

**THE CONTRIBUTION OF TOURISM TO THE HOST COMMUNITY  
LIVELIHOODS AT THE MARA NABOISHO CONSERVANCY, NAROK  
COUNTY, KENYA**

**BY  
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PHILOSOPHY IN TOURISM MANAGEMENT**

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## **DEDICATION**

This thesis is dedicated to my lovely wife, Angela K. Muntet, lovely children Joy, Esther, Andrew and Emmanuel and my dear mother, Mary Naseiyio Muntet, for their prayers, patience, love and support during the entire period of my studies. You are individually and collectively appreciated!

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## ABSTRACT

The travel and tourism industry is a significant contributor to most countries' economic development. In Kenya, tourism has been developed and promoted at the national and county levels as one of the critical economic drivers generating 8.8% of the country's GDP, worth USD 7.9 billion as of 2018. However, there is limited research on its contribution to the livelihoods of the custodians of the tourism resources, especially in Mara Naboisho Conservancy (MNC). Therefore, guided by the Sustainable Livelihoods Framework approach, this study sought to determine the contribution of tourism to the host community livelihoods at the Mara Naboisho Conservancy in Narok County, Kenya. Specifically, the study sought to establish the contribution of tourism to human, financial, physical and social capital assets of the host community. The study employed a case study research design using a qualitative approach. The study targeted MNC households, tourism investors and MNC camp managers, Narok County Tourism Officers and the area chief. The Snowball sampling technique was used to select 2 tourism investors, 3 MNC camp managers, 3 Tourism officers and 1 area chief, making a total of 35 participants. The study utilized both primary and secondary sources of information. Primary sources included interviews and focus group discussions. Data was analyzed thematically in line with the objectives of the study. Results indicated that tourism contributed to the human capital in terms of technical skills, knowledge, education support and on the job training; financial capital, including; direct cash and creation of jobs; physical capital in terms of health infrastructure, education infrastructure, roads, boreholes, computers and machinery while Social capital included shared values, interpersonal relations and shared norms. The study concluded that although tourism in Mara Naboisho conservancy contributed positively to the livelihoods of the community, there exist several negatives; these include power struggles, inequitable distribution of benefits such as access to jobs and training to the community and the fear of influence and erosion of the Maasai community rich culture. Based on the findings from the study, the study made the following recommendations for policy action; Firstly, the community should be provided with a conducive environment and first-hand priority to supply goods and services to the conservancy as it will promote financial empowerment; secondly, the conservancy management in collaboration with the county government of Narok should provide more job opportunities for the host community to promote human capital; thirdly, conservancy management with the support of the county government of Narok should expand infrastructure to facilitate community development. Finally, the Mara Naboisho Conservancy authorities should support the local community through funding to improve the community-based projects and improve education and the local sports activities in the community.

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**ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS**

AIDS:	Acquired Immuno Deficiency Syndrome
APA:	American Psychological Association
CEC:	County Executive Committee
CBNRM:	Community Based Natural Resource Management programme
CBT:	Community-based tourism
CIDP:	County Integrated Development Plan
CRA:	Commission on Revenue Allocation
DFID:	Department on Foreign and International Development
EA:	East Africa
EAC:	East African Community
FAO:	Food and Agriculture Organization
GDP:	Gross Domestic Product
GOK:	Government of Kenya
HIV:	Human Immune Virus
ICCA:	International Congress and Convention Association
IUCN:	International Union for Conservation of Nature
KIHBS:	Kenya Integrated Household Budget Survey
KNBS:	Kenya National Bureau of Statistics
KTB:	Kenya Tourism Board
KWCA:	Kenya Wildlife Conservancies Association
KWS:	Kenya Wildlife Service
MANCO:	Mara Naboisho Management Company limited
MICE:	Meetings, Incentives, Conferences and Events
MNC:	Mara – Naboisho Conservancy

MMNR:	Maasai Mara National Reserve
MMWCA:	Maasai Mara Wildlife Conservancies Association
NACOSTI:	National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation
NCG:	Narok County Government
NGOs:	Non-Governmental Organizations
QDA:	Qualitative Data Analysis
SADC:	South African Development Community
SIDA:	Swedish International Development Agency
TTB:	Tanzania Tourism Board
UNDP:	United Nations Development Program
UNWTO:	United Nations World Tourism Organization
WRI:	World Resources Institute
WWF:	World Wide Fund

## OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF TERMS

- Conservancy** – Refers to land expressly set aside for wildlife conservation either on community or private land/property to profit from it (Tercek, 2013). In this study, it means ‘Mara Naboisho Conservancy’.
- Contributions** - These are the desired or undesired attributes of a process (Tercek, 2013). For this study, it refers to the positive or negative aspects of tourism on the host communities’ assets
- Financial Capital Asset** – Refers to any economic resource measured in terms of money used by entrepreneurs and businesses to buy what they need to make their products or provide their services to the sector of the economy upon which their operation is based, i.e. retail, corporate, investment banking, etc. (Spillane, 2003). This study refers to the economic resources such as cash, jobs, health services, and educational bursaries generated in Mara Naboisho Conservancy by the community due to tourism.
- Host community** - Refers to people who live in the vicinity of the tourist attractions and are directly involved with and or affected by tourism (Karanja, 2002). In this study, it refers to the community living around Mara Naboisho Conservancy
- Human Capital** – Refers to the stock of knowledge, habits, social and personality attributes, including creativity, embodied in the ability to perform labour to produce economic value (Keeley, 2007).
- Maasai** - Maa speaking people of Kenya, including the local owners of Mara Naboisho Conservancy land.

**Physical Capital Asset** – This refers to a factor of production consisting of machinery, buildings, computers and the like (Samuelson, 2004). This study refers to machinery, buildings, computers, and personnel that are in place as a result of tourism.

**Social Capital** – this refers to assets such as interpersonal relationships, shared norms and shared values. It broadly refers to factors that indicate the effective functioning of social groups, including interpersonal relationships, a shared sense of identity, a shared understanding, shared norms, shared values, trust, cooperation, and reciprocity (Ferragina, 2010).

**Social Exchange Theory**- Social exchange theory is a sociological and psychological theory that studies the social behaviour in the interaction of two parties that implement a cost-contribution analysis to determine risks and contributions (Emerson, 1976).

**Sustainable Livelihoods**– It is the condition when a population can cope with and recover from the stresses and shocks and maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets both now and in the future without undermining the natural resource base (Chambers & Conway, 1992).

**Sustainable Livelihood Framework** –It is a participatory framework based on recognising that all people have abilities and assets that can be developed to help them improve their lives (Serat, 2017).

**Tourism** - Tourism is the activities of people travelling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for leisure, business or other purposes for not more than one consecutive year



(Hammond, 2003). In this study, tourism involves different people coming to Mara Naboisho Conservancy to experience a different environment outside their usual environment for leisure, business or other purposes.

## **CHAPTER ONE**

### **INTRODUCTION**

#### **1.0 Chapter Overview**

This chapter provides the background of the study, defines the problem statement, delineates the objectives of the study, research questions, justification of the study, the scope of the study and finally, the study's limitations.

#### **1.1 Background of the Study**

Tourism is a growing global phenomenon that creates several socio-cultural, economic and environmental impacts within destination areas. Some of the economic impacts associated with tourism include revenue generation, creation of employment opportunities, foreign exchange earnings, and contribution to countries' gross domestic products (Stynes, 1997; Chaiechi, Pryce & Bhati, 2015). Additionally, tourism contributes to socio-cultural assets by enabling the preservation of the cultural heritage of many nations and societies (Haulot, 1976; Katelieva, 2019). Accordingly, tourism is being recognized and prioritized by several regional, national and local economies as one of the significant drivers of socio-economic transformation (UNWTO 2002; OECD 2010; UNECA 2010; Ekanyake & Long 2012; Liu *et al.*, 2012). Like in other regions, the growth of tourism in Africa has been on an upwards trajectory in the recent past. For instance, according to the UNWTO performance updates for 2018, international tourist arrivals increased by 5% from January to September compared to the same period in 2017. The 2018 arrivals in Sub-Saharan Africa also grew by an average of 5% in the same period (UNWTO, 2018).

In Africa, tourism assets can be broadly grouped into two clusters. The first cluster relates to the dynamism of local initiatives, community solidarity systems and hospitality traits of the people, which are among the strongest in the world. The

second cluster includes the natural heritage of landscape and rivers, sea, scenery, habitat and species, safari resources (wildlife and desert), and the living cultural heritage such as festivals, ceremonies, arts, and handcraft, among others (Dieke, 2003). However, despite all these attributes of tourism, the general evaluation of tourism impacts has primarily focused on the macro-economic level, with little attention being paid to the contribution of tourism at the microeconomic level. Furthermore, Muganda, Sahli and Smith (2010) assert that the national (or regional) economic growth is often selected as the main target of local tourism development, while poverty alleviation is considered either a sub-goal or a natural outcome of national (or regional) economic growth with the belief that as long as the whole country (region) gets wealthier, the benefits will eventually trickle down to the local poor through multiple channels, such as employment, public welfare and family networks. Consequently, policy-makers pay considerable attention to the expansion of the tourism sector, but much less to how far tourism development contributes to poverty alleviation in practice (ibid). As a result, the impact of tourism on poverty alleviation has been indirect and thus unremarkable (Muganda, Sahli & Smith, 2010).

The need to integrate local community interest in tourism development has led to several community-based tourism approaches. In addition, contemporary approaches such as pro-poor tourism, ecotourism, and the United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) Sustainable Tourism-Eliminating Poverty project have greatly enhanced poor people's chances of benefiting from tourism (Muganda *et al.*, 2010). These community-based tourism approaches are based on the premise that empowering local communities enables them to become protectors of natural resources (Western & Wright, 1994; Van der Duim, 2011; Kieti, 2013). Therefore, community-based tourism (CBT) aims to simultaneously address conservation and

development goals (Western & Wright, 1994; Hackel, 1999; Brown, 2002; Adams, 2004; Igoe, 2006; Mahanty *et al.*, 2006). The contribution of tourism to the twin goals of poverty eradication and wildlife conservation has been extensively studied (see, for example, Nthiga *et al.*, 2015). Furthermore, most wildlife conservation areas in Kenya are located in rural areas, which are also home to usually poor communities. Thus, tourism has especially been viewed as a suitable candidate to elicit development in remote rural areas where households have limited economic opportunities (Holland *et al.*, 2003; Elliott, 2001).

Countries such as Namibia have actively promoted tourism approaches that contribute to the twin goals of poverty alleviation and wildlife conservation. Whereas most tourists visit the country's national parks (13.6% of the land), a distinct minority, mainly sport hunters and trophy hunters, focus on farms in the commercial (freehold) areas (43% of the land). Additionally, a growing minority visits some of the more scenic communal areas, particularly Kunene Region in the arid and dramatic north-west and Caprivi Region, which is in the wetter north-east and en route to Victoria Falls and other regional sites. The communal areas (40.8% of the country) are mainly rural. They are home to most of the black population and most Namibia's poor. Thus, the leading tourism product in Kunene and Caprivi is wildlife and wilderness in dramatic scenery and lightly populated areas. Tourism enterprises are generally lodges, up-market safari camps, campsites, and the associated service enterprises. Tourism in communal areas, particularly community involvement in tourism, was actively promoted during the 1990s, both by Government and NGOs (Ashely, 2000). Wildlife is the property of the state of Namibia. However, under a 1996 legal amendment, communities that form defined management units can register with the government as a 'conservancy' and receive conditional use right over wildlife. Nearly

all the four registered conservancies and more than a dozen emerging conservancies are actively developing tourism plans and, have become key actors in rural tourism development (Ashely, 2000).

The Kenya Tourism Board (KTB) has a mandate to market and promote tourism overseas. Broadly, various and diverse tourism products are offered to both domestic and international visitors. These products include wildlife-based, beach, home-stay, conference, cultural, sports and ecotourism (KTB, 2014). Even though wildlife tourism in Amboseli generates enormous revenue, minimal impacts have been felt by the local Maasai communities. The funds generated from tourism are often shipped directly into the government's coffers and to other strategic tourism stakeholders such as global tour operators, travel agents and hotels for appropriate distribution (Ondicho, 2010).

Consequently, most residents of Amboseli are not only poor but also exhibit high levels of illiteracy, unemployment and mortality. They also lack basic amenities such as adequate health services, piped water, roads and electricity services and schools. As a result, making a living here, even at a subsistence level, is difficult and most families face the real challenges of generating enough income to meet their basic needs including food, medicines, tools, and household necessities (Ondicho, 2012a).

Elsewhere, despite tourism generating significant amounts of revenue, Maasai Mara is one of the poorest regions in Kenya. Many local Maasai people live below the poverty line, exhibit high levels of illiteracy, unemployment, and mortality and lack basic amenities, including adequate health services, piped water, roads and electricity services and schools. Furthermore, they face the challenges of coping with rapidly increasing human and wildlife populations, hostile climatic conditions characterized

by recurrent droughts, shrinking land sizes and dwindling natural resources, an influx of immigrants, and declining livestock production (Ondicho, 2010). All these factors have increasingly driven the Maasai people into destitution, and because of that, they rank low in all indicators of social and economic development (Ondicho, 2005; Wako, 2007). As a result, the Maasai community, who hosts many tourism corridors, have not been benefiting much from tourism. The prevailing poverty situation in Maasai Mara prompted questions from the local Maasai communities, especially those living adjacent to Mara Naboisho conservancy. One of such responses has been direct involvement and investment in tourism development.

Despite the existence of enormous Maasai culture, a unique tourist attraction and tool for promoting and marketing tourism in Kenya, the Maasai people have not benefited significantly from tourism (Ondicho, 2016). Traditionally they have also not been directly involved in tourism development and entrepreneurship. However, faced with the challenge of an ever-diminishing land base that must support a burgeoning population, declining livestock production, and tremendous pressure from the government to change their lifestyle, the Maasai are gradually becoming integrated into the national economy.

Many of the protected areas in Kenya lie within arid and semi-arid lands. These are areas where people were relocated to create lands for wildlife. However, these lands could not hold all wildlife as 70% of the wildlife resources are found outside protected areas on tribal lands (Mutharia, 1999). This situation created the need for local involvement in conservation efforts to alleviate the declining wildlife population trends triggered by lack of local ownership, overgrazing and agricultural activities.

Thus, after the formation of KWS as the overall conservation body, local participation in the neighbourhoods to parks and ranches was initiated. The revenue sharing policy and several community conservation projects were initiatives of spreading wildlife-based earnings to mitigate conflicts between wildlife and local people. This formed the starting point of ecotourism pilot projects in focal areas known to harbour a high diversity of wildlife, such as the Amboseli ecosystem, Laikipia, Samburu, Maasai Mara and part of Coast province. Their design was intended to assist residents in obtaining benefits from conservation activities to change their attitudes and accept them as a land-use option.

Contributions of tourism to various sectors of the economy, as stated by previous studies, show that there are many and varied. They include economic, social and cultural. Therefore, this study focused on the contributions of tourism to the livelihoods of the host community of MNC. As tourism in an area grows, the local economy experiences some success as development starts to be seen. Once tourism has boosted the economy, locals gain and development starts to be seen in the community, giving them a better understanding of world issues like sustainable economic development for the host population. Previous studies have raised concerns that the primary product of tourism is not something produced by the industry but often the heritage, wealth, and expected legacy of the community that serves as the tourist destination (Koikai, 1992; Karanja, 2002).

However, it is worth noting that despite Mara Naboisho Conservancy being a significant tourism destination, poverty and underdevelopment are still evident. Therefore, tourism should have a significant favourable influence by focusing on five capital assets, i.e. human, physical, social, financial and natural capitals (De Haan & Zoomers, 2005). Against this background, this study sought to fill this gap by

examining the contribution of tourism to the host community livelihoods at the Mara Naboisho Conservancy, Narok County. Furthermore, the study sought to determine whether the host community in Mara Naboisho Conservancy that shares their land with wildlife benefits from supporting tourism. Therefore, this study focused on five capital assets of tourism in Mara Naboisho Conservancy. The five capital assets of tourism included physical capital, human capital, financial/Economic capital and social capital.

## **1.2 Statement of the Problem**

The past decades indicate enormous interest in tourism as a tool for regional economic development (Moscardo, 2014). However, it is not always clear if tourism creates a significant contribution to local communities. In most cases, benefits from tourism emerge slowly and usually accrue to specific groups within the community. Conversely, tourism competes directly with other land and livelihood options for the host community, especially those adjacent to MMNR and managing their conservancies (Homewood *et al.*, 2009; Western *et al.*, 2015). For example, livestock keeping is the primary source of livelihood for the Maasai people (Koikai, 1992), the hosts of Mara Naboisho Conservancy. However, there is conflict as the hosts struggle to balance the two competing interests (Nelson, 2004). Further, the MMNR idea was to bring services like water for livestock to the community, create jobs and provide business opportunities for local goods and services (Nelson, 2004; Western, 1997). Consequently, despite the national and local significance of the MMNR, poverty in its broadest sense continues to bedevil local households and members of Naboisho Conservancy (Rutten, 1992; Norton – Griffiths, 2007, 2017).

Evidence from other studies (e.g. Sindiga 1996; Miller, 2000) states that communities in the tourist attraction sites have noted various contributions associated with tourism



on the local economy, alongside social and cultural contributions arising from the interaction between the tourists and the host community (Hammond, 2003). Therefore, the livelihoods concept has been widely used in analysing development interventions. The concept was conceptually inspired by Chambers and Conway (1992), who defined a livelihood as the means of gaining a living. Consequently, development organizations have applied the concept to unravel and evaluate the outcomes of poverty reduction and development interventions (Farrington *et al.*, 1999; Allison & Ellis, 2001; Scoones, 2009). Although the livelihoods concept has been criticized as being normative and analytical (Scoones, 2009), it has been widely applied. It is perceived as people-centred, holistic, recognizing multiple influences, outcomes, strategies and actors, and bridging micro-level and macro-level development (DFID, 1999; Solesbury, 2003; Scoones, 2009; Simpson, 2009).

Previous studies on the same subject tended to focus on the conservation of the environment, wildlife and land subdivision (Thomson & Homewood, 2002; Homewood *et al.*, 2009; Heller *et al.*, 2010), among other aspects. Tourism is a significant economic activity in Narok County (GoK, 2002), which competes directly with livestock keeping as the primary form of livelihood for the Maasai people. However, with no balance between the two regarding their operation and the livelihood opportunities, the lives of the local people in Mara Naboisho Conservancy seem to be compromised. Furthermore, there is little available empirical evidence on the contributions of tourism toward the livelihood of the host community. Therefore, this study attempted to explore and describe the contributions of tourism in terms of economic, social and cultural aspects in Mara Naboisho Conservancy, Narok County. Furthermore, little and outdated empirical data exists on the contributions of tourism to the host community within the MNC in terms of social capital assets, financial

capital assets, physical capital assets and human capital assets. This study, therefore, sought to establish new and current data on the contributions of tourism to the host community.

### **1.3 Study Objectives**

#### **1.3.1 Main Objective**

The main objective of this study was to establish the contributions of tourism to the livelihoods of the host community in Mara Naboisho Conservancy, Kenya.

#### **1.3.2 Specific Objectives**

The following research objectives guided the study

- i. To assess the contribution of tourism to the human capital assets of the host community at MNC, Kenya.
- ii. To establish the contribution of tourism to the financial capital assets of the host community at MNC, Kenya.
- iii. To establish the contribution of tourism to the physical capital assets of the host community at MNC, Kenya.
- iv. To assess the contribution of tourism to the social capital assets of the host community at MNC, Kenya.

### **1.4 Research Questions**

The research sought answers to the following questions;

- i. In what ways has tourism contributed to the human capital assets of the host community at MNC?
- ii. What is the contribution of tourism to the financial capital assets of the host community at MNC?

- iii. How has tourism contributed to the physical capital assets of the host community at MNC?
- iv. What are the contributions of tourism to the social capital assets of the host community at MNC?

### **1.5 Significance of the Study**

This study identifies the link between the host community's livelihood strategies and tourism in the tourism sector in Mara Naboisho Conservancy. It describes how tourism has direct and indirect effects on the livelihoods of the host community of Mara Naboisho Conservancy in Narok County. Therefore, this study contributes to existing research and helps understand the link between tourism and livelihood impacts.

This study examined how the tourism sector in Mara Naboisho Conservancy influences the community's livelihoods and explores options for increased benefits for the local poor. Thus, the study contributes to the knowledge of the impacts of sustainable tourism development on livelihood assets and the vulnerability context. Moreover, from a practical point of view, the research is relevant for policymakers who wish to expand the tourism sector in Mara Naboisho Conservancy, i.e., benefit the host community.

The findings would be used as a guideline for increasing the positive direct and indirect benefits for the host community in Narok County by promoting eco-tourism while reducing tourism's negative impacts. This research also would contribute to the mission of the Centre for Sustainability which strives to contribute to a sustainable future for Maasai Community', in specific on the contribution to sustainable livelihoods for pastoralist communities.

### **1.6 The Scope of the Study**

The study sought to examine the contribution of tourism to the livelihoods of the host community, specifically based on human capital assets, physical capital assets, financial capital assets and social capital assets. This study was conducted in Mara Naboisho Conservancy in Narok County. The target population included the host community of Mara Naboisho Conservancy and other relevant stakeholders such as tourism investors and local community organizations dealing with conservancies such as the Maasai Mara Wildlife Conservancies Association (MMWCA) and the County and National governments' representatives involved in the study area. The researcher used the snowball sampling technique to select the respondents to get an accurate picture of the contributions of tourism to the host communities in Mara Naboisho Conservancy. In addition, the study deployed interviews, observations, focus group discussions and document analysis as data collection methods instruments. The study was carried out between June 2019 and August 2019.

### **1.7 Limitations of the Study**

The study focused on one conservancy, Mara Naboisho Conservancy. The study only considered the contribution of tourism to human capital, financial capital, physical capital, and social capital assets. In addition, this study relied on self-reports which carry their own bias. Interviews, observations and document analysis instruments were used in the study. The implication of these limitations to this study is that the findings reflect the actual impact of tourism on the community who reside around Mara Naboisho Conservancy only. Therefore, a further study can be carried out in other conservancies to compare the findings.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **2.0 Overview**

This chapter reviews literature from various secondary sources. The chapter covers international trends in tourism, tourism in East Africa, and tourism in Kenya. The chapter also highlights the contributions of tourism to host communities, sustainable livelihood framework, theoretical framework and conceptual framework.

#### **2.1 The Concept of Tourism**

The concept of tourism has become more complex, and several debates and discussions on its definition are yet to reach a unified position (Saayman 2013). Holloway and Humphreys (2012) define tourism as the movement of people travelling to and staying in destinations outside of their usual environment, for not more than a year, for leisure, business, and other purposes. Tourists undertake various activities in their destinations, and services are created to cater for their needs (Holloway & Humphreys, 2012). Elsewhere, Saayman (2013) broadens the conceptualization of tourism and views tourism as the “total experience that originates from the interaction between tourists, job providers, government systems and communities in providing attractions, entertainment, transport and accommodation to tourists”. Not dissimilarly, Goeldner and Ritchie (2009) also define tourism as the procedures, activities, and outcomes that arise from interactions among tourists, tourism suppliers, host governments, host communities, and the surrounding environments that attract and host visitors.

Despite these varied definitional standpoints on tourism, tourism is not a new phenomenon. Its origins can be traced back to Greek and Roman times when people travelled mainly for summer holidays (Butler 2009). Since then, tourism has increased

as a leisure activity, with large numbers of people taking holidays and travelling, visiting the seaside or ski resorts (Butler 2009; Arva & Deli-Gray 2012). Tourism has transformed from a luxury for the rich and now includes millions of people from diverse economic backgrounds (Goeldner & Ritchie 2009). Consequently, the modern tourism market is characterized by intense competition among tourism destinations. To survive in such a competitive environment, tourism destinations need to be innovative and continuously seek new resources of comparative advantages compared to other alternative destinations (Kresic, 2007).

## **2.2 International Trends in Tourism**

International tourism refers to tourism that crosses national borders. Globalization has made tourism a popular global leisure activity. The World Health Organization (WHO, 2010) estimates that up to 500,000 people are in flight at any one time. However, due to the late-2000s recession and covid-19 pandemic restrictions, international travel demand suffered a substantial slowdown from the second half of 2008 through the end of 2009. This negative trend intensified during 2009, exacerbated in some countries due to the outbreak of the H1N1 influenza virus, resulting in a worldwide decline of 4.2% in 2009 to 880 million international tourists arrivals and a 5.7% decline in international tourism receipts (WHO, 2010). In 2018, a total of US\$ 1.7 trillion was realized in terms of international tourism exports, which was a 4% increase from 2017. The same year also witnessed 1.4 billion international tourist arrivals, a 5% increase from the previous year (UNWTO, 2019).

Tourism is a dynamic and competitive industry that requires constantly adapting to customers' changing needs and desires. The customers' satisfaction, safety and enjoyment are mainly the focus of tourism businesses. Tourism can be a powerful tool for community development and reducing inequalities if it engages local populations

and all critical stakeholders in its development. (Sounders, 2009). It can contribute to rural development and reduce regional imbalances by allowing communities to prosper in their place of origin. The growing interest in tourism is due to its veritable potential as an economically viable industry (Ramukumba, Mmbengwa, Mwamayi, & Groenewald, 2012). However, anxieties persist regarding the stake of local people since they are the ones to endure the negative spillovers of tourism-related activities.

When tourism activities are conducted in resource endowed, or natural areas, the legitimacy of the local community amplifies as their genuine access to resources, which they had generous access to once, has to be curtailed due to new-fangled resource utilization pattern.

Taking a cue from the colonial natural resource policy, 'states have sought to deny local people access to and participation in activities in protected natural areas. Consequently, community members have not been recognised as stakeholders. As a result, they have been marginalized from nature tourism opportunities' (Drumm & Moore, 2002) in and around protected areas. Stem *et al.* (2003) comment that the primary appeal of ecotourism as a developmental tool is that it can provide local economic benefits by maintaining ecological integrity through low impact, non-consumptive use of local resources. They further observe that ecotourism offers communities an opportunity to improve their well-being and economic livelihood under ideal circumstances.

The tourism industry started incorporating the local communities into its actions mainly due to the growing interest of responsible tourists in learning from and experiencing different cultures (Drumm & Moore, 2002). In 2005, the tourism sector accounted for 3 % to 10% of the GDP of developing countries (UNWTO, 2005). The

contribution of tourism to economic growth and development is reflected in exports. It represents 40 percent of all exports of services, making it one of the largest categories of international trade (UNWTO, 2006).

When all components of the tourism industry, such as tourism consumption, investment, government spending and exports, are taken into account, the industry grew by 5.9% in 2004 alone, reaching US\$5.5 trillion with a 10-year growth forecast of US\$9.5 trillion. Moreover, the export-led growth hypothesis postulates that international tourism would increase income at least in two additional ways, namely; first, by enhancing efficiency through competition between local firms and the ones corresponding to other international tourist destinations (Bhagwati & Srinivasan, 1979; Krueger, 1980), and second by facilitating the exploitation of economies of scale in local firms (Helpman & Krugman, 1985; Balaguer & Jorda, 2002).

The rapid development of tourism led to a growth of household incomes and government revenues, directly and indirectly, using multiplier effects, improving the balance of payments and provoking tourism-promoted government policies. As a result, tourism development has been considered a positive contribution to economic growth (Khan, Phang, & Toh, 1995; Lee & Kwon, 1995; Oh, 2005).

Even though the tourism industry is of major importance to the world economy and that it is one of the largest single employers and exporting services sectors for many countries, applied economists have paid little attention to the empirical examination of possible contributions of this sector to a country's economy (Papatheodorou, 1999 cited in Balaguer & Jorda, 2002). In addition, tourist spending has served as an alternative form of exports, contributing to an ameliorated balance of payments through foreign exchange earnings in many countries.



As such, tourism-generated proceeds have come to represent a significant revenue source, increasing employment, household income and government income in several countries (Oh, 2005). Consequently, it is not surprising to imagine that tourism can be a viable export-oriented economic growth strategy for bringing jobs and development to the people and help in the reduction of extreme poverty (Fayissa *et al.*, 2007). One of the significant advantages of the tourism sector is that it tends to be labour-intensive. Hence, an increase in employment normally achieves an increase in production. This is advantageous for those economies that need to decrease unemployment. However, it also produces a shock in the job market due to rising wages in the service sector and induced mobility across sectors. Sinclair (1998) suggested that when attempting to identify and interpret the relationship between tourism and economic activity, one must consider it from two viewpoints, the advantages and disadvantages of tourism development. Like any other impetus for economic development, tourism potentially has positive and negative influences on communities and residents.

Generally speaking, the positive contributions that tourism can make include the provision of hard currency, which may help alleviate a gap in foreign exchange and finance imports of capital goods, increases in personal income, higher tax revenues and additional employment opportunities. However, tourism expansion also affects the demand for certain goods and services (Syriopoulos, 1995), including transportation facilities, such as roads and airports (Eugenio-Martín & Morales, 2004), which is specific to tourism as opposed to more general use.

Apart from this, tourism expenditure by foreign tourists can enhance the accumulation of physical capital, which creates a need for skilled labour in the tourism sector, consequently causing an increase in human capital investment. Thus, the tourism

sector may contribute significantly to economic growth. This is particularly relevant in regions with high rates of unemployment, low levels of per capita GDP, and export products facing difficulties in competing internationally (Martin *et al.*, 2003). Contrary to many of the predictions in the extant literature, as Hazari and Ng (1993) pointed out, tourism affects most of the tertiary and nondurable goods consumption sector.

It should follow that the possible effects of an increase in domestic prices that generally tend to reduce welfare would be more than compensated for by the positive impact on the country's overall welfare. Meanwhile, expenditures by foreign tourists may also alter domestic consumption patterns via the so-called demonstration effect, which can be inflationary. Moreover, these tourists' foreign demands for non-traded goods may create a monopoly power distortion, causing a welfare reduction effect (Balaguer & Cantavella- Jorda, 2002; Hazari & Sgro, 2004).

Taking a broader perspective, Sinclair (1998) suggested that the costs incurred from an expansion of the tourism industry (including much of the expenditure for the provision and maintenance of infrastructure in the form of additional water, roads, airports, sanitation and energy), is specific to tourism rather than for more general usage. In a more traditional sense, it is argued that tourism brings in foreign exchange, which can be used to import capital goods to produce goods and services, leading to economic growth (McKinnon, 1964). In other words, tourists may provide a remarkable part of the necessary financing for the country to import more than to export. Suppose those imports are capital goods or basic inputs for producing goods in any area of the economy, it can be said that earnings from tourism play a fundamental role in economic development. In this case, non-tourist regions would also benefit from it due to distributing a country's wealth (Balaguer & Jorda, 2002). Therefore, it

is generally assumed that tourism expansion should positively contribute to economic growth (Kim *et al.*, 2006).

In other words, associated with the economic benefits of tourism are the adverse economic, socio-cultural and environmental impacts as extensively reported by Liu and Var (1986), Long, Perdue, and Allen (1990) and Milne (1990). They proposed taking a wide range of economic, environmental and social costs of tourism development. Thus, the costs of societal decay are sacrifices that particular groups or regions must bear due to the implementation of mass tourism in developing countries. The other case of social cost or spillover effects of tourism development is on flora, fauna, rainfall, local customs and other ecological and sociological factors that ultimately touch the welfare of the citizens. Also among the adverse effects are congestion due to the traffic from additional vehicles, noise pollution arising from different operations of airports, motorboats, and so on (Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004). Dunn and Dunn (2002) also maintain that crime and violence are other major problems affecting some countries' tourism industry. As such, they incur costs for crime control and maintaining and improving public security. The natural environment is an essential component of tourism. However, it represents a double-edged problem for policymakers, who may find it hard to make relevant decisions since many tourists are attracted by nature, at the same time, many citizens of the host country, along with environmentalists, wish to keep the natural environment intact (Jenner & Smith, 1992; Pearce, (1985).

The success of the tourism sector in a country depends on different aspects. Tourists usually demand four primary goods and services in a location: accommodation, food, transportation facilities and entertainment services. In most developing countries, to satisfy this demand, the current production level needs to increase. Meeting growing

demand for tourism poses some critical challenges. There are three main areas that policymakers need to be concerned with: infrastructures, education and safety. The development of infrastructures is vital in any tourism project.

In this area, household utilities such as water, and electricity and transportation facilities such as roads or public transport systems are included. Furthermore, we can consist of other tourist infrastructures that may help promote tourism to the region. Education is also a necessary condition for the potential success of local people in tourist activities. It usually requires knowledge concerning different sectors such as communication (languages), catering, hospitality, and transportation and management skills.

Safety is usually a highly appreciated feature in tourism resorts. Most tourists look for places to spend a pleasant and peaceful stay. In terms of safety, tourists are arguably risk-averse. Another critical feature of the tourism sector is the location's attractiveness to be visited. Sometimes they are natural sites, such as beaches or mountains. In other cases, they are cities or particular attractions within the city. Sinclair (1998), point out that developing countries are in a superior position when it comes to offering natural resources such as wildlife, coral reefs and spectacular natural sights, like canyons, caves, falls, deserts and natural springs. We can define any of these tourism resources as possessing a natural capital or cultural heritage.

Different tourism resources have different values given by local citizens or visitors and they are heterogeneously affected by the impact produced by visitors. Moreover, we argue that each tourism resource is associated with a different depreciation rate and regeneration rate (Martin *et al.*, 2003). In a study of the economic growth performance of Greece, Dritsakis (2004) showed that tourism has a long-run

economic growth effect. Using Spain's economic data, Balaguer and Cantavella-Jorda (2002) confirmed the validity of the tourism-led growth hypothesis for long-run economic performance.

Many developing countries have thus started to consider tourism as an important and integral part of their economic growth and development strategies as it serves as a source of scarce financial resources, job creation, foreign exchange earnings, and technical assistance (Sinclair, 1998; Dieke, 2004; Fayissa *et al.*, 2007). For example, using Spanish data from 1975 to 1997, Balaguer and Cantavella-Jorda (2002) discovered a stable long-run relationship between tourism and economic growth.

After conducting a standard Granger (1969) causality test, the authors further found that tourism affected Spain's economic growth in one direction, thereby supporting the tourism-led growth hypothesis. Although the authors mentioned that the tourism-led growth hypothesis is not specific to developing countries, it was not clearly stated that the theory could apply to all countries. Dritsakis (2004) examined the impact of tourism on the long-run economic growth of Greece using a similar method. One co-integrated vector was found among GDP, real effective exchange rate and international tourism earnings from 1960 to 2000. Granger(1969) causality tests based on Error Correction Models indicated that there is a strong Granger causal relationship between international tourism earnings and economic growth, a strong causal relationship between real exchange rate and economic growth and simply causal relationships between economic growth and international tourism earnings and between real exchange rate and international tourism earnings.

His study supports both tourism-led economic development and economic-driven tourism growth. However, to date, articles that have analyzed the causal relationship

between economic growth and tourism activity are limited, and results have been mixed. Our a priori expectation was that because Taiwan and South Korea have a similar economic structure, such as being export-oriented economies (Sengupta & Espana, 1994) and that traditionally neither country has considered tourism as a leading industry, empirical results of this study would be similar to Oh's (2005) results (Kim et al., 2006). However, Oh (2005) disagreed with the tourism-led growth theory.

After Balaguer and Cantavella-Jorda's (2002) work, Oh (2005) counter-argued that the existence of the tourism-led growth hypothesis in Spain may be attributed to the fact that Spain is one of the world's top recipients of international tourist revenues. Tourism earnings in Spain comprise approximately 5.9 percent of its GDP (WTO, 2000). The author used South Korea as a destination country for comparison. Although South Korea and Spain are both developing countries, the tourism industry in South Korea is not as strong as Spain. For example, value-added revenue derived from tourism-related activities accounts for 3.5 percent of South Korea's GDP (Bank of Korea, 2002). In his study, the integration analysis indicated no long-run link between tourism receipts and economic growth in South Korea over the period from 1975 to 2001. He further found an economic-driven tourism growth instead of a tourism-led economic growth, thereby implying that in South Korea, economic growth led to tourism expansion rather than tourism expansion, causing economic growth.

Nevertheless, Chen and Devereux (1999) argue that tourism may reduce welfare for trade regimes dominated by export taxes or import subsidies. Using a theoretical framework, they demonstrate that foreign direct investment in the form of tourism is,

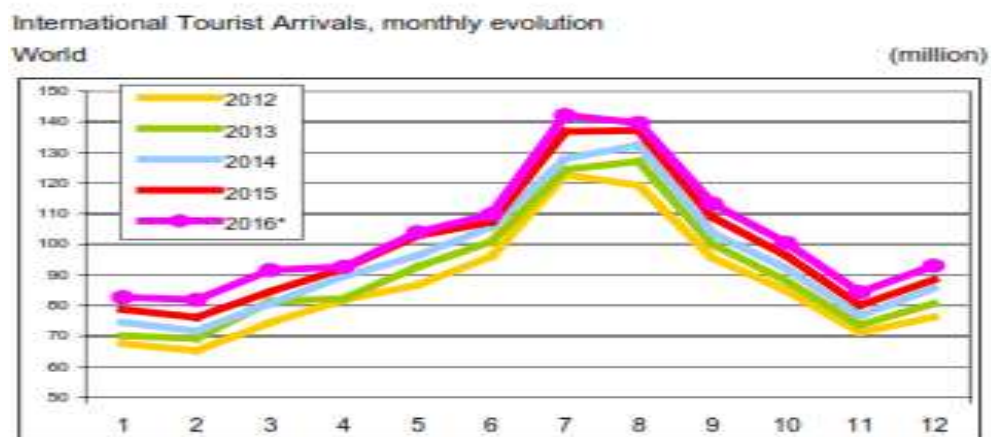
for the most part, beneficial, while tourist immiserization is also possible in Sub-Saharan Africa. Thus, we cannot, a priori, predict the direction of the impact of tourism receipts (TRPit) on the economic growth of Sub-Saharan African economies based on the above discussions (Fayissa et al. 2007). However, an increasing amount of literature has analyzed the relationship and causality between tourism and the economic growth rate, both in specific countries (Durberry, 2004 for Mauritius or Balaguer and Cantavella-Jordá, 2002 for Spain) or in broader samples (Eugenio-Martín, Morales and Scarpa, 2004 for Latin America).

The first used standard time-series methods to conclude that tourism had fostered growth in Mauritius and Spain, while the second used a dynamic panel data method estimator to provide evidence that the increasing number of tourists per capita caused more economic growth in the low and medium-income countries of Latin America, but did not contribute to economic growth in richer countries. The test done by Braw, Lanza and Pigliaru (2003) for a broad cross-section of countries is not robust to the possible existence of endogeneity of tourism. Tourism may be correlated with human capital, geographic or cultural features, for instance, and may not be an independent determinant of growth. Thus tourism can possibly foster growth within countries, demanding a qualified labour force or promoting competitiveness but it may be not able to explain differences in growth patterns between countries that may derive from other explanatory factors (Sequeira & Campos, 2005).

The results provide evidence supporting a long-run steady-state relationship between GDP and tourism development. This means that the two variables are causally related at least in one direction (Engle & Granger, 1987). Tourism has become an important sector, especially in developing countries due to its effect on the payment balance,

employment and creating income, its high added value, positive effects on infrastructure and superstructure and its effects to other sectors (Roe, 2001). Tourism has been regarded as a major source of economic growth. Many governments carry out projects about infrastructure services in order to redouble the tourism with economic growth (Nowak et al, 2003). Especially, after 1990, the importance and form of tourism has mostly changed by the effect of globalization. The opportunity to get true information immediately about not only the place to go but also advertising has been obtained (Pearce, 2001).

Generally tourism sector maintains many subcomponents. These components are activated by employment, exporting, input and output of exchange, the transportation component and similar components (Binns & Nel, 2002). USA travelers spend \$ 12 billion more on international tourism to \$ 135 billion. Germany (the 3<sup>rd</sup> largest) market and the United Kingdom (4<sup>th</sup>) both increased 3%, and from France (5<sup>th</sup>) 1% (UNWTO, 2018). However, in the same year UNWTO indicated that growth was strongest in Africa (+9%) and Europe (+8%) followed by Asia and the Pacific (+6%), the middle-east (+5%) and the Americas (+3%) (figure 2.1).



**Figure 2.1: International Tourist Arrivals**

Source: UNTWO, (2016)



### **2.3 Tourism in Africa**

Africa international tourism arrivals increased slightly to 62.9 million in 2016, representing a 0.64% increase. International tourism receipts in Africa totalled US\$ 36.2 billion in 2016, comprising 3% of global tourism receipts. Destinations with the strongest growth in international arrivals compared to 2015 were Sierra Leone (+30,000, a 126% increase), Nigeria (+634,000, a 50.5% increase), Burundi (+56,000, a 42.7% increase), Eritrea (+28,000, a 24.6% increase), Togo (+65,000, a 23.8% increase), and Madagascar (+49,000, a 20% increase). South Africa surpassed 10 million arrivals for the first time, and Morocco sustained more than 10 million arrivals for the fourth consecutive year. In 2016, Africa held a 5.1% share in worldwide tourism arrivals and a 3.0% share of worldwide tourism receipts. In 2017, direct travel and tourism employment in Africa rose to 9.3 million (an 11.2% increase from 2016), with 2.5 million jobs in North Africa and 6.8 million jobs in sub-Saharan Africa.

While tourism generates a significant amount of foreign exchange earnings that also contribute to the economic growth of developed countries, such ingredient of growth has not been effectively harnessed in Africa. According to the World Tourism Organization, 1.403 billion tourists travelled in 2018, with Africa receiving a marginal 4.8% market share of the international arrivals (or 67.1 million) (UNWTO, 2019). The northern sub-region has the highest percentage of tourist traffic and revenue in Africa. For instance, Northern Africa was the leading tourist destination in Africa between 2011-2014, registering the highest number and percentage of international tourist arrivals (47 per cent), followed by Southern Africa (22 per cent) and Eastern Africa (20 per cent) (UNCTAD, 2017).

By 2015, the sector's direct contribution to the continent's GDP had increased to \$73 billion and is forecast to rise to \$121 billion by 2026. In terms of growth, the annual average rate of change of tourism's direct contribution to real GDP was 2.6 per cent in 2011–2014.

Consequently, it is not surprising to imagine that tourism can be a viable export-oriented economic growth strategy for bringing jobs and development to the people and help in the reduction of abject poverty. Indeed, studies examining cross-country growth and development rates have focused mainly on the contributions of exports from the agricultural and manufacturing sectors rather than those of the service industry. Even those that explicitly examine the tourism sector in developing nations are primarily concerned with estimating and forecasting tourism demand and income generation via the multiplier process (Sinclair, 1999; Bezmen, 2006).

This economic potential of the tourism industry has led to its prioritization as an essential and integral part of their economic growth and development strategies as it serves as a source of scarce financial resources, job creation, foreign exchange earnings, and technical assistance (Sinclair, 1998; Dieke, 2004). Nevertheless, Chen and Devereux (1999) argue that tourism may reduce welfare for trade regimes dominated by export taxes or import subsidies. They demonstrate that foreign direct investment in the form of tourism is, for the most part, beneficial, while tourist immiserization is also possible in Sub-Saharan Africa. In the economic growth literature, researchers have been interested in the rate at which countries close the gap between their current positions and their desired long-run growth path.

On the other hand, Myrdal (1969) has argued that increased household expenditures on health, nutrition, and education are economic growth-enhancing rather than

growth-retarding, as healthy and educated households are more productive, contributing to economic growth. In a recent study, Ranis (2004) argues that individual and household consumption can be critical in increasing human development and may respond more closely with the real needs of the population than do government programs at the micro level. Individual consumption may not, however, always go towards goods which maximally contribute to human development through income growth.

South Africa is one of the best performing tourist's destination in Africa. For instance, in 2018 alone, the country received around 10.29 million tourists (Lock, 2019). However, tourism development in South Africa hasn't been without challenges. Tourism development in South Africa was restricted. The main focus was on the mining, manufacturing and agricultural industries, with few people attracted by the game reserves, spas and hot springs (George 2008; Saayman 2013).

Tourism was believed to be an activity catered for the white race group and served a select of wealthy white visitors (Ivanovic 2008; Magi 2012; Bialostocka 2014). Other barriers included inadequate resources, lack of partnerships, limited scope for development, and exclusion of disadvantaged groups from tourism development (Ivanovic 2008). In addition, the implementation of the apartheid policy in 1948 led to the creation of separate tourist facilities, including beaches, hotels and restaurants, increasing exclusion of black people from the tourism industry (Frey & George 2010; Steyn & Spencer 2011). Between 1948 and the early seventies, tourists were attracted by South Africa's cultural and historical attractions, game parks, beaches, good climate, with the country experiencing recurring visitors due to motives such as visiting friends and relatives (Steyn & Spencer 2011). However, between 1976 to

1986, international visitor numbers started to decline due to socio-political barriers linked to Sharpeville and Soweto's acts of resistance (Steyn & Spencer 2011).

In order to fix the problem caused by the Sharpeville and Soweto's acts to resistance, the South African Tourism Board (SATOUR) was established. This Board was responsible for domestic and international tourism marketing and introduced South Africa as "a world in one country" and tourism showed growth with game and nature reserves becoming world famous attractions (Steyn and Spencer 2011). Currently, the tourism industry is declared a priority industry by the South African government due to the substantial economic benefits it brings to the country's economy (Ivanovic 2008; Adinolfi & Ivanovic 2015). Since the 1994 democratic elections, South Africa has become one of Africa's leading tourism destinations (Butler, 2010; Rogerson 2012), with international tourist arrivals increasing since the end of the apartheid era (Lepp & Gibson 2011).

In the post-apartheid era, tourism has become one of the country's leading industries, creating employment and generating income (Nwafor, 2012). Furthermore, tourism is one of the fastest-growing industries in South Africa and a leading source of foreign exchange earner providing employment opportunities and contributing to poverty reduction (Nieman, Visser & Van Wyk, 2008; Moyo & Ziramba, 2013). The tourism industry in South Africa also provides new development opportunities, and economic benefits for local communities and is an important tool for empowerment (Saarinen, 2010).

Furthermore, statistics from 2012 revealed a major growth in visitor arrivals in South Africa with a total of 9,616,946 visitors received (South African Tourism, 2014). This was a growth of 428,596 in comparison to the 9,188,368 visitor arrivals to the country

in 2012 (South African Tourism, 2014). Major tourist attractions include the wine lands, culture and heritage, ecotourism, adventure tourism, coastlines as well as the beaches (George 2008; Akinboade & Braimoh 2010; George 2010). South Africa is also the leading destination amongst major regional tourism destinations, such as Botswana, Egypt, Kenya, Mauritius, and Zimbabwe, attracting about 50% of tourists (Akinboade & Braimoh 2010). In 2013, tourism employment figures stood at 617,287 compared to 598,432 tourism jobs in 2012 (South African Tourism, 2013). In the same year, the tourism industry contributed R93.3 billion to the country's Gross Domestic Product (GDP) compared to R84.3 billion in 2012 (South African Tourism, 2014).

Johannesburg, Cape Town and Durban have become the foremost tourism destinations in South Africa, having a strong place in the market due to meetings, incentives, conventions and events (MICE), which serve as major contributors of continued growth in South Africa's tourism industry (Donaldson & Ferreira 2009; Akinboade & Braimoh 2010).

This has no doubt encouraged longer lengths of stays in South Africa by including pre-and post-event trips (Donaldson & Ferreira 2009; Rogerson 2011; Fenich, Hermann & Hashimoto 2012), further contributing to R4 billion in South Africa's economy (Fenich, Hermann & Hashimoto, 2012). World class attractions in South African cities, such as Johannesburg, Cape Town and Durban, include nature reserves, wine routes and World Heritage sites (Donaldson & Ferreira, 2009; Rogerson, 2011).

Although Johannesburg, Cape Town and Durban are popular tourism destinations, tourism in South Africa faces challenges specifically with communities who have not

benefited from the ownership of the national tourism product (Rogerson 2011). This lack of ownership has led to a misrepresentation and opposition towards the tourism sector (Frey and George 2010). In order to address the situation, government implemented the Black Economic Empowerment (BEE) programme (Frey & George 2010). The BEE programme was developed to encourage companies to address issues of management, strategic representation, employment equity, skills and development as well as corporate social investment, further leading to the BEE certification and government tenders (Frey & George 2010; Magi 2010). Despite such barriers in South Africa, the hosting of the Soccer World Cup, in 2010, provided the country with an opportunity to prove that it could host a major sport event in the same manner as the developed countries, such as Germany, Korea and Japan, which hosted the previous world cups (du Plessis & Maennig 2011; Knott, Allen & Swart 2012). The successful hosting of the 2010 soccer world cup has since positioned South Africa as a key tourism and events destination among the developing countries (South African Tourism 2010).

#### **2.4 Tourism in East Africa (EA)**

Tourism is a critical sector for economic growth in the EAC. The EAC comprises of Kenya, Uganda, Tanzania, Burundi, Rwanda and South Sudan (Republic of Kenya, 2015). The same case applies to Rwanda and Uganda because of the Mountain Gorillas (Republic of Kenya, 2017). Rwanda is shaping up as one of the East Africa's premier business tourism destinations, following efforts by the government and its partners to help strengthen and grow the private sector in the Meetings, Incentives, Conferences, and Events (MICE) market (Republic of Kenya, 2017).

After the Rwanda Convention Bureau was established, visitors for conferences nearly doubled from 17,950 to 35,100, while revenue from MICE events increased from US\$ 29.6 million in 2014 to US\$ 47 million in 2016. Rwanda is among the first countries in East Africa to establish a Convention Bureau. It has quickly begun shaping the market. As a result, it rose to the third position in the International Congress and Convention Association (ICCA) 2016 business tourism rankings for the continent, after South Africa and Morocco (ICCA, 2016). Of the 39 countries ranked, Rwanda was placed 7<sup>th</sup> in Africa in 2015. Kigali was placed 5<sup>th</sup> among the continent's top cities for meetings, conventions and events (World Bank, 2016). The main attractions in East African Community (EAC) include *inter alia* Sandy White Beaches found along the Kenyan Coast and Tanzanian Island of Zanzibar, Mountain Gorillas found in both Uganda and Rwanda, the famous big '5' Wildlife safari tourism found in Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda and the diverse cultural heritage of the people of East Africa (Tanzania Tourism Sector Survey, 2009; World Bank, 2016; KTB, 2017).

The East Africa (EA) tourism trends in general have been shown to improve in the past few years but with challenges abound. Some of the efforts put in place to increase tourist's arrivals in EA include Common Tourist Visa, which was launched between Kenya, Uganda and Burundi (KTB, 2017). In addition, the EAC has harmonized immigration and customs policies and laws to facilitate easy movement across borders thus enhancing tourism between member states (KTB, 2017). Tourism is a growing sector in East African countries, being among major sources of export earnings.

The sector is the major export earner in Tanzania (more than 20% of total exports) and it was the leading export earner in Uganda for the first time in the year 2014. Growth and expansion of tourism sector in East Africa necessitate the importance of

having a competitive destination. Many studies on tourism destination competitiveness have been done in the world but studies on East African destination competitiveness are lacking. With respect to number of tourist arrivals, Tanzania and Uganda had 1,113,000 and 1,266,000 arrivals, respectively, for 2014 which was a 4.7 percent and 4.9 percent increase from 2013 respectively.

The market shares based on tourism receipts for Tanzania and Uganda were 6.7 percent and 3.5 percent, respectively, with the other countries in the region particularly Kenya and Rwanda having a market share of 2.2 percent and 1 percent, respectively. Given the number of tourist arrivals and tourism receipts market share, Tanzania and Uganda appear to be in the same league among the East African countries and thus, logically they can be considered as competitors. Table 2.1, 2.2 and 2.3 shows data on East Africa tourist arrivals, tourism economic indicators for Tanzania and Uganda for 2015 and tourist arrivals in Maasai Mara National Reserve respectively.

**Table 2.1: East Africa Tourist Arrivals**

Destinations	International Tourist arrivals (1000)				Percent Change			Percent Share	International Tourism Receipts (US\$ Million)					Percent Share
	2010	2013	2014	2015*	13/12	14/13	15/14	2015	2010	2013	2014	2015	2015	
<b>Africa</b>	<b>50,426</b>	<b>54,693</b>	<b>55,309</b>	<b>53,466</b>	<b>4.4</b>	<b>1.1</b>	<b>-3.3</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>31,183</b>	<b>35,562</b>	<b>36,125</b>	<b>33,069</b>	<b>100</b>	
Sub-Saharan Africa	30,743	33,971	34,877	35,435	3.6	2.7	1.6	66.3	21,521	25,499	25,484	24,514	74.1	
Kenya	1,470	1,433	1,261	1,114	-11.5	-12	-11.7	2.1	800	881	811	723	2.2	
Rwanda	504	864	926	..	6	7.2	..	..	202	294	304	318	1	
Tanzania	754	1,063	1,113	..	1.9	4.7	..	..	1,255	1,880	2,010	2,231	6.7	
Uganda	946	1,206	1,266	..	0.8	4.9	..	..	784	1,334	791	1,149	3.5	

**Source: World Economic Forum (2015)**



**Table 2.2: Tourism Economic Indicators for Tanzania and Uganda for 2015**

<b>Indicator</b>	<b>Tanzania (USD)</b>	<b>Uganda (USD)</b>
GDP: Direct Contribution	1.36 million (5.1% of total GDP)	816,964 (4.3% of total GDP)
GDP: Total Contribution	3.78 million (14.0% of GDP)	1.90 million (9.9% of GDP)
Employment: Direct Contribution	467,000 jobs (4.3% of total employment)	Supported 247,000 jobs (3.6% of total employment)
Employment: Total Contribution	12.2% of total employment (1,337,000 jobs).	8.6% of total employment (592,500 jobs).
Visitor Exports	1.54 million (21.9% of total exports)	1.05 million (26.0% of total exports)
Investment	851,988 or 9.5% of total investment	206,976 or 4.6% of total investment

*Source:* World Travel and Tourism Council (2015)

According to Narok County Government, (2020) there were 291,107 tourist arrivals in Maasai Mara between 2018 and 2019 as indicated in table 2.3

**Table 2.3: Tourist arrivals in Maasai Mara National Reserve.**

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Total
2018	9396	11,870	12,836	9031	10,969	26,409	54,365	59,974	28,003	23,009	14,458	30,697	291,017
2019	13,775	15,963	9124	11,190	7929								

**Source:** Narok County Government, 2020

## 2.5 Tourism in Kenya

Tourism is a significant source of foreign exchange in Kenya. This helps reduce dependence on other sectors such as agriculture, which are subject to weather and market conditions that can often be unpredictable. In the past, up to 21% of Kenya's national income has been derived from tourism (KTB, 2017). These much-needed

funds have helped diversify the economy. In addition, they have been put towards developing the country's infrastructural projects such as public hospitals, schools, and roads, thereby improving citizens' overall living standards.

It is common for local governments to prioritize projects that could help increase tourism income over projects that work towards the general well-being of residents. In this way, locals may miss out on essential amenities (such as healthcare, schooling, clean water or irrigation), as they are sidelined in favour of services geared towards tourism development. For example, in an area with only enough funds to either refurbish a local health centre or upgrade a road that leads to an area with a cluster of popular tourist hotels, local officials are likely to prioritize the road project over the health facility. Furthermore, the income generated from tourist activities is not likely to funnel down to locals, with the most significant share going to the big industry players. Tourists are likely to frequent chain hotels, usually owned by foreign companies and divert very little income towards the Kenyan economy. Moreover, local artisans and business owners miss out on the bulk of tourist revenue, gaining limited income from curio purchases.

In the past two decades, an increasing number of researchers have sought to determine the impact of supply and demand shocks on the economy. Domestic or international shocks such as the outbreak of SARS or the terrorist attacks of September 11, 2001, adversely affected industries such as air transport, tourism and the economy as a whole. This indicates a need to understand the nature of the impact of shocks and policy changes to gain greater insight into the workings of such changes and determine ways of minimizing their adverse effects. However, much of the research

regarding developing countries up to now has been descriptive or has relied on input-output (I-O) analysis.

Despite the existence of varied tourist attractions, comprising warm weather, tropical beaches, abundant wildlife in natural habitats, scenic beauty and a geographically diverse landscape, this potential has in many cases not been fully exploited. However, in recent years, investment in tourism infrastructure and public health standards in most developing countries (DCs) has improved. On the other hand, a range of factors such as higher discretionary incomes, smaller family sizes, changing demographics in many Northern countries has a massive impact on tourism demand. Many attempts to explain the linkages between tourism and economic growth have been made. Development theorists contend that increased services export (such as tourism) may contribute to economic diversification and economic growth.

The net social benefit of tourism growth, reducing poverty and its effects on income distribution, is an important and relatively unexplored aspect of tourism in Kenya. Economic models of research in tourism are dominated by the impact of tourism measured in terms of its contribution to gross national product, employment and income generation. As a private sector-led, outward-oriented industry, the question is whether tourism can contribute to Kenya's urgent need for pro-poor growth, an important area into which this current study will delve.

There has been a gradual decline of the share of agriculture in overall GDP from 36.6% in the first decade after independence to about 22.2% in 2011. The percentage of manufacturing has only grown slowly and accounts for about 16.4% of the GDP. The service sector accounts for 64.6% of GDP, with the key sub-sectors being transport and communication, wholesale and retail trade, and hotels and restaurants.

According to the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) 3(2012), the direct contribution of Travel and Tourism to GDP was KES167.6 billion (5.7% of GDP) in 2011 and 13.7% at full impact level and is forecast to rise by 4.3% in 2012. Travel and Tourism directly supported 313,500 jobs (4.8% of total employment) and 11.9% at full impact level. A focus on the sub-Saharan country shows that the travel and tourism sector contributed directly to about 2.6% of total GDP (USD33.5bn) and 2.4% of total employment (5,265,000 jobs) in 2011. International tourist arrivals generally doubled since 1990 and are still expected to grow steadily as Kenya is working very hard to realize its vision 2030.

Most overseas visitors to Kenya come from Europe and America, with Europe accounting for over 70% of the country's visitors (WTTC, 2012). Tourism is a key part of the country's economic strategy. In 2020, contribution of travel and tourism to GDP for Kenya was 9 billion US dollars. The contribution of travel and tourism to the GDP of Kenya increased from 1.3 billion US dollars in 2001 to 9 billion US dollars in 2020, growing at an average annual rate of 11.54%, as indicated in table 2.3 (World Data Atlas, 2020). Table 2.4 shows Kenya's contribution of travel and tourism to GDP.

**Table 2.4: Kenya contribution of travel and tourism to GDP**

<b>DATE</b>	<b>VALUE Billion (USD)</b>	<b>CHANGE, %</b>
<b>2020</b>	9.0	5.89 %
<b>2019</b>	8.5	6.43 %
<b>2018</b>	8.0	13.13 %
<b>2017</b>	7.0	10.46 %
<b>2016</b>	6.4	2.56 %
<b>2015</b>	6.2	-0.96 %
<b>2014</b>	6.3	8.63 %
<b>2013</b>	5.8	0.36 %
<b>2012</b>	5.8	20.10 %
<b>2011</b>	4.8	7.48 %
<b>2010</b>	4.5	16.02 %
<b>2009</b>	3.8	

**Source; World Economic Forum, (2020)**

Tourism has been recognized as one of the sectors that will drive economic growth towards achievement of Vision 2030. The Kenya Vision 2030 is the country's new development blueprint covering the period 2008 to 2030. It aims at making Kenya one of the top ten long haul tourist destinations, offering diverse and high end experiences by 2012 to a target of five million tourists. It envisages that Kenya will become a globally competitive and prosperous middle-income country within the next two decades. Some of the key strategies that the government is focusing on to unlock the tourism sector under the vision 2030 development blueprint include repositioning the Coast circuit; opening underutilized parks, and providing niche products. Until recently, measurement of the economic impact of tourism has relied on input-output modelling.

Input-output models can be used to assess the value-added and inter-industries relationship attributable to tourism at the country level (Kweka *et al.*, 2003; Archer,

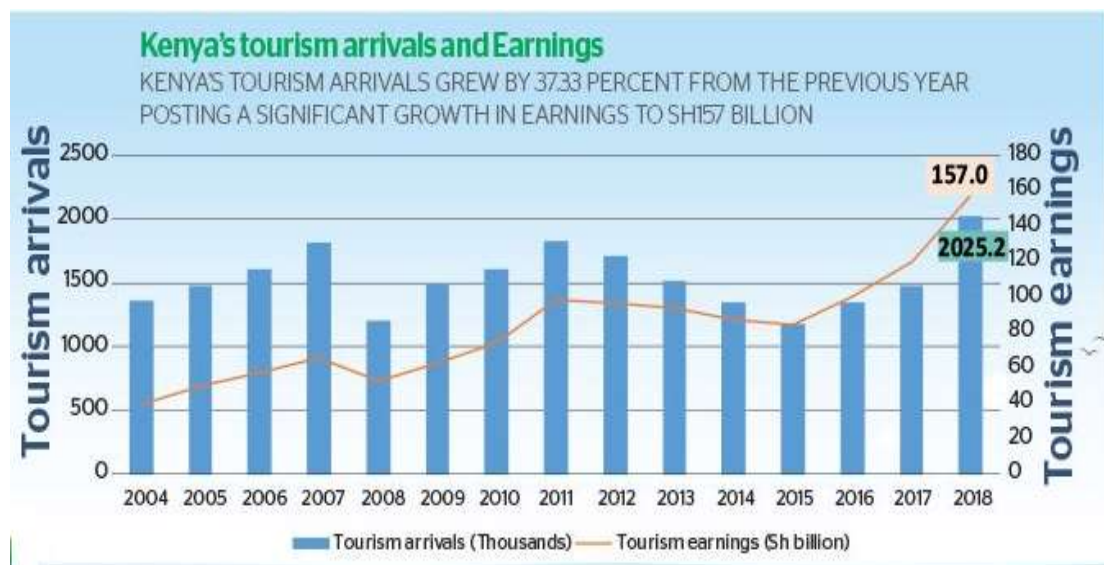
1995; Archer & Fletcher, 1996; Heng & Low, 1990; Seow, 1981, and Khan *et al.*, 1990) and to examine the impact of tourism in a province and city setting (West, 1993; DBEDT, 2002; Frechtling & Horvath, 1999; Finn & Erdem, 1995). Tourism is a major source of foreign exchange in Kenya and has been prioritized by the Kenyan government as an integral part of Vision 2030 in order to spur wealth creation for various sectors of the economy as well as create jobs for millions of unemployed youths (KNBS, 2017).

According to the Kenya's 2017 Economic Survey, the foreign exchange earnings have continued to improve over the years. For instance, in the year 2016, the tourism earnings were Kshs. 99.7 billion and international visitor numbers rose by 13.5% to stand at 1.3 million (KNBS, 2017). The tourism receipts have a ripple-effect on other sectors of the Kenyan such as agriculture, transport, arts and crafts (curios), conference facilities, banking, hotels and hospitality services (KTB, 2016; KNBS, 2017).

The same positive effects from tourism to the Kenyan economy are replicated at the destination sites such as Mara Naboisho Conservancy (MNC). However, most tourists to Kenya tend to book and purchase all-inclusive tour packages in their countries (Sinclair, 2000), which are relatively cheaper compared to other forms of individual travel packages. The tour packages include advance payments for air tickets, food, accommodation and recreational services. In this form of travel packages, total tourism receipts seepage to overseas promoters and agents range from the magnitude of 40% - 70%, thus resulting to high economic leakages (Sinclair, 2000; Dieke, 2001). As a result, the economy of Kenya gets deprived of substantial financial resources for social and economic development of its citizens. In addition, tourism takes away

resources from the same host communities such as land resources and water for use in hotels, thus increasing poverty levels (Nelson, 2004).

However, the Ministry of Tourism and other relevant government agencies have instituted appropriate remedial measures that include both policy and legislative frameworks to minimize economic leakages over time (KTB, 2016; KTB 2017). Some county governments have also developed laws and policies to address these economic leakages. For instance, the Narok County government enacted the Narok County Finance Act of 2016 to augment other policy strategies in sealing all the loopholes for economic leakages.



**Figure 2.2: Trends of tourism in Kenya**

From the 2004 to 2018, Kenya's tourism arrivals grew by 37.33% posting a significant growth in earnings to Kenya shillings 157 Billion as shown in figure 2.2. The significant role of the tourism sector in the economic development of many countries is well documented in tourism literature. It includes increased foreign exchange receipts, the balance of payments, government revenues, employment, and increased economic activity in general. It is, therefore, no mystery that many countries,

particularly those classified as developing such as Kenya, have turned to tourism as available alternative to achieve their economic development goals. At independence in 1963, Kenya depended mainly on its exports of agricultural products, including coffee and tea, for foreign exchange. However, with the decline in world market prices of these primary products, the country has turned to tourism as an alternative (Akama, 2000).

For Kenya, it has been argued that tourism represents a cheaper alternative for diversification of the economy, particularly considering the country's competitive advantage in terms of environmental attraction suitable for nature tourism, together with an abundance of labor.

Nevertheless, the lack of financial resources due to low levels of domestic savings and the lack of skilled manpower represent real obstacles in the development of the tourism sector in Kenya. The Kenyan Economic Recovery Strategy for Wealth and Employment Creation 2003–2007 (GOK, 2002) places emphasis on tourism, identifying it together with manufacturing and trade as the main drivers of the economy in the planned period. Tourism is expected to create employment opportunities and an increase in foreign direct investment through the development of tourism facilities. To make tourism pro-poor, the strategy explicitly aims to strengthen tourism linkages with the rest of the economy through community-based ecotourism ventures, particularly in the northern and western areas of the country, to promote local investment by improving access to credit, to give incentives to small and medium-sized enterprises, and to spread the economic benefits through tourism to less-visited parks (GOK, 2005).



In spite of this emphasis on tourism, little has been done to understand its integration with other sectors of the local economy, measure the magnitude of its contribution and compare its potential to attain economic development goals against other sectors. Macroeconomic policymakers have tended to formulate and implement policies without taking account of their predicted effects in the context of tourism growth. Apart from pioneering work done by Summary (1987) on the contribution of tourism to the economy of Kenya in the period 1963–1980, there are no other attempts that quantitatively examine the pathways through which tourism is contributing to the economy. The share of the service sector in Kenya's GDP has been rising from 41.98% in 2017 to 42.67% in 2018 (Pletcher, 2018).

The sector includes government-provided services, social and private services, insurance and financial services, banking, and the increasingly important restaurant, hotel, and safari industries, which have grown in response to the increasing number of tourists visiting Kenya. Although the African continent only receives a small percentage of the international tourist arrivals and receipts (UNWTO, 2019), some particular destinations in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) such as Kenya have recorded impressive performance over the years. According to the World Tourism Organization, Kenya's share of world international tourist arrivals rose from 0.17% in 1985 to 0.19% in 1990, but this dropped to 0.12% in 2001. Kenya's share of Africa's tourism followed a similar pattern and rose from 4.7% between 1985 and 1990 but declined to 3.2% by 2000. By 2000, Kenya was the sixth most important tourist destination in Africa led by South Africa, Tunisia, Morocco, Zimbabwe, and Botswana in that order.

In 2001, Algeria and Nigeria had overtaken Kenya. Kenya's major tourism activities are safari and beach holidays, which are spatially restricted to key tourism destination

areas including the coast (Mombasa, South Coast, and Malindi coastal areas) and around a few key national parks and reserves (Masai Mara National Reserve, Tsavo National Parks, and Amboseli National Park) (Akama, 1999; Ondicho, 2000). Recently, other forms of tourism such as sports, adventure, cultural, and business tourism have been promoted in an effort to diversify the destination's product. As observed by Akama (1999) and Odunga and Folmer (2004), Kenya's comparative advantage in the international tourism scene is based on its endowment of unique natural resources such as pristine beaches, diverse wildlife, scenic landscape, ideal weather conditions, and unique indigenous cultural heritage.

Odunga and Folmer (2004) reviewed the role of tourism as regards to its contribution to gross value added from 1995 to 2001. They found that tourism, estimated in the national accounts as trade, hotels, and restaurants, contributed an average of 12% of GDP in this period. They also report that in this period, a 7% real growth (using 1982 constant prices) in tourism could stimulate a 1% growth in real GDP as compared to agriculture, which required above 9.6% real growth to stimulate a percentage growth in real GDP.

Tourism revenues have tended to increase at a faster rate than earnings from the traditional export sectors. For instance, total tourism earnings rose from 540 million Kenyan shillings (Ksh) in 1970 to over Ksh 20 billion in 1987 overtaking tea and coffee (Akama, 1999; Weaver, 1999). At its peak in 1994, tourism accounted for over 24% of the country's total exports receipts (Odunga & Folmer, 2004). However, starting in 1997, tourism receipts as a percentage of exports were overtaken by tea. In 1998, the sector's contribution to exports had dropped to 14.4% to recover marginally to 17.5% in 1999. Finally, in the period from 1995 to 2001, tourism accounted for an average of 9% of modern private and public sector direct employment in Kenya. It

should be pointed out here that this figure does not represent the total share of tourism in employment, as indirect employment, particularly in the informal sector, may have a higher importance.

Kenya's tourist arrivals grew by 37.33% in 2018 from 2017 to cross the two million mark for the first time, posting a significant growth in earnings of Sh157 billion (KTB, 2018), a 31.2% improvement from the Sh119 billion earned in 2017 (Ministry of Tourism, 2019.) The latest statistics show there were 2,025,206 tourists arriving compared with 1,474,671 international arrivals in the previous year. The United States remained Kenya's leading market, growing by 11.12 per cent with 225,157 arrivals. The gains of the sector were as a result of coordinated efforts between various arms of government, whom the tourism sector has engaged, as well as the concerted efforts in marketing Kenya as a destination of choice (Business Daily, 2019).

## **2.6 Contribution of Tourism to Community Livelihoods.**

Tourism has the potential to provide alternative livelihoods for households whose other sources of income are unreliable. Whilst earnings from the sale of curios are unpredictable, tourism fits well with the local people's established livelihood strategies. Tourism has provided a supplement and support to the pastoral economy, thus helping to support local livelihoods. Many people benefit from livelihood impacts in the form of increased food security, access to transport, improved medical care, and education. The flexibility of the source of income (since the activity is done at home, in their own time and with low inputs) is particularly attractive to participants.

These non-cash livelihood impacts are important to communities and are spread more widely within the community than direct financial impacts (Stevens, 2007; Godwin &

Edmund, 2007). The developmental gains of the tourism industry to the host community have prompted researchers to interrogate tourism extensively. The development of the industry has been linked with the increase in job creation, income to households, revenue to the government, foreign exchange earnings in the host community and the country at large (Sinclair, Christie, Fernandes, Messerli & Twining-Ward, 2013; Jordan, Havadi-Nagy & Marosi, 2016).

Tourism is one of the fastest-growing industries in the last decades and an important economic sector for many developing and developed countries (Ali & Chowdhury, 2009; Baker, 2013). Over the past two decades, tourism has become a significant source of income and employment in most countries and an increasingly important factor in economic development (Eraqi, 2007). Likewise, tourism has been observed as a multidimensional employment generating industry. For instance, in Bangladesh, it forms a rising share in discretionary income and often provides new opportunities for keeping the local environment secured and safe (Tuhin & Majumder, 2011). However, poverty is also a reality for many people in Bangladesh, where some live under the poverty line. Yet tourism still plays a vital role in generating employment opportunities for the local population (Beeton, 2006; Richards & Hall, 2000). Moreover, Bangladesh is a country of natural beauty, having hills, the Bay of Bengal, the largest natural sandy sea beach, cultural heritage, several ethnic minority groups, traditional games and festivals, religious festivals, historically important places, archaeological sites etc.

Shalban Bihara is such an archaeological site revolving which a lot of multidimensional business firm and ideas are being emerged. It is also emerging the employment opportunities for the host community in terms of restaurants, hotels, resorts, transportations, recreations, local made food items, local made handicrafts,

local recreations, and local ethnic cultural shows and local other services offered to tourists. The environment is often referred to as the key component of tourism because it is the bedrock for any tourism development (Holden, 2008). The environment comprises of the home environment and the destination environment.

This is because the relationship between tourism and the environment is concerned not just with the destinations that tourists go to but also the societies where they come from. The environment in which tourism occurs is the key component in tourism development (Holden, 2008). The attributes of an environment can either be viewed as natural and/or cultural. The community a tourist visits is often termed the host community. Cook, Yale and Marqua (2006) defined the host community as the people that welcome visitors and provide them with the desired services. Smith (2001) also defined host communities as people who live in the vicinity of the tourist attraction and are either directly or indirectly involved with, and/or affected by the tourism. Community is characterized by strong connections of social relations that provide the ability to participate, co-operate and interact (Colton & Whitney-Squire 2010).

For local communities, “community development involves the satisfaction of basic needs including food, shelter, portable water and electricity, access to health facilities, basic education, clean environment as well as access to satisfactory cultural, spiritual, social and political life” (Amalu, Ajake & Obi 2016). To ensure that this is achieved, planners and stake-holders, at all levels, must ensure that there exists a coherent use of the community resources, an increase in the productive capacity of the population as well as organizing people to ensure self-sustaining economic activities (Amalu, Ajake & Obi 2016). Moreover, local community development can be linked to providing access to finance and other tools to build affordable housing, establish businesses, and build community facilities such as schools, health clinics, and child-care centres,

making marginalized communities more lively economically and socially stronger (Braunstein & Lavizzo-Mourey 2011; Erickson & Andrews 2011).

Tourism serves as one of the most popular strategies for community development, enhancing local and national development (Aref, Gill & Aref 2010; Ibrahim & Razzaq 2010; Aref & Gill 2011). It generates social peace, and cultural exchange, thus, improving the quality of life in an area by increasing the number of attractions, recreational opportunities, and services (Eshliki & Kaboudi 2012). Tourism also offers residents with opportunities to meet interesting people, foster friendships, learn about the world, and expose themselves to new perspectives (Eshliki & Kaboudi 2012). In tourism, community development is evaluated under the terms participation, empowerment, sustainability and community capacity (Aref, Gill & Aref 2010).

Furthermore, tourism facilitates community development through business mentoring and educational opportunities for local communities, increasing skills and knowledge in local communities, which translates to an improved livelihood amongst the community members (Aref, Gill & Aref 2010). For local communities, tourism should be developed in a way that benefits the local communities, strengthens the local economy, employs local workforce, respects traditional lifestyles and cultures and is environmentally sustainable, using local materials, local agricultural products and traditional skills (Choi & Murray 2010).

Mechanisms, such as policies and legislation, should be introduced to ensure a flow of benefits to local communities (Choi & Murray 2010). Due to the above- mentioned positive contributions of tourism, many local communities now rely on tourism to provide economic, social, and cultural development amongst others within their

community, which has led to tourism being increasingly viewed as a crucial component of community development (Aref, Gill & Aref 2010).

As can be seen from the literature, tourism is widely recognized as a tool for community development with the potential to empower the marginalized communities through building confidence, building the capacity and sustainability of networks available in a community, as well as restoring its physical, economic, and social structures (Masud, Kari, Yahaya & Al-Amin 2015). Colton and Whitney-Squire (2010) suggests that development should be based on building healthy relationships, which relate to the asset-based approach, which focuses on constantly building and restoring broken relationships (*that are broken by oppression*) between local residents, local associations and local institutions.

Without such healthy relationships based on healing, capacity building opportunities, which, according to Hamzah and Khalifah (2012), is the basis of sustainable community development and a strong connection to culture and land, any kind of development, be it tourism, is likely to be unsustainable. Therefore, community development should also include factors such as: community empowerment; community wellness; economic development; community learning; and stewardship in order to be an effective progression (Colton & Whitney-Squire 2010). Furthermore, the factors highlighted above by Colton and Whitney-Squire (2010) do not exist individually as they inter-relate and contribute to community development. From the factors of community development highlighted above, it is clear that the focus of community development must not only be on the economic development of a community, but includes factors such as community empowerment, community wellness and community learning and stewardship.

Furthermore, in order for a development programme to have a positive impact, the local community must be well represented during the whole process of development, especially at the planning and assessment stages (Ledwith 2011; Wu & Pearce 2013; Zadel, Ivančić & Čevapović 2014). Thus, local residents need to become the main players as they are able to propose solutions, assess proposed projects and activities, simultaneously developing partnerships with different stakeholders (Wu & Pearce 2013). Effective community empowerment from tourism also requires thoughtful action, in order to challenge power structures, encouraging local control through community consultation, empowerment and through involvement in sustainable transformation (Partington & Totten 2012).

Tourism involves some elements of interaction between the tourist and the destination environment. The consequences of these interactions are often referred to as the contribution of tourism. Most people think of tourism in terms of economic contribution, jobs and taxes. However, Kreag (2001) rightly pointed out that the range of contribution from tourism is broad and often influences areas beyond those commonly associated with tourism. Leaders as well as residents who understand the potential contribution of tourism can integrate this industry into their community in the most positive way. The contribution of tourism can be sorted into several categories including economic, environmental and socio-cultural contributions (Cook, Yale & Marqua, 2006). A study, conducted by Ahebwa and van der Duim (2013) on conservation, livelihoods and tourism in Uganda, highlights successful and critical factors in involving the local community in a tourism project.

On a positive note, the study found that tourism stimulates local employment and income in the village, employing local community members as room and laundry attendants, guides, shop attendants as well as cleaners (Ahebwa & van der Duim



2013). The study also found that tourism provides indirect economic opportunities, as mentioned previously, for community members, who are engaged in agriculture. These individuals supply milk, bananas, eggs and vegetables for the lodge, thereby further expanding local produce (Ahebwa & van der Duim 2013). The study further highlights that the community controls all tourism activities and operational funds are used to expand the local tourism product, including the construction of cottages, and designing the village trail for tourists (*ibid*).

Tourism revenue is also used in capacity building to train employees at the Buhomo Lodge as well as for site planning; for the provisioning of support for community projects, such as the construction of schools, health facilities, and bridges as well as supporting craft community projects that involve local youth and women of the village (Ahebwa & van der Duim 2013). Findings also indicate that the community members of Buhomo have formed associations such as the Buhoma-Bwindi Women Development Club, Mukono Women's Foundation and Batwa Association For Development which allow women to work together to achieve development (Ahebwa & van der Duim 2013). Kenya is one of the leading tourist destinations in Africa attracting about 6% of total tourist arrivals to the continent. As such tourism is a major economic and social phenomenon which accounts for about 10% of GDP and accounts for 10-12% of total wage employment and 19.2% of export earnings (Kenya 2013).

The sector is also one of the largest sources of foreign exchange earnings and revenue generating in the country. The Kenyan tourism industry has experienced a steady growth in volume, revenues, and investments since independence. The number of arrivals has increased steadily from 65,000 in 1964 to over two million in 2019 with a corresponding increase in revenues (TRI, 2020). In 2012, Kenya earned US\$935

million from 1.6 million tourists, making tourism the third largest foreign exchange earner after tea and horticulture (Mburu, 2004; Ondicho, 2016). However, most of the benefits from the local tourism industry go to major investors and stakeholders including tour operators/agencies, travel companies, hoteliers, and the state (Ondicho, 2010).

By contrast, a clear majority of poor people living in rural areas where the tourist attractions are located receive virtually no direct benefits from tourism and are often sidelined from tourism development. According to Holden (2008), owing to the high level of income generated through tourism business, more attention has been given to the economic impact of tourism leaving the socio-cultural contribution that are also important aspects of the effects which are capable of sustaining or destroying tourism development. Tourism being an activity that involves the interaction of tourists and the hosts has contribution on the socio-cultural environment of the host communities. Since tourism has environment as the bedrock for its development, environment in this context are the natural and cultural environment and being an activity that involves the interaction of the tourist with the cultural and natural environment, these interactions have contribution on the social life of the host communities.

Tourism contributions are varied and diverse depending on many other factors that influences it. Most of the contributions to host communities are either positive or negative. Positive contributions are those desirable by the hosts such as cash contributions, job creation, and sales to tourists – curios, arts and crafts. Negative contributions are undesirable by the host communities such as environmental degradation, land displacement, loss of culture, substance use by unemployed youth and demonstration effect (Thompson, 2002; Western *et al.*, 2006). Other negative

contributions include commoditization of the Maa culture, prostitution and high prices for locals (Walpole & Leader-Williams, 2001).

Further, tourism related consumption has three stages of impact. First, prior to departure, tourists' purchase travel-related clothing and equipment, this may be produced under conditions that undermine the social and ecological sustainability of the producing communities. Second, when tourists travel long distances to tourist destinations, they create considerable atmospheric pollution and other contributions on the global environment. Third, upon arrival at the tourist destination, tourists often continue their accustomed habits of consumption, even though these destinations may not have the infrastructure requirements to manage those consumption patterns (Thompson & Homewood, 2002). Overall, this leads to destruction of traditional sources of income and livelihoods (ICLEI, 1999). However, past investigations revealed that the contributions of tourism whether positive or negative are site and context specific (Thompson, 2002; Walpole & Leader-Williams, 2001).

Many studies are available on tourism industry and in different aspect like economic, social, regional, cultural, consumer aspect etc. Baker (2013) investigated the economic impacts of tourism in Asian pacific region using Tourism Satellite Account (TSA). The study found that some countries had developed initiatives to boost tourism through TSA but those numbers were few and did not include benefits to local communities. Aref, Redzuan and Gill (2009), and Mohammadi, Khalifah and Hosseini (2010) explored community perceptions toward economic and environmental impacts of tourism on local communities but in different countries. Eraqi (2007) researched the attitudes of the local communities towards the impacts of tourism development. The study concluded that the local communities had positive

attitudes towards the impacts of tourism. Moreover, the study highlighted some negative impacts of tourism on local communities.

Ramseook-Munhurrin and Naidoo (2011) researched the attitudes towards perceived benefit of tourism by local communities. The study revealed positive attitudes on economic, social and cultural impacts of tourism development and negative attitudes on environmental impacts. However, the study does not take development of local communities through tourism into count. Hasan, Ullah and Chowdhury (2013) have investigated impact of tourism on Bangladesh economy. This work identifies a gap in task to attract tourists and tourist facility development. Tuhin and Majumder, (2011) explained a scenario of tourism industry in Bangladesh, identified the constraints, and suggested remedial measures. The study recommends some suggestion for development of tourism.

Many previous studies have covered different models of Sustainable Livelihood Framework – some simple and others too complex. Some of the notable and widely used models include the one developed by United Kingdom (UK), Department of Foreign and International Development (DFID), Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), Swedish International Development Agency (SIDA) and United Nations Development Program (UNDP). The models are somewhat similar but with some degree of uniqueness in the actual design format. The common aspects with models include human capital, social capital, natural capital, economic/financial capital, and physical capital as the four corners of a pyramid (DFID, 2000). The last two or so decades, the Maasai have been at the forefront in the development of the so-called Maasai cultural tourism.

Maasai cultural tourism incorporates experiences that revolve around cultural bomas, most of which are located at the periphery of Amboseli National Park and are run by the local people according to their priorities (Ondicho, 2010 & 2012). A cultural boma is a purpose-built 'model village' intended to attract fee paying tourists. The villages are set up by Maasai entrepreneurs, who seek to display their culture and sell their artifacts to tourists directly without going through middlemen. Such villages give tourists the chance to meet the Maasai on their own terms and to learn more about their exotic culture, to photograph them in their traditional costumes and perhaps, to purchase some of their handicrafts. Cultural bomas are an indigenously home grown Maasai tourism initiative which not only puts control in local hands but also gets tourist spending directly into the hands of poor people.

Mitchel and Ashley (2010) have argued that community based cultural tourism can play a critical role in stimulating economic development, complementing and diversifying local sources of livelihood, improving the welfare and well-being of host communities, and in alleviating poverty. However, there is relatively little knowledge on how the cultural bomas tourism can contribute to poverty alleviation. Possible negative livelihood effects that are indirectly caused by the impact of tourist activity on the non-tourist economy can be significant. Most common threats that can possibly occur due to tourism development include; price increases, environmental degradation, excessive development, outside control or foreign ownership, economic leakages and crowding (Shrivastava & Bihari, 2010).

Price increases may become a problem when visitors and local residents want the same goods and services. Prices are likely to escalate because outsiders are willing to pay much more for goods and services than the local market dictates. As visitor numbers increase, so do the demands for basic services such as policing, fire, safety

and health care. Such increased demand brings increased costs and possibly higher tax burdens for the local community (Shrivastava & Bihari, 2010). A solution is to have a two-tiered price system one for residents, one for visitors. When a location becomes a popular tourism destination it can lead to excessive tourism development. Local entrepreneurs will create lodging, restaurant and other services to cater to visitors' needs. In some cases when tourism demand is strong, people from other parts of the country will move to a community to take advantage of the increased economic opportunity. With the increased need for tourism services, come increased infrastructure demands: hotels, restaurants and homes for recently arrived employees and entrepreneurs.

These demands place pressure on basic services such as water supplies, wastewater treatment, electricity which can lead to environmental degradation as well as leading to a more competitive market system. A competitive market can result in not all community members having equal changes to participate in the market. Also, outside control and foreign ownership can be perceived as a risk when local communities do not, or are unable to, participate in the tourism industry. Foreign investors may see new economic opportunities in tourism development and control or buy out existing local businesses, which results in economic leakages.

Shrivastava and Bihari (2010) explain that international businesses are likely to import products and services rather than develop local markets. The increasing tourism market can also lead to a sense of crowding. Tourists may start to compete with residents for space. In some bigger communities with commercial centres, lines may get longer at grocery stores. Residents may have to wait for dinner at the local residents. Residents may also be disturbed by too many visitors at their local sites, the places they knew while growing up before they became international tourism

attractions. If access to these treasured spots becomes difficult tensions often grow (Shrivastava & Bihari, 2010)

The quest for knowledge on the potential environmental, socio-cultural and economic impacts of tourism arose in the 1980s (Smith, 1977, 1989 in Liburd and Edwards, 2010). It has been established that the contribution of tourism varies in type, location and significance as different types of tourists place different demands upon the resources of the destinations (Liburd & Edwards, 2010). The impacts of tourism can be grouped into three main categories: economic, social, and environmental. Tourism has become one of the major forces for economic growth in many developing and developed countries.

Tourism contributes to economic growth through various channels including foreign currency earnings, attracting international investment, increasing tax revenues and creating additional employment opportunities (Alam, 2016). It therefore impacts several sectors of the economy as well as impacting many lives (George 2008; Cooper 2012). There has been increased interest in Sustainable Tourism which takes into account the sensitivities and concerns about the environment and people such as local communities. This is based on the premise that tourism should develop in an environmentally, economically and socially sustainable manner (Simpson, 2007).

The purpose of sustainable tourism is to make a balance between protecting the environment, maintaining cultural integrity, establishing social justice and promoting economic benefits, meeting the needs of the host population in terms of improved living standards both in the short and long term (Liu *et al.*, 2013) in both developed and emerging nations (Mitchell & Hall, 2005; Swarbrooke & Horner, 2004) while emphasizing both intergenerational equity and intra-generational equity (Liu, 2013)

and in a form that can maintain its viability in an area for an indefinite period of time' (Butler, 2003, 2009). Community Tourism is at the heart of sustainable tourism development (Lee & Jan, 2019).

Community Tourism focuses on improving the quality of life of the residents by optimizing local economic benefits, protecting the natural and built environment and providing a high-quality experience for visitors (Bramwell & Lane, 2003; McIntyre, 2003; Park & Yoon, 2009; Park, Yoon, & Lee, 2008; Stabler, 2007). Tourism therefore touches the personal lives, of the local communities by affecting their lifestyles, traditions and cultures, as well as their livelihood and their long-standing ways of organizing themselves socially and politically.

While sustainable tourism does not take away the negative effects of tourism in its entirety, it might help enhance the positive impacts tourism can have and reduce the costs it places on the local community. However, we also have to keep in mind that the impacts that tourism might have on host communities and environment depend on the characteristics of the destination social and cultural characteristics (strength of local culture can help reduce socio-cultural impacts); carrying capacity (number of tourists without an unacceptable alteration to the physical environment); and, characteristics of tourists (type of tourist, length of stay and behaviour) (Liburd & Edwards, 2010).

Moreover, the interaction between hosts and visitors might not only create opportunities for cross-cultural exchanges, but can also lead to undesired cultural changes or cultural distortion. United Nations World Tourism Organization (2016) observes that tourism involves the transportation and hosting of the tourism consumer in a local community (tourist destination) where the tourist product is consumed. This



contrasts with the consumption of other products and services where the products and services are delivered to the consumer in his/her own community (UNWTO, 2016). This structural difference produces unique social impact upon the local tourist community, including the interruption of local customs and lifestyles, the spread of infectious diseases, changes in local demography, and changes in local housing and labor market (Dieke, 2003).

Moreover, Shrivastava and Bihari (2010) emphasize the heterogeneity of a community where there are often mixed feelings and realities. Some want to modernize their cultures and so actively solicit changes. Others are looking for new means of economic development and simply accept the cultural changes that accompany this pursuit. Still others see no reason to change and do not want to modify their traditions and customs. While there is a need for all perspectives to be respected and everybody be given a chance to decide on the course of their lives and lifestyles, this is always not the case. Shrivastava and Bihari (2010) argue that tourism induced cultural change usually occurs without the opportunity for communities to decide whether they actually want change. There is often an imbalance of power in the relationship between tourists and residents. Tourists can provoke changes, often unintentional and subtle, without consent from residents. It is therefore important to adequately inform communities about the potential benefits and costs of ecotourism development and then to decide for themselves, the degree of change they wish to subject themselves to (*ibid*).

Another issue is the increase in congestion and littering of the natural resources, by both tourists and tourists operators, which in the long run can lead to environmental degradation when there are no strict policies and management. Increasing tourism numbers might also contribute to increasing occasions of vandalism and crime.

Tourism is also known to effectuate secondary effects: indirect and induced effects (Mitchell & Ashley, 2010). Indirect effects occur where a change in tourism expenditure impacts on the non-tourism economy e.g. food sales to restaurants. On the other hand, Induced effects arise when workers in the tourism sector spend their earnings locally, thus generating further income for poor households (Mitchell & Ashley, 2010). Yet, tourism can also positively impact the lives of the local communities in a number of ways. Positive effects can be found in improved services such as healthcare and education as well as the enhancement and creation of new infrastructure.

Less tangible livelihood attributes that are also integral to deriving benefits relate to social assets such as renewed pride, empowerment, cultural benefits, optimism, as well as to physical security, and more participation in decision-making (Scoones, 1998; DFID, 1999; Ashley *et al.*, 2001; Simpson, 2008). Shrivastava and Bihari (2010) express that it is common for people to not fully appreciate their surroundings and to take what they have for granted. However, the interest and appreciation from tourists in one's country and tourist attractions might help them to become more aware of the value of their own natural resources, which in return might help the will to preserve these resources. At the same time, traditional communities can feel greater self-esteem as a result of the respectful interest shown by visitors (*ibid*).

Chok *et al.*, (2007), Scheyvens (2007), Zhao and Ritchie (2007) and Mitchell and Ashley (2010) have noted that local communities benefit from tourism through employment, capacity building in business development and management, improved social welfare and sharing of revenue generated by tourism. Mitchell and Ashley (2010) and Spenceley (2008) also note that tourism has a multiplier effect on the

livelihoods of local people through direct capital injection and job creation. Furthermore, tourism generates the multiplier effects by contributing to the development of other sectors, for example: accommodation, food, transportation, hospitality, construction, textiles, agriculture, fishery retail trade, and entertainment (Goeldner & Ritchie 2009; Gokovali 2010).

The tourism industry serves as a primary source for generating revenue and infrastructural development, for example, developments in water supply, sewage treatment, or new entertainment facilities (Chen & Chiou-Wei 2009; Fletcher, Fyall, Gilbert & Wanhill 2013).

The industry also generates tourist expenditures into the local economy, encourages development of an entrepreneurial culture and maintains the growth of enterprises in a tourism destination (Cooper 2012). Additionally, the industry has a great effect on local population employment, increasing employment advantages and minimizing the boundaries of poverty (Shukla & Ansari 2013).

Tourism also serves as an important foreign exchange earner, contributing to the capital of goods that are used in the manufacturing process and stimulating research and development (Brida & Risso 2009). Tourism has also been recognized as having the potential to mainstream youth and women into the economy through skills development and education (Cook, Yale & Marqua 2010; Gokovali 2010). From a cultural perspective, tourism connects people from different cultures creating cultural exchange through traditional arts and crafts, performance of traditional dances, preserving the historical and natural sites (Cook, Yale & Marqua 2010; Fletcher, Fyall, Gilbert and Wanhill 2013). Furthermore, local communities are able to uplift their spirits and values through festivals and events (Cooper, 2012; Fletcher, Fyall, Gilbert

&Wanhill, 2013). From an environmental perspective, tourism provides opportunities for creating awareness of environmental preservation, thus, improving the physical surroundings and contributing to the preservation of built and natural environment (Kim, Uysal & Sirgy 2013; Cooper 2012; Fletcher *et al.*, 2013).

Whereas tourism can contribute to improved livelihoods of local communities living in and around protected areas, there is a need to establish the link between tourism and national development strategies in order to direct the benefits of tourism to the intended beneficiaries especially those living in the rural areas (Banskota & Sherma 1996). Tourism development needs to be planned to increase and diversity economic opportunities for rural people and augment their livelihoods through employment and generation of incomes from tourism enterprises (Goodwin 2002; Ashley 2002). Tourism differs from other economic activities because it uses a diverse range of facilities across a number of industrial sectors (Dwyer *et al.*, 2010).

## **2.7 The Concept of Sustainable 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 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, 1991). Livelihood Assets may be tangible, such as food stores and cash savings, as well as trees, land, livestock, tools, and other resources. Assets may also be intangible such as claims one can make for food, work, and assistance as well as access to materials, information, education, health services and employment opportunities (Hertz *et al.*, 2010).

Another way of understanding the assets, or capitals, that people draw upon to make a living is to categorize them into the following five groups: human, social, natural, physical and financial/economic capitals (*ibid*). To understand the sustainable livelihood framework, we first have to understand the concept of livelihood. The concept of livelihood has been defined as the capabilities, assets (including both material and social resources) and activities required as means of living.

A livelihood is sustainable when it can cope with and recover from stresses and shocks and maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets both now and in the future, while not undermining the natural resource base' (DFID, 2000; Carney, 1999). Livelihood approaches are conceptual frameworks that promote people centered development. They are responsive and participatory, and they favour multidisciplinary and multilevel development interactions. They (Livelihood approaches) generate a deeper understanding of the wide range of livelihood strategies pursued by people that poverty alleviation or eradication measures address. The crux of sustainable livelihood approach is that the livelihoods of poor people are at the center of any strategy for poverty reduction. It puts people at the center of development and enables poor people themselves to participate in identifying and addressing their livelihood priorities.

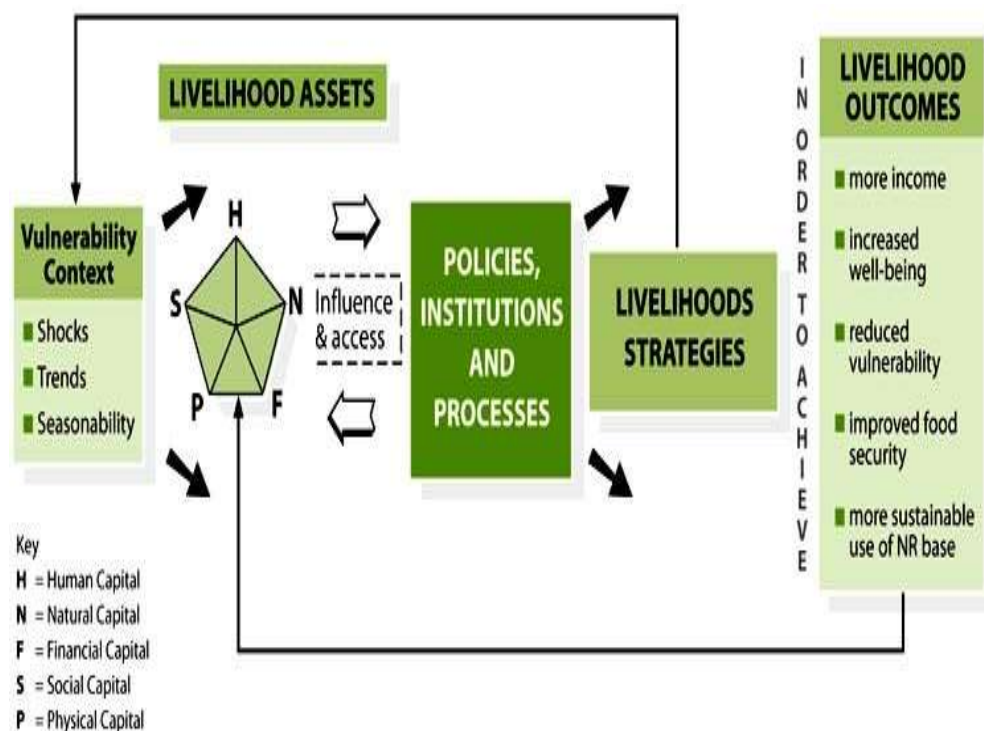
As well as being people-centered, the livelihood approach is holistic as it seeks to identify the various factors which hinder and provide opportunities to people to improve their situation and how these factors relate to each other, including links to macro policies (Chambers and Conway 1992; Scooners, 1998). To make up a living, poor women and men incorporate their capabilities, social and material assets and utilize all the opportunities available to them, within their settings. A sustainable livelihood is dynamic and therefore has the capability to adapt and respond to continuous change and thereby recover from stress and shocks. People are at the center

of the livelihoods framework and are perceived as capable actors and not helpless victims. A livelihood therefore draws on the wealth of knowledge, skills and adaptive strategies of the poor. As it is centered on households and communities, it is location sensitive and household members contribute in different way depending on their various roles, responsibilities and capabilities (Meikle *et al.*, 2001).

The word 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. Although the application of the livelihoods approach is flexible and adaptable to specific local settings and to objectives defined in participatory manner, it underlies a couple of core principles.

The first basic principle is that initiatives have to focus on people. This means 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 (Ellis, 2000). 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, or better.

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 have 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). A number of livelihood approach frameworks have been conceived by practitioners and NGO's to illustrate the central assets and vulnerability analysis, which underpins the approach. The DFID framework uses the concept of capital assets as a central feature and considers how these are affected by the 'vulnerability context' in which they are derived, and by 'transforming structures and process' alternatively labeled policies, institutions and processes, to constitute 'livelihood strategies' which lead to various livelihood outcome (Toner, 2002).



**Figure 2.3: Sustainable Livelihood Framework**

**Source: Department for International Initiatives (2000)**

Figure 2.3 shows sustainable livelihood framework. 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).

### **2.7.1 Physical Capital**

Physical capital comprises the basic infrastructure and producer goods needed to support livelihoods. Infrastructure consists of changes to the physical environment that help people to meet their basic needs and to be more productive (2002). Producer goods are the tools and equipment that people use to function more productively. The following components of infrastructure are usually essential for sustainable livelihoods: affordable transport; secure shelter and buildings; adequate water supply and sanitation; clean, affordable energy; and access to information (communications). Infrastructure is commonly a public good that is used without direct payment. Exceptions include shelter, which is often privately owned, and some other infrastructure that is accessed for a fee related to usage (e.g. toll roads and energy supplies).

Producer goods may be owned on an individual or group basis or accessed through rental or 'fee for service' markets. The latter being common with more sophisticated equipment. Physical capital comprises the productive assets that a household possesses. This includes basic infrastructure (such as transport, shelter and buildings, water supply and sanitation, energy and communications) and producer goods (tools and equipment) needed to support livelihoods. Physical capital is the stock of human made, material resources that can be used to produce a flow of future income (Lachmann, 1978). Ellis (2000) defined physical capital as the capital created by economic production processes.

The physical capital is further divided into two categories: basic infrastructure (transport, buildings, water supply) and producer goods (tools, equipment, etc) (DFID, 2000). The study puts more emphasis on the producer goods as this can be easily assessed at household level. Many participatory poverty assessments have found that a lack of particular types of infrastructure is considered to be a core dimension of poverty. Without adequate access, to services such as water and energy, human health deteriorates and long periods are spent in non-productive activities such as the collection of water and fuel wood. The opportunity costs associated with poor infrastructure can preclude education, access to health services and income generation. For example, without transport infrastructure, essential fertilizer cannot be distributed effectively, agricultural yields remain low and it is then difficult and expensive to transport limited produce to the market. The increased cost (in terms of all types of capital) of production and transport means that producers operate at a comparative disadvantage in the market. Insufficient or inappropriate producer goods also constrain people's productive capacity and therefore the human capital at their disposal (Shackle, 1992).

More time and effort are spent on meeting basic needs, production and gaining access to the market. Physical capital (in particular infrastructure) can be expensive. It requires not only the initial capital investment, but an ongoing commitment of financial and human resources to meet the operation and maintenance costs of the service. The emphasis is therefore on providing a level of service that not only meets the immediate requirements of users, but is affordable in the long term. It can also be important to provide simultaneous support to skill- and capacity-development to ensure effective management by local communities.

Infrastructure is only an asset in as far as it facilitates improved service provision to enable the poor to meet their needs. For example, a participatory assessment may reveal that a key constraint to the livelihoods of a particular group is the difficulty of carrying produce to market, especially during the rainy season. A livelihood 'response' to this problem will include not only improvements to the physical infrastructure to improve water crossings, or drain a track during the rains, but also would consider encouraging an affordable transport service using appropriate vehicles, for example bullock carts.

### **2.7.2 Human capital**

According to DFID (1999) and Scoones (1998) human capital refers to the amount and quality of labour available. According to Carole and Lloyd-Jones (2002), the labour resources available to households have both quantitative and qualitative dimensions. Quantitative refers to the number of household members and time available to engage in IGAs, while qualitative refers to the level of education, skills and health status of HHD members. The VCGs' service delivery is influenced by the availability of both the quantity and quality of labour resources.

As noted by Rakodi (1999), skill training enables people to take advantage of economic opportunities. Therefore, the study considered both quality and amount of labour, as they both had an effect on the performance of the volunteers on IGA and CHBC service delivery. The human resources that are required to provide productive labour, consist of cognitive, psychomotor and emotional skills. Engberg (1990) distinguished social skills and physical strength as important human resources.

Access to human capital, in the form of educated and functionally literate labour, having a person of pensionable age and a migrant household member in another are

the most common endowments of rural households. Livelihood security is enhanced, if the household invests in the human capital development and potential of its members. A great number of studies indicate that poverty is closely associated with low levels of education and lack of skills (Ellis, 2000). Health is another core component of human capital. Good health is an important asset, because most rural people rely on physical labour for income in cash or in kind. Chambers and Conway (1992) identified the bodies of most poor people as their main asset. The body has a number of dimensions, which include health, strength, time availability, and the ability to take decisions over utilisation of labour. Health impairment or illness and premature death may cause a severe drain on household resources and affect the economic stability of the household (Narayan *et al.*, 1999).

Human capital is the sum of the abilities of an individual, in terms of capacity and the knowledge (Schultz, 1961). Expressed in another form, human capital is the development of the human capacity, which leads to a healthy and knowledgeable existence, to attain decent standard of living as well as capacity to thrive (Becker, 1962). From the foregoing, human capital development entails advancement in the human capacity. Africa has the lowest human capital development in the world (AfDB/OECD/UNDP, 2015). Specifically, health and education condition in the continent is far below the world average. This suggests that the continent's low living standard and high poverty rate could be attributed to the low level of human capital development. Thus, to increase the living standard and alleviate poverty in Africa. Human capital development has to be prioritized.

According to World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) (2017a), Africa tourism industry is projected to grow at average rate of 5.9% over the next ten years. Thus, it is imperative to know the extent to which tourism development contributes to human

capital development in Africa. Human capital development is measured along its components, that is, education and health components of human capital development.

Through Human capital development, the choice of an individual increases, through increase in human capacity and opportunities resulting from it, since, individual's capacity depends on education, health and skills etc. (Becker, 1962; Schultz, 1961). In other words, Human development can be seen as the development of the people, development for the people and development by the people (United Nations Development Programme, 1990). Human development can be examined as a way of enhancing people to achieve more economic activities with the purpose of attaining overall economic development. Secondary school enrolment and life expectancy at birth, which are measures of human capital development, are grossly low in Africa. The implication of this is that the efficiency and effectiveness of workforce in Africa is low when compared to other regions of the world. If the current low level of human capital development is not improved, the standard of living and the quality of life in Africa will be far behind other regions.

Elsewhere, Biagi *et al.*, (2017) conducted a study on the role of tourism to human development and measured human development using HDI. The study covered 63 countries comprising of developed and developing countries over the period between 1996 to 2008. The study found that tourism development stimulates human development. The strength and livelihood security of a community depend on its stocks of human capital.

An individual's access to livelihood assets and resources can be limited by lack of education and training. Health constraints can affect the ability of people to perform essential tasks and can bring severe distress and even destitution to households.

Another constraint to human capital development is nutrition inadequacy that impairs the ability of people to perform biologically, thus diminishing strength and endurance and this in turn affects working capacity (Ellis, 2000). Tourism development could bolster human capital assets in the following manner.

First, tourism development can serve as a source of livelihood to those working in the sector as well as those rendering services to international tourists during their visit (Sinclair, 1998; Christie *et al.*, 2013; Jordan, *et al.*, 2016). Through their employment, they could afford to acquire basic necessities of life, thereby enabling them to realise a decent life and also increasing their life expectancy. In addition, since tourism development contributes to government revenues. It serves as additional finances that the government could utilise to support both health and educational services to benefit a wider population. This could lead to an increase in the number of student enrolment in schools while the availability of improved health care facilities has the potential of reducing mortality rate and as such increase life expectancy at birth (Hertz, Hebert & Landon, 1994).

### **2.7.3 Financial / Economic capital**

Financial capital denotes the financial resources that people use to achieve their livelihood objectives. The definition used here is not economically robust, in that it includes flows as well as stocks and it can contribute to consumption as well as production. However, it has been adopted to try to capture an important livelihood building block, namely the availability of cash or equivalent, which enables people to adopt different livelihood strategies.

The contribution of tourism to financial capital has been established. Ghali (1976) studied the effect of tourism in Hawaii on the economy based on demand side

analysis. The study showed that in Hawaii, tourism contributed to the increase in the growth rate of per capita income. Following the findings of Ghali (1976) other studies have been carried out to examine the effect of tourism on economic growth and development. Country-specific studies on South Africa by Akin-boade and Braimoh (2010), Tunisia by Belloumi (2010) and Egypt by Tang and Ozturk (2017). In each of these studies, it was found that long run relationship existed for these economies. This implies that tourism's impact on an economy could be viewed from a long run perspective. However, studies in non-African countries by Oh (2005) for Singapore and Lee (2008) for Korea economy could not establish that long run relationship holds.

Further, the study by Lee (2008), Akinboade and Braimoh (2010), Belloumi (2010) and Tang and Ozturk (2017), which are single country analyses found that tourism Granger causes economic growth. Akinboade and Braimoh (2010) examined the dynamic granger causality between international tourism and economic growth in South African. Annual data that span over the period of 1980 to 2005 was used. The findings of the study show that tourism development granger cause economic growth in South Africa. Similar findings were found by Belloumi (2010) for Tunisia and Tang and Ozturk (2017) for Egypt. In the study by Belloumi (2010), Vector Error Correction Granger causality test was employed. Annual data that span over the period of 1970 to 2007 was used and found that tourism receipt granger cause economic growth in Tunisia. On the other hand, Tang and Ozturk (2017) utilized Toda-Yamamoto-Dolado-Lutkepohl causality test to determine whether tourism development granger cause economic growth in Egypt.

Annual data that span over the period of 1982 to 2011 was used. The study's findings show that in Egypt tourism expansion stimulates economic growth. The above

findings suggest that tourism development contributes to economic growth. Turning to multi-countries analysis, the study by Fayissa *et al.*, (2008) focused on 42 African countries, which utilized annual data that span the period of 1995 to 2004. They found that tourism receipts positively contributed to GDP per capita in the selected African countries, confirming the claim by Sinclair (1998) on the role of tourism development on development especially in developing countries.

#### **2.7.4 Social Capital**

Social capital generally refers to the set of norms, network and organization through which people gain access to power and resources that are instrumental in enabling decision-making and policy formulation. The concept also has appealed to economists who study its contribution to economic growth at the micro-economic level. They view social capital primarily in terms of its ability to improve market functioning. Putnam (1993) points out social capital as a set of 'horizontal associations' among people who have an effect on the productivity of the community. These associations include 'networks of civic engagement' and social norms. Two assumptions underlie this concept. The first is that networks and norms are empirically associated; and second, that they have important economic consequences. In this definition, the key feature of social capital is that, it facilitates coordination and cooperation for mutual benefit of the members of the association. Coleman (1988) sees social capital as a variety of different entities, with two elements in common. They consist of some aspect of social structure and facilitate certain actions. They may be personal or corporate actors within the structure.

Coleman thus redefines the structure by using his own definition. From the outset, this definition broadens the concept to include vertical as well as horizontal associations and the behaviour of other entities, such as firms. This wide range of associations



covers both negative and positive objectives. Coleman states explicitly that ‘a given form of social capital that is valuable in facilitating certain actions may be useless or even harmful for others’. Research done by Schneider *et al.*, (1997), shows that ‘the design of the institutions delivering local public goods can influence level of social capital. Changing the structure and composition of school boards, enhances significantly the level of parental involvement in a wide range of school-related activities that in turn help build social capital.

Lam (1996) and Ostrom (1998) present similar conclusions about the design of irrigation systems. Ostrom demonstrates for the case of farmer-managed irrigation systems, how physical and organizational characteristics of the system work as parametric conditions under which individual makes choices about collective action. Opportunities for sustained cooperation are enhanced when organizational arrangements, such as coast sharing, tend to balance the distribution of bargaining power between head and tail-enders. But there are other studies, as well, which reinforce opinions about the historical and evolutionary origins of social capital.

Burt, (1992) claims that differences in economic performance among regions in Italy are accounted for largely by inherited patterns of social interaction among firms. Trust and reciprocity among firms are higher in regions where polycentric networks are the norm than in those where inherited networks are hierarchical or fragmented. Fukuyama (1995) similarly regards trust in any society as a product of inherited and in the short term inflexible patterns of cultural inheritance.

The concept of ‘social capital’ represents the latest approach for sociology of economic development. Parson’s viewpoint is that before the advent of social capital there were other types of development models of modernization. But these models

were discarded. The earlier models were especially devised by functional sociologists who represent the stages of social evolution. These earlier models are now only to be reproduced in a systematic arrangement with the concept of social capital being applied to an ever-greater number of social forces influencing economic capital (Parsons, 1966). The model of presenting sociological variable as social capital along with the other manifestations of capital (human, natural and physical capitals) is same as adding a new and smaller room of economics to an already existing building.

Though innovative system, social capital has resemblance with older system it looks upon economic and social security as the foundation of its purposes. For certain purposes narrow views of social capital as ‘social network’ (Burt, 1992) or as civic associations (Putnam, Leonardi & Nanetti, 1993) are perhaps useful, but if integration of sociological knowledge into economic thinking is to occur, we need a broad conception of social capital. Indeed, we may have to exhume the long-dead functionalist theories, bring them back to life and combine their enduring insights with other modes of sociological reasoning. The concept of social capital is wide. Social capital can be defined as the enhancement of those forces that amplify the economic development of a society by creating and prolonging social relationship and patterns of social organization (Alzheimer, (2013).

These forces function at larger, smaller and moderate levels of analysis. That is, social capital formed (a) as a population becomes organised to meet basic and fundamental needs for production, reproduction regulation and coordination (the macro institutional level);

(b) as corporate units organize human capital and as categoric units generate social distinctions influencing how members of a society are treated (the meso level); and

(c) as social encounters in the forms of face to face interaction unfold within corporate and categoric units (the micro level). In this context, social capital is delineated as the collection of ceremonial as well as unceremonious social webs that individual devise to produce or allocate goods and services. It shows similarity with earlier definitions by stressing the fact that social capital is about the frequent relationships between individuals (Ellis, 2000) Social capital is seen as a generalized predisposition to cooperation and trust, this leads to the empirical prediction: there is consistency in networks chosen by an individual from one situation to another, even though there may be a wide dispersion of social capital between individual within a society (Coleman 1999).

An individual quantum of social capital can be gauged by measuring his / her temperament to trust other people or major institutions of society. An alternative mode of assessing an individual quantum of social capital is by adding up the individual's participation in optional associations. As a result, a study is to be held to dissect the reasons which make some people or cultures more reliable than others. These reasons may be based on certain well-grounded social psychological concepts. But they are different from the 'bottom line' concern with the production of goods and services in particular situations-which is the core of Coleman's political economic approach (Coleman, 1998). Social capital is the shared knowledge, understanding, norms, rules, and expectations about pattern of interactions that groups of individuals bring to a recurrent activity (Putnam, Leonardi & Nanetti, 1993).

When an individual is to do an activity which he has done many times in relation with his society, he shows a natural tendency to devise the shared knowledge and experience that he acquired from the earlier social situations. In the establishment of any coordinated activity, participants accomplish far more per unit of time devoted to

a joint activity, if they draw on capital resources to reduce the level of current inputs needed to produce a joint outcome. They are more productive with whatever physical and human capital they draw on; if they agree on the way that they will coordinate activities and credibly commit themselves to a sequence of future actions. (Jeong's, 2008) In the realm of repeated coordination problems, humans frequently face a wide diversity of potential equilibrium in the set. When they face social dilemma or collective- action situations, participants may easily follow short-term, maximizing strategies that leave them all worse off than other options available to them. Somehow participants must find ways of creating mutually reinforcing expectations and trust to overcome the perverse short-run temptations they face (Ostrom, 1998).

Social capital is established with the solitary objective to keep up advance livelihoods. Social capital can be defined as the judicious bend of the trails of social organisation which enables the society to advance its efficiency through reciprocal advantageous interactions. Social capital pivots on the amount as well as the excellence of mutual beneficiary interaction. Social capital being engrafted in social structure and bonds, institutions enforces its creation and use. A vigorous civil society functions as a nursery for establishing social capital. Social capital acts on all levels- micro, meso and macro (World Bank, 2000). It serves as an amalgamative force which unites all the social concepts together.

Social capital, perceived by Bourdieu (1985) and Coleman (1988) focuses on the micro or individual perspective. If we perceive social capital from an individual regard, we can see it as functioning for the individual advantage resulting from the individual's successful interaction with his society. Social interaction here becomes purposive. The purposive is to devise social interaction as a resource from which advantage can be derived. Hence individual benefit can be attained by building up

social interactions. Thus Social capital can be considered as other forms of capital in which an individual can purposefully invest. Nevertheless, we can assert that social capital is not and not a deliberate endeavour to gain profit.

In fact, social capital is an accidental repercussion of individual reciprocal interaction for some other purpose. The reason for mutual interaction may be plainly because of man's social nature. Another reason is that utility can only be attained by maintaining social relationship. Novel and wider perspective of social capital have extended the concept of social capital. It has been widened so as to discuss the scope of social capital at the community provincial or national level. This concept is perceived by Putnam (1993) in his pursuit of facts about the role of horizontal connection on governmental efficiency in Italy.

The findings of social capital studies conducted in a tourism context also correspond with the positive association of social capital with collective action. The unique characteristics of tourism present a strong interdependency among tourism stakeholders (Andereck & Vogt, 2000; Bjork & Virtanen, 2005; Cooke, 1982; Gursoy *et al.*, 2010), and there is a need for the tourism studies focusing on its social and cultural impact.

The concept of social capital has started to be a focus in the tourism field of study, and studies that examine the effects of social capital on collective action have been conducted by many scholars (Jóhannesson *et al.*, 2003; Jones, 2005; Macbeth *et al.*, 2004). Findings of social capital studies in a tourism context correspond to the findings of other social capital studies from other fields. These studies highlight the significance of social capital for sustainable community-based development. This body of research has identified social networks – both weak and strong ties – as key to

social capital, which is critical not only to achieve social control in a community, but also to initiate and maintain higher levels of public action and cooperation for achieving a community's collective goals and also to resolve community problems. As indicated above, however, unlike Jeong's (2008) findings, other tourism studies conducted in the past highlight the significance of social capital for sustainable community-based development and have found that strong ties and trusting relationships among each member are contributing factors for initiating and maintaining community support for tourism (Jóhannesson *et al.*, 2003; Jones, 2005; Macbeth *et al.*, 2004).

Such differences of study outcomes between Jeong (2008) and other social capital studies in tourism contexts could have resulted from the different approaches of the studies. The importance of understanding a community and how it relates to tourism has been emphasized by many tourism scholars (Andereck & Vogt, 2000; Cooke, 1982; Gursoy *et al.*, 2010; Ross, 1992; Zhou & Ap, 2009).

Rural tourism usually happens in a community's living area, therefore, as a host, a community's positive encounters with tourists and tourism stakeholders in a tourism destination has been considered critical for successful and sustainable tourism development (Andereck & Vogt, 2000; Cooke, 1982; Gursoy *et al.*, 2010; Ross, 1992; Zhou & Ap, 2009). Since local residents are the major group of people who are influenced by tourism impacts no matter if the impacts are positive or negative, it becomes important to understand local resident's behaviors toward tourism impacts, and for that reason, it has been emphasized in the tourism literature (Reid *et al.*, 2004; Vincent & Thompson, 2002; Hwang *et al.*, 2012). When a community is impacted by tourism development, residents who feel they belong to that community normally will

try to both minimize the negative changes and maximize the positive impacts of tourism development.

These efforts have the potential to engage outsider and community members in conversations that may lead to sustainable tourism development. Further, locals' involvement encourages the community to direct efforts to either slow- down or re-direct tourism development in a way that align with what the community members want (Davis & Morais, 2004; Dogan, 1989; Gursoy *et al.*, 2010; Hwang *et al.*, 2012). That is, collective action could enhance the sustainability of tourism development due to processes that empower a community to negotiate a fit between tourism and community's sense of itself (McMillan & Chavis, 1986). Social capital theory provides a good theoretical lens to understand the dynamics of a community's collective action involvement. It does so mainly because it is strongly built on the basis of the connections among actors within a network boundary and social norms that delineates the quality of their connections.

An important stream of tourism research highlights the significance of social capital for sustainable community-based development. This body of research has identified strong ties and trusting relationships among residents as contributing factors to the initiation and maintenance of community support for tourism (Jóhannesson *et al.*, 2003; Jones, 2005; Macbeth *et al.*, 2004). Overall findings from social capital studies that also considered collective action indicated that, in most cases, social capital is positively associated with collective action engagement of actors. These studies highlighted that collective actions are successfully mobilized through not only through the consistent, positive interactions and interpersonal relationships among actors, but also through the positive encounters with outside stakeholders

(e.g., local government, media, and environmental groups) that are based on mutually built trust.

The weak ties of a community with local government and other tourism stakeholders, based on building strong trust, brings support not only through providing funds, expertise, and facilitating local cultural activities (Macbeth et al., 2004), but also through new information, which may include new tourism opportunities, to the community. The dense network, which is based on strong ties, facilitates information circulation in the community and allows it to be shared among members faster. In turn, community solidarity is strongly based on dense networks, trust, and social norms, and communities will facilitate the formation of a coherent voice about information necessary for mobilizing collective action. Some social capital studies also emphasized the importance of the existence of shared rules, norms and sanctions for facilitating the creation of social capital and successful collective action involvement (D'Silva & Pai, 2003; Futema *et al.*, 2002; Rudd, 2000; Uphoff & Wijayaratna, 2000).

Shared norms based on highly dense networks encourage actors' involvement in collective action not only through making them feel guilty for not matching the average contribution of their peers and through the punishment of individuals who break commonly agreed upon rules, but also by raising awareness that other members follow the same rules most of the time (Gould, 1993, 2003; Kahan, 2003; Ostrom, 2000).

Stone (2001) indicates that creation of social trust will be expected and facilitated through the existence of norm of generalized reciprocity and networks of civic engagement (Fukuyama, 1995; Misztal, 1996). That is, such strong trust existing



among each member is an outcome of continuous, positive interpersonal interactions within a connected network. These created social norms are also moving through the existing network and are being shared among members of the community. Social networks are not only seen as a precondition for the emergence of the social norms, but also function as communicative routes that facilitate the transmission of social norms and cultural messages such as “shared behavioral expectations,” “frames,” and “collective identity” (Goodwin & Jasper, 2009; Gould, 2003).

In other words, social ties and interactions among potential participants will facilitate the sharing of ideas, values, and social norms. Furthermore, these ties will help them create their collective identity and strong sense of community, which may lead to collective action (Freeman, 1973; Goodwin & Jasper, 2009). In connection with mobilizing collective action, highly dense networks provide communication routes that enable actors within a network to share information and resources, but they also circulate institutional norms within the network, accompanied by shared behavioral expectations and the same patterns of exchanges:

“Members of a community are said to mimic each other’s behavior to become more legitimate, with subsequent conformity attesting to agreed-upon behavioral constraints” (Pavlovich, 2003,). Even further, these shared norms will also be developed into local rules and sanctions by creating official positions for local monitors to maintain these norms and collective actions more efficiently (Ostrom, 2000).

Most tourism related articles only touch the very surface of the concept of a social network. In most cases, they focus on connection among actors within a network

(e.g., I have a good relationship with other actors within a network) and also treat networks as the participation of actors in social activities rather than digging into the features that social network has for better understanding the network. However, a few have studied specific network features such as weak and strong ties (Heimtun, 2007; Jeong, 2008; Jones, 2005). Even if actors belong to the same network boundary, each person within that boundary may have different characteristics and may share different relationships, which are distinct from those of other actors (e.g., whether a certain actor has connection with other actors or not); further, their behaviors may be affected by others with whom this person has connections and interactions (Burt, 2001).

Moreover, the community's specific structure features (e.g., fragmentation into relational subgroups and interactions among these subgroups, which delineate the density value of a community and existence of a network with outsiders) have strong influence on local residents' behavior toward tourism impacts (Burt, 2001; Lin, 2001). Social capital plays dual roles, as social webs bestow the individuals with profit such as access to scarce resources.

Nevertheless, membership needs to have claims and entitlements made upon one's resources (Narayan *et al.*, 1999). Of the rural population, women badly need aid. In rural regions, women confront too many chaotic situations such as defenseless financial crises, ill health, unstable relations with husband and diverse ascending and descending situations in the households. Social capital to a great extent is a powerful means to goad women's capacity to transcend all these vexations in the household. When a member in a society is in a predicament, he is prompted to seek help from his neighbours, friends or other social members. This will lead to intimate relationship between the member and his community and thus it will result in social

cohesion. Confrontation of problems in an individual's life and his inclination to seek help from community, create new bonds and strengthen social relationships.

Hence social capital acts as a meaningful aid which helps people to surpass the individual's problems in their daily life (Robb, 1998). Therefore, understanding the effects of these different relational and structural network features will be critical to understanding the dynamics of each individual's collective action involvement in tourism context.

### **2.7.5 Contribution of Tourism towards Human Capital Assets.**

Human capital consists of knowledge, skills and education that support livelihoods (Ahebwa, 2013). Human capital as a major knowledge provider is becoming a prime factor in achieving sustainability and competitiveness on the global market. This is not only about generating knowledge but also about the opportunities the industry has in integrating this new knowledge into its products, services and processes, and propagating it among people through education, training, and information.

Particularly, the contributory role of tourism in job creation, thereby increasing the standard of living, national output, foreign exchange earnings and revenue to the government through taxation have been brought into sharper view by extant studies (Crnjar, 2018). The importance of worker knowledge, competencies and skills is becoming all the greater because of the specific characteristics of the product and services the tourism sector is offering. Human capital as a resource, HRM processes and activities, organizational culture, business and HRM strategies encourage and reinforce employees' work-related behavior, thereby influencing customer value, product and service quality, and customer satisfaction and loyalty. Human capital will "contribute to sustained competitive advantage through facilitating the

development of competencies that are firm-specific, produce complex relationships, are embedded in a firm's history and culture, and generate tacit organizational knowledge (Crnjar, 2018).

Human capital is an increasingly important area in the hospitality and tourism sector. Emerging trend in the hospitality and tourism industry shows renewed interest in human capital development studies. A considerable amount of literature has been published on human capital; these studies have drawn attention on the relationship that exists between the income level of a society and education. Along with this growth in the study of human capital, however, there is an increasing concern over the concept of human capital stock and the national income level on the theory of human capital. The ability of Nations to develop its workforce is dependent upon her sustained contribution towards human capital (Metilelu, 2016). According to Ladkin (2011), specific skills and training is essential for growth driven environments.

The indication that human capital is the combination of skills and knowledge acquired by individual to increase their worth in labour market remain crucial in developing any sector in the economy, therefore this suggests that organizations acquire human capital through individual's employment relationship. Tourism is an important economic activity worldwide. There is a direct and an indirect impact of this sector in the economic development and in the number of employees. The livelihood activities generate income for the household in different forms i.e. goods, services and cash. The income relocates in four different sectors as input: into livelihood activities, social payments: taxes, interest on loans, investment: to enhance and sustain livelihoods assets and consumption: food, housing, clothes, etc.

Many local and external forces influence livelihoods differently such as local market, physical environment and the social and political environment. Due to such dynamic features, livelihoods are always vulnerable and uncertain. Human capital is the sum of the abilities of an individual, in terms of capacity and the knowledge (Schultz, 1961). Expressed in another form, human capital is the development of the human capacity, which leads to a healthy and knowledgeable existence, to attain decent standard of living as well as capacity to thrive (Becker, 1962).

Africa has the lowest human capital development in the world (AfDB/OECD/UNDP, 2015). Specifically, health and education condition in the continent is far below the world average. This suggests that the continent's low living standard and high poverty rate could be attributed to the low level of human capital. Thus, to increase the living standard and alleviate poverty in Africa. Human capital has to be developed.

In line with the study by Biagi, Ladu and Royuela (2017), we examine whether tourism development has positive effect on human capital development in Mara Naboisho. According to World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) (2017), Africa tourism industry is projected to grow at an average rate of 5.9% over the next ten years. Thus, it is imperative to know the extent to which tourism development contributes to human capital development in African context. Human capital development is measured along its components, that is, education and health components.

However, the impact of these external forces varies with each household. Some households have more resistance power to the impact but some are more sensitive to such influences. Here the section of such external forces represents the vulnerability

context under which livelihood activities are undertaken and livelihood assets are likewise subjected to. The modification of the livelihood model made possible by synthesizing some existing frameworks has been necessitated by the differing elements evidenced in the livelihoods of the rural households in the communities studied.

The DFID livelihood framework does not specify the factors that make all rural households vulnerable while in the livelihood's framework of Lloyd-Jones (2002), the vulnerability context defines stocks, trends and seasons as well as culture. It is notable that the livelihood framework is a tool that defines the scope of and provides the analytical basis for livelihoods analysis, by identifying the main factors affecting livelihoods and the relationships between them (Carney, 1998). Tourism plays an important part in providing skills and training to the population of numerous countries in the world, thereby contributing in human capital development.

Drawing a general comparison with other sectors, it is clear that tourism holds advantages that are superior to other industries or fields of activity, at least through its capacity to infiltrate various sectors of global economy. These advantages are crucial, more so as they have multiple implications on the human being and the environment (Dodu & Maginian, 2013). According to Agcas (2013), tourism has been identified globally as a very potent instrument for executing meaningful community development projects such as funding education, facilitating training and imparting skills to the communities.

In developing countries and regions with high levels of unemployment and poverty, pro-poor tourism can make a difference in poor communities. Pro-poor tourism provides local poor or marginalized people with the ability and position to obtain

education and training benefits without excluding them from opportunities. Benefits could be obtained through employment and establishing of small tourism related businesses, benefits from infrastructure such as roads, water, electricity and communication and lastly empowerment through participation and decision making (Sloan *et al.*, 2005). Policy makers have identified tourism development as a solution to employ large numbers of unemployed youth and lowly skilled people. This is dependent on people and factors such as natural resources, infrastructure and capital investment to ensure that quality services and products are delivered. A well trained labour force will ensure greater competitiveness of this sector and potentially increase the effectiveness of rapidly changing markets (OECD, 2010). There are three ways in which tourism could provide empowerment through education in a specific locality. Firstly, through direct impacts such as wages, employment and training, secondly, through indirect impacts such as value chains from sub-sectors including food, construction, transportation, and many other sectors.

Lastly, tourism has a range of dynamic impacts including livelihood strategies for households, improved business climate for small business development, and infrastructure development (Ashley, De Brine, Lehr & Wilde, 2007). According to Ashley *et al.* (2007), tourism as an industry has a substantial impact on local people and local economies in developing countries. It is estimated that earnings of low skilled people within a specific geographic tourism area are approximately equivalent to a quarter of tourist spending within that area. This suggests that poor or low-income earners benefits directly from tourist spending.

The economic impacts of tourism are felt in many economic sectors, but as a sector its boundaries of contribution is difficult to define. Most local economic sectors are in some way linked to tourism. Tourism entails all services and goods that are provided

specifically for visitors that would not have used such goods and services otherwise. According to the Organization of American States (OAS, 2010), the tourism spending multiplier effect is equal to 1.60, meaning that for every one unit of currency spent on tourism, the impact on the total economy is equal to 1.6 units. Tourism can also benefit the local economy in terms of value-added services and products, especially for countries with effective domestic agricultural sectors. To further increase value-added benefits of tourism, travel services must be mostly owned and managed by local people.

Tourists usually travel to high quality environmental regions which usually exclude industrial areas, but include regions of natural beauty within a rural setting. Tourism could therefore be a driving force in rural regions with limited industrialization, but with some agricultural value. A strong linkage with the agriculture sector will also limit leakages through large scale imports of products.

In rural settings, agri-tourism can add to the viability of small commercial farming. Agri-tourism includes farm tours, farm guest-homes, entertainment such as festivals, petting farms and other events. Toader, Sofica, Petrescu, Negrusa and Balint (2012) established that tourism in rural Romania requires innovative activities for success. Examples of such innovation include product innovation through the introduction of new products and events and improvement in current products, organizational innovation with improved collaboration between local stakeholders and lastly marketing innovation such as tourism fairs and the use of social media. Tourism compares favourably with other economic sectors as an employment generator (Goleman & Boyatzis, 2008). It was estimated by OAS that jobs are created for every room in the tourism sector and for every one job created directly within the



tourism sector, two other jobs are created in other sectors of the local economy (Vaugeois, 2000; OAS, 2010).

Tourism plays an important role in the employment creation process, especially in developing regions. According to Baum (1995), the following characteristics regarding employment exist within the tourism sector: high levels of fluctuation of demand for services and products, domination by self-employment and small family firms, labour intensity, high labour turn-over due to an image or perception of low levels of pay, low skills and long working hours, and lack of training. By addressing some of these issues, tourism development can be improved.

According to the Organization of American States (OAS), tourism is expected to continue to grow due to factors such as population growth, rising incomes, globalization and integration of world economies and therefore improved methods of managing tourism can have a positive effect on the economy (OAS, 2010).

The Huron Business Development Corporation (2004) listed a number of factors for successful local economic development (LED) with a focus on the tourism. These include political stability and commitment, investment in infrastructure, effective policies and planning, broad participation by all stakeholders, capacity, building on strengths, promotion of entrepreneurship and partnerships (The Huron Business Development Corporation, 2004). Biagi *et al.*, (2017) also examined the role of tourism on human development. The study covers 63 countries comprising of developed and developing countries over the period 1996 to 2008. The study established that tourism development stimulates human development. Their results suggest that advancement in the tourism industry focused not only on economic growth and development but also the human capital of people in the average country.

Elsewhere, Teclé and Schroenn (2006) revealed that deficiency in the human development within the tourism sector constrains its positive effect on economic development. As a result, the authors emphasized that the development of the human resource development is crucial to maximise the beneficial impacts of tourism.

#### **2.7.6 Contribution of Tourism towards Financial Capital Assets**

Financial capital is the money, credit, and other forms of funding that build wealth. Individuals use financial capital to invest, by making a down payment on a home or creating a portfolio for retirement. Tourism has become an important sector especially in developing countries due to its effect on the balance of payment, employment creations, its high added value, positive effects on infrastructure and superstructure and its effects on other sectors (Roe, 2001). Tourism has been regarded as a major source of economic growth.

Many governments carry out projects about infrastructure services in order to redouble the tourism with economic growth (Nowak *et al.*, 2003). Especially, after 1990, the importance and form of tourism has mostly changed due to the effects of globalization. The opportunity to get true information immediately about not only the place to go but also advertising has been obtained (Pearce, 2001). Generally, tourism sector maintains many subcomponents. These components are activated by employment, exporting, input and output of exchange, the transportation component and similar components (Binns & Nel, 2002).

Tourists contribute to sales, profits, tax revenues, and income in an area. The most direct effects occur within the primary tourism sectors such as lodging, restaurants, transportation, amusements, and retail trade. Through secondary effects, tourism affects most sectors of the economy. An economic impact analysis of tourism

normally focuses on changes in sales and income in a region resulting from tourism. For instance, if a region attracts an additional 100 tourists, each spending \$100 per day, this will translate to \$10,000 in new spending per day in the area. If sustained over a 100-day season, the region would accumulate a million dollars in new sales. The million dollars in spending would be distributed to lodging, restaurant, amusement and retail trade sectors in proportion to how the visitor spends the \$100. Perhaps 30% of the million dollars would leak out of the region immediately to cover the costs of goods purchased by tourists that are not made in the local area (only the retail margins for such items should normally be included as direct sales effects). The remaining \$700,000 in direct sales might yield \$350,000 in income within tourism industries and support 20 direct tourism jobs (Odiara, 2011). Furthermore, tourism industries are labor and income intensive, translating a high proportion of sales into income and corresponding jobs (Dodu & Maginian, 2013).

Tourism can be a very powerful tool in the fight against poverty in many tourist destinations especially in the developing countries. In retrospect, many international development organizations such the United Nations Development Programme, multilateral agencies such as the World Bank (WB) and International Monetary Fund (IMF) and governments across the world have increasingly embraced tourism as a catalyst to development and tool for poverty alleviation (UNWTO, 2007; Mitchel & Ashley, 2010). Tourism has great potential to contribute meaningfully to sustainable development and poverty alleviation because of its wide geographical spread, labour intensive nature and the relative ease for many poor people to join (World Bank, 2009). The UNWTO (2002) further adds that tourism can be an effective catalyst for poverty reduction because it offers host communities' unlimited opportunities to sell goods and services, to diversify and supplement their sources of income, provide

employment opportunities for local people especially women, promote gender equality and stimulate local economic growth.

Kenya is one of the leading tourist destinations in Africa attracting about 6% of total tourist arrivals to the continent. As such tourism is a major economic phenomenon which accounts for about 10% of GDP, 10-12% of total wage employment and 19.2% of export earnings (Kenya 2013). The sector is also one of the largest sources of foreign exchange earnings and revenue generating in the country. The Kenyan tourism industry has experienced a steady growth in volume, revenues, and investments since independence. In 2012, Kenya earned US\$935 million from 1.6 million tourists, making tourism the third largest foreign exchange earner after tea and horticulture (Mburu, 2004; Ondicho, 2016).

However, most of the benefits from the local tourism industry are appropriated by major investors and stakeholders including tour operators/agencies, travel companies, hoteliers, and the state (Ondicho, 2010). Much of the money generated from Tourism is often shipped directly into government's coffers and to other strategic tourism stakeholders such as global tour operators, travel agents and hotels for appropriate distribution (Ondicho, 2010). Most residents residing around the park, even at subsistence level, face the real challenges of generating enough income (Ondicho, 2012a). In most tourism studies, employment creation is often cited as one of the sector's contributions to the economy of the destination area (Scheyvens, 2007; Godwin & Edmund, 2007).

The advantage of enhancing economic empowerment through home grown tourism initiatives such as the cultural bomas is that they present employment opportunities to poor people without any formal education which could ordinarily deny them

employment in the formal sectors of the industry. Through self-employment in cultural bomas, tourism provides very useful opportunities through which poor people and households earn direct tourism income. The income earned from self-employment in tourism enables the poor to sustain themselves and their families, to diversify and supplement their sources of livelihood, to improve their living conditions and contribute to local development.

Many poor people in this study opined that they were now able to spend more money on necessities, food, medicine, education of their children and clothing than they did before taking up self-employment in tourism. Previous studies have shown that direct participation in tourism supports women's economic empowerment and gradually increases their economic independence and autonomy (Ondicho, 2010; Scheyvens, 2007).

Every government invests greatly for the development of tourism sector. This enhanced tourism sector is one of the important drivers of growth, employment creation, increase of national as well as individual income, improving the balance of payment position and foreign exchange earnings, improving people's standard of living, level of consumption etc. Kenya's wide variety of all-season attraction provides huge opportunities for tourists.

These attractions get developed for the socio-economic benefit of the local communities, especially to achieve more inclusive economic growth. The use of existing resource has to be under taken economically for well-being of the present generation but not at the cost of depriving future generations of any part of our inheritance (GoK, 2016).

The contribution of tourism industry to economic growth is based on three major indicators of tourism development namely; foreign tourist arrivals in Kenya, foreign exchange earnings from tourism in Kenya and balance of payment with respect to travel and tourism. Employment is an important macroeconomic variable, which reflects the nature and growth of the economy. The growth of service sector is contributing significantly to employment generation; especially the tourism component of this sector. Therefore, tourism sector has a tremendous potential to create direct, indirect jobs and also induces additional job creation through various linkages and supply side management (Bloomberg, 2017).

According to Kruja *et al.*, (2012), developing countries need to implement focused policies regarding tourism to ensure optimal results. Policy aspects that need to be prioritized include a suitable trained workforce and a focus on foreign direct investment. Specific pre-conditions for successful tourism development are listed as sustainable tourism, basic infrastructure, local ownership, relevant legislation and regulations, law enforcement, availability of statistics and public-private partnerships.

Local government needs to be involved in tourism through the provision of inclusive policy frameworks and regulations, marketing efforts, building of partnerships with the private sector, increased capacity, provision of training, and the creation of an enabling environment for small businesses to prosper (Ashley *et al.*, 2007).

Vaugeois (2000) lists a number of strategies to maximize the benefits of tourism in developing countries. Such strategies include attracting more visitors to the region and to minimize the leakages of money and jobs within the region. In developing countries, the government must in some cases take on the role of initiator and entrepreneur (Shurland & Clark, 1998). Other strategies include, promoting import

substitution within the region by providing incentives, subsidies and grants to local businesses. According to the UNWTO (2000), and Ashley, Roe and Goodwin (2001) a number of successful tourism strategies have in the past been implemented to create employment and income opportunities within the local sphere. Some of these successful strategies include the promotion of employment for especially the poor, establishment of small tourism enterprises, supply of goods and services to tourism businesses, creation of partnerships with local government and increased participation of local communities, environmental management and investment in local infrastructure.

### **2.7.7 Contribution of Tourism towards Physical Capital Assets**

Tourism is one of the many external forces influencing the direction and options for local development. Tourism is a recognised global industry one of the largest industries in the world. Like any global industry, tourist business activities can have considerable impact on local development trends. The local impacts of the tourism industry are diverse and are often unique to the tourism sector.

Tourism, as traditionally defined by the tourism industry, fundamentally involve the transportation and hosting of the tourism consumer in a local community, i.e., “tourist destination,” where the tourist product is consumed. No other global industry structures itself in such a way that the consumer is brought to the product, rather than the product being delivered to the consumer in his or her own community (UNWTO, 2014).

This structural difference produces unique physical capital impacts upon the local tourist community, including the interruption of local customs and lifestyles, the spread of infectious diseases, changes in local demographics, and changes in local

housing and labor markets. In economics, physical capital or just capital is a factor of production or input into the process of production, consisting of machinery, buildings, computers, and others (Smanta & Mohanty, 2013). On a global scale, tourism has proven to be an economic sector that is essential in physical capital in both formal and informal sectors, improvement of quality of life, and the attraction of foreign exchange. The sector also serves as an alternative form of export, the improvement of a country or region's balance of payments and a general increase in economic activities.

For these reasons, most developing countries have been focusing on tourism as an alternative for economic growth (Khalil, Kakar & Malik, 2007; Valle & Yobesia, 2009; Kruja, Lufi & Kruja, 2012). Tourism as the world's largest industry, contributed infrastructural development globally in 2004 (Williams & Riddle, 2004) and in 2014 this ratio changed to one job in eleven jobs (UNWTO, 2014). Tourism is playing an increasingly significant role in the economies of many developing countries. The sector contributes towards roads, building schools, health facilities and various development projects (Reddy *et al.*, 2014).

According to the Organization for Economic Coordination and Development (OECD), the tourism sector helps in improvement of infrastructure through CSR and other platforms. The potential of tourism to significantly contribute to economic development is based on the uniqueness of the sector. These unique factors could include the diversification of the economy, it allows for export growth, attracts people to even the most remote locations with unique culture and natural attractions, is labour intensive and supports a range of local skills from low to high skills, it promotes small-scale enterprise development, and it allows infrastructure and communication network development.



A further benefit of tourism as a developmental sector is that it is usually considered to be price and income elastic. This means that minor changes in income or price could affect the sector, but prices and income are relatively stable in the tourism sector (Vaugeois, 2000; Honey & Gilpin, 2009; Richardson, 2010). The tourism sector has strong linkages with other economic sectors and these linkages need to be optimized for accelerated economic development. Linkages with sectors such as retail, agriculture, transport and construction will enhance the local multiplier effect and eventually create better economic growth and employment opportunities (Akama & Kieti, 2007). There are however some challenges with tourism development in developing regions which include; lack of skills, poor cooperation between stakeholders and safety conditions in the area just to name a few (UNWTO, 2006a). In order to ensure sustainable tourism development that assists in economic growth, the following key strategies are proposed by the International Monetary Fund (IMF) (2006) and Honey and Gilpin (2009).

According to Moutinho (2011), tourism contributes to the economy in most developing nations. Various determinants form an integral part of the tourism package. For example, roads enhance accessibility of tourists to tourist attraction sites. Furthermore, Moutinho (2011) argues that, effective airports enable tourists to enjoy a comfortable journey from the plane into the destination country. Moreover, Mohanty (2008) asserts that advertisement and communication permits quick and low-priced communication between the origin country and destination thereby reducing uncertainty, fear and asymmetric information. On the same vein, Mohanty (2011) points out that other determinants such as wastewater and energy among others are also crucial to the provision of reliable services and thus enhance the attractiveness of the destination. Furthermore, Smanta & Mohanty (2013), explain that governments

across the world have been urged to embrace tourism by improving infrastructure because tourism relies on a variety of infrastructure services.

The study argues that, tourism thrives when there are airports, roads, railways, and ports besides infrastructure services include hotels, restaurants, shops, and recreation facilities.

Commoditization of tourism is the packaging of physical capital and treating the package as a commodity for sale over which tourists and entrepreneurs from the tourist culture, rather than locals, have rights. Superficial non-authentic art forms are produced to create quick impression of what art once was and provides tourists with ephemeral and superficial experience (Weaver, 1998). Tourism may provide monetary incentives to revive art forms, crafts and other cultural attributes of a given local community. However, a serious problem arises when the original quality and meaning and motive of cultural artifacts and performances become less important than the economic motive of earning an income from the reproduction (Weaver, 1998).

### **2.7.8 Contributions of Tourism towards Social Capital Assets**

Social capital refers to the social resources upon which people draw in pursuit of their livelihoods, such as relationships of trust, social norms, networks, and membership of groups. Engagement in tourism can affect social networks and community organization in a number of ways, positively and negatively. Much of the research done on socio-cultural impacts falls into one of two traditions – surveys of resident perceptions of tourism impacts (see Nunkoo, Smith & Ramkissoon, 2013 for a review) and ethnographic analyses of particular destinations and/or tourism developments (see Harrison, 2007, for a discussion of this approach). While the

tradition of surveys of resident perceptions of impacts has generated considerable data describing the existence and extent of different tourism impacts, especially in the sociocultural domain, a number of weaknesses in this research have also been identified.

First, it is important to remember that perceived impacts are not the same as actual impacts (Moscardo, 2008). Even where perceived and actual impacts are the same, the surveys typically measure only the existence and extent of the impact, not the factors that have contributed to its presence (Harrill, 2004; Saarinen, 2006). Indeed, much of the explanatory focus in this research tradition has been on analyzing differences in perceptions of tourism impacts across different characteristics of the respondent rather than differences in the characteristics of tourism (Andereck & Nyuapane, 2010; Moscardo, 2012). Ethnographic approaches on the other hand offer much more detailed analyses of the mechanisms that link features of tourism development to specific impacts on the destination communities.

The problem has been that much of this research has been conducted in peripheral regions where there is often considerable economic, social, cultural difference between tourists and residents. Again, some of the strongest and most positive impacts have occurred where tourism is developed by communities within the CBNRM programme, and clear negative impacts where tourism development by individuals has disrupted communities, but the distinction is by no means black and white. Many of the positive social impacts are better ascribed to CBNRM in general, than to the tourism component in particular (and are documented in Ashley, 1998a). However, the desire to develop tourism provides momentum for the broader process, and poses some specific challenges for community organization. Managing community tourism enterprises, negotiating a joint venture or deciding how to spend

bed-night levy income, all require development and change of community institutions. Changes in social capital are difficult to define or assess, but there are examples of change at three levels.

One of the ways is increasing social capital of households within their community is that Communities have had to become more defined to undertake joint action in tourism, so enhancing social cohesion for all members. In addition, several individuals have gained status and a sense of belonging within their community through their own participation as leaders or entrepreneurs in tourism. Secondly, organizing strength and management capacity of community organizations. With considerable help of NGOs, such as Integrated Rural Development and Nature Conservation, tourism opportunities have been used to build more consultative decision-making procedures, enhance leadership skills, define shared objectives, and develop new management mechanisms. The other way is by increasing in communities' recognition from, and links with, the external world.

Communities engaged in tourism have gained substantial experience of liaising with government officials and tourism entrepreneurs. This experience, combined with their greater organizational capacity, has increased confidence to pro-actively engage with outsiders. In turn, community tourism enterprises and wildlife conservancies are gaining greater recognition from policy-makers and the formal tourism sector. In some cases, collaboration on tourism is also leading to improved relations between neighbouring communities.

Despite, or perhaps as a result of, a substantial literature across multiple disciplines seeking to define and explain the operation of social capital, there is considerable debate about its definition (Moscardo, 2012). Pawar's (2006) review of social capital

definitions, which included descriptions from Bourdieu (1986), Coleman (1988), Portes (1998) and Woolcock (1998), identified the following as the most common elements: - collective action, cooperation, networks, relationships, shared norms and values, social interaction and trust. While these elements could be seen as making up a working definition of social capital, it is important to note two key criticisms of the diverse ways in which researchers have conceptualized and used social capital.

Firstly, there is often confusion and ambiguity about what social capital is versus what it can be used for (Portes, 1998). Secondly, there is often confusion between what social capital is and the structures or mechanisms that allow for its development (Woolcock, 1998). Therefore it is important to distinguish between the structures that allow social capital to be created, the dimensions of social capital itself, and the outcomes that are said to derive from its use.

For the purposes of the present study, social capital at a community level was defined as the trust, obligations, reciprocity, shared values and social identity, and cohesiveness of social relationships within a community. This social capital then offers members of the community access to support and resources to pursue various goals, and it is derived from networks, both formal and informal and both within and outside the community, associations and engagement in communal or social activity. For the purposes of the present study the researchers were interested in the links between aspects of tourism and any of these dimensions of social capital.

A study conducted by Jigang (2009: 230), using two cultural villages: Ghandruk and Briddam in Nepal that practice community development, revealed that community development activities practiced in these villages include: the provisioning of employment opportunities for the unemployed youth in the fields of tour guiding and

porters; as well as an opportunity for women to establish small businesses, including home-stay tourism, small hotels and lodges. The villages also provide education to women and children, health and sanitation improvement, conservation of cultural heritage, construction and development of social infrastructure, such as schools and toilets (Jigang 2009). Community development practices in the two villages also include community programmes targeted for youth and women, as well as for the economically and socially underprivileged. Capacity building is also provided through training local community members in cooking, tour guiding, handicrafts, provisioning of security and information centres for tourists as well as learning the English language (Jigang 2009). The villages also offer training in lodge management for the lodge operators in the area (Jigang 2009).

Similarly, this study intended to find out how tourism contributes to community livelihoods of Mara Naboisho Community. Tourism has become one of the preferred development agents and economic alternatives to more traditional primary and secondary sectors in developing countries (Opperman & Chon, 1997). Many developing countries have regarded tourism as a means for development as it is one of the economic sectors in which principles of free trade apply. Due to tourism's rapid and continuing growth and associated potential economic contribution, it has been widely regarded as an effective means of achieving development and poverty alleviation in non-industrialized countries (Binns & Nel, 2002). In Malawi, a sub-Saharan nation with high levels of poverty, tourism has been identified as one of the priority sectors for economic development. The Malawi Growth and Development Strategy II (2011–2016), a national medium-term development strategy, identifies tourism as a priority sector and champions the development of wildlife tourism, cultural tourism and adventure tourism (Malawi Government, 2012).

It is argued that for a tourism industry to thrive and be sustainable, the support of host communities is essential (Ryan, Chaozhi, & Zeng, 2011). Hence social impact studies that gauge levels of support are a crucial input to tourism planning and decision making (Tovar & Lockwood, 2008). Socio-cultural impacts of tourism can be viewed from different and overlapping viewpoints: tourism impact studies, tourist – host interaction, tourist systems and tourists and their behaviour (Cooper, Fletcher, Fyall, Gilbert, & Wanhill, 2008). Research on the social and cultural impacts of tourism mostly falls into three categories: the tourist, the host, and the tourist – host interrelationships. This paper focuses on the tourist – host interrelationships in order to consider the effects of the contacts between hosts and guests (Wall & Mathieson, 2006).

Tourism have both positive and negative contributions on the social aspects of host communities that may include development of entrepreneurial skills for the community, development and improvement of social amenities such as schools (education), health clinics, water supply and establishment of serviceable road network (Western *et al.*, 2015; Norton – Griffiths, 2008). On the same note, tourism has negative effects on social fronts for the host community. For instance, most tourism facilities use and demand both a high and constant water supply, thus in the end depriving the host community of the vital commodity. In this case, the effect is negative and the host community may not be happy about it (KTB, 2017). Some of the positive socio-cultural impacts of tourism include: improving quality of life, increasing the availability of recreational facilities, improving quality of public social services such as fire and police protection, improving understanding of other cultures, preserving cultural heritage and promoting cultural exchange (Ap & Crompton, 1998).

Tourism development comes with improved and better infrastructure in a destination which enhances the quality of life of the local community (Cooper *et al.*, 2008). This is evidenced by development of improved water supply and sewage treatment systems, airports, roads, and electricity supply. In most tourist areas, local residents also have the opportunity to access new restaurants and a better range of food and beverages. Inskeep (1994) argues that revenue from tourism helps to pay for improvements to community facilities and services. Tourism development also facilitates provision of improved security by the police and fire protection in a destination area (Ap & Crompton, 1998).

Studies by Pizam (1978), Milman and Pizam (1988), Lankford (1994), and Tovar and Lockwood (2008) confirm that tourism development improves infrastructure and social services to people in a destination area. Tourism development promotes the rejuvenation and preservation of cultural products and practices as indicated by Mbaiwa (2005) that in Botswana, tourism has rejuvenated traditional villages providing services to tourists such as accommodation in traditional huts, traditional dishes, music and dance, use of dug-in-canoes for safaris, production of baskets and other traditional wooden – engraved products and beads. It should be noted that as part of tourism development the traditional villages in Botswana promote and preserve culture that would have died by now without tourism (Mbaiwa, 2005). Tourism puts new life into ceremonies, rituals, old skills and crafts through tourists and this inspires pride in a destination's heritage and culture as it is re-valued (Cooper *et al.*, 2008).

Tourism also stimulates the conservation of cultural heritage of an area and these elements of cultural heritage include archaeological and historical sites, traditional



arts, handcrafts, dance, music, drama, customs, ceremonies and dress (Inskeep, 1991). Revenue realised from tourism also assists the development and maintenance of museums, theatres and other cultural heritage facilities (Inskeep, 1991; Inskeep, 1994; Tovar & Lockwood, 2008). It is also argued that tourism development coupled with good community tourism planning approaches can change peoples' negative attitudes to wildlife conservation for the better as socio-economic benefits start accruing to the local communities (Mbaiwa, 2005). Culture loses its objective when it becomes a commodity for financial transactions and usually crafts, ceremonies and rituals are exploited, made more colourful, dramatic and spectacular in order to attract the attention of tourists (Cooper *et al.*, 2008).

It should be noted that these pseudo-events can eventually become authentic events replacing the original events or practice and there is a danger for the hosts to forget the true meaning and significance of the practice or event overtime (Mason, 2008). Cohen (2004) also argues that commoditization can lead to the exploitation of the local residents and their cultural resources by outsiders as the process is mostly initiated by culture-brokers and entrepreneurs from outside the local community.

Tourism needs the support from local residents in a destination to thrive and this realization has eventually led to increasing attention being given to the perceived impacts of tourism development (Ap & Crompton, 1998). Tourism development brings in changes in a host community which affect people's habits, daily routines, social lives, beliefs and values (Dogan, 1989). Some of the major negative socio-cultural impacts of tourism include: the demonstration effect, commodification, staged authenticity, increase in crime, prostitution, overcrowding and loss of amenities for residents, neo-colonisation, relocation of traditional settlements, drug abuse, alcoholism, vandalism, and breaking up of family structures (Archer, Cooper,

& Ruhanen, 2005; Cohen, 2004; Cooper *et al.*, 2008; Inskip, 1991; Mason, 2008; Mathieson & Wall, 1982; Mbaiwa, 2005; Pizam, 1978; Shaw & Williams, 2002).

In most destinations, there is now an increasing demand for tourism products that offer cultural authenticity (Cooper *et al.*, 2008). In a bid to provide tourists with sufficient cultural exposure to satisfy their demands while preserving the true cultural identity of the host community, the local residents opt for staged authenticity (Cooper *et al.*, 2008).

In staged authenticity, the host community strives to convince the tourists that the festivals and activities being performed are authentic while they still ensure that the tourists do not manage to penetrate behind the stage curtains (Archer *et al.*, 2005; Cooper *et al.*, 2008). But it is argued that this approach can lead to increasing levels of penetration by tourists when the firewall curtains continue to retreat when trying to provide greater tourist experiences and diversity in a competitive tourism market (Cooper *et al.*, 2008). With this situation, the host population will find it difficult to maintain the integrity and pride of their culture.

Tourism systematically purveys a 'reconstructed' ethnicity, meaning a rhetorical and symbolic expression of cultural difference that is packaged and sold to tourists. Tourism boosters and promoters use sophisticated niche-marketing techniques to define local ethnic cultures and attract diverse kinds of ethnic tourists (Gothan, 2005). In this context economic and social impacts on the local community depend on how much of the incomes generated by tourists go to the host communities. In most of all-inclusive package tours more than 80% of travelers' fees go to the airlines, hotels and other international companies, not to local businessmen and workers. On the other hand, large hotel chain restaurants often import food to satisfy foreign visitors and

rarely employ local staff for senior management positions (Robinson, 1999). Tourism has the power to affect cultural changes. Tourism often grows into mass-tourism. It leads to the over consumption, pollution and lack of resources. However, from the ecological point of view tourism is environmentally friendlier than any other industrial production (Mirbabayev & Shagzatova, 2005).

In many destinations sexual exploitation and/or prostitution has grown rapidly as tourism and more recently a major tourism market has grown up around sex tourism with Thailand, the Gambia and some Central European countries marketing the sexual content of their products (Cooper *et al.*, 2008). It should be noted that prostitution existed before the growth of mass tourism (Mathieson & Wall, 1982), but it is argued that tourism development has created locations and environments which attract prostitutes and their clients. A study by Mbaiwa (2005) in the Okavango Delta in Botswana also found out that tourism increased prostitution in the area as prostitutes target tourists and business people from other urban areas visiting the destination. Shaw and Williams (2002) also contend that tourism development often creates a favourable environment for prostitutes and the breaking of moral bonds of behaviour by tourists when they are away from home usually leads to the expansion of prostitution in host communities. Although tourism increases the dividends of the prostitution trade, it is not solely responsible for it (Shaw & Williams, 2002). At the meantime, the proliferation of AIDS is slowing down the growth of prostitution or the sex element in the tourism industry though many tourists from industrialised countries usually relax their sexual morals during vacations (Cooper *et al.*, 2008).

Crime is another aspect of negative socio-cultural impact of tourism associated with tourism. Though the link between crime and tourism has been suggested, it is hard to establish whether crime increases simply because of tourism or the increased

population density or urbanisation (Cooper *et al.*, 2008). Though this is the case, a number of studies indicate that crime is one of the negative impacts perceived by local residents in a destination.

Vandalism, drug abuse and disorderly behaviour are some of the crimes which are perceived by local residents as the most negative of the impacts of tourism development (Pizam, 1978). The presence of large numbers of tourists in a tourist area usually provides the source for illegal activities including drug trafficking, robbery and violence which have been reported in Brazil, Florida and Jamaica (Cooper *et al.*, 2008). Studies by Ap (1990), Ap and Crompton (1998), Brunt and Courtney (1999), and Mason and Cheyne (2000) also confirm that tourism increases rates of crime in a destination area.

Crafts, ceremonies and rituals are often driven into an exploitation stance, abbreviated, altered and made more colorful, more dramatic and spectacular in order to capture the attention of an audience that often does not possess the underlying knowledge or experience that would make the un-adapted version appealing (Weaver, 1998). The Maasai women at MNC just like other women do, such as women in Sekenani gate are exposed to high number of tourism due to the Maasai Mara national reserve, their culture face a great risk of commoditization. This is because their culture is increasingly being used as a part of package to attract tourists to Kenya (KTB, 2016). The aspect of cultural homesteads '*Boma*' has been on the rise over time. A cultural homestead is a purpose-built 'model village' intended to attract fee paying tourists (KTB, 2016).

These villages are set up by tourism entrepreneurs, who seek to display various culture, ways of life and sell their artifacts to tourists directly without going through

middlemen. For instance, at Bomas of Kenya, tourists get chance of visiting these model villages, in conjunction with listening to traditional songs and dances. The dances are not performed by people of the tribe, rather by various people who learn and practice for the sake of tourist entertainment. Home - stays are another growing cultural innovation in the industry.

A home stay is a place or area that a tourist can visit and stay for a significant duration of time so as to experience firsthand the culture of the local people (KTB, 2016; Kayat, 2010). Home-stays give chance to tourists to interact with local people, learn their way of life and experience their food and their language. In all these innovations, authenticity lacks because they are not 'original'. Through the establishment of wildlife conservation areas within their traditional grazing ground in the 1950s, displacement from their ancestral land and the development of tourists' safaris there in, Maasai are more and more forced to change their lifestyle thus eroding their culture. Erosion of culture entails disrespect and degradation of original practices of a given community. McCannell (1976) developed the concept of 'staged authenticity' to refer to the manufacturing of local culture to create an impression of authenticity for a tourist audience. Increase in international travel and excessive demand for tourism products has led to erosion of local cultures and traditional ways of life and customs including indigenous cultures in order to keep up with tourists' demand for local arts (KTB, 2015). Cultural erosion implies that people abandon their ways of life and rules that guide them therefore adapting a new culture brought about by contact with other people especially tourists.

Tourism for instance has been blamed for steering the spread of sexually transmitted diseases including HIV/AIDS in many countries, but their contribution is probably very small in relation to the part played by the local population. Immorality is highly

associated especially with sex – tourism where old and rich pensioners mostly from Europe travel to the Kenyan coast purposely to look for pleasure activities including sex. Maasai culture like any other culture is a dynamic phenomenon that evolves to adapt to new circumstances and includes a set of values and practices that is associated with a particular way of life.

The pastoral Maasai occupy the arid and semiarid range land in southern Kenya and northern Tanzania which is also known as the ‘Maa’ land. They maintain a semi nomadic lifestyle but with the introduction of tourism, this is seen to change over time. For tourism to promote conservation, local people must contribute economically and see a clear link between the contributions economically and the need to protect the resources (UNWTO, 2015). Aiming to explore and advance new partnership models between tourism and culture led to the first United Nations World Tourism Organization world conference on Tourism and Culture (UNWTO, 2015).

Negative cultural change can be minimized if local people are able to participate in tourist related businesses and have a role in making decisions about the numbers and types of tourists entering their communities and at what frequency (UNWTO, 2015).

The concept of demonstration effect was borrowed from economics. Originally it aimed at describing local residents’ interest in trying to emulate tourist consumption levels. Burns (1999) terms demonstration effect as the process by which traditional societies especially those which are particularly susceptible to outside influence such as youths, will ‘voluntarily’ seek to adopt certain behaviors on the basis that it will lead to achievement of the leisured lifestyle demonstrated by the tourists.

Effects on the observable conducts allegedly adopted from tourists are incorporated into the community’s everyday lives such as drinking patterns for example (Moore,

1997). Accordingly, this idea questions the common assumption that tourist behavior is copied blindly by locals. Instead, the decision-making process of locals regarding demonstration effect is an active rather than passive process (UNWTO, 2017).

The Maasai have limited prospects to compete price wise with non-local dealers in the supply of their stuff to the lodges. The above attitude makes the local community to indulge in social vices in order to strike a balance between them and the tourists. The local community may indulge in crime, contributed by the following factors which influence the relationship between crime and tourism: The population density during the tourism season, the location of resorts and hotels in relation to an international border, per capita income of the host community and the tourists. Huge differences between them tend to encourage robbery (Burns, 1999).

## **2.8 Theoretical Framework**

This study was based on two theories namely; Social Exchange Theory and Stakeholder theory.

### **2.8.1 Social Exchange Theory**

The Social Exchange Theory (SET) aims to understand the exchange of resources (of a material or social nature) between individuals or groups in an interactive situation (Homans, 1958). In tourism for instance, residents offer the sacrifice of a part of the place's resources as well as their personal dedication in development, promotion and by serving the needs of the tourists. Some residents acquire contributions while some may be negatively impacted. A resident who observes contributions or a positive impact from this exchange is likely to evaluate tourism positively whereas another one who perceives cost is likely to evaluate tourism negatively (Jurowski *et al.*, 1997). The theory suggests that residents who perceive the contribution of tourism more

positive, will support further tourism development more than those who perceive the contribution less positively or negatively (Jurowski *et al.*, 1997).

In this study, the focus was on the contribution caused by tourism during the host – tourists' interactions within the conservancy. In every respect, the contribution may be positive or negative based on how it's viewed by the hosts. For instance, the land owners of MNC receive economic contributions from land leases on a monthly basis from the Conservancy tourism investors and their members or relatives have been employed in various job positions in the conservancy (KTB, 2017).

In addition, women sell beadwork and other forms of art to the tourists and share the cultural dances, as folklore for a fee (KTB, 2017). This kind of interaction is of mutual contribution to investors and the host community, but more importantly to the host community. The host community view of this interaction may be positive since they derive direct economic contributions. The same can be said of social and cultural contribution. However, the tourism contributions are always not positive. In some cases, tourism may result in negative effects such as on the culture or social aspects. For instance, curio and art business operators, get contributions from tourism as they get opportunities to sell their commodities (KTB, 2017).

On the other hand, some members of the community may feel tourists may disregard some parts of or their entire culture by the different dressing modes, language and general lifestyle changes. The SET was used in this study to explain the relationship between tourism and the host community of MNC. The host community leased their land to form a conservancy with many varied expectations. SET is based on the reciprocity principle – where two negotiating parties agree to give out something to the other party, while expecting the other party in the negotiations to reciprocate as



well by giving out something to the other party (Jurowski *et al.*, 1997; Homans, 1958).

Normally, a shared give and take process takes place. In this study, the host community ceded a portion of their land for tourism investors to set up tourism facilities and expect some positive economic, social and cultural positive returns as a result.

### **2.8.2 Stakeholder theory**

Stakeholder theory came from four major academic fields: economics, politics, sociology, and ethics (Wagner Mainardes, Alves & Raposo, 2011). It was highly influenced by many concepts that were raised in the planning department of the Lockheed Company. These ideas were developed from the research done by Igor Ansoff and Robert Steward in this company (MacIntosh & Maclean, 2014). Muchlinski (2011) viewed the stakeholder theory from different perspectives. There is the Normative Stakeholder theory, which contains theories of how managers or stakeholders ought to act and view the method of reasoning of organization on some moral guideline (Koschmann, 2008). The other point of view is the unmistakable partner hypothesis that is worried with how administrators and partners act and how they see their duties and activities. The aim here is to know how supervisors manage partners and how they remain for their interests.

The partnership is viewed as an accumulation of interests, at some point aggressive and different times helpful. Instrumental stakeholder theory majors on the hierarchical consequences of considering partners in administration by analyzing the relations between the act of partner administration and the achievement of different corporate administration targets. It concentrates on how administrators ought to do in the event

that they need work for their own great. In some writing their own particular intrigue is acknowledged as the interests of the association, which is to get the most out of benefit or to boost shareholder esteem.

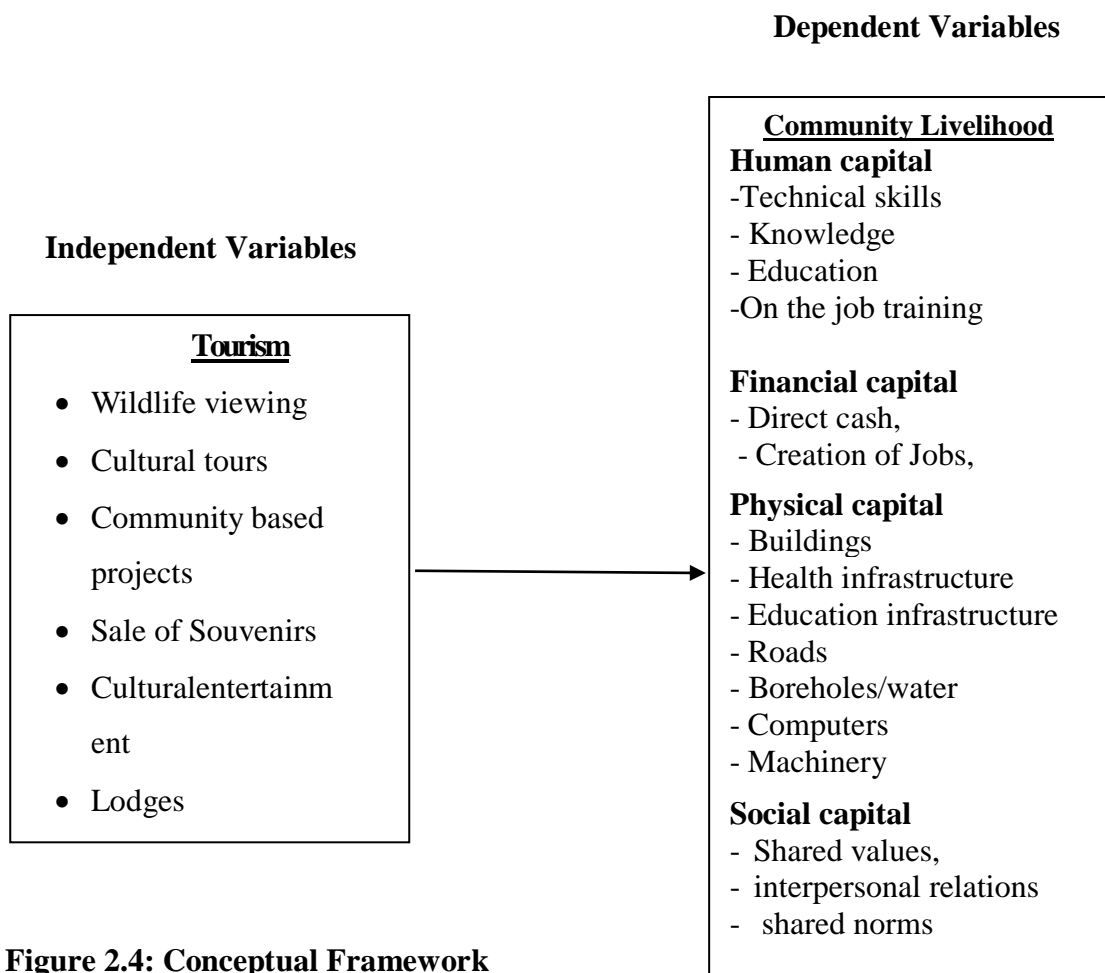
This demonstrates if supervisors treat partners in accordance with the partner idea the projects was more fruitful over the long haul (Freeman, Harrison, Wicks, Parmar, & De Colle, 2010). Freeman defines stakeholders as those groups who are fundamental to the survival of the organization (Bailur, 2006). There is concern for mapping the stakeholders, provision of comprehensive list of the specific groups associated with each category of stakeholders, and an equivalent list of interests. How does each stakeholder affect us? What are their interests? Who are our current and potential stakeholders? How do we affect every stakeholder? How do we measure these variables and their impact and how do we maintain score with our stakeholders? Freeman, Harrison, Wicks, Parmar and De Colle, (2010) incorporates in this list of stakeholders' employees, stockholders, suppliers, and the organizations local community. This list, though similar to list given by stakeholder theorists, is not uncontroversial.

The stakeholder concept itself has its critics. Those critics imply that the stakeholder approach is not capable of guiding essential enhancements in corporate government in that numerous lines of accountability inferred by acknowledging a multiplicity of stakeholders, minimizes efficiency and that the idea of stakeholders as ethically important undermines the morally significant relations between corporations and stockholders. In this study therefore; in this study, stakeholders refer to local communities that affect or are affected by the achievement in tourism industry in Mara Naboisho conservancy. Community refers to the residents who live in a destination that have direct involvement in an activity.

## 2.9 Conceptual Framework

This study was based on the conceptual framework. Financial capital refers to the employment opportunities and direct cash to the local communities from tourism initiatives to support their livelihoods.

Physical capital is used in the study to refer to buildings, health and education infrastructure, and water supply obtained from tourism initiatives for supporting the livelihoods of the local community. Human capital in this study refers to the knowledge, skills and education that support livelihoods. Figure 2.4 presents the conceptual framework for this study. It shows how tourism contributes to aspects of the capital assets in this study.



**Figure 2.4: Conceptual Framework**

**Source: Researcher, (2019)**

Tourism which involves; wildlife viewing, cultural tours, community-based projects, cultural entertainment and lodges, have many different effects on the human, financial, physical and social aspects of life in a particular region or area, depending on the tourism trends of that region.

On the human capital aspect, the communities can benefit from tourism through technical skills, knowledge, education, and job training. On financial capital, the community can receive direct cash and creation of employment opportunities for the host community. In addition, tourism can also provide physical assets such as buildings, health infrastructure, education infrastructure, roads, boreholes/water, computers and machinery.

In the social aspect, the interaction between tourists and the host community can be one of the factors that may affect a community as tourists may not be sensitive to local customs, traditions and standards. The effect can be positive or negative on the host community. Local communities can mix with people from diverse backgrounds with different lifestyles, which through the 'demonstration effect' may lead to 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), leading to better education, health care, employment opportunities, and income.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

#### **3.0 Overview**

This chapter presents a discussion of the research design that was adopted to achieve the study's objectives. It also describes the study population along with the sample size and sampling procedures, research instruments that were used to collect data relevant to the study, the validity and reliability of the research instruments, data collection procedures including data analysis and ethical issues that were adhered to during the process of conducting the study.

#### **3.1 Research Design**

According to Creswell (2009), a research design is a plan and the procedure for research that extends the decisions from broad expectations to detailed data collection and analysis approaches. This study employed a case study research design using a qualitative approach. The case study research design allows in-depth, multi-faceted explorations of complex issues in their real-life settings. A qualitative approach is defined as a method that focuses on obtaining data through open-ended and conversational communication. Therefore, the qualitative approach allows for in-depth and further probing and questioning of respondents based on their responses, where the interviewer/researcher also tries to understand their motivation and feelings. "A qualitative approach is beneficial when it provides us with someone's perceptions of a situation that permits us to understand respondent's behaviour" (Krathwohl, 1998, p. 230). With its emphasis on people's experiences, qualitative research is well suited for finding the meanings they place on events and processes.

Moreover, the qualitative research approach connects their perceptions to the social world (van Manen, 1977). The data collected through open-ended questions and

interviews reveal either the way things are or described or what is (Gall, Borg & Gall, 1996). The qualitative research approach emphasises exploring and understanding “the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem” (Creswell, 2014). Denzin and Lincoln (2005) describe this approach as gaining a perspective of issues from investigating them in their specific context and the meaning individuals bring to them. It focuses upon drawing meaning from the experiences and opinions of participants, it pinpoints meaning, purpose or reality” (Cohen *et al.*, 2007; Merriam, 2009).

Qualitative approaches are usually described as inductive, with the underlying assumptions being that reality is a social construct, that variables are difficult to measure, complex and interwoven, that there is a primacy of subject matter and that the data collected consisted of an insider’s viewpoint (Rovai *et al.*, 2014). Rovai *et al.* (2014) make the point that this approach to research values individuality, culture, and social justice, which provides content and context-rich breadth of information that, although subjective, is current (Tracy, 2013). Moreover, research has shown that qualitative approach methods do not affect the administration of a critical, disciplined and balanced study into any problem to provide recommendations (Thomas *et al.*, 2011; Silverman, 2009; Bell, 2010).

In this study, a case study research design using a qualitative approach was employed for two main reasons. One of the reasons is that the study specially laid a focus on only one of the conservancies in Maasai Mara Ecosystem; Mara Naboisho Conservancy. Secondly, the study pursued an in-depth analysis of the contribution of tourism to host community livelihoods through an interactive and participatory approaches.

### **3.2 The Study Area**

The study was conducted in Mara Naboisho Conservancy (MNC) in Narok County (figures 3.1 and 3.2). The conservancy is among the many conservancies formed by host communities (owners of the land) outside the reserve to conserve wildlife and profit from tourism (MMWCA, 2015; Norton – Griffiths, 2007). Mara Naboisho Conservancy is one of the conservancies in the Mara region alongside Lemek, Olkinyei, Pardamat, Mara North, Olchorro - Oirowua, Nashulai, Olare – Motorogi, Enoonkishu, Olderkesi and Oloisukut conservancies, among others (MMWCA, 2016).

In terms of size, Mara Naboisho Conservancy (MNC) covers more than 53,000 acres (21, 043 ha) directly contributed by its 596 landowners. The conservancy is adjacent to the Maasai Mara National Reserve and borders, Olkinyei, Olare Orok – Motorogi and Siana Conservancies. The conservancy was chosen because it hosts various big cats and numerous herds of multiple herbivores such as elephants, wildebeest, and giraffes (MMWCA, 2016), which attracts many tourists. However, many studies have focused on the entire Maasai Mara National Reserve and because the area is too large specific details on the contribution of tourism to the community in most cases are generalized. Therefore this study was inspired to take a case study and examine the contribution of tourism to the host community within Mara Naboisho Conservancy only. Nkoilale Village is adjacent to the conservancy and is the largest beneficiary of the Mara Naboisho Conservancy, and a majority of the respondents were drawn from Nkoilale.

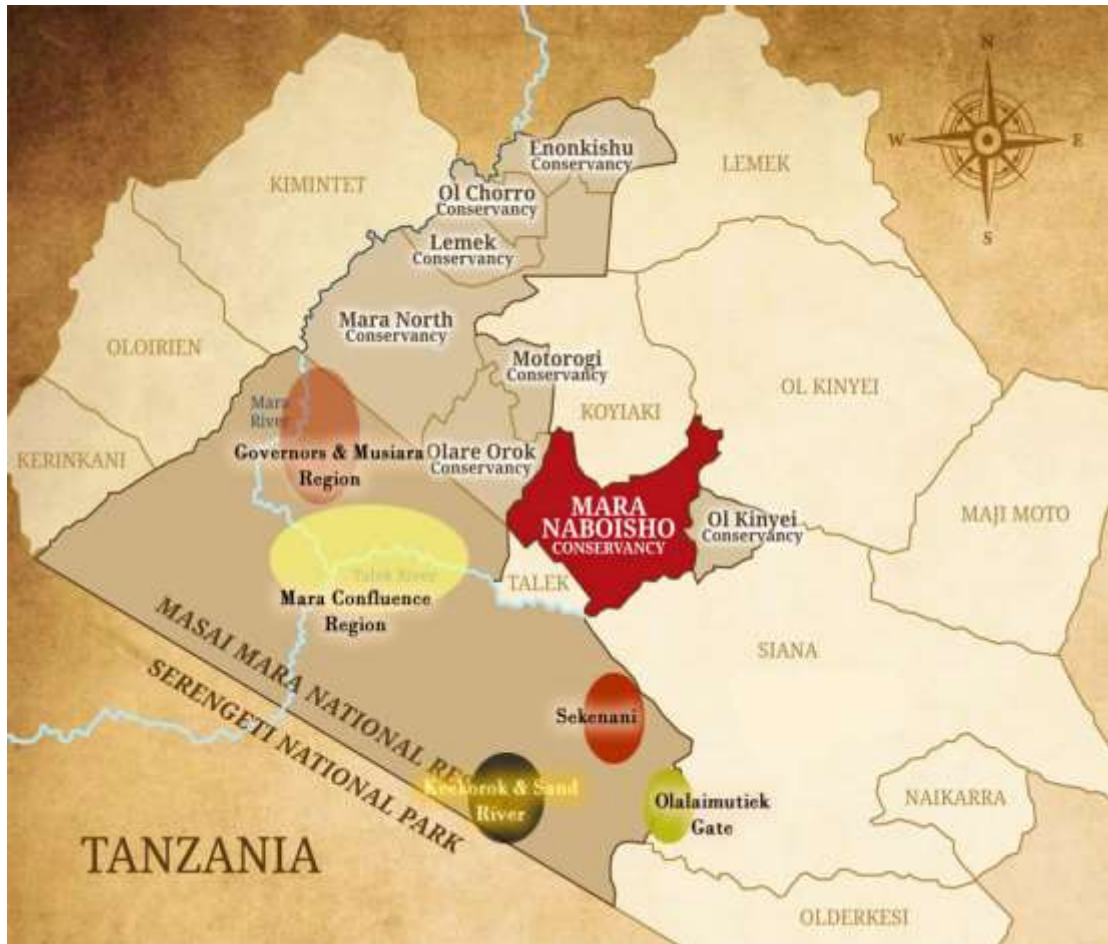
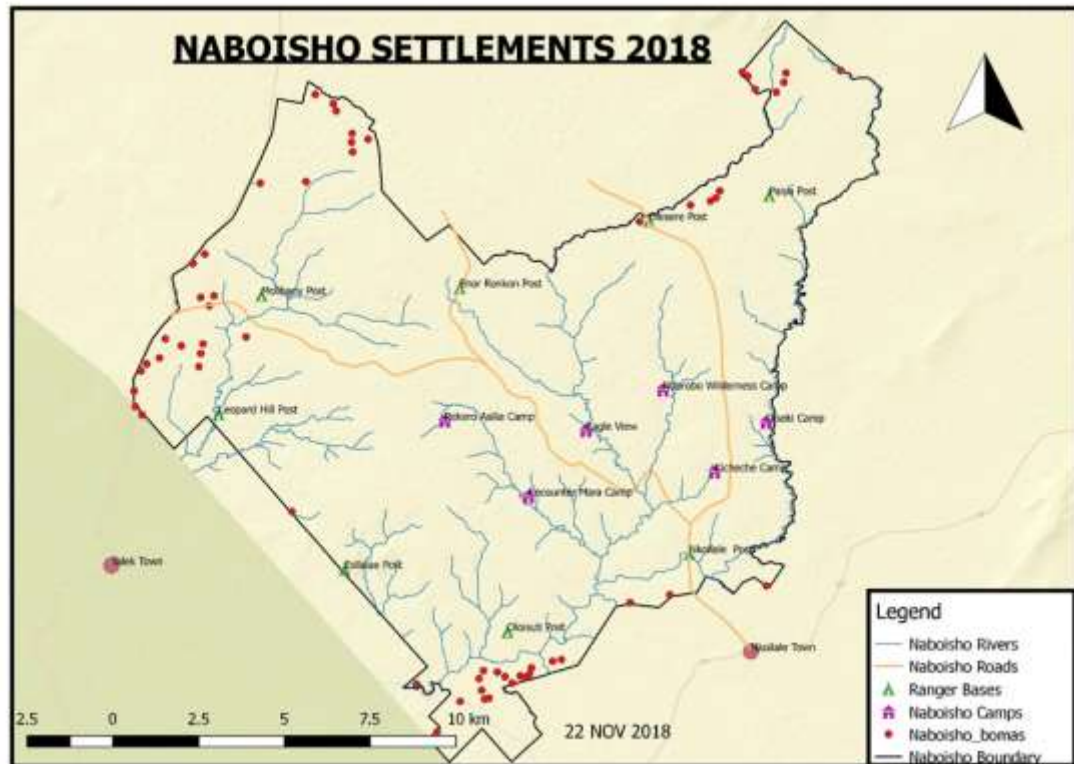


Figure 3.1: Map of Mara Naboisho Conservancy (2018).





**Figure 3.2: Mara Naboisho Conservancy (2018)**

### 3.3 Physical and Ecological Environment

The Maasai Mara ranges over arid and semiarid savannas of southern Kenya. These regions are of primarily alkali and volcanic soils, from 500 to 2000m in elevation. A prolonged dry season and inappropriate soils have long kept agriculture nearly impossible without irrigation and fertilization. Adjoining the south in Tanzania are vast areas of similar habitat: the Serengeti plains and Maasai Steppe, together making the world's largest remaining grassland ecosystem. These plains are profoundly productive for ungulates, and hoofed animals, with more diversity and density of large mammals than anywhere else on earth. Within Mara, extending to the Serengeti plains, 3.5 million wildebeest, zebra and gazelle range and migrate seasonally, following rain patterns. (KTB, 2012).

### **3.4 Cultural Environment**

The Maasai people mainly inhabit the Mara Naboisho Conservancy. Maasai are pastoral nomads thought to have come to East Africa from the north in the late first millennium (Rutten, 1992). Kalenjin agro-pastoralists border them to the west and agricultural Bantu tribes in most other directions. There is a large grouping of Bantu tribes, including the Kikuyu and Luo to the north and Chagga and Abagussi to the South and Southwest. Where other pastoral tribes bordered Maasai land, a large buffer area was left in which hunter-gatherer Dorobo lived. Relations between Maasai and agricultural tribes were most peaceful and trade-oriented. This is particularly so with Kikuyu, with whom the Maasai share a deity and sometimes exchange wives. However, the Maasai would regularly raid other pastoral and semi-pastoral tribes, hence buffer areas (Kituyi 1993). The tribes crucial to this story are Maasai, Kikuyu, Kalenjin and, to a lesser extent, other Bantu groups. Maasai traditionally occupied much of Kenya's Rift Valley, a stretch of low elevation savanna and acacia woodland scattered with alkaline lakes. East and West are bordered by sharp rift walls rising 500 to 700 meters to the central highlands. Before the colonial period, the land was segregated ecologically, with Maasai in dry savanna too poor for agriculture. At the same time, Kikuyu and Kalenjin farmed wetter areas above the rift, where these tsetse flies kept away pastoral Maasai (Kituyi 1993).

### **3.5 History of the Kenyan Maasai**

The British came to Kenya intending to construct an agricultural economy. They immediately saw the Maasai as a barrier to progress and pursued development with a labour base of Kikuyu and Luo (Spence, 1996). White settlers occupied 60,000 acres of Kikuyu land between 1903 and 1906 (Rutten, 1992).

At the same time, British settlers focused their attention on a central piece of the Rift Valley, near present-day Nakuru. This Maasai land was arable but never farmed by pastoral Maasai. Recovering from severe disease and drought in the 1890s, the Maasai were manipulated with relative ease into a treaty taking this land (Lindsay, 1987). The 1904 treaty established a Northern Reserve in the Laikipia area and a Southern Reserve where the Maasai reside today. This treaty was to endure 'so long as the Maasai as a race shall exist, and that Europeans or other settlers shall not be allowed to take up land in the Settlements' (Rutten, 1992). The Rift Valley area formerly occupied by Maasai was divided into concessions as large as 1000 square kilometers. After two years, the Northern Reserve pasture was found to be inadequate in the dry season and was therefore extended to regain a piece of European-claimed land.

With European hunger for land still strong, the 'Second Maasai Treaty' was negotiated in 1911 (Spence, 1996). In exchange for a slight extension of the Southern Reserve, the entire Northern Reserve was given to colonial powers for European settlement. Apparently, the Maasai Chief who accepted the treaty acted out of motivation to reassert control over southern Maasai, from whom he had been cut off by the 1904 Treaty (Rutten, 1992). Maasai sued the colonial government and argued, in its own courts, that the agreement had not been a contract but rather a treaty, and that a treaty could not be negotiated in municipal court. When the Maasai went to the British Court of Appeals for Eastern Africa, the British argued that the Maasai indeed constituted a sovereign entity, but that their treaty had no validity under international law because it had been made with the British Protectorate government (Asiema & Situma, 1994).

With some minor changes and extensions, the Southern Reserve as it stood after the Second Maasai Treaty is the area of Kenya now legally under Maasai jurisdiction.

Maasai lost their best dry-season rangeland to European encroachment, to gain only small amounts of marginal land in south Kenya (Asiema & Situma, 1994). These treaties illustrate a general disregard for Maasai property rights present from the outset of Kenya's modern history. That the Maasai land that was legally recognized from 1911 has not stopped encroachment from land-hungry Kikuyu, Kamba and Chagga (Asiema & Situma, 1994). Displaced by colonial settlers and a rapidly growing population, many moved illegally or semi-legally into the wetter northern regions of north of present day Narok and Kajiado (Rutten, 1992).

Some Kikuyu followed relations who had married into the Maasai, while others rented plots in an arrangement initially attractive to Maasai, now much less food secure after the loss of their prime dry-season range. After independence, tension continued to grow as land hunger increased. Meanwhile, district administrative boundaries were in constant flux, reflective of an essentially ad hoc development process. In relation to land tenure insecurity, the mid 1950's saw introduction of individual, then group ranches (Asiema & Situma, 1994).

In particular, young and educated Maasai were enthusiastic about securing land title in order to improve rangeland facilities and join the market economy through beef production. The subsequent privatization has been an ongoing process, largely evolving through trial and error (Asiema & Situma, 1994). Group ranches proved unsatisfactory and tended towards disintegration into small plots unable to sustain cattle and Maasai families through dry seasons and droughts.

In the Maasai Mara National Reserve, wildlife conservation displaced the host communities and competes directly with livestock keeping as their main source of livelihood (Asiema & Situma, 1994). The study was conducted in this area because of

the potential that the tourism has in the community around and not documented study has been done previously.

### **3.6 The Target Population**

A target population is defined as all members of a real or hypothetical set of people or events to which a survey wishes to generalize results (Banerjee & Chaudhury, 2010). Further, a target population can be defined as the population a researcher is interested in researching (Given, 2008). Babie and Halley (2007) describe the target population as the entire aggregation of respondents that meet the designated set of criteria within a study. The target population for this research included the host community and other segments working in Mara Naboisho Conservancy, such as investors and local agencies involved with Mara Naboisho, such as MMWCA, County government representatives and Kenya Wildlife Services. Specifically, the study focused on the 596 landowners who are the host Community, 6 tourism investors and 8 MNC camp managers, 5 Narok County Tourism Officers and 1 area chief. These groups were relevant and appropriate for the study since they are directly involved with MNC. In addition, the study interviewed individual participants who were deemed more knowledgeable or had in-depth insights about the subject of study.

### **3.7 Sampling**

Maree (2007) defines sampling as the procedure adopted to choose a part of the study population. This implies the selection by the researcher of participants for a particular study they deem in the best position to provide the relevant information needed for such a study. Sampling can also be defined as the procedure adopted in selecting several individuals as stated in the sample size so that the individuals chosen for the study are considered to be representative of the large collection where they were chosen. Thus, the selected entities from the sample and the large group from which

they were chosen are the population (Oso & Onen, 2008). Purposive sampling, snowball sampling and census sampling were the major sampling techniques for this study.

### **3.7.1 The Sample Size**

Sample size determination is the act of choosing the number of observations or replicates to include in a statistical sample (Singh, 2008). The sample size is an essential feature of any empirical study in which the goal is to make inferences about a population from a sample (Noy, 2008). The sample for the study was derived from the study population in Mara Naboisho Conservancy using purposive sampling. Purposive sampling typically require a smaller sample size than quantitative analyses. The goal of qualitative researchers should be the attainment of saturation. Saturation occurs when adding more participants to the study does not result in additional perspectives or information. Morse (1994) suggested approximately 30–50 participants for qualitative analysis, while Creswell (1998) suggested only 20–30. Creswell (1998) recommends 5–25, and Morse (1994) suggests at least six. These recommendations helped estimate how many participants this research needed. However, ultimately, the number of participants depended on when saturation was reached.

For this study, purposive, snowball and census sampling were used to reach as many people as possible to collect different views from different categories of people. By use of the snowball sampling technique, a total of 26 respondents were selected from the host community. Further, purposive sampling was used to select 2 tourism investors and 3 camp managers while census sampling was used to select the area chief arriving at a sample size of 35 participants. Table 3.1 indicates the target group, population, sample size, and sampling technique used to select the participants.

**Table 3.1 Group sample guidelines**

<b>Group</b>	<b>Population size</b>	<b>Sample size</b>	<b>Sampling technique</b>
Host community	596	26	Snowball sampling
Tourism investors	6	2	Purposive sampling
Camps Managers	8	3	Purposive sampling
NCG Tourism Officers	5	3	Purposive sampling
Area Chief	1	1	Census sampling
<b>Total</b>	<b>616</b>	<b>35</b>	

**Source: Researcher, (2019)**

### **3.7.2 Sampling Techniques**

This study employed various sampling procedures that included purposive or judgmental and snowball sampling

#### **3.7.2.1 Purposive Sampling**

In selecting the key informants of the study, purposive, also known as ‘judgmental’ sampling, was employed. In purposive sampling, the researcher used his knowledge, experience, and judgment to select the most desirable elements in the study area for inclusion (Babbie, 2010; Creswell, 2007). These included the tourism investors/directors, Narok County Government Staff and tourism camps managers.

The tourism camp managers are persons in charge of the daily operations of the camps within the conservancy and not necessarily owners of the tourism facilities. On the other hand, the investors/directors are the owners of the camps. Therefore, they have their version of responses in relation to the issues under investigation in the study. Therefore, they formed the key informants for the study, assuming that they have crucial in-depth information on tourism and development in Narok County. Purposive sampling, thus, allowed for the selection of sample elements that gave an in-depth understanding of most of the issues of concern to the study.

### **3.7.2.2 Snowball sampling**

Snowball sampling is a process where research participants recruit research assistants and other participants for a study. It is used where potential participants are hard to find. It is called snowball sampling because, in theory, once one has a ball rolling, it picks up more snow along the way and becomes larger and larger. Snowball sampling is a non-probability sampling method. In this study, because the population was too large, the researcher relied on snowball sampling because it is fast and not expensive. After the population was identified, snowball sampling involved identifying an easily accessible small number of household heads for recruitment to the cohort. These cohort members then recommended other households as potential cohort members, who in turn suggested others. The method is so-called because the number of sample members increases with time, analogous to a snowball accumulating snow as it rolls down until a sample of 26 members of the community is achieved.

### **3.8 Piloting**

A pilot study was conducted in the neighbouring Olkinyei Conservancy with similar characteristics to Mara Naboisho Conservancy. The purpose of a pilot study was to test the validity and reliability of research instruments. Five participants were approached to take part in the pilot study. After the pilot study, the responses were submitted to the supervisors from the university and suggestions proposed were used to improve the research instrument.

### **3.9 Data Collection and Procedures**

#### **3.9.1 Methods of Data Collection**

Data collected was within the limits of sampling techniques. In addition, it was supported by other data gathering types such as audiotape recordings, observations, and field notes collected from the respondents from MNC.



### **3.10 Data collection instruments**

The choice of data collection instruments is critical in research. For example, in social science, interviews, questionnaires, observation checklists and standardized evaluations are commonly used as research tools (Kombo & Tromp 2006). Consequently, this research utilized the following data collection instruments:

#### **3.10.1 Interviews**

This study used semi-structured interviews (Creswell, 2007). As an instrument of the study, the researcher collected data using interview scripts, audio – tapes or recordings and field notes (Bailey, 2007; Babbie, 2010) to increase the reliability of the data to be collected as indicated in Appendix i-iv (Maxwell, 2012). A total of 35 participants were interviewed in the study. A majority of the participants (26) came from the local community, 3 Camps Managers, 3 County government of Narok Tourism Officers, 2 Tourism investors and 1 Area Chief.

First, the interviews were conducted in the homes of the host community, where it was convenient and comfortable to be interviewed in their natural environment to provide information as honestly as possible. Each of the interviewees was allowed to respond to the questions based on the study's objectives. For the tourism investors/directors, the interviews were conducted in their offices with prior arrangements to secure an appointment at a designated time and place. The same case applied for the camp managers or representatives, where an appropriate time was scheduled in advance. The participants from the interviews were randomly allocated codes in their order of presentation, as indicated in Table 3.2

**Table 3.2 Interview Participant codes**

<b>Group</b>	<b>Sample size</b>	<b>Participant Code</b>
Host community	26	HC1-HC26
Tourism investors	2	T1-T2
Camps Managers	3	CM1-CM3
NCG Tourism Officers	3	TO1-TO3
Area Chief	1	AC-1

### **3.10.2 Observations**

The study used observation in data collection. The items that this study observed were the physical places, the community way of life, economic activities of the communities, the sequence of events taking place over time, things that people are trying to accomplish and emotions felt and expressed. Secondly, the researcher was a non – participant observer in the study. Covertly, the researcher observed – the types of housings (to check whether Maasai have huts or modern houses), the colour of clothes (red for Maasai), listen to language spoken (Maa language), being undertaken around the homesteads, gender and structure of the fence. Also, the researcher observed the respondents' body language (facial expressions) to check whether they were happy or not during the interview process.

Detailed observations were necessary because they were used to verify some of the information produced during interview sessions and field notes, essentially enabling data triangulation. Therefore, it was used throughout the data collection period.

During the study period, the researcher sought to observe the following; in terms of economic contributions – check out for employment of members of the host community, physical environment to check for the status of roads and types of housing for the host community. In terms of social contributions, the researcher

checked out the status of health and educational facilities and water sources. Finally, the researcher observed the aspects of the culture of the host that including the colour and type of clothes and traditional ornaments being worn by members of the host community.

### **3.10.3 Personal Field Notes**

In addition to using the interview, document analysis and observations, the researcher used personal field notes (Bailey, 2007; Lofland & Lofland, 1984) in the data collection process. Field notes are meant to augment the other data collection instruments. For example, while carrying out the study, the researcher used field notes concurrently with the rest of the data collection procedures. As a result, the researcher noted some important aspects that may not necessarily be captured by the voice recording gadgets (Lofland & Lofland, 1984). In addition, the field notes were used by the researcher at a later date, thus acting as a storage tool or a repository (Bailey, 2007).

Lofland and Lofland (1984) posited many ways of writing field notes, and using reflexive thoughts is one type. In this study, the researcher used reflexive thoughts as it is close to personal feelings. Reflexive thoughts are usually written down after each interview session is complete, hence, reflexive thoughts. The researcher wrote the reflexive thoughts in the evening for interviews conducted in the morning the same day and wrote down those thoughts the following morning for those interviews conducted the previous evening (Bailey, 2007).

### **3.10.4 Focus group discussions**

A focus group discussion involves gathering people from similar backgrounds or experiences to discuss a specific topic of interest (Nyumba, 2018). It is a form of

qualitative research where questions are asked about their perceptions, attitudes, beliefs, opinion or ideas. The focus group codes are as in table 3.3

**Table 3.3: Focus Group Participant Codes**

<b>Focus group discussion</b>	<b>Sample size</b>	<b>Participant Code</b>
Focus group Discussion 1- FGD1	13	P1, P2.....P13
Focus group Discussion 2-FGD2	12	P1, P2,.....P12
<b>Total</b>	<b>25</b>	

Two focus group discussions (FGD1 and FGD2) were held in Nkoilale Centre within Mara Naboisho Conservancy. The participants of the focus group discussions were drawn from the local community and comprised 13 female and 12 male participants, respectively. Regarding the Maasai culture where women are not allowed to sit amongst men, the FGD 1 comprised of female participants while FGD2 comprised of male participants. In this case, the majority of the participants were female (13), while the rest were male (12).

Participants are free to talk with other group members; unlike other research methods, it encourages discussions with other participants. Focus group interviews were used to ascertain whether the same information obtained from the individual participants came out the same way in a group discussion.

The code for each participant in each focus group discussion (FGD1 and FGD2) were P1, P2..... P12, P13. The focus group discussion was used to measure and compare the degree of accuracy and truthfulness of the data obtained from the individuals in the study area (Bailey, 2007; Seidman, 2013). Krueger (1998, 2006) suggests that a focus group interview has many advantages: high face validity, flexibility, speedy results, and low costs. Babbie (2010) posits that focus groups illustrate the ability to

carry out face-to-face interviews. The Focus group aimed to obtain data on the contribution of tourism to the host community livelihoods at the Mara Naboisho conservancy in terms of human capital, financial capital, physical capital and social capital.

The study held two focus group discussions of thirteen and twelve respondents, respectively, who were drawn from the host community as a mix of all who had participated in the interview and those who had not been selected by the use of the snow ball selection method. The focus group discussions were held in two separate meetings giving an equal opportunity for the participants to provide their views on the contribution of tourism to the host community livelihoods at the Mara Naboisho conservancy. The information provided was presented thematically in line with the objectives of the study.

### **3.10.5 Validity and Reliability**

Validity refers to the accuracy or correctness of the findings (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003). Reliability refers to consistency with which the research produced the same results if repeated (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003). This research's validity and reliability was checked by a technique known as respondent validation (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003). This technique involved testing initial results with participants to see if they still ring true.

Again, the items on interview schedules and document analysis were subjected to expert judgments (supervisors) to ascertain whether the question items in the tools would achieve the research objectives. Reliability denotes the uniformity that an instrument establishes when applied repeatedly under comparable conditions (Orodho, 2009). It is, therefore, the degree of consistency or whether it can be relied

upon to produce the same results when used in two or more attempts to measure theoretical concepts. Although the research has been interpreted and condensed, participants still recognized the results as authentic and, at this stage, may even be able to refine the researcher's understanding. A critical look at the instruments by the experts (supervisors) looked at the items if it was able to capture all the study's objectives was done to promote validity and reliability. When responses become more consistent across more significant numbers of samples, the instrument was deemed reliable.

### **3.11 Data Analysis Techniques**

Data analysis involved the derivation of explanations and interpretations of the findings based on descriptions (Bailey, 2007). In qualitative research, the use of inferences is essential. The researcher had to constantly search the data for comparisons to check for emerging concepts and move back and forth to establish a relationship between them and the research questions (Basit, 2003). The researcher analyzed, interpreted and synthesized data to develop a final product out of the entire study by examining all data and materials collected using different methods such as interviews and personal observations.

#### **3.11.1 Thematic Analysis**

In this study, data analysis began with data collection from the field to the last stage of data analysis. There are two types of coding – open and focused coding (Richards & Morse, 2012; Babbie, 2010). Open coding involves opening up and examining large texts of data into small and manageable usable piles of data for use later (Hesse – Biber & Leavy, 2006; Richards & Morse, 2012). Focused coding (Bailey 2007; Richards & Morse, 2012; Babbie, 2010) is the second stage in the manual coding of data – which allow the researcher to look for specific targets inside the data set and

begin to establish or develop emerging concepts/themes from the textual data. The researcher constantly interacted and examined the data set to search for patterns from responses and differentiate the dimensions/livelihood assets (Richards & Mose, 2012). In addition, the researcher used cross-referencing to see whether the research questions were being responded to (Bailey, 2007).

This focused coding entails looking at a data set severally to create more general or broader categories drawing together the complex immediate messages of the text into more abstract topics or groups (Richards & Morse, 2012). Further, it aims at categorizing data to explore and give an accurate account of what is happening (Bailey, 2007). The formation of categories/themes permits thick descriptions or enables surprising patterns and may transform complex yet rich data set into a story that is sensible and easy to narrate (Richard & Morse, 2012).

Focused coding was used to identify important general and core concepts in the study (Babbie, 2010) since the process was data-driven (Braun & Clarke, 2006), and the themes developed had a strong relation and linkage with the data itself (Patton, 1990). Therefore, the study employed the process of data analysis for theme development as described by Braun and Clarke (2006). The specific steps for theme development used in this study are obtained from Braun & Clarke (2006), as shown below in Table 3.4.

**Table 3.4 Steps in theme development****Table of Steps in themes development (Braun & Clarke, 2006)**

<b>Phase</b>	<b>Description of Process</b>
1. Familiarization with the data	Transcribing, reading and re-reading and noting initial ideas using initial coding
2. Generation of the focused codes	Producing focused areas from the data manually by hunting for specific targets relevant to the research questions, from the initial piles of codes identified, and writing notes for each person interviewed using a highlighter
3. Search for themes	Sorting the focused areas already identified into potential themes by identifying possible relationships between them
4. Review of themes	Refining the initial themes by ensuring a relationship to the objectives. This step could lead to either merging or splitting of themes.
5. Defining and naming of themes	Generating clear names and definitions of the themes to be used to tell the story
6. Discussion and presentation	The themes were discussed in line with the objectives of the study

The study identified themes that were related to the objectives of the study. This referred to the issues and constructs in a precise manner about Human capital, social capital, financial and physical capital contributions associated with tourism on the host community of MNC. During the interview, participants were allocated random codes according to the order of participation. For example, the first participant was assigned the code P1, the second P2 the third P3, etc. This enabled the participants to express their individual views without modifications to identify the accurate picture of what was entailed in the purpose and objectives of the study.



### **3.12 Ethical Considerations**

Hesse-Biber and Leavey (2007) note that participants in research must be versed with ethical requirements to safeguard information obtained from their respondents. Research involves the collection of information from individuals and about individuals (Punch, 2005). Therefore, investigators are required to guarantee research participants on privacy and confidentiality issues, development of mutual trust, enhancement of truthfulness in research, protection from misbehaviour including indecency, which might be replicated, and cope with emerging challenges associated with research (Israel, Mark & Iain 2006). The research adhered to the following ethical issues: Before the study began, the researcher obtained the relevant and requisite research permits from the concerned government agencies. The researcher applied and received a research permit from the National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation (NACOSTI) as required by law: The Science, Technology and Innovation Act 2013. After securing the research necessary permits, the study then considered several ethical considerations before, during and after the study as stated below: First, before the interviews, the researcher secured consent from the participants. Secondly, the researcher ensured that the purpose of the study was clear to the participants and that their participation was voluntary and that they were at liberty to terminate the interview process at any given time. Thirdly, the researcher ensured confidentiality and anonymity of the respondents from the host community in Mara Naboisho Conservancy. Fourthly, the researcher also took caution not to cause harm to the host community of Mara Naboisho Conservancy. Finally, the researcher was keen to maintain objectivity during data collection and reporting of the findings, so the study was only used for the intended purpose.

## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **DATA ANALYSIS, PRESENTATION AND INTERPRETATION**

#### **4.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents and analyses the findings from the study. This study aimed to examine the contribution of tourism to the host community livelihoods at the Mara Naboisho conservancy. Accordingly, the first section provides demographic data; section two presents the contribution of tourism to the host community's human capital at Mara Naboisho Conservancy; section three provides the contribution of tourism to the host community's financial capital at Mara Naboisho Conservancy; section four presents the contribution of tourism to the host community's physical capital at Mara Naboisho Conservancy and section five deals with the contribution of tourism to the host community's social capital. Data was drawn from several interviews, focus group discussion, observation and document analysis.

The interviews were conducted to obtain views from the community around Mara Naboisho Conservancy, Narok County Government Tourism officers, (MNC) Conservancy Managers and the area chief with his assistant regarding the influence of tourism on the community livelihoods. The interviews were conducted individually, and focus group interviews consisted of mainly from the community setup around Mara Naboisho Conservancy. This was the most comprehensive and summarized version on the contribution of tourism to the host community livelihoods at the Mara Naboisho conservancy. For clarity the researcher was able to read through all the questions and interpreted in the language best understood by the respondents.

After good communication on the purpose and objectives of the study, the respondents were friendly, and they were able to respond well to the questions

requested from them relating to the purpose and objectives of the study. Several guiding questions were asked to bring out the objectives. Data from this study was analyzed using a thematic approach to allow for comprehensive reporting of qualitative data from the responses in line with the purpose and objectives of the study.

#### **4.2 Demographic Data**

In the study, the majority of the participants ranged between the ages of 26-55 years and were mostly household heads and family representatives. The study also sought to establish how long the participants lived around Mara Naboisho Conservancy and established that most participants had lived as long as their lifetime. This showed that they were conversant with the information the study sought on the impact of tourism on community livelihoods. The majority of participants were Maasai communities whose main economic activity is cattle rearing in group ranches. However, the community is also engaged in other economic activities which enable them to earn a living. Mara Naboisho Conservancy has provided numerous opportunities for the community to make a living.

#### **4.3 Tourism in Narok County**

Being part of this study, it was important to establish the current state of tourism in Narok County. Narok County is one of the top tourism counties in Kenya. The county is home to the Maasai Mara National Reserve, an economic jewel that has been dubbed the '8<sup>th</sup> Wonder of the World due to its magnificent wildebeest migration (KTB, 2017). The County has a total population of 850, 920. The total surface area is 17, 933 km<sup>2</sup> and a density of 47 people per km<sup>2</sup>. The county has a poverty rate of about 33.8% based on the Kenya Integrated Household Budget Survey (KIHBS) (KNBS, 2009; CRA, 2011). Past studies such as Talbot and Olindo (2000) suggests

that the former Narok County Council received all revenue from Maasai Mara gate entrance fees and a percentage of hotel revenues, an estimated amount of over 1 million Kenya shillings per month in revenue streams. The former Narok County Council was 90% funded by the Maasai Mara National Reserve (Berger, 2003) as compared to Amboseli National Park (Kajiado) that shares 25% of all gate fees with surrounding Group Ranches (Western, 2007).

The Kajiado County Council was 70% funded by Amboseli before it was made into a National Park (Western, 2007). The sharing of revenue with neighboring host communities is very vital in securing their support for wildlife conservation. However, the revenue sharing arrangements by the then Narok county council was characterized by corruption and lack of transparency by the Council, a situation which brought about chaos and unending conflicts (Kahindi, 2003; Talbot & Olindo, 2003; Western, 2007). Therefore, this literature points out another dimension of tourism where revenue is collected by the local county government institutions, but little if any, gets to the host community, the intended beneficiaries. However, since the Narok County government took over power from the former defunct Narok County Council, the scenario changed. Appropriate policy and laws have been instituted to ensure that all the entry fees and other relevant monies are collected and remitted to a consolidated account for transparent use and accountability purposes (KTB, 2017).

The Narok County government enacted a finance Act of 2016, which harmonized all matters pertaining to taxes, revenues and incomes for the County, tightened all loopholes that previously existed in order to enhance transparency and accountability in both the collection and expenditure of all government finances. As earlier indicated in literature review, the formal wildlife conservation in Kenya began with the arrival

of the British colonialists around 1895. This was brought through pioneer wildlife conservation and management plans imported into Kenya by the British colonialists (Kinyua, 2013). However, wildlife was rapidly lost through game hunting. Consequently, hunting without a license became illegal shortly after the turn of the century and was only permitted through a hunting license (Berger, 1993).

However, the implementation of the conservation rules created by the Society for the Preservation of the Fauna for the Empire based in Britain was constrained by limited funds (Berger, 1993). In 1938 a committee, the Game Policy Committee was established to make recommendations on the establishment of National Parks. Following the committee's recommendations, the government in 1945 passed the National Parks Ordinance of 1945. The ordinance formally introduced the national parks system of wildlife management in the country and led to the establishment of Nairobi National Park in 1946, Tsavo National Park in 1948 and others subsequently (Kinyua, 2013). National parks came under the authority of the National Park Service, with mostly European game wardens and external funding, mostly from world conservation agencies such as the World Wildlife Fund (WWF), International Union for the Conservation of Nature (IUCN), among others (Cheeseman, 2004). In between 1945 and 1960, most lands was protected and designated in areas deemed low in economic potential.

On the other hand, the National Reserves were established in areas where human activity could not be excluded and under the Forest Department's control. The Kenyan government created the Parks with little regard for local needs and the citizens reacted with anger and rage (Berger, 1993). With the perception that subsistence hunting was decimating wildlife, game patrols jailed Kenyans hunting without permits. Anti-poaching campaigns, for example, destroyed the Waliangulu people around Tsavo

National park who were dependent on elephant hunting. At one time, about one-third of the adult male Waliungulu were sent to prison for poaching.

Early conservation policies saw Maasai as somewhat compatible with wildlife, not excluded from game reserves but removed from national parks. The prevailing attitude was one of separation between people and wildlife (Cheeseman, 2004). With independence, the new government's strong aspirations for growth began a period of 'utilization without management' (Berger, 1993). Few facilities or funds were available for monitoring wildlife and ecosystem contributions or for development and maintenance of park facilities. Attitudes of the new regime were in strong contrast to British values for wildlife, introducing utilization as part of conservation management (KWS, 1994, 1997). Because hunting safaris and increasing wildlife tourism were such significant earners of foreign exchange, the economic value of game was perceived early on by the state.

The Wildlife Act of 1976, governing the now-unified National Park Service and Game Department, proposed that landowners supporting wildlife should receive sufficient remuneration to enable sustainable wildlife utilization. Compensation for loss of life and damages to property began with the Wildlife at the landscape level with multiple use zones and accounting for local needs (KWS, 1977). Unfortunately, political and administrative problems failed to implement rural development of wildlife utilization. The 1960s and 1970s saw an increase in interest in using wildlife for commercial production to feed demands of Kenya's 4% annual population growth rate. A pilot project from 1971 - 77 failed to develop economically viable cropping techniques, and was halted in light of decreasing wildlife populations as agricultural development consumed habitat and poaching pressures became severe (KWS, 1980; Berger, 1993).

Past studies posited that wildlife conservation have evolved since 70's and subsequently, the Wildlife Conservation and Management Act, (2013) was enacted after numerous revisions of the existing law and efforts employed by KWS, jointly with community-based organizations and non-governmental organizations bore fruit. This new wildlife law provides for restructured governance of wildlife resources by separating the regulation and management functions from those of research. Furthermore, the new law has also established new structures at the County level in accordance with the Constitution of Kenya 2010 (WWF, 2014).

The new Act clearly spells out the role of KWS and host communities as the primary stakeholders of wildlife conservation both within and outside protected areas (KWS, 2012b; KWS, 2014), as well as, the contribution sharing mechanisms and handling of the challenges such as human – wildlife conflict among others (KWS, 2012b; Western *et al.*, 2015). Currently, Kenya boasts of many National Parks, National Reserves and three Game Sanctuaries (KWS, 2013), where a total of 3,504,000 (6.0%) of Kenya's land area is under protection (WRI, 1996). While this land area is significant and parks are far better protected than in most developing countries, an estimated 80% of Kenya's wildlife requires area outside the parks for dispersal and migration (Western, 1969). In addition, in order to obtain host communities' support for wildlife conservation, an array of measures and remedial strategies were legalized such as compensation for damage to crops, loss of livestock, human injury and loss of human life (KWS, 2014; Gadd, 2005). However, all these programs have great potential but are continuously hampered by the lack of capacity, accountability and transparency problems (Cheeseman, 2004).

#### **4.4 Establishment of Community Wildlife Conservancies in Narok County**

In a close interaction with Mara Naboisho Management regarding the state of conservation, indicated that the struggle between the host communities, especially those living adjacent to protected areas such as the Maasai Mara National Reserve (MMNR) and the KWS authorities had centered on lack of involvement and contributions. Further, human – wildlife conflict complicated matters where either compensation is not offered or it came ‘too little too late’ (Western *et al.*, 2015; Akama & Kieti, 2003). Other studies have advocated that wildlife conservation cannot and will not thrive, let alone survive without the critical host community support (Karanja, 2003; Koikai, 1992).

Narok County has 18 conservancies but only 13 are well established. By visiting Mara Conservancies, tourists are contributing in protecting the cultural heritage of the local Maasai and improving their access to vital services. A large part of the conservancy fee is channeled back into the community, making the conservancies more sustainable. The conservancies cover an area of 336,191 acres belonging to 13,236 land owners who receive a monthly land lease payment paid by 39 of the 60 camps and lodges in the conservancies. The conservancies in Mara include: Enonkishu Conservancy, Mara Naboisho Conservancy, Mara North Conservancy, Olare Motorogi Conservancy, Ol Kinyei Conservancy, Pardamat Conservation Area, Lemek, Olderkesi, Nashulai, Oloisukut, Siana, Olarro North and South and Olchorro Oirowua (Maasai Mara Wildlife Conservancies Association, (MMWCA).

The establishment of Maasai Mara Wildlife Conservancies Association (MMWCA) in 2013 was a great milestone in wildlife conservancies and management in the Mara region (MMWCA, 2013).



In the past, conservancies were fragmented in both setting and actual management and all that changed when this umbrella body was formed. The main focus of the umbrella body is to take care of the general welfare of members that includes advocating for changes in both policy and legislative frameworks on matters dealing with wildlife conservation on community land (Western *et al.*, 2015; Thompson, 2002; Thompson & Homewood, 2002). Mara Naboisho Conservancy is one of the members of MMWCA (MMWCA, 2014).

In 2014, a national umbrella body, Kenya Wildlife Conservation Association (KWCA), was formed. The body works with landowners and communities to sustainably conserve and manage wildlife and their habitat outside formal protected areas for the benefit of the people of Kenya (KWS, 2014; KWCA, 2014; KWCA, 2020). KWCA serves both private and communal conservancies and now boasts of a membership of 160 conservancies in its few years of existence (KWCA, 2020).

#### **4.5 Tourism in the Mara Naboisho Conservancy**

The purpose of this study was to examine the contribution of tourism to the livelihoods of the host community at the Mara Naboisho conservancy. Being part of the study, the researcher sought more background information about the study area and how it has influenced livelihoods. The local communities' perceptions of the cost and benefits of tourism is the major factor in tourist satisfaction and are important for the success of the tourism industry (Andriotis & Vaughan, 2003). The Mara Naboisho Conservancy is the second largest of the Mara conservancies with 596 land owners (MNC Management Plan, 2018). The community-owned conservancy was named Naboisho – after the maasai expression of ‘coming together’. The name symbolizes how the Maasai community came together in a time of need and was chosen by the Maasai community.

Mara Naboisho Conservancy is a 50,000-acre wildlife conservation area in Kenya's Greater Mara Region. It borders the Masai Mara National Reserve to the south west, the Olare Orok Conservancy to the west and the Ol Kinyei Conservancy to the east. The Mara Naboisho Conservancy is now the second largest conservancy in the region and has a higher density of wildlife than the adjacent Masai Mara National Park. Naboisho, which means "coming together" in the Maasai's Maa language, is a community venture to conserve the land and wildlife. In conjunction with input from seasoned conservationists, experienced socio-ecologists and tourism investors, the conservancy was created with the objective of combining conservation of nature and cultural heritage with controlled tourism and the enhancement of livelihoods for the local communities (MNC, 2019).

Further, the Mara Naboisho Conservancy in Kenya is home to the big cats - in impressive numbers - and herds of elephant, giraffe, and wildebeest. Rare species such as Aardvark, Caracal, Serval cat, Aardwolf, and Ratel are occasionally found (MNC, 2019). Naboisho is a bird watcher's paradise with several bird species rarely seen elsewhere in the Mara such as White-Headed Buffalo-Weavers, Northern White-Crowned Shrike, Pigmy Falcon, Von Der Deckens Hornbills, Bush Pipits. Unlike its neighbour, the Masai Mara National Reserve, this private conservancy strictly monitors the number of tourists who enter the area, reducing the number of vehicles and the human impact on the environment and wildlife. While the charm of the Mara Naboisho Conservancy is its exclusivity, the philosophy of the conservancy is refreshingly inclusive. The conservancy was established not only to conserve the environment and wildlife, but also to protect and empower the local Maasai community.

Naboisho Conservancy, (2019) The 50,000-acre conservancy is made up of land contributions from 596 Maasai landowners and by visiting the Mara Naboisho Conservancy, tourists play part in protecting the cultural heritage of the local Maasai and improving their access to vital services. At Mara Naboisho, part of the conservancy fee is channeled back into the community, making the project more sustainable.

In addition to this, there are also a number of community empowerment projects run by the Basecamp Foundation Kenya which is a non-profit organisation. These projects - which include training locals to become guides, supporting local schools, improving access to healthcare and clean water, and empowering women - help to strengthen and uplift the community. (MNC, 2019). According to the minutes of Mara Naboisho Conservancy Management of 2017, a parcel of land was identified in western boarder for the purpose of building a dam to draw water for use by the local communities and serve more than 20,000 cattle was one of the projects which would benefit the community. This means that the conservancy was doing everything possible to promote social corporate responsibility and enable the community enjoy the benefits of being close to the National Heritage.

In 2011, Basecamp committed to developing the Mara Naboisho Community Conservancy (MNCC, 2019). This is a land-management project that empowers local Maasai landowners to manage and conserve their land for long-term wildlife and ecosystem protection. This ensures green tourism development, provides Maasai landowners with sustainable income, and strengthens the Maasai Mara community. Basecamp works with 596 landowners to create a management company that conserves wildlife on 50,000 acres of prime land that can be leased to green tourism operators.

This commitment was projected to provide 800 jobs to Maasai, help ensure sustainable tourism development in the area (150 tourist beds), and provide community services through the development of five green villages with clean water, renewable energy, healthcare, and education to the Maasai communities. Basecamp also committed to training 20 women as solar engineers and link the community towards benefiting from Mara Naboisho Conservancy and building their livelihoods.

Five tourism partners, including Basecamp, would pay a set land lease fee every month. The tourism operators were carefully selected based on their commitment to natural resource management and community development. The establishment of a community-owned nature conservancy bordering the Maasai Mara National Reserve would additionally help protect an area vital for the survival of the entire Mara ecosystem. Both the grass eaters and the carnivores of the Mara are dependent on vast grazing grounds and hunting territory to survive, and the government managed national reserve is not large enough to sustain the ecosystem by itself. Basecamp recognized this need for private engagement and sought to create a model for conservation worldwide (MNC, 2019).

After years of relentless commitment and unfaltering patience, Basecamp finally succeeded in convincing the Maasai landowners to sign a 15-year lease agreement, a time frame superseding any similar lease agreement in the Mara region. The community-owned conservancy was named Naboisho after the maa expression of ‘coming together’. The name symbolizes how the Maasai community came together in a time of need and was chosen by the Maasai community. Besides contributing to sustaining the biodiversity of the Mara region, Naboisho generates a monthly income benefitting more than 10,000 individuals.

Every month the landowners receive a set land lease fee, creating economic stability never previously experienced by most beneficiaries. Besides transforming the economic situation for thousands of people, Basecamp has instigated several community projects to improve the living conditions for the communities neighboring Naboisho. An additional positive effect results from the employment deriving from the construction of eight tourism camps inside Naboisho. Basecamp sets the benchmark for the other tourism operators by having about 95% of local employees, including many women. Naboisho Conservancy is home to the Koiyaki Guiding School (KGS), an award-winning educational institution established in 2006 (Field data, 2019). KGS trains local youth to become safari guides, necessary in an area drastically lacking job opportunities.

Basecamp works closely with KGS, located near Eagle View Camp. Every year, Basecamp has sponsored more than 500 promising students from 2010, in most cases young women, to complete the one-year course. The positive impact of Naboisho on the people and wildlife is clearly illustrated by the increasing population of such vulnerable species like cheetah, wild dog and lion, as well as the improved living conditions in the neighboring Maasai communities. However, since the monthly land lease fee is covered by revenue from tourism, Naboisho is completely dependent on guests to be able to survive. Hence, by visiting Naboisho guests are making an essential contribution to the future existence of Naboisho – to the immeasurable importance for wildlife and people alike (Field Data,2019).Within Naboisho Conservancy, guests are allowed to participate in certain activities not permitted elsewhere, including walking safaris, night game drives and bush dinner. The tourism partners have agreed on certain codes of conduct to enhance the safari experience. This includes restrictions on the number of vehicles permitted at a time.

There are few other places in the world where you will experience a safari as exclusive as in Naboisho. The absence of vehicles creates the outmost safari experience – expertly guided by the knowledgeable Maasai guides ((Field Data, 2019).) Basecamp operates four exclusive camps within Naboisho, which offer complimentary, yet equally delightful experiences. The camps are: Wilderness Camp, Eagle View, Leopard Hill and Dorobo Mobile Camps ((Field Data, 2019).

#### **4.6 Contributions of Tourism to the Host Community Livelihoods**

In this section the research presents and compares the contributions of tourism to the community livelihoods at the Mara Naboisho Conservancy.

##### **4.6.1 Contribution to Human Capital**

The first objective of this study was to establish the contribution of tourism to the human capital of the host community at Mara Naboisho Conservancy Kenya. Human capital was operationalized as the knowledge, skills, abilities, and experience of individuals that are inherent and acquired during life. One of the questions asked was whether the community had been employed around the conservancy. Results showed that some of the community members had previously been employed and some are currently employed by the Mara Naboisho Conservancy. Those employed worked in tourist tented camps, lodges and eco lodges as tour guides, hotels stewards, waiters/waitresses, security men and rangers/scouts.

This finding was supported by conservancy managers who reported that about 90% (250 staff members) of the conservancy employees were from the local community who were employed as tour guides, cleaners, security guards, chefs, house keepers, camp managers, guides, drivers, waiters, security guards, room stewards and gardeners.

This implied that the community around Mara Naoboisho Conservancy felt a positive impact of the tourism which has been a great support of livelihood within their locality. The goal of every society is for the community to have a sense of dignity to access basic human needs that will improve their livelihoods. The responsibility of political leadership therefore is to ensure that policies with regards to the protection of livelihoods is enhanced for the development goals to be achieved.

The contribution of tourism resources to human capital in terms of employment has also been established elsewhere. Research by Manoj (2013), Noori & Zand (2012), Singh *et al.*, (2013), Balan & Burghilea (2011) also established that the presence of tourist destinations in a region has a positive impact on Human capital development especially related to the employment, knowledge, skills, abilities, and experience. On his part, Wamukoya, (2013) also noted that the most direct benefits to conservancy members is employment in positions that have been created for purposes of managing the conservancy. These positions include conservancy managers, community rangers and workers in tourist facilities and are mostly created for the local youths (Wamukoya, 2013).

In his investigations on the contribution of tourism to local community development within the Shakaland Zulu Cultural Village, Sithole (2017) also noted that tourism has also created employment for the local community. Categories of employment such as cultural dancers, cultural chief, cultural manager, as well as food and beverage manager were established (Sithole, 2017).

The findings are also consistent with that of Sebele (2010: 140) who affirms that community-based tourism at Khama Rhino Sanctuary Trust in Botswana has become a highly significant source of employment for local communities, with the sanctuary

employing locals in a variety of jobs ranging from cleaners, drivers and tour guides. Manoj (2013) further, noted that the development of a region into a new destination in the form of tourist villages can increase the income of local people because of the inherent employment opportunities. This certainly must be maintained by the local community by providing the best service to tourists (Manda, 2010). In addition to providing a positive impact in the form of employment, the local community together with the local government must be able to maintain negative impacts, especially related to environmental and cultural preservation in the area.

Interviews with the Tourism Officers from Narok County Government found out that the conservancy had provided employment opportunities for the local community as Participant (TO1) said;

*“The entire department of tourism in Narok County has employed over 600 employees across the county and Mara Naboisho Conservancy alone constituted a third of the employees in the department of Tourism in the County of Narok”*

This statement suggested that Mara Naboisho Conservancy has valued the services and skills of the local community and therefore put into consideration their role of protecting the conservancy and were rewarded in order to improve their livelihoods. This implies that the community have been granted an opportunity to benefit from the tourism around the conservancy and has promoted human resource capacity.

Human resource capacity, translates to a significant milestone in relation to the employment opportunities and development of industrial skills to the community. ILO, (2010) noted that tourism is extremely labour intensive and a significant source of employment. It is among the world’s top creators of jobs requiring varying degrees of skills and allows for quick entry into the workforce for youth, women and senior workers (ILO, 2010). In some countries, the contribution of tourism for employment



is indispensable. For instance, India is the second largest employment generator in the field of tourism with almost 25 million jobs (WTTC 2014).

Further, an Interview with the area chief, found that the conservancy has done a great job in empowering the community through training, capacity building and provision of employment opportunities. The area chief (AC1) said;

*“Over 100 members of the community were employed on temporary and contract basis as tour guides, cleaners, security guards, chefs, house keepers and lodge attendants.*

This statement suggested that the community around Mara Naboisho Conservancy were appreciated and given opportunity to be able to benefit from the conservancy through their services. This is in agreement with the responses from the community members, Narok County Tourism Officers, Conservancy Managers and interviews from focus group discussions. This clearly demonstrates that tourism has not only contributed to the Kenyan economy but has been of great support to the local community livelihoods. This finding concurs with Esakki (2014) who concluded that globally, ‘Tourism industry’ has been considered as the second largest employer amongst other significant sectors hence contributing to economic growth.

The role of private investments in creation of employment opportunities to the community was also established. Interviews with the investors revealed that those who constructed buildings for rental enterprises engaged the community in building and construction and once the buildings were ready, local community members were employed in those enterprises as managers, caretakers and cleaners. One of the investors (T2) said;

*‘Businesses which opened in those buildings also employed several members of staff originating from the local community’*

This statement implied that Private investments therefore resulted to massive creation of employment opportunities to the community. This suggested that there is a

multiplier effect as a result of the presence of tourism in the conservancy. This is because tourism provided opportunity for the investors to start businesses which in turn benefited the community through accessibility of commodities for use as well as securing employment opportunities around the conservancy. Mitchell and Ashley (2010) and Spenceley (2008) noted that tourism has a multiplier effect on the livelihoods of local people through direct capital injection and job creation. Furthermore, tourism generates the multiplier effects by contributing to the development of other sectors, for example: accommodation, food, transportation, hospitality, construction, textiles, agriculture, fishery retail trade, and entertainment (Goeldner & Ritchie 2009, Gokovali 2010).

Further, interviews with the private investors on the employment of local communities in their enterprises revealed that majority of the employees in their establishment came from the local community. One of the investors (T3) Said;

*“About 90% (27) of the employees in his hotel came from the local community who worked as hotel supervisors, receptionists, chefs, security, and room stewards”.*

From this statement, it was noted that majority of the population who benefited in terms of employment opportunities as a result of establishment of Mara Naboisho conservancy are the residents and the local community. This finding is supported by Turner and Sears (2014) who stated that the travel and tourism sector is a leading creator of employment throughout the world, directly employing more than 98 million people (by 2013) and representing around 3% of total world employment, and indirectly creating one out of every eleven jobs. WTTC (2014) estimates that the tourism sector created over 266 million jobs in 2013.

Throughout the world, Tourism is often perceived as being a particularly good employment generator, i.e. high employment multipliers. This is particularly the case when the tourism sector has strong backward linkages into the rest of the economy. However, even where backward linkages are weak tourism can still become a main provider of employment. For example, direct and indirect employment through the tourism sector is thought to account for 50% of all employment in the Virgin Islands, 37% of all employment in Jamaica and 35% of all employment in the Bahamas (Karagiannis 2004). On the other hand, tourism has often been criticized because the kinds of jobs it tends to create are not 'real' jobs. Indeed, many commentators have noted that tourism employment tends to be concentrated in low-skilled occupations. Related to the low-skilled nature of jobs in tourism, tourism employment also tends to pay relatively low wages and to provide only part-time or seasonal job opportunities.

Moreover, the tourism industry has also been criticized for only offering menial jobs to local people while importing expatriates to work at management level - and thus contributing to leakages (Meyer, 2006). Elsewhere, Akama and Kieti (2007) pointed out that Kenya's tourism industry is largely characterized by external control and management of tourism establishments with limited local involvement and high leakages; therefore, the industry does not play an effective role in local socio-economic development.

Therefore, the local communities often become losers given the power, financial, experience, capacity and resource differentials between multinational operators and local communities (Juma & Khademi, 2019).

The seasonality of tourism employment is especially marked in some destination economies. For example, the Portuguese resort of Faro experiences nearly a 30%

increase in employment during the summer months. In the case of Mara Naboisho Conservancy, managers cited of increased number of international tourists from months of July to October while the local tourist visit is at its peak during school calendar holidays such as April, August, November to December where Participant (TM1) Said;

*“In the months July to October we receive a good number of international tourists while the local tourist visits during school holidays such as from April, August, November and December”.*

As earlier discussed, there is a relationship with this statement which suggested that there is a multitier effect as a result of the community around Mara Naboisho Conservancy and the community benefit in terms of a wide range opportunities arising from the increase in tourism activities in the peak seasons. Many authors argue that the multiplier effects of tourism in developing countries are often considerably less than expected, and that the international orientation and organisation of mass tourism requires high investment costs and leads to a high dependency on foreign capital, skills, and management personnel (Bryden2003; Muller 1984; Oestreich 2007; Pavaskar 1982; Oppermann & Chon 2007). Based on multiplier calculations it is thus often suggested that tourism is not necessarily a powerful regional development agent in developing countries (Oppermann & Chon 2007).

From the responses it was found out that besides creation of employment opportunities, tourism can also contribute to building capacity of the local communities. The role that a tourism enterprise can adopt in providing training, education and capacity building can be grouped into the following four categories: in-house training 'in-house responsibilities, buildup of new capacity - tourism related education in secondary, tertiary and higher education, general education - support to

schools, tourism awareness raising among the population and supplier support (e.g., business training) (Field data, 2019).

The results also indicated that the MNC has been building capacity of skills knowledge and expertise of their staff members by offering on the job training programs to improve their job performance. The participants also said that students have been going for industrial attachment which equipped them with skills in preparation for future job requirements. The findings from this study also revealed that those who graduated from colleges have had an opportunity to be employed on internship for a while before going for permanent employment opportunities. One of the participants (P2) said;

*“I worked as a chef at Mara Naboisho lodges and I used the skills that I gained to open my own business. Mara Naboisho has been a great transformation to me. Some of my friends we worked together have been employed in bigger enterprises after gaining a wealth of experience from Mara Naboisho Conservancy”.*

This statement clearly demonstrates that Mara Naboisho Conservancy has enhanced capacity building and the benefits have been tremendous and demonstrated how tourism contributed to human capital in the local community around Mara Naboisho Conservancy.

This finding is supported by Biagi *et al.*, (2017) who postulated that tourism has a great effect on human capital development. They further suggested that the current low level of human capital development in Africa can be improved through tourism development.

Results from the Focus Group Discussion (FGD1), also showed that initiatives such as community-based projects which is supported by the MNC has contributed to human capital in terms of education, health, skill development and employment.

Participant P9 said;

*‘The conservancy has been financing student bursaries as a fulfilment of the stipulated Community Investment Plan which enables children from less fortunate families access support from the bursary’s kitty set aside by the conservancy’.*

From this statement it implied that charitable foundations and tourism operators raise funds to establish the conservancies and undertake social community projects like awarding bursaries to students. Through initiatives of the lodges/camps and Trusts established by the conservancies, there has been a significant increase in charitable projects such as schools, health clinics, training, social enterprise and water provision for the local communities, as well as the related local employment and skill development. (MNC, 2016). Moreover, participants reported that the conservancy has supported schools around through building of classrooms for example in on interviewing, one of the participant (HC4) said

*“Olesere Primary School and in Ololomeei Primary School was built as one of the corporate social responsibility tasks exeuted by the Mara Naboisho Conservancy managemet”*

It also emerged from Focused group discussions that there are approximately 150 pupils who are benefitting through scholarship programmes amounting to about kshs 250,000 from the individual tourists who have visited the conservancy in the past.

The scholarship was meant to cover for students tution fees and accomodation in secondary schools. Some of the pupils were also offered scolasrhips opputiunities for bright students to study abroad. This means that tourists not only visit Mara Naboisho to enjoy tourism products offered but have also developed passion to improve the livelihoods of the community throught gifts of surport and scholarships to the needy students.

Additionally, the conservancy has sponsored workshops for knowledge exchange with other conservancies believed to be more advanced in running some programmes such as rotational grazing. Committee members have also been sponsored for workshops to acquire knowledge and educate the broader community on the importance of these good practices. Over the years, however, businesses have also become involved in tertiary and higher education by actively supporting, designing and financing technical and degree courses in tourism management. This not only promises to provide an informed and capable workforce to business, enabling the industry to work hand-in-hand with the educational system, but also ideally ensures that there is a direct match between industry developments and capability of the workforce.

However, some of the respondents were interviewed, said that they have not employed a single member of the family around and therefore have not seen any benefits from the conservancy. For example, one of the participants HC3 said;

*“We have not had any of our family member employed on permanent or temporary basis in the conservancy”*

This suggested that not all the community has benefited from the conservancy in terms of human capital assets. This implied that despite of the benefits of the conservancy to the host community, a number of households have not benefited from it.

This was a justification that whereas the general perception is that tourism is a great opportunity for the local community thrive from it, level of poverty in most families is still high, a clear indication that not every individual from the community has benefit from the conservancy in terms of human capital.

Similarly, a study by Doxey, 1975; Uriely, Israeli, & Reichel, (2003), found out that instead of passively receiving impacts, communities and individuals generate a variety of responses, ranging from positive to negative. Local residents may perceive tourism as a positive opportunity to enhance their living standard and cultural identity (Perdue, 2015 & Wall, 2012, 2013). Alternatively, negative resident attitudes and perceptions toward tourism may also arise due to economic, socio-cultural and environmental costs (Perdue et al., 1990; Su & Wall, 2012, 2013). As communities are often heterogeneous, different sections of the community may be involved in tourism in different ways and to varying degrees, and they receive different impacts and a diversity of reactions may be generated (Andriotis & Vaughn, 2003; Mason & Cheyne, 2000; Nicholas, Thapa, & Ko, 2009). Despite the significance of their role in tourism, destination communities seldom have genuine control over the nature and direction of local tourism or associated planning and management practices (Su & Wall, 2012; Timothy & Boyd, 2003; Timothy & Tosun, 2003) in the hope that, in these ways, the potential negative impacts of tourism may be minimized with enhanced local benefits, and a higher tolerance for tourists and more satisfactory tourism development may be achieved.

On observation, it was noted that there several women who had been trained as engineers by Mara Naboisho conservancy as one of the conservancy's corporate social responsibility. It was further noted that some of them were trained on health care, renewable sources of energy, health care and education. Similar findings was found by various studies who reported developmental mental gains of tourism industry to the host community was linked with increase in job creation, income to households, revenue to the government, foreign exchange earnings in the host



community and the country at large (Sinclair, 1998; Christie, Fernandes, Messerli & Twining-Ward, 2013; Jordan, Havadi-Nagy & Marosi, 2016).

#### **4.6.2 Contribution to Financial Capital**

The second objective of this study was to establish the contribution of tourism to the financial capital of the host community at MNC, Kenya.

This is operationalization of financial capital was referred to as direct cash to the people at Mara Naboisho Conservancy. The results show that tourism has contributed considerably to financial capital of the local community. One of the questions explored was whether the conservancy had provided market for sale of products to the tourists. Most of the participants agreed that the conservancy provided an opportunity for the local community to sell products such as Beads, Maasai Shukas, ornaments, art work, livestock product such as milk meat and supply of food stuff to the lodges, etc.

For example, participant (HC3) added;

*“The supply of products and services to the conservancy has been our major source of income that sustains our family needs”*

This statement demonstrates that the community around Mara Naboisho conservancy provides a good opportunity for the people to be financially empowered through the supply of goods and offering services to the conservancy. This will eventually result in mutual benefits between the community and the conservancy. Also, the results show that cultural tours, community-based projects, sale of souvenirs, cultural entertainment and wildlife viewing significantly contributes to financial capital of the local community in Mara Naboisho Conservancy. This finding implies that the community has had a wide range of benefits from supplying their products to the tourists in return they earn cash to support their livelihoods. This finding concurs with

Mitchell and Ashley, (2010) who postulated that tourism offer efficient, effective and sustainable alternatives to income generating opportunities through employment, cash through supply of products and services to the Conservancy.

Ashley *et al.*, (2006) have also noted the support of tourism industry to the local economies. The authors observed that Sandal, which owns three hotels in St. Lucia, has a local produce purchasing policy since November 2002.

The arrangement has more than 50 local farmers and suppliers involved in supplying a weekly order, of whom 75% are women. The approach has included training for purchasing clerks and receivers, regular visits to farms by chefs and kitchen staff, and discussions with farmers/suppliers on issues of traceability (Ashley *et al.*, 2006). Further, almost all hotels in tourism “hot spots” in Kenya have contracted large, well established and distant establishments to supply them with agro-based products. This could be a good business opportunity to stimulate the local economy and contribute to diversification and improvement of local livelihoods. Introduction of local supplies chains is a double win for both the communities and the hotel, as the hotels benefits by getting fresh products, increases customer satisfaction, grants them a chance to empower local communities and even sometimes reduces operating costs, (Weru et Morgan, 2006).

During Focus group discussion (FGD2), participants reported that the conservancy contributes to financial capital through generation of employment for example P5 Said;

*“Two of my children have been absorbed by the Mara Naboisho Conservancy as Tour guide, while the other was employed as Security Guard and I am so grateful that the management gave us such an opportunity”*

This statement therefore indicated that the impact of Mara Naboisho conservancy has been able to generate money to the community in terms of employment. The other question asked was with regards to monetary gains from the sales. The participants said that from these small-scale sales, the average income ranged between Kshs. 10,000 to Kshs 20,000 per month.

Those who made large scale sales and supplies earned between Kshs 100,000 to Kshs 200,000 per month and from this income, they were able to sustain their livelihoods. This implies that the community had benefited from tourism around Mara Naboisho Conservancy. The community who an opportunity to access to business opportunities have become successful in their business endeavors and have been able to meet their basic needs and improve their livelihoods.

Further, Interviews with the Mara Naboisho Conservancy management , revealed that majority of the employees in the conservancy, ranging from tour guides to conservancy rangers are from the local community surrounding the conservancy. There are about 45 game rangers in the conservancy. Further, about 80 percent of the employees in the lodges in Naboisho conservancy are from the local community. At Mara Naboisho, Morans earn a living from the dances. From bead sales, women can buy about 150 goats or 20 cows per year. Around 120 women are members of the cultural manyatta, and due to this large number, each takes home around Ksh 210,000 per year from entry fees. These levels of income from the cultural manyatta can also be attributed to the limited number of guests visiting the Mara Naboisho Conservancy. Numerous challenges face the management of the cultural manyatta, including low literacy levels, low visitor numbers, uncertain market conditions and poor record-keeping. At Mara Naboisho Conservancy, the private investors provide

pasture and interbreeding for the community livestock during periods of drought.

Plate 1 shows Maasai Manyatta setup at Nkoilale Village.



**Plate 1: Masai Manyatta setup at Nkoilale Village**

Basecamp Foundation Kenya, in collaboration with the Maa Trust and with funding from the Stromme Foundation, is spearheading a campaign to mobilize women into micro-finance saving and investment groups. Direct cash flows through lease of their parcels of land. This is a guaranteed revenue that is payable monthly. There was also a question on whether the income earned as a result of tourism in Mara Naboisho Conservancy was able to sustain the needs of their families in terms of food, shelter and clothing. Some of the participants said that the earnings do not sustain their family needs while others agreed that since it's their main source of livelihoods, it has to a larger extent assisted in addressing the needs of their families. Consequently, sustainable tourism will generally not be an economic bonanza for an entire community given the needs of the community are varied and that they will need to depend on others areas for livelihood, but will simply generate some jobs for a portion of the community.

When the investors were interviewed, it was found that majority of them had invested in building hotels and business premises for rentals. These buildings and businesses have contributed towards financial development of the community and the county of Narok at large. Moreover, it was found that some of the investors had participated in corporate social responsibility by donating medical equipment for use in various dispensaries across the county of Narok. Based on the observation Checklist in relation to the availability of business in the area, it was noted that as a result of tourism in Mara Naboisho conservancy, businesses and development projects had been established in the area which has resulted to greater improvement of livelihoods in the community. This was indicated by the use of observation.

This finding agrees with McCarthy and Serju (2006) who indicated that 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 stabilization of the rural population. The rural tourism sector demands inputs such as food stuffs 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.

On the contrary, one of the participants HC7 said;

*“The income from the sale of products to the tourists at the conservancy is very little and does not meet our family needs”*

This phrase suggested that whereas some of the families can earn income which would sustain their families, some earn very little to meet family needs. Apparently, they will need to look for other sources of income so as to satisfy their family needs.

This implied that although general perception that the Masai community which has been assimilated to tourism have a huge share of financial capital as a result of tourism in Mara Naboisho Conservancy.

Secondly, according to the minutes of the Mara Naboisho Conservancy Annual Work Plan Review meeting held by the Board of Directors on February 2017, it was noted that the staff were underpaid and that there was a delay in salary payment. When the staff are underpaid and their salary is delayed, it will lower staff motivation to work and some will abandon their jobs because they see no benefit to continue working in the conservancy. Although these were issues which could be resolved through appropriate management strategies, the impression created from the study is that even if the conservancy provides financial capital to the community, low and delayed payment of staff is likely to create a negative perception of the community and question the actual benefit brought by the conservancy. Plate 2 shows elephants crossing a stream at the Mara Naboisho Conservancy.



**Plate 2: Elephants crossing a stream at the Mara Naboisho Conservancy**

**Source: Mara Naboisho Conservancy**

From observation it was noted that women engaged in ornament selling to the tourist which earned them a good income to support their families. It was also found out that there several tour cars transporting tourists to the conservancy were from the local community. This indicated that they there was income generated from the transportation. Thus shows that there is an opportunity for the local community to earn income through business around the conservancy. Similarly, the study by Lee (2008), Akinboade and Braimoh (2010), Belloumi (2010) and Tang and Ozturk (2017), which are single country analyses found out that tourism introduces business opportunities for the host communities. In addition, Biagi et al. (2017) extend the role of tourism to human development. The study covers 63 countries comprising of developed and developing countries over the period 2006 to 2018 and found that tourism development stimulates human development. Their results suggest that advancement in the tourism industry focused not only on economic growth and development but also the human capital of people in the average country

#### **4.6.3 Contribution to Physical Capital**

The third objective of this study was to establish the contribution of tourism to the physical capital of the host community at MNC. Physical capital was operationalized as the quality and availability of Buildings, Health infrastructure, Education infrastructure, Roads and Boreholes/water. The findings from the FGD1 discussions indicated that tourism has contributed to physical capital of the local community in Mara Naboisho Conservancy in a number of ways. Roads and Physical infrastructure have been improved in Narok as a result of tourism.

One of the participants in FGD1, P1 said;

*“In collaboration with the Narok county and the national government has invested in infrastructure such as roads, hotels and lodges so as to facilitate the flow of tourists and access to the*

*conservancy and improve the quality of services the tourist may need”*

The statement therefore implied that as a result of tourism, the conservancy management and the government oversight of the improvement of infrastructure in the MNC has contributed to the physical capital assets which has in turn benefited the host community. The construction of the tarmac road from Narok town towards Olalaimutiek among other roads were constructed to facilitate movement of tourists to Mara Naboisho Conservancy. As a result, the community has benefited by using the road to supply to their products to Narok Town. A study by Popesku, (2011) concluded that tourism infrastructure is the basis of tourism development, as well as a base for utilization of destination resources. The importance of tourism infrastructure is reflected in the fact that it can contribute to increasing the efficiency of production and distribution of tourism services, and, in some cases, such as remote destinations, even increase the supply of tourism services.

For tourists to be able to reach and consume tourism services and products in a destination, development of transport and infrastructure is a necessity. In particular, there is an increase in the demand for infrastructure services in terms of water supply, waste disposal, communication and electricity supply, as the necessary elements for comfortable functioning of tourists at the selected destination.

Infrastructure is defined as the provision of public safety, transportation services, medical systems, financial systems, education systems, and other services involved in the population's, as well as in tourists' demand (Ritchie, Crouch 2005). As a component of the regional tourism product, tourism infrastructure is of special importance for long-term tourism growth and the general progress of tourist destinations in providing the required services to tourists. In the process the



community will be the greatest beneficiaries as they will take advantage of expansion of roads and other infrastructure and that it can benefit them too in utilization.

An interview with the Camp Managers, revealed that that cultural tours, community-based projects, sale of souvenirs, cultural entertainments and wildlife viewing have contributed to physical capital. i.e., schools and health centers and upgrading of infrastructure.

Participant (CM1) said

*“When the Maasai community sell their products to the conservancy, it has been a good venture for them as it has earned them a living”.*

Further, the findings from the community members and the FGD discussions revealed that the lodge buildings and immovable belong to the communities. Moreover, the community facilitates the construction of camps for the group ranches and communication-related infrastructure, such as solar panels and radio communication equipment for health emergencies and security in the ecosystem.

One participant (HC2) who has witnessed the area transform argued:

*‘If you looked at Mara Naboisho ten years ago, there was no town, there was only one shop, and there were two buildings in that whole village. Currently, Mara Naboisho hosts multiple buildings, offices, a primary school and health centre, as well as lodges thanks to tourism in Mara Naboisho Conservancy’.*

This statement illustrates that Mara Naiboisho Conservancy has brought change both indirectly and directly. At Mara Naboisho, there has been drilling of boreholes, laying of water pipes, and maintenance and construction of dams, funded mainly by the county government and guest donations. The guest donations have also been in the form of water tanks for schools, the group ranch offices and a dispensary for rainwater harvesting. At Mara Naboisho Conservancy, the money received is partly spent for maintenance of water pipes, as well as fuel and maintenance of the power generator

that supplies water for the school and community. These findings agree with KTB (2017) that income from within or outside the tourism conservancy can also improve health and education services. In addition to a general increase in funding across the whole community, sustainable tourism activities also can be planned to fund specific local projects, such as building a new health clinic, or funding an ongoing school program (KTB, 2017). In their assessment of the Tourism's Impacts on Rural Livelihood in the Sustainability of an Aging Community in Japan, Chen *et al.*, (2018) also established that tourism the government has provided millions in subsidies to construct more tourist facilities, such as paving roads and constructing new buildings.

Moreover, through tourism, a stop-over parking lot was built at the Miyachi village's entrance, and signposts and village road directional guide posts were installed in 2012. Public subsidies were also provided to reform the old traditional houses in Ishikawa prefecture (Chen *et al.*, 2018).

There are seven schools in the vicinity of the Conservancy which have been built as a result of tourism. For example, four classrooms in Nkoilale primary School in Olesere and other areas were constructed in 2013. A construction of dispensary in Olesere which has served the community in terms of health was also funded by Mara Naboisho Conservancy in collaboration with the Ministry of Health. Basecamp Foundation Kenya and the Olare Orok Trust have also been involved in several initiatives to support these schools.

Koyiaki Guiding School was established in the year 2006 by a philanthropist who only came as a tourist and saw the need to establish a training school for the young Masai youths. The school provides local Maasai school leavers with education in

guiding and conservation. The basecamp foundation has recently established Mara Girls Leadership School for the young Maasai girls. The nine (9) Naboisho conservancy sections have each received funding for at least a classroom in every school. There are only three clinics that serve the entire community. Basecamp Foundation Kenya has attempted to support the system by, among other things, funding voluntary HIV testing and providing supplements for people living with AIDS, and constructing the new Ole Sere clinic. Murram roads within the conservancy have been constructed by the Naboisho Conservancy, for example the road connecting Olesere to Nkoilale.

The roads are open for the use of both the conservancy and the community, though the community only access during daytime due to security reasons. It is therefore worth noting that construction of buildings like modern hotels and general infrastructure in area and in extension other surrounding conservancies has boosted the general economic livelihood of people living in MNC. Beledian (2010) noted that the conservancy offers individuals an opportunity to gain financial benefits from land leases; however, this is yet to be realized by the conservancy as it has not yet started paying land leases to its members.

According to the minutes accessed from Mara Naboisho Conservancy Management meeting held on 2017, five tourism partners, including Basecamp, would pay a set land lease fee every month. The tourism operators were carefully selected based on their commitment to natural resource management and community development. The establishment of a community-owned nature conservancy bordering the Maasai Mara National Reserve would additionally help protect an area vital for the survival of the entire Mara ecosystem. Both the grass eaters and the carnivores of the Mara are dependent on vast grazing grounds and hunting territory to survive, and the

government managed national reserve is not large enough to sustain the ecosystem by itself. Basecamp recognized this need for private engagement and sought to create a model for conservation worldwide.

After years of relentless commitment and unfaltering patience, Basecamp finally succeeded in convincing the Maasai landowners to sign a 15-year lease agreement, a time frame superseding any similar lease agreement in the Mara region. The community-owned conservancy was named Naboisho – after the maa expression of ‘coming together’.

The name symbolizes how the Maasai community came together in a time of need and was chosen by the Maasai community. On interviewing the investors, it was established that infrastructure such as roads around Mara Naboisho conservancy had facilitated transport of goods and services. One of them (T1) said;

*‘Good transport infrastructure has been of great benefit to both the community and the conservancy’*

This statement meant that through the conservancy management roads networks had been improved to facilitate movement of tourist from one point to the other. This was further supported by the findings from observation under which it was noted that road networks were improved as a result of effort by the conservancy management to improve accessibility by the tourists towards the conservancy. In the process, the community had benefited by using the same facilities at their disposal.

Further, following the minutes of the Annual Work Plan Review meeting held by the Board of Directors in Mara Naboisho Conservancy on February 2017, there was a proposal for building of Enorokon Dam which serves the conservancy along with the community. The minutes also proposed drilling boreholes for use by the households and livestock. These project results in a huge impact in the community livelihoods

considering that there is inadequate clean water for livestock and domestic in most parts of Narok County and its environs. The pastoralist community has been facing a myriad of challenges in accessing clean water and pasture for their livestock over the years and initiatives such as this provided by the Mara Naboisho conservancy are undertaken, it brings a lot of change and improves livelihoods of the community.

However, a number of the participants felt that although they some of the members of the community had benefited from the conservancy in terms of physical capital as they were not satisfied with the current state of roads infrastructure as one of the participants HC5 said,

*Most of our roads are impassable and we were hoping that is the responsibility of the conservancy management would address the issue either directly or through collaboration with the county government of Narok and the national government.*

This statement coming from an elder in the community suggested that the conservancy management had the ability to make an impact in roads improvement around the conservancy so as to facilitate tourist smooth access to the park at the same time the community will benefit in the process. Corporate social responsibility was also expected to play a role infrastructure improvement in the area. This therefore implied that although the tourism in the Mara Naboisho conservancy had facilitated development in infrastructure, there were still more to be done to improve infrastructure. Ultimately, the capacity for engaging in tourism development also requires physical and built capital, which refers to physical buildings and other community infrastructure. Physical infrastructure, such as roads, buildings, airports, docks, waste disposal and water treatment facilities, and trails and campsites, as well as businesses are required to supply goods, services, and experiences for tourism development. Because of the inter-dependence, the tourism sector should also reciprocate by ensuring the community around the parks are given back “giving back

to the community”. Plate 3 shows Tourists Viewing Giraffes at Mara Naboisho Conservancy.



**Plate 3: Tourists Viewing Giraffes at Mara Naboisho Conservancy**

**Source: Mara Naboisho Conservancy**

On observation it was noted that there was a great improvement in infrastructure as new buildings had emerged to facilitate the growth and demands of tourism. For example roads connecting Mara Naboisho conservancy with the rest of the county had been developed to facilitate movement of tourists to the destination. It was observed that a new road from Olokurto to Nkoilale had been constructed. It was also noted that there was a new road from Eagle viewing camp to Koyiaki guiding school had been constructed to facilitate movement of tourist. In the process the community around Mara Naboisho Conservancy had benefited a great deal as movement from one place to the other within Narok County has been facilitated.

Further, it was observed that school infrastructure for example Koyiaki Guiding School Olesere primary school and Mbitini primary school was built and facilitated by Mara Naboisho Conservancy as a corporate social responsibility. Additionally,

health centers have also been developed. It was also observed that a new dispensary at Olesere and was constructed and equipped by the conservancy. Similarly Africa Tourism Monitor (2015) accounted that a total of 65.3 million international tourists arrived the continent, leading to the creation of 8.7 million direct jobs, US\$43.6 billion in tourism receipts as well as total tourism receipt as a percentage of export above 8% in 2014.

#### **4.6.4 Contribution to Social Capital**

The fourth objective of this study was to establish the contribution of tourism to the host community's social capital at MNC, Kenya. These include Shared values, interpersonal relations and shared norms (OECD, 2010). Social capital refers to resources derived from social relation-ships (Payne et al., 2011, p. 491). Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998) defined social capital as a valuable asset of individual network structure and synthesize it into three main dimensions: cognitive, relational, and structural. In the tourism field, social capital emphasizes evaluation of values, interaction with customers or visitors, development of shared norms with cooperative partners, and mutual trust and reciprocity, which in turn leads to desired performance (Jones, 2005). Further, Social capital is generally understood to mean the social structures and networks necessary for effective collective action, the supposed normative contents of these structures (for instance trustworthiness and reciprocity), as well as, frequently, the outcome or benefits of collective action achieved through such social structures. (Prakash & Selle, 2001).

Based on the findings from this study, first, the connection with the outside world was perceived as one of the major benefits obtained from tourism in the MNC. Consistently, most of the respondents noted the increased opportunity to interact and

communicate with domestic guests from far distances, and even international guests from many other countries. Second, the presence on the ground of meetings groups indicates that the conservancies are bringing people in the community together. *Naboisho* Conservancy is even named after the word 'togetherness' in Maa, as its seen a place where the community comes and acts together. However, to explore how community members perceived the conservancies' role in bringing the community together or not, the conservancy members and non-members whether and how they thought conservancies had brought community cohesion or community conflict and it was agreed that indeed the conservancy has brought people together.

Third, tourism with the MNC has led to the formation of the conservancy, strong community networks and groups such as women groups, youth groups and community scouts. These groups shared common activities such as bead work, bee keeping for sale and entertaining tourists through songs and dance, as stated by the women and youth groups while community scouts were involved in patrols and monitoring activities within the conservancy. Besser *et al.*, (2006) noted that the conservancy model provides social support system and a general feeling of acceptance contributing to the positive understanding of destitution in that given locality. Syallow, (2013) also indicated that the establishment of the Enoonkishu conservancy in the Mara ecosystem brought about social benefits.

Ashley (2000) further noted that the shared positive communal results are attributed to Community Based Natural Resource Management as a whole and not only the benefits associated with wildlife tourism; however, the need to grow tourism provides for a broad course of action. In addition, the participants from FDG reported that initiatives such as cultural tours, cultural entertainment and community-based projects contributes to social capital while wildlife viewing contributes less to social



capital since there is less interaction between the local and the tourists. Plate 4 shows Local community dancing with the tourists at Olesere Village.



**Plate 4: Local community dancing with the tourists at Olesere Village**

Tourism within the MNC has also contributed to the social capital of the local community by contributing to the sustainability and conservation of traditional rituals and cultural rites. For example, the treasured Maasai community who are renowned throughout the world as custodians of African traditional culture which has been preserved and continues to be preserved in part due to its touristic value.

This finding is consistent with Chen *et al.*, (2018) who noted that, summer festivals, which has mostly ceased in the study area due to the farmers aging, had been temporarily revived to cater for guests (Chen *et al.*, 2018). The private investors at the conservancy supported the local football club and a sports exchange programme for primary school pupils. The lodge also provided transport for school pupils to functions, such as music festivals and other extra-curricular activities which is part nurturing of young talent which will promote social capital. At Mara

Naboisho, the tourism investors aim at improving the community's social fabric through the purchase of a television set, video recorder and a power generator for you the education. Moreover, the roles of and respect and empowerment for women in the community are also gradually improving as a result of linkages with other communities, as well as from their improved financial status. Therefore, residents should not be taken for granted, but must be "responsive" to the particular planning that has contributed to the revitalization of the sectors resulting from government and industry and private sector participation.

The Area Chief Participant (AC) reported that;

*"Through continued harmony between that community and Mara Naboisho conservancy, there has been a great mutual benefit and all the parties have a reason to celebrate."*

The chief further acknowledged that there were negative impacts on the interaction between the tourists and the community fearing the erosion of Maa Culture. He noted that Maasai people had been custodians of African culture for quite a long time and those exposed to the foreign culture are the youth and the greatest fear is that they may abandon their valued culture rendering it extinct.

On interviewing the investors, majority of them commended the community for warm welcome and giving them an opportunity to build a good relationship and exchange of ideas. They also appreciated their coordination, interactive support and social security in their investments. One of the investors (T2) said

*"The community is our most valuable asset in business and we try to build a good relationship we endeavor to promote cohesion and a sense of belonging so that we will all be socially secured"*.

This meant that there is mutual benefit in terms of interaction and support between the investors and the community. The investors also participated in corporate social responsibility for example sporting activities such as races to create awareness of

conservation of the Mara and also sports such as Jumping competition and “Maasai Cricket”. This brought a great interaction between the community, tourists and the investors. This contributed in talent identification and development among the youth. At the same time when the winners and runners up were awarded, it encouraged many of the youth with talent to come up and compete.

On observation it was noted that there was a great harmony and cohesion between the community, the investors and tourism management of Mara Naboisho Conservancy. The great interaction has been mutually beneficial to the community livelihoods. Tourism can play a part in supporting social protection for the residents in neighbouring communities (Wille, 2004; Murphy, 2005). This can include, for example, the provision of health facilities, micro finance support and support in social issues such as the fight against the exploitation of children, prostitution, and the fight against HIV/AIDS.

Social protection, however, also relates to cultural initiatives and might include support to local cultural centres, revitalizing and maintaining local art forms, and general support to the cultural life in neighboring villages. Cultural attractions are important tourism products and the support given by a company to these activities will improve the product that is being offered, and thus increase guest satisfaction. The essential of social capital is a social relationship that exists in the daily life of the community. Social relations are reflecting social interaction results in a relatively long time to create network, patterns of cooperation, social exchange, mutual trust, including values and norms underlying social relations (Ibrahim, 2006). Plate 5 shows Masai women entertaining tourists at Nkoilale Manyatta.



**Plate 5: Masai women entertaining tourists at Nkoilale Manyatta**

#### **4.7 Community livelihoods**

The purpose of this study was to examine the contribution of tourism to the livelihoods of the host community. These included human capital, physical capital, financial capital and social capital.

This study established that tourism in Mara Naboisho Conservancy has contributed greatly towards human capital, physical capital, financial capital and social capital. From the study it was established that contribution towards human capital was recorded through creation of employment opportunities for the community, imparting skills and capacity building through training. Participants appreciated the fact that majority of the staff working at the Conservancy are from the local community. This has built a great relationship between the management of Mara Naboisho Conservancy and the host community.

Secondly, tourism in Mara Naboisho has enabled improvement of physical capital through construction of roads schools and the growth of surrounding towns.

Improvement of infrastructure was motivated by the need for the government to enable access and convenience for the tourist when visiting the parks and in the process, the community also became beneficiaries of the infrastructural developments. Several schools were built through social corporate responsibility by the Conservancy and individual tourists who supported community projects such as classrooms, dispensaries and boreholes. The availability of these projects has improved the quality of livelihoods in Mara Naboisho Conservancy.

Thirdly, in terms of contribution of tourism towards financial capital, most participants attributed Mara Naboisho Conservancy as a source of their income through earnings from employment, supply of products and services that contributes to monetary value to the community. This has immensely contributed towards sustaining and improving the community livelihoods.

In terms of contribution of tourism towards social capital, participants cited both negative and positive impacts. The positive impacts included social interaction with the community and sharing ideas, promotion of mentorship programmes towards the community and students, provision of transport for school pupils to functions, such as music festivals and other extra-curricular activities. The negative impacts included the view that young people had neglected the Maa traditional values hence the fear that the young people will slowly abandon their culture.

It is widely accepted that contributions to community development can help improve relations with local communities. It can minimize the risks of conflict between the community and the tourism enterprise, which often is a direct result of lack of dialogues. From a business side, as argued above, supportive partnerships with the neighbouring community can generate positive publicity and improve the tourism

enterprise reputation, while at the same time enhancing guest satisfaction which is essential for the crucial repeat business and word-of-mouth advertising. Economic linkages to local suppliers and service providers in particular can enhance the environment in which tourism is developed and provide a sustainable development option that can generate win win situations for both the tourism enterprise and the community.

#### **4.8 Challenges faced by the members of the community around Mara Naboisho conservancy**

One of the interview questions sought to determine challenges faced by the community members since the establishment of the conservancy. Some of the participants indicated that there was a general lack of benefits from the tourism facilities that were located in the conservancy as the benefits were not trickling down to all the members.

This was attributed in part to poor distribution of funds due to weak management. This challenge is similar to the findings established by WWF, (2012) on the situation analysis of Community, Based Natural Resource Management in Kenya. The study noted that weak management structures such as erratic or a general lack of tangible benefits to local communities was a major challenge faced in the Mara ecosystem. This situation is worsened by lack or of a cost and benefit sharing guidelines.

Secondly, some of the elected leaders make independent decisions affecting the community without public participation and imposing programs which do not benefit the community. Other challenges noted included: lack of payments of dividends, inadequate grazing land, and crop destruction due to human-wildlife conflicts. The human –wildlife conflict has led to insecurity due to increased wildlife numbers

especially during the migration season which even hindered children from going to school. The reports of Lions killing livestock and elephants destroying crops were also recorded hence this depicts rampant human wildlife conflicts.

One of the participants P4 said that;

*The lions have been coming to kill our cattle and sheep and despite reporting the matter to the relevant authorities from the Kenya wildlife service and management of Mara Naboisho conservancy our pleas have not been taken seriously....*

Another participant -P5 added that;

*The elephants have been destroying our crops and the response and we were promised compensation but we are still waiting for it*

These two statements suggested that despite that fact that the community gains from the Mara Naboisho Conservancy, there is a conflict between the community and wild life due to the fact that the Mara Naboisho regions are inhabited by people who have adopted different lifestyles to earn their livelihoods. While the Mara region is predominantly settled by the pastoral Maasai community, different communities that practice agriculture characterize the Greater Tsavo Ecosystem.

However, the leadership approaches employed by the conservancy management address the conflict through a participative dialogue between the community and the conservancy management. Ensuring that humans and animals have adequate space to thrive is the basis of human-wildlife conflict resolution. The other challenge noted by the women groups was lack of adequate market for their handcrafts since most of the tourist facilities had in built shops where crafts were sold hence the tourists were not buying from the women groups. In addition the women groups were not getting orders to supply these shops with craft materials. This can be compared with Muller (2011) who cited that the tourism sector is characterized by a number of other labour problems which include high staff turnover, irregular working hours, low levels of

unionization (less than 10 per cent) and intense pressure on human resources. The anti-union attitudes shown by some adverse impact on workers' representation arising from subcontracting, franchising and management contracts which frequently subdivide large enterprises into small units that are too weak to be effective partners in social dialogue, are seen as particularly worrisome. The ILO, (2012) argues that while the tourism industry is conscious that human resources are valuable to the sector additional efforts are needed to make working conditions more attractive to a range of age groups, to increase worker responsibility and to make employment in the sector a prestigious lifetime engagement.

Further, one of participant P8 from the local community -FGD2 complained that;

*'A few of the investors do not provide us with employment opportunities or call for supply of goods to their shops instead, they bring workers from others regions leaving our children out'*

This finding agrees with Freitag's, (2004) who noted that tourism often fails to benefit the local community as a whole, with tourism incomes being appropriated mainly by companies, outside interests and non-local landowners. Forms of local entrepreneurship often develop on the economic periphery of the enclave systems. Further, Freitag's (2004) case study of the Dominican Republic found for example that some locals become involved in the tourist industry, although, these tended to be members of an elite group who formed a local business class.

Further, despite the possible opportunities that ecotourism can bring, it can also create new threats that directly affect the host communities. For example, the active promotion of ecotourism may result in many community members shifting their forms of livelihood to tourism thereby becoming fully dependent on it. This may expose the local communities to shocks and stresses impacting the tourism industry. For instance,



the COVID-19 pandemic has nearly grounded the tourism industry thereby affecting the local communities which depend entirely on the tourism industry.

Participant HC11 said;

*”During Covid 19 Pandemic communities around the conservancy were cushioned by their lifetime economic activity of pastoralism and crop farming. This helped to cushion us in the pandemic”*

This statement suggested that to some" alternative sources of livelihoods to the communities around Mara Naboisho conservancy is their life time activity pastoralism. According to Edu Africa Transformative Journeys, (2020), the hose community at Mara Naboisho receives direct and tangible benefits from wildlife conservation. As a result, the community can graze it’s cattle in the prescribed “controlled grazing” zones, as opposed to engaging in destructive practices such as intensive farming, which leads to overgrazing. Further, For Maasai pastoralists, there is a rotational system of cattle grazing. In reality, the high tourism season in the Mara stands in direct conflict with the pastoralists’ needs over the long dry season. In other words, the best places for the cattle to graze during this period are near watering holes and salt licks.

Therefore, Mara Naboisho Conservancy, as case study, speaks volumes of a successful co-existence between wildlife and communities. No other agreement provides the same level of income to the volume of landowners that Naboisho Conservancy supports. Despite the challenge of being such a young conservancy (with growing pains), there is a sense of mutual respect for the interests of wildlife and the traditional Maasai livestock practices.

Moreover, another participants HC6 said;

*“Whenever we supply goods to the conservancy it takes several months for us to receive payments and this affects the next supplies due to insufficient cash to purchase other products”*

This statement suggested that although some of the community members were awarded tenders to supply products to the conservancy, there is delayed payments which affects the chain of supply considering that they may have borrowed loans from financial institutions or friends. According to Miller, (2017) late payments can have significant impacts on businesses, as their cashflow does not allow them to carry out business as usual without a steady flow of funds coming in. The proportional impact of late payments varies by type of business, but in all cases, there is a significant issue. Delayed payments affect planning of the next consignment to be sourced as supplies in most cases depend on immediate payment.

Further, there is a large number of socio-cultural costs on the host communities. These negative social impacts include; social change; changing values; increased crime and gambling; changes in moral behaviour; changes in family structure and roles; problems with the tourist-host relationship and the destruction of heritage. There has also been Internal conflicts and power struggles have also been witnessed at Mara Naboisho between those living within, those living outside the group ranch and the committees. In addition, interactions with other communities as a result of increased commercial activities have contributed to cultural changes and reduced adherence to traditions, especially by the young generation. Further, there is inequality in distribution of resources among the community where some of members of the community were not satisfied. It was also noted that there was unfair distribution of jobs available in the conservancy where those who can have access to the authority gain favor over other members around the conservancy.

Moreover, tourism has also changed the traditional way of live of the community including the maasai way of dressing as idicated in plate 1 to 5. There have been a few cases of young masai men dropping out of school in pursuit of jobs in lodges

that don't require any academic qualifications. Maasai community used to be conservatives of their culture but as a result of interaction, their culture and morals have been eroded. Mohammadi, Khalifah and Hosseini (2010) explored community perceptions towards social impacts of tourism on local communities but in different countries. Results of the study showed positive perception of local communities about impacts of tourism. However, social impacts of tourism are not always considered positive. A research by Eraqi (2007) on the attitudes of local communities towards impacts of tourism on livelihoods established the presence of some negative impacts of tourism on local communities.

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

#### **5.1 Introduction**

This chapter summarizes the findings of the study and recommendations based on the findings for policy making by the relevant authorities. Finally, the chapter provides framework for further research.

#### **5.2 Summary of Findings**

##### **5.2.1 Contribution of Tourism to Human Capital of the local community in Mara Naboisho Conservancy**

From the first objective, the findings from this study showed that the Mara Naboisho Conservancy has sponsored workshops for knowledge exchange programmes with other conservancies believed to be more advanced in running some programmes for instance rotational grazing. Committee members have participated in some of these programmes and have in turn transferred the knowledge gained to the broader community. There are approximately 150 pupils that are benefitting through scholarship programmes from the individual tourists who visit the conservancy. The conservancy had also supported schools around through building of classrooms e.g. in Olesere primary school and in Ololomeei primary school.

A Report from UNEP, (2010) supports the results that tourism has the potential to increase public appreciation of the human capital. 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.

### **5.2.2 Contribution of tourism to financial capital of the local community in Mara Naboisho Conservancy, Kenya**

The results of the study with regards to the contribution of tourism to financial capital 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 others 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 among others donations and bursaries from the Mara conservancy.

### **5.2.3 Contribution of tourism to physical capital of the local Community in Mara Naboisho Conservancy, Kenya**

Findings indicate that tourism initiatives stimulate the development of infrastructure and superstructure. Through tourism, some schools such as Koyiaki Guiding School have built. Additionally, health centers have been developed. When infrastructure expands, the growing tourism industry gets support and grows further. Road networks change in accessible 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).

Development of physical infrastructures in tourism areas is especially relevant to address the existing infrastructural challenges facing several tourism destinations.

Sakar (2009) note that the key challenges to tourism development are infrastructure, connectivity and sanitation.

#### **5.2.4 Contribution of tourism to social capital of the local community in Mara Naboisho Conservancy, Kenya**

The study also sought to assess the contribution of tourism to social capital of the local community. The study established that the local community in Mara Naboisho Conservancy have benefited from tourism initiatives in a number of ways. For instance, the community has been empowered, security has been sustained, human wildlife conflicts have been minimized and cultural exchange as a result of host-guest interaction enhanced. Moreover, the study has established that the local communities with the MNC value the networking opportunity that tourism has afforded them. For instance, they can now network with tourists from within the country as well as international tourists.

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 benefits of tourism. Such appreciation and enhancement encourage local people to develop their cultural, such as customs, handicrafts, architecture, food, and local knowledge, for their own benefit (Mametja, 2006).

### **5.3 Conclusions**

From the first objective financial capital of the local community show 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 others are self-employed through the sale of souvenirs. From the second objective residents have benefited economically from tourism through provision of employment since some of the local community work in the camps, Mara conservancy and others are self-employed through the sale of souvenirs. From the third objective when infrastructure expands, the growing tourism industry gets support and grows further. Road networks change in accessible rural destinations into busy tourist destinations, create jobs, and help to curb rural depopulation and reduce the impact of poverty. The study established that the local community in Mara Naboisho Conservancy have benefited from tourism initiatives in a number of ways. For instance, the community has been empowered, security has been sustained, human wildlife conflicts have been minimized and cultural exchange as a result of host-guest interaction enhanced.

Therefore, it is evident that tourism contributes to physical, financial, social and human capital of the local community through generation of employment, stimulation of infrastructures and superstructure, community empowerment, environmental awareness, solution to human wildlife conflict, conservation of natural resources, creating networking opportunities and appreciation and preservation of the local culture. However, there is need to diversify to other economic sectors like agriculture since tourism alone will not be sufficient especially during low season.

Based on the findings from this study, the greatest lesson that other conservancies should adopt from Mara Naboisho Conservancy is the virtue of corporate social responsibility. When the host community feels touched by the hospitality of the conservancy, there will be a positive attitude towards conservation of wildlife. The conservancy management will find it easier to co-exist with the community.

This can involve reducing hunting quotas, combatting poisoning and poaching, mitigating conflict and damage, protecting nesting, denning or breeding sites.

Moreover, while tourism contributes to diversification of livelihood strategies, they can also create new dependencies of the local communities. The findings suggested that although tourism has positive impact on livelihoods of the local community, there is a share of negative impacts which comes with it. From the study, positive impacts outshine the negative impacts as the community had benefited directly and indirectly from the tourism in Mara Naboisho Conservancy.

#### **5.4 Recommendations**

This study has contributed to the previous literature on tourism by identifying the contribution of tourism towards the livelihood of the locals, which is confirmed when extreme degrees of conformity are imposed on residents to follow the previous norms and rules. This situation is especially true as the findings of the study confirmed a positive and negative influence of tourism on the local community. This influence has been mostly highlighted in positive ways in previous social capital studies. This knowledge has turned the attention of many researchers to the current research trend of physical, social and natural capitals that only highlight positive aspect of tourism, which is obviously problematic. This study has also confirmed the needs to reconsider the influences of social capital and physical capital on the residents' engagement in a collective action, so that the concept can indeed be a valuable tool for understanding community collective action.

This study therefore makes the following recommendations based on its findings:

- 1) First, the community should be provided with a conducive environment and first-hand priority to supply goods and services to the conservancy as it will promote financial empowerment.



- 2) Secondly the conservancy management with collaboration with the county government of Narok should provide more job opportunities for the host community promote human capital.
- 3) Thirdly, conservancy management with the support of the county government of Narok should expand infrastructure so as to facilitate community development.
- 4) Fourth, the Mara Naboisho Conservancy authorities should support the local community through funding to improve the community-based projects and also improve education and the local sports activities in the community.

### **5.5 Suggestion for Further Research**

The study makes the following suggestions for further research;

- 1) This study was confined to Mara Naboisho Conservancy. The study therefore recommends that a similar study on the contribution of tourism on livelihoods of host community should be carried out in other contexts so as to compare the findings with the current study.
- 2) This study focused largely on the contributions of tourism to the livelihoods of the local communities in MNC. However, the relationship between host community and tourism is multifaceted. Therefore, this study recommends a further study on the role of host community towards the sustainability of tourism in conservancies.
- 3) This study employed qualitative approach and therefore a similar study should be conducted using mixed methods.

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## APPENDICES

### Appendix I: Interview Schedule for of the Community around MNC

I am a PhD Student at Moi University. As part of the requirements for the award, I am conducting a study on **“The Contribution of Tourism to the Host community livelihoods at the Mara Naboisho Conservancy, Narok County Kenya”** Your responses will be treated with strict confidentiality and the data will be used for academic purposes only.

1. Gender .....
2. How long have you lived in Mara - Naboisho Conservancy?  
\_\_\_\_\_
3. What job do you do?  
\_\_\_\_\_
4. Comment on your earnings? Does it meet your family needs?  
\_\_\_\_\_
5. What products do you sell to the tourist? \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_
6. How much do you earn from the sales?
  - a. Per day \_\_\_\_\_
  - b. Per month \_\_\_\_\_
7. Do you perform dances for tourists?  
\_\_\_\_\_
8. How much do you earn from it?
  - a. Per day \_\_\_\_\_
  - b. Per month \_\_\_\_\_

9. Do you supply products to the lodges and other tourism related establishments?

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10. How much do you earn per month?

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11. Does the earnings you get meet your family needs?

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12. What challenges do you face in the process of supplying products and services to Mara Naboisho Conservancy?

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13. What are the sources of money to pay school fees for your children?

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14. What is the source of water you drink?

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15. Do your children receive any bursaries?

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16. Where do those bursaries come from?

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17. Has tourism in Mara - Naboisho Conservancy;

a. Provided employment opportunities to a member of your family or neighbors? \_\_\_\_\_

b. Did they gain experience? \_\_\_\_\_

c. Do they feel empowered with skills? \_\_\_\_\_

d. What job do they do? \_\_\_\_\_

e. How much do they earn per month? \_\_\_\_\_

18. How has tourism in Mara - Naboisho Conservancy contributed physical capital to the community? For example,

- a. build schools, \_\_\_\_\_
- b. Are your roads better now? \_\_\_\_\_
- c. Who constructed the roads? \_\_\_\_\_

19. What are some of the social capital benefits that the community has received as a result of tourism in MNC? For example, shared values, interpersonal relations, shared norms

- a. Do you belong to any group? \_\_\_\_\_
- b. What issues bring you together? \_\_\_\_\_
- c. Are there any issues over revenue allocation?  
\_\_\_\_\_

d. How are elections done?  
\_\_\_\_\_

e. What is the nature of the leadership? \_\_\_\_\_

f. Has tourism brought people together? \_\_\_\_\_

g. What about linkages with outside world? \_\_\_\_\_

h. Are there any Issue of networks and collaborations \_\_\_\_\_

i. Do they feel alienated from benefit sharing? \_\_\_\_\_

j. How is the social interactions within the community as a result of the presence of tourism? \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

**Thank you very much for your cooperation and participation in this study.**

**Appendix II: Interview Schedule for tourism investors in MNC**

I am a PhD Student at Moi University. As part of the requirements for the award, I am conducting a study on **“The Contribution of Tourism to the Host community livelihoods at the Mara Naboisho Conservancy, Narok County Kenya”** Your responses will be treated with strict confidentiality and the data will be used for research purposes only.

1. Gender\_\_\_\_\_
2. What is your nationality? \_\_\_\_\_
3. Tell me little about yourself? \_\_\_\_\_
4. How did you come to get involved in the Mara?
5. How long have you lived in Mara - Naboisho Conservancy?  
\_\_\_\_\_
6. What kind of investment have you established around Mara - Naboisho Conservancy?
  - a. Nature of investment\_\_\_\_\_
  - b. Business Model\_\_\_\_\_
7. Sources of funding for the investment  
\_\_\_\_\_
8. How long have you been here as the investor?  
\_\_\_\_\_
9. What are the terms of agreement? \_\_\_\_\_
10. How is relationship with the community\_\_\_\_\_
- \_\_\_\_\_
11. What nature of support have you provided in;
  - a) Building of Schools\_\_\_\_\_

b) Bursaries \_\_\_\_\_

c) Health Centers \_\_\_\_\_

other CSR Initiatives in the conservancy specify

\_\_\_\_\_

12. Have you provided employment opportunity to members of the community in Mara - Naboisho Conservancy? If yes kindly describe.

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

13. Do you receive services from the community?

\_\_\_\_\_

a) What kind of services?

\_\_\_\_\_

b) How often?

\_\_\_\_\_

c) How much do you pay them for these services?

\_\_\_\_\_

13. Does the community supply you with some products?

\_\_\_\_\_

d) What kind of products?

\_\_\_\_\_

e) How often?

\_\_\_\_\_

f) How much do they earn from these products?

\_\_\_\_\_



17. What other challenges do you face?

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18. How do you address these challenges?

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**Thank you very much for your cooperation and participation in this study.**

### Appendix III: Interview Schedule for conservancy Managers in MNC

I am a PhD Student at Moi University. As part of the requirements for the award, I am conducting a study on **“The Contribution of Tourism to the Host community livelihoods at The Mara Naboisho Conservancy, Narok County Kenya”** Your responses will be treated with strict confidentiality and the data will be used for research purposes only.

1. Gender \_\_\_\_\_
2. How long have you lived in Mara - Naboisho Conservancy?  
\_\_\_\_\_
3. How many employees from the host community around work in the conservancy?  
\_\_\_\_\_
4. Kindly describe the nature of their work?  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_
5. What is their average earnings per month?  
\_\_\_\_\_
6. What is the nature of goods and services provided by the community to the conservancy?  
\_\_\_\_\_
7. in what ways does the conservancy support the community in terms of;
  - a) Education \_\_\_\_\_
  - b) Water \_\_\_\_\_
  - c) Healthcare \_\_\_\_\_
  - d) Roads \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

8. What challenges do you face while interacting with the community?

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9. How do you address these challenges?

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**Thank you very much for your cooperation and participation in this study.**

#### **Appendix IV: Interview Schedule for the NCG Tourism Officers**

I am a PhD Student at Moi University. As part of the requirements for the award, I am conducting a study on **“The Contribution of Tourism to the Host community livelihoods at The Mara Naboisho Conservancy, Narok County Kenya”** Your responses will be treated with strict confidentiality and the data will be used for research purposes only.

1. Gender\_\_\_\_\_
2. How long have you worked in the county government of Narok as Tourism officer?  
\_\_\_\_\_
3. What is the contribution of the county government towards conservancy?  
\_\_\_\_\_
4. What plans does the county government has for the conservancy?  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_
5. How many employees do you have in the county tourism office?  
\_\_\_\_\_
6. How much is their monthly earnings?  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_
7. What has the department of tourism done to support the community in terms of?
  - a. Education\_\_\_\_\_
  - b. Health\_\_\_\_\_
  - c. Water \_\_\_\_\_

d. Infrastructure \_\_\_\_\_

8. What challenges do the community face?

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9. How do you address these challenges?

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10. How has MNC improved the livelihoods of the community around the conservancy?

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11. What are your plans (both current and future) for the improvement of tourism and communities in the area?

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12. What are the priorities of the county in terms of tourism and the community?

What are the roles/functions of the county's tourism office?

**Thank you very much for accepting to participate in this study.**

**Appendix V: Interview Schedule for the Area Chief/Assistant Chiefs**

I am a PhD Student at Moi University. As part of the requirements for the award, I am conducting a study on **“The Contribution of Tourism to the Host community livelihoods at the Mara Naboisho Conservancy, Narok County Kenya”** Your responses will be treated with strict confidentiality and the data will be used for research purposes only.

1. How long have you lived in Mara - Naboisho Conservancy?

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2. How long have you served as the chief /Assistant chief in Narok?

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3. As the area chief, what role do you play in support of tourism at MNC?

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4. How is the security around MNC?

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5. How have the investors contributed to the security in this area?

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6. How does this conservancy assist the community in terms of;

- a. Education

- b. Health

- c. Water

- d. Roads

7. Do you get any support from the investors?

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8. What challenges do you face in your service to the community?

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9. How do you address those challenges?

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10. As the area chief, kindly comment on the Contribution of tourism to the host community livelihoods at the Mara Naboisho Conservancy?

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**Thank you very much for your cooperation and participation in this study.**

### **Appendix VI: Focus Group Interviews schedule**

1. Does the host community embrace the presence of Mara Naboisho Conservancy?  
  
Kindly Comment on the relationship between the host community and the conservancy.
2. To what extent has the community around MNC benefited in terms human capital e.g. Knowledge, Habits, Social and personality attributes as a result of tourism at Mara - Naboisho Conservancy?
3. How has tourism in Mara - Naboisho Conservancy benefited the community in terms of financial capital e.g. Direct cash, employment creation?
4. What are some of the physical capital benefits e.g. machinery, Buildings and infrastructure, computers etc. that has the community has earned as a result of tourism in MNC?
5. What are some of the social capital benefits e.g. Shared values, Interpersonal relationship, Shared norms etc. that the community has earned as a result of tourism in MNC?



### Appendix VII: Observation Check List

<b>Physical</b>	<b>Indicators</b>	<b>Available</b>	<b>Not available</b>
<b>Human capital</b>	Technical skills - Education -On the job training		
<b>Financial capital</b>	- Direct cash, - Creation of Jobs, - Machinery e.g. farm		
<b>Physical capital</b>	- Buildings - Health infrastructure - Education infrastructure - Roads - Boreholes/water		
<b>Social capital</b>	-Skills - Knowledge - Education - Shared values, - interpersonal relations - shared norms		

## Appendix VIII: Research Authorization Letters



**MOI UNIVERSITY**  
*ISO 9001:2015 Certified Institution*  
**SCHOOL OF TOURISM, HOSPITALITY & EVENTS MANAGEMENT**

Telephone: 0771-296270/0790850990  
 Fax: (053) 43047  
 E-mail: deansthe@mu.ac.ke

Box 3900  
**ELDORET**  
 Kenya

Ref: MU/STHE/SGS/23

18<sup>th</sup> June, 2019

**TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN**

Dear Sir/Madam,

**RE: RECOMMENDATION LETTER FOR OLE MUNTET IKOTE SOLOMON-  
 SBE/DPHIL/01/06**

The above named is a bonafide student of Moi University, School of Tourism, Hospitality and Events Management. He is pursuing a Doctor of Philosophy degree in Tourism Management in the Department of Tourism Management.

He has successfully completed his course work and has defended his proposal titled **"THE CONTRIBUTION OF TOURISM TO THE HOST COMMUNITY LIVELIHOODS AT THE MARA NABOISHO CONSERVANCY, NAROK COUNTY, KENYA."**. Mr. Muntet has been allowed to proceed to the field for data collection.

Any assistance accorded to him will be appreciated.

Yours faithfully,

**DEAN**  
**PROF. DAMIAN NAITWETHI**  
**DEAN, SCHOOL OF TOURISM, HOSPITALITY & EVENTS MANAGEMENT**

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

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When replying please quote

NACOSTI, Upper Kabete  
Off Maropki Way  
P.O. Box 30623-00100  
NAIROBI-KENYA

Ref. No. **NACOSTI/P/19/19200/30696**

Date: **24<sup>th</sup> June, 2019.**


Solomon Ikote Muntet  
Moi University  
P.O Box 3900-30100  
**ELDORET.**

**RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION**

Following your application for authority to carry out research on "*The contribution of tourism to the host community livelihoods at the Mara Naboisho Conservancy, Narok County Kenya.*" I am pleased to inform you that you have been authorized to undertake research in **Narok County** for the period ending **24<sup>th</sup> June, 2020.**

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

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

  
**BONIFACE WANYAMA**  
**FOR: DIRECTOR-GENERAL/CEO**

Copy to:

The County Commissioner  
Narok County.

The County Director of Education  
Narok County.

### Appendix IX: Research Permit

**THE SCIENCE, TECHNOLOGY AND INNOVATION ACT, 2013**


The Grant of Research Licenses is guided by the Science, Technology and Innovation (Research Licensing) Regulations, 2014.

**CONDITIONS**

1. The License is valid for the proposed research, location and specified period.
2. The License and any rights thereunder are non-transferable.
3. The Licensee shall inform the County Governor before commencement of the research.
4. Excavation, filming and collection of specimens are subject to further necessary clearance from relevant Government Agencies.
5. The License does not give authority to transfer research materials.
6. NACOSTI may monitor and evaluate the licensed research project.
7. The Licensee shall submit one hard copy and upload a soft copy of their final report within one year of completion of the research.
8. NACOSTI reserves the right to modify the conditions of the License including cancellation without prior notice.

**National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation**  
 P.O. Box 30623 - 00100, Nairobi, Kenya  
 TEL: 020 400 7000, 0713 788787, 0735 404245  
 Email: dg@nacosti.go.ke, registry@nacosti.go.ke  
 Website: www.nacosti.go.ke

**REPUBLIC OF KENYA**



**National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation**

**RESEARCH LICENSE**

**Serial No.A 25408**

**CONDITIONS: see back page**


**THIS IS TO CERTIFY THAT:**

**MR. SOLOMON IKOTE MUNTET**  
**of MOI UNIVERSITY, 3900-30100**  
**Eldoret, has been permitted to conduct**  
**research in Narok County**

**on the topic: THE CONTRIBUTION OF**  
**TOURISM TO THE HOST COMMUNITY**  
**LIVELIHOODS AT THE MARA NABOISHO**  
**CONSERVANCY, NAROK COUNTY KENYA**

**for the period ending:**  
**24th June, 2020**

**Permit No : NACOSTI/P/19/19200/30696**  
**Date Of Issue : 24th June, 2019**  
**Fee Received :Ksh 2000**



**Applicant's Signature**

**Director General**  
**National Commission for Science, Technology & Innovation**