REGIONAL COORDINATOR OF EDUCATION  
 NAIROBI REGION  
 NYAYO HOUSE  
 P.O. Box 74629 – 00200  
 NAIROBI

When replying please quote

Ref: **RCE/NRB/GEN/VOL.1**

DATE: **7<sup>th</sup> September, 2017**

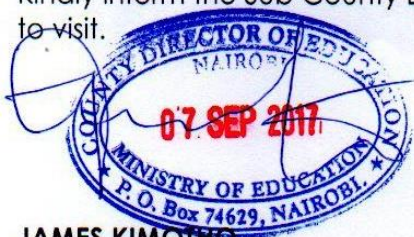
Catherine Muyama Kifworo  
 Moi University  
 P O Box 3900-30100  
**NAIROBI**

**RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION**

We are in receipt of a letter from the National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation regarding research authorization in Nairobi County on "**Determinants of participation in domestic tourism amongst residents of Nairobi County, Kenya,**"

This office has no objection and authority is hereby granted for a period ending 17<sup>th</sup> August, 2018 as indicated in the request letter.

Kindly inform the Sub County Director of Education of the Sub County you intend to visit.




**JAMES KIMOTHO**  
**FOR: REGIONAL COORDINATOR OF EDUCATION**  
**NAIROBI**

c.c.

Director General/CEO  
 Nation Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation  
**NAIROBI**

## v) Giraffe Centre



**AFRICAN  
FUND for  
ENDANGERED  
WILDLIFE  
(KENYA) LTD.  
BY GUARANTEE**

---

**GIRAFFE CENTRE** 19<sup>th</sup> September 2017,

**P. O. Box:** 16124 - 00100 Langata  
Nairobi, Kenya. **Ms. Catherine Muyama Kifworo**  
**Moi University**  
**P. O. Box 3900-30100**  
**Nairobi, Kenya**

**Tel:** +254 - 020 - 3271804

**Cable:** +254 - 711 - 286100  
+254 - 714 - 890002

**E-Mail / Weibaker:** info@giraffecentre.org  
www.giraffecentre.org

Dear Ms. Kifworo,

**RE: CONSENT TO COLLECT DATA FROM AFEW KENYA – GIRAFFE CENTRE**  
**CATHERINE MUYAMA KIFWORO: PHD – RESEARCH ON DOMESTIC TOURISM**

We refer to your letter dated 16<sup>th</sup> September 2017, requesting for permission to collect data at the Giraffe Centre on the following dates;

- 23<sup>rd</sup> September 2017
- 24<sup>th</sup> September 2017
- 30<sup>th</sup> September 2017 and
- 1<sup>st</sup> October 2017.

We confirm our consent for the same and for the said dates, within the organizations' normal operating hours.

We further request that your research assistants Ms. Stacy Kifworo and Mr. Dennis Wamalwa and yourself who will be at the Giraffe Centre, wear name tags with their names and title research assistant, to help identify who they are.

**Yours Faithfully**  
**For African Fund For Endangered Wildlife Kenya Ltd.**  
*Christine O. Nyangaya*  
**Mrs. Christine O. Nyangaya**  
**Chief Executive Officer**

---

Directors: Mr. J. Oduor (Chairman), Mr. P. Anderson, Dr. IM. Ali, Mr. R. Mutisi-Wall, Mr. J.M. Mugambi, Ms. B. Mbachu, Ms. J. Kicher-Gona  
A.F.E.W. - Another way of saying endangered.

## vi) Kenya Wildlife Service



ISO 9001:2008 Certified

KWS/BRM/5001

17 July 2017

Ms Catherine Muyama Kifworo  
 School of Tourism, Hospitality & Events Mgt.  
 Dept. of Tourism Management  
 Moi University  
 P.O.Box 3900  
**ELDORET**  
 e-mail: [ckifworo@gmail.com](mailto:ckifworo@gmail.com)

Dear *Ms. Kifworo,***PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN NAIROBI NATIONAL PARK**

We acknowledge receipt of your application requesting for permission to conduct research on a project titled: **'Determination of participation in domestic tourism among residents of Nairobi County'**. The study will generate data and information on domestic tourism in Nairobi National Park.

We are pleased to inform you that your request has been accepted and that you have been granted permission to conduct the study from **July – October 2017** upon payment to KWS academic research fees of **ksh.1,200** (data collection). However, you will abide by the set KWS regulations and guidelines regarding acquisition and dissemination of information and that the information acquired will be used for research and education purposes only. You will distribute the validated research questionnaires to the officers listed below for administration.

You will submit a bound copy of your PhD thesis to the KWS Deputy Director, Biodiversity Research and Monitoring on completion of the study.


Yours *sincerely,*

**SAMUEL M. KASIKI, PhD, OGW**  
**DEPUTY DIRECTOR**  
**BIODIVERSITY RESEARCH AND MONITORING**

Copy to:

- Business Development Manager
- Senior Warden, Nairobi N. Park
- Training Development Manager
- Senior Scientist, SCA

vii) Nairobi National Museum



**NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR SCIENCE,  
TECHNOLOGY AND INNOVATION**

Telephone: +254-20-2213471, 2241349, 2210571, 2219420 Fax: +254-20-218245, 318249 Email: dg@nacosti.go.ke Website: www.nacosti.go.ke When replying please quote	9 <sup>th</sup> Floor, Uhuru House Uhuru Highway P.O. Box 39623-00100 NAIROBI-KENYA
--	--

Ref. No: **NACOSTI/P/17/67601/18522** Date: **22<sup>nd</sup> August, 2017**

Catherine Muyama Kifworo  
 Moi University  
 P.O. Box 3900-30100  
**ELDORET.**

**RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION**

Following your application for authority to carry out research on *“Determinants of participation in domestic tourism amongst residents of Nairobi County, Kenya.”* I am pleased to inform you that you have been authorized to undertake research in **Nairobi County** for the period ending **17<sup>th</sup> August, 2018.**

You are advised to report to **the County Commissioner and the County Director of Education, Nairobi County** before embarking on the research project.

Kindly note that, as an applicant who has been licensed under the Science, Technology and Innovation Act, 2013 to conduct research in Kenya, you shall deposit a **copy** of the final research report to the Commission within **one year** of completion. The soft copy of the same should be submitted through the Online Research Information System.

*G. Kalerwa*

**GODFREY P. KALERWA MSc., MBA, MKIM**  
**FOR: DIRECTOR-GENERAL/CEO**

Copy to:

The County Commissioner  
 Nairobi County.

**COUNTY COMMISSIONER  
 NAIROBI COUNTY  
 P. O. Box 30124-00100, 1001  
 TEL: 341006**

The County Director of Education

Director - NNM  
 Ms. Kifworo Catherine U  
 allowed to carry out  
 research at NNM on  
 14<sup>th</sup> & 15<sup>th</sup> Oct. 2017 together  
 with her research assistant.  
 however should she  
 wish to visit the galleries  
 she should be accompanied  
 by a ticket purchased.  
 G. Kalerwa



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