



Ole Muntet Ikote Solomon et al./ Elixir Tourism 148(2020) 54972-54978 Available online at www.elixirpublishers.com (Elixir International Journal)

Tourism

Elixir Tourism 148(2020) 54972-54978

The Contribution of Tourism to the Host Community's Financial Capital Assets in Mara Naboisho Conservancy, Narok County, Kenya

Ole Muntet Ikote Solomon, Damiannah Kieti and Rita Nthiga

School of Tourism and Hospitality Moi University, Kenya.

ARTICLE INFO

Article history: Received: 6 October 2020; Received in revised form: 6 November 2020; Accepted: 16 November 2020;

Keywords

Contribution, Host Community, Human Capital Assets, Mara Naboisho Conservancy.

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to establish the contribution of tourism to the host community's financial capital assets. This study employed qualitative approach by the use of exploratory research design. The target population for this study included the host community, tourism investors, camp managers, Narok County tourism officers and area chief. Both purposive and snowball sampling methods were used to select the respondents. The study used both primary and secondary sources of information. Primary sources included interviews, observations and Focus group discussions. The findings from the study revealed that Tourism in Mara Naboisho has contributed significantly to financial capital assets to the community. Based on the observation, 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 improved financial capital to the community. This study recommended that the local community should be empowered to collaborate with the Mara Naboisho Conservancy authorities to set up a location whereby the tourist on their way to the park can make a stopover and have a look at the display of their souvenir and purchase them. The Mara Naboisho Conservancy authorities should provide support to the local community through funding in order to improve the community-based projects so as to improve the local community's economic activities. The study findings are anticipated to provide an insight that will be used by the stakeholders to improve the livelihoods of the community who are directly involved with tourism in Narok County.

© 2020 Elixir All rights reserved.

1.0 Introduction

There has been a huge interest in tourism that takes into account the public sensitivities and concerns about the environment, communities, and sustainability such as; ecotourism and PPT. This is based on the premise that tourism should develop in an environmentally, economically and socially sustainable manner (Simpson, 2007). However, as Ashley and Roe (2002) and UNWTO (2004; in Simpson, 2007) argue, it has been difficult to assess the success of initiatives that aim to benefit local communities and the environment while also being financially viable (Ashley, 2002; UNWTO, 2004 in Simpson, 2007). For many countries, ecotourism is not simply a marginal activity to finance protection of the environment, but is a major industry of the national economy. For example, in Costa Rica, Ecuador, Nepal, Kenya, Madagascar and Antarctica, ecotourism represents a significant portion of the gross domestic product and economic activity.

Tourism touches all the groups involved professionally, in a mostly economic sense. For members of communities, it also touches their personal lives by affecting their lifestyles, traditions and cultures, as well as their livelihood and their long-standing ways of organizing themselves socially and politically. In addition, most of the other players enter into tourism voluntarily, whereas in many cases communities must deal with tourism impacts whether or not they choose to. Already in the late 1980s a quest for knowledge about tourism's potential impacts – environmental, sociocultural

© 2020 Elixir All rights reserved

and economic- in tourist destinations around the world arose (Smith, 1977, 1989 in Liburd and Edwards, 2010). However, as different types of tourists place different demands upon the resources of the destination so the impact and effects will vary in type, location and significance (Liburd and Edwards, 2010).

The emerging of above mentioned new or alternative forms of tourism (eco-tourism, PPT, etc.), as argued before, do not take away negative effects of tourism, however it might help enhance the positive impacts tourism can have and reduce the costs it places on the poor. 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 and Edwards, 2010). Effects are not always obvious, and are not always direct and more often indirect. Whereas direct effects are perceived to come from participation in the tourism sector Tourism as an alternative livelihood (whether or not the poor person engages face to face with the tourist) and can be divided in labour and non-labour income and indirect effects occur where a change in tourism expenditure impacts on the non-tourism economy e.g. food sales to restaurants. Enhancing livelihoods and maximizing benefits to communities involve the expansion

and use of local labour, local goods, and services and also developing appropriate and sustainable infrastructure, supportive policies, and environmental strategies (Scoones, 1998; DFID, 1999; Simpson, 2008). Positive livelihood impacts include the creation of employment and economic opportunities and benefits for individuals, households, and the collective community. In addition, they include a wide range of non-financial livelihood impacts that serve to decrease vulnerability, develop skills, improve access to information, improve food security, and strengthen community organizations (Simpson, 2007).

Another believe is that the tourism industry can contribute to gross domestic output (Liburd and Edwards, 2010) by generating many new job. Opportunities allowing a sustainable income. Yet it is renowned for its high turnover, anti-social working hours, low pay, seasonal employment, instability and low job status (Convention on Biological Diversity, 2009). Nevertheless, small and medium enterprises can employ a significant proportion of women, minorities and young people and, due to the nature of tourism employment, enable low skill-level entry into the workforce for these groups in developing countries (Liburd and Edwards, 2010). In many countries, there has been a revolution in the role of women, and the process continues. Women are becoming more prominent, even numerically dominant, in the paid workforce. Often their earnings are increasing more rapidly than those of men; and they make a greater demand for recreation and tourism opportunities (Shrivastava and Bihari, 2010). In many countries, they are moving into key positions in the development of economic, social, environmental and protected area policy.

Tourism is of global importance and as it contributes immensely to the Gross Domestic Product and creates job opportunities (Arslanturk, Balcilar and Ozdemir 2011: 664; Seetanah 2011: 291; Cooper 2012: 5). Statistics reveal an important growth rate amongst international arrivals in 2012, recording over 1 035 billion visitors' arrivals worldwide (UNWTO 2013: 7). Europe was the most visited region in 2012 with 534 million visitors, followed by Asia with 234 million visitors and America with 163 million visitors, Africa recorded 53 million visitors, while there were 52 million visitors in the Middle East (UNWTO 2013: 7).

Moreover, tourism is ranked as the third largest industry in many countries contributing to major social and economic development (Goeldner and Ritchie 2009: 26). Despite the possible opportunities ecotourism can bring, it can also create new threats that directly affect the host communities. For example, when active promotion of participation in ecotourism results in many community members shifting their livelihood forms to tourism, and the community as a whole becoming fully depending on it. When shocks and stresses occur they might not be able to resist them. Too, the interaction between host and visitor might not only bring opportunities for exchanging cultures and learn from each other but can also lead to (undesired) cultural change or cultural distortion.

Shrivastava and Bihari (2010) explain, that within a community there often are mixed feelings. 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. All perspectives should be respected as it is up to a person him or herself to

decide how they want to live their life. Shrivastava and Bihari (2010), however, 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 perceived important to adequately inform communities about the benefits and costs ecotourism development can bring and then to decide for themselves the degree of change they wish to subject themselves.

Another issue is the increase congestion and littering of the natural resource, 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. Secondary effects comprise indirect and induced effects (Mitchell and Ashley, 2010). Indirect effects occur where a change in tourism expenditure impacts on the non-tourism economy e.g. food sales to restaurants. Induced effect arises when workers in the tourism sector spend their earnings locally, thus generating further income for poor households (Mitchell and Ashley, 2010). According to this it might be suggested that it is not necessarily for poor people to be directly participating in the tourism industry as overall expansion of the tourism sector might result in the trickle down of money to the poor. Positive effects can be found in improved services such as healthcare and education as well as the enhancement and creation of new infrastructure. The latter cannot only be used to make the tourism industry more accessible but also by local communities living in PPC to make their way around the island. Less tangible livelihood attributes that are also integral to deriving benefits relate to social assets such as 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).

Tourism is commonly associated with environmental degradation, however, the focus on sustainable ecotourism development is likely to contribute to environmental awareness and education as well as maintenance and improvement of biodiversity such as corals and mangrove.

Visitors, or the potential to attract visitors, are among the reasons that government officials and residents support protected areas. 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. 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.

In Kenya, the Kenya Tourism Board (KTB) has a mandate to market and promote tourism overseas. Broadly, there are various and diverse tourism products on offer to both domestic and international visitors. These products include wildlife-based, beach, home-stay, conference, cultural, sports and ecotourism (KTB, 2014). However, a critical observation has been that despite such lucrative tourist in these areas, the indigenous people have been sidelined from participation (Karanja, 2002). Likewise, most revenues generated go to the National and County governments and a small proportion to the host communities (Karanja, 2002). Few local people seem to be employed in wildlife related jobs or protected area management. The majority of park/tourism employees are brought into the areas, sometimes from urban centers, with the justification that they possess the level of education and skills required and which are not available among the local people (Karanja, 2002). Wildlife has other contributions, such as the protection of water catchment areas and generic resources, cultural and natural heritage, and biological and scientific value (KWS, 2012).

In 2006, tourism was the leading foreign exchange earner, a head of the traditional export crops of coffee and tea, by earning the country over Kshs. 55 billion (KNBS, 2014). It is estimated that over two – thirds of the revenue generated from the Maasai Mara National Reserve, remains within Kenya, but less than 10% is felt at Mara Naboisho Conservancy (Cheeseman, 2004). The study sought to establish the contribution of tourism to the host community's financial capital assets on Mara Naboisho Conservancy.

2.0 Literature Review

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. There are two main sources of financial capital: (a) Available stocks- Savings are the preferred type of financial capital because, they do not have liabilities attached and usually do not entail reliance on others. They can be held in several forms; cash, bank deposits or liquid assets such as livestock and jewellery. Financial resources can also be obtained through credit-providing institutions. (b) Regular inflows of money: Excluding earned income, the most common types of inflows are pensions or other transfers from the state, and remittances. In order to make a positive contribution to financial capital these inflows must be reliable (while complete reliability can never be guaranteed. There is a difference between a one-off payment and a regular transfer on the basis of which people can plan investments).

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 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).

Tourists contribute to sales, profits, tax revenues, and income in an area. The most direct effects occur within the

primary tourism sectors 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, 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. Furthermore, tourism industries are labor and income intensive, translating a high proportion of sales into income and corresponding jobs (Dodu & P, Maginian A, 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. The number of arrivals has increased steadily from 65,000 in 1964 to over one million in 2010 with a corresponding increase in revenues. 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, is difficult and most families 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.

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 the form of exports since it represents 40 percent of all exports of services, making it one of the largest categories of international trade (UNWTO, 2006). According to the estimates of the World Tourism Organization (2000), the number of international people movements around the world will surge to 1602 million by 2020, while tourism receipts will reach some US\$200 billion. Furthermore, the World Tourism Travel Council (2005) expects that the scale of the world tourism industry, which made up roughly 10.4% of the world's GDP in 2004, will increase to 10.9% in 2014.

When all components of the tourism industry are taken into account, tourism consumption, investment, government spending and exports, the industry grew 5.9% in 2004 alone, reaching US\$5.5 trillion. The 10-year growth forecast is for US\$9.5 trillion in 2014. International tourism would contribute to an income increase at least in two additional ways as the export-led growth hypothesis postulates. In the first place, enhancing efficiency through competition between local firms and the ones corresponding to other international tourist destinations (Bhagwati & Srinivasan, 1979; Krueger, 1980), and in the second place, facilitating the exploitation of economies of scale in local firms (Helpman & Krugman, 1985; Balaguer & Jorda, 2002).

The quick development of tourism led to a growth of household incomes and government revenues directly and indirectly by means of multiplier effects, improving balance of payments and provoking tourism- promoted government policies. As a result, the development of tourism has usually been considered a positive contribution to economic growth (Khan, Phang, & Toh, 1995; Lee & Kwon, 1995; Oh, 2005). Despite the fact that tourism industry is, nowadays, of major importance for the world economy and that for many countries is one of the largest single employers and exporting services sector, applied economists have paid little attention to the empirical examination of possible contributions of this sector to a country's economy as Papatheodorou (1999) argues in his paper. (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 countries worldwide (Oh, 2005). Consequently, it is not surprising to imagine that tourism can be a viable exportoriented economic growth strategy for bringing jobs and development to the people and help in the reduction of abject poverty (Fayissa et al. 2007). The great advantage of tourism sector is that it tends to be labor intensive, so an increase in production is normally achieved by an increase in employment. This is advantageous for those economies that need to decrease unemployment, although it also produces a shock in the job market rising wages in the service sector, inducing mobility across sectors.

Sinclair (1998) suggested that when we attempt to identify and interpret the relationship between tourism and economic activity, we must consider it from two viewpoints, the advantages and disadvantages of tourism development. Tourism, like any other impetus for economic development, potentially has both positive and negative influences on communities and their residents. Generally speaking, the positive contributions that tourism can make include the provision of hard currency, which may help to alleviate a gap in foreign exchange and finance imports of capital goods, increases in personal income, higher tax revenues and additional employment opportunities. Beyond this, 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), much of which is specific to tourism as opposed to a more general use.

Apart from this, tourism expenditure by foreign tourists can enhance domestic tourism construction as well as bring about an accumulation of physical capital, and the needs for skilled labor in the tourism sectors will cause human capital investment to increase. Thus, the tourism sector may contribute significantly to economic growth. On the one hand, an increase in production and income; on the other hand, since tourism sector is labor intensive, an increase in employment. Thus, the tourism sector may contribute significantly to both economic growth and employment in these regions. This is particularly relevant in the case of regions with high rates of unemployment, low levels of per capita GDP and with 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 from an increase in domestic prices that normally tend to reduce welfare would be more than compensated for by the positive effects on the country's overall welfare. Meanwhile, expenditures by foreign tourists may also alter domestic consumption patterns via the so-called demonstration effect, and this can, in fact, be inflationary. These foreign demands for nontraded goods by tourists may create a monopoly power distortion hence causing 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 should be argued that tourism brings in foreign exchange which can be used to import capital goods in order to produce goods and services, leading in turn to economic growth (McKinnon, 1964). In other words, it is possible that tourists provide a remarkable part of the necessary financing for the country to import more than to export. If those imports are capital goods or basic inputs for producing goods in any area of the economy, then, it can be said that earnings from tourism are playing a fundamental role in economic development. In this case, nontourist regions would also benefit from it as a result of the distribution of a country's wealth. (Balaguer & Jorda, 2002). It is generally assumed that tourism expansion should have a positive contribution to economic growth (Kim et al., 2006).

In short, associated with the economic benefits of tourism are the adverse economic, socio-cultural and environmental impact 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 into account. Thus, the costs with respect to societal decay are sacrifices that particular groups or regions must bear as a result of the implementation of mass tourism in developing countries. The other case of social cost or spillover effects of tourism development are 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 additional operations of airports, motor boats, and so on. Tourism imposes still other costs on the host country. Such costs include increased pollution, congestion, or despoliation of fragile environments (Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004).

3.0 Methodology

This study employed qualitative approach using exploratory research design. The target population for this study included the host community, tourism investors, camp managers, Narok County tourism officers and area chief of Mara Naboisho Conservancy. Both purposive and snowball sampling methods were used to select the respondents and information. The study utilized both primary and secondary sources of information. Primary sources included interviews, observations and Focus group discussions. Qualitative Data Analysis (QDA) was employed in data analysis and presentation, where the data was subjected to thematic analysis to capture the recurring of themes.

4.0 Results

The purpose 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. A number of participants noted that the supply of products and services to the conservancy has been their major source of income that sustains their livelihoods. 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 and discussions chefs and kitchen staff, 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 opportunity"

This statement therefore indicated that the impact of Mara Naboisho conservancy has been able to general 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 Consevancy 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. 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 recordkeeping. At Mara Naboisho Conservancy, the private investors provide pasture and interbreeding for the community livestock during periods of drought.

Basecamp Foundation Kenya, in collaboration with the Maa Trust and with funding from the Stromme Foundation, is spearheading a campaign to mobilize women into microfinance saving and investment groups. Direct cash flows through lease of their percels 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 finding agrees with Mc 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 foodstuffs and supporting services from other sectors of the economy and in this way, it can generate new employment opportunities, especially among the low-skilled rural poor. Its link with the agricultural sector is an advantage because this makes it a propeller of economic growth in rural development.

5.0 Conclusion and Recommendation

From this study it was concluded that tourism contribute significantly to financial capital assets to the community. From the study it showed that the local community members engage in the sale of souvenir and cultural tours to acquire financial capital. Therefore, the local community should be empowered to collaborate with the Mara Naboisho Conservancy authorities to set up a location whereby the tourist on their way to the park can make a stopover and have a look at the display of their souvenir and purchase them.

6.0 References

Ashley, C., De Brine, P., Lehr, A. & Wilde, H. (2007). *The Role of the Tourism Sector in Expanding Economic Opportunity. Economic Opportunity Series.* The Fellows of the Harvard College, Overseas Development Institute. International Business Leaders Forum. Cambridge, MA: Kennedy School of Government, Harvard University.

Bloomberg (2017), Non-stop US Flights give Kenya chance to Market Cut Flowers, accessed at

htps://www.bloomberg.com/news/articles, on 15/03/2017)

Conservation in Africa: people, policies and practice. Pg. 149-168, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Creaco, S. & Querini, G. (2003). The role of tourism in sustainable economic development. Presentation at the 43rd congress of the European Regional Science Association, 27 to 30 August 2003, Jyvaskyla, Finland.

Dieke, P. (2003). *The Political Economy of Tourism Development in Africa*. Elmsford

Dodu P, Magenean A., (2013) tourism – a promoter of human development Patricia Dodu, Alexandra Mărginean

Dodu P, Magenean A., (2013) tourism – a promoter of human development Patricia Dodu, Alexandra Mărginean

Doppler, W. & Kitchaicharoen, J. (2002). Towards Measuring Quality of Life in Farming

Durbarry, R. (2002). The economic contribution of tourism in Mauritius. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 29 (3), 862-865.

Esakki T, (2014) Nagaland University, India: Emerging Innovative Marketing Strategies in the Tourism Industry

Fisher, A., Laing, J. & Stoeckel, J. (1985). Handbook for Family Planning Operations

Global Insight (2013). Regional Explorer. [Online] Available: http://www. ihsglobalinsight. co.za/Products/ (20 August 2014).

GoK, (2016), National Trade Policy: Transforming Kenya for a Competitive Export-led and Eicient Domestic Economy. Nairobi: Ministry of Industry, Trade and Cooperatives

Jamieson, W., Goodwin, H., & Edmunds, C. (2004). Contribution of tourism to poverty alleviation: Pro-poor tourism and the challenge of measuring impacts. For Transport Policy and Tourism Section, Transport and Tourism Division, UN ESCAP, Bangkok. Retrieved November 11, 2009

http://www.haroldgoodwin.info/resources/povertyallleviation.pdf

Karanja, G. G., (2002). *Tourist Contributions in Masai Mara National Reserve*. PhD

Kenya Wildlife Service (2012a). *Conservation and Management Strategy for the Elephant in Kenya*, 2012-2021. Nairobi, Kenya: KWS.

Kruja, D., Lufi, M. & Kruja, I. (2012). The role of tourism in developing countries: The case of Albania. *European Scientific Journal*, 8 (19), 129-141.

Kruja, D., Lufi, M. & Kruja, I. (2012). The role of tourism in developing countries: The case of Albania. *European Scientific Journal*, 8 (19), 129-141.

KTB. (2014). *Tourism Statistics* 2014. Nairobi. www.ktb.go.ke

Ladkin A. (2011). Exploring Tourism Labour; Annals of Tourism Research, Vol. 38, No. 3, 1135–1155, .Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved. Great Britain.

Lindsay, K. (2013). *Integrating parks and pastoralists*: some lessons from Amboseli. In Local Government Handbook, South Africa [Online] Available: http://www.localgovernment.co.za/locals/view/40/metsimaho lo-local-municipality (25 September 2014).

Lofland, J. (1971). *Analyzing social settings*. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Pub.

Lofland, J., & Lofland, L. (1984). Analyzing social settings: A guide to qualitative

Mitchell, J., & Ashley, C. (2010). Tourism and poverty reduction: Pathways to prosperity. London: Earthscan New York: Cognizant. *observation and analysis* (2nd ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.

Ondicho 2012. Local communities and ecotourism development in Kimana, Kenya. Journal of Tourism, 13(1): 41–60

Ondicho 2016. Poverty alleviation in Kenya: A review of why anti-poverty strategies have failed. In (A.A. Bard, J.B. Ndohvu & B. Tiberius, eds.) Poverty and Human Rights: East African Experiences, pp. 82–94. Focus Publishers, Nairobi

Ondicho, T.G. 2010. Tourism, Power and Politics: The Challenges of Maasai Involvement in Tourism Development. Doctor's Thesis, Massey University, Palmerston North, New Zealand *Research Design*. New York: Population Council.

United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) (2006a). *Poverty Alleviation through Tourism: A Compilation of Good Practices*. Madrid: UNWTO.

United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) (2006b). *Tourism Market Trends, 2006 Edition.* Madrid: UNWTO.

United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) (2014). *Tourism Highlights, 2014 Edition*. Madrid: UNWTO. United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) (2015). Tourism Press Release No 15006, 27 January 2015. [Online] Available: http://media.unwto.org/press-release. (29 January 2015).

United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO). (2000). Sustainable Development of Tourism: A Compilation of Good Practices. Madrid: UNWTO.

UNWTO [United Nations World Tourism Organization], (1996). *Compendium of Tourism*

UNWTO [United Nations World Tourism Organization], (2002). *Enhancing the livelihoods*.

Vaugeois, N. (2000). Tourism in developing countries: Refining a useful tool for economic development. [Online] Available: http://fama2.us.es (10 September 2014).

54978