

**MAASAI ENTREPRENEURSHIP IN TOURISM AND ACCESS TO
EDUCATION: A CASE OF KIMANA TIKONDO GROUP RANCH,
KAJIADO COUNTY, KENYA.**

BY

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DEDICATION

This project paper is dedicated to my loving family and friends. I am highly indebted to my loving parents and siblings who gave me emotional support and encouraged me throughout the journey.

To all my friends, I highly appreciate your endless support and great ideas in the process of writing this project paper.

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ABSTRACT

The Maasai have embraced tourism entrepreneurship as a means to supplement and diversify their sources of livelihood and spur development in their homelands. Access to education is one of the indicators of development. The objectives of the study were: to determine the different tourism entrepreneurial activities undertaken by Maasai households in Kimana; to analyze the benefits that households derive from tourism entrepreneurship; and to examine how these benefits have enhanced access to education. The study was guided by the community entrepreneurial model and a conceptual framework developed for the research. The study was conducted in Kimana group ranch which lies adjacent to Amboseli Nation Park in May 2015. Both qualitative and quantitative data were collected using a closed and open ended questionnaire and key informant interviews.

The study established that Maasai households were involved in a wide range of tourism entrepreneurial activities including selling curios and handicrafts to tourists, tour guiding/interpreting, beadworks, entertainment, selling Maasai shukas¹ and as managers of their own tourism enterprises from which they accrued various financial and non-financial benefits. While many households in this study utilized significant amounts of income accrued from their tourism entrepreneurial activities to purchase basic necessities and foodstuffs, a small but critical amount was used to enhance access to education through paying for the cost of putting up educational infrastructure, paying fees, hiring teachers and purchasing school supplies. It was observed that the amount of benefits that households accrued from their tourism entrepreneurship were low and this limited their capacity to commit more resources to enhancing access to education.

The main conclusion from the study is that tourism entrepreneurship has the potential to generate enormous benefits for the Maasai households but at the moment these benefits are small and their contribution to enhancing access to education is minimal. The potential of tourism entrepreneurship to enhance access to education depends on the amount of benefits accrued, household priorities and decisions on how much money is to be spent on other household pressing needs. The study suggests that if Maasai entrepreneurs in tourism generate more benefits from their enterprises, households will increase their expenditures on enhancing access education at the household level. The study recommended that in order for Maasai households to increase their expenditures on enhancing access to education, they need to maximize their benefits from tourism entrepreneurship. Therefore there is an urgent need for household entrepreneurs to expand and diversify the range of tourism activities they undertake; need for capacity building, education and training in business management, planning and product development; need for the government to promote Maasai tourism attraction to increase visitation in order to increase the direct benefits they derive from the industry.

¹ Maasai shuka refers to a piece of fabric or garment made of cotton worn around the body by the Maasai. They are usually red although there are other colors

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

| | |
|-------------|--|
| ANP | Amboseli national park |
| CTEM | Community Tourism Entrepreneurship Model |
| KWS | Kenya Wildlife Service |
| MDGs | Millennium Development Goals |
| MMNR | Maasai Mara National Reserve |
| NGOs | Non-Governmental Organizations |
| PPT | Pro-Poor Tourism |

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

1.1.1 An Overview of Tourism, Maasai and Conservation

The development of tourism as an international business can be traced to affluence in the industrialized countries. International tourism has expanded significantly since the end of the Second World War and is, today, arguably one of the largest and fastest growing sectors of the world's economy (United Nations World Tourism Organisation, 2010). It has been identified as one of the leading sources of foreign exchange earnings, job creation and tool for sustainable development in both developed and developing countries including Kenya (Scheyvens, 2007; United Nations World Tourism Organisation, 2010). In addition to acting as a catalyst for sustainable development, the tourism industry in many developing countries was identified as one of the key sectors for the attainment of some of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), for example, eradication of extreme poverty, environmental sustainability, and providing gender equality and empowering women (UNWTO, 2006). In Kenya, tourism has been identified as one of the key drivers of Vision 2030 including promotion of economic development and poverty alleviation. Owing to the importance of the tourism sector to national, regional and rural development, the Government of Kenya has over the past two decades adopted strategies to promote and support citizen participation in tourism and its associated entrepreneurial opportunities (Mburu, 2004). It is because of tourism's enormous potential to contribute to poverty alleviation, improvement of the standards of living for the local people and to stimulate sustainable development that the focus of my study is on tourism entrepreneurship among the Maasai of Kenya.

The Maasai are an indigenous group of subsistence nomadic pastoralists living in the arid and semi-arid rangelands (ASALs) of southern Kenya and northern Tanzania. While traditionally the Maasai were mostly dependent on cattle herding, in modern times, they earn their livelihood by combining herding with crop farming and small-scale businesses. . Even though the Maasai have to a certain extent embraced modern ways of living, they are still known internationally for adhering to their traditional livestock-oriented lifestyles, highly resilient culture, and residence near Kenya's wildlife protected areas (Ondicho, 2010; Ritsma and Ongaro, 2000; Azarya, 2004). In addition to many of them living in absolute poverty, they also exhibit low levels of literacy (Ndemo, 2005).

Traditionally, the Maasai occupied vast areas of land which they freely roamed with their cattle. However, alienation of their most fertile ancestral lands by the colonial government to create room for European settlers confined them into smaller areas in marginal lands (Kituyi, 1990; Okoth-Ogendo, 1991). More Maasai land was appropriated by the colonial and post-colonial governments to create room for wildlife protected areas (national parks and games reserves), Kenya's main tourism attraction. Further, more than three quarters of Kenya's wildlife reserves which occupy about 10% of the country surface area are located on land presently or previously occupied by pastoralist communities mainly the Maasai (Okoth-Ogendo, 1991).

During the time of creating wildlife protected areas in Kenya, the Maasai like other indigenous communities around the globe were forcefully evicted from their ancestral lands without any compensation (Kituyi, 1990; Adams and Hutton, 2007; Norton-Griffiths, 2006). The evicted households suffered from loss of land and property and deteriorating levels of subsistence. They were also banned from entering the park and extracting critical livelihood resources such as water and pasture (Kituyi, 1990; Okoth-Ogendo, 1991). While the Maasai were banned from entering the park and conducting any form of human activity, their wild animals from the park freely foraged on people's land competing with their livestock for scarce range resources and spreading diseases to livestock, destroyed crops and property, injuring and killing people. Further, very little of the money generated from tourism in the parks trickled down to the local Maasai, yet they are the ones shouldering the costs of conservation. This, coupled with recurrent droughts, increases in human population, and dwindling land sizes have exerted considerable pressure on Maasai households' livestock economy. As a result, the Maasai households are gradually becoming poorer and their quality of life is deteriorating (Honey, 2008:33; Ndemo, 2005:85).

Against a backdrop of increased human-wildlife conflicts, poaching and privatization of wildlife dispersal areas, the government of Kenya through the Kenya Wildlife Service's has since the mid-1990s been encouraging and supporting Maasai communities living around wildlife protected areas to invest in tourism development. The government policy of community participation in tourism development was spelt out in the Zebra Book, a policy document developed by KWS to guide wildlife conservation and development of wildlife tourism. This policy has been amplified in other policy documents including the National Tourism Development Master Plan (NTDMP), (GoK and JICA, 1995) Tourism Act 2011 (GoK, 2011), Wildlife Conservation and Management Act 2013 (GoK, 2013) and various

National Development Plans. The main aim of involving local communities especially the Maasai in tourism is to reduce human-wildlife conflicts, promote wildlife conservation, improve the livelihoods of marginalized communities including women and the youth and achieve sustainable development (Ondicho, 2010; Scheyvens, 2007; 2002). It is argued that entrepreneurial activity in tourism by poor households is a way of ensuring that they benefit from tourism and by extension achieve sustainable rural development. This is the case as benefits including creation and increase in employment opportunities, increased access to food as a result of increased incomes, investment in education and health promotes the well being of the households in the present and future.

1.1.2 Maasai Entrepreneurship in Tourism and Access to Education

The term entrepreneurship is often associated with new and innovative economic activity encompassing different principles including innovation that materializes in new products, new services, new processes, new raw materials, new organization forms and new markets (Schumpeter, 1934 in Ateljevic and Page, 2009: 22). Entrepreneurship within the field of tourism involves the innovations involving emerging of new products, and substantial creativity in the industry (Ateljevic and Page, 2009: 24). Fusco and Nijkamp (2012:3) characterizes tourism entrepreneurship as “one way of providing local communities with diversified economic alternatives at the community level which would eventually reduce the day-to-day pressure livelihood activities placed on protected areas and encouraging sustainable rural development”. Faced with declining livestock production, high levels of unemployment, low levels of education, poverty, dwindling land sizes and hostile climatic conditions, Maasai households are increasingly turning to entrepreneurship in tourism as an innovative strategy for poverty alleviation, livelihood diversification and job creation (Sindiga, 1999; Ondicho, 2010). To achieve this, Maasai households are now opening up their *cultural bomas*² to tourists, perform traditional song and dance, and sell locally manufactured handcrafts. They are also setting up conservancies, wildlife sanctuaries and campsites to diversify their tourism entrepreneurial activities (Scheyvens, 2007). Entrepreneurship in tourism has a positive resonance with the Maasai households since it draws on indigenous knowledge, and depends on locally available resources (Ndemo 2005; Azarya, 2004).

² Cultural boma refers to a village like a true Maasai customary homestead but not occupied by families. It is used as a tourist attraction and commercial centre for tourism activities.

Education, on the other hand, refers to the activities that aim at developing individual knowledge, skills, moral values, and understanding required in all aspects of life rather than knowledge and skills relating to a limited field of activity (Manpower Service Commission, 1981 cited in Wilson 2005). Education can be formal, non-formal, or informal. The study focused on formal education which is linked with schools and training institutions and characterized by a curriculum, and examinations at the end of the prescribed period of study leading to acquisition of certificate. Formal education is divided into stages such as pre-school, primary school, secondary school and tertiary. The key concerns in education include access, retention, quality and relevance, equity, and internal and external efficiencies within the education system (KIPPRA, 2013). The key concern for this study was access to education understood as the ability of parents or guardians to take their children to school.

Education plays a crucial role in individual development in terms of skills acquisition, career development, creativity, communication, behavioral and attitude change. Through access to better education, individuals develop an understanding of ideas influencing the society they live in, increase responsiveness, better use of resources and opportunities, and productivity hence enhancing sustainable rural development. As a result, education has been promoted as a basic and mandatory need for every person both in developing and developed countries (Wilson, 2005). In Kenya, the importance of education is demonstrated in the government annual budget, Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), Vision 2030 and in the UNESCO goal that stipulates Education For All (KIPPRA, 2013). While Kenya has made big strides in educational development, there are still great disparities among different communities in participation and provision of education. Pastoralist communities especially the Maasai continue to experience low levels of participation in education due to inadequacies in the Kenyan government's education policies and practices which lack flexibility (Sifuna, et al., 2013). Other challenges include cultural beliefs and practices which stress traditional gender roles i.e., livestock herding for boys and womanhood for girls; poverty and risks of accessing learning institutions posed by wild animals (Legget, 2005, Sifuna et al., 2013). While the Maasai traditionally shunned education, today they have tended to acknowledge the importance of education and are taking their children to school so that they can improve and diversify their livelihoods and develop their homelands. Increasingly they are looking for opportunities to enhance their access to education for their children. Tourism entrepreneurship is therefore increasingly viewed as one of the means for generating household income which can be used in enhancing access to education and improving the

standards of living at the household level. Taking Maasai entrepreneurship in tourism as a case study, the current study examined if and how tourism entrepreneurship has enhanced access to education through an analysis of the different benefits that accrue to individual households and how they have been used to enhance access to education at the household level.

Access to education may occur as a result of interventions from different stakeholders (including the State through Constituency Development Fund (CDF), Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs), religious organizations, and International donors), but the study gave attention to whether Maasai household involvement in tourism enhanced access to education. The study therefore examined if and how tourism entrepreneurship produced benefits to individual households in ways that enhanced the ability of parents or guardians to take children to school. To achieve the set overall objective on how tourism entrepreneurship enhances access to education the study used the following measurable indicators: ability of parents to pay school fees, buy uniforms, build classrooms or schools and invest in other learning facilities, and number of children going to school and to what levels. This study used Kimana/Tikondo group ranch for empirical analysis.

1.1.3 Background of Kimana/Tikondo Group Ranch

A Group Ranch (GR) refers to a community based conservation-oriented tourism operation developed under the cooperative land tenure system (Hannah, 1992 cited in Rutten, 2004). Among the Maasai, the GR system replaced the traditional communal land tenure system with joint ownership of land demarcated by officially known borders (Rutten, 2004). Kimana/Tikondo Group Ranch (hereafter, Kimana) is one of the GR that lies on the base of the Northern foothills of Mount Kilimanjaro and adjacent to Amboseli National Park (ANP) in Kajiado County. The ranch covers an area of approximately 25,120 hectares and is an important migration corridor for wildlife (especially elephants) between Tsavo National Park and Amboseli National Park (Reid et al., 1999; Rutten, 2004).

Kimana was set up in 1996 as a donor-funded Conservation of Bio-diversity Resource Areas (COBRA) project communally owned by 845 extended families of the indigenous Maasai pastoralists (Ondicho, 2012). It was against the sub-division and conversion of group ranches into privately owned farmland that KWS initiated the establishment of Kimana to curb increased human-wildlife conflicts and poaching. The move also aimed at supporting development of tourism in a way that creates opportunities for local Maasai pastoralists to

improve their livelihoods (Meguro, 2009). The GR concept entitled member families to an annual dividend paid from the entrance and lease fees from campsites and a game lodge. Some of the proceeds could also be retained for joint community development projects (Honey, 2008; Rutten, 2004).

Currently, the ranch has been sub-divided into small family and individually owned ranches managed by the Group Ranch Committee (GRC) elected by the owners of the land. The GRC has legal power and authority to make decisions on user rights over natural resources as well as membership (Pickard 1998 cited in Ondicho, 2010). The Maasai in Kimana have sought to exploit the commercial advantage of their communal land by establishing tourism related entrepreneurial activities within the GR alongside other economic activities including agriculture and pastoralism from which they earn their livelihood (Ndemo, 2005). On the one hand, these entrepreneurial activities are run by local individuals, families, or organized groups. On the other hand, entrepreneurial activities are run in partnership where group, family or individual conservancies are leased either to private companies or individual entrepreneurs based outside the Kimana (Meguro, 2009; Ondicho, 2012).

1.2 Problem Statement

The Maasai represents one of the indigenous communities in Kenya who have embraced tourism entrepreneurship as an innovative strategy to harness their natural and cultural heritage for tourism gains. This embrace is forced by their worsening livelihood chances as evidenced in the dwindling land sizes, increased poverty, population increase, decline in livestock numbers, deteriorating levels of subsistence, and hostile climatic conditions (Ndemo, 2005; Ondicho, 2010). Following this, Maasai households have established their own small-scale community based nature and cultural tourism entrepreneurial activities and enterprises (Ondicho, 2010) seeing them as a potential source of their livelihood. Despite the promise and potential tourism holds for local populace, there is a growing concern on whether the individual households involved have benefited from their investment and if so how (Scheyvens, 2007). While proceeds from tourism entrepreneurship can be used in different ways, the study sought to examine if and how tourism entrepreneurship enhanced access to education. Specifically, it examined what gains individual households derived from tourism entrepreneurship and if and how the gains have been used to enhance access to education of household members. The measurable indicators included ability of parents and guardians to pay school fees, buy books, build classrooms or schools, buy uniforms, and

investment in other learning facilities. The study examined the amount of proceeds from tourism entrepreneurial activities channeled to education, the number of the children the funds can support to attend school and to what levels, and determined if the proceeds were sufficient for sustained access to education. This helped to assess how tourism entrepreneurship has enhanced access to education in individual Maasai households in Kimana Tikondo Group Ranch.

1.3 Research Questions

The study was guided by the following broad and specific research questions:

1.3.1 Broad Research Question

What is the contribution of Maasai engagement in tourism entrepreneurship to enhancing access to education in Kimana?

1.3.2 Specific Research Questions

- i. What are the different tourism entrepreneurial activities the Maasai households are involved within Kimana?
- ii. What are the benefits from tourism entrepreneurship to Maasai households in Kimana?
- iii. How have the benefits from tourism entrepreneurship enhanced access to education in Kimana?

1.4 Objectives of the Study

The research was guided by the following general and specific objectives:

1.4.1 General Objective

To examine how Maasai engagement in tourism entrepreneurship enhances access to education in Kimana.

1.4.2 Specific Objectives

- i. To investigate the different tourism entrepreneurial activities that the Maasai households in Kimana are engaged with.
- ii. To analyze the benefits from tourism entrepreneurship to Maasai households in Kimana.

- iii. To assess how the benefits from tourism entrepreneurship have enhanced access to education in Kimana.

1.5 Justification

The study was justified on the grounds that previous studies on tourism among the Maasai have paid little or no attention to the linkage between tourism entrepreneurship and access to education using the household level as a unit of study. Much of the existing research literature including Ndemo, (2005); Sindiga, (1999); Scheyvens, (2007, 2002); Mbaiwa, (2008) and Pagdin, (1995) focused almost exclusively on protected areas and impacts of tourism in a holistic way. The study was also justified on the basis that access to education is considered a means to reducing poverty, making other investments more productive, demographic transition, preventive health care, empowerment of women, reduction in inequality and an avenue for other social and political development since educated people are a key component to development process (KIPPRA, 2013; Wilson, 2005).

Thus, there are gaps in our understanding of the linkage between Maasai entrepreneurship in tourism and access to education that this study sought to address. The study generated new empirical knowledge to fill the gaps in our understanding and in the literature on how Maasai entrepreneurship in tourism contributes to access to education. The study also contributes to adding new depths and richness to the discipline of development studies and to the stakeholders whose efforts are geared towards encouraging rural development through household improvement by generating a new body of empirical knowledge on the contemporary situation of the Maasai households, their involvement in tourism entrepreneurship and access to education.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

Tourism plays a great role in growing the economy in terms of foreign exchange earnings, employment creation and tool for sustainable rural development in many countries (Scheyvens, 2007). While previous literature including Thompson and Homewood, (2002); Kaplinsky and Morris, (2004); Ondicho, (2010) depicts local communities as powerless victims in the face of tourism development, indigenous communities in remote rural areas have embraced tourism entrepreneurship as a means to improve their household welfare and to spur development in their homelands. Chapter one presented an overview of tourism, Maasai and conservation linking the Maasai with tourism development and conservation; tourism entrepreneurship and access to education and background of Kimana Tikondo group ranch which provides the context of the study. This chapter provides a review of literature on tourism and tourism entrepreneurship in Kenya, benefits from tourism entrepreneurial activities to local communities including access to education, and theoretical framework informed by community tourism entrepreneurship model that inform this study. The review seeks to identify the gap on the contribution of tourism entrepreneurship on access to education. The literature on tourism in Kenya will be reviewed to provide the contextual background for understanding the contribution of tourism entrepreneurship to access to education. Community Tourism Entrepreneurship Model and a conceptual framework are also presented as part of the literature.

2.2 Theoretical Literature

2.2.1. Community Tourism Entrepreneurship Model

Community Tourism Entrepreneurship Model (CTEM) represents a strategy for tourism product development and distribution chain. CTEM not only puts local communities at the centre of tourism development but also shifts emphasis away from the traditional tourism top-down planning and management models to the bottom-up approach. Traditionally, local communities were viewed as powerless actors in the face of externally induced progress including tourism (Kaplinsky and Morris, 2004). In most destinations, host communities and households are not only excluded from tourism planning and decision making processes, but also receive very little of the benefits that accrue from tourism yet they are the custodians of tourism attractions found in their localities (Jommo, 1987 cited in Sindiga 1999; Ondicho,

2010). CTEM has therefore been developed as new tourism development model that seeks to increase local households' participation in tourism planning, benefit sharing, ownership and control over this development process (Reid, et al., 1999). The broad aim of CTEM is to unlock opportunities for poor host communities and households to benefit from tourism and to mitigate the industry's negative social, cultural and environmental impacts.

The CTEM has also been promoted as one of the pro-poor tourism (PPT) development models whose objects are to increase local access to direct tourism benefits including employment, income generation, access to food, health, education and training to all households involved and to spread those indirect benefits such as infrastructure including electricity, transport, water and telecommunication to the community at large. PPT also seeks to address undesirable social, cultural, economic and environmental impacts engendered by tourism. The strategies for achieving these goals include removing barriers to poor households' participation in tourism planning, decision making processes and benefit sharing. These goals are realized through creating partnerships between private investors and the local communities, and involving destination communities in all aspects of tourism development (Scheyvens, 2007).

Pundits of PPT including Ashley et al., (2000); Sindiga, (1999); Reid et al., (1999); Butler and Hinch, (1996); Scheyvens, (2007) maintain that tourism entrepreneurship can potentially offer opportunities for local communities to benefits from tourism and environment. They suggest that tourism entrepreneurial activities may be a form of development for rural households which are becoming more involved with a market economy. A growing number of scholars and researchers have also suggested that community tourism entrepreneurship is essential and necessary in circumventing the difficulties that derive from foreign ownership of tourism at the local level (Southgate, 2006). By keeping it small scale and benefits local, tourism may minimize economic leakages and undesirable impacts, and stimulate access to education (Ashley and Roe, 2002). The justification for promoting and encouraging entrepreneurship in tourism hinges on the fact that most tourist attractions are generally located in remote areas where a large majority of the poor households reside. These are areas that offer little or nothing else in terms of economic opportunity and the local communities and households are in dire need for alternative sources of livelihood and generating development finance.

The model aims to promote sustainable rural development as households are envisaged to derive benefits through employment and income generation (Scheyvens, 2007). As local communities and households begin to derive direct and indirect benefits from tourism they are expected to invest in the development of their own households and communities at large. Tourism entrepreneurship has a positive resonance with local households and communities because it utilizes locally available materials, attractions and that people can combine it with other traditional activities (Charnley, 2005). Ashley and Roe (2002) underscore the fact that tourism entrepreneurship can make it possible for poor households to earn benefits which they can use to improve their livelihoods especially through enhancing access to education. On contrary, Kamau (1999) argues that the local people lack skills, expertise and training in managerial skills since they are dependent on knowledge gained in school hence making it difficult to run the enterprises in an efficient way. According to Sindiga (1999:70) many of the locally owned tourism enterprises such as curio and souvenir businesses are not only undercapitalized but also are run by inexperienced entrepreneurs hence making it difficult for them to effectively compete with foreign firms.

Ashley and Roe (2002) further underscore the fact that tourism opportunities are created for poor households to utilize and improve their livelihoods. This therefore calls for changes on how tourism businesses operate to ensure that they create an environment which can make it possible for poor households to benefit (Scheyvens, 2002). Scheyvens (2007:244) emphasized the fact that it is not about establishing numerous community-run bungalow-style ventures but advocates for a legislative framework which promotes the principles of pro-poor tourism rather than the present entrenchment of existing inequalities in society reflected by the well being of different households. She further highlights the point that big players in the tourism industry have very powerful lobby groups which can easily thwart efforts to open up opportunities to the poor.

2.3 Empirical Literature

2.3.1 Tourism in Kenya

As with many developing countries in the world, tourism has become one of the most important industries in Kenya and is increasingly viewed as a means to reduce unemployment rates, diversify the local livelihoods, reduce poverty, and improve household incomes (Sindiga, 1999; Ndemo, 2005). Following this, the tourism industry in Kenya has increasingly been promoted since the mid 1990s as one of the strategies for development as

tourism has implications for household improvement including especially enhanced access to education. Tourism is Kenya's second largest single source of foreign exchange earnings after horticulture (Kenya economic survey, 2013). According to the Kenya economic survey (2013:24-27) in the year 2012, agriculture recorded 344.8 billion, tourism at 96.0 billion and manufacturing 47.5 billion. This performance means that if the benefits from the tourism industry are well used, tourism development can enhance households' well being in terms of access to education, health, and food.

Tourism industry has slowly developed from 1960s when the country attained political independence from Britain. Tourism makes very important contributions to Kenya's national and regional economies through the trickledown effect. The industry's trickledown effects are experienced through tourism-induced demand for goods and services in other economic sectors such as car hire companies, handicraft/curio shops, agriculture, health centres, restaurants, and institutions such as schools. Multiplier effects arguably are also felt through the sharing of tourism infrastructures such as national parks and game reserves, airports, water points, roads, hotels and restaurants with other economic sectors. Such infrastructures help to enhance and encourage greater economic diversification as well as macro and micro development especially in neglected areas (Ondicho, 2010; Akama, 2002; Ndemo, 2005).

The Kenyan government has pursued a policy to indigenize the tourism industry through local entrepreneurial activity and employment (Banchmann, 1998). However, indigenization policy in tourism as in other sectors of the economy has tended to proceed at a slow pace and is dictated by foreign tourism investors. This is because most tourism and hospitality facilities are owned and controlled by firms and financiers from the West. Foreign investments are particularly strong in large-scale capital-intensive tourism infrastructures such as hotels, tour operators and travel businesses (Kareithi, 2003; Akama, 2002). About two thirds of the country's gross tourism receipts are not only leaked back to the industrialized nations as payments to expatriates, servicing of foreign loans or tourism related imports such as alcoholic drinks and safari vehicles, but also through inclusive tour packages sold overseas (Akama, 2000).

Many indigenous Kenyans tend to own small firms that are often sub-contracted by multinational tour companies at very low contractual fees. As a result they receive only insignificant amounts of the tourism revenue (Akama, 2002). Also the local enterprises are owned by local elites and not communities in the tourism areas. Thus, the effects of the

indigenization policy have not been felt in the tourist industry as they have in the agricultural and industrial sectors. The indigenization goal in tourism has been achieved insofar as local investors - particularly the political elites and government - undertake joint ventures with private foreign investors. This explains why communities have recently also started to invest in tourism so that they also get a piece of the cake (Scheyvens, 2007).

2.3.2 Tourism Entrepreneurship

In the past four decades many rural communities in tourism destination areas in the developing countries have increasingly started to engage in small-scale community-based tourism as a form of entrepreneurial activity. The involvement of indigenous communities in rural and peripheral areas in tourism entrepreneurship has created new opportunities to create value where previously there was none (Honey, 2008). Benefits and opportunities created in tourism have played an important role in diversifying and supplementing local sources of livelihoods, improving the quality of life for individual families and households, offering avenues for poverty reduction, and job creation (Adams and Hutton, 2007). Locally owned small scale tourism enterprises have been shown to be a realistic way of attaining self reliance and for the empowerment of previously marginalized groups of people at the household and community level (Musyoki, et al., 1992). Following this, local entrepreneurs have learnt to use tourism to their own benefit and as a way to regain control of their development especially where the indigenous communities are concerned (Koenig, 2010; Briedenham and Wickens, 2003).

Different studies including Ondicho, (2010); Honey, (2008); Padgin, (1995) reveal that local communities in different countries have organized themselves to create different income generating activities in tourism. These activities revolve around creating conservancies and sanctuaries, creating cultural villages or homes, also providing camping concessions and exclusive campsites. They have established partnerships with lodge and hotel operators, guiding tours, and supply of goods and services to tourists and lodges alongside other on and off season economic activities like agriculture, livestock herding, wage labor and other small scale businesses. Case studies around the world confirm that different communities engage in tourism entrepreneurial activities. For instance the Pokhara in Nepal are involved in creating conservancies or wildlife areas, cultural homes, sale of curios, providing camping concessions and hotel and bar operation (Pagdin, 1995). The same has been reported in Balinese in Bali, Indonesia, Maori in New Zealand (Butler and Hinch, 1996), Giriama and Taita of Kenya to name but a few communities that have embraced tourism entrepreneurship

as a strategy to development by means of diversifying and supplementing their sources of livelihood (Kamau, 1999).

The Maasai people of Kenya exhibit low levels of education, high levels of unemployment and poverty. To combat these challenges, the Maasai have increasingly started to participate in the market through entrepreneurial activities in tourism, agriculture and formal employment as a means to improve their conditions of living. While some Maasai are venturing into agriculture, others have started tourism enterprises to meet their needs and as ways to supplement their sources of wealth, and provide income (Ndemo, 2005; Meguro, 2009). They have embraced tourism as a means to diversify their sources of livelihood and to enhance social and economic development in their homelands. Urry, (1990); Ondicho, (2010) have observed that the Maasai are involved in tourism in a dual capacity: first as entrepreneurs and managers of their own enterprises, and secondly as objects of tourist gaze. As entrepreneurs the Maasai have established their own small scale community based wildlife and cultural based tourism enterprises.

Community-based wildlife tourism enterprises in Maasai land include: wildlife sanctuaries, conservancies and campsites. However, most of these tourist enterprises are either leased out to foreign tourism investors or are jointly operated by the Maasai people in partnership with foreign investors. Whether it's a partnership and lease, the Maasai expect to get benefits from the tourism activities (Mburu, 2004; Waktins, 2002). However, the existing literature (Reid, et al., 1999; Southgate, 2006) suggests that Maasai participation in wildlife tourism is indirect and passive as they are not directly involved in the day-to-day operation of the tourism business in community based and locally owned wildlife tourism enterprises. With the exception of a few local elites who serve in the management committee of these enterprises and act as the middlemen between the community and the foreign investors/partners, many local people only receive token benefits from their investment in wildlife tourism in terms of the foregone opportunity of using their land for other livelihood activities (Thompson and Homewood, 2002; Scheyvens, 2007). Mburu, (2004); Waktins, (2002); and Rogerson, (2007) have discussed the complexities associated with partnership projects between local communities and outside interests in tourism. They argue that the Maasai have not only lost potential control over wildlife tourism, tourist resources and revenues to foreign investors and partners but also a sense of ownership. Ondicho, (2010) concludes that rather than partnerships engendering mutually beneficial relationships with control firmly vested in local hands, community-based wildlife tourism among the Maasai has become a source of bitter

political struggles and conflicts within the community and that these conflicts have divided the community right in the middle thus diminishing their chances of benefiting from this form of tourism.

As a response to the conflicts of tourism gain and control, the Maasai have shifted their interest into cultural tourism mainly *cultural boma* tourism. Maasai *cultural bomas* tourism is an indigenously home-grown tourism initiative in which the Maasai people have sought to exert closer local control over the organization, economics and socio-cultural impacts of this development process. *Cultural bomas* are established as commercial enterprises by Maasai entrepreneurs who want to sell their culture and artifacts (Charnely, 2005). In the *cultural bomas*, Maasai entrepreneurs not only offer cultural entertainment in form of traditional dance and song to tourists and willingly display themselves to be photographed and observed as an additional tourist attraction to the wildlife at a fee. However, the local people indicate that it was out of their own choice to participate in tourism, some on the other hand indicate that Maasai involvement in tourism was invented by the KWS headquarters but disguised as a local initiative at the community level (Ondicho, 2010).

Many scholars have argued that the conversion of aspects of a local community's cultural heritage into commodities for consumption by tourists is symptomatic of the commoditization of local culture. Azarya, (2004) has discussed this issue in more detail in his book *marginality as a commercial commodity*. He relates marginality to a perception of primitivism in the western eyes towards places and people that become the objects of their curiosity. He argues that attraction to the different is not necessarily attraction to the marginal as seen by the tourists who are curious about the margins of human existence. He further argues that marginality can be as a result of modern developments that have pushed some people to the margins of the society and of respectable appearance. This has an important impact on people who are objects of this attention as they become tourist exhibits leading to economic incorporation which depends on the continued representation of the cultural marginality.

The Maasai who are among the marginalized indigenous communities, display marginality as a condition of earning benefits by selling their own marginality in different tourism entrepreneurial activities they are engaged with (Azarya, 2004). They achieve this by maintaining marginality, turn it into saleable commodity and maximize its commercial value

for all involved. They display their difference by putting on a show –actors on stage–through taking off modernity during when the tourists are in their community. They also ensure some elements of their culture are preserved and passed to new generations so as it is sustained over a long time to act as a tourist attraction in order to be of commercial value (Bruner and Kirshenblatt-gimblett, 1994; Monibiot, 1998; Bruner, 2001).

The Maasai are prominent objects of tourism attention or attraction as they are some of the most famous cultural others whose culture is used as a unique tourist attraction, the area they inhabit is very rich in wildlife, and is relatively accessible as it is not distant from big cities (Keefe, 1995). Beyond the wildlife attraction, the local Maasai become tourist exhibits as the natives are not only simply there to provide services, but also an integral part of the exotic spectacle. Though they have been forced to abandon some of their rituals, the Maasai continue to attract a high degree of curiosity and fascination particularly in the west where they are famed for their reluctance to accept the trappings of modernization, co-existence with wildlife and strong adherence to their culture (Ristma and Ongaro, 2000). This tourism curiosity has been an incentive to various Maasai tourism entrepreneurs to package some elements of their culture as an exhibit to tourists and stress their difference from the tourist own culture. They modify their cultures to make them absorbed by foreign visitors or to make them commercial commodities. This is the case as some of the objects industrially produced in urban centres or even imported from other countries and resold as local crafts, but many of the crafts and other cultural practices are still produced or exhibited by the indigenous people themselves though sometimes in modified forms which are then in turn used to earn income for new and old economic and social needs (Iranu, 2004; Azarya, 2004; Ondicho, 2010).

2.3.3 Benefits from Different Tourism Entrepreneurial Activities to Local Communities

Tourism as an international business has been identified and embraced as a means to attaining development in both the developed and developing world. This is in terms of internationalizing economies and earning income to meet national development goals, stimulating investment, earning foreign exchange, improvement of balance of payments, diversifying export base, creating markets, generating employment and large multiplier effects which could in turn contribute to local development (Hawkins and Mann, 2007; Rogerson, 2007). Following this many communities in the developing countries have started to participate directly in tourism development within their villages.

Although tourism entrepreneurship may not generate a significant amount of income to individuals or households due to its seasonal nature and high leakages, the supplementary income generated either directly or indirectly from pay and salaries, interest, rent and profits, and multiplier effect plays an important role in improving local livelihoods (Sindiga, 2000; 2002). Ashley, et al., (2000); Halloway, (2009) and Mowforth and Munt, (2008) argue that through good planning, the tourism industry can powerfully transform individual households and communities through increasing food security, reducing poverty levels, protecting biodiversity, health care, creation of employment, investment in education, development of infrastructure and fostering economic independence of indigenous people.

According to Harris et al., (2002) tourism entrepreneurship creates income and employment opportunities for the local individuals and households, and also provides new occupational opportunities for the youth and women. These opportunities occur either directly or indirectly in both formal and informal sectors, in part-time and full-time positions. Most of the direct tourism-related jobs are created in the amalgam of trade in the restaurant, transport, tour guiding, souvenirs and in other services and recreational activities. Induced employment occurs in tourism allied sectors such as agriculture, craft industry, money and banking, and music industry (Sindiga, 2002; Kamau, 1999; Pagdin, 1995; Ondicho, 2010).

Case studies around the world confirm that different communities engaging in tourism entrepreneurship create employment opportunities earning local households a substantial income. For example, studies done in vendors in Kuta, Komodo and Sanur, Indonesia; Pokhara, Nepal; Coast, Amboseli, and Maasai Mara National Reserve in Kenya show that although tourism is seasonal in nature, the relative salary and status of tourism jobs are higher than in other sectors of the economy (Kamau, 1999; Pagdin, 1995; Homewwod and Thompson, 2002; Ondicho, 2010). Although Karenga (1995) questions the quality of jobs created, a study on the role of village tourist centres of Coast, Kenya on regional development revealed that tourism entrepreneurship created 88.5 percent employment opportunities to the local residents since there were no other opportunities presented to them (Kamau, 1999: VII). The studies also reveal that local households benefit from non-cash livelihood impacts including development of projects financed from tourism income including donations and assistance from tourists, KWS and local tour operators. They include schools, health clinics, improved roads, water boreholes, electricity which hopefully provides grounds for future development.

Although the local households benefit from tourism entrepreneurship, different studies including Thompson and Homewood, (2002); Ondicho, (2010); Reid et al., (1999); Mbaiwa, (2008) show that there are constraints faced at the households level. The challenges identified include inequitable revenue distribution, driver/guide exploitation, and external interferences. For example, studies in Nepal and Maasai Mara National Reserve (MMNR) reveal that however tourism entrepreneurship provides a major source of income and employment opportunities, it is a select group of the local individuals or households with specific attributes and abilities that benefit directly (Pagdin, 1995; Thompson and Homewood, 2002).

The literature reviewed provides insights to understanding the benefits that accrue to individual households involved in tourism entrepreneurship which will in turn show implications of tourism entrepreneurship for household improvement including enhanced access to education in Kimana. Since time and needs keeps on changing, continuous research in this area of study is a necessity in order to respond to changes within the tourism industry.

2.3.4 Role of Tourism Entrepreneurship on Access to Education

Education is essential for the full accomplishment of individuals as human beings, survival and lifelong development, modernization, poverty alleviation, resource management and state building. Education among the pastoralist communities is seen as an instrument to change pastoralist attitudes and beliefs, as well as to introduce “modern” knowledge and “better” methods and practices that will in the long run transform their society. This involves the incorporation of pastoralists into mainstream society and economy, although there are a few non-formal education projects trying to promote negotiation and articulation rather than incorporation into it. Therefore in order for the pastoralists to survive successfully in dry lands, they require high levels of individual and social specialization acquired through education so that they can be articulate, have entrepreneurial, good negotiating and management skills, and show strong sense of dignity and self-respect.

According to Kratli, (2001) formal schooling can be relevant to nomadic children as it adds much to their existing knowledge that will help to transform and modernize their communities by increasing productivity in the activities they are engaged with including pastoralism, farming, and tourism entrepreneurship among others. Degefe and Kidane (1997: 36-37) argues that after acquiring new knowledge and skills in modern cattle raising and farming methods, basic care and nutrition, and entrepreneurship, people who have acquired

educational skills and knowledge will go back to their communities and serve as change agents thus helping their communities to improve their living conditions . A study by Sifuna (2005) in Narok, Kenya revealed that education improves one's life in terms of expanding social networks, learning official languages, being conscious about health and hygiene, acquiring soft skills of management in terms of fulfilling responsibilities, working effectively and managing limited resources which are skills not common in uneducated people.

According to Dyer and Choksi (1998: 94) education is seen as a contributing factor to sedentarization, which in the long term will help improve the well being of the Maasai. Dyer and Choksi, (1998) (quoted in Legget, 2005) have argued that sedentarization of the pastoralists is necessary as they have to stay in settlements near schools if they want their children to go to school by accustoming nomad children to a sedentary lifestyle in boarding schools; by denigrating nomadic culture and inculcating in the children the values and world-views of sedentary society. There is also an expectation that education as such, seen as a way of fully developing the individual, will naturally emancipate nomads so that they wish for a “more evolved” sedentary lifestyle hence transforming pastoralists into settled farmers or waged labourers, “modern” livestock producers, entrepreneurs, and/or loyal citizens. Koeing, (2010) and Kraetli, (2001) also argue that education equips children to earn outside the community they were born into and ultimately equip pastoralists against impoverishment and, ultimately, to eradicate poverty by opening access to alternative livelihood options. Koeing, (2010) argues that when educated people get employed then the employment effects will flow through into health and economic improvements for children and therefore increased educational access and achievements that is a step on the way out of poverty.

Although education is seen to bring with it all these benefits to the pastoralist communities, existing literature point out that the pastoralists have not been fully engaged in education as some of the constraints to this being economic, financial and others are culturally defined for example issues surrounding gender roles. This can be explained by the given climate change and restrictions on pastures among the pastoralists in East Africa including the Maasai in Kenya which actually has disadvantaged them most economically in terms of their subsistence livelihood and particularly in terms of their access to basic education (Legget, 2005; Sifuna et al., 2013). Carr-Hill and Peart (2005) argue that although the Maasai are quite prepared for their children to be educated, they have tended to shun schooling because the provision is inappropriate in terms of location of schools as they are distant and meeting educational cost as it is argued that “if access to education is conditional on payment of fees

of various kinds it then becomes a commodity that is available to only those that have money to buy it” (Legget, 2005: 140). Although the government has provided free primary education and subsidized secondary and tertiary education, enrolment, retention and transition rates among the Maasai remain low because of their social-cultural and economic factors (Sifuna et al., 2013). In regard to this, the pastoralists including the Maasai need to focus on the problem of survival by changing their culture on gender roles and leaving few resources whether time or money to be invested in education of their children.

The government and different stakeholders including NGOs, faith based organizations, communities among others have put efforts to promote access to education. Following this, the government has taken different initiatives including having basic education mandatory for all as spelt out in the MDGs and adopting different strategies like education for all, free primary education and subsidized secondary education, giving CDF, bursaries and scholarships among others. Other stakeholders like the NGOs, faith based organization and some elites in the societies have also played different roles in assisting the government towards improves access to education. Similarly as pastoralist communities adapt to new pressures, as well as new opportunities they have started having a positive attitude towards education. This is the case as the household labor force is increasingly being divided so that some children are sent to school as a way of improving the well being of the family in the short and long terms. Following this, the pastoralist communities themselves have been involved in different ways ensuring that their children access education as it is now seen key to development of their own homelands. They have been involved in different income generating activities assuming entrepreneurial roles so that they can raise income part of which can be used to take children to school. In particular, pastoralist communities especially the Maasai in Kimana Kenya have taken steps towards embracing tourism entrepreneurship as an alternative and supplementary source of income to spur access to education among the household members. Although money raised can be used in different ways within the household, part of the money gained may be used to take their children to school. The study therefore sought to find out if and how tourism entrepreneurship among the Maasai in Kimana area have improved access to education of the household members in a way geared towards developing their community.

Different studies including Mbaiwa, (2008), Thompson and Homewood, (2002), Kamau, (1999) have been carried out on general impacts of tourism on the local populace shedding light on some of the social benefits that accrue to the communities as a whole. Education is

one of the of the sector that has been identified by Mbaiwa, (2008) and Thompson and Homewood, (2002), but the reports do not give extensive information on how individual households have been able to use proceeds from their tourism entrepreneurial activities to promote household members' access to education. For example, a study by Thompson and Homewood, (2002) in MMNR showed that part of the funds collected at the group ranch level are generally for school bursaries. Some tourists and local NGOs now provide bursaries for children who otherwise would not be able to afford schooling. These include sponsoring of local students to high school, college and university for further education. Other services include rehabilitation and general development of schools, buying textbooks for the local schools and uniforms for needy pupils. This enables capable children from poor households to go to school.

According to a study in the Okavango Delta, Botswana revenues earned from tourism entrepreneurship were used for bursaries and construction of schools/classrooms. The study reveals that in 2007, Sankoyo village in Okavango Delta sponsored 14 students to study for catering, professional guiding, book keeping and computer studies. Mababe village 20 students and Khawi sponsored 30 students with of a total sponsorship of P 250,000 to study tourism related courses like those for students from Sankoyo. There are no clear illustrations to show the distributions and the characteristics of the students households. It also reveals that as a result of construction of schools close to the villages, there has been an increase in the number of girls going to school since parents did not like to send their daughters to school if it necessitated travelling for some distance from home (Mbaiwa, 2008).

In some instances, tourism can have a non-desirable effect on access to education. According to Kamau, (1999); Padgin, (1995); Ondicho, (2010) and Mbaiwa, (2008) tourism is responsible for high school drop out rates among the youth. A study in Phokara, Nepal and Village tourist centres in the Kenyan Coast revealed that tourism has reduced the propensity for young people to go to school as the opportunity for tourism jobs reduce the desire of young people to go to college (Padgin, 1995; Kamau, 1999).

Dallen (1998) in Kamau (1999) states that many boys and girls below twelve years of age are engaged in small business activities in the Village tourist centres in the coastal region of Kenya. These activities are related to hotels and restaurants, entertainment sector (in acrobat, singing and dancing) or the souvenir trade, often as producers, hawkers, porters or street or beech vendors. According to Terrero, (2015:7-10) involvement of children in these activities

has negatively affected formal schooling as young boys and girls have the responsibility to work leading to absenteeism, school drop outs and poor grades. Sexual harassment which is common among the entertainers leads to early pregnancies hence school drop outs. Increased illicit drug use has led to underage drinking especially on the beach communities leading to school drop outs or expulsion from school due to misconduct. Ondicho (2010) states that many Maasai youth attend school with the sole purpose of learning English and soon as they are able to converse in the language they drop out of school to join the *cultural boma* tourism as guides and entertainers.

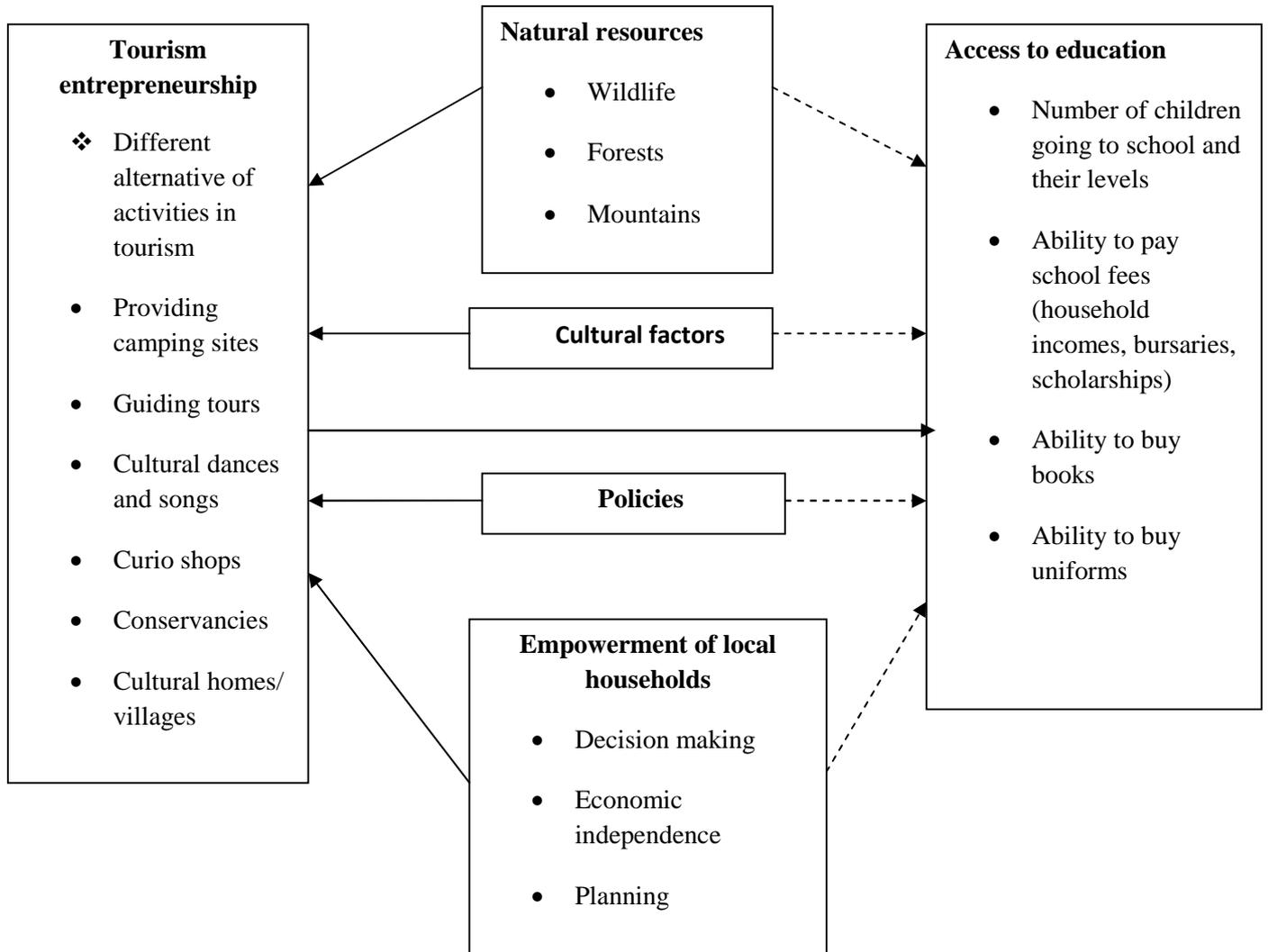
2.4 Conceptual Framework

Tourism entrepreneurship is the independent variable in this study. It is operationalized as a way of providing local communities and households with diversified economic alternatives to improve their livelihoods. Different economic alternatives in tourism entrepreneurship is in form of guiding tours, curio shops, creating conservancies, cultural homes/ villages, providing camping concessions and campsites, providing goods and services to tourists and lodges, performing cultural dances and songs, and partnership with hotel and lodge operators. These activities are believed to help the rural households emerge out of poverty by acting as a source of income, employment that can be invested in different ways to promote households livelihoods.

Access to education is the dependent variable in this study. It is understood as the ability of parents or guardians to take their children to school using the following measurable indicators: ability of guardians or parents to pay fees, buy uniforms, build classrooms or schools and investment in other learning facilities; number of children able to go to school and to what levels, and the amount of proceeds spent on education. The link between tourism entrepreneurship and access to education depends on natural resource endowment, policies, cultural factors, and empowerment of the households. These factors can positively or negatively impact on the role of tourism entrepreneurship in enhancing access to education. Natural resource endowment including wildlife, forests, and mountains facilitates the development of tourism entrepreneurship. Empowerment of the local households and community refers to, economic independence and decision making, livelihood diversification, and planning. Livelihood diversification refer to numerous income generating activities including guiding tours, cultural dances and songs, providing campsites and concessions,

curio shops and handicrafts. Figure 2.1 shows how different variables are related. The arrow points to the variable being influenced.

Figure 1: Conceptual Framework



Key



Existing relationship



Implied relationship

Source: Researcher's Conceptualization

2.5 Summary

This chapter has reviewed theoretical literature on community tourism entrepreneurship which shows that host communities and households are not only excluded from tourism planning and decision making processes, but also receive very little of the benefits that accrue from tourism yet they are the custodians of tourism attractions found in their localities. Following this, CTEM underscores the need to involve communities in tourism development by increasing local households' benefit sharing, participation in tourism planning, ownership and control over this development process to unlock opportunities for poor host communities and households to benefit from tourism. This is the case as different households can earn direct or indirect benefits from tourism which can be used to improve their livelihoods and the community at large especially through enhancing access to education.

The empirical literature reveals that tourism in developing countries including Kenya is an important strategy for development. The literature also reveals that different local communities engage in different entrepreneurial related activities in tourism as way of diversifying and supplementing their sources of livelihoods either directly or indirectly. Maasai in Kimana-Kenya are among the local communities that engage in tourism entrepreneurial related activities as an innovative way to alleviate poverty and diversify their livelihoods. This is due to the declining livestock production, hostile climatic conditions, dwindling land sizes, high unemployment levels and low levels of education among the Maasai that has increasingly made it hard to survive hence need for an alternative way to earn a livelihood. The study has also provided a conceptual framework showing the existing and implied relationship between tourism entrepreneurship and access to education.

The study attempts to create an understanding on if and how tourism entrepreneurship has enhanced access to education among households in Kimana region Kenya. This is by examining different tourism entrepreneurial activities that households are engaged with, benefits derived and how households have used the benefits to enhance access to education. The next chapter explains research methodology and methods of data collection and analysis, and a discussion of the constraints and limitations that I faced during my field work.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the research methodology, methods of data collection and analysis used in this study. Data for this research was derived from primary and secondary sources. As part of primary research both quantitative and qualitative data were collected through a survey questionnaire and key informant interviews. The information obtained from primary sources was supplemented by data from secondary sources to enrich the findings from the field. The chapter is divided into six sections. The first section outlines the research design followed by a description of the study site. The third section details the target population, unit of analysis and sampling procedure. The fourth section describes methods of data collection, the fifth section describes data analysis and presentation, and the sixth section discusses the research ethics and limitation during the field-work.

3.2 Research Design

The study used a descriptive research design which incorporates a focus on generating data using quantitative methods with a supporting qualitative data collection element. The main quantitative method for data collection in this research was a survey questionnaire administered in purposively selected households. The design enabled the researcher to collect both qualitative and quantitative data done by interviewing and administering questionnaires with both closed and open ended questions to a sample of households involved in tourism entrepreneurship in Kimana. This helped the researcher to capture the views of different households engaged in tourism entrepreneurship on the impact of the entrepreneurial activities on access to education. Qualitative data helped the researcher go beyond statistical results to provide descriptive analysis on different entrepreneurial activities the households are engaged with and why, the benefits and how the benefits are channeled for purposes of enhancing access to education in the study area. To enrich qualitative data, it was important to use quantitative data.

3.3 Study Site

The research study area, Kimana Tikondo Group Ranch, is found in Loitokitok sub-county which is one of the seven sub-counties of Kajiado County, Kenya. Kimana Tikondo Group Ranch (hereafter referred to as Kimana) is one of the seven group ranches that constitute the

large Amboseli region which also includes Amboseli national park (ANP), one of the popular tourism destinations in Kenya. Kimana is a community owned ranch located at the basement of Northern foothills of Mount Kilimanjaro approximately 240 kilometres south of Nairobi in an area rich in flora and fauna. A large portion of the group ranch is characterized by arid and semi-arid climatic conditions with low and unpredictable rainfall making water resources a major constraint to development in the area. Kimana Group Ranch, just like other ranches in ASAL areas, has lagged behind in terms of national and regional development including education. A large number of the local residents are Maasai, and livestock herding remain the only predominant source of livelihood for a large majority of the local Maasai people. The basic social services like water and health care are limited and are provided mainly by religious organizations, donors and NGOs. Loss of livestock due to drought and diseases has necessitated alternative livelihoods such as cultivation and income-generating activities revolving around tourism.

Kimana provides a suitable site for this study because the majority of Maasai households have recently started to invest in tourism and assuming an entrepreneurial role in order to diversify and supplement their sources of livelihoods (Ondicho, 2012). In the villages that lie along tourist routes and adjacent to the ANP, various forms of tourism take place, with a cultural tourism since tourists have shown an interest in cultural attractions in addition to wildlife viewing which is the main product. But, it is worth noting that many Maasai entrepreneurial activities in tourism are concentrated in the cultural villages/bomas. It is worth also noting that while *cultural boma* /village are similar to a traditional Maasai village fully occupied by families, the reality is that they are commercial villages set up to attract tourists and offer the local Maasai people an opportunity to sell their artifacts directly to tourists and to display their culture in return for economic gain. As the research aims to determine the role of Maasai tourism entrepreneurship in enhancing access to education among household members, the choice of Kimana was appropriate as Kimana proximity to ANP has further provided incentives for the local people to establish their own community based tourism enterprises that is appropriate for this study.

3.4 Population, Unit of Analysis and Sampling

The target population in this study comprised of the total number of households involved in tourism entrepreneurship in Kimana. The unit of analysis was the individual household which has been involved in tourism entrepreneurship in Kimana for more than 10 years. The unit of

analysis was justified on the basis that the impact of tourism entrepreneurship is first felt at the household level before it extends to the community level. It is also further justified on the basis that any assessment of the role of tourism entrepreneurship should be considered at the household level as the advantage or benefits that accrue to each household is dependent upon the activities pursued, the decisions made by household members, investment patterns and the trust among different households. In addition, to assess change that has occurred in access to education, the household need to have been involved in the tourism entrepreneurship for period of time that can allow the researcher to trace change.

The total sample size was 70 households and 10 key informants. The sample size chosen is justified based on the accessibility of the respondents as the Maasai population is sparsely populated and takes into account the time frame and resource constraints. The distribution of the sample was determined by purposive sampling of 70 household respondents as the researcher was only interested with the households which have been in tourism related entrepreneurial activities for more than ten years who could provide insights into the research questions. In this sampling technique, 70 households were purposively sampled from the 845 registered extended families of the traditional Maasai pastoralists. Although 70 households were sampled and interviewed, only responses from 62 households were used in the analysis stage as 8 questionnaires from the households sampled were lost in the process of data processing. 10 key informants were also purposively sampled as the researcher was interested with the individuals who have extensive knowledge on tourism entrepreneurship within Kimana. During sampling, the community elders helped the researcher identify the households that have been involved in tourism entrepreneurship for more than ten years.

3.5 Data Collection

To answer the research questions posed in this study both qualitative and quantitative primary data collection methods were used to complement one another and enhance validity of the study. The data collection methods generated both qualitative and quantitative data. The main method of primary data collection was formal interviews which used a survey questionnaire constructed to have both closed and open-ended questions administered to 70 households by the researcher. The survey questionnaire was divided into four parts designed to gather information on the respondent and household basic characteristics, household entrepreneurial activities, benefits from different tourism entrepreneurial activities and how the benefits have enhanced access to education of the household members. The questionnaires were

administered by the researcher in face to face interviews with 70 purposively sampled household respondents. Although 70 households were interviewed, only responses from 62 households' respondents (of which 32 were men and the remaining 30 female) were used in the analysis stage as 8 questionnaires from the households sampled were lost in the process of data processing. All the interviewees were members of Kimana Tikondo group ranch and were directly involved in tourism entrepreneurship. The survey questionnaire was constructed in English and administered in Kiswahili by the researcher.

During the survey, the researcher identified with the help of the local people the following 10 key informants: 4 tourism entrepreneurs who have been in tourism for over fifteen years, 2 group ranch officials, a development officer, an education officer and 2 elders. This category was interviewed using an interview guide to find out how the local people got into tourism entrepreneurship, what they are doing in their engagement with tourists and tourism, benefits from tourism, and if/how tourism entrepreneurship has promoted access to education. Through this, the researcher captured in-depth data regarding the contribution of tourism entrepreneurship on access to education that may not have been captured in the questionnaire as they were chosen on the ability to contribute to the overall research objective. During the course of the study, the researcher observed some of the non-verbal signals during interviews and the setting to gain insights to some of the issues that might not be brought out by the respondents. These methods of data collection complemented each other by providing information to fill any gaps that might have been left by the other methods to increase the degree of accuracy.

3.6 Data Analysis and Presentation

The research generated both qualitative and quantitative data which was subjected to analysis. Since the data was collected using different data collection methods, it was then subjected to different data analysis methods. Quantitative data included total number of households interviewed, their average household size, household incomes and expenditure, ages, and number of tourism enterprises they are engaged with. These data was analyzed and presented in simple descriptive statistics. Qualitative data included narratives from the key informants and was analyzed on the basis of emerging patterns and themes which were compared against the survey data and the study objectives. Qualitative data was presented in narratives, verbatim quotes and descriptions.

3.7 Research Ethics and Limitations

A range of ethical issues were identified and addressed through the research. A full description of the issues addressed include: language and literacy barriers, informed consent, privacy and confidentiality. As the study progressed, the researcher detected some inconsistencies in the responses to the questionnaire and as a result the questions were rephrased during the translation stage. Secondly, the sample size is not large enough to warrant generalization of the findings beyond Kimana. Therefore caution should be exercised in drawing generalizations given the small sample size, and the non-representative nature of the data generated from the purposive sampling procedure.

Table 3.1 Summary of Data Needs and Analysis Table

| Research Question | Data Needs | Type of Data | Data Sources | Instrument | Data Analysis Method |
|---|---|------------------------------|---|--|---|
| What are the different entrepreneurial activities the Maasai households are involved with? | List of types of entrepreneurial activities in each household | Qualitative and quantitative | Household respondents Key informants (elders, tourism entrepreneurs) | Questionnaire Key informant interview guide | Thematic analysis Frequencies Percentages |
| What are the benefits from different tourism entrepreneurial activities to different Maasai households in Kimana? | Detailed description of benefits from different entrepreneurial activities to each household | Qualitative and quantitative | Household respondents Key informants (group ranch officials, education officer, elders, entrepreneurs in tourism- more than 15 years) | Questionnaire Key informant interview guide | Thematic analysis Percentages Frequencies Measures of central tendencies |
| How have the benefits from tourism entrepreneurial activities promoted access to education in Kimana? | Information on how benefits are used in education (paying fees, books, uniforms, construction of classes/ schools, bursaries, scholarships) | Qualitative and quantitative | Household respondents Key informants (group ranch officials, elders) | Questionnaire Key informant interview guide | Thematic analysis Frequencies, measures of central tendencies and percentages |

CHAPTER FOUR

STUDY FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents findings of the study. The study examined the different tourism entrepreneurial activities, benefits from tourism entrepreneurship and how or if the benefits have enhanced access to education at the household level. This helped to understand if the involvement of Maasai households in tourism has enhanced access to education by looking at how and if different benefits from tourism entrepreneurship are used to enhance access to education of the household members. This was measured in terms of the ability of parents or guardians to pay school fees, buy uniforms, stationery, and other educational expenses like construction of schools among others, and also whether they have savings from tourism entrepreneurship for future educational needs at the household for members who proceed to higher levels of education.

This chapter is divided into four sections. Section one presents a brief description of the characteristics of the households involved in tourism entrepreneurship followed by a detailed presentation of findings on different tourism entrepreneurial activities the households are engaged with. The third section offers an analysis of different benefits that households get from their involvement in tourism entrepreneurship. The fourth section is on if and how Maasai involvement in tourism has enhanced access to education using indicators such as ability of the guardians to pay school fees, buy uniforms, books, construction of schools, educational saving among others.

4.2 Characteristics of the Households

This section describes the characteristics of the households involved in tourism entrepreneurship in the study area. The characteristics of the households are presented using the information obtained from the household respondents including the relationship to the household head, age, gender, marital status, education level, occupation, monthly income, household size. Further, the section discusses household monthly incomes and expenditures.

4.2.1 Relationship to the Household Head

Table 4.1 shows that out the 62 people who responded to the survey questionnaire, 56.5 percent were household heads while 43.5 percent were spouses. Choosing the household head or spouse was important as they are at the core of what goes on in the household, receive

benefits from tourism entrepreneurship and other sources and make decisions on how the benefits are used. The individual decisions they make are important to determine how much of the benefits earned are used in different items including food, health, saving and education which is key to the study.

Table 4.1: Relationship of Respondent to the Household Head

| Relationship to the Household head | Frequency | Percent |
|---|------------------|----------------|
| Household head | 35 | 56.5 |
| Spouse | 27 | 43.5 |
| Total | 62 | 100.0 |

Source, Field data, 2015

4.2.2 Age

Age varies among members within a household. It is an important characteristic in understanding various roles and engagements within a household. Therefore the activities undertaken by different household members tend to differ across different ages. Age also helps in understanding the views of the people about the issue under investigation. Age may indicate the level of experience of individuals and thus becomes important to examine their responses. Table 4.2 presents information on the household respondents' age. The age of respondents was categorized into five age brackets. Out of the 62 respondents who were interviewed 38.7% were within the age bracket of 35-44 years, while 32.2% were in the 25-34 age bracket. 14% of the respondents were in the 45-54 age bracket while 6.4% of the respondents were 55 years and above.

Table 4.2: Age of Respondents

| Age (in years) | Frequency | Percentage % |
|----------------|-----------|--------------|
| 25-34 | 20 | 32.3 |
| 35-44 | 24 | 38.7 |
| 45-54 | 14 | 22.6 |
| 55+ | 4 | 6.4 |
| Total | 62 | 100 |

Source, Field data, 2015

4.2.3 Gender

Gender is an important factor in the social life of the Maasai community as it determines a range of issues including the nature of activities the household members are engaged with, ownership and control of resources as well as decision making on the use of resources within the household. An understanding of the gender dynamics among the studied households was also deemed important in presenting views from both males and females on the issues under investigation. Table 4.3 shows the gender distribution of the respondents. Out of the 62 respondents who participated in this study slightly more than half (51.6%) were male whereas 48.4% were female.

Table 4.3: Gender of Household Respondents

| Gender | Frequency | Percent |
|--------------|-----------|--------------|
| Male | 32 | 51.6 |
| Female | 30 | 48.4 |
| Total | 62 | 100.0 |

Source, Field data, 2015

4.2.4 Marital Status

Marriage is a significant social institution. Just as other indigenous communities in Kenya, the institution of marriage among the Maasai has changed owing to the penetration of capitalism and modernity. The attitudes and perception of an individual towards various

social and economic issues at the household level (including access to education of the household members) can be determined by the marital status. The data in table 4.4 shows that the respondents had different marital status. The findings reveal that most of the respondents 91.9% were married while 4.8% were widowed and 3.2% were single/never married. There were no cases of divorce or separation among the respondents from the household sampled.

Table 4.4: Respondent Marital Status

| Marital status | Frequency | Percent |
|-----------------------|------------------|----------------|
| Married | 57 | 91.9 |
| Widowed | 3 | 4.8 |
| Single/ Never married | 2 | 3.2 |
| Total | 62 | 100.0 |

Source, Field data, 2015

4.2.5 Education Level

Education might affect an individual’s way of thinking and understanding on different issues. In a way the response of an individual is therefore likely to be determined by the level of education (either with or without formal education). It was therefore imperative to know the educational background of the people who participated in this study. Out of the 62 respondents who participated in the research 64.5 percent of the respondents had no formal education, while 12.9 % and 4.8% had not completed their primary and secondary education respectively. Only 8.1% and 9.7% of the respondents had completed primary and secondary education respectively. From the data no respondent had gone to college or university. This data suggests that there are low levels of education among the household respondents who were interviewed. Table 4.5 presents the data on the educational levels of the respondents.

Table 4.5: Respondents' Level of Education

| Education level | Frequency | Percent |
|------------------------|------------------|----------------|
| No formal education | 40 | 64.5 |
| Primary incomplete | 8 | 12.9 |
| Primary complete | 5 | 8.1 |
| Secondary incomplete | 3 | 4.8 |
| Secondary complete | 6 | 9.7 |
| Total | 62 | 100.0 |

Source, Field data, 2015

4.2.6 Main Occupation

The quality of life is determined by the peoples' means of livelihood and the incomes derived from the various economic activities people engage in. This in turn has a bearing on the way individuals look at issues and make decisions involving investments in various items in the household including health, food, savings and education. The data in table 4.6 show that the respondents are engaged in a wide range of occupations. The main occupation was herding which accounted for 69.4 % of the total number of the respondents followed by buying and selling of handcrafts/ curios (tourism entrepreneurship) that accounted for 16.1%. Respondents involved in farming as their main activity accounted for 6.5%, while operating a general kiosk accounted for 3.2% of the household respondents. Tour guide, beading and operating a grocery accounted for 1.6 percent each of the household respondents.

Table 4.6: Households' Main Occupation

| Occupation | Frequency | Percent |
|---------------------------------------|------------------|----------------|
| Tour guide | 1 | 1.6 |
| Herding | 43 | 69.4 |
| Buying and selling handcrafts/ curios | 10 | 16.1 |
| Beading | 1 | 1.6 |
| Farming | 4 | 6.5 |
| Operating general shop/ Kiosk | 2 | 3.2 |
| Operating grocery | 1 | 1.6 |
| Total | 62 | 100.0 |

Source, Field data, 2015

Besides the main occupation, there are other secondary activities that the respondents engage in which help supplement the household incomes. Some of the main economic activities to some respondents seem to be secondary activities to other respondents. It was found that an activity can be primary or secondary to the household depending on the benefits they earn from the economic activity. Table 4.7 shows that the households are engaged in different secondary activities whereby a household may have more than one secondary activity that helps when the others are not bearing returns or when the returns are low. Herding is shown to be a main activity and a secondary activity to other households. Out of the 62 respondents, 8 of them are engaged in herding as a secondary activity. Farming and beading accounted for 15 each of the total respondents. Selling curios/ handcrafts was mentioned by 54 respondents of the total 62 respondents. Entertainment of tourists accounted for 90 respondents, tour guide/ interpreter/ lecturer accounted for 11 respondents, and *cultural boma* manager accounted for 6 respondents. Butchering, operating a general shop/ grocery, cattle or land business accounted for 3 respondents 8, and 3 respondents respectively. Other activities including tailoring, security, selling Maasai shukas, boda boda³, posho milling⁴, hotel

³ Boda boda refers to the motorcycle taxis

⁴ Posho mill refers to the a machine used to grind grains such as maize, millet and wheat to flour

operation, casual work accounted for 10 of the total respondents. Those who said that did not have any secondary activity accounted for 2 of the total respondents.

Table 4.7: Households' Secondary Activities

| Activity | Frequency | Percentage |
|-----------------------------------|------------------|-------------------|
| Herding | 8 | 12.9 |
| Farming | 15 | 24.2 |
| Selling curios/ handcrafts | 54 | 87.1 |
| Entertainment of tourists | 19 | 30.6 |
| Beading | 15 | 24.2 |
| Tour guide/ interpreter/ lecturer | 11 | 17.7 |
| <i>Cultural boma</i> manager | 6 | 9.7 |
| Butchering | 3 | 4.8 |
| Operating general shop/ grocery | 8 | 12.9 |
| Cattle | 3 | 4.8 |
| Others | 10 | 16.1 |
| No other activity | 2 | 3.2 |

Note: Others refer to activities including tailoring, security, selling Maasai shukas, bodaboda, posho milling, hotel operation, casual work

Source, Field data, 2015

4.2.7 Monthly Income

This refers to the sum of the income from all sources that all the tourism entrepreneurial household members earned in a month. The total incomes households got from tourism entrepreneurial activities and from other tourism allied or non-allied activities and the use to which they were put were dependent on factors such as number of tourist to the cultural villages, drought and household size. Households showed different levels of incomes and therefore different ways of use of income among the households.

The least amount of income per month in the household was Kshs.3000, while the maximum income was Kshs. 80,000. Table 4.8 shows that 82.3% of the tourism entrepreneurial households sampled earned below Kshs. 20,000 per month, 11.3% of the households earned between Kshs. 20,001- 40,000. There were only 3.2% households which earned between Kshs. 40001- 60001, also 3.2% of the household earning between Kshs. 60,001- 80,000 per month. This means that many households earned low amounts of income and therefore suggesting that they were struggling to meet their daily needs. The low incomes were attributed to the low levels of tourist flow and droughts that reduced their returns from herding. This then impacted on the cash flow within the community that affected other livelihood earning activities.

Table 4.8: Household Monthly Income

| Household income | Frequency | Percentage |
|-------------------------|------------------|-------------------|
| Below 20000 | 51 | 82.3 |
| 20001-40000 | 7 | 11.3 |
| 40001-60000 | 2 | 3.2 |
| 60001-80000 | 2 | 3.2 |
| Total | 62 | 100 |

Source, Field data, 2015

4.2.8 Household Size

The number of members in a household varied from one house to another. The number of people in the household determines a number of factors. For example, it affects the type of activities, living standards and consumption patterns. A household with more members will tend therefore to have diversified sources of livelihoods to meet the high demands. Table 4.9 reveals that 42 households with children (below 18 years) and 48 households with adults (above 18 years) had less than four family members. 19 households had between 5-9 children, while 12 households had between 5-9 adults. There were only 2 households with more than 10 adults and only 1 household with more than 10 children.

Table 4.9: Household Size

| Household size | Frequency | |
|----------------|----------------|----------------|
| | Below 18 years | Above 18 years |
| Below 5 | 42 | 48 |
| 5-9 | 19 | 12 |
| 10 and above | 1 | 2 |

Source, Field data, 2015

4.3 Types of Tourism Entrepreneurial Activities

This section presents the findings of the first research question. The question sought to explore the different tourism entrepreneurial activities undertaken by households in Kimana. This study revealed that Maasai households like those of other indigenous communities around the world engage in a wide range of tourism entrepreneurial activities as a source of livelihood. These activities revolved around selling curios and handicrafts to tourists, tour guiding/interpreting in and around *cultural bomas*, beadworks, entertainment, selling Maasai shukas and as managers of their own tourism enterprises. Table 4.10 shows that selling handicrafts was one entrepreneurial activity that was undertaken by all respondents (100%). The other entrepreneurial activities undertaken by household members in order of priority were beading (37.1%), entertainment (35.5%), tour guide/ interpreting (27.4%), cultural committee member/ manager (9.7%) and *Maasai shukas* (1.6%). Some household members were either involved in all these entrepreneurial activities or in more than one activity. Some households were engaged in these entrepreneurial activities on a full time basis, while others were involved on a part time basis. Those who undertook tourism entrepreneurial activities on a part time basis often oscillated between tourism and non-tourism activities especially when tourist visitation was low. It was established that some of these tourism entrepreneurial activities were performed jointly by all households involved in tourism entrepreneurship while others, such as sale of handicrafts, were done by select individual household members. Similar findings have been recorded by Ondicho (2010) and Nadine (1999) in their studies in Amboseli and Charnely (2005). Further, they found out that Maasai tourism entrepreneurs were involved in other cultural activities such as displaying their herbal medicine, demonstration of traditional fire lighting skills and posing for photographs with tourists. They both established in their studies that Maasai tourism entrepreneurs who wanted to sell their

cultural artifacts directly to tourists had set up *cultural bomas* as tourist attractions and commercial enterprises. Studies by Mbaiwa (2008); Thompson and Homewood (2002); Ndemo (2005) and Scheyvens (2007; 2002) confirm that similar activities are undertaken by other communities involved in tourism entrepreneurship.

Mbaiwa (2008); Kamau (1999); Padgin (1995) and Ondicho (2010) have found that local tourism entrepreneurs are often involved in various tourism induced income generating activities such as motorbike/bicycle taxi business, currency laundering, and petty trade, sale of firewood and charcoal and foodstuff vending. This study found that while these activities were not directly meant for tourists, they owed their existence to the development of tourism entrepreneurship and they were largely dependent on income from tourism for their survival. These ventures were entirely owned by either Maasai households involved in tourism entrepreneurship or households that were not involved in tourism. These activities were perceived as an opportunity to earn tourism related income. This confirms Ndemo (2005: 94) assertion that diversification of income generating activities in tourism is necessary not only to earn additional income but also for survival and improving the standards of living.

4.10: Different Tourism Entrepreneurial Activities

| Tourism entrepreneurial activity | Frequency | Percentage (%) |
|--|-----------|----------------|
| Selling curios/ handcrafts | 62 | 100 |
| Tour guiding/ interpreting | 17 | 27.4 |
| Beading | 23 | 37.1 |
| Entertainment of the tourists | 22 | 35.5 |
| Selling Maasai shukas | 1 | 1.6 |
| <i>Cultural boma</i> manager/ committee member | 6 | 9.7 |

Source, Field data, 2015

Table 4.11 shows that selling of handcrafts/ curios, tour guiding, interpreting and beading were the main occupation for a few household members. However, for most household members tourism entrepreneurship was a secondary occupation. This was influenced by the seasonal nature of the tourism industry rendering it an unreliable source of household income.

Table 4.11 Tourism entrepreneurial activities position in the household

Table 4.11 Main and Secondary Tourism Entrepreneurial Activities

| Types of entrepreneurial activities | As main occupation | | As secondary activity | |
|--|--------------------|--------------|-----------------------|--------------|
| | Frequency | Percentage % | Frequency | Percentage % |
| Selling curios/ handcrafts | 10 | 16.1 | 54 | 87.1 |
| Tour guiding/ interpreting | 1 | 1.6 | 11 | 17.7 |
| Beading | 1 | 1.6 | 15 | 24.2 |
| Entertainment of the tourists | 0 | 0 | 19 | 30.6 |
| Selling Maasai shukas(among others) | 0 | 0 | 10 | 16.1 |
| <i>Cultural boma</i> manager/ committee member | 0 | 0 | 6 | 9.7 |

Source, Field data, 2015

From the field data 45.5% of the respondents indicated having started tourism entrepreneurship between 2004-2005, while 41.9% started between the years 2000-2003, 11.3% started between 1992-1995 and 3.2% between 1996-1999. Key informants including elders and tourism entrepreneurs who had been in tourism for more than 15 years explained why an increase of tourism entrepreneurs between 2000-2005. The surge between 2000-2005 was explained by the fact that households started engaging in tourism entrepreneurial activities from 2000 as they were attracted by the huge returns that their counterparts were getting from the entrepreneurial activities. The respondents in the study had been in the tourism business for a period between 10-23 years hence in a better position to answer the questions posed in this study.

The household respondents stated that they got involved in tourism entrepreneurship due to a number of reasons which included the following. One, to earn income to enable them to buy food, educate their children and meet other basic needs. They also stated that their involvement in tourism entrepreneurship played a great role in diversifying and supplementing their sources of income. This is the case as the household respondents, key informants and elders pointed out that due to the prevailing harsh climatic conditions, diminishing land sizes, deteriorating levels of subsistence, it was necessary to look for alternative sources of income and that tourism was the only opportunity available. These findings are consistent with previous studies by Adams and Hutton, (2007); Sindiga, (1999); Ndemo, (2005); Ateljevic and Page, 2009 and Azarya, (2004) who found that Maasai get into business in order to supplement and diversify local sources of livelihood, for personal accomplishment, and cushion themselves against the adverse effects of unreliability of livestock markets, and harsh climate conditions in order to improve their standards of living as well as enhance rural development through investments community projects. Reid et al., (1999) and Ndemo, (2005) argue that the aim of involving local communities in tourism entrepreneurship is to reconcile the differences between the needs of local people and development. This study established that this was the essence of Maasai households' involvement in tourism entrepreneurship. Maasai households in Kimana viewed tourism entrepreneurship as an opportunity to generate benefits for themselves and to invest in local development especially in enhancing access to education which is the key focus in this study.

Women stated that they got involved in tourism because of its flexibility, that is, they were able to combine the entrepreneurial activities with their household chores without having to leave their homes. For many people it was easy to join tourism entrepreneurship as it did not require any form of formal education unlike in the formal sectors of the economy. The study confirms studies by Padgin (1995); Ondicho, (2010; 2012); Harris et al., (2002) who found out that apart from economic and social benefits many indigenous people are often drawn into community based tourism entrepreneurship because they do not require large capital investments and rely on locally available resources. The study also revealed that tourism entrepreneurship was one of the means for reducing dependency on household heads and also granting economic independence to the youth and women through the direct incomes from tourism.

4.3.1 Persons Involved in the Tourism Entrepreneurial Activities

It was deemed important to know who among the household members is involved in tourism entrepreneurship so that we can trace the impact of the tourism benefits on access to education. Table 4.12 shows that household members were involved in different tourism entrepreneurial activities based on their gender. Some entrepreneurial activities were exclusively carried out by one gender, while others were carried out by both genders. The activities that were carried out were in one way or another related to the cultural expectations of their gender. Table 4.12 reveals that women are the ones involved most in selling of handcrafts or curios with a percentage of 96.8 followed by husbands, son and daughter in-law with respective percentages 62.9, 4.8 and 1.6. The daughters did not involve in selling the handcrafts or curios allegedly because they felt interacting with male tourists might lead to them getting married to them or they will start engaging in sexual behaviors deemed negative in the community. Tour guiding/ interpreting and *cultural boma* manager/ committee is carried on by only males and accounts for 27.4 % and 9.7% respectively. Beading is seen to be an entrepreneurial activity that is done by males and accounts for 37.1% of the wives and 1.6% of the daughters. Entertainment of tourists is done by both genders with majority being males and accounts for 27.4% of the husbands, 25.8% of the wives and 1.6% of the son in the households. Selling of the *Maasai shukas* as an entrepreneurial activity is shown from the table as an activity of the female gender and it accounts for 1.6% of the wives in the households.

Table 4.12: Person Involved in Tourism Entrepreneurial Activities

| Person involved | Person involved in the tourism entrepreneurial activity in percentages % | | | | |
|--|--|------|-----|-----------------|----------|
| | Husband | Wife | Son | Daughter in-law | Daughter |
| Selling curios/ handcrafts | 62.9 | 96.8 | 4.8 | 1.6 | 0 |
| Tour guiding/ interpreting/ lecturing | 27.4 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Beading | 0 | 37.1 | 0 | 0 | 1.6 |
| Entertainment of the tourists | 27.4 | 25.8 | 1.6 | 0 | 0 |
| Selling Maasai shukas (among others) | 0 | 1.6 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| <i>Cultural boma</i> manager/ committee member | 9.7 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

Source, Field data, 2015

4.3.2 Ranking of the Tourism Entrepreneurial Activities in terms of Benefits

The respondents were asked to rank the tourism entrepreneurial activities they were involved with in their order of importance to the household. Results in table 4.13 shows how the respondents ranked the tourism entrepreneurial activities on a scale of 1 to 5 (1 being the important tourism entrepreneurship activity and 5 being activity that is least important). Table 4.13 shows that majority (90.3%) of the households in Kimana consider selling curios as an important (first position) occupation in the household, 1.6% ranked it second position while only 8.1% of the household's respondent did not see it to be important in the household. This means that a number of households in Kimana view selling of curios as an important activity in meeting their households' needs. 1.6% of the households considered tour guiding/ interpreting/ lecturing as important to the household with 25.8% ranking it second position. Beading was ranked to second position by 19.4% of the household respondents while entertainment was ranked to second and third position by 19.4% and 12.4% of the household's respondents respectively. 1.6% of the household's respondents ranked selling *shukas* to second position and *cultural boma* manager ranked to second position by 3.2% of the household's respondents, 1.6% ranked it to third position while 1.6% ranked it to fourth position.

Table 4.13: Ranking of Tourism Entrepreneurial Activities

| Tourism entrepreneurial activity | Ranking in % of total respondents | | | | | Total in % of respondents who ranked |
|--|-----------------------------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|--------------------------------------|
| | 1 st | 2 nd | 3 rd | 4 th | 5 th | |
| Selling curios/ handcrafts | 90.3 | 1.6 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 91.9 |
| Tour guiding/ interpreting/ lecturing | 1.6 | 25.8 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 27.4 |
| Beading | 0 | 9.7 | 14.5 | 6.5 | 1.6 | 32.3 |
| Entertainment of the tourists | 0 | 19.4 | 12.9 | 0 | 0 | 32.3 |
| Selling <i>Maasai shukas</i> (among others) | 0 | 1.6 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1.6 |
| <i>Cultural boma</i> manager/ committee member | 0 | 3.2 | 1.6 | 1.6 | 0 | 6.5 |

Source, Field data, 2015

4.4 Benefits from Tourism Entrepreneurship

The second objective of this study was to analyze the benefits from tourism entrepreneurship to Maasai households in Kimana. In recognition of the significance of tourism benefits to the households, respondents were asked to state the amounts of income they derived from different tourism entrepreneurial activities daily, weekly, monthly and annually. The participants were also asked to explain how their incomes have changed over time from the time they got engaged in tourism entrepreneurship and how the income was spent to meet various household needs. Lastly, the participants were also asked if they could prefer tourism entrepreneurship as the source of household income in the future and to state the other benefits accruing at the household level from tourism entrepreneurship.

4.4.1 Incomes from Different Tourism Entrepreneurial Activities

Income is a very important benefit from any entrepreneurial activity. Most people undertake entrepreneurial activities to earn some form of income. Like Thompson and Homewood (2002); Ondicho (2010); and Sindiga (1999), the study established that for some Maasai households tourism entrepreneurship was the main source of income, while for others it acted as a supplementary and diversified source of household income. Those who engage in different entrepreneurial activities are able to earn income which they spend on different items at the household level and invest either in the acquisition of assets or in income generating activities. The study sought to find out the amount of income each household accrued from different tourism entrepreneurial activities.

Table 4.14 shows that 25 respondents earned below Kshs. 2,000; 4 earned between Kshs. 2,001-4,000; 2 earned from 4,001-6,000 daily from the sale of curios and handicrafts. The study also revealed that 4 people earned below Kshs. 2,000 and 1 between 4,001-6,000 daily from tour guiding/interpreting. The table also indicates that 1 person earned below Kshs. 2,000 from beading while 4 people earned below Kshs. 2,000 and 1 earned between Kshs. 2,001-4,000 daily from entertainment. In addition 1 person earned between Kshs. 4,001-6,000 daily from selling Maasai shukas. The survey item on income had sought information on the amounts of income households derived from different entrepreneurial activities daily, weekly, monthly and annually. However, a total of 32 respondents did not answer this question. Two respondents declined to divulge information about the gross monthly and

annual incomes because they deemed this information to be private and confidential while a large majority of those who did not answer the question (thirty respondents) stated categorically that they did not keep any records and could not remember the amount of income earned in the last tourism season. While having a formal discussion, one of the respondents pointed out that some of the respondents who were refusing to give information because they wanted to appear poor so that they can be helped, so did not want to give the information regarding incomes from their tourism entrepreneurial activities.

Table 4.14: Daily Household Incomes from Tourism Entrepreneurship

| Tourism entrepreneurial activity | Daily earnings in shillings | |
|----------------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------|
| | Amount in Kshs. | Frequency |
| Selling curios/ handcrafts | Below 2,000 | 25 |
| | 2,001-4,000 | 4 |
| | 4,001-6,000 | 2 |
| Tour guide/ interpreter | Below 2,000 | 4 |
| | 2,001-4,000 | 0 |
| | 4,001-6000 | 1 |
| Beading | Below 2,000 | 1 |
| | 2,001-4,000 | 0 |
| | 4,001-6,000 | 0 |
| Entertainment | Below 2,000 | 4 |
| | 2,001-4,000 | 1 |
| | 4,001-6,000 | 0 |
| Selling Maasai shukas | Below 2,000 | 0 |
| | 2,001-4,000 | 0 |
| | 4,001-6,000 | 1 |
| Cultural boma committee member | Below 2,000 | 0 |
| | 2,001-4,000 | 0 |
| | 4,001-6,000 | 0 |

Source, Field data, 2015

4.4.2 Household Income from First Involvement in Tourism

Respondents were asked to explain how their household incomes had changed since their involvement in tourism entrepreneurship. While it was difficult to state the exact gross monthly and annual incomes and expenditures, respondents did recall by giving various responses in regard to changes in incomes from their tourism enterprises. The responses varied across the sample. This was an indication that the effects of the income from tourism entrepreneurial activity had been positively or negatively felt at the household level. Table 4.15 shows that household incomes for the study respondents had changed in different ways since the first time they got engaged with tourism entrepreneurship. The findings reveal that the household income for 3 respondents had significantly increased; 21 respondents had fairly increased; 7 respondents had not changed; 13 respondents had fairly decreased and 18 respondents had significantly decreased. The most important inference to be drawn from these findings is that the household income for half of the respondents had decreased. The

drop in household income from tourism entrepreneurship was attributed to increased competition as many people have joined the tourism business in the last few years; reduced number of tourist arrivals arising from post-election violence in 2008 and recently terrorist attacks in the country, poor marketing of their tourism enterprises, exploitation by middlemen especially the tourist drivers and men who speak English and use the language in price negotiations with tourists on behalf of women and people who cannot converse in English; reduced tourists purchases due to changing market trends and seasonal nature of the tourism industry. Notwithstanding this, the study affirms Sindiga, (2000; 2002); Mowforth and Munt, (2008) assertion that households' incomes from tourism entrepreneurship are small and irregular. According to Honey, (2008) this is because a lion's share of the economic benefits and opportunities created in tourism are often appropriated by the middlemen, entrepreneurs from outside the local community, the government and a few local elites leaving a large majority of the local people poor.

Table 4.15: Changes in Household Income since First Involvement in Tourism

| Response | Frequency | Percentage |
|-------------------------|------------------|-------------------|
| Significantly increased | 3 | 4.8 |
| Fairly increased | 21 | 33.9 |
| Not changed | 7 | 11.3 |
| Fairly decreased | 13 | 21.0 |
| Significantly decreased | 18 | 29.0 |
| Total | 62 | 100 |

Source, Field data, 2015

Household respondents (37.8%) stated that their household income had increased since their entry into the tourism business and they attributed this to the following factors: they derived supplementary incomes from investments made using money earned from their tourism entrepreneurship activities; reduced dependency as women who used to rely on men are now able to earn direct tourism revenue and thus supplement household incomes and some entrepreneurs especially those who speak English were able to sell more stuff during the tourist season than those who lack foreign language skills, and some people were fortunate to receive cash gifts and tips from tourists. The study results show that some household members also engaged in other livelihood and income generating activities alongside tourism

entrepreneurship to diversify and supplement their sources of income to shield themselves from vulnerabilities during the low tourism season. These activities might have been used to earn additional income because tourism entrepreneurship activities could not generate enough cash income to meet all the basic needs of the entrepreneurs at the household level.

The importance of tourism entrepreneurship as a source of future household income in Kimana was also investigated. Findings reveal that 84% of the respondents would prefer to continue with tourism entrepreneurship activities as a source household income in the future. The reasons for them to continue with tourism entrepreneurship are linked to the benefits that the household feel they may accrue to them from tourism entrepreneurship if the conditions around the tourism business are adjusted to promote their activities. 41.9% of the respondents stated that tourism will continue to help them to diversify and supplement their sources of livelihood in the future. On the other hand, 29% of the respondents stated that they would like to engage in tourism entrepreneurship in the future as it is the only opportunity they have to earn income. This was particularly the case for women and the youth who did not own land, livestock or any other asset which they could rely on as a source of income. 9.7% of the respondents said that they would prefer tourism entrepreneurship as source of household income in the future because it enabled them to earn cash income which they used as capital for investments in the purchase of livestock, to start new businesses and/or increase stock of existing ones including in tourism. 4.8% of the respondents that they would prefer to work in tourism in the future in order to earn income to enable them educate their children while 1.6% said they would like to continue with tourism entrepreneurial activities because all transactions are paid in cash and there are no debts. On the contrary, 16% of the respondents said that they would not prefer tourism as a source of future income because tourism was seasonal and unreliable, because of stiff competition which reduces the amount of income one can generate from the business.

4.4.3 Household Expenditure of Tourism Income

Households that generate more income from tourism entrepreneurship activities are more likely to spend more given their purchasing power but can also spend less if their incomes are limited. Stewart et al., (2011: 264) has observed that there is a relationship between income and expenditures at the household level depending on how much income households earn and how they prioritize the expenditure. Households have basic necessities that they must satisfy

for their survival. However, household expenditure on various items changes with the available income. Other aspects such as economic depressions (for example during the low tourism season), inflation, and increased prices of commodities greatly affect household expenditure. The study sought to establish how much of the income from tourism entrepreneurship was spent on different household items including food, health, savings and education which is critical in the study.

Like Padgin (1995); Kamau, (1999) this study found that income earned from tourism entrepreneurship provided opportunities for households to increase their expenditures on food and other basic necessities thus leading to improved standards of living. The study also revealed that that income derived from tourism entrepreneurial activities was spent on various items including education, health, savings, buying clothing, veterinary services, and in some cases purchase livestock as well as invest in other businesses among other things. These investments were very important especially during the low tourist season when they could be liquidated to raise cash income to pay school fees and to meet other educational needs as well as buy other household necessities such as food. The questionnaire item on expenditure was meant to elicit information that would enable us to determine the priority that education was given at the household level. While our intention was to capture expenditures at three levels over a period of five years starting with the past five months, three years and five years, this questionnaire item failed to yield answers from all the respondents. Many respondents stated that they did not keep records on household expenditures of different items or could not remember since they made purchases of items in small quantities when need arose which made it very difficult to collate their expenditures on various household items over an extended period of times. One respondent also confided in me that many people did not want to provide information on the exact household expenditures, which in some cases were very high, because they wanted to appear poor so that they could be assisted.

Despite the fact that the questionnaire item on household expenditures did not yield answers from all the respondents, the few responses we got can help us to make inferences on trends of household expenditure. In table 4.16 it is apparent that household expenditures on various items had increased over the last five years with education accounting for a larger portion of tourism entrepreneurial income. This finding however needs to be treated with caution because of the low response rates and because the figure presented in table 16 are rough

estimates made by a few respondents. It's possible that the respondents who did not answer this questionnaire item could have had different priorities in their household's expenditures.

Table 4.16: Household Expenditures

| Item | Average expenditure in Kshs. | | |
|-----------|----------------------------------|--------------|--------------|
| | Current year (For past 5 months) | Last 3 years | Last 5 years |
| Education | 17654 | 22782 | 16234 |
| Food | 6186 | 5240 | 6789 |
| Health | 1425 | 546 | 0 |
| Savings | 13832 | 15300 | 5286 |
| Others | 1925 | 1000 | 1818 |

Source, Field data, 2015

Responding to an open-ended question asking participants to describe their household expenditure since they got involved in tourism entrepreneurship, participants stated that their expenditures on different items had changed over time. The findings show that 88.7% of the respondents indicated that the household expenditures on various items has increased from the time they got involved with tourism entrepreneurship. The increase in household expenditures was attributed to escalating cost of living, increased household size and needs and increased incomes from tourism and other sources. Another 3.2% indicated that their expenditure remained the same while for 8.1% of the respondents expenditures had decreased. Stewart (2011: 265) has observed that a small change in income will not generally lead to change in spending at the household level. This was confirmed by the two respondents whose expenditures had remained the same because their incomes were not significant. This also implies that a big change in income will lead to a change in spending as confirmed by the 55 respondents who stated that their household expenditures had increased as a result of increased incomes from tourism and other sources.

4.4.4 Other Benefits from Tourism Entrepreneurship

The findings from this study revealed that Maasai tourism entrepreneurs also obtained a host of other non-income benefits from their businesses. These benefits included: Sponsorship in

education, gifts such as watches, stationary, electronics, clothing, bursary, donations, exchange of ideas, friendship, building schools and houses. Maasai tourism entrepreneurs have also benefited through development of infrastructure such as schools, health clinics, churches, and veterinary services which were financed from tourism income and revenues from tourism. For example, Oldonyo Ebor and Kimana primary schools had been constructed and equipped with donations and assistance from philanthropic tourists. Some tourists provided sponsorship for local students who otherwise would not be able to afford schooling to high school, college and university for further education. This confirms findings by Mowforth and Munt, (2008); (Mbaiwa, 2008); Sindiga, (2000; 2002) and (Padgin, 1995). Other benefits included provision of financial and technical assistance for rehabilitation and general development of schools, water, health, veterinary services and boreholes which have helped reduce competition between livestock and wildlife for water and community vulnerability to drought-related disasters. Tourist visits have also helped to improve the general standard of health and hygiene and many tourists have also donated medical supplies to health clinics within the community. Further, developments relating to road and transport services have improved access to external markets which have brought conspicuous benefits to the tourism entrepreneurs and their families. Like Ondicho, (2010) and Kamau, (1999) the study found out that though not a direct benefit to the households, donations to community projects such as schools (Kimana primary and secondary schools, Olchorro ebor primary and *cultural bomas*' nursery schools), health centres among others (Olekerunyet dispensary) not only extend throughout the community but also involved nearly every household.

While these benefits are enjoyed by all community members, the reality is that they would have not been realized without involvement of different household members in the tourism business. These benefits can at best be described as by-products of the host-guest encounters. When tourists visit Maasai villages sometimes they get touched by the plight of the local people and subsequently give donations, tips and gifts to individuals and groups which are in turn invested in projects that benefit the whole community. This helps to partly explain why a high number of respondents stated that they would prefer to continue with tourism in the future.

4.5 Role of Tourism Entrepreneurship on Access to Education

The third objective of this study assessed how benefits from tourism enhanced access to education in Kimana. In recognition of the significance of tourism benefits in enhancing access to education, this study sought information on the number of children in each household attending school, household expenditures and their impact on access to education. Respondents were asked to state the number of children in the household currently attending or previously attended school, their gender, highest level of education attained before and after tourism entrepreneurship. They were also asked to state the number of children in the household who were not going to school and the reasons why this was the case. The respondents were also asked to state whether incomes from tourism entrepreneurship were spent on the education of their children, the main sources of money spent on education and the impact on education.

4.5.1 Educational Status of Children

The respondents were asked to state the status and levels of education for both male and female children in their household. The aim was to find out if and how income earned from tourism entrepreneurship had enhanced access to education household level expenditure of incomes earned from tourism had promoted equitable access to education for both boys and girls. Table 4.17 reveals that out of the 313 children of school going age in the 62 households that were involved in this study, 98 had never attended school (50 male and 48 female), 206 (122 male and 84 female) were at the time of the study in school and 9 had dropped out of school. The findings reveal that there are gender disparities in access to education. For example the boys at school are many compared to girls and this is attributed to the importance the community puts on the boy child compared to girl child education. Some of the reasons given to explain why such a huge number of students had never gone to school include: one, lack of money to pay for school fees and buy school supplies. Secondly, among the Maasai people the education of children is generally not highly valued and therefore many parents are not willing to let their children go to school instead they prefer to have them stay at home and perform their traditional gender roles such as herding for boys and household chores for girls. As one respondent aptly stated:

I had not known the importance of taking children to school, girls are married at a tender age ... it is our culture that after initiation the girls should get married and fetch cows for the parents...we do not value the education for the girls.

Thirdly, cultural practices such as moranism and female genital mutilation which signifies transition from childhood to adulthood greatly influence both boys and girls to enter into early marriages. Fourthly, after circumcision boys want to own cows and therefore they give preference to income generating activities that can enable them to earn income to invest in livestock purchases.

Table 4.17: Education Status of the Household Members

| School attendance status | Sum of school attendance status in terms of gender | |
|--------------------------|--|------------------|
| | Number of male | Number of female |
| Never attended school | 50 | 48 |
| At school | 122 | 84 |
| Dropped out of school | 7 | 2 |
| Total | 179 | 134 |

Source, Field data, 2015

4.5.2 Highest Levels of Education Before and After Involvement in Tourism

The highest levels of education attained before and after engagement with tourism was considered very important in explaining the role tourism was playing in enhancing access to education. While many factors can be used to explain why many children were in school and had advanced to higher levels, it was necessary to examine the changes in access to education attributable to income generated from tourism entrepreneurship. The ability to pay fees and buy school supplies is considered an important determinant in access to education.

Table 4.18 reveals that prior to engagement with tourism only 32 children attended school and their highest level of attainment was primary. The table further reveals that after engagement with tourism entrepreneurship the number of children in school increased exponentially from 32 to 239. Simultaneously, the number of boys and girls advancing to higher levels of education including secondary school, college and university also showed some improvements compared to the period prior to engagement with tourism. The main explanation for this scenario is that tourism entrepreneurship had created greater income earning opportunities for many households. Part of the income earned from tourism entrepreneurship was spent in paying school fees and purchasing school supplies and thus

many children were able to continue with their education to higher levels without any hindrances. In this respect, it can be argued that tourism was making a useful contribution in enhancing access to education for many children at the household level.

The other explanation for the increase in the number of children in school after engagement with tourism was tourists had assisted communities to build and equip schools within the community. In addition to investing in educational facilities, tourists were also sponsoring children from needy families by paying school fees, buying them uniforms and learning materials. Thus enabling children, who otherwise would not afford the high cost of schooling, to have access to education. Given that schools are closer to the residential areas and that part of the cost is catered for by donations from tourists, many boys and girls are now able to go to school. Secondly, many parents are now willing to let their children especially girls to attend school as the financial burden is reduced and safety assured due to the shortened distance to school. While gender disparities in education persist, it is encouraging to note that the attitudes towards girls' education are gradually changing and the number of girls proceeding to high levels of education increasing albeit at a slow rate.

It was also explained that many Maasai youths attend school with the single purpose of learning English and as soon as they are able to converse in the language they drop of school. Peer pressure was also given as another reason for the high school dropout rates. Ondicho (2010: 190) also found out that many Maasai youths do not advance beyond primary education because their main aim of going to school is to master the English language which could enable them to communicate with tourists and undertake tourism entrepreneurial activities. He concluded that the desire to engage in the tourism business was a major factor for the high school dropout rates among the Maasai children and by extension failure to advance to higher levels. While this appears negative it has also a positive impact in the sense that tourism entrepreneurship acts as a motivating factor for many Maasai youth to attend school. In this respect it can be concluded that tourism entrepreneurship plays an important role in enhancing access to education for the youth.

Table 4.18: Highest Levels of Education Before and After Tourism

| School attendance status | Highest education level before tourism entrepreneurship | | Highest level of education after tourism entrepreneurship | |
|--------------------------|---|--------|---|--------|
| | Male | Female | Male | Female |
| Primary incomplete | 23 | 9 | 106 | 80 |
| Primary complete | 0 | 0 | 18 | 4 |
| Secondary incomplete | 0 | 0 | 14 | 4 |
| Secondary complete | 0 | 0 | 6 | 1 |
| College | 0 | 0 | 4 | 1 |
| University | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| Total | 23 | 9 | 149 | 90 |

Source, Field data, 2015

4.5.3 Household Expenditure on Education

The study found out that households that participated in this study spent part of the income earned from their tourism entrepreneurial activities in enhancing access to education. Even though most households barely made enough money from their tourism entrepreneurial activities to meet their basic needs, they still invested part of the income they accrued from their tourism businesses to enhance access to education for their children and other dependants. The investments in education varied from household to household and mainly covered school fees, uniforms, purchase of school supplies including books and saving for future educational expenses. Respondents in this study reported that average household expenditure on education had gone up over the last five years. The reasons given to explain the increase of household expenditures in education included: One, increased number of children in school which compelled households to spend more to cater for education needs. In addition to increased number of children in school, escalating cost of school materials and supplies (books, uniforms and fees among others) was also mentioned. As children advanced to higher levels of education fees and the demand for books increased the amount of money

needed to cover the costs. In some cases the increased expenditures were a result of transferring children from one school to the other (i.e., from public to private schools, from day to boarding schools as well as interchange from boarding to boarding or day to day school).

Respondents stated that they had realized the significance of education and were either transferring their children to better schools or were getting their children further away from schools near the tourist's hotspots in order to keep their children off the tourist business, interacting with tourists which was having a negative influence of their culture such as girls getting married by tourists, and getting used to money at an early age. This was in one way or another was playing an important role in enhancing access to education for many children. In addition, other expenses such as contribution to pay PTA teachers in some schools and construction of facilities were also mentioned as factors accounting for the increased expenditures on education.

Though the initial goal was to capture household expenditures in intervals of one year, three years and five years respectively, it was difficult to compare the resultant data as the respondents were unable to provide information on the actual amount of money spent on each of the items listed in Table 4.19. Women stated that they ordinarily do not pay fees and therefore could not respond to this questionnaire item and that if they spent money on education it was hard to give the amounts as they did not have records. In some cases men too, said that they do not know how much was spent on primary education at the household level as this was a women responsibility. They indicated that normally they pay fees for their children starting from secondary level onwards. However, some respondents both male and female were able to provide rough estimates indicative of the amount of money spent in enhancing access to education at the household level. It is worth noting here that the amount of money spent on education varied from one household to the other depending on the number of children in school, their level of education and the type of school i.e. private or public and boarding or day.

While the focus was on the contribution of tourism entrepreneurship in access to education at the household level, finding from this study suggest that tourism was not the only source of the income spent on education. Respondents in this study indicated that they supplemented their educational expenditures with income derived from other sources such as including livestock production and farming. Some respondents also pointed out that household

expenditure on education was augmented by bursaries, scholarships and grants and through educational fund raising which reduced the financial burden.

Table 4.19: Average Household Expenditure on Education in Kenya Shillings

| Item | Current expenditure (5months) | Expenditure 3 years ago | Expenditure 5 years ago |
|--------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|
| School fees | 12402 | 15089 | 11460 |
| Uniforms | 1237 | 1949 | 1509 |
| Buying books | 2658 | 2045 | 1676 |
| Savings | 16600 | 11062 | 7666 |
| Other | - | 2014 | 2280 |

Source, Field data, 2015

4.5.4 Impact of Tourism Entrepreneurship on Access to Education

The respondents in this study were asked to state their opinion on what they perceived as the overall impact of tourism entrepreneurship on access to education. From the study findings, 82.3 % of the respondents said that tourism entrepreneurship has had a positive impact in access to education while 17.7% stated that it had a negative impact in enhancing access to education. On the contrary, the 11 respondents (17.7%) who stated that tourism entrepreneurship had not made in impact in access to education explained that the incomes derived from tourism were meager and irregular and therefore could not create much impact at the household level in terms of increasing access to education. They also further alluded that tourism was responsible for the high school dropout rates among the youth.

Respondents who suggested that tourism entrepreneurship had brought some impact on enhancing access to education also added the following. One, through donations and grants from tourists, schools and relevant infrastructure had been built in close proximity to their villages and that some school supplies were also provided through sponsorship thus enabling children to easily access education within the community especially those from the needy families. The study reveals that Kimana primary and secondary schools, Oldonyo Eborr primary school, *cultural boma* nursery schools received benefits including donations in the form of building classrooms, school supplies, sponsorship and other infrastructural

development. While it was not possible to establish the exact number of schools and children who had benefited from such schemes and the actual amount of money spent on each child's education, responses to the open-ended questionnaire items showed a high level of consensus amongst respondents that through tourist donations Maasai children who otherwise could not be able to afford were attending school, hence it could be argued that through these donations tourism was contributing in enhancing access to education. While these benefits were as a result of the households involved in tourism entrepreneurship their effect was felt at the community level. For example, donations to schools meant that parents did not have to pay all the money levied by schools. This was a big relief as poor parents are able to send their children to school without worrying about fees.

In some cases tourists touched by the plight of Maasai children have donated educational facilities closer to where many people live and are providing sponsorship of local students to attend school at different levels. Reduced walking distance to and from school due to close proximity had enabled many children especially girls to attend schools. Respondents also stated that many parents were comfortable to let their children walk to the nearby schools without fear that they could be harmed by wildlife animals. Other services included provision of financial and technical assistance for rehabilitation and general development of schools, water boreholes, health and veterinary services. All these services directly or indirectly have a positive impact on the education of children. For example, availability of water within the community freed girls who are traditionally used to fetch water to attend school.

Secondly, it was explained that through their tourism entrepreneurship the villagers were earning supplementary income which they never used to earn previously and that part of this income was being used to enhance access to education for their children. Thirdly, tourism had motivated many young people to go to school. Even though for some the aim was to master the English language in order to communicate with tourists and facilitate their participation in tourism entrepreneurship, it was all the same a positive contribution to enhancing access to education. In addition, through interactions with tourists and peers within the community, many respondents said that through this kind of encounters they had increasingly come to appreciate the importance of education and therefore were willing to send their children to school.

The study participants' entrepreneurial activities in tourism and the benefits they accrue from tourism entrepreneurship demonstrate the Maasai's desire to spur development in their homelands. Access to education is one of the indicators of how tourism at the household level can enhance development. Yet despite their entrepreneurial abilities, the study participants continue to lag behind in terms of access to education because the benefits from tourism are insufficient and therefore do not make much impact in terms of enhancing access to education. Unlike many studies which suggested Maasai involvement in tourism entrepreneurship has a positive impact in local development, the findings from this study suggest to the contrary that the benefits accrued by the Maasai from tourism are meager and this undermined the ability of the Maasai to invest significant amounts of money in activities aimed at enhancing access to education. The study participants reported that they would wish to spend more money in enhancing access to education but other pressing livelihood needs at the household level mean that investment in education is not accorded a high priority.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Introduction

This chapter summarizes findings of the study, presents a conclusion of how and/ or if Maasai involvement in tourism entrepreneurship has enhanced access to education at the household level in Kimana Group Ranch. It also offers some recommendations. To address the broad question, the research sought to answer the three questions posed in this study: (1) what are the different tourism activities Maasai entrepreneurs undertake at household level? (2) What benefits do households in Kimana derive from tourism entrepreneurship? (3) How have the benefits from tourism entrepreneurship enhanced access to education in Kimana? Research was conducted among Maasai communities living in Kimana Tikondo Group Ranch which lies adjacent to Amboseli National Park in Loitokitok Sub-county in Kajiado County of Kenya to explore and understand Maasai entrepreneurship in tourism, its benefits and how these benefits have been used to enhance access to education at the household level. The chapter is divided into three sections. Section 5.1 presents summary of the findings. Section 5.2 presents the overall conclusion to the study in section and the chapter ends with recommendations for further enquiry set out in Section 5.3.

5.1 Summary of the Findings

The research objectives were achieved by undertaking both quantitative and qualitative research in Kimana. The study adopted CTEM to contribute to the body of knowledge on tourism entrepreneurship among the Maasai and how it has enhanced access to education.

The study established that the Maasai people in Kimana were involved in tourism entrepreneurship in a number of ways. First, they provide tourists with indigenous culturally based experiences which included activities such as cultural performances, Maasai arts and crafts, and/or heritage tours. For some households these activities were undertaken alongside other non-tourism related activities while for others these were the only activities that they performed as a source of income and livelihood. Secondly, Maasai households were also involved in a wide range of other tourism induced income generating activities such as foodstuff hawking, currency laundering, hotel operation, boda boda and groceries/ shops which though not fully institutionalized earned them tourism related income. These activities were all undertaken within a *cultural boma* setting. While the *cultural boma* was owned and

controlled by Maasai entrepreneurs who jointly entertained tourists with cultural performances (song and dance), the sale of handicrafts was done by individual household members. Generally, tourism enterprises were jointly owned but within these enterprises each member had the opportunity to sell their own arts and crafts and to generate income for their households.

The study also established that tourism entrepreneurship had brought a variety of direct and indirect benefits to Maasai households that were engaged in the business. In the same vein, this study has established that tourism not only earned Maasai entrepreneur income but also extended economic opportunities to people who were not directly involved in tourism entrepreneurship. The most obvious benefit has been the generation of direct income from the various tourism activities undertaken by different households. However, the amount of income generated was not uniformly spread across the households. While household incomes from tourism enterprises were small they played important roles especially for those households that were entirely dependent on tourism entrepreneurship as the only source of income. The income also played important roles in supplementing and diversifying sources of livelihood and enhancing access to social services especially education. However, the tourism benefits did not create much impact at the household level because the incomes were small in relation to household size and needs. Furthermore, the incomes were not regular because of the seasonal nature of the tourism industry.

The study established that Maasai entrepreneurs invested the income they accrued from tourism in a wide range of activities including enhancing access to education. The study highlighted the variance among households' expenditure in enhancing access to education. The determinants of household expenditure on education was dependent on the amount of income earned, the number of school going children, their levels and the value attached to education by different households. The study findings suggest that investing tourism entrepreneurship benefits in enhancing access to education was constrained by low and irregular incomes at the household level. Because of the meager incomes Maasai entrepreneurs did not seem to prioritize expenditures on education over pressing livelihood needs like buying food. Even for those households that often combined tourism entrepreneurship with other economic activities; their investments in enhancing access to education were small and varied depending on the number of children in school and their level of their study.

5.2 Conclusion

In addressing the overall aim and objectives of the research, this study has provided an analysis of Maasai entrepreneurship in tourism, benefits accrued at the household level and how these have enhanced access to education. This chapter has provided a discussion of the findings and gained deep insights that permit the researcher to make the following conclusions. One, the main motivation for the Maasai to undertake entrepreneurial activity in tourism was the desire to diversify and supplement household incomes occasioned by diminishing land sizes due to population increase, declining livestock production (their traditional main source of livelihood), and recurrent drought as well as lack of alternative income generating opportunities for a large majority of the local people. It was seen important more so for the women and youth to gain economic independency. Tourism is therefore a very important business for the Maasai people.

Two, the Maasai participate in tourism entrepreneurship because of the potential benefits it brings. The participants in this study stated that they wish to invest more in tourism entrepreneurship as a means to buffer themselves from the economic challenges that confront them. Tourism was therefore viewed as one of the few income generating opportunities available to the Maasai and as one that makes very useful contributions at the household level in terms of supplementing and diversifying local livelihoods and stimulating socio-economic development at the community level through such indicators as enhancing access to education. This study suggest that for Maasai communities to maximize the benefits from their tourism enterprises, which will in turn help them to increase their investments in the education of their children, there is an urgent need for Maasai entrepreneurs to expand and diversify the range of tourism activities they undertake in order to increase the direct benefits they derive from the industry. This in turn will enable them to increase their expenditures more especially in enhancing access to education.

Overall, the study found out that while involvement in tourism entrepreneurship has provided direct benefits to Maasai households in Kimana, these benefits have not significantly enhanced access to education. The study has illustrated that tourism entrepreneurship has the potential to generate enormous benefits for the Maasai but at the moment the benefits that accrue at the household level are small and their contribution to enhancing local livelihoods and access to education is minimal. The ability of the Maasai to realize the benefits that accrue from their tourism enterprises and to increase their investments in the education of

their children largely depends on kind of activities, the amount of benefits accrued and who at the household level makes decisions on how those benefits are appropriated.

Therefore, it can be concluded that tourism entrepreneurship can contribute in enhancing access to education, increasing benefits at the local level and improving the standards of living for Maasai entrepreneurs. This however, depends on how quick tourism entrepreneurs master the tourism business, effectively meet the demands of their clientele and widen their understanding of tourist markets as well as trends. Self-reliant entrepreneurial activity within the wider society has been described as a way of leading Maasai people to greater heights of development especially in the field of education. Without proper planning and effective strategy, economic leakages will occur and eat into the benefits thus reducing the amount of disposable income at the household level which could in turn be invested in enhancing access to education.

5.3 Recommendations

Based on the findings, the following recommendations are made:

Since the current study utilized a small sample size taken from one location in Kimana, the results cannot be generalized to other areas and communities that are engaged in tourism entrepreneurship. Therefore the study suggests that further research needs to be done on this topic involving a larger sample size and by use of multiple methods.

The study participants said that the tourism entrepreneurship was important in their community as it enabled them to earn income in an environment where there is a scarcity of opportunities. However, at the moment the flow of tourists to Maasai tourism enterprises is low. The study suggests that there is an urgent need for the government to assist market and promote Maasai tourism attractions so as to increase visitation and by extension the benefits that the community derives from tourism entrepreneurship.

The study found that Maasai entrepreneurs were involved in a limited number of tourism entrepreneurship activities. The study suggests that there is need to expand the range of activities that Maasai entrepreneurs are involved in at the moment with the view of including new culture and nature based activities. This will not only attract more tourists but also enable the community to diversify their sources of livelihoods. This can be achieved through

capacity building, education and training in business management, planning and product development.

This study suggests that for Maasai entrepreneurs to increase their revenues from tourism and therefore investments in enhancing access to education there is need to empower Maasai entrepreneurs not only to attract more tourists but also to find innovative ways of increasing their income from tourism entrepreneurship. It is only through increasing earnings that Maasai households undertaking entrepreneurial activities in tourism can generate surplus income that they would invest in enhancing access to education. For this to occur there is need to actively involved Maasai entrepreneurs in tourism planning, product development and in the decision making processes. Increased incomes and benefits from tourism is that household will have surplus income after meeting their basic livelihood needs which they can then invest in enhancing access to education and by extension to community development as education is one aspect of development.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX I

Study Questionnaire For Tourism Entrepreneurs (Household Respondents)

My name is Edinah N. Casmir. I am a student at the University of Nairobi currently researching for my Masters project in Development Studies. As part of my degree program, I am conducting a study on the impact of tourism entrepreneurship on access to education in Kimana Tikondo group ranch. The target groups of this study are households which have been involved in tourism entrepreneurship for more than five years. Your help in completing this questionnaire is greatly appreciated. All information given will be confidential and only used for the above purpose. The findings of this study can be provided on request.

Section 1

Q1. Respondent characteristics

| Relationship to household head | Age in Years | Gender/ Sex | Marital status | Respondent education level | Main occupation/ activity | Other activities/ secondary activity |
|--|--------------|----------------------|---|---|---------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| 1. Household head 2. Spouse 3. Son/ daughter 4. Worker 5. Other/ (Specify)----- ----- | | 1. Male 2. Female | 1. Married 2. Widowed 3. Divorced/separated 4. Single/ Never married | 1. No formal education 2. Primary incomplete 3. Primary complete 4. Secondary incomplete 5. Secondary complete 6. College (Specify)---- 7. University (Specify)---- 8. Other specify | | 1. 2. 3. |

Q2. Basic household characteristics

| Household size | Gender/sex | Age in years | School attendance status | Highest Education level reached household members | Economic activity |
|---|--|--------------------------------------|---|---|-------------------|
| Adults (over 18 years) ----- Children (below 18 years) ----- | Total male---- ----- Total female-- --- | 0-9 10-19 20-29 Above 30 | 1.Never attended--- 2.At school- -- 3.Left school--- | 1.No formal education--- 2.Primary incomplete- - 3.Primary complete---- 4.Secondary incomplete---- 5.Secondary complete- --- 6.College (Specify)---- 7.University---- | |

Household income (monthly) Kshs. _____

Household expenditure (monthly) on basic food and non-food items, Kshs.

Section 2: Different tourism entrepreneurial activities of the Maasai households

Information on sources of livelihoods and entrepreneurial activities

Q3. What are the different sources of livelihoods in the household?

Q4. From the livelihood activities named in Q3, which three are most important as sources of household income?

Q5. What are the different tourism entrepreneurial activities in your household?

| Tourism entrepreneurial activity | Person involved in the entrepreneurial activity | Timelines of the entrepreneurial activity | Ranking of the entrepreneurial activity |
|---|--|--|--|
| | | | |
| | | | |
| | | | |
| | | | |
| | | | |

Q6. When did the household start to engage in tourism entrepreneurship (ask the year)?

Q7. What reasons motivated the household to get involved in tourism entrepreneurship?

Q8. What were your main sources of livelihood before tourism entrepreneurship?

Section 3: Benefits from different tourism entrepreneurial activities among the Maasai households

Q9. What are the incomes from different tourism entrepreneurial activities in your household?

| Entrepreneurial activity | Current earnings in Kshs. | | | |
|---------------------------------|----------------------------------|---------------|----------------|-----------------|
| | Daily | Weekly | Monthly | Annually |
| 1. | | | | |
| 2. | | | | |
| 3. | | | | |
| 4. | | | | |
| 5. | | | | |

Q10. How do you describe your household income since you got involved in tourism entrepreneurial activities?

1. Has significantly increased?

2. Has fairly increased?
3. Has not changed?
4. Has fairly decreased?
5. Has significantly decreased?

Explain your opinion_____

Q11. How does the household spend the incomes from different tourism entrepreneurial activities?

| Item | Current expenditure in Kshs. | Expenditure in the last 3 years | Expenditure in the last 5 years | Reason for the trend |
|--------------------|-------------------------------------|--|--|-----------------------------|
| 1.Education | | | | |
| 2.Food | | | | |
| 3.Health | | | | |
| 4.Savings | | | | |
| 5. Other (specify) | | | | |

Q12. How do you describe the household expenditure on the items cited in Q11 since you got involved in tourism entrepreneurship?

1. Increased?
2. Remained the same?
3. Decreased?

Explain your opinion_____

Q13. In your own opinion, will you prefer tourism entrepreneurship as a source of household income in the future? 1. Yes? 2. No?

Q14. Briefly explain your response Q13

Q15. What are other benefits that the household get as a result of involvement in tourism entrepreneurship?

Section 4: How the benefits from tourism entrepreneurial activities promote access to education in Kimana

Household access to education

Q16. Currently, how many children are/ have gone to school? _____

| Household member | Gender/sex | Highest education level | Highest education level before tourism entrepreneurship | Highest education level after tourism entrepreneurship |
|-------------------------|-------------------|--------------------------------|--|---|
| 1 | | | | |
| 3 | | | | |
| 4 | | | | |
| 5 | | | | |
| 6 | | | | |

Q17. How many children are/ have not gone to school? _____

| Household member | Gender/sex | Reason for not going to school |
|-------------------------|-------------------|---------------------------------------|
| 1 | | |
| 2 | | |
| 3 | | |
| 4 | | |
| 5 | | |
| 6 | | |

Household expenditure on education

Q18. Is the income from tourism entrepreneurship spent on the following items? If yes how?

| Item | Current expenditure | Expenditure in the last 3 years | Expenditure in the last 5 years | Reason for the trend |
|-----------------------|----------------------------|--|--|-----------------------------|
| 1.School fees | | | | |
| 2.Uniforms | | | | |
| 3.Buying books | | | | |
| 4.Building classrooms | | | | |
| 5.Savings | | | | |
| 4. other (specify) | | | | |

Q19. What are the main sources of expenditure in education? Probe for; income from tourism entrepreneurship, bursaries, grants, scholarship, or any other?

Q20. Is there a change in access to education in the household as a result of engagement in tourism entrepreneurship? 1. Yes 2. No

Q21. Explain your response in Q20

Q22. How will you describe the impact of tourism entrepreneurship on access to education of the household members?

Thank you

APPENDIX II

Key Informant Interview Guide

Name of interviewee (optional) _____ Date of interview _____

Occupation _____ Duration of interview _____

My name is Edinah N. Casmir. I am a student from University of Nairobi currently researching for my Masters Project in Development studies on ‘Tourism entrepreneurship and access to education in Kimana Tikondo group ranch’. The participation in this interview is entirely voluntary and any information given will be confidential and only used for the above purpose.

Introduction

- Thank you for the possibility to interview
- Read and discuss confidentiality agreement
- Establish timeframe for interview

Themes

1. Different tourism entrepreneurial activities/ enterprises the households are engaged with?
2. How did tourism entrepreneurship start in kimana and why?
3. Different benefits that individual households get from tourism entrepreneurship?
4. Impacts of tourism entrepreneurship on access to education (probe for: school fees, stationery, building classrooms, buying uniforms etc.)
5. How have you used and responded to tourism in order to promote access to education at the household level?

6. What are the challenges encountered in tourism entrepreneurship in realizing access to education?
7. Would you consider tourism entrepreneurship as a tool for promoting access to education at the household level in Kimana?
8. How would you describe the impact of tourism entrepreneurship on access to education?