

**CONTRIBUTION OF RURAL TOURISM INITIATIVES TO COMMUNITY
LIVELIHOODS IN THE MARA TRIANGLE, KENYA**

BY

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DECLARATION

Declaration by Candidate

This thesis is my original work and has never been presented for any award or degree in any other university. No part of this work may be reproduced or transmitted in any form without prior notice of the author and /or Moi University.

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my son Jayden and my family members especially my parents who supported me financially.

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LIST OF ACRONYMS

ATSIC Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Commission

DFID Department for International Development

DOT Department of Tourism

EC European Commission

FGD Focused Group Discussion

MFA Ministry for Agriculture and Fisheries

MMNR Maasai Mara National Reserve

NSWTC New South Wales Tourism Commission

OECD Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development

SLF Sustainable Livelihood Framework

SPSS Statistical Package for Social Sciences

UNCED United Nations Conference on Environment and Development

UNDP United Nations Development Programme

UNEP United Nations Environmental Programme

UNWTO United Nations World Tourism Organization

USTTA United States Travel and Tourism Administration

UWS University of Western Sydney

WFS World Food Summit

WTTC World Travel and Tourism Council

ABSTRACT

Rural tourism promotes the local economy, socio-cultural changes and life style of the people residing around the tourist locations. Rural tourism in the Mara triangle has been in existence since the establishment of the Maasai Mara National Reserve (MMNR) in 1961 although few studies have been done on its contribution to the local community livelihoods. Hence, this study was conducted in the Mara Triangle to establish community perspectives of the contribution of rural tourism initiatives to the local community's capital assets. Specifically, the study examined the contribution of rural tourism initiatives to financial, social, natural and physical capital assets of the community living in Mara Triangle. Both descriptive and explanatory research designs were used. Primary data were collected through the use of questionnaires and focus group discussions. The target population comprised of Mara conservancy staff, the staff of the tented camps i.e. Kichwa Tembo, Mara West and Little Governors and the local people living adjacent to the park up to 3 km away from the reserve boundary. A sample of 100 respondents was randomly selected for the survey and 18 respondents were purposively selected for focus group discussions. Three (3) focus group discussions, each comprising of 6 respondents were held while quantitative data was analyzed using both descriptive statistics and multiple regression and qualitative data was analyzed by the use of content analysis. The study findings revealed that rural tourism initiatives have significant positive contribution to financial capital asset ($P= 0.0000$), natural capital ($P= 0.0002$), physical capital ($P=0.0000$) and social capital assets ($P= 0.0049$), The findings further showed that rural tourism initiatives contributes to direct employment of the local community (Mean= 3.80 ± 0.10), construction of schools (Mean= 3.84 ± 0.12), community empowerment (Mean= 3.92 ± 0.13); and conservation of natural resources (Mean= 3.70 ± 0.12). The study concludes that rural tourism initiatives contribute significantly to all the elements of capital assets of the local community. However, to sustain the contribution of rural tourism initiatives to the local community capital assets, there is need to promote cultural tours and community-based projects, improve on the products and service offered in the cultural *manyattas* among others and step up the fight against charcoal burning.

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DEFINITION OF TERMS

Livelihood

A livelihood comprises the capabilities, assets (including both material and social resources) and activities required for a means of living. A livelihood is sustainable when it can cope with and recover from stresses and shocks, maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets, while not undermining the natural resource base (DFID, 2000).

Sustainable livelihoods

A livelihood is sustainable when it can cope with and recover from stress and shocks and maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets both now and in the future, while not undermining the natural resource base (Chambers & Conway, 1992).

Livelihood security

Livelihood security is the adequate and sustainable access to income and other resources to enable households to meet basic needs (Frankenberger *et al.*, 2004).

Rural tourism

It is a subset of tourism that consists of ranging aspect such as farm/agricultural tourism, cultural tourism, nature tourism, adventure tourism, and eco-tourism. Any form of tourism that displays the rural life, art, culture and heritage at rural locations, thereby benefiting the local community economically and socially as well as enabling interaction between the tourists and the locals for a more enriching tourism experience can be termed as rural tourism (Kumar, 2008).

Rural tourism initiatives

Tourism initiatives involves broadening the ownership base such that more people benefit from tourism industry, skills initiatives, job and wealth creation and ensuring the geographic spread of the industry throughout the area (Long & Nuckolls, 1994)

Natural Capital

The natural resource stocks from which resource flows useful for livelihoods are derived (e.g., land, water, wildlife, biodiversity, environmental resources (DFID, 2000).

Social Capital

The social resources (networks, membership of groups, relationships of trust, access to wider institutions of society) upon which people draw in pursuit of livelihoods (DFID, 2000).

Human Capital

It entails skills, knowledge, ability to labour and good health important to the ability to pursue different livelihood strategies (Ellis, 2000).

Physical Capital

It includes basic infrastructure (transport, shelter, water, energy, and communications) and the production equipment and means which enable people to pursue their livelihoods (Ellis, 2000).

Financial Capital

These financial resources which are available to people (whether savings, supplies of credit or regular remittances or pensions) which provide them with different livelihood options (DFID, 2000).

Group ranch

A group ranch is communal land that has been demarcated and legally allocated to a group, such as a tribe, clan, section, family or other group of persons, under the Land Adjudication Act cap 284 Laws of Kenya (Okello & Kioko, 2010).

Human wildlife conflict

It is the interaction between wild animals and people and the resultant negative impact on people or their resources, or wild animals or their habitat. It occurs when growing human population overlap with established wildlife theory, creating reduction of resources or life to some people and/ or wild animals (Cline *et al.*, 2007).

Growth pole

It is a regional and industrial planning model for a set of expanding industries located in an urban area and inducing further development of economic activity throughout its zone of influence (Hite, 2004).

CHAPTER ONE

2.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides the background of the study; statement of the problem; general objective of the study; research objectives; research questions; justification of the study; significance of the study; scope of the study and finally the limitations of the study.

2.2. BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

About 75 per cent of the world's people live in rural areas (Holland *et al.*, 2003; Oketch *et al.*, 2012) besides top tourism destinations, particularly in developing countries. A majority of national parks, wilderness areas, mountains, lakes, and cultural sites are located in rural areas, thus making tourism an important attribute of the rural livelihood diversification in these areas. It is in this context that rural tourism is identified as a tool for rural revitalization (Oketch *et al.*, 2012). An important question is whether more can be done to develop tourism within such rural areas, as a way of dispersing the benefits of tourism and increasing its poverty impact (Holland, *et al.*, 2003).

According to Holland *et al.* (2003) and Oketch *et al.* (2012), rural tourism takes many different forms and is pursued for different reasons. There are developmental reasons to promote tourism as an approach for regeneration in areas where there is agro-industrial collapse, or in diversification of a remote marginal agricultural area into adventure tourism or cultural tourism. Moreover, rural tourism preserves some depth to a world increasingly being flattened out by the forces of globalization (Tanahashi, 2010 as cited in Oketch *et al.*, 2012). Other reasons relate more to development of the tourism product such as diversifying a country's image, or alleviating bottlenecks in popular sites (Holland *et al.*, 2003). With downturns in rural economies over the last three decades, it is perhaps understandable that governments have given a great deal of attention to the

economic benefits of tourism, particularly for rural areas attempting to keep pace and adapt to the vigorous globalized economy (Oketch *et al.*, 2012).

One of the advantages of rural tourism is that it is based on local initiatives, local management, has local spin-offs, is rooted in local scenery and it taps into local culture and it can help to generate regional initiatives (Oketch *et al.*, 2012). According to Sharpley and Sharpley (1997), rural tourism is increasingly being used for socio-economic regeneration and diversification. While the definition of rural varies in different countries, Sharpley and Sharpley (1997) describe rural as all areas 'both land and water, that lie beyond towns and cities which, in national and regional contexts, may be described as major urban centers.

In Eastern Europe, the emphasis has been more on tourism as a tool for rural regeneration following agricultural collapse (Holland *et al.*, 2013), while in Africa; the emphasis is more on livelihood diversification of under-developed areas (Gannon, 1994). A number of studies in others countries like India have confirmed the inability of agriculture to fully support livelihood security (Unni, 1996; Shylendra, 2002; Samal, 2006; Shukla & Shukla, 2007). Therefore, supplementary sources of livelihood and household diversification strategies have assumed importance in this situation. Chambers and Conway (1991) stated that livelihood comprises the capabilities, assets, including both material and social resources, and activities required for a means of living while diversification is a process in which a person or the rural family unit builds a group of activities and goods for better ways of living (Ellis, 2000).

Thus the sustainable livelihoods framework as stated by Scoones (1998), Ellis (2000) and Farrington *et al.* (2004) is considered a suitable tool for analysis of livelihoods because it links the broader socio-economic components of household assets, livelihood activities,

outcomes of livelihoods activities, and factors mediating access to livelihood activities. Ahmed *et al.* (2011) asserted that it is often set out diagrammatically such that at its core is the valuation of the different capitals that are considered to underpin livelihood at the level of the individual, household, village or group. These capitals are classified as human, social, physical, natural and financial. These capitals are then assessed in terms of their vulnerability to shocks and the institutional context within which they exist. Once this is understood then interventions can be put in place to enhance livelihoods and their sustainability, perhaps by increasing the capital available or by reducing vulnerability.

Sustainable livelihoods (SL) approach can thus be seen as a way of thinking about the objectives, scope and priorities for initiatives, in order to enhance progress in poverty reduction (Hussein *et al.*, 1998). The assets that are generally recognized within sustainable livelihoods framework, as summarized by McLeod (2001a), include natural (environmental) capital i.e. natural resources (land, water, wildlife, biodiversity, environmental resources), physical capital i.e. basic infrastructure (water, sanitation, energy, transport, communications), housing and the means and equipment of production, human capital i.e. health, knowledge, skills, information, ability to labor, social capital i.e. Social resources (relationships of trust, membership of groups, networks, access to wider institutions) and financial capital i.e. financial resources available (regular remittances or pensions, savings, supplies of credit).

Considering the poor rural areas in Kenya, a study by Ellis (2000) shows that livelihood diversification can be an alternative to overcome poor living conditions in these areas. In small and medium properties as well, livelihood diversification through the use of reliable resources to generate tourism and leisure activities can contribute to a survival strategy, maintenance and initiatives. This affirmative can be supported considering the fact that the rural areas in Kenya are near natural resources that can be converted into

tourism and leisure and the fact that there is an increasing demand for this kind of service.

Several studies have been conducted in Kenya with a focus on the contributions of tourism initiatives. For example, Kombo (2006) established that tourism in Lake Nakuru National Park had led to job creation in the region, improvement in infrastructure like roads, economic growth in the region through the massive growth of hotels and resorts, growth in the handicraft business as well as improvement in security. Maina (2000) also established that the tourism initiatives in Nairobi National Park have created a substantial foreign exchange for the country among other benefits. Moreover, Nthiga *et al.* (2015) established that tourism initiatives in Kijabe, Koiya and Nkiloriti group ranches have contributed to the community livelihoods and conservation of environment. In addition Irandu (2004) through his study in Maasai Mara established that tourism lead to the conservation of the culture of the local community. On the other hand, limited studies have been done on how tourism initiatives contribute to rural livelihoods and as a result this study was carried out in Mara Triangle to determine the contribution of tourism initiatives to the local community livelihoods.

2.3. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The Mara Triangle comprises a world famous tourist destination that draws hundreds of thousands of international tourists every year to view the area's amazing wildlife spectacle and to experience the Maasai culture and way of life. For the Maasai community living adjacent to protected areas, tourism initiatives are often put forth as legitimate livelihood strategies for reducing poverty, empowering the community, and conserving the natural environment (Tao & Wall, 2009; Stronza & Gordillo, 2008; Honey, 2008; Jones, 2005; Stone & Wall, 2004; Barkin, 2003; EplerWood, 2002) since tourism is seen as a panacea for the problems in poor and undeveloped areas as it provides economic, social and environmental benefits.

Despite the Maasai culture as a unique tourist attraction and tool for promoting and marketing tourism in Mara Triangle, the Maasai people have not benefited in any meaningful way from tourism (Ondicho, 2016b). Traditionally they have also not been directly involved in tourism development and entrepreneurship. However, faced with the challenge of an ever diminishing land base which must support a burgeoning population, declining livestock production, and great pressure from the government to change their lifestyle, the Maasai are gradually becoming integrated into the national economy. Some have abandoned their livestock oriented lifestyles in favour of tourism as an alternative source of livelihood and for some as a means to diversify and supplement their sources of livelihood as well as to stimulate development in their homelands.

Additionally in Mara Triangle, land sub-division of the large group ranches has affected livestock rearing and despite this intent to continue raising livestock, herding has become a difficult livelihood to maintain (Seno & Shaw, 2002). Also many group ranches have failed due to mismanagement by self-serving leaders, while smaller private ranches are

less conducive to pastoralism (Lamprey & Reid, 2004). Due to this decline, many Maasai communities now confront other livelihood options.

2.4. OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

1.4.1 General objective

To assess the contribution of rural tourism initiatives to the local community's capital assets in Mara triangle, Kenya.

1.4.2 Specific objectives

The specific objectives were to;

- i. Determine the contribution of rural tourism initiatives to financial capital of the local community in Mara Triangle, Kenya.
- ii. Investigate the contribution of rural tourism initiatives to social capital of the local community in Mara Triangle, Kenya.
- iii. Determine the contribution of rural tourism initiatives to natural capital of the local community in Mara Triangle, Kenya.
- iv. Determine the contribution of rural tourism initiatives to physical capital of the local community in Mara Triangle, Kenya.

1.5 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The study was guided by four research questions namely;

- i. What are contributions of rural tourism initiatives to financial capital of the local community in Mara Triangle, Kenya?
- ii. In what ways do rural tourism initiatives contribute to social capital of the local community in Mara Triangle, Kenya?
- iii. What are the contributions of rural tourism initiatives to natural capital of the local community in Mara Triangle, Kenya?
- iv. In what ways do rural tourism initiatives contribute to physical capital of the local community in Mara Triangle, Kenya?

1.6 JUSTIFICATION OF THE STUDY

Rural Tourism has become an internationally recognized activity and has been considered by a greater portion of the world as a panacea for economic and social development of rural communities. It is also seen as real and sustainable support to the socio-economic problems in the rural areas and an important source of livelihood for the rural population (Tchetchik, *et al.*, 2008; Doohyun *et al.*, 2014; Ezeuduji, 2013b).

Globally, International bodies and National governments, Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs), policy makers and institutions in the field of development see tourism as a viable tool for the development of rural areas. As a result, tourism has become the key word in rural development initiatives, in projects to alleviate poverty and in the conservation of cultural diversity of indigenous communities (Doohyun *et al.*, 2014).

Local communities in tourism destinations support their livelihoods through a multitude of activities which include harvesting of natural resources (e.g. forest products and fisheries), agriculture, informal trade, and tourism-related activities (e.g. production and sale of crafts, construction for tourism structures, formal and informal employment in rural tourism establishments) (Marcouiller *et al.*, 2004; Blackstock, 2005; Okech, 2010).

1.7 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The findings of this study will enable Narok County Government to understand ways in which rural tourism initiatives contributes to rural livelihoods and thus be able to develop various plans to ensure that the local community benefits more from rural tourism.

The results of the study can be used by Mara Triangle management to come up with strategies in which they can organize rural tourism initiatives and increase local community participation in rural tourism so as to gain more benefits from it. The other importance of the study is that it would act as a reference for students, scholars and researchers with interests in similar or related studies.

1.8 SCOPE OF THE STUDY

The study focused on how rural tourism initiatives contribute to the livelihoods of the local community in Mara triangle. The target population comprised of the staff of Mara conservancy, staff of tourism establishment and the local community who lived up to a distance of 3 km away from the reserve boundary. It was carried out from January to March 2015 using questionnaires and focused group discussion.

1.9 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Several limitations were encountered during the study. Language barrier was the main limitation the researcher faced since the community of the study area is predominantly Maasai speaking. The language medium in which the questionnaire is to be designed is of concern to the researcher. The questionnaire is prepared in English and during the fieldwork; the researcher used two language translators as research assistants to guide the respondents during the survey.

The respondents were often very busy and therefore they required a lot of time in order to fill in the questionnaires. The challenge was overcome by giving the respondents the questionnaires early. Getting accurate information from the respondents was one of the major challenges since some of the respondents were unwilling to give the information. The challenge was minimized by informing the respondents the importance of the study to the community in order to win their will to respond and offer accurate information. Lastly, the location in distance while traversing Mara Triangle proved tiring coupled with dusty grounds. Effective means of transport were sought by using a private car to access respondents.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.5. INTRODUCTION

This chapter looks at the related literature on the research topic. It describes in detail rural tourism; rural tourism initiatives and contribution of tourism initiatives to capital assets. It also covers the definition of the terms livelihood; livelihood diversification; highlights the indicators of livelihood; constraints of rural livelihood; theoretical framework and conceptual framework.

2.6. THE CONTEXT OF RURAL TOURISM

Geographers and rural sociologists have utilized much space in their texts trying to reach consensus on what constitutes the concept 'rural' (Page & Dowling, 2002; Chanchani, 2006). It is true that most people know a rural area when they see one, but the concept is notoriously difficult to define. In spite of this difficulty, a clear understanding of the term rural is critical because rural tourism takes place in a rural context. Most scholars agree that rural is associated with places which are outside the boundaries of major metropolitan areas. The issue of proximity is very critical in this understanding of the term 'rural' because it tempts one to believe that efforts to curb rural depopulation through rural development face a challenge. The combination of the young population and proximity to urban areas is likely to lead to rural-urban migration and frustrate the rural economic development and poverty alleviation mechanisms.

Understanding the concept, 'rural' does not guarantee an easy definition of the concept, rural tourism. The concept, rural tourism has not been well defined. People interpret it differently, although they can give examples of rural tourism activities, which make the concept notoriously difficult to define. There are those (Hall *et al.*,2005), who associate it

with a countryside vacation, where tourists spend much time engaging in recreational activities in a rural environment on the farm, ranch, country home or the surrounding areas. Some scholars suggest that while rural tourism necessarily takes place in non-urban environments, not all non-urban tourism is rural tourism. There are people who conceive rural tourism as a tourism activity in a non-urban territory where human activity is going on, primarily agriculture (Hall *et al.*, 2005). People must, however, guard against a misclassification of tourism into either rural or urban so as to avoid a displacement of poverty alleviation efforts derived from rural tourism.

What make rural tourism more cumbersome to define are the different meanings applied to the concept by different countries. In Greece, the main provision of a rural tourism product is bed and breakfast, with accommodation in traditionally furnished rooms and with a traditional breakfast, often based on home-made products. Its complementary activities include restaurants and refreshment facilities or the organisation of cultural and recreational activities. In Finland, it usually means renting out cottages to visitors or providing catering services in the countryside. In the Netherlands, the rural tourism product mainly means camping on the farm, with most farm services being linked to route-bound activities, such as cycling, walking and horse riding. In Hungary, rural tourism is called village tourism, which means tourism in villages presenting life in the country-traditions with the active participation of visitors (Kulcsar, 2009). All these descriptive meanings of rural tourism are problematic because they diminish the importance of nature in rural tourism. Nature is a very important factor in attracting tourists into rural destinations because it has the capability to offer more benefits without huge amounts of financial inputs (Lebe, 2006).

There is a general tendency among scholars to describe rural tourism from a local-community perspective. Scholars such as Ohe (2007) and Verbole (2000) describe rural

tourism as any form of tourism that showcases rural life, art, culture and heritage, thereby benefiting the local community socioeconomically and enabling interaction between tourists and the locals for a more enriching tourism experience (Aref & Gill, 2009). This perspective puts rural tourism at the centre of the poverty alleviation agenda. It portrays it as a segment of the total tourist industry which could be particularly important in destinations with more spectacular natural attractions, seaside views, high mountain peaks and ranges, and forests.

Clarke (2005) offers a three dimensional description of rural tourism. He describes it in terms of, strands of thoughts categorised into development, stakeholder and global development chains. The development chain is characterised by beliefs that the responsibility of rural tourism is multilevel, from national to local, and it needs coherence in planning to fit with the overall sense of direction. The development chain can work best in an environment of strong national or international leadership. The development chain strand is appropriate because it focuses on the need for tourism development as part of poverty alleviation mechanisms. This strand of thought takes development as a process which is cascaded from national to local. It is useful in the sense that it recognises the role of the local communities but problematic in that it promotes the engineering of development programmes outside the local communities. The stakeholder chain is based on the fact that there is a multiplicity of disparate stakeholders with varying degrees of interests in the rural tourism industry. This complicates the concept in that it promotes competition rather than cooperation in the rural tourism industry. Competition is dangerous because it has a potential of dividing the community and shifting people from the framework of community development to a notion of self-development that does not favour collective effort in poverty alleviation. The stakeholder strand is favourable if we want local people to be stakeholders in programmes of development.

The global chain is shaped by the thought that rural tourism competes within a global business environment and it is rooted in sub-systems of sustainability, such as clean air, and clean water, which lie at the heart of any rural offer. The notion of the global chain makes sense because any development, including tourism development, must have sustainability imbedded in it. The sustainability of any activity must include the sustainability of the livelihoods of the people which it purports to serve (Hall *et al.*, 2005).

Sillignakis (2001) suggests a tripartite definition of rural tourism – from a “geographic and demographic perspective”, a “product perspective”, and a “tourist experience perspective”. The “geographic and demographic” definition looks at rural tourism as a balanced activity which takes place in an environment outside the highly urbanized areas and which is characterized by small-scale tourism business set in areas where agricultural pursuits, forestry or natural areas dominate land use. The “geographic and demographic” perspective seems to be biased towards a general concern with the environment and the scale of business. Although it mentions the demographic aspect, it does not specify the role of rural tourism in changing the livelihoods of people. It is more focused on the geographic rather than the demographic aspect. The “product” related definition views rural tourism as an activity whose product can be segmented to include rural attractions, rural adventure tours, nature-based tours, ecotourism tours, country towns, rural resorts, and country-style accommodation, together with festivals, events and agricultural education. The starting point in this perspective is problematic in that it does not match the product with its costs and benefits. In this way it isolates the product from the people who should derive benefit from it. The use of the product for rural tourism development and improvements in rural livelihoods is not clear in this perspective (Sillignakis, 2003).

From a “tourist experience perspective”, rural tourism is an activity which offers a different range of experiences to those offered in large cities and whose emphasis is on the tourist’s experience of the products and activities of the area (Sillignakis, 2003). This perspective adopts a “tourist-centred” approach to rural tourism rather than a “provider-centred” approach. An approach of this nature ignores some of the harsh realities of most of the rural areas, especially in the developing world, where tourism is seen as a panacea for job losses and rural depopulation.

Sarkar (2009) adopts a more specific perspective when he states that rural tourism is an activity that takes place in a rural village. It must conform to the needs of the tourist who wants to experience a rural lifestyle and farming in terms of both buildings and settlements. This experience includes arts and crafts, culture, adventure and heritage. Sarkar (2009) goes further to contend that rural tourism is dependent on infrastructure, connectivity and sanitation because it is a business that relies heavily on the movement of the tourist to the destination. Sarkar (2009) has a problematic argument because it is “tourist-centered”. It disregards the role of the local people as beneficiaries of the tourism development. This creates an unbalanced focus where the challenges of the local communities are ignored.

2.7. RURAL TOURISM INITIATIVES

According to Tugba and Gulen (2012), rural tourism initiatives is a kind of rural activities and its characteristics is natural and humanistic. It includes customs, scenery, landscape (about local country and agricultural), and other attractions. Its types of attractions are leisure, sightseeing, experience, and learning, and so on (Jingming & Lihua 2002; Deqian, 2006; Holland, *et al.*, 2003). Rural tourism initiatives or rurally located tourism can also include campsites, lodges, safari drives, craft markets, cultural displays,

adventure sports, walking trails, heritage sites, musical events and any tourist activity-taking place in a rural area. (Jingming & Lihua, 2002). Similarly, according to Nilsson (2002), rural tourism is based on the rural environment in general whereas farm tourism is based on the farm and farmer. This means that within the framework of rural tourism, farm tourism enterprises are more closely related than other tourism operations.

However Reid *et al.*, (2000) stated that rural tourism initiatives can be categorized into Agri-tourism which includes a range of activities, services and amenities provided by farmers and rural people to attract tourists to their area in order to generate extra income for their businesses and farm tourism which is a form of tourism activity conducted in a rural farm area, which may include tending to farm animals, planting, harvesting, and processing of farm products. The core activity is in the wider rural area (walking, boating) but the vast majority of visitors are accommodated on farms, either working farms or farms converted to accommodation facilities (Tugba & Gulen, 2012).

Cultural tourism which is defined in the government's white paper on the initiatives and promotion of South Africa as cultural aspects which of interest to visitor and can be marketed as such, including the customs and traditions of people, their heritage and way of life. An important aspect of cultural tourism is visiting cultural villages. A cultural village can be defined as specific attraction symbolizing the way of living of local people; hence visitors can learn about the culture of the people and their past and present ways of living (Moswete *et al.*, 2015). In addition to displays and built structures the activities and attractions related to cultural villages often include guided tours, cultural shows, exhibitions, ethnic cuisine and craft workshops, where local people can be employed as tour guides and demonstrators, for example (Moswete *et al.*, 2015).

Visitors to the cultural villages are taken on a guided tour through one or more reconstructed traditional homesteads (Veuren, 2004). The guide generally explains a number of traditional customs, which are demonstrated by the cultural workers. The tour is followed by the performance of a traditional dance. Various cultural villages offer different types of cultural experiences. In most cases, indigenous cultures are depicted as they existed in the 19th or early 20th centuries. Moreover according to Veuren (2004) some villages display a depiction of early building styles or present-day cultures. Several villages offer a traditional meal or overnight accommodation, and some have a craft or curio shop.

2.8. LIVELIHOOD CONCEPT

The concept of livelihood was influenced by early initiatives approaches (UNWTO, 1996). It was established, with growing legitimization, through several major international forums. The Brundtland Commission in 1987 first introduced Sustainable Livelihoods as an approach to enhance productivity, ownership, and accessibility to resources and income earning activities, ensuring adequate stocks and flows of food and cash to meet basic needs. In 1992, Agenda 21 of the United Nations Conference on Environment and Initiatives (UNCED) expanded the concept by advocating ‘sustainable livelihoods for all’ as its priority theme.

According to Chambers and Conway (1992), a livelihood denotes the means of gaining a living. It also refers to employment and income-generating activities, it seems to be synonymous with, and sometimes overlaps, concepts associated with terms such as employment and work. But, the concept of livelihood describes more complex and diverse strategies for living than what is meant by employment. Indeed according to Haan and Zoomers (2003), a livelihood is about individuals, households, or groups making a living, attempting to meet their various consumption and economic necessities, coping

with uncertainties, and responding to new opportunities. In the current study by Chambers and Conway (1992), livelihood comprises the capabilities, assets (including both material and social resources) and activities required for a means of living hence livelihood is sustainable when it can cope with and recover from stress and shocks and maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets both now and in the future, while not undermining the natural resource base.

2.9. LIVELIHOOD DIVERSIFICATION

Ellis (1997) defined livelihood diversification as the process by which families construct a diverse portfolio of activities and social support capabilities in their struggle for survival in order to improve their standards of living. Such diversification can have many advantages and tourism can become; a means to enable income accumulation, for consumption and investment; a means to help spread risk. In addition, tourism can be an adaptive response to longer-term declines in income entitlements, due to serious economic or environmental changes beyond local control; means to take pressure off fragile lands and increase household incomes for purchase of additional food or payment of school fees. The last advantage features a non-farm livelihood pattern, using human as labour through employment related to tourism, assets as a means to improve the financial and economic asset base (Hussein & Nelson, 1998; Singh & Wanmali, 1999).

Moreover, livelihood diversification provides local people with greater opportunity to determine what they can do with and without tourism on their land and as Smith (1996) stressed, local people cannot be separated from their natural and cultural contexts and thus the involvement in tourism, desired by the involved indigenous populations, will bring changes in uses and values of resources and activities. It is important that local communities can have the opportunity to evaluate their own resources (human, physical and economic), to assess their past, present and future needs, and resources, and to

identify their strengths and weaknesses before evaluating any decision to become involved in tourism. Only when communities understand themselves and their abilities in their own terms can they begin to evaluate decisions relating to external features such as tourism.

2.10. INDICATORS OF LIVELIHOODS

Indicators are specific/explicit verifiable measures of change or results brought about by social action or activity. They are standards against which to measure, assess progress and change over time (Titi, 1995). When trying to evaluate whether the results of the project meet the goal of sustainable livelihood, it would be useful to have a set of indicators with which to measure the results by. The following are indicators of rural livelihoods.

2.10.1. Food Security

Sarah and Mehrul (2004) asserted that food security is a function of whether food is available on-farm or in the market, whether households have access to the food, and whether patterns of food utilization, including intra-household distribution, are such that the nutritional needs of all household members are met. In essence, a livelihood analysis of food security at the impact level assesses the quantity and quality of food available to households throughout the year and the distribution of food among all household members. Often, food security is effectively measured by a household's capacity to cope with stress periods, either seasonal or inter-annual.

The World Food Summit (1996) defined food security as existing when all people at all times have access to sufficient, safe, nutritious food to maintain a healthy and active life. Commonly, the concept of food security is defined as including both physical and economic access to food that meets people's dietary needs as well as their food preferences. In addition a report by the Food and Agricultural Organization, (2002)

indicates that food security exists when all people, at all times, have physical, social and economic access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food to meet their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life.

2.10.2. Nutritional Security

According to Sarah and Mehrul (2004), nutritional security is a livelihood outcome closely related to food security, particularly the food utilization component. The conventional components of nutritional security are child and maternal nutritional status. Similarly Benson (2004) said that household achieves nutrition security when it has secure access to food coupled with a sanitary environment, adequate health services, and knowledgeable care to ensure a healthy life for all household members.

2.10.3. Economic Security

Sarah and Mehrul (2004) stated that although economic security is intimately related to household livelihood security, the economic status of poor households is notoriously difficult to measure directly. Household income among poor families is often derived from multiple informal sources, and labour is sometimes compensated in non-monetary units (such as food).

Wolfe and Tucker (1999) argued that economic security is the availability of a steady and reliable source of income to sustain daily living for oneself and one's family and to allow planning. To increase economic security for victims of sexual assault, dating, and domestic violence, and stalking, a coordinated, interdisciplinary, and multilevel response is required. For more women to be free from the constraints of violence, access to real economic options must be available. Such options include affordable and safe housing and childcare, adequate employment opportunities, financial assistance when necessary, and comprehensive, affordable health services including mental health services.

2.10.4. Health Security

According to Sarah and Mehrul (2004), several components of health security are considered to be critical in livelihood security assessment. The first is the frequency of illness among all household members. In highly vulnerable households, illness episodes can severely compromise the productiveness of family members, reducing already-low levels of incomes and production, thereby affecting food and nutritional security. The second component is access to primary health care. The health security of rural families is directly related to their level of access to appropriate medical care.

2.10.5. Educational Security

This livelihood category as stated by Sarah and Mehrul, (2004) is comprised of several components, including the overall level of education of the household, gender differences in educational access, and the overall literacy rates of adults in the household.

2.11. SUSTAINABLE LIVELIHOOD FRAMEWORK

The term livelihood attempts to capture what people do in order to make a living, the resources that provide them with the capability to build a satisfactory living. It also involves the risk factors, the institutional and policy context that either helps or hinders them in their pursuit to improve living (Ellis, 2000). According to Ellis (2000) resources are referred to as 'assets' or 'capitals' and are often categorized between five or more different asset types owned or accessed by family members: human capital (skills, education, health), physical capital (produced investment goods), financial capital (money, savings, loan access), natural capital (land, water, trees etc.), and social capital (networks and associations). The asset categories are admittedly a little contrived, and not all resources that people draw upon in constructing livelihoods fit neatly within them. Nevertheless, they serve a useful purpose in distinguishing asset types that tend to have

differing connections to the policy environment. For example, human capital connects to social policies (education and health), while natural capital connects to land use, agricultural and environmental policies.

The SL framework (figure 2.1) describes what initiatives dedicated to poverty reduction should focus on to create sustainable livelihoods for the poor (Ellis, 2000). The first basic principle is that initiatives work has to focus on *people* – which mean that we have to focus on what matters for the poor, how people and their cultures are different, and how this affects the way they understand and appreciate livelihoods. Another principle is that the poor themselves have to be key actors in identifying the important aspects of their own livelihoods. The poor know what matters to them, and outsiders have to listen to their priorities instead of assuming that their own values and ideas are as good as, or better. It is also a principle that the role of the donors is to be process facilitators that help the poor to be aware of their priorities and analyze their own surroundings for resources. This means that participation and partnership become two very essential factors in initiatives work, and by actively being part of the initiatives work, the poor will be empowered instead of being dependent on outsiders to help them all the time.

The framework also emphasizes the principle that there has to be a strong link between macro and micro politics, since these are interdependent. The macro politics are responsible for the main structures and processes in an area and the poor have to adapt to and try to enhance their livelihoods through these. The last basic principle is that initiatives has to have a long-term focus – it is important that the way an area is developed now, will make it sustainable in the future as well (Ellis, 2000).

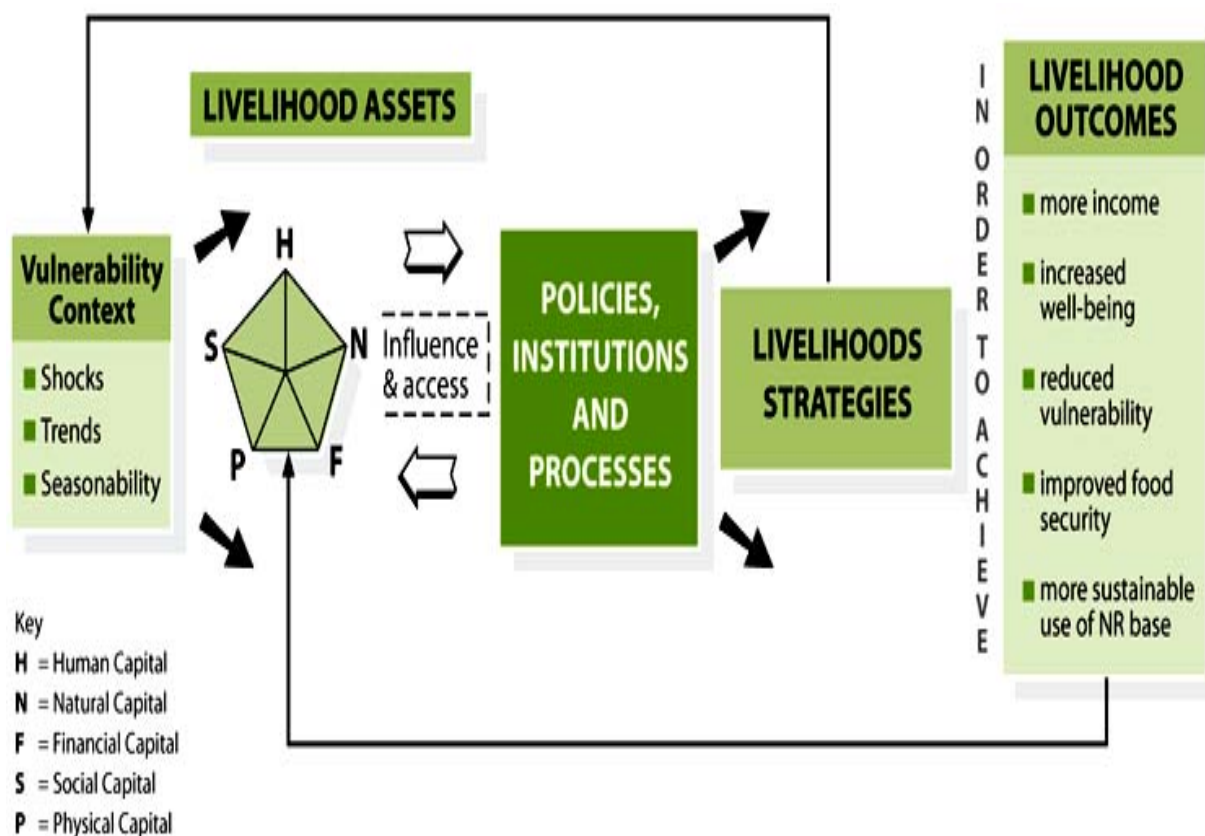


Figure 2.1: Sustainable Livelihood Framework

Source: Department for International Initiatives (2000)

The framework comprises of vulnerability context which describes the external environment that the poor people live in. This includes *critical trends*, such as technological trends or population trends. It also includes *shocks* such as natural disasters or economic inflation, and *seasonality* which refer to the way prices, employment opportunities and production might shift with the seasons. All of these factors will affect the assets that people have and eventually the sustainability of their livelihoods (DFID, 2000).

The sustainable livelihoods framework is built on the belief that people need assets to achieve a positive livelihood outcome. People have different kind of assets that they combine, to help them achieve the livelihoods that they seek. Transforming structure and

process includes the institutions, organizations and policies that frame the livelihoods of the poor, and they are found on all levels – from the household to the international level. These processes and structures determine the access that people have to different kinds of assets, and therefore the importance cannot be overemphasized. Examples of processes are international agreements, ownership rights and laws to secure the rights of the individuals, whereas structures might be the existence of ministries, banks that give credit to the farmers or self-help groups in the local community.

Livelihoods strategies are the way that people act in order to achieve their desired livelihood. The access that people have to different kinds of assets affect the strategies that they employ, and the structures and processes in a given society also creates possibilities and constraints on the strategies that people are able to use. Finally Livelihood outcomes are the achievements of people's livelihood strategies. Outcomes should be described by the local people themselves, since these include much more than income. For outsiders it can be difficult to understand what people are seeking because this is often influenced by culture, local norms and values (DFID, 2000).

2.12. CONSTRAINTS OF RURAL LIVELIHOODS

These are factors that hinder the local community in obtaining their livelihoods. It includes seasonality, risk strategies and labour markets and are discussed in detail below.

2.12.1. Seasonality

Seasonality is an inherent feature of rural livelihoods. According to Agrawal, (1990) economic terms, seasonality means that returns to labour time i.e. income that can be earned per day or week worked vary during the year in both on-farm and off-farm labour markets. On-farm returns vary by comparing periods of peak labour such as cultivation and harvesting required in order to achieve farm outputs with periods when little, if any,

activity can be usefully undertaken on the farm. Off-farm returns vary as temporary labour markets spring into being, for example, to harvest a grain or tree crop, or to move recently harvested produce from farms into stores or distribution centers. Therefore invoking the farm household model, seasonality causes changes in occupation to occur as labour time is switched from lower to higher return activities.

2.12.2. Risk Strategies

Many researchers consider risk to be the fundamental motive for livelihood diversification (Bryceson, 1996). When definite outcomes in relation to income streams are replaced by probabilities of occurrence, the social unit diversifies its portfolio of activities in order to anticipate and to ameliorate the threat to its welfare of failure in individual activities (Alderman & Paxson, 1992). However, Dercon and Krishnan, (1996) states that there are many different strands to the risk argument; and there is a lot of room for confusing risk arguments with coping arguments, and voluntary decisions with involuntary actions.

Income diversification as a risk strategy is taken to imply a trade-off between a higher total income involving greater probability of income failure, and a lower total income involving smaller probability of income failure (Walker & Ryan, 1990; Blare1 *et al.*, 1992). The same is true of many types of off-farm and non-farm diversification. For example, wage work in the agricultural slack season may both diversify and raise total household income, and the same applies to the exercise by different household members of different skills in different labour markets.

2.12.3. Labour Markets

Labour is a major defining dimension of livelihood and house hold strategies. Labour requirements works very differently in different forms of production. Labour markets are

differentiated by other considerations such as education, skills, location, and gender. The economic motivation for diversification, in relation to seasonality, applies more generally. When the marginal return to labour time in farming for any individual falls below the wage rate or the return to self-employment attainable for that person off the farm, then, ignoring intra household distributional issues, the household as a unit is better off switching that individual into off-farm or non-farm activities (Davies & Hossain, 1997).

Work opportunities vary according to skills, education and by gender. Economic considerations of labour allocation may be overlaid and modified by social rules of access both within the family and in the community. These rules may result in the “social exclusion” of individuals and households from particular income streams (Davies & Hossain, 1997). There are as many individual solutions to labour equations there are households. My approach takes note of household demography and dependency ratios, levels of education attainment aspired to and achieved, and the primary and subsidiary economic activities of each household member. This make it possible to analyze linkages between human resource, and the patterns of livelihood strategies, sources and levels of income found in different households.

The study reveals that the local community can overcome some of the challenges through rural tourism initiatives which offer alternatives to farm product seasonality, reduce the risk of depending on one source of income. The study further shows that the locals have a wide source of income through tourism and also provide employment and reduce the risk of local community member moving to urban center in such for jobs.

2.13. CONTRIBUTION OF RURAL TOURISM TO FINANCIAL CAPITAL ASSETS

Rural tourism can contribute to financial capital asset in many ways. It can create jobs, propel economic growth, generate supplementary income for people and introduce new markets for rural products.

a) Creation of jobs

The development of rural tourism can create job opportunities through the establishment of tourist facilities such as camps, lodges and bed and breakfast and accommodation (Mbaiwa, 2003). The labour-intensive nature of tourism facilitates the creation of employment in rural communities, particularly services and new product development. The creation of employment is critical to poverty alleviation and stabilisation of the rural population. The rural tourism sector demands inputs such as foodstuffs and supporting services from other sectors of the economy and in this way it can generate new employment opportunities, especially among the low-skilled rural poor. Its link with the agricultural sector is an advantage because this makes it a propeller of economic growth in rural development (Mc McCarthy & Serju, 2006).

The other way in which rural tourism generates employment is through its ability to attract construction projects, strengthen the agricultural sector, and serve as a source of employment for unskilled rural poor. Investments in tourism tend to generate larger and more rapid increase in employment. Neto (2003) holds that rural tourism generates employment because its development is accompanied by considerable investments in superstructure such as parking areas and other public utilities. All these activities create more and more job opportunities and contribute to poverty alleviation.

The ownership of cultural villages can create jobs in the tourism sector. Viljoen and Tlabela (2006) distinguished between three main types of cultural village ownership. Firstly there are private sector owners who aim to make profit directly or indirectly by using cultural villages as a draw card for other businesses like hotels. In this type of ownership, local communities benefit from low-level employment and handicraft production. Secondly there are indigenous entrepreneurs who establish cultural villages based on their own culture. Although these entrepreneurs aim at making profits, many emphasise a strong commitment to the conservation of culture compared to job creation in their communities. Thirdly, there are state-owned cultural villages which intend to preserve various aspects of indigenous cultures.

There is evidence that job creation is amongst the most important effects associated with rural tourism. A study on the perceptions of Haitians towards tourism development in rural Haiti showed that rural tourism gave residents a better chance to ameliorate their quality of life. The study revealed that the tourism industry accounted for 30% of the available jobs in the small Caribbean island and this was ten times more than the agricultural sector (Thermil & Sheaffer, 2004). As the largest and fastest growing industry in the world, tourism has been instrumental in providing direct and indirect employment for 212 million people, accounting for 10.7% of the global workforce (Panda *et al.*, 2004).

b) Balance of Payments

The balance of payments account is a record of economic transactions during a period of time (usually a year) between residents of the country in question and the rest of the world. According to Mathieson and Wall (1992), the income a country gains from tourism can help to balance the national balance of payments. This is considered important as the country then gains foreign, or hard, currency. Also as stated by Krause (2004), effects on

the balance of payments are considered the most known economic impacts of tourism. The balance of payments account includes the value of all goods, gifts, loans, foreign aid and gold that comes in or leaves the country as well as the connections between these.

Mathieson and Wall (1992) suggested that tourism affects the balance of payments in two ways; effects within the country and effects on international tourism. This is useful to know in order to calculate foreign earnings in the balance of payments and compare them with the costs. In other words it is useful in the sense of knowing if more money is leaving the country than what is earned from international tourism. The amounts spent on international transport are however not included as part of the income generated from tourism in the balance of payments (Krause 2004). This is mainly due to the fact that the transport companies usually are registered in the country of departure, whereby the destination may not account for the amount spent on transport as income (Ratz & Puczko, 2002).

However, Ratz and Puczko (2002) stated that effects of tourism on the balance of payments can also be divided into three categories; primary, secondary and tertiary effects. The primary effects are direct and comparatively easily measurable. It concerns the actual consumption by foreign tourists as well as the consumption of the country's citizens abroad and occurs only when international boundaries are crossed. The secondary and tertiary effects are more complicated and hard to measure. The secondary effects are divided into direct secondary effects, indirect secondary effects and induced secondary effects. Direct secondary effects involve, among others, imports, commissions to travel agents and outflows in terms of dividend payments to foreign investors (Krause 2004). The indirect secondary effects include secondary transfers of initial tourist expenditure. Induced secondary effects involve the proportion of payments remitted abroad in terms of expatriate labor. The tertiary effects are the flows of currency that are

not set up by direct tourist expenditure. They involve for example products that have been imported for travelling abroad; such as suitcases as well as the investment opportunities that tourism creates (Ratz & Puczko, 2002).

c) Generate income

Due to low agricultural incomes, cuts in subsidies and depressed farm prices, the success of farmers no longer depends on one activity. It largely depends on their ability to diversify into tourism, recreation, environmental protection, generation of green energy and other sectors. This requires them to establish new enterprises on a farm in order to supplement their income and to save the population from job losses and poverty. Rural tourism is a way of supplementing income from the farming activities in rural areas (Lopez, 2006). Diversification through rural tourism provides an attractive business supplement or alternative to rural-urban migration.

According to Knowd (2001), a study of Victorian farm tourism showed that 78% of the farmers started tourism ventures for extra income. Half of those farms made close to 15% of their income from their tourism activities. Farms which had tourism as a companion industry had an average of 22% extra income. In a similar study in the north-west Sydney basin, 14% of farming businesses were involved in tourism and 72% of them were making close to 10% of their income from tourism (Knowd, 2001).

Tourism in rural areas is used by people from occupations other than farming to generate supplementary income. An examination of the hosts in rural areas along the Hortobagy in Eastern Hungary showed that occupants are not only attached to agriculture. They are employed in industry, services, and education, and some are pensioners and unemployed (Szabo, 2005). This protects the rural economy from the competitive job opportunities and higher salaries and wages provided by the urban areas. The direct and indirect effects of

industrialisation and commercialisation of agriculture created a business risk for farmers. The advantage of business restructuring in favour of rural tourism is that farmers are not exposed to risk if the agricultural industry stagnates or becomes competitively unprofitable (Ashley, 2002).

The reduction of risk is a significant way of protecting rural jobs and alleviating poverty. Oredgebe and Fadeyibi (2009) maintain that rural tourism constitutes non-agricultural practices on the farm which provide attractive business opportunities to augment farm income.

d) Emergence of new markets

Dawar and Chandra (2010) argue that rural tourism creates rural markets which present opportunities for the profitability of small scale businesses. The recent surge in rural tourism and direct selling by farmers from stands has changed the market environment of rural areas. At local levels tourism has great potential for creating markets for local products. Travelers enjoy the pleasure of visiting rural craft markets and enjoy wandering. Some of the rural destinations have craft markets once or twice a week. In some areas these markets have developed to such an extent that they operate throughout the week during the peak times. In destinations where rural tourism is successful local people make profits by selling home-made goods and services produced in the household in the local craft markets (Ciolac *et al.*, 2011).

The development of tourism in most rural areas is usually accompanied by the emergence of local markets occupied by small stalls which sell fruits, vegetables, crafts, work of art, and farm produce. In places where rural markets existed before tourism development, a new demand is created as a result of increasing tourist traffic creating markets for agricultural and non-agricultural products (Ciolac, *et al.*, 2011). This flooding encourages

the introduction of new products and an increase in the volume of goods sold. This, in turn, creates more income for rural small traders and changes their focus from urban opportunities to available rural possibilities. The provision of access to various farm products markets benefits not only the rural small traders but also the local communities.

e) Opportunities for Diversification

According to El sayed (2010), rural communities have been forced to try many different agricultural activities to try and survive the problems of rural downturn, drought and diminishing returns at the farm gate for their produce. Tourism is promoted as one way of diversifying their economic base via the alternative “crop” that tourism can represent to rural communities (USTTA, 1995; DOT, 1995; Streckfuss, 1997). For example, the structural changes brought about by initiatives of the European Common Market have meant that farming communities are looking for opportunities for diversification (Garcia *et al.*, 1995).

Diversification into rural tourism tends to stimulate new initiatives and enterprises within a rural community enabling locations in decline to take control of their economic destiny (Long *et al.*, 1994; DOT, 1995). Therefore, rural tourism initiatives eventually diversify the resident population of a community along with the product offerings of the region (Huang *et al.*, 1996).

f) Reduction of Poverty

Most rural areas have small populations compared to urban centres. Rural-urban migration can change rural areas into demographic deserts where depopulation takes away hundreds of inhabitants (Collantes & Pinilla, 2004). Rural-urban migration can create a population structure that is characterised by a predominance of old people and children. When this happens most of the rural community structures and services become

under utilised and businesses close down, which results in more unemployment and more poor individuals. When this happens, rural workers leave with their labour, resulting in low productivity in agriculture (Omoniwa *et al.*, 2009). To stem the tide of rural urban migration and retain young people in rural areas, governments, especially in developing countries, should pursue strategies such as tourism development, which presents opportunities for investment in rural infrastructure that can boost the development of non-farm rural economic activities.

Rural-urban migration may be a correct alternative for many rural poor people, especially those who are victims of chronic poverty, but improvement of the local economic conditions is a far better option. The right development initiatives can help the rural poor avoid migration (Anderson, 2002), one such option being rural tourism development, which can potentially lead to economic growth, farm diversification, transformation of the rural economy, reduction of business risk, improvement of standard of living, and conservation of natural resources. These programmes can reduce migration and provide mechanisms for poverty alleviation.

Tourism is one of the possible means of dealing with both the first-round and second-round effects of urbanisation by alleviating poverty and developing livelihoods, particularly in rural areas. Rural tourism can curb urbanisation by creating new jobs, decrease migration, and help to maintain the local level of services (Komppula, 2007). In recent years, tourism has become an increasing phenomenon in rural areas, affecting the livelihoods of many of the rural poor.

g) Increase in the Standard of Living

Mansour and Mahin (2013) stated that due to numerous economic benefits of tourism and its potential growth it helps in the increase of standard of living of the people by offering new and better jobs, which in turn help them to improve the quality of life and their families.

Rogerson and Visser (2004) contend that tourism in rural areas contributes to the improvement of living standards of populations. They further argue that rural tourism encourages citizens to participate in the local economy and take pride in their resources. Besides the pressing socio-economic needs of the local communities adjacent to the protected areas, the decision to invest in tourism reinforces the community's faith in tourism and recognition of the valuable contribution that tourism can play in community development and improvement of the lives of rural people (Rogerson & Visser, 2004). As tourism generates employment and additional income for rural families it results in social changes, associated social benefits, improvement of lives, alleviation of poverty, minimization of rural depopulation, facilitation of the transfer of new ideas from other parts of the world to rural areas, and the strengthening of the rural identity (Polucha & Zukovskis, 2010).

However demand by tourists creates jobs and helps the host to get a regular income. The spiritual motivation, along with financial support, changes the standard of living of the rural folk (Mishra & Dash, 2003). Economic opportunities from tourism development encourage natives to return to their homes and non-natives to seize the opportunity to establish themselves in local areas (Thermil & Sheaffer, 2004).

h) Contribution of Tourism to National Income

Rural tourism contributes to national income of a country. Tourism has to pay for different types of services and goods in the host country. So tourism constitutes a demand for services and that of consumer goods. In addition the construction of accommodation, urbanization for tourist purpose, infrastructure installation, increased tourist transport and equipment etc. are the examples of how tourist transport encourages investment opportunities within the state. When tourists pay for goods and services in another country, these amounts are reflected as national travel receipts for such country (Mansour & Mahin, 2013).

2.14. CONTRIBUTION OF RURAL TOURISM TO PHYSICAL CAPITAL ASSETS

The costs and benefits of rural tourism for local livelihoods can be assessed in relation to the improvement of infrastructure in the rural areas. The existence of tourist attractions cannot assist in poverty alleviation if there is no connectivity, sanitation and transportation facilities and other types of infrastructure to support it. Rural tourism in all its different shapes and forms can rely on the physical capital for survival because the consumer must reach the destination in order to enjoy the product. Tourism in rural areas induces changes in many aspects of life including the development of infrastructure (Giaoutzi & Nijkamp, 2006). Rural tourism can have an impact on the livelihoods of people. It can lead to a number of benefits such as infrastructure development and improvement of destination image.

a) Accessibility to destinations

The development of infrastructure has a number of spin-offs for rural communities because it is one of the ways in which tourism can influence the livelihoods of the rural poor. Sarkar (2009) argues that the key challenges to rural tourism development are infrastructure, connectivity and sanitation. When infrastructure expands, the growing

tourism industry gets support and grows further. Road networks change inaccessible rural destinations into busy tourist destinations, create jobs, and help to curb rural depopulation and reduce the impact of poverty. The provision of roads helps to link different tourist's destinations and make it easy for the tourists and local people to travel from one area to another (Mbaiwa, 2003).

b) Improvement of destination image

The success of a destination depends mainly on its image. Remoteness of destinations makes them hard to reach and eventually gives them a negative image. Availability of both mobile and immobile transportation facilities improves the image of a destination, which in turn increases the number of visitors. As more visitors patronise the destination they create job opportunities which contribute to poverty alleviation. Therefore there is a relationship between the destination image and its accessibility. Some visitors return to a destination if they can count on safe, reliable, convenient and efficient transportation systems (Barker, 2003).

When transportation develops, the local communities benefit by becoming users of the transportation system. As they use the transport service, they are able to save time and improve their safety. Transportation allows for the inflow of new ideas and the movement of goods between the local markets and outside markets. In this way the image of a destination improves further (ibid).

2.15. CONTRIBUTION OF RURAL TOURISM TO SOCIAL CAPITAL ASSETS

Wall and Mathieson (2006) warn that social impacts of tourism must not be confused with social tourism, which is characterized by the participation of people with modest incomes (UNWTO, 2007). Social impacts are changes in the quality of lives of residents of a destination that are a consequence of tourism in a destination. Aref *et al.* (2009),

stress that local communities are very important in tourism development because they are crucial in providing a good environmental condition for tourists. They are a focal point for the supply of accommodation, catering, information, transport and other services. The participation of local people makes tourism a purely socio-economic activity which is adapted to the needs of tourists and responds to the needs of local communities.

When tourists stay in a particular destination for a long time, they come into contact with the host people. This continuous contact may have positive impacts on both the host and the guests. Tourism is an industry that employs a multiplicity of skills and offers training opportunities and substantial entrepreneurial opportunities, particularly for small and medium enterprises. It is one of the few industries with the capability of significantly increasing employment especially during peak times (Nickerson & Christensen, 1995). Some of the contribution of rural tourism to social capital include:-

a) Transformation of rural communities

The type of tourism introduced can determine the extent to which tourism can promote the relationships and networks. Cultural tourism, for instance, focuses on daily local life, traditional celebrations, history, and archaeology of the community. This focus keeps people within the scope of their life patterns whilst it generates extra income for them. The same applies to village-based tourism, where tourists share the local daily life experiences with the local people (Nusser, 2005). Since the daily life experiences help to empower the local people, their livelihoods may change during and even after the visit. The other major benefit is that the rural community derives income from the presence of tourists in the area since the tourists obtain most of the materials, equipment, energy and foodstuffs from the locality. The tourism industry is able to influence the establishment of social facilities such as banks, post offices and telecommunications, which in turn create more jobs for the rural people. This influence is a result of the fact that the tourists obtain

their reinforcements from the locality, as rural people get jobs they are able to reduce the impact of poverty (Mbaiwa, 2003).

Polo and Frias (2010) contend that rural tourism can act as an agent of the transformation of rural areas by allowing an inflow of resources and liquidity into host communities through the expenditure of tourists and the creation of new small businesses and employment. This transformation in turn, can assist in building of infrastructure and in the conservation of the natural environment, culture and identities of each rural tourist destination. Rural tourism promotes social advancement as well as environmental conservation. Social advancement helps to change the mind-set of people to such an extent that they believe in their region as a source of employment and livelihood.

b) Revitalization of Community Pride

Rural tourism revitalizes the community pride in that it is cited as keeping traditional culture strong and that communities feel pride in community tourism achievements. Huang *et al.* (1996) stated that tourism encourages conformity to an ideal image of community, which can result in growth of personal ties and community solidarity. Thus the basis for community solidarity shifts from shared cultural background to shared image.

Betz (1993) and Prideaux *et al.* (1997) argued that amenities play a fundamental role in shaping a community's identity and pride and so the potential of tourism for improvements to facilities and amenities has positive implications for community pride, particularly rural museums as an important repository of rural culture. The involvement of women in rural tourism in Spain for example resulted in stronger sensitivity to their environment and heightened interest in maintaining the aesthetic values of their region (Garcia-Ramon *et al.*, 1995).

c) Preservation of Rural Culture and Heritage

Rural tourism encourages people to preserve and protect the cultural heritages, ancient and historical places, customs, handicrafts, and festivals. In this sense, tourism is directly helping to preserve the resources of high importance that has both local and national values (Cooper *et al.*, 2008). However, Macbeth (1997) and Prideaux *et al.* (1997) stated that this may represent a paradox, but tourism does have a capacity to provide the impetus for preservation of cultural heritage while it acts as a vector for cultural exchange. In rural tourism, the 'sense of place' is a fundamental element in both the tourists' and host community's feelings of what makes the area attractive to visit and live in. This sense of place is maintained partly through rural museums that play a vital role in preserving heritage.

Weaver and Opperman (2000) stated that, tourism also contributes to the restoration or preservation of historical buildings and sites. This is done through the collection of entrance fees, souvenir sales and donations. Irandu (2004) in his study stated that International tourism in Kenya has stimulated the restoration and preservation of historical sites and monuments. Among the most popular historical sites in the country include Fort Jesus, a sixteenth-century Portuguese fort Jesus in Mombasa, the old town, Mombasa, Gedi Ruins near Malindi and Lamu World Heritage Site.

d) Cultural and Social Exchange

The motivation for farm hosts engaging with tourism is as much a social driver as an economic one, and meeting and socializing with people is the main reason for remaining in the tourism business (Williams, 1995; Oppermann, 1996; Huang *et al.*, 1996; WTO, 1997). For example as stated by Bendix (1994), German farming families who offer vacations on the farm experience, social relationships with tourists that transgress

touristic encounters and exchanges so that meaningful relationships, and often friendships, result from the interaction with tourists.

These meaningful social exchanges are in part dependent on the nature of the rural lifestyle and the low numbers of tourists (Macbeth, 1997). Indigenous tourism operators often cite teaching aboriginal culture to visitors and the opportunities for cultural exchange and to meet new people as the most valuable aspects of being in tourism. (DOT, 1995; ATSIC, 1996).

e) Improved lifestyles and local life.

Rural tourism creates initiatives of improved lifestyles and local life. As stated by Mansour and Mahin (2013) in his study, local communities can mix with people from diverse backgrounds with different lifestyles which through 'demonstration effect' may lead to the initiatives of improved lifestyles and practices from the tourists' examples. There can be an improvement in local life through better local facilities and infrastructure (developed to sustain tourism) which could lead to better education, health care, employment opportunities and income.

A case study on rural tourism development in Uganda shows that rural tourism has resulted in the conservation of the natural and cultural assets and has added values such as the renovation of cultural structures (Holland *et al.*, 2003). Improvement in the lifestyle in rural families can change other support activities such as education and health. However, rural tourism provides social and cultural benefits such as social contacts between local population and tourist, and an augmented perception of the importance of stronger communication among local people. Local communities begin to find ways to develop the economy of the area, improve living standards and preserve cultural heritage and social values (Ramanauskiene *et al.*, 2006). Appreciation of the culture of local

communities among visitors is one of the best benefits of tourism. Such appreciation and enhancement encourages local people to develop their cultural assets, such as customs, handicrafts, architecture, food, and local knowledge, for their own benefit (Mametja, 2006).

f) Revival of traditional arts and Crafts.

Rural tourism has led to the revival of traditional arts and crafts as argued by Othoche (1999) in his study that with regard to creativity and excellence, tourism may help the local communities such as the Maasai, Turkana, Pokomo and others to take pride in their art forms and culture. In this way, the identity of the local communities in Kenya is preserved. During the colonial era, art forms and other cultural attributes of the Kenyan people were nearly eradicated by the European colonizers who were determined to “Christianize and civilize natives”.

g) Revival of traditional festivals, songs, music and dance.

International tourism has also acted as a stimulus to festivals, songs and dances. In terms of cultural diversity, Kenya has many ethnic groups, each with unique cultural activities which have been developed and/or tapped to diversify tourism products. The various ethnic groups in the country have folklore. The local communities attach a lot of meaning and value to such cultural attributes (Othoche, 1999). For example, among the Maasai, ceremonies are held to mark transition from boyhood to manhood, junior and then senior elders. Unique dance, music and musical instruments are found among the various communities in Kenya. Many of these were almost dying until tourist demand led to their revival (ibid). Music is popular among the Abagusii of Nyanza province of Kenya. Gusii land is the home of the eight-stringed instrument called the “Obokano”. The Luo traditional dress is the most decorative in the country. The body ornamentation, together

with colorful headgear of feathers and hippo masks, makes Luo dancing and festivities an “eye catching scene” (ibid).

2.16. CONTRIBUTION OF RURAL TOURISM TO NATURAL CAPITAL ASSETS

The presence of visitors in a destination can have a positive impact on the natural environment. The natural environment benefits from rural tourism through the creation of environmental awareness, research and development, conservation of natural areas among others.

a) Conservation and Protection of Important Natural Areas

Rural tourism enables the conservation of natural areas as stated by Leonard and Carson (1997) that tourism can help justify and pay for conservation of nature parks, outdoor recreation and conservation areas as attractions which otherwise might be allowed to deteriorate ecologically. In addition, Sunlu (2003) indicated that tourism can significantly contribute to environmental protection, conservation and restoration biological diversity and sustainable use of natural resources. Because of their attractiveness, pristine sites and natural areas are identified as valuable and the need to keep the attraction alive can lead to creation of national parks and wildlife parks.

b) Conservation of Archaeological and Historic Sites

According to Leonard and Carson (1997) in his study, tourism provides the incentive and helps pay for the conservation of archaeological and historic sites (as attractions for tourists) which might otherwise be allowed to deteriorate or disappear.

c) Environmental ethics

Tourism changes unused environmental objects into useful resources. When these resources begin to contribute to the rural economy, residents are encouraged to conserve them. In this way the natural environment benefits from rural tourism in the sense that the community takes care of it once its resourcefulness is discovered. Eco-tourists prefer a destination that offers a wide range of flora and fauna. Once these have been identified as attractive to visitors, they become important resources. This identification of new resources encourages the community to save flora and fauna in order to sustain the productivity of a destination and its role in poverty alleviation. Along with flora and fauna, all other natural resources which form part of tourist attraction are maintained. Appreciation of diverse tourism resources can change the mind-set of tourists from a desire to exploit the natural environment to a desire to work with local people to conserve it (Goodman & Francis, 2003).

The development of rural tourism can strengthen farmer's resource consciousness and make them receptive to protecting the resources and the environment and establishing a society with „saving resources and friendly environment attitudes – living up to clean village appearance as a motto (Zhang *et al.*, 2009). Tourism is therefore an effective means not only of regenerating declining rural economies but also of promoting cultural values and satisfying more environmentally-friendly forms of business management. The current growth of rurally-oriented tourism is accompanied by an expansion of its definitions to incorporate ideas about ecotourists responsibility, environmentally friendly destination management, profit linkages to conservation efforts and sustainable development of local people (Dineyurek, 2005).

Once people discover that they can earn a living from the natural environment they begin to exercise environmental stewardship. Part of environmental ethics is the conservation of

freshwater and marine resources. Once these become tourist products, locals begin to plan carefully for their use and appreciate the need to exercise judicious control over them so that they derive maximum benefit and prolong their availability as part of their livelihood (Neto, 2003). The development of tourism in rural areas can boost maintenance of habitat for wildlife and promote wildlife management and nature-based tourism as legitimate land uses (Libanda & Blignaut, 2008). A major advantage of strong environmental ethics is that the tourism industry becomes more sustainable, thus creating sustainable jobs for poverty alleviation.

d) Improved Environmental Management and Planning

Tourism leads to improved environmental management and planning as stated by WTO (1995) that sound environmental management of tourism facilities and especially hotels can increase benefits to natural areas. It requires careful planning for controlled initiatives, based on analysis of the environmental resources of the area. Planning help to make choices between conflicting uses, and find ways to make them compatible. By planning early for tourism initiatives, damaging and expensive mistakes can be prevented, avoiding the gradual deterioration of environmental assets significant to tourism.

UNEP (2010) argued that cleaner production techniques can be important tools for planning and operating tourism facilities in a way that minimizes their environmental impacts e.g. green building is an increasingly important way for the tourism industry to decrease its impact on the environment. Since waste treatment and disposal are often major, long-term environmental problems in the tourism industry, pollution prevention and waste minimization techniques are especially important for the tourism industry.

e) Environmental Awareness

Tourism creates environmental awareness as indicated by UNEP (2010) that tourism has the potential to increase public appreciation of the environment and to spread awareness of environmental problems when it brings people into closer contact with nature and the environment. Also it can play a key role in providing environmental information and raising awareness among tourists of the environmental consequences of their actions. In addition if tourists and tourism-related businesses consume an enormous quantity of goods and services; moving them toward using those that are produced and provided in an environmentally sustainable way could have an enormous positive impact on the planet's environment.

f) Research and development

Tourism in rural areas creates an ideal situation for tourists to socialise with local people and scientists to conduct research (Page & Dowling, 2002). There is a general hope that the results of scientific research would lead to a better understanding of the local community in general and of the natural environment in particular (Thermil & Sheaffer, 2004). In this way, the tourism industry can expand in the rural areas and provide more advancement opportunities for local people. The local communities could use the knowledge obtained from researchers to promote sustainable development programmes for the conservation of flora and fauna. They can use the income from tourism to conserve and protect nature reserves, historic towns, battlefields, river gorges, beaches and ocean reefs. Research can also help to develop new tourism products for the expansion and diversification of the sector in rural areas which may create new products and new employment opportunities (Mametja, 2006).

Research makes rural tourism a change agent as scientific findings inform new methods of nature conservation and environmental resource management. This can potentially

promote the sustainability of the tourism industry. Research also helps the industry to identify which of its activities have controllable impacts and which are difficult to regulate. Rural tourism has strong dependence on the natural resources and it can be a renewable industry where the resource integrity can be maintained. In this way it makes the countryside a reliable resource for tourism and an effective tool for poverty alleviation. Ballantyne *et al.* (2009) are convinced that tourism research helps the planners to track recent developments in the tourism industry and identify areas for closer consideration during the process of development.

g) Financial Contributions

Tourism can generate finances which can be used in conservation of sensitive areas and habitat. According to WTO (1997 & 1998), the revenue from park entrance fees and similar sources can be allocated specifically to pay for the protection and management of environmentally sensitive areas but special fees for park operations or conservation activities can be collected from tourists or tour operators. Though, governments collect money in more far-reaching and indirect ways that are not linked to specific parks or conservation areas user fees, income taxes, taxes on sales or rental of recreation equipment, and license fees for activities such as hunting and fishing can provide governments with the funds needed to manage natural resources and such funds can be used for overall conservation programs and activities, such as park ranger salaries and park maintenance. (ibid)

2.17. NEGATIVE IMPACTS OF RURAL TOURISM TO CAPITAL ASSETS

Besides the benefits mentioned above, rural tourism can have a negative impact in the livelihoods of people.

2.17.1. Negative impacts of rural tourism to physical capital assets

It can cause traffic congestion and put pressure on the natural environment.

(a) Traffic Congestion

The development of transportation increases the volume of cars, thus causing traffic congestion. Usually overcrowded roads are not a familiar phenomenon in rural areas. Overcrowded roads cause complaints from the local residents. Lewis (1998) holds that it is usual for the rural community that features popular attractions to become unhappy when they find that during peak tourism times a simple five minutes trip to the post office becomes a two hour ordeal. The seasonality of the tourism activity makes matters worse. During the peak season the traffic problem escalates as the number of visitors flock to destinations. It is during these times that residents complain about traffic congestion caused by additional cars on the rural roads (Barker, 2003).

(b) Pressure on the natural resources

Sometimes development of infrastructure requires clearance of natural spaces, and most of these spaces contain natural flora and fauna which are used as tourist attractions. Development of roads, bridges, cable cars, railway lines and other forms of infrastructure may consume these spaces that are occupied by fragile natural ecosystems. Rapid development of infrastructure can cause adverse environmental degradation and natural resource depletion associated with other problems such as air pollution and noise pollution. Intensive tourism development can threaten natural landscapes, notably through deforestation and soil loss through erosion. Litman (2011) argues that road-kills in rural areas become a common occurrence as animals are directly killed on the roads which are developed for supporting rural tourism development. During the peak tourism seasons, more and more animals are killed because of increased traffic.

2.17.2. Negative impacts of rural tourism to financial capital assets

Cattarinich (2001) argues that rapid tourism development in rural areas and non-local investments tend to marginalize some segments of local communities by exacerbating inequalities between the poor and those who have more capital. The poor usually benefit from tourism by way of becoming street vendors or casual labourers.

(a) Poor quality of jobs

Conventional wisdom suggests that the main drawback of tourism is its ability to create many jobs in restaurants, motels and other businesses that offer low wages and few fringe benefits. The question is: does this mean that rural tourism offers low-paying jobs? Marcouiller (2007) does not agree with this contention and argues that tourism generates high levels of seasonal, part-time employment opportunities which are geared to first-time workers and young people with little work experience. These jobs, he suggests, are good as a supplementary income component for retired people and those experiencing work transitions. It is interesting to note that whilst most of the earnings from pro-poor tourism go to the skilled people, there is evidence of opportunities opening up for the unskilled and marginalized groups (Ashley & Roe, 2002). One can argue that seasonal and part-time jobs are not a permanent solution to rural depopulation and poverty. The negative impact of such jobs can be that rural people get attracted by permanent jobs with higher wages in the cities, consequently aggravating rural depopulation and its socio-economic impacts.

Tourism development in the countryside is seen as a way of improving the lives of rural people. Jobs created must be decent and help people to change their lives for the better. Generally, however, the local people hold low-paying jobs which involve manual labour. Mbaiwa (2003) reports that in a study conducted in Botswana, there are reports that local

people work as cleaners, kitchen hands, drivers, cooks, watchmen and grounds-men. Very few of the rural locals are employed in management and assistant manager's positions. Some locals involved in tourism employment work as manual labourers for tasks such as skinning wild animals during the hunting season and tent-keeping. The low-paying jobs in the rural tourism industry can act as a deterrent to potential employees in favour of urban employment (Mbaiwa, 2003). The low-wage part-time jobs created by rural tourism means that it fails to create jobs for sustainable livelihoods and poverty alleviation (Marcouiller, 2007).

(b) Seasonality of tourism-related jobs

One of the unintended consequences of rural tourism development is the stress and uncertainty of employment in this sector of the rural economy caused by its seasonal character. There are seasonal fluctuations in the demand for services. During the peak times there is stress imposed by tourists flowing in large numbers. This stress is also felt by residents as they stand in long lines in banks, post offices and other service providers. The off-season times are also problematic because they reduce the size of the labour force, resulting in temporary unemployment for some of the local people (Baker, 2009). Seasonality makes rural tourism a temporary panacea for rural problems such as poverty and rural depopulation. It weakens the effectiveness of poverty alleviation strategies and reduces them to temporary solutions because people slide back to unemployment during the down season and back to employment during peak season. It is this fluctuating employment that attracts people to urban areas to seek permanent employment.

(c) Overreliance on tourism

Currently tourism has become a life-quality indicator and an important source of income as well as a regional growth propeller through the development of small businesses. Rural

tourism industries have very low entry requirements and this creates many new small and medium-sized businesses which rely heavily on tourism (Beaver, 2002). This overreliance on tourism is dangerous because it creates tight competition among small businesses, resulting in very low profits which makes minimal difference between the employed and the unemployed (Komppula, 2004). The concentration of entrepreneurs in the tourism business in a region or locality competes with environmental conservation and natural resource management and a vision for sustainable development (Tchetchik *et al.*, 2005). This may result in a negative image of the destination, which is not conducive to poverty alleviation (Yesid *et al.*, 2009).

Rural tourism has long been considered as a means of accelerating economic and social development and has become a development tool for many rural areas (Parhad *et al.*, 2007). If rural communities over-rely on tourism they are likely to face problems, because the industry responds quickly to negative influences like political disturbance and natural disasters (Visser, 2004). Rural tourism should not be treated as more than a complement to development itself because of a risk of turning the territory into a mono-functional unit. This brings forth high seasonality and external pressure and might therefore obstruct and eventually prevent development and frustrate poverty alleviation programmes. For this reason, rural tourism should be conceived as a dynamic factor for other rural activities (Yesid *et al.*, 2009). The seasonal nature of rural tourism poses a serious risk to the rural community, especially where there is overreliance on it.

(d) Invasion by outsiders

Attractive tourism business opportunities in the countryside may tempt well-resourced and experienced outsiders to come to communities and compete with the growing tourism businesses. Some of these invaders can be satellite businesses of large urban tourism

sectors which have access to public debt markets (Zimmer & Scarborough, 2005). The small tourism businesses may eventually collapse, because it is very difficult for them to obtain finance – especially when they undertake new aspects of business. Furthermore, these outsiders have experience in tourism-business management, leadership, organisation, control, marketing and location. In this way the diversifying small tourism businesses can drop out of the tourism sector at a time when there are slim chances of survival in the agricultural sector. Consequently more rural people can find themselves in a poverty trap and decide to migrate to cities.

The invasion by outsiders can bring in strong outside competitors to the rural tourism business, which may result in their being excluded in favour of the outsiders. One of the major problems with outside competitors is the development of „enclave tourism. Enclave tourism refers to tourism that is concentrated in remote areas where the types of facilities and their physical location fail to take account of the needs and wishes of the surrounding communities (Conway & Timmis, 2010). Such tourist facilities are owned by outsiders and are designed to meet the needs of the foreign tourists. The domination of the tourism industry by the outsiders can reduce control over local resources, thus causing failure of development strategies to achieve livelihood outcomes such as more income and increased wellbeing (Mbaiwa, 2003).

(e) Leakages

The hard-earned gains from tourism are frequently minimised by different kinds of leakages which Klytchnikova and Dorosh (2009) refer to leakages as the percentage of tourism income gained from tourists that leaves the destination or never reaches the

destination. This comes in two major forms. There are internal leakages which result from the importation of labour and goods into the destination. These are worse in developing countries and occur when tourist expenditure flows out of the destination or never reaches it because of high levels of outside ownership of plant or services.

The external leakages are a result of the involvement of intermediaries, where the generating countries gain more than the host countries. This happens through the sale of inclusive tours whereby a package that includes transport, accommodation, food and recreational activities is bought outside the destination, probably from a foreign tour operator (Meyer, 2006). The leakage of benefits increases when outsiders have invaded the industry in a rural area to such an extent that many tourist establishments hire non-local labour and use other inputs, including agricultural products, which originate from outside the region (Klytchnikova & Dorosh, 2009).

2.17.3. Negative impacts of rural tourism to social capital assets

People in rural areas may not have the same attitude towards tourism and tourists. The interaction between tourists and the local communities can bring about social problems and dissipation of community atmosphere.

(a) Social problems

Social problems result can stem from large numbers but they can also be triggered by a positive image of the destination which boosts its popularity and leads to overcrowding. As the tourism destination becomes popular, the culture of a rural community can also change rapidly because of the presence of large numbers of tourists. As a result of large numbers of visitors, a rural community may cease to be a place where children play on safe streets, where there is little or no crime, and where everyone welcomes you to their house. In many rural communities where tourism has developed, people complain about

the escalation of social problems. Tourism results in the importation of crime and other serious societal problems into rural communities and these can radically alter a community's culture and cause the escalation of social problems (Thermil & Sheaffer, 2004).

One of the social problems that result from large numbers of visitors in an area is crime. There are perceptions that tourism impacts on public safety in rural areas. The issue of the relationship between tourism and crime calls for debate to establish whether it is just a perception or a reality. There are perceptions that tourism contributes to crime. There is also a perception that tourism is a function of crime because crime chases away tourists. It is logical to assume that the tourist population may include people with criminal intentions. The more tourists there are the more criminals there might be in the area. Although the numbers may be small any criminal element among the tourist population can be active while in the locality. Another challenge is that during the tourist season the population density of the tourist-frequented area increase dramatically, creating opportunity for criminal elements (Baker, 2009).

Some scholars add the problem of prostitution as one of the negative impacts of tourism in rural areas. Prostitution is the most common negative social impact of tourism in rural and urban areas. Prostitution is likely to clash with the moral values of rural areas and can result in cultural conflicts. The Bahamas, Barbados and Jamaica have been cited as destinations which have shown high levels of prostitution in the Caribbean for the last 30 years (Thermil & Sheaffer, 2004). Prostitution affects morals and values of rural areas because exchanges between locals and visitors often lead to acculturation. Rural areas appear to be more sensitive to problems of acculturation than urban areas (Thermil & Sheaffer, 2004).

(b) Dissipation of community atmosphere

The pressure placed upon small communities and rural areas by large numbers of tourists and increased traffic can have considerable negative impacts. One of the widely recognized social impacts is a loss of small-town and rural atmosphere. This is a concern where shopping complexes and casinos are built in rural areas. Their existence and functioning make rural areas urban, thereby diminishing the very qualities being sought by rural visitors. When this happens there is a loss of congruence between the tourist's self-image and the destination image. This in turn results in loss of income and consequently failure of the tourism development programmes to create employment opportunities and to alleviate poverty. Other effects include traffic, greater demand on local services, and longer lines in grocery shops and other service providers (Hall *et al.*, 2005).

Socially, the small rural community atmosphere dissipates quickly. Neighbours may not be able to stand at gates and fences and chat with one another because there is a crowd of tourists on the street. This leads to a negative attitude towards the tourists among local residents. As the number of visitors increases, residents who were first overwhelmingly positive in their attitudes to their guests develop increasing reservations about the long-term benefits of visitors (Liu, 2005). The invasion of villages by foreign visitors with different values may disrupt the rural culture if tourism is not well planned. This disruption of culture may lead to a decline in the rural traditional and cultural practices.

Cheuk *et al.* (2010) argue that one of the socio-cultural impacts of tourism in rural areas is the "demonstration effect", where tourists who are financially better off than the local residents cause resentment or envy among the locals. As locals try to acquire the lifestyle of the tourists, they may abandon their own traditional values and culture. Where tourists

are from the big metropolitan areas, this may result in envy of urban life and rural depopulation. The length of stay in the destination may make matters worse, because it determines the socio-cultural impact of tourism (Hall *et al.*, 2005). When tourists stay in a particular destination for a long time, they come into contact with the host people. This continuous interaction affects both host and guest, and the interaction between the two may lead to a composite culture. It has been argued too; that tourism can create impacts upon the society such as cultural degradation, undue influence of foreign cultures, etc (Mishra & Dash, 2003).

Olorunfemi and Raheem (2008) assert that local communities are significantly vulnerable to the deleterious impacts of tourism development – particularly indigenous cultures, as they directly experience socio-cultural impacts of tourism. Disruption to established activity patterns, anti-social behavior, crime and overcrowding caused by tourism development can all have a negative impact on local lifestyles and the quality of life of both indigenous and non-indigenous communities. In this way, the attitudes of the local people to tourism and to tourists themselves can change. Consequently they may oppose any tourism development initiative in the area. As they oppose tourism development, the local poor are deprived of opportunities for earning income and minimizing the impact of poverty.

2.17.4. Negative impacts of rural tourism to natural capital assets

Harrison (2001) raises a concern about potentially increased risk to the natural environment from tourism. The argument is that tourism is unable to reduce the risk of exploitation of the natural environment, and can put pressure on the natural environment and reduce local residents' access to natural resources.

(a) Pressure on the natural environment

According to Neto (2003), uncontrolled tourism development can cause severe disruption of wildlife habitats and increased pressure on endangered species. Egbali *et al.* (2011) shares the same sentiment arguing that the disruption of wildlife behaviour is often caused by tourist's vehicles in national parks as they approach wild animals and distract them from hunting and breeding. The fragile ecosystems of mountain regions can also be threatened by increase in popular tourist activities such as skiing, showboating and trekking. Also Mbaiwa (2003) concurs with these views, stating that tourism contains the seeds of its own destruction because it can kill itself by destroying the environmental attractions which pull visitors to rural destinations. There are emerging rural tourism development areas where the sector places additional pressure on the environmental resources upon which it is based. Ashley (2002) states that the pressure that the tourism industry can exert can compromise the future prospects of the local poor communities as well as the very expectations of the tourists. It makes tourism an unsustainable tool for poverty alleviation.

Rapid expansion of tourism can cause environmental degradation and adverse socio-cultural impact. Scholars like Polucha and Zukovskis (2010) and Ashley (2000) agree that natural resource depletion and environmental degradation associated with tourism activities pose severe problems to many rural regions. The fact that most tourists choose to maintain their high consumption levels and generation of waste when they reach the destination can cause serious problems for developing regions that lack the appropriate means for protecting natural resources. Neto (2003) warns that the main natural resources at risk from tourism development are land, freshwater and marine resources.

In conforming to Neto (2003) state that tourist's facilities and programmes within certain areas should act as standard setters in environmentally sensitive design and operations. This suggests that careful land-use is necessary instead of rapid development planning

because the latter can intensify competition with other users for land resources and lead to rising land prices and increased pressure to build on agricultural land.

(b) Reduced access to natural resources

Ashley (2000) argues that tourism development can affect local community's access to natural resources if it is not well planned. This means that tourism can change arable land, degrade nature, and complicates the harmony of rural landscapes and ecosystems (Ashley, 2000). Where rural tourism development threatens the authenticity of local community traditions and excludes people from accessing key resources including grazing lands for livestock and plant resources for harvesting, tourism activity can perpetuate poverty and promote rural depopulation. Such a situation would be in contradiction of what Chachage (2003) meant by describing rural tourism as an activity in which local residents, often rural, often poor and marginalised are active participants as land managers, entrepreneurs, employees, decision makers and conservationists.

Besides the deliberate exclusion of local people from accessing natural resources, what Polucha and Zukovskis (2010) observes that unplanned tourism in rural areas can deny local people access to natural resources directly by damaging resources and indirectly by affecting the way resources are managed.

2.18. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The theoretical framework for this study is based in Sustainable Livelihood theory. The study adopted the livelihood assets of the framework i.e. physical, financial, social and natural capital assets. The Sustainable Livelihoods (SL) centers on ways of understanding the practical realities and priorities of poor men and women – what they actually do to make a living, the assets that they are able to draw on and the problems that they face in doing this. The rationale is that the better this is understood, the better able those

designing policies and programmes addressing poverty will be to identify points of intervention and appropriate strategies. Ideally, successful strategies under the SL approach should serve to improve and consolidate poor people's access to and control over assets, thereby improving their livelihoods, and helping to make them less vulnerable to shocks and stresses (such as serious illness, natural disasters or job loss) which could otherwise lead to a downward cycle of indebtedness and impoverishment (Farrington *et al.*, 2004). It provides a structure for collecting, analyzing, and integrating detailed household and community-level data to assess economic, cultural, and environmental components of the impacts of interventions on rural livelihoods.

At the household and community level, livelihood assets play an essential role for households and individuals in pursuing livelihood strategies, with the aim of achieving desired livelihood outcomes which, in turn, impact again on livelihood assets. In a broader sense, livelihoods consist of assets, defined as four different types of capital: human (e.g., knowledge, skills, creativity, adaptive strategies), natural (e.g., land /soil, air, water, forestry /vegetation, wildlife), and social capital (e.g., governance structure, decision-making power, community groups, culture) (DFID, 2000). In this study rural tourism initiative is seen as an avenue in which the local community livelihoods can be improved. Hall and Brown (2000) for instance believes that through tourism, majority of the rural areas can regulate themselves both economically and socially in the dynamic global setting. This contention has triggered increasing focus on rural tourism by both tourism product developers, planners and the rural communities as an alternative means of achieving sustainable economic growth and development.

2.19. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Figure 2.2 presents the conceptual framework for this study. It shows how rural tourism initiatives contribute to every aspect of the capital assets used in this study. In this study financial capital is used to refer to the employment opportunities, income and benefits that the local communities get from rural tourism initiatives to support their livelihoods.

Physical capital is used in the study to refer to buildings, health and education infrastructure, water supply obtained as a result of tourism initiatives for supporting livelihoods of local community. Natural capital in this study refers to tourism natural resources in Mara triangle e.g. wildlife which the local community uses to generate their livelihoods and Social capital refers to the relationship between the local community and various stakeholders such as Mara conservancy and the tour guides. Because of them the tourists visit their manyattas.

INDEPENDENT VARIABLE



DEPENDENT VARIABLE

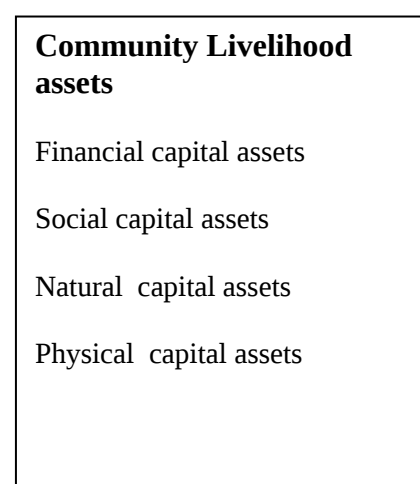


Figure 2.2: Conceptual Framework**Source: Researcher (2016)****CHAPTER THREE****RESEARCH METHODOLOGY****3.1 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter discusses the methodology, the research design and methods used to collect data, that is, questionnaires and focus group discussions, sampling techniques, the target population, the validity and reliability of data, ethical considerations and data analysis procedure.

3.2 STUDY AREA

3.2.1 Location

The Mara Triangle is the North-Western part of the Maasai Mara National Reserve, Kenya (see appendix III). Measuring approximately 510sq. kilometers in size, this unfenced savannah grassland is roughly 180 kms southeast of Nairobi. The Mara Triangle is divided from the rest of the Maasai Mara National Reserve by the Mara River. The Mara Triangle is less visited and less crowded, often with many more game animals grazing on the plains and between the volcanic hills that distinguish this corner of the Mara. It has two natural borders and one political; to the South West is the Tanzania/Serengeti border, to the East is the Mara River, and to the North West is the Oldoinyio Escarpment (also called Oolololo or Siria Escarpment) (www.maratriangle.org).

3.2.2 Climate

The Mara Triangle is located at an altitude of between 4,875 and 7,052 feet above sea level, giving it a damp climate and more moderate temperature than most of Kenya. Daytime temperatures run at a maximum of 85°F (30°C) and night temperatures can drop to around 60°F (15°C). The Mara has two rainy seasons, with the short rains occurring during November to December and the long rains from March to June. Often, the short and long rains merge into one season, or the short rains may fail completely. Mean annual rainfall increases from the drier south-east (877 mm/year) to the wetter northwest (1,341 mm/year) (Ogutu *et al.*, 2011).

3.2.3 Topography

The Mara Triangle is flat and lays low forming poorly drained terrain resulting in water logging during high rainfall hence supporting productive tall grasslands (Ogutu & Dublin, 2002). Red and black cotton soil dominates the region and during the wet season

roads become impassable (Ogutu & Dublin, 2002). Dominant habitats are normally seasonal and permanent wetlands, grasslands, woodlands, scrublands, riverine forests and thickets.

Compared to the Sekenani and Musiara regions the Triangle is considered to have the lowest bushy vegetation cover. Trees and shrub are found either dense or scattered throughout the landscape, on peripheries of watercourses, or on ridge tops and hillsides (Ogutu & Dublin, 2004). The pure grassland communities are widely dominated by *Themeda triandra*, *Bothriochloa insculpta*, and *Setaria phleoides*, whereas the open grassland plains are dominated mostly by *Themeda triandra* (Medini, 1999).

3.2.4 Management of the Reserve

In 1994, management of the Maasai Mara National Reserve was divided into the eastern side managed by the Narok County Council, and the north-western sector (the Mara Triangle), then managed by the Trans Mara County Council. The Mara Triangle is 510 km², representing about a third of the entire Reserve (Walpole *et al.*, 2003).

In the year 2000, several of the local leaders became concerned about levels of mismanagement in the Mara Triangle, and as a result, Mara Conservancy, a not-for-profit management company, was established to manage the Triangle in collaboration with the Trans Mara County Council. A five-year management agreement was signed on May 25, 2001, and the Mara Conservancy started operations in the Mara Triangle on the June 12, 2001. This created the first public/private sector partnership of its kind in the region and has led to an active and cooperative partnership between conservation professionals and the local Maasai community that endeavours to improve the conservation and management of one of the most visited and well-known protected areas in the world (www.maratriangle.org).

3.2.4 Access

The Mara Triangle is easy to access by plane with its two airstrips (Serena airstrip and Kichwa Tembo airstrip) and with daily scheduled flights connecting the Mara Triangle with other parks and reserves in Kenya, the Kenyan coast (Mombasa, Diani, Malindi) and Nairobi (Jomo Kenyatta Airport or Wilson Airport). The Mara Triangle is also reachable by road (Ogutu & Dublin, 2004).

3.2.5 Economic Background

The Maasai are predominantly a pastoral people, dependent on their cattle, sheep and goats. Livestock are of central economic and cultural importance to the Maasai, and remain the focus of social relationships. Cultivation however plays an important role in the livelihoods of many contemporary Maasai, and although Maasai communities remain primarily dependent on livestock for their livelihoods, the majority are also diversifying to agro pastoralism, or away from natural resource based livelihoods to off farm activities such as business and tourism (Homewood *et al.*, 2009). In addition, the local community greatly depends on the earnings from the tourists visiting all year around

3.3 RESEARCH DESIGN

The study used descriptive and explanatory designs to generate the required information. Descriptive design aims to describe characteristics of populations based on data collected from samples and useful for identifying variables and hypothetical constructs (Babbie *et al.*, 2001). Explanatory seek to identify causes to ascertain causality between factors and to determine effects on behavior of a social phenomenon, and to predict how one phenomenon will change or vary in relation to another (Engel & Schutt, 2010). These designs were significant to this study because it was assessing the contribution of rural tourism initiatives to community livelihoods.

3.4 TARGET POPULATION

The study targeted Mara conservancy staff, the staff of the tented camps i.e. Kichwa Tembo, Mara West and Little Governors and the local people living adjacent to the reserve up to 3 km away from the reserve boundary (see appendix IV). The area has a population of approximately 5000 people (Narok County Management Plan, 2014). They were selected proportionately as shown below because of their engagement in rural tourism initiatives in Mara Triangle.

Staff in the conservancy	300
Staff in the lodges	1500
Local community	3200
Target population	5,000
$300/5000 \times 100$	6
$1500/5000 \times 100$	30
$3200/5000 \times 100$	64
Sample size	100

3.5 SAMPLING PROCEDURES AND SAMPLE SELECTION

According to Orodho and Kombo (2002), sampling is the procedure a researcher uses to gather people to study. It is the process of selecting a number of individuals from a population such that the selected group contains elements representative of the characteristics found in the entire group. The study used simple random and purposive sampling technique to identify the respondents for this study.

3.5.1 Sample Size

Since it was not possible to collect data from all the local community in Mara Triangle an appropriate sample size was determined. According to Schaller (1992), large sample size

enables a researcher to draw conclusions that are more accurate and make more accurate predictions. The desired sample size was determined using the Cochran equation

$$n_0 = \frac{Z^2 pq}{e^2}$$

Where n_0 is the sample size,

Z^2 is the abscissa of the normal curve that cuts off an area α at the tails;

$(1 - \alpha)$ equals the desired confidence level, e.g., 95%);

e is the desired level of precision,

p is the estimated proportion of an attribute that is present in the population, and q is $1-p$.

The value for Z is found in statistical tables which contain the area under the normal curve e.g. $Z = 1.96$ for 95 % level of confidence

$$\frac{(1.96)^2 \times 0.5 \times 0.5}{0.1} = 96$$

Thus, 100 respondents were randomly selected and interviewed in the study.

3.6 DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES

Both secondary and primary sources were used in data collection for the study. Secondary data collection involved gathering data from sources which had already been documented by other researchers. Through the use of secondary data, the study borrowed heavily from internet research, articles, journals and library research. The study relied mainly on primary data which was collected through questionnaires and focus group discussions.

3.7 INSTRUMENTS FOR DATA COLLECTION

3.7.1 Questionnaires

Questionnaires were designed to collect data from staff of the Mara Conservancy, staff of tented camps and local community living around Mara Triangle. The questionnaires were

self-administered by the researcher with the help of a research assistant randomly to the respondents.

The questionnaires had closed ended questions (Appendix 1) which was structured into five sections; the first section dealt with personal information, section two was on tourism initiatives undertaken by the local communities in Mara Triangle. The third section was on contribution of tourism initiatives to financial capital, the fourth section was on contribution of tourism initiatives to social capital, the fifth section was on contribution of tourism initiatives to natural capital and the last section was on contribution of tourism initiatives to physical capital.

3.7.2 Focus group discussions

Albrecht *et al.* (1993) stated focus group should range between six and twelve participants as ideal for discussion and as a result the researcher conducted the discussion with 6 respondents (3 men and 3 women) of varied ages from Mara Triangle and who were engaged in different tourism initiatives. The participants were selected purposively since they were useful for the study. The researcher sought to use 3 focus groups discussions since the selected population had similar characteristics that are, employees of Mara Triangle, those working in tourism establishments and those that are self-employed. The discussion lasted for 45 minutes and it enabled members to freely speak on how tourism initiatives has enable them to sell their cultural products, establish community projects, generate employment opportunities and improve their standard of living among others.

3.8 RELIABILITY

Reliability is a measure of the degree to which a research yields consistent results or data after repeated trials (Orodho, 2005). The level of an instrument's reliability is dependent on its ability to produce the same score when used repeatedly.

Test re-test technique was employed where questionnaires were issued to five (5) respondents in November 2014 in Mara triangle. After 5 days, the questionnaires were administered to the same group. Minor corrections to the wording of some questions were made following the feedback from this trial. Cronbach's alpha technique of measuring internal consistency or reliability was used. The reliability of the scales used was assessed for reliability with a target reliability alpha of 0.7. All scales had reliability between 0.82 and 0.89 which was above the 0.7 required. This therefore indicated that the items in the questionnaire were reliable.

Table 3. 1 Cronbach's alpha

Tourism initiatives in the region	0.82
Contribution of Tourism Initiatives to Physical and Financial Capital	0.89
Contribution of Tourism Initiatives to Social Capital	0.84
Contribution of Tourism Initiatives to Natural Capital	0.86

3.9 Validity of instruments

According to Mugenda and Mugenda (1999), validity is the accuracy and meaningfulness of inferences, which are based on the research results. It is the degree to which results

obtained from the analysis of the data actually represent the variables of the study. A pilot study of 18 respondents was conducted to test the validity of the research instrument.

The researcher conducted a pilot study at Siana group ranch, MMNR in order to test the validity of the research instruments. This area was selected because its activities taking place there are similar to ones in Mara triangle. The respondents that were taken for pilot study were not included in the main study. The subjects in the pilot study were requested to indicate their understanding of the questions, any questions with ambiguities and comment on the time required to complete a questionnaire.

Recommendations and comments from the pilot study sample were used in drafting the final questionnaire that was used to collect data. Items that failed to measure the variables they were intended to measure were amended or removed thus enhancing the validity of the findings.

3.10 DATA ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION

The data collected was analyzed using descriptive statistics because it is most desirable, as it enable the researcher to have an insight on contribution of tourism initiatives to community livelihoods in Mara triangle and inferential statistics analysis using multiple regression in order to understand the functional relationships between the dependent and independent variables and to try to see what might be causing the variation in the dependent variable. Once the data was collected, the questionnaires were edited for accuracy, consistency and completeness. The response was coded into numerical form to facilitate statistical analysis.

Data was analyzed using Statistical Package Social Science (SPSS). Descriptive statistics were used to determine the tourism livelihood initiatives from the information contained in Section B. Multiple regression was used to determine the contribution of tourism

initiatives to financial capital contained in Section C, contribution of tourism initiatives to social capital contained in Section D, contribution of tourism initiatives to natural capital contained in Section E and contribution of tourism initiatives to physical capital contained in Section F of the questionnaire.

Regression analysis was used to relate a dependent variable to a set of independent variables.

The beta (β) coefficients for each independent variable were generated from the model.

The regression model that was used to test is shown below:

$$Y_1 = \alpha + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \beta_4 X_4 + \beta_5 X_5 + \beta_6 X_6 + \epsilon$$

$$Y_2 = \alpha + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \beta_4 X_4 + \beta_5 X_5 + \beta_6 X_6 + \epsilon$$

$$Y_3 = \alpha + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \beta_4 X_4 + \beta_5 X_5 + \beta_6 X_6 + \epsilon$$

$$Y_4 = \alpha + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \beta_4 X_4 + \beta_5 X_5 + \beta_6 X_6 + \epsilon$$

Where:

Y_1 is financial capital assets

Y_2 is social capital assets

Y_3 is natural capital assets

Y_4 is physical capital assets

α is Model Intercept

β is Regression coefficient

X_1 = Cultural tours

X_2 = Community based projects

X_3 = Sale of souvenirs

X_4 = Cultural entertainment

X_5 = Wildlife viewing

$$X_6 = \text{Cultural manyattas}$$

ε is Error Term

Content analysis was used to analyze qualitative information collected in the survey and focus group discussion. According to Mugenda and Mugenda (2003) the main purpose of content analysis is to study the existing information in order to determine factors that explained a specific phenomenon. This supports the results of quantitative analysis in drawing conclusions and recommendations.

3.11 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The researcher has the responsibility to ensure that in whatever the research paradigm she/he works, research is conducted in an ethical manner that allows the respondents to have trust in its outcome. In line with this, the researcher obtained informed consent from each respondent through introductory letter and oral consents as appropriate. On this aspect of informed consent, the researcher informed the participants on their right to withdraw from the research if need arises. Participation of the respondents in the study was voluntarily.

The researcher also guaranteed anonymity of the study participants from the beginning of the study to the end. Private and personal information that can lead to the participants being known by the public were not divulged. According to Bell and Burgess (2007), getting into a setting usually involves some sort of bargain-explicit or implicit assurances that you will not violate informants' privacy or confidentiality, expose them to harm, or interfere in their activities. During research the researcher created rapport with respondents, to gain certain level of trust and openness and to be accepted as a non – judgmental and non-threatening person.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS, PRESENTATION AND INTERPRETATION

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the analysis of the data collected from the respondent and discusses the research findings on contribution of rural tourism initiatives to community livelihoods in Mara triangle, Kenya. All completed questionnaires were edited for accuracy, uniformity, consistency and completeness. A total of 100 questionnaires were distributed and 90 were returned. This represented 90% response rate. Summaries of data findings together with their possible interpretations have been presented by use of tables, mean, percentages, frequencies, variances, standard deviation and regression model.

4.2 DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS

4.2.1 Personal details of the respondents

The researcher sought to assess the gender, age and the level of education of the respondents. From Table 4.1, 51% of the respondents were male while 49% were female and majority of the respondents were between the ages of 26-35 years. Also (31%) of the respondents have college education 23% of the respondents had secondary education, 23% had primary education, 15 % with no schooling while 8% had university education. This indicates that majority of the respondents were in a position to fill the questionnaires.

Table 4. 1 Personal details of the respondents

Variable		Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Male	46	51
	Female	44	49
	Total	90	100
Age (years)	18-25	17	19
	26-35	44	49
	36-45	24	27
	46-55	5	5
	Above 56	0	0
	Total	90	100
Level of Education	University	7	8
	College	28	31
	Secondary	21	23
	Primary	21	23
	No Schooling	13	15
	Total	90	100

Source: Field survey (2015)

4.2.2 Rural Tourism initiatives in the region

The study sourced to identify the tourism livelihood activities for the Mara triangle residents. As evident in table 4.2 below, (28%) of the respondents were on formal employment in the Mara triangle and Tourism establishment, 17% of the respondents were on informal employment in Mara Triangle, 17% of the respondents were employed as cultural entertainers and community tourism project, 16% of the respondents were involved in the sales of souvenir, while only 5% were involved in cultural tours.

Table 4. 2 Tourism initiatives

Tourism initiatives	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Sale of souvenir	14	16
Cultural entertainment	15	17
Cultural tours	5	5
Employment in tourism establishment	15	17
Formal employment in the Mara Triangle and Tourism establishment	25	28
Informal employment in the Mara Triangle and Tourism establishment	16	17
Total	90	100.0

Source: Field survey, (2015)

4.2.3 Contribution of rural tourism initiatives to different components of financial capital assets of the local community.

The study sought to assess the contribution of tourism initiatives to financial capital. Likert scale was used where: 5= strongly agree 4= agree 3= undecided 2= disagree 1=

strongly disagree. The results (see table 4.3) show that the local community have benefited from tourism through provision of training programs (M=3.80; SD=0.985), provision of school bursaries (M=3.65; SD=1.185) and provision of employment (M=3.50; SD=1.185). Some of the respondents were undecided whether it contributes to community based projects (M=3.45; SD= 1.173).

Table 4. 3 Contribution of rural tourism initiatives to different components of financial capital assets

	Mean	SD
Provision of school bursaries	3.65	1.185
Support for local sport activities	3.43	1.175
Provision of training programs	3.50	1.185
Provide employment	3.80	.985
Community based projects	3.45	1.173

Source: Field survey, (2015)

4.2.4 Contribution of rural tourism initiatives to different components of social capital assets of the local community

The study sought to assess the contribution of tourism initiatives to social capital. Likert scale was used where: 5= strongly agree 4= agree 3= undecided 2= disagree 1= strongly disagree. As evident in table 4.4, majority of the local community indicated that they benefited from tourism initiatives in that through tourism, revitalization of community pride (M=3.92; SD=1.210), the community has been empowered (M=3.79, SD=1.225), improved security (M=3.60; SD=1.130) and Human wildlife resolution (M=3.50; SD=1.232), though the respondents were undecided whether it protects culture and local heritage protection (M=3.49; SD= 1.190) and cultural and social exchange (M=3.42; SD=1.230).

Table 4. 4 Contribution of rural tourism initiatives to different components of social capital assets

	Mean	S.D
Cultural and social exchange	3.42	1.230
Revitalization of community pride	3.92	1.210
Protection of culture and local heritage	3.49	1.190
Community empowerment	3.79	1.225
Improved security	3.60	1.130
Solution to human wildlife conflicts	3.50	1.232

Source: Field survey, (2015)

4.2.5 Contribution of rural tourism initiatives to different components of natural capital assets of the local community.

Likert scale was used in the study to the contribution of tourism initiatives to natural capital, where: 5= strongly agree 4= agree 3= undecided 2= disagree 1= strongly disagree. As indicated in table 4.5 the contribution of natural capital as a result of tourism initiatives were, conservation of natural resources (M=3.70;SD=1.150), controlled construction of structures (M=3.58; SD= 1.293) and environmental awareness (M=3.53;SD=1.221). Some of the respondents were undecided whether it contributes to water resource management (M=3.46; SD=1.280) and fighting charcoal burning (M=3.40; SD=1.286).

Table 4. 5 Contributions of rural tourism initiatives to different components of natural capital assets

	Mean	SD
Environmental awareness	3.53	1.221
Conservation of natural resources	3.70	1.150
Controlled construction of structures	3.58	1.293
Water resource management	3.46	1.280
Fighting Charcoal burning	3.40	1.286

Source: Field survey, (2015)

4.2.6 Contribution of rural tourism initiatives to different components of physical capital assets of the local community.

The study sought to assess the contribution of tourism initiatives to physical capital. Likert scale was used where: 5= strongly agree 4= agree 3= undecided 2= disagree 1=

strongly disagree. The results (see table 4.6) show that the tourism initiatives contribute to building of schools (M=3.84; SD=0.984), improved infrastructure and super structure (M=3.64; SD =1.181), medical support (M=3.43; SD=1.175) and water (M=3.40; SD; 1.175).

Table 4. 6 Contribution of rural tourism initiatives to different components of physical capital assets

	Mean	SD
Building of school	3.84	0.984
Medical support	3.43	1.175
Provision of infrastructure and super structure	3.64	1.181
Water	3.40	1.125

Source: Field survey (2015)

4.3 REGRESSION ANALYSIS

4.3.1 Contribution of Rural Tourism initiatives to Financial Capital assets of the Local community.

The study adopted the regression model to examine how each rural tourism initiatives contribute to financial asset of the local community. The results are illustrated in table 4.7. The "R Square" which represents the R^2 value (also called the coefficient of determination), which is the proportion of variance in the dependent variable that can be explained by the independent variables (technically, it is the proportion of variation accounted for by the regression model above and beyond the mean model). From table 4.7 the R^2 value of 92% showed that rural tourism initiatives contribute significantly to financial capital assets of local community. Also the results show that cultural tours (P=0.002), community base projects (P=0.000), sale of souvenirs (P=0.000), cultural entertainment (P=0.016) and wildlife viewing (P=0.002) significantly contributes to financial capital assets of the local community in Mara Triangle. During FGD, participants reported that it contributes financial capital assets through generation of

employment. Cultural manyattas (P=0.125) doesn't contribute much since it is rarely practiced by local community in Mara Triangle.

Table 4. 7 Contribution of Rural Tourism initiatives to Financial Capital assets

Number of obs = 90

Prob> F =0.0000

R-squared =0.9225

Adj R-squared =0.9216

Root MSE =0.13793

Financial capital	Coef	Std. Err	T	P> t
Constant	0.0326334	0.0151032	2.16	0.031
Cultural tour	0.2079414	0.0678429	3.07	0.002
Community based projects	0.0154267	0.0003024	51.01	0.000
Sale of souvenir	0.0000233	3.20e-06	7.29	0.000
Cultural entertainment	-4.72e-08	1.95e-08	-2.42	0.016
Wildlife viewing	0.0558341	0.0183035	3.05	0.002
Cultural manyattas	0.0036624	0.002384	1.54	0.125

Source: Field Survey, 2015

The regression equation will be;

$$Y_1 = 0.033 + 0.207 X_1 + 0.015 X_2 + 0.000 X_3 - 4.72 X_4 + 0.056 X_5 + 0.004 X_6 + \varepsilon$$

4.3.2 Contribution of Rural Tourism initiatives to Social Capital assets of the Local community

Table 4.8 below indicates how rural tourism initiatives contribute to social capital assets of the local community. The R squared (39%) showed that rural tourism initiatives do not contribute much to social capital, though majority of the initiatives under investigation were significantly influential to social capital assets including cultural tours (P= 0.006), sale of souvenirs (P= 0.021), community base projects (P= 0.000) and cultural entertainment (P= 0.000). Cultural manyatta (P= 0.863) and cultural entertainment (P= 0.888) were insignificantly contributing to social capital assets because cultural manyatta is rarely practiced in Mara Triangle and also wildlife viewing contribute more to financial capital since it generates employment. In addition the participants from FDG reported that initiatives such as cultural tours, cultural entertainment and community base projects contributes to social capital assets while wildlife viewing contributes less social capital assets since there is less interaction between the local and the tourists.

Table 4. 8 Contribution of Rural Tourism initiatives to Social Capital assets

Number of obs	=90			
Prob> F	=0.0049			
R-squared	=0.3854			
Adj R-squared	=0.2840			
Root MSE	=0.4857			
Social capital	Coef	Std . Err	T	P> t
Constant	0.5935995	0.0497565	11.93	0.000
Cultural tours	5.16e-07	1.85e-07	2.79	0.006
Community based projects	0.0106287	0.0005347	19.88	0.000
Sale of souvenirs	-0.0783462	0.0338372	-2.32	0.021
Cultural entertainment	0.5935995	0.047565	11.93	0.000
Wildlife viewing	-0.0040411	0.0287948	-0.14	0.888
Cultural manyattas	-4.53e-08	2.62e-07	-0.17	0.863

Source: Field Survey, 2015

The regression equation will be;

$$Y_2 = 0.594 + 5.16 X_1 + 0.011 X_2 - 0.078 X_3 + 0.594 X_4 - 0.004 X_5 - 4.53 X_6 + \varepsilon$$

4.3.3 Contribution of Rural Tourism initiatives to Natural capital assets of the Local community.

The results in table 4.9 showed that rural tourism initiatives contributes to natural capital assets of the local community in Mara triangle as revealed by the R squared value (61%). From the results it showed that cultural tours (P=0.002), community base projects (P=0.002) and wildlife viewing (P=0.021) contributes significantly to natural capital. Also the participants in FGD responded that initiatives such as wildlife viewing and community based projects has contributed to natural capital assets in terms of conservation of natural resources, and environmental awareness, which had led it to be the most visited destination. Cultural entertainment (P=0.369), sale of souvenirs (P=0.142) and Cultural manyattas (P=0.509) insignificantly contributes to natural capital assets of the local community.

Table 4. 9 Contribution of Rural Tourism initiatives to Natural Capital assets

Number of obs =90

Prob> F =0.0002

R-squared =0.6102

Adj R-squared =0.0486

Root MSE =0.48062

Natural capital	Coef	Std. Err	T	P> t
Constant	0.514748	0.065862	7.82	0.000
Cultural tours	.0403572	0.012681	3.18	0.002
Community based projects	0.2079414	0.0678429	3.07	0.002
Sale of souvenirs	-1.10e-06	7.50e-07	-1.47	0.142
Cultural	-0.0586035	0.0689366	-0.85	0.396

entertainment				
Wildlife viewing	-0.0783462	0.0338372	-2.32	0.021
Cultural	-0.0248712	0.0376562	-0.66	0.509
manyattas				

Source: Field Survey, 2015

The regression equation will be;

$$Y_3 = 0.514 + 0.040 X_1 + 0.208 X_2 - 1.10 X_3 - 0.059 X_4 - 0.078 X_5 - 0.078 X_6 + \epsilon$$

4.3.4 Contribution of rural Tourism initiatives to Physical Capital assets of the Local community.

The R squared value (87%) in table 4.10 indicates that rural tourism initiatives contribute significantly to physical capital assets of the local community in Mara triangle. The results indicated that cultural tours, community based projects, sale of souvenirs, cultural entertainments and wildlife viewing significantly contribute to physical capital assets as indicated by their respective P-Values which are less than 0.05 with varying signs of coefficients which agrees with FGD since the participants responded that rural tourism initiatives has contributed to physical capital assets through stimulation of superstructures such as schools e.g. Emurtoto and health centre such as Engos and stimulation of infrastructure. Conversely, cultural manyattas contributed insignificantly to physical capital with a negative coefficient (-3.48e-07).

Table 4. 10 Contribution of Rural tourism initiatives to Physical Capital assets

Number of obs=90

Prob> F =0.0000

R-squared =0.8695

Adj R-squared =0.8681

Root MSE =0.17892

Physical capital	Coef	Std. Err	T	P> t
Constant	0.8384053	0.0197664	42.42	0.000

Cultural tours	2.43e-06	2.82e-07	8.63	0.000
Community based projects	-0.0128827	.0006343	-20.31	0.000
Sale of souvenirs	-0.332	0.124	-2.676	0.009
Cultural entertainment	0.462	0.134	3.440	0.001
Wildlife viewing	-0.0000204	4.99e-06	-4.08	0.000
Cultural manyattas	-3.48e-07	4.38e-070	-0.79	0.428

Source: Field Survey, 2015

The regression equation will be;

$$Y_4 = 0.838 + 2.43 X_1 - 0.013 X_2 - 0.332 X_3 + 0.462 X_4 - 0.000 X_5 - 3.48 X_6 + \varepsilon$$

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter summarizes the major findings of the study. This study sought to find out contribution of rural tourism initiatives to community livelihoods in Mara triangle, Kenya. In addition, this chapter provides a direction for further studies and gives some recommendations for policy making by the relevant authorities. Both primary and secondary information was used to determine the findings of the study.

5.2 DISCUSSION

5.2.1 Contribution of rural tourism initiatives to financial capital of the local community in Mara Triangle, Kenya

In terms of livelihoods, the results of the study in assessing the contribution of tourism initiatives to financial capital assets of the local community showed that the residents have benefited economically from tourism through provision of employment since some of the local community work in the camps, Mara conservancy and other are self-

employed through the sale of souvenirs. Findings also indicate that the majority of the benefits are not direct from the development of tourism initiatives, but are indirect effects, resulting from donations, bursaries, among others, from the Mara conservancy through donors.

A study by Mc McCarthy and Serju (2006) agrees with findings in that the labour-intensive nature of tourism facilitates the creation of employment in rural communities, particularly services and new product development. The creation of employment is critical to poverty alleviation and stabilisation of the rural population. The rural tourism sector demands inputs such as foodstuffs and supporting services from other sectors of the economy and in this way it can generate new employment opportunities, especially among the low-skilled rural poor. Its link with the agricultural sector is an advantage because this makes it a propeller of economic growth in rural development.

5.2.2 Contribution of rural tourism initiatives to social capital of the local community in Mara Triangle, Kenya

The study also sought to assess the contribution of rural tourism initiatives to social capital assets of the local community. From the findings of the study established that the local community in Mara Triangle have benefited from tourism initiatives in that through tourism, the community has been empowered, security has been sustained, human wildlife conflicts has been minimized and cultural exchange as a result of host-guest interaction.

A study by Ramanauskiene *et al.* (2006) supports the findings in that rural tourism provides social and cultural benefits such as social contacts between local population and tourist, and an augmented perception of the importance of stronger communication among local people. Local communities begin to find ways to develop the economy of

the area, improve living standards and preserve cultural heritage and social values. Appreciation of the culture of local communities among visitors is one of the best benefits of tourism. Such appreciation and enhancement encourages local people to develop their cultural assets, such as customs, handicrafts, architecture, food, and local knowledge, for their own benefit (Mametja, 2006).

5.2.3 Contribution of rural tourism initiatives to Natural capital of the local community in Mara Triangle, Kenya

In establishing the contribution of tourism to the natural capital the finding showed that through tourism initiatives the local community are aware of the need to conserve the environment, natural resources have been conserved, water resource management has been achieved and fight against charcoal burning. A Report from UNEP, (2010) supports the results that tourism has the potential to increase public appreciation of the environment and to spread awareness of environmental problems when it brings people into closer contact with nature and the environment. The tourism industry can play a key role in providing environmental information and raising awareness among tourists of the environmental consequences of their actions. Tourists and tourism-related businesses consume an enormous quantity of goods and services; moving them toward using those that are produced and provided in an environmentally sustainable way, could have an enormous positive impact on the planet's environment.

In the same way, Sunlu (2003) stated that tourism can significantly contribute to environmental protection, conservation and restoration biological diversity and sustainable use of natural resources. Because of their attractiveness, pristine sites and natural areas are identified as valuable and the need to keep the attraction alive can lead to creation of national parks and wildlife parks.

5.2.4 Contribution of rural tourism initiatives to physical capital of the local

Community in Mara Triangle, Kenya

Findings indicate that tourism initiatives stimulate the development of infrastructure and superstructure. Through rural tourism some schools such as Emurtoto, Mararianda, Partakila and Ololmongi primary schools have built. Also health centers such as Mararianda and Engos health center has been developed. Findings concur with a study by Sarkar (2009) that the key challenges to rural tourism development are infrastructure, connectivity and sanitation. When infrastructure expands, the growing tourism industry gets support and grows further. Road networks change inaccessible rural destinations into busy tourist destinations, create jobs, and help to curb rural depopulation and reduce the impact of poverty. The provision of roads helps to link different tourist's destinations and make it easy for the tourists and local people to travel from one area to another (Mbaiwa, 2003)

5.3 CONCLUSION

In conclusion, based on findings, it is evident that rural tourism initiatives contribute to physical, financial, social and natural capital of the local community through generation of employment, stimulation of infrastructures and superstructure, community empowerment, environmental awareness, solution to human wildlife conflict and conservation of natural resources. However there is need to link with other initiatives sectors like agriculture since tourism alone will not be sufficient especially during low season. Moreover, while tourism contributes to diversifying livelihood strategies, they can also create new dependencies of the local communities.

5.4 RECOMMENDATION

From the findings, the study recommends that:-

- For rural tourism to contribute more towards job opportunities, entrepreneurial skills and income generation, it is recommended that the Narok County government through Ministry of tourism and wildlife strengthens partnerships with the local business sector, the local community sector and general stakeholders, as well as the policy-makers to ensure a faster integrated tourism development process.
- From the study it showed that the few local community members engage in the sale of souvenir and cultural tours. Therefore the local community should join in hand together with the Mara triangle authorities to set up a location whereby the tourist on their way to the park can make a stopover and have a look at the display of their souvenir and purchase them. Also they should build some more cultural manyattas which can act as an accommodation for the tourist and in return the tourist can experience their culture more.

- The Mara triangle authorities should support the local community through funding in order to improve the community based projects and also improve the local sport activities.

5.5 SUGGESTION FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The study topic focused on contribution of rural tourism initiatives to the livelihoods of the local community in Mara triangle. Findings indicate that for local community to benefit more they need to be involved in policy making. It is recommended that research is conducted to establish whether the development planners in various rural areas involved in rural tourism development have designed any basic principles for community involvement that can ensure beneficial participation in the industry.

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APPENDIX I

Questionnaire

My name is Caroline Chelangat, a Master’s student in Moi University, Department of Tourism Management, conducting a study entitled, ‘Contribution of Rural Tourism initiatives Mara Triangle towards Local Community Livelihoods’. You have been selected as one of the respondents of this study. Your responses will be used for purposes of this study only and will be treated with utmost confidentiality. Please feel free to fill in your responses in this questionnaire as you may deem appropriate.

Thank you.

SECTION A: Demographic Information

What is your gender? Male Female

How old are you?

Age (years)	18-25	26-35	36-45	46-55	Above 56
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Response					
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What is your highest level of education?

Primary [] Secondary [] College [] University []

Others (specify).....

SECTION B: Rural Tourism Initiatives

Kindly tick (✓) rural tourism initiative you engage yourself in.

Cultural entertainment	
Cultural tours	
Employment in a community tourism project	
Formal employment in the conservancy	
Sale of souvenir	
Informal employment in the tourism (e.g. supplying goods to lodges and camps)	

SECTION C: Contribution of Rural Tourism Initiatives to Financial capital assets of the local community

1. Please indicate the extent to which you agree that the following rural tourism initiatives contribute to the physical capital assets of the local community. The following scale will be applicable: **5=strongly agree 4=agree 3=undecided 2=disagree 1=strongly disagree**

No	Statements	1	2	3	4	5
1	Cultural tours contributes to financial capital assets of the local community					
2	Community based projects contributes to financial capital assets of the local community					
3	Sale of souvenirs contributes to financial capital assets of the local community					
4	Cultural entertainment contributes to financial capital assets of the local community.					

5	Wildlife viewing contributes to financial capital assets of the local community					
6	Cultural manyattas contributes to financial capital assets of the local community					

2. To what extent do you agree with the following statements regarding the contribution of rural tourism initiatives to different components of financial capital assets? The following scale will be applicable: **5=strongly agree 4=agree 3=undecided 2=disagree 1=strongly disagree**

No	Statements	1	2	3	4	5
1	Rural tourism initiatives enable the local community to obtain school bursaries					
2	Rural tourism initiatives has led to support for local sport activities					
3	Rural tourism initiatives has created training programs for the local community					
4	Rural tourism initiatives generates employment					
5	Rural tourism initiatives provide funds to community based projects					

SECTION D: Contribution of Rural Tourism Initiatives to Social Capital assets of the local community.

1. Please indicate the extent to which you agree that the following rural tourism initiatives contribute to the social capital assets of the local community. The following scale will be applicable: **5=strongly agree 4=agree 3=undecided 2=disagree 1=strongly disagree**

No	Statements	1	2	3	4	5
1	Cultural tours contributes to social capital assets of the local community					
2	Community based projects contributes to social capital assets of the local community					
3	Sale of souvenirs contributes to social capital assets of the					

	local community					
4	Cultural entertainment contributes to social capital assets of the local community.					
5	Wildlife viewing contributes to social capital assets of the local community					
6	Cultural manyattas contributes to social capital assets of the local community					

2. Please indicate by way of ticking in the right column, the extent you agree with the given statement *where 5=strongly agree 4=agree 3=undecided 2=disagree 1=strongly disagree*

No	Statements	1	2	3	4	5
1	Rural tourism initiatives has led to cultural and social exchange between the host community and the guest					
2	Rural tourism initiatives has led to revitalization of the local community pride					
3	Rural tourism initiatives have led to protection of culture and local heritage of the local community.					
4	Rural tourism initiatives has led to local community empowerment					
6	Rural tourism initiatives has resulted human-wildlife conflicts solution.					

SECTION E: Contribution of Rural Tourism Initiatives to Natural Capital assets of the local community.

1. Please indicate the extent to which you agree that the following rural tourism initiatives contribute to the physical capital assets of the local community. The following scale will be applicable: *5=strongly agree 4=agree 3=undecided 2=disagree 1=strongly disagree*

No	Statements	1	2	3	4	5
1	Cultural tours contributes to natural capital assets of the local community					
2	Community based projects contributes to natural capital					

	assets of the local community					
3	Sale of souvenirs contributes to natural capital assets of the local community					
4	Cultural entertainment contributes to natural capital assets of the local community.					
5	Wildlife viewing contributes to natural capital assets of the local community					
6	Cultural manyattas contributes to natural capital assets of the local community					

2. Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements concerning the contribution of rural tourism initiatives to different elements of natural capital assets. Use the following scale: **5=strongly agree 4=agree 3=undecided 2=disagree**

3. **1=strongly disagree**

No	Statements	1	2	3	4	5
1	Rural tourism initiatives creates environmental awareness to the local community					
2	Rural tourism initiatives has led to conservation of natural resources					
3	Rural tourism initiatives has led to controlled construction of structures					
4	Rural tourism initiatives has led to management of water resources					
5	Rural tourism initiatives minimize charcoal burning by the local community.					

SECTION F: Contribution of Rural Tourism Initiatives to Physical capital assets of the local community.

1. Please indicate the extent to which you agree that the following rural tourism initiatives contribute to the physical capital assets of the local community. The following scale will be applicable: **5=strongly agree 4=agree 3=undecided 2=disagree 1=strongly disagree**

No	Statements	1	2	3	4	5
1	Cultural tours contributes to physical capital assets of the local community					
2	Community based projects contributes to physical capital assets of the local community					
3	Sale of souvenirs contributes to physical capital assets of the local community					
4	Cultural entertainment contributes to physical capital assets of the local community.					
5	Wildlife viewing contributes to physical capital assets of the local community					
6	Cultural manyattas contributes to physical capital assets of the local community					

2. Please indicate by way of ticking in the right column, the extend you agree with the given statement *where* 5=strongly agree 4=agree 3=undecided 2=disagree 1=strongly disagree

No.	Statements	1	2	3	4	5
1	Rural tourism initiatives has stimulate the construction of schools					
2	Rural tourism initiatives has led to establishment of health centres					
4	Rural tourism initiatives has stimulated the development of infrastructure					
5	Rural tourism initiatives has led to establishment of water projects					

End

Thanks for your response

APPENDIX II

Focus group discussion schedule

- What kind of tourism initiatives do you engage yourself in?
- What are contributions of rural tourism initiatives to financial capital of the local community in Mara Triangle, Kenya?
- In what ways do rural tourism initiatives contribute to social capital of the local community in Mara Triangle, Kenya?
- What are the contributions of rural tourism initiatives to natural capital of the local community in Mara Triangle, Kenya?
- In what ways do rural tourism initiatives contribute to physical capital of the local community in Mara Triangle, Kenya?

APPENDIX III

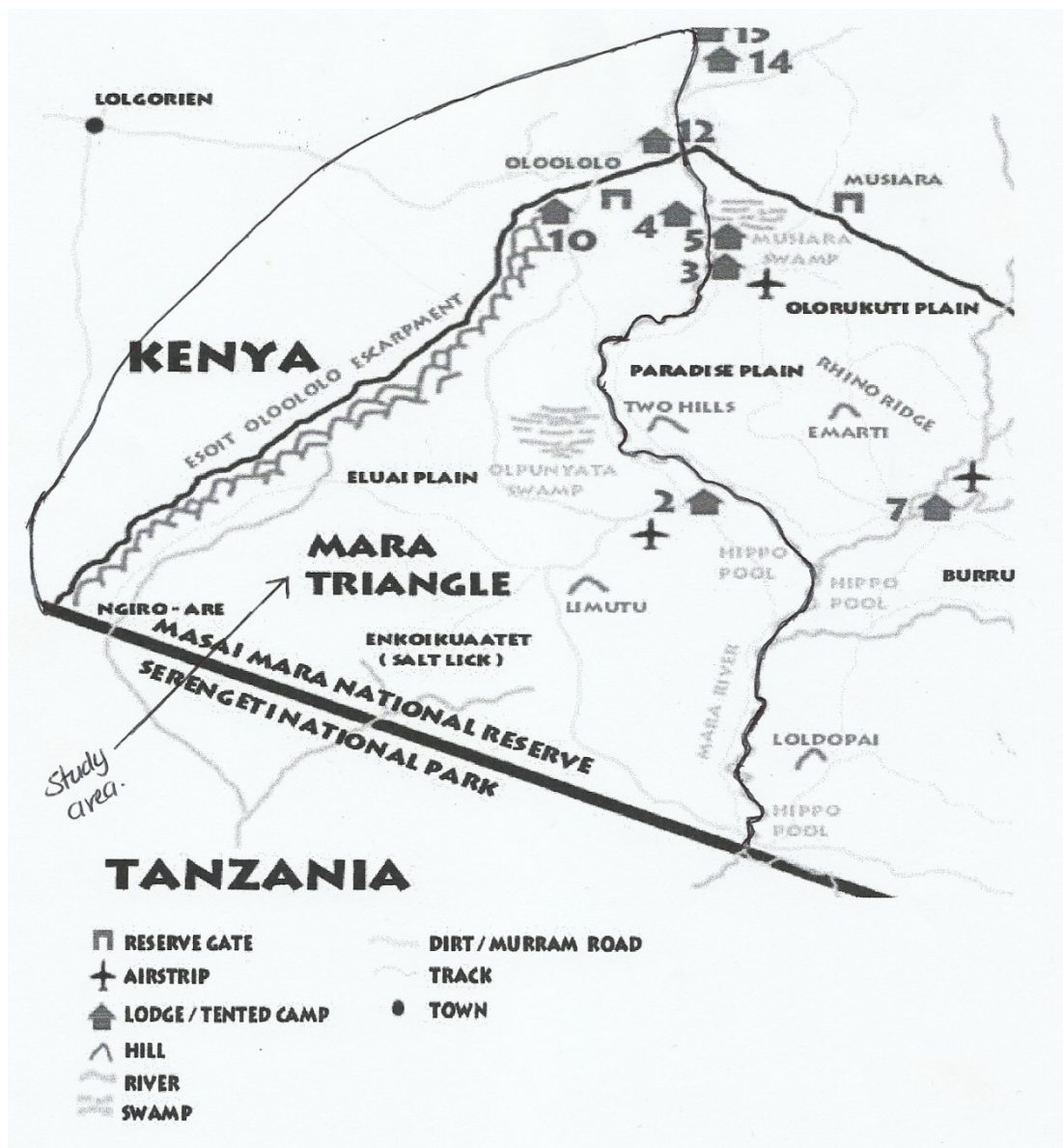
Map of Kenya



Source: www.shoortravel.com

APPENDIX IV

Map of the study area



Source: www.maratriangle.org