



Socioeconomic factors hindering domestic tourism consumption in Kenya: the case of Nakuru, Mombasa and Nairobi towns.

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Abstract

This study examined the socioeconomic factors that affect domestic tourism in Mombasa, Nairobi and Nakuru with a view of addressing them in order to improve domestic tourism consumption in Kenya. The study targeted 600 respondents from among those who had participated or intended to participate in domestic tourism, using a questionnaire as the tool for data collection. It investigated a sample of a cross-section of the tourist stakeholders and through questionnaires schedules, obtained data from respondents consisting of those who had participated or intended to participate in domestic tourism. The respondents from the tourist industry players in the regions was selected using purposive and stratified random sampling methods. A total of 558 respondents out of 600 filled out the instruments at a response rate of 93%. The data was analysed using descriptive and inferential statistics. It was established that the level of education (86%) and income (76%) were the major contributing factors in domestic tourism consumption. This is where data was extracted for analysis and the researcher then made statistical. The study findings indicated that the level of education was a major contributing factor in domestic tourism with 86% of participants having a middle level education, and above. Age was found to have a significant impact on the level of participation in domestic tourism. Education level was found to have a positive influence on participation in domestic tourism.

Keywords: Domestic tourism, age, gender, educational level, Kenya.

Introduction

According to Godfrey and Clarke (2000), the management of tourist destinations are driven by the general principles of planning including; resource assessment, market analysis, and development and marketing strategy, in order to realize their sustainability. Planning ensures sustainable destinations. For example, strategic planning has been successfully used in the promotion of inbound tourism in Japan, New Zealand, China, Australia, USA and many others (Godfrey and Clarke, 2000). Akama (1999) recognized that Kenya has invested massively in the promotion of inbound tourism. This has been prompted by the fact that over the years in Kenya, there has been decline in prices of agricultural commodities leading to shortfalls in foreign exchange earnings, prompting huge investment by the public and private in the services sector such as tourism as an alternative source of foreign exchange earnings (Akama, 1999). In an effort to correct this deficit, the government turned to its service sectors such as tourism as an alternative source of foreign exchange earnings. Thus, over the last 40 years, Kenya with its enormous diversity, its rich supply of natural resources and its wealth of cultural heritage, has increasingly become a popular



international tourist destination making tourism one of the largest foreign exchange earners with a relatively major ministerial portfolio (Sindiga, 2000; Sinclair, 1990).

The initial success of marketing Kenya as a suitable tourism destination led to a dependency on the tourism industry for foreign exchange earnings and this resulted in the entire tourism system, including tourism enterprises, becoming outward oriented, with its entire tourism structure specifically serving the international visitors (Bachmann, 1988). As international tourism grew, more efforts were directed to serving this market until terrorism and other external environmental forces took centre stage. To counter these externalities, the government of Kenya started putting more attention into domestic tourism initiatives.

Thus, in recent years the government has put more effort to target the locals to participate in domestic tourism. Media reports and studies conducted in this area reveal that very little has been achieved in this regard (Jones *et al*, 2005; The Standard, 2007). Anecdotal reports found in various tourism websites claim that the marketing strategies that are being used by the Kenya Tourism Board (KTB) and the Domestic Tourism Council of Kenya (DTCK) target mainly the elite, forgetting that the majority of Kenyans are the low and medium income earners who, if targeted properly, would increase the numbers and thus come a long way in raising the levels of the domestic tourism consumption industry. This is supported by Jones *et al* (2005) observations that the government's tourism policy relies mainly on the traditional safari and coastal tourism products that were specifically meant for the inbound tourists. The Daily Nation (2008), reported that Kenyans were visiting the non-advertised sites such as Nakuru and Naivasha, rather than the widely advertised Maasai Mara, which revealed how much the promotional strategies were still focused on safari and beach tourism.

Tourism at various destinations

Local tourism affects the socioeconomic livelihoods of local people and beyond. For instance, immediately after travel advisories were issued following the Westgate attack in Nairobi in August 2013, the Mpeketoni attack Lamu in June 2014, and later the Garissa University College attack in April 2015, some hotels in Mombasa and Lamu closed down while several others downsized as bed occupancy almost grounded to zero. The Daily Nation (May 26, 2015) reported that, a year after the Mpeketoni attacks, hotels in Lamu and Mombasa were still closing down due to near zero inbound tourists and low participation by Kenyans in domestic tourism. This therefore calls for new strategies for domestic tourism to counter, low turnout experienced during attacks. This could be attributed to the fact that participation in domestic tourism by Kenyans has not been sufficient enough to compensate for the large decline in inbound tourism figures.

Literature Review

Tourism generates 3 percent of Kenya's GDP and remains one of the largest foreign exchange earners as it employs more than around 300,000 people directly or indirectly in services offerings and beyond (KNBS economic survey, 2017). Hotels, game parks curio stalls, car hire and so on all play a part. The statistics fail the sustainability test and thus, may affect tourism's future growth. The problem emanating from these combinations of factors is that of sustainability. Therefore although there has been a strong performance in tourism, risks to continuing robust growth remain a challenge requiring mitigation.



Tourism Products

Kenya is endowed with both natural and cultural tourism products spread throughout the country. They include wildlife, beaches, cultural (historical sites, museums, art and crafts, ceremonies, festivals, folklore, events, architecture, , conference, sports, adventure, among others. Some of these products are well developed attracting large number of tourists while others are either in a development stage or remain relatively untapped.

Cultural Tourism

Cultural tourism has been viewed to be the oldest form of the “new” tourism products dating back to the days of the ancient Romans (McKercher and Cros, 2002). McKercher and Cros (2002) mention visiting historic sites, cultural landmarks, attending special events and festivals, or visiting museums as comprising the activities of cultural tourism. They also stated that a driving force for cultural tourism is the desire for people to travel to specifically gain a deeper understanding of the culture or heritage of the desired destination. According to Lesoron (1997), cultural tourism offers opportunities to portray the past in the present, and thus provides infinite spaces through which the past can be experienced through endless possibilities of unique and general interpretation.

It might be expected that those who are involved in cultural tourism are mainly the foreigners. But in some countries like the USA, only 20 percent or less of those who engage in cultural tourism are foreigners, and over 46 percent of those who visit the cultural sites are domestic tourists (TIA, 2003as quoted by Richards, 2006). Richards (2006), states that over 40 percent of those who engage in cultural activities at various tourists’ cultural sites lived in the local area. Another interesting aspect of cultural tourism is the fact that people working in jobs connected to the cultural sector tend to engage in cultural tourism more frequently than others.

There are different products in cultural tourism across the globe. For example, in the United Kingdom, cultural tourism is predominantly seen in visits to museums and galleries, whereas in Africa cultural products are concentrated in, for example, in natural attractions. A recent review undertaken by ATLAS Africa has underlined the concentration of the product on traditional village life and natural attractions (Richards, 2006).

Socioeconomic Factors

Socioeconomic factors are characteristics that define the quality of life in a society. They influence the behaviors, attitudes, trends, tastes and lifestyles of individuals or groups. Education, income, and also occupation, are the main parameters of socioeconomic status. Others include inter alia employment, health and lifestyles, quality of neighborhoods (environment), SMEs.

Income

Vanhove (2012) states that the most important group of factors that drive participation in tourism are the economic factors, and key to these factors is the income and specifically the disposal income of a population. He further discussed the relationship between disposable income and outbound tourism demand as having an income-elasticity relationship whereby when disposal income increases by 1 percent, demand for outbound tourism increases by more than 1 percent.



Earlier studies of visitors visiting museums in Europe concluded that tourism participation rates are much greater in high socio-economic groups and professionals. Results from Merriman's analysis of 1991 indicated that whereas the proportion of the French population in the high socio-economic groups visiting museums had increased since the early 1970s, the proportion of working class visitors had decreased substantially by comparison (Richards, 1996).

The level of disposal income groups people into economic classes, which together with professional achievement of individuals, determine the type and nature of tourism products demanded. Richards (1996) reported that those likely to participate in cultural tourism are members of a population that are highly educated in arts and cultures and at the same time are high income earners.

Gender

Page and Connell (2006) acknowledged that even though gender is an important determinant of participation in tourism, it is a topic that has not been researched or discussed, citing that the only times gender feature in the tourism discussions is when products of tourism such as sex tourism are being examined. According to them, the importance of gender as a determinant of participation in tourism goes back to the basic relations between individuals - which is primarily gender based. They further stated that decision making at household levels were generally gender based. For example, the next level they identify is in the role of sexes especially at household levels where in most cases, women have the responsibility of household organization and child care, whereas decision making on whether or not to travel, when to travel and the tourism product to buy tend to be the responsibility of men. As an example from a motivational angle, Page and Connell (2006) contend that a woman may not be motivated to consider opting for a self-catering holiday as the product may not provide a means of escape from the home environment. Thus, gender is a good socioeconomic indicator of tourism consumption. According to Agarwal and Yochum (2000) and Jang et al., (2004), gender was not associated with the level of spending at all.

The Travel Costs

Travel costs can also influence travel behaviours. Hensher and King (2001) studied the availability of parking spaces, and the cost of parking on travel behaviours in Sydney. Participants were required to consider six alternative scenarios for parking in the CBD, in a park and ride facility, switch to public transport or forego the trip to the CBD altogether. It was found that in 97% of the responses the cost of the parking option was the most significant factor which determined their travel mode.

A study by Handy et al., (2005) found similar outcomes despite a very different cohort of participants and methodology. This study used focus groups and face-to-face interviews with students and staff at the University of Austin, Texas, to determine if Americans drive by choice or through necessity. It was established that despite the relatively limited nature of the study, which comprised four neighbourhoods in the San Francisco Bay Area yielding 1682 participants, the data suggests that Americans tend to drive due to the prices charged and the lack of suitable travel mode alternatives.

Age

Some studies have established that age did not affect tourist (Agarwal & Yochum, 1999; Leones et al., 1998). On the contrary, older travellers from Japan to the United States were found to spend more than their younger counterparts and participated in



tourism (Jang et al., 2004), whilst Wang et al. (2006) suggested a negative relationship between total expenditure and the age of travellers in tourism. In contrast, Mak et al. (1977) found that middle-aged American travellers had a higher expenditure in Hawaii on a daily basis, but stayed significantly shorter than young and older travellers. In addition, age may not act independently but may work with other socio-demographic characteristics (e.g. the number and age of the male or female adults in the travel party) to influence the level of expenditure and tourism and this confirmed by various researchers (Downward & Lumsdon, 2000; Baloglu, 1997; Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Chen & Kerstetter, 1999; Walmsley & Jenkins, 1993). Andreu et al. (2005), found that the age of a tourist had no significant influence on tourism. The authors claimed that, overall, females had stronger motivations to tour than males.

Mok and Iverson (2000) also successfully segmented Taiwanese tourists to Guam using the expenditure criterion, length of stay, younger age, number of tourist in a party (travel size) smaller party size, and whether honeymooner, among others, were some of the characteristics of “heavy spenders” whilst minimising income, marital status, gender or occupation as factors could not be used to distinguish travellers with different levels of spending.

Mak et al., (1977), state that those who are not married spend more on tourism than those that are in marriages, but the opposite was found by Asgary et al., (1997). However, two more recent studies conducted by Cannon and Ford (2002) and Wang et al. (2006) suggest that marital status does not influence participation in tourism.

Methodology

Study Area

The research was conducted in three purposely selected urban centres in Kenya namely: Nairobi, Mombasa, and Nakuru and were assumed to be a good representative of urban centres that contribute significantly to domestic tourism activities in the country. Nairobi is the capital city of Kenya located about 150km from Nakuru and 480km from Mombasa. The towns have fairly good tourism infrastructure, good connectivity to local and international markets and have fairly well advanced manufacturing and services driven economic activities. The demographics of the three urban centres are progressive and are a fair representation of the face of Kenya (World Bank, 2011).

Research Ethics and Design of the Study

To consider the respondents' ethics, the researcher introduced to the respondents orally also by producing authorization letter. He further explained to the respondents the aim of the research, the benefits of the research to them, to the community and to the country. The respondent's rights, privacy and confidentiality were highly considered, valued, maintained and respected during the study. The respondents were informed that their participation in the study is voluntarily and they were urged to acknowledge their voluntarily in the informed consent form. Finally, the respondents were informed not to write their names in the questionnaire to enhance more privacy and to protect their rights (anonymity).

The used survey and cross sectional-research methods which, according to the Handbook of Survey Research by Marsden and Wright (2010), employ systematic standardized approaches to collecting information on individuals, households or organizations through questioning systematically identified samples, was employed. It adopted the descriptive and exploratory research design methodology (Hakim, 2000)



which included the definition and description of the study population, sampling frame, sampling procedure, questionnaire type and the administration process, and the data collection criteria. The methodology also outlined the process and methods of monitoring data collection, data cleaning process and tools, and the data analysis and the analytical tools (Fink, 2005).

The Target Population

According to GoK (2009) census, the total population of the selected urban centres was 4,420,000 and distributed as (table 3.1) Kenya. The target Population size was 4,420,000: from Nairobi, Mombasa and Nakuru.

Table 3.1 : Population distribution of Major Towns in Kenya

Town	Population
Nairobi	3,200,000
Mombasa	920,000
Nakuru	300,000
Total	4,420,000

Sampling Frame and Size: Places of sampling were purposively identified as Nairobi, Mombasa, and Nakuru, being the towns that have Kenyans from diverse communities represented, and were assumed to contribute significantly to domestic tourism activities in the country. The towns were also chosen based on the assumptions that the preferred snowball sampling technique would work best in these towns due to the proximity of residents within their respective estates. Collectively and according to the Government of Kenya (2009) census report, the three towns had a population of approximately 4,420,000 (see the table). The sample size formula suggested by Cochran's (1977) was used that gave the sample size of 600.

Table 3.2: Sample Size distribution according to population ratios

Town	Population	Sample Size	Ratio
Nairobi	3,200,000	300	0.5
Mombasa	920,000	200	0.33
Nakuru	300,000	100	0.17
Total	4,420,000	600	1

*Population of the towns was estimated from the 2009 Kenya census report.

Results and Discussions

The study looked at the relationship between socio-economic factors and their influence on tourism in major towns in Kenya. The results of the correlation is shown below:

Table 4.1: Correlation Matrix

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Gender	Pearson	-.011	1						
	Correlation								
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.793							
2. Age	N	625	625						
	Pearson	-	-	.136**	1				
	Correlation	.125**	.132**						
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002	.001	.001					
N		625	625	625	625				



3. Marital Status	Pearson Correlation	-.061	-.014	.048	.084*	1			
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.130	.730	.232	.037				
	N	617	617	617	617	617			
4. Education	Pearson Correlation	-	-.033	.547**	-.004	.043	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.166**	.000	.414	.000	.925	.289		
	N	625	625	625	625	617	625		
5. Occupation	Pearson Correlation	-.101*	-	.171**	.299**	.058	.101*	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.011	.004	.000	.000	.153	.012		
	N	625	625	625	625	617	625	625	
6. Income	Pearson Correlation	.128**	.021	-.019	-.004	-	.050	-	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002	.623	.662	.927	.893	.240	.105*	.013
	N	558	558	558	558	550	558	558	558

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
 * . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

After examining and noting that no serial correlations existed between the independent variables, they were entered into a regression model using “Enter” method in SPSS and analysed. To decide on which variables to enter among the many alternatives from the dummy variables, mean variances were analysed using Anova (F-test) to check which of the options among the variables had the lowest mean (as a mean closer to 1 than to 2 shows that the respondent group participated in domestic tourism more than the rest of the group members. This led to the selection of the following dummy variables to into the model: Mombasa for location, male for gender, young for age, separated for marital status, college for education level, and student for occupation. As had been noted before, income was left unchanged and therefore used as one of the independent variables as a continuous variable in the model. Table 2 shows the summary results of multiple regression analysis.

Table 4.2: Socioeconomic Factors affecting Participation in Domestic Tourism

Variables	Statistic	P
1. Constant	1.198	.000
2. Gender	-.013	.658
3. Marital status	-.102	.338
4. Location	-.090	.019
5. Occupation	-.061	.496
6. Education	-.073	.037
7. Income	-0.58	.010
8. Age	-.052	.089
R	.243	
R square	.059	
F	4.879	.000

Effect of Location/neighborhood on Domestic Tourism Participation

The study hypothesized that the town of residence of the respondents could affect their participation in domestic tourism. Table 3 shows the distribution of respondents by these locations.

Table 4.1: Distribution of Respondents by Location

	Frequency	Percent
Nairobi	285	50.17..(50)
Mombasa	187	21.54..(23)
Nakuru	96	16.90..(17)
Total	568(6)	100.0

The results show that Nairobi had the highest number of respondents (50 followed by Mombasa (23%) and finally Nakuru (17 Half (50%) the respondents stayed in Nairobi perhaps as a result of its status as the capital city. The results of the study may therefore be biased towards those who that at the time of the study stayed in Nairobi as they were half of the respondents. The subsequent results are therefore disaggregated by locations to establish responses from each of these locations

Gender on Domestic Tourism Participation

Gender was considered as a possible factor that would influence the likelihood of individuals to participate in domestic tourism. The gender of respondents was therefore conceptualized and tested in the present study together with other factors. The gender distribution of respondents was examined through a descriptive analysis and the results are shown in Table 5 by their locations.

Table 4.4: Distribution of Respondents by Gender and Location

		Town of Residence			Total
		Nairobi	Mombasa	Nakuru	
Male	Count	173	81	52	306
	% within Location	56.9%	43.8%	46.8%	51.0%
Female	Count	131	104	62	294
	% within Location	43.1%	56.2%	53.2%	49.0%
Total	Count	304	185	111	600
	% within Location	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

The results in Table 4.4 show that 51.0% of the respondents were male and 49.0% were female. Nairobi was the only place where most of the respondents were male (56.9%) as Mombasa and Nakuru had reflected that most of the respondents are female (56.2% and 53.2% respectively). The figure below shows the graphical distribution.

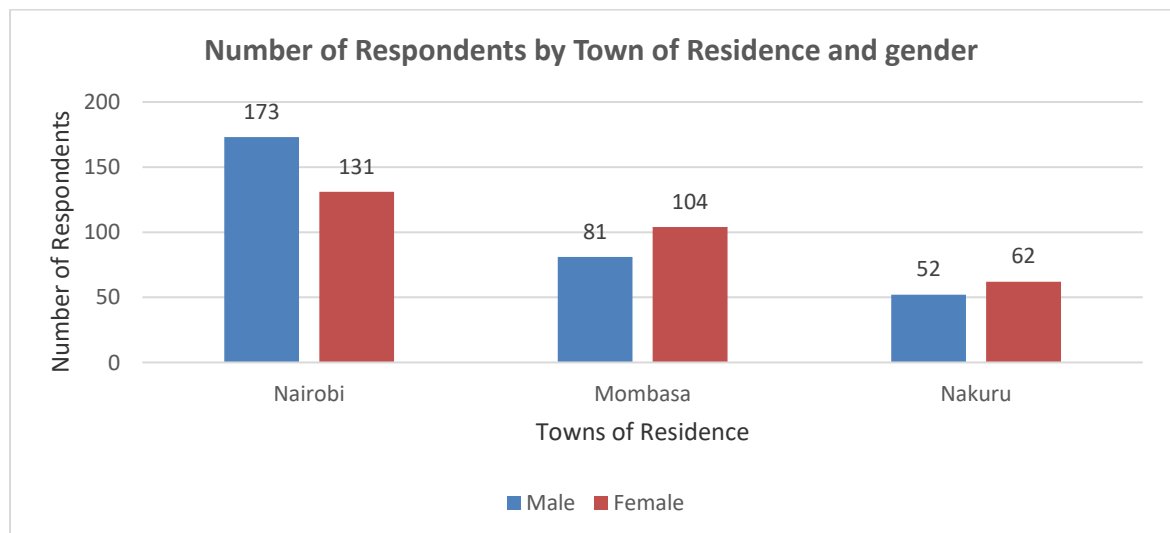


Figure 4.1: Number of Respondents by Town of Residence and Sex



The study examined whether individuals differed in their participation in domestic tourism by their gender. This was done an Anova table and the results are summarized and presented in Table 6.

- H_0 : There are no differences in domestic tourism participation by gender.
 H_1 : There are differences in domestic tourism participation by gender.

Table 4.5: Differences in Domestic Tourism Participation by Gender

	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>df1</i>	<i>df2</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>Decision</i>
Male	306	1.15	.353	1	623	.069	.793	Accept
Female	294	1.15	.360					

From the analysis, the mean and standard deviation were: male ($M = 1.15$, $SD = .353$) and female ($M = 1.15$, $SD = .360$) and they had about the same level of participation in domestic tourism. The differences were not statistically significant, $F(1, 598) = .069$, $p > .05$. The null hypothesis of no differences in participation by gender is therefore accepted.

The regression results in Table 2 confirmed the results of the t-test as gender had a positive but insignificant effect on participation in domestic tourism, $p = .658$. This means that gender did not influence participation of individuals in domestic tourism in Kenya and this was therefore not a significant factor. This is expected as no gender differences had been observed through the t-test results. The results are consistent with Johnson and Devonish (2008) who found that gender did not emerge as an important determinant of tourism activity.

Age on Domestic Tourism Participation

The study hypothesized that the age of the respondents would influence the participation into domestic tourism. Table 7 presents the descriptive results on the age distribution of respondents by their locations.

Table 4.6: Distribution of Respondents by Age and Town of Residence

Age Distribution		Town of Residence			Total
		Nairobi	Mombasa	Nakuru	
18-27 years	Count	72	48	27	147
	% within Location	23.7%	25.9%	24.3%	24.5%
28-37 years	Count	77	74	37	188
	% within Location	25.3%	40.0%	33.3%	31.3%
38-47 years	Count	64	25	8	97
	% within Location	21.1%	13.5%	7.2%	16.2%
48-57 years	Count	62	29	19	110
	% within Location	20.4%	15.7%	17.1%	18.3%
58-67 years	Count	25	7	20	52
	% within Location	8.2%	3.8%	18.1%	8.7%
Above 67 years	Count	4	2	0	6
	% within Location	1.3%	1.1%	0.0%	1.0%
Total	Count	304	185	111	600
	% within Location	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Table 4.6 shows that most (55.8%) of the respondents were young (37 years and below). The age distribution also shows that Mombasa had the most youthful population as respondents as those aged 18 – 37 years were 65.9%. These results are also shown in figure 4.3.

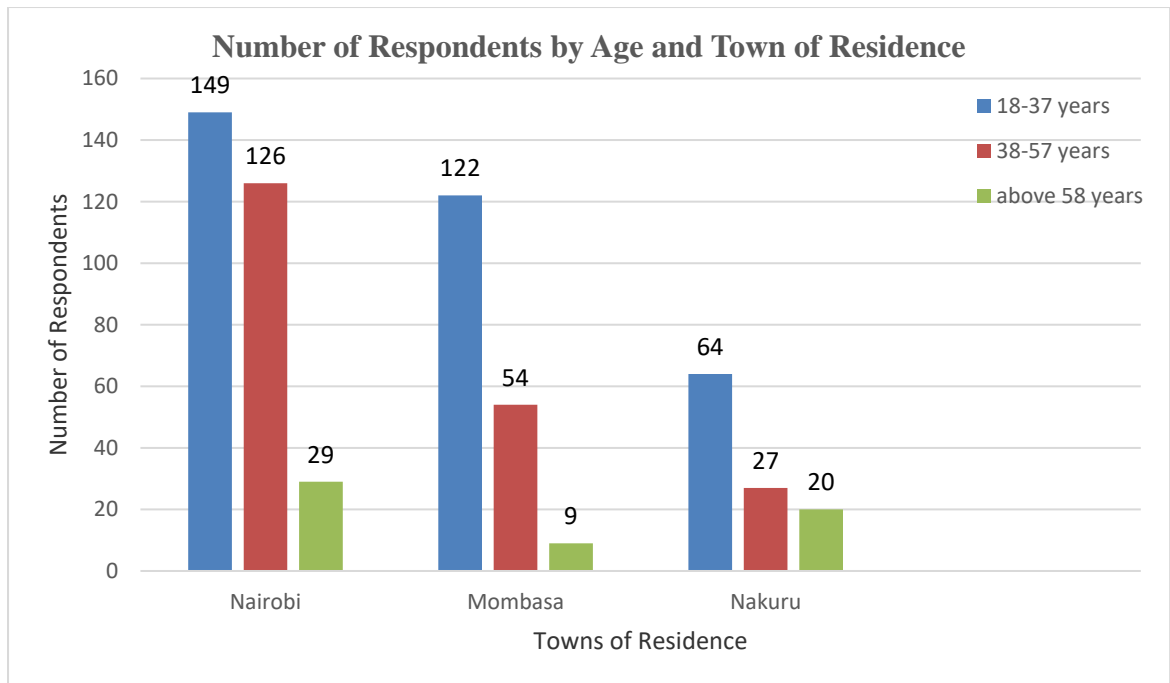


Figure 4.2: Number of Respondents by Age and Town of Residence

The study examined whether individuals differed in their participation in domestic tourism by their age. This was done using an Anova table and the results are summarized and presented in Table 8.

H₀: There are no differences in responses in domestic tourism participation by age.

H₁: There are differences in responses in domestic tourism participation by age.

Table 4.7: Differences in Domestic Tourism Participation by Age

	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>df1</i>	<i>df2</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>Decision</i>
Young	362	1.11	.312	1	623	9.846	.002	Reject
Old	238	1.20	.100					

The mean analysis showed that the young (18-35 years) respondents ($M = 1.11$, $SD = .312$) had interest in domestic tourism and more so than the older respondents ($M = 1.20$, $SD = .100$). These differences were statistically significant, $F(1, 598) = 9.846$, $p < .001$. The null hypothesis of no differences in responses in domestic tourism participation by age is therefore rejected.

The regression results showed that age was marginally significant at 10% and the effect was negative, $p = 0.089$. There is therefore evidence that age is an important contributor to participation in domestic tourism in Kenya. The results show that as individuals' ages progress, their participation in domestic tourism decreases. Younger populations are therefore more favourable for domestic tourism than older populations. The results are consistent with Johnson and Devonish (2008) who found that age influenced participation in tourism. The age of a person has a very important impact on leisure participation, but its impact may vary also depending on the people, and the activity preferred by them. For example, while young people prefer to attend more energetic leisure activities such as energetic sport activities, older people prefer relatively more secure activities requiring less risk such as walking (Demir and Oral, 2007).

Effect of Marital Status on Domestic Tourism Participation

Studies have shown that marital status of individuals influences leisure participation. This study therefore sought to examine whether marital status of individuals influenced their participation in domestic tourism in Kenya. The distribution of respondents in terms of their marital status and by towns of residence is shown in Table 9.

Table 4.8: Distribution of Respondents by Marital Status and Location

		Town of Residence			Total
		Nairobi	Mombasa	Nakuru	
Single	Count	35	18	6	59
	% within Location	11.7%	9.7%	5.4%	9.9%
In a relationship	Count	55	36	29	120
	% within Location	18.3%	19.5%	26.1%	20.1%
Married	Count	170	92	62	324
	% within Location	56.7%	49.8%	55.9%	54.4%
Widowed	Count	25	22	10	57
	% within Location	8.3%	11.9%	9.0%	9.6%
Divorced	Count	10	12	3	25
	% within Location	3.3%	6.5%	2.7%	4.2%
Separated	Count	5	5	1	11
	% within Location	1.7%	2.6%	0.9%	1.8%
Total	Count	300	185	111	596
	% within Location	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Table 4.8 reveals that 54.4% of the respondents were married and therefore making up the most of the respondent group. Further, those in the relationship were 20.1%. These two groups are important for the hotel industry in Kenya for marketing purposes as they tend to go for holidays as pairs and are therefore an important group in terms of revenue generation for the hotel industry. These two groups were the largest across all the three towns. These results are also shown in figure 4.4.

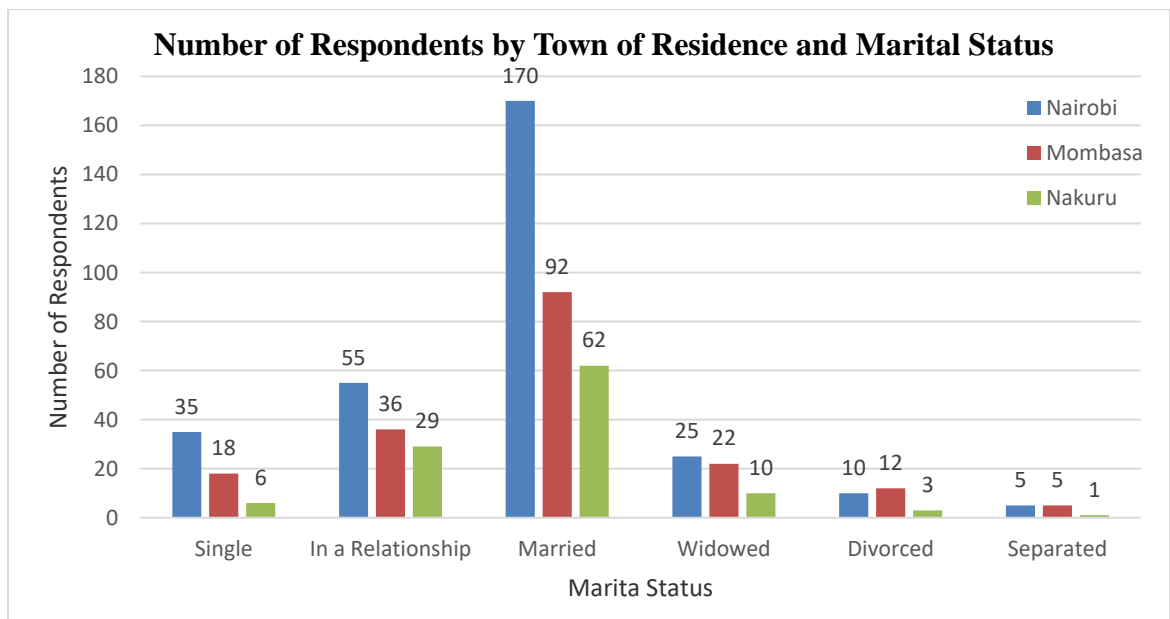


Figure 3.4: Number of Respondents by Town of Residence and Marital Status



The study examined whether individuals differed in their participation in domestic tourism by their marital status. This was done using an Anova table and the results are summarized and presented in Table 10.

H_0 : There are no differences in responses by marital status.
 H_1 : There are differences in responses by marital status.

Table 2: Differences in Domestic Tourism Participation by Marital Status

	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>df1</i>	<i>df2</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>Decision</i>
Singe	50	1.08	.275	5	611	2.109	.063	Accept
In a relationship	120	1.14	.345					
Married	321	1.15	.360					
Widowed	57	1.26	.442					
Divorced	20	1.12	.332					
This % may not be correct..								
Separated	11	1.00	.000					
Total	600							

The mean analysis showed that those separated ($M = 1.00$, $SD = .000$) had most of the respondents having participated in domestic tourism followed by the single ($M = 1.08$, $SD = .275$), the divorced, ($M = 1.12$, $SD = .332$), those in a relationship ($M = 1.14$, $SD = .345$), the married ($M = 1.15$, $SD = .360$), and finally the widowed ($M = 1.26$, $SD = .442$). These differences were statistically significant at 10% but not at 5% level, $F(5, 590) = 2.109$, $p = .063$. The null hypothesis of no differences in responses by marital status of the respondents is therefore accepted. The multiple regression results in Table 2 show that marital status had a negative but non-significant effect on participation in domestic tourism, $p = .338$. This can be explained by the fact that most of the respondents in the survey were married and therefore tend to participate less in touring Kenya, as they have more responsibilities than those who are single. In general, married people tend to have more responsibilities than single people (Demir and Oral, 2007) hence the results are consistent with the extant literature.

Occupation and on Domestic Tourism Participation

The study also sought to test whether occupation affects participation of individuals in domestic tourism. Table 4.10 shows the results for the distribution of respondents by location and employment status.

Table 3: Distribution of Respondents by Occupation and Location

Employment		Town of Residence			Total
		Na	Mo	Nk	
Gov	No	97	76	15	188
	%	39%	41.1%	13.5%	31.3%
Priv	No	101	51	42	194
	%	33.2%	27.6%	37.8%	32.3%
Business	No	74	24	34	132
	%	24.3%	13.0%	30.6%	22.0%
Farming	No	0	0	10	10
	%	0.0%	0.0%	9.1%	1.7%
Student	No	23	34	7	64
	%	7.6	18.	6.3	10.
Other	No	9	0	3	12
	%	3.0	0.0	2.7	2.0
Total	No	304	185	111	600
	%	10	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

The findings on employment showed that results in Table 4.10 demonstrate that a significant number of respondents worked for the private sector (32.3%) and government (31.3%). However, there was a fairly good number who owned businesses (22.0%), farming attracted only 9.1%. Other than students all respondents had a source of income that would enable them engage in tourism and its related activities. These results show that a large number of respondents had some form of income and therefore were able to afford the services provided by the tourism industry in Kenya.

Table 4 Differences in Domestic Tourism Participation by Occupation

	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>df1</i>	<i>df2</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>Decision</i>
Employed by Government	188	1.11	.317	5	619	4.367	.001	Reject
Employed in Private Sector	194	1.15	.362					
Own Business	132	1.20	.405					
Farming	10	1.45	.522					
Student	64	1.04	.208					
Other	12	1.29	.469					

The mean analysis showed that students ($M = 1.04$, $SD = .208$) were most involved in domestic tourism followed by those employed by the government ($M = 1.11$, $SD = .317$) while the least involved were farmers ($M = 1.45$, $SD = .522$). These differences were statistically significant, $F(5, 594) = 4.367$, $p = .001$, leading to the rejection of the null hypothesis of no differences in responses by employment status of the respondents is therefore rejected.

The regression analysis results showed that occupation had a negative and insignificant effect on domestic tourism participation, $p = .496$. This is inconsistent with literature but could be due to the fact that most of the respondents were employed or engaged as businessmen and therefore did not have the time to participate in domestic tourism. Occupation (or employment status) signifies working or non-working. Being in employment or some occupation that yields some income determines the availability of discretionary income finances which relate to the extra resources that determines travel for tourism consumption, and may also determine whether and how much time, may be available for leisure travel. Therefore, employment can be directly associated with financial and time constraints (Khan, 2011) posed for travel initiatives to be undertaken.

Level of education and on Domestic Tourism Participation

The study further tested whether the level of education was a significant determinant of domestic participation in tourism in Kenya. The distribution of respondents by education and town of residence is analysed and presented in Table 4.13.

Table 4.5: Distribution of Respondents by Level of Education and Location

Level of Education		Town of Residence			Total
		Nairobi	Mombasa	Nakuru	
None	Count	0	1	3	4
	% within Location	0.0%	0.5%	2.7%	0.6%
Primary	Count	3	2	20	25
	% within Location	1.0%	1.1%	18.0%	4.2%
Secondary	Count	5	16	45	66
	% within Location	1.6%	8.6%	40.5%	11.0%
Middle College	Count	102	161	15	278
	% within Location	33.6%	87.1%	13.5%	46.3%
University	Count	194	5	28	227
	% within Location	63.8%	2.7%	24.3%	37.8%
Total	Count	304	185	111	600
	% within Location	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

The results in Table 4.13 show that most (a total 84.1%) of the respondents had middle college to university levels of education. Nairobi had most of the respondents with university education (63.8%). Mombasa had the largest respondents group with middle college level education (87.1%). and Nakuru had most of the respondents with secondary education (40.5%). These results are also shown in Figure 4.6.

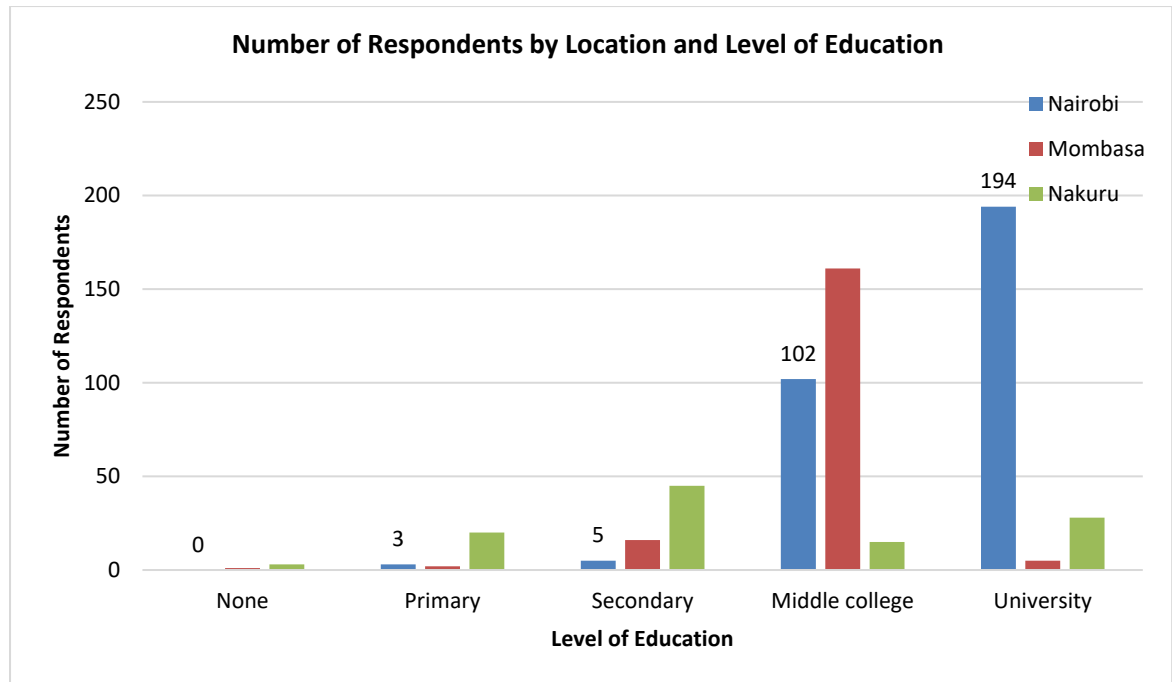


Figure 4: Number of Respondents by Location and Level of Education

The study examined whether individuals differed in their participation in domestic tourism by education levels of participants. This was done using tan Anova table and the results are summarized and presented in Table 14.

H_0 : There are no differences in responses by level of education.

H_1 : There are differences in responses by level of education.

Table 4.6: Differences in Domestic Tourism Participation by Education

	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>df1</i>	<i>df2</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>Decision</i>
None	4	1.25	.500	4	620	4.764	.001	Reject
Primary	20	1.28	.458					
Secondary	66	1.21	.407					
Middle college	273	1.09	.280					
University	218	1.19	.397					
Total	600							

The statistical (mean and SD) analysis showed that level of education significantly determined those who mostly participated in domestic tourism; middle college level education ($M = 1.09$, $SD = .280$), university level of education ($M = 1.19$, $SD = .397$) while those that least participated, were those with primary level education and they the had least participation ($M = 1.28$, $SD = .458$) and because the differences were statistically significant, $F(4, 595) = 4.764$, $p = .001$, the null hypothesis of no differences in responses by level of education was therefore rejected.



The regression analysis results showed that education had a negative and significant effect on participation in domestic tourism, $p = .037$. This means that individuals with higher levels of education will not participate in domestic tourism as much as those with lower levels of education. This is consistent with the findings of Okello, Kenana and Kieti (2012), who also found that the level of education influenced the likelihood of the community to visit the park and appreciate its conservation contribution. However, the direction of the relationship is inconsistent with the findings of both Okello et al (2012) and Demir and Oral (2007).

The latter also noted that the type and length of education influences the type and frequency of leisure participation. They found that education helps individuals to organize their leisure time efficiently. They noted that educated people are more interested in their physical and mental health than uneducated- or less educated people. It should be however noted that the education that was examined by Demir and Oral (2007) related to leisure education which is the available information on tourist attractions.

Income and consumption of Domestic Tourism Participation

The findings of Income levels and their influence on the participation of domestic tourism are summarized in table 15 and presented on fig 7. Income levels of individuals were also tested to find out how they affect the participation of domestic tourism in Kenya. Table 15 shows the results on the distribution of monthly income by locations.

Table 4.7: Distribution of Respondents by Monthly Income and Location

Income Levels		Town of Residence			Total
		Nairobi	Mombasa	Nakuru	
Up to Sh. 30,000	Count	50	34	33	117
	% within Location	17.6%	20.5%	30.6%	21.0%
Sh. 30,001 - Sh. 60,000	Count	43	37	30	110
	% within Location	15.1%	22.3%	27.8%	19.7%
Sh. 60,001 - Sh. 90,000	Count	81	31	15	127
	% within Location	28.5%	18.7%	13.9%	22.8%
Sh. 90,001 or above	Count	110	64	30	204
	% within Location	38.7%	38.6%	27.8%	36.6%
Total	Count	284	166	108	558
	% within Location	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

More than half (59.4%) of the total respondents had a monthly income of Kes 60,000 (\$600, 1US\$ = Kes 100) and above. The results demonstrate that 36.6% of the respondents earned more than 90,000/=, 22.8% earned between 60,000/= and 90,000/=, While 21% earned less than 30,000/= while 19.7% earned between 30,000/= and 60,000/= . In the Kenyan standards a significant number of respondents (=60,000 and above) were middle and above income earners, led by Nairobi (66%), Mombasa (57.3%) and Nakuru (40%). Therefore, it is clear that most of the respondents who were employed were very big earners comparatively speaking. Nairobi had the highest earners followed by Mombasa and then Nakuru. These results are also shown in Figure 7.

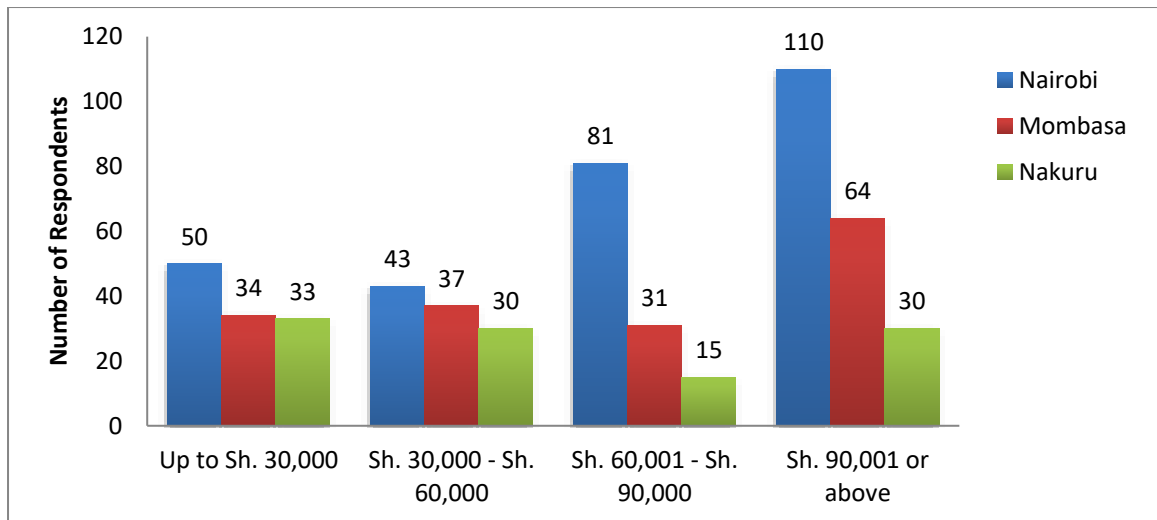


Figure 4.5: Number of Respondents by Town of Residence and Monthly Income

The study examined whether individuals differed in their participation in domestic tourism by their monthly incomes. This was done using an Anova table and the results are summarized and presented in Table 16.

H₁: There are no differences in responses by income levels

H₂: There are differences in responses by income levels

Table 4.8: Differences in Domestic Tourism Participation by Income Levels

	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>df1</i>	<i>df2</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>Decision</i>
Yes	475	79,069.26	62,895	556	96	3.316	.002	Reject
No	83	103,642.17	91,188					

The mean analysis showed that those who participated in domestic tourism ($M = 103,642$, $SD = 91,188$) were less than those who did participate in domestic tourism ($M = 79,069$, $SD = 62,895$). These differences were statistically significant, $F(556, 96) = 3.316$, $p = .002$. The null hypothesis of no differences in responses by income levels is therefore rejected.

The multiple regression results in Table 2 showed that income had a positive effect on participation in domestic tourism, $p = .010$. Thus, higher incomes lead to more participation in domestic tourism in Kenya. Allen and Yap (2009) also found that disposable income was a significant factor that influenced Australian domestic tourism demands, hence the present results are consistent with prior studies.

Conclusion and Recommendation

Age was found to have a significant impact on the level of participation in domestic tourism. Specifically, it was found that the younger the individuals, the higher the likelihood of participating in domestic tourism. The study recommends that practitioners in the tourism industry in Kenya, need to ensure diversity in domestic tourism so as to appeal to different age groups as not all domestic tourism products are picked up the same way by everyone. Given the growing number of youth in the population in the country, it is important that this group be targeted more for domestic tourism.



Education level was found to have a positive influence on participation in domestic tourism. It was established that people with higher levels of education were more likely to participate in domestic tourism than those that had lower levels of education. This calls for stakeholders in the industry, especially those tasked with marketing the tourism in the country, to market tourism products so as to target those with college education and below as they are more likely to participate in domestic tourism.

The results also showed that income was positively correlated with participation in domestic tourism. It was established that those people with higher incomes participated in domestic tourism or were likely to participate in it. This means that those with higher incomes tend to participate more in domestic tourism than those with less income. Those with less income do not have enough disposable income to spend on domestic tourism products thus impacting the industry adversely..

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