

**SOCIO-ENTREPRENEURIAL PRACTICES AND COMMUNITY  
EMPOWERMENT WITHIN THE COASTAL TOURISM CIRCUIT IN KENYA**

**IKWAYE SAMWEL**

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OF PHILOSOPHY IN BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION AND MANAGEMENT OF  
KENYA METHODIST UNIVERSITY**

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## DECLARATION

This thesis is my original work and has not been presented for a degree or any other award in any other University.

Samwel Ikwaye  
BUS-4-7089-1/2015

.....  
Signature

.....  
Date

This thesis has been submitted with our approval as University Supervisors.

Dr. Risper Awiti Orero  
School of Business and Economics  
Kenya Methodist University

.....  
Signature

.....  
Date

Dr. Thomas Anyanje Senaji  
School of Business and Economics  
Kenya Methodist University

.....  
Signature

.....  
Date

Dr. Methuselah Bichage  
[Department of Hospitality and Tourism Management](#)  
Kenya Methodist University

.....  
Signature

.....  
Date

## **DEDICATION**

This thesis is dedicated to my father, who taught me that the best kind of knowledge to have is that which is learned for its own sake. It is also dedicated to my mother, who taught me that even the largest task can be accomplished if it is done one step at a time wife Tina who has encouraged me all the way and whose encouragement has made sure that I give it all it takes to finish that which I have started.

To my children, Eugene, Cyprian, Damian and Adril who have been affected in every way possible by this quest.

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## **ABSTRACT**

A relatively small segment of business, known as social entrepreneurship (SE), is increasingly being acknowledged as an effective source of solutions to a variety of social problems. Despite this, little is documented as regards the role of social entrepreneurial practices and how they impact the local communities in Kenya in the context of the contribution of tourism and hospitality. Further, little is known about the requirements an innovation has to fulfill in order to be a social one and distinguish itself from other types of innovations. Also considered as important but whose evidence is also scarce is the role of SE practices on empowerment of local communities as well the existence of a legal framework to encourage the development of SE as a social economy in Kenya's coastal tourism circuit. This study sought to contribute in filling the existing knowledge gap by assessing the role of tourism and hospitality enterprises' SE practices on empowerment of communities with specific focus on the coastal tourism circuit in Kenya. Specifically, the study sought to determine the influence of enterprises' socioeconomic practices, sociocultural practices and that of their green initiatives on empowerment of communities. Additionally, the role of innovations that the enterprises implement on empowerment was assessed. A descriptive survey of Kenya Association of Hotel Keepers registered enterprises as well as classified facilities, beneficiaries of empowerment programs and civic leaders were conducted. Data was collected from 42 enterprises purposively selected as well as from beneficiaries sampled using snowball sampling. Prior to the commencement of the actual study, 35 respondents affiliated to five enterprises participated in a pilot study to pre-test the research instrument. Data was collected using self-administered questionnaires. Quantitative data was analyzed descriptively and inferences drawn from correlation and multiple linear regression analyses results which were obtained with the aid of Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 23 computer software. Findings were that hotel enterprises within the coastal tourism circuit in Kenya had adopted socio-entrepreneurial practices, with socio-cultural practices having the greatest extent of adoption followed by green initiatives then social innovations, and lastly socio-economic practices. The practices were positively and significantly related with community empowerment at 0.05 level of significance. The relationship which was linear was strongest for social innovation followed by socio-cultural practices then socio-economic practices and lastly green initiatives. Similarly, it was found that socio-economic practices, socio-cultural and green initiative significantly influence community empowerment. Lastly, hierarchical regression analysis illustrated that social innovation mediates the relationship between socio-economic, socio-cultural and green innovation and community empowerment. It is therefore recommended that hotel enterprises enhance their level of adoption of the socio-entrepreneurial practices to enable local communities feel their impacts. In the process, due regard should be given to the vulnerable groups including women, youth and persons with disabilities. At the same time sensitization of host communities should be enhance through involvement of local civic leaders.

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## **ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS**

**EAC:** East African Community

**GDP:** Gross domestic product.

**KNBS:** Kenya National Bureau of Statistics

**KTB:** Kenya Tourist Board

**MANTRA:** Movement and Action Network for the Transformation of Rural Areas

**NGO:** Non-Governmental Organization

**SE:** Social Enterprise:

**SI:** Social Innovation

**SID:** Society for International Development

**SPSS:** Statistical Package Social Science

**UNDP:** The United Nations Development Programme

**UNICEF:** The United Nations Children's Fund

**UNWTO:** United Nations World Tourism Organization

**USAID:** The United States Agency for International Development

**WTTC:** The World Travel & Tourism Council

## **CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION**

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

Kenya, one of the African countries is described as a country of many contrasts, from its landscape to demographics, and more so it's social and economic inequalities (Watkins, Swidler, & Hannan, 2012). Within the continent, the country is ranked sixth among top 10 countries in Sub-Saharan Africa with large populations living in extreme poverty about 45.2 percent of its population of 44 million living below the poverty line Ravallion (2017), According to the report, a majority of the poor mainly live in remote areas or as informal settlements in towns around various investments, some which include tourism and hospitality establishments. The report alleges that the country manifests gross inequality among its citizens, incidences of poverty being higher in the northern and coastal parts of the country and significantly lower in others especially in Nairobi and the central parts of the country.

At the same time, other forms inequalities attributed to marginalization of vulnerable populations including women, youth and persons with disabilities within the society are said to be rampant within the country. The National Commission On Gender and Equality Commission in a joint report observed that the most common and influential factors promoting perpetual exclusion and inequalities include poverty, loss of identity, negative perceptions and stereotypes, historical and contemporary political exclusion and erosion of cultural values and traditions, underrepresentation in all sectors and spheres of life, government policies including subsidy interventions and past affirmative actions, and limited educational opportunities (NCGEC, 2013). According to the report,

the levels of exclusion and inequities in access and utilization of opportunities vary significantly with gender, ability and age. Women, persons with disabilities, children and elderly are most affected according to the report.

Within the country, four counties out of six in the Coast region including Lamu, Tana River, Kwale and Kilifi have been ranked as the most hit by poverty and income inequality. In a survey by the Kenya National Bureau of Statistics (KNBS) and Society for International Development (SID), the four counties were found to lead in poverty index with their residents experiencing problems of low income, expenditure and immense inequality (KNBS, 2013, USAID, 2014). In particular, it was noted that there are significant disparities in education levels, the largest gap being between Taita-Taveta and Mombasa at the top and Tana River and Kwale at the bottom. Such disparities also exist in terms of estimated monthly household income, with inhabitants of Tana River, Kwale and Kilifi more disadvantaged in this regard, while for the Coast as a whole, half of all households report a total monthly income of below Shs. 10,000 (KNBS, 2013). Yet, it is these counties that also host some of the best world renown tourism and hospitality establishment, tourism and hospitality industry being the mainstay of not only the region's economy but the country as well. Adoption of social entrepreneurship by such establishment would through empowerment programs lead to not only poverty alleviation through access to employment opportunities but also other forms of empowerment such as access to educational opportunities, participation in civic and political activities (Santos, 2012).

### **1.1.1 Social Entrepreneurship**

Social entrepreneurship which is an emerging discipline within many business schools is defined as an innovative, social value creating activity that can occur within or across the nonprofit, business, and public sectors (Austin, Stevenson & Wei-Skillern, 2006 as cited in Dzisi & Otsyina, 2014). A relatively new concept easily confused with corporate social responsibility (CSR) by many, it is the conscious integration of social, cultural, environmental programs into the entrepreneurial programs rather than a once in a while public relation exercise as practiced in CSR. It is a dynamic process undertaken by individuals who are proactive, risk-taking, and mission-oriented entrepreneurs who decide to replicate a socially-driven venture to a new location in order to catalyze societal and policy reform, through entrepreneurial methodologies that are anchored in innovation and an adaptive spirit (Munoz, 2009). According to Moufakkir (2012), social entrepreneurship is an agent of change, a global phenomenon which plays a significant role in the socio-cultural evolution. Nicholls (2009) conceives social entrepreneurship to be innovations designed to explicitly improve societal well-being, housed within entrepreneurial organizations which initiate and guide or contribute to change in society. Similarly, Chell (2007) as well as Mair and Marti (2006) posit that social entrepreneurship is a venture involved in for and not-for-profit activities by combining commercial activities with social objectives.

The need and therefore evolution of social entrepreneurship was prompted by the need to implement business models that make profitability and social responsiveness converge. This was found to be particularly important in conflict ridden business

environments in which a balance between profit maximization and being responsive to the needs of the communities within which enterprises operate is paramount (Munoz, 2009; Poon, 2011). Consequently, Davis (2002) observed the emergence of venture philanthropy where wealthy entrepreneurs have implemented venture capitalism approaches to spur and support social change. Mort, Weerawardena and Carnegie (2002) pointed out the need for value creation alongside efficiencies in management and decision-making, while Overholt, Dahle and Canabou (2004) alluded to the integration of entrepreneurial thinking and action, concretization of goals and aspirations, and venture continuity. In general, social researchers maintain that since most enterprises especially in developing countries appear to thrive in environments within which a majority of the populace is mainly poor, they need to adopt programs and practices that not only aim at profit maximization but also empower persons from the communities (Luke & Chu, 2013; OECD, 2010).

### **1.1.2 Social Entrepreneurship Practices**

Social entrepreneurial practices are practices undertaken by entrepreneurs in the process of profit maximization that seeks to benefit communities within which their entrepreneurial activities are being undertaken. They include socio-economic practices, socio-cultural practices, efforts to foster green initiatives and the innovations employed by the establishments to localize the practices so as to benefit local communities in the process of profit maximization (Overholt *et al.*, 2004).

Socio-economic practices are those practices whose adoption by the locals would empower the local communities economically and in the process enabling the locals to

be able to meet their basic needs (Alarcon, 2013). Through socio-economic practices, the enterprises aid the locals to be able to uplift their socio-economic welfare level and thus their living conditions. The practices include employment of locals as well as involvement of locals in supply of goods and services to the establishment. Others include support for vulnerable persons including youths, women and persons with disabilities and providing locals with opportunities for ownership of the establishment. For instance, Ikwaye, Ogembo and Kiarie (2016) reported evidence of involvement of tourism and hospitality investments in employment of local community residents, involvement of local community in supplies to their facilities, eradication of child sex tourism and eradication of child labour.

Socio-cultural practices are concerned with the social interaction, relations, behavioral patterns and values between people (Roberts & Tribe, 2008; Mason, Kirkbride, & Bryde, 2007). It anticipates respectful interaction between host communities and guests, involvement of the local people and recognition of the contribution of traditions and culture to the tourist experience are key issues for sustainable businesses (Roberts & Tribe, 2008). In developed countries the tourism and accommodation industry might have impacts on the socio-cultural conduct of people. The question of authenticity in tourist experiences arises when cultural traditions get modified and altered for tourist consumption. Commoditization can lead to pseudo-events that are planned to be convenient for tourists which might lead to a falsification of the traditional meaning of the event (Mason, et al, 2007). Consequently, Roberts and Tribe (2008) allude to cultural

promotion through tourist education and initiatives to promote and enhance appreciation for cultural and historic heritage as key indicators.

Green initiatives on their part are internal efforts or activities of a hotel enterprise to implement environmentally sound practices towards the goal of reducing its operating costs as well as involvement of local communities in activities that help conserve the environment. Gupta and Sharma (2002) defines green practices as environmentally friendly management principles in which executive levels convert natural resources into better outputs or products. In the hotel industry, practices associated with green concerns are diverse; they may encompass a variety of activities from pollution prevention to stakeholders' awareness campaigns regarding these activities. Some scholars defined green hotel as an environmentally sensitive hotel that operates its business in a manner that minimizes degradation of the environment (Iwanowski & Rushmore, 2003). The specific areas of focus are energy efficiency, recycling, water conservation, and clean air practices (Bohdanowicz, 2005).

Social innovation is a new combination and/or new configuration of social practices in certain areas of action or social contexts prompted by certain actors or constellations of actors in an intentional targeted manner with the goal of better satisfying or answering needs and problems than is possible on the basis of established practices (Howaldt & Kopp, 2012). It refers to innovative activities and services which are carried out by social-mission organizations to fulfill unmet social needs in the society (Mulgan, Tucker, Ali, & Sanders, 2007). Such include innovations that address welfare, social relations, equity and justice. The Vienna Declaration promotes social innovation as an urgent

alterative to technology-oriented innovations that fail to solve the problems that arose moving from an industrial to knowledge and service based society. According to the declaration, “such fundamental societal changes require the inclusion of social innovations in a paradigm shift of the innovation system” (Vienna Declaration, 2011). According to Santos (2012), social entrepreneurship is a process of economic innovation that occurs with a variety of characteristics of institutions based on the creation of values in which the approach used is generally suitable and appropriate to address problems in modern society.

### **1.1.3 Global and Regional Perspectives of Tourism**

Globally, empirical data indicate positive outcome of social entrepreneurial practices on the livelihoods of local communities. For instance Munoz (2009) enumerates trends and strategic implications of social entrepreneurship in China, Rametse and Shah (2012) reports on the outcomes of Gram Vikas’ mission as achieved through the program called Movement and Action Network for the Transformation of Rural Areas (MANTRA) in which the entrepreneur set out to promote processes which are sustainable, socially inclusive and gender equitable, to enable critical masses of poor and marginalized rural people or communities to achieve a dignified quality of life in Orissa, Eastern India. Kyriakou, Belias, Dalla, Varsanis and Rapi (2016) on their part in their study of experiential tourism and social entrepreneurship in Greece: A new thinking in crisis time noted that social entrepreneurship is the field in which entrepreneurs tailor their activities to be directly tied with the ultimate goal of creating social value. They concluded that the practices offered add-on experiences valuable not only to the beneficiaries but the enterprise as well. At the same time, Zainol, Daud, Abdullah and



Yaacob (2014) observed a small piece of evidence in the relationship between social entrepreneurship and organizational effectiveness as a positive resolution to urban poverty in Malaysia.

For Africa, Ramukumba, Mmbengwa, Mwamayi and Groenewald (2012) observed that tourism was helping to respond to the alleviation of poverty among local communities in George Municipality in South Africa, the income earned helping them respond to their basic needs. This observation is supported by Laeis and Lemke (2016), Lapeyre (2010) as well as Littlewood and Holt (2015) for other regions within the country. Rivera-Santos, Holt, Littlewood and Kolk (2015) commenting on the status of Sub-Saharan Africa reports of the presence of a social, environmental or broader ethical mission; income generation through trading activity; non-profit maximizing approaches to business; participatory decision-making and governance; innovation in addressing a social need; and profits or surpluses reinvested in the business or for social purposes. Commenting on the state of affairs prevailing in Zimbabwe in which socio-economic and political challenges have prevailed for more than a decade resulting in mass poverty, high levels of unemployment, food insecurity, poor public health services, poor water supply and poor sanitation, among other challenges, Frank and Muranda (2016) called for establishment of socio-entrepreneurial mind set among investors to help ameliorate the state of affairs within the country.

In Uganda, Mulindwa (2015) in a study entitled social entrepreneurship through community based tourism in a small village in Uganda: The Case of KAFRED in Bigodi, Western Uganda reported more positive changes emerging from tourism than

negative ones. The researcher observed that tourism has not only changed the community; it has begun to lift Bigodi from obscurity to new levels as a global example of a locally owned tourism business for the local people. Specifically, the study noted that Bigodi was experiencing significant socio-cultural as well as economic changes that started in the early 1990s with the advent of tourism in the area. These changes in local people's livelihoods and Bigodi in general were equated with development and change, better described as development, was now a feature of life in Bigodi. The same cannot be said about Kenya since limited empirical data exist on the role and impact of social entrepreneurship practices in the tourism and hospitality industry within the country.

#### **1.1.4 Tourism and Hospitality Industry in Kenya**

Tourism and hospitality industry provides one of the most robust and profitable investment as well as employment opportunities. Globally, Travel and Tourism contribution to the World's GDP is significantly high. In 2016, it contributed a direct GDP growth of 3.1% supporting 6 million net additional jobs in the sector (WTTC, 2017). In total, it generated US\$7.6 trillion (10.2% of global GDP) and 292 million jobs in 2016, equivalent to 1 in 10 jobs in the global economy. The sector then accounted for 6.6% of total global exports and almost 30% of total global service exports. Its performance was found to be stronger than the growth recorded in the financial and business services, manufacturing, public services, retail and distribution, and transport sectors. For Kenya, the sector generated 399,000 jobs directly in 2016 (3.4% of total employment) and forecast to grow by 3.0% in 2017 to 411,000 (3.4% of total employment). Earlier in 2011, United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO)

had ranked Kenya at position 71 on the Top International Tourist Destinations by Volumes and Earnings.

The arrival and presence of tourists presents the coastal towns with immense business opportunities as the towns and its environs attempt to accommodate and entertain them (Irindu, 2004; World Bank, 2010). Evidence indicates that tourist arriving need accommodation, catering, information, transport facilities and services (Gurtner, 2016). According to Omondi (2003) tourists come to Kenya for its natural beauty and landscape, which makes it one of the most beautiful and interesting places in the world. At the same time, the country's wildlife Safari is an immense attraction. As a matter of fact, Kenya is said to be endowed with immense biodiversity in flora and fauna, which makes it an ideal spot for tourism. Apart from its natural beauty and wildlife safari, white sand beaches, good climate and cultural activities are the other reasons why tourists visit Kenya. Tourists therefore flock the country generally and the coastal tourism circuit to sample the endowments within the region, statistics showing international arrivals between January and December averaging 1.4 million between 2015 and 2018 (KTB, 2018). According to KTB (2017), holiday/leisure is the major reason for traveling to Kenya, taking a share of 67% of the total arrivals in that year. The performance is further boosted by domestic tourism that averages about 4 million, the performance of this market segment evaluated based on the bed nights taken up by Kenyans when they travel within the country.

The tours and travel market gave rise to a service industry comprised of hotels, lodges, rest houses and water, air and road travel services in the second half of the twentieth

century in the world as a major source of employment (Iranu, 2004; World Bank, 2010). This was mainly as a result of and in an attempt to tap into the ensuing opportunities. In Kenya, a number of the establishments have been put up by both local and foreign investors to provide the much needed services (Omondi, 2003; World Bank, 2010). Evidence indicates that most of the tourist establishments are found within the coastal tourism circuit within the country (Omondi, 2003; World Bank, 2010). This was attributed to open beaches, cultural heritage and marine based habitats. According to Kenya Tourist Board (KTB), of the tourists coming to Kenya, about 65% visit Kenyan Coast making tourism an important part of the region's economy (KTB, 2016).

Arguably, while the main aim of these investments is to earn profit for the investors as a return on their investments, it has also been suggested that they should as a matter of principle serve to improve the livelihoods and wellbeing of those living around them. As a matter of fact, anecdotal reports indicate that a majority of such establishment just like their counterparts elsewhere implement programs and practices aimed at empowering local communities. Such include creation of access to financial resources; use of social innovation; empowerment and social inclusion as well as job creation (Schumpeter, cited in Santos, 2012; Wiklund, Davidsson, Audretsch, & Karlsson, 2011). Others include youth empowerment, initiatives for green economy, preservation of local culture and provision of equal opportunity, women empowerment and involvement of the locals in ownership of the establishments. These practices fall within the description of SE practices.

## **1.2 Statement of the Problem**

Social enterprises are increasingly playing a key role in the development of emerging economies. Apart from being providers of employment opportunities for vulnerable groups, they are important initiators of lasting projects, providing a series of services that normally should have been offered by the government. In developing economies, the enterprises are increasingly being relied on more than ever to mitigate the effects of economic crisis and possibly offer a path towards a different model of economic growth. The probable reason for this is that due to their closeness to the users and the local context, social enterprises are ideally positioned to intercept emerging needs in the society, and to develop innovative responses to those needs.

In Kenya and specifically along the coastal tourism circuit where hospitality and tourism enterprises offering world class services, the local communities are among the poorest, marginalized and vulnerable. In particular, although the coastal tourism circuit is rated among the world leading destinations, the region also hosts locals living in deplorable conditions. A demographic survey by the Kenya National Bureau of Statistics (KNBS) and Society for International Development (SID) indicate that Lamu, Tana River, Kwale and Kilifi counties lead in the poverty index with the residents experiencing problems of low income, expenditure and immense inequality (Waswa, Kilalo, Mwasaru, & Kennedy, 2014; KNBS, 2009).

With socio-enterprises expected to contribute in improving the livelihood of communities within which they are located through empowerment programs even as they focus on profit maximization and overall business sustainability, the prevailing

scenario presents a contradiction. At the same time, although social economy is getting an increasingly greater attention in literature, its impact on local communities especially in developing countries such as Kenya has been less researched, thus remaining largely unknown. In particular, whereas entrepreneurs in the tourism and hospitality industry within the country allege large investment in socio-entrepreneurial practices with the local communities being the main beneficiaries, minimal empirical evidence exist on the veracity of such claims. Specifically, literature on the level of adoption of SE practices, the contribution of social innovation and their influence on community empowerment is scarce. This study in an attempt to contribute in bridging the existing gap assessed the level of adoption of SE practices, the relationship between socioeconomic factors, sociocultural factors, green initiatives by tourism and hospitality enterprises, and the mediating role of social innovation in their relationship with community empowerment within the coastal tourism circuit in Kenya.

### **1.3 Main Objective**

The study sought to determine the influence of social entrepreneurial practices of tourism and hospitality sector investments on community empowerment in the coastal tourism circuit in Kenya.

### **1.4 Objective of the Study**

This specifically sought:

- i. To determine the influence of socio-economic practices on empowerment of communities in coastal tourism circuit in Kenya
- ii. To establish the influence of socio-cultural practices on the empowerment of communities in coastal tourism circuit in Kenya

- iii. To determine the influence of green initiatives adopted by on empowerment of communities in coastal tourism circuit in Kenya
- iv. To establish the mediating role of social innovations on empowerment of communities in coastal tourism circuit in Kenya

### **1.5 Hypothesis**

**H<sub>01</sub>:** Socio-economic practices have no significant influence on empowerment of communities at the coastal tourism circuit in Kenya.

**H<sub>02</sub>:** Socio-cultural practices have no significant influence on empowerment of communities at the coastal tourism circuit in Kenya.

**H<sub>03</sub>:** Green initiatives have no significant influence on empowerment of communities at the coastal tourism circuit in Kenya.

**H<sub>04</sub>:** Social innovations practiced have no significant mediating effect in the relationship between socio-entrepreneurial practices and empowerment of communities at the coastal tourism circuit in Kenya.

### **1.6 Justification of the Study**

The study is justified since a healthy coexistence between an enterprise and the local community is of paramount importance for sustainability of the enterprise. This is especially important for enterprises that thrive in turbulent socioeconomic and sociocultural environment, environments in which most tourism and hospitality investments are located. Hence the need to undertake the study in order to determine the dynamics of implementation socio-entrepreneurial practices by the enterprises and recommend possible viable intervention for improvements.

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

Getting tourism and hospitality investments to participate in the study especially with regard to giving information related to their operations was a major challenge which limited the study. This is due to the fact that most investments being private consider information related to their investments as private and confidential. The researcher took time to explain to them the importance of their participation and pleaded for their involvement. At the same time, it was anticipated that getting beneficiaries of social entrepreneurship programs would be a limiting factor. While it was a bit challenging to get suppliers, beach operators were readily available and willing to participate in the study.

### **1.8 Delimitations of the Study**

Although there are a number of tourism and hospitality investments within the coastal tourism circuit, only classified hotels and lodges as well as facilities who are registered members of Kenya Association of Hotel Keepers and Caterers (KAHC) were involved in the study. This is due to the fact that members of KAHC have a code of ethics that requires them to support local communities through empowerment programs. Similarly, East African Community criteria for classification of tourism facilities require that the facilities demonstrate involvement in empowering programs to local communities. Lastly, though the coastal tourism circuit covers six counties including Taita Taveta, Kwale, Mombasa, Kilifi, Tana River and Lamu, the study only considered facilities in Mombasa, Kwale and Kilifi counties. Facilities in Taita Taveta were not considered due to the absence of beach experiences for while those in Tana River and Lamu were left out due to perennial insecurity situation in these counties.



### **1.9 Significance of the Study**

The study draws its significance from the fact that strategic planning and implementation of processes and practices is paramount for economic development of enterprises. To this regard, knowledge of the role of social entrepreneurial practices on empowerment of communities is relevant to stakeholders in the tourism and hospitality sector in Kenya. Specifically, it is anticipated that the study in shedding light on the expectations of the business environments with regard to the enterprises will aid effective planning for and influence investment decision making that fulfils the current and future market demand. Additionally, investors in the sector will be enlightened by the findings on trends in implementation of socio-entrepreneurial practices by tourism and hospitality sector investments in the region. This may influence their investment decisions.

Furthermore, both the national and county governments will gain from the perspective of social entrepreneurial business practices in the region based on the study findings and may utilize this information in developing policies for the region and the country. The findings will also enable informed decision making between the national and the local County governments. Finally, this study is of great importance to scholars in the field of entrepreneurship as it can form a basis for future research. It will contribute to theory of entrepreneurship by adding literature on role of social entrepreneurial practices on empowerment of communities especially with regard to tourism and hospitality sector within the country. Other researchers will thus be able to use the study findings in evaluating their study topics based on the research gaps identified.

### **1.10 Assumptions of the Study**

In the course of the study, it was assumed that enterprises would seek to foster conducive atmosphere for implementation of socio-entrepreneurial practices with the local communities. This was established to be the case as confirmed by a majority of the managements of the enterprises during the engagement of data collection. Additionally, the study assumed that the proprietors will be readily accessible, positive and ready to give information desired for the study. In reality, while a few were elusive, a majority responded positively and gave useful insight valuable for the study.

### **1.11 Operational Definitions of Terms**

#### **Community**

The process of enabling communities (groups of people that may or may not be spatially connected but who share common interests, concerns or identities) to increase control over their lives (Pigg, 2002). In this study, it was assessed as programs aimed at facilitating individuals to analyze the environment, identify problems, needs issues and opportunities and formulate strategies to deals with the issues and seize the opportunities, design a plan of action, implement a plan of action and evaluate the processes involved. Further, it was considered as the ability to establish network and ability to participate in civic duties

#### **Empowerment**

Refers to the ability of people to acquire an understanding as well as control over personal, socio-economic and political forces so as to take action to improve their own life situations (Israel, Checkoway, Schulz, & Zimmerman, 1994). In this study, empowerment has been defined as a multi-dimensional social process that communities helps people within the coastal tourism circuit to gain control over their own lives. It is a process that fosters power in people

<b>Enterprise</b>	<p>for use in their own lives, their communities and in their society, by acting on issues they define as important. Different forms of tourist related business ventures permitted within the National Constitution. Like any other enterprise, tourism enterprises are also business ventures having similar preparative principles, but working on a very wide scale (Stabler, 1997). In this study, it referred to Tourism enterprises offering accommodation as hotel, which comprised different forms of tourist related business ventures permitted within the National Constitution, and licensed by the Tourism Regulatory Authority operating within the coastal tourism circuit.</p>
<b>Entrepreneur</b>	<p>In this study, it referred to a person or a group of persons producing and managing tourism products. A person who undertakes a risk to start up their own business. This risk could end up making a profit or a loss. In this process the entrepreneur must have the commonly prescribed entrepreneurial traits along with service sector specialties (Koh &amp; Hatten, 2002).</p>
<b>Entrepreneurship</b>	<p>This refers to capacity and willingness to develop, organize and manage a business venture along with any of its risks in order to make a profit. In this study, it referred to professional application of knowledge, skills and competencies to pursue growth while generating wealth, employment and social good (Santos, 2012).</p>
<b>Social Entrepreneurship</b>	<p>Social entrepreneurs appear to make deliberate decisions to solve social problems, rather than simply stumbling into their work by accident or circumstance. They are firm on social challenges and are driven by a persistent, almost unshakable optimism Yunus &amp; Weber, (2008); Zahra, Gedajlovic, Neubaum &amp; Shulman, (2009). In this study, this</p>

involved all practices undertaken by entrepreneurs for the wellbeing of the local communities with far reaching economic and sociocultural effects that enhance growth, reduces poverty and improve large-scale social development.

### **Tourism**

Comprises the activities of a person travelling and staying in places outside their usual environments for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes (Leiper, 1979). In this study, Tourism is defined as the activities of persons identified as visitors. A visitor is someone who is making a visit the Kenyan coastal tourism circuit as a main destination outside his/her usual environment for less than a year for any main purpose including holidays, leisure and recreation, business, health, education or other purposes including those those travelling for leisure.

## **CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW**

### **2.1 Introduction**

The review provides the context for the study by considering the concepts of sustainable development and sustainable tourism. In particular, it involves contains the theoretical basis of the study, the conceptual framework and empirical review of study variables, research gap and a critique of the existing literature related to the study.

### **2.2 Theoretical Review**

The study is based on two social entrepreneurial based theories which include theory of social entrepreneurship and theory of social innovation.

#### **2.2.1 Theory of Social Entrepreneurship**

Social entrepreneurship theory as espoused by some of its proponents advocates for adoption of practices that have a social mission within the entrepreneurial process. According to Dees (2012), social entrepreneurship combines the passion of a social mission with an image of business-like discipline, innovation, and determination. Santos in expounding the Positive Theory of Social Entrepreneurship defines SE as “the pursuit of sustainable solutions to neglected problems with positive externalities” (Pless, 2012). In using economic and institutional arguments to advance theories on social entrepreneurship, the researcher describes the central goal and approach of social entrepreneurs as seeking sustainable solutions rather than sustainable advantages and developing solutions built on the logic of empowerment rather than the logic of control. In other words, social entrepreneurship entails social wealth creation rather than generation of economic wealth as its main objective (Dees, 2001; Drayton, 2002).

The need for the development of social entrepreneurship theory was mainly informed by lack of specific theory that explained socio-entrepreneurial activities (Singh, 2017). The theory was therefore developed with the main aim of defining what SE is. Just like entrepreneurship, social entrepreneurship had for a long time had no agreed upon definition about what it is or what it does (Cunningham & Lischeron, 1991; Ripsas 1998). Various scholars had tried to define it in their own way, based on their own understanding (Coulter & Coulter, 1998; Tan, Williams & Tan, 2005). The process was thus influenced by a variety of contextual factors and multidisciplinary approach. A combination of different perspectives—economic, psychological, and cultural and sociological, i.e. a multidisciplinary approach that holistically captures and explains the behaviour of social entrepreneurs, and thus, SE was adopted (Singh, 2017). While economic theories are based on the assumption of self-interested economic actors, social entrepreneurs exhibit economic behaviours that seem inconsistent with this motivation. Similarly, while strategy theories suggest how organizations can develop sustainable competitive advantages, often social entrepreneurship does not seem to involve competitive behaviour. At the same time, while organization theory is centred on the organization as unit of analysis, social entrepreneurship often involves systems of cooperation that transcend formal organizations. Social entrepreneurship is commonly seen as a hybrid that combines elements of commercial entrepreneurship and social sector organizations (Dees, 2001). Indeed, leading organizations in the field define a social entrepreneur as someone who “combines the characteristics represented by Richard Branson and Mother Teresa” (Gul, & Sozibilir, 2015). Researchers follow this

approach by defining social entrepreneurship in ways that combine the elements of entrepreneurship with a social mission (Mair & Marti, 2006; Martin & Osberg, 2007).

At the same time, some researchers believe that most of the literature on SE has focused on defining and describing the phenomenon of SE, stressing on two elements, namely social mission and entrepreneurial activities (Corner & Ho, 2010). Others have tried to see it from their own perspectives. For Dees (1998), social entrepreneurs are a special breed of leaders. This perspective reflects the ‘great man’ approach towards SE. Lead-beater (1997) states that social entrepreneurs are good leaders, thereby offering a leadership approach to the understanding of SE. The concept of ‘social entrepreneurship’ has also been discussed in the context of social action. However, there are scholars who have excluded ‘social activism’ from the boundary of SE (Martin & Osberg 2007). They believe that inclusion of social activism within SE would confuse the general public, because they already know the meaning of a social activist. Some theorists focus on the capabilities and potential of social entrepreneurs in making changes in the lives of people. Social entrepreneurs innovate (three different forms of innovations—building local capacity, disseminating a package and building a movement) and transform the lives of the poor and the marginalised (Alvord, Brown & Letts,2004). They discover and create local opportunities and contribute to social, human and economic sustainable development by changing the lives of real people and the systems that create and sustain poverty (Seelos & Mair, 2005). Recently, the concept of SE has been extended to include teachers as ‘educational social entrepreneurs’, who create social value in the contexts of socio-economic and educational deprivation (Chand & Misra, 2009).

Santos (2012) advocates for adoption of a holistic view in the conception of theory of SE in order to develop a well-bounded theory. Specifically, the researcher argues that by attempting to dichotomise between economic and social value, an additional problem for the development of the theory of SE is encountered. However, by focusing on the generic concept of value as defined in terms of the increase in the utility of society's members a more effective theory could be realised. The theory thus implies that on realising the significance of their practices to the wellbeing of the local communities, tourism and hospitality investors engage in entrepreneurial practices with far reaching economic and sociocultural effects that enhance growth, reduce poverty and improve large-scale social development (Yunus & Weber, 2008; Zahra et al, 2009).

In particular, adoption of socio-economic practices seeks to empower the poor and marginalized within the society with the aim of attaining economic sustainability. In being entrepreneurial, they seek to provide tourism and hospitality investors with skills to identify and exploit quality workforce opportunities from the local communities. The locals are then capacity built and empowered through training and provision of opportunities for employment or contracted to provide goods and services to the enterprises. In the discharge of these services, they get rewarded through competitive remuneration and regular retraining. In the process, entrepreneurs contribute in solving problems bedevilling the society by use of microeconomic solution for a macroeconomic problem in the process attaining structural transformation of an economy (Nega & Schneider, 2014).



Similarly, adoption of socio-cultural practices entails the quest of the entrepreneurs to seek and package local culture and practices as attractions that could be enjoyed by tourists. Such include traditional foods, drinks, dress code as well as traditional attractions and lifestyle. It seeks to ascertain that since the main import of the industry entail harnessing economic value of the interaction between tourists and host communities; the interaction does not disadvantage the local communities' culture, practices as well as norms. A respectful interaction between hosts and guests, involvement of the local people and recognition of the contribution of traditions and culture to the tourist experience are key issues for sustainable businesses (Roberts & Tribe, 2008). By pursuing social cultural target with an entrepreneurial goal, entrepreneurs practice entrepreneurship with social connotation. The locals would not only feel appreciated but are empowered in the process since they are given opportunities to showcase their culture. The society ultimately gains.

Lastly, adoption green practices entails embracing environmentally friendly management principles in which executive levels convert natural resources into better outputs or products (Gupta & Sharma, 2002). In the hotel industry, practices associated with green concerns encompass a variety of activities from pollution prevention to stakeholders' awareness campaigns regarding these activities. Specific areas of focus are energy efficiency, recycling, water conservation, and clean air practices (Bohdanowicz, 2005). Though the aim of implementing the environmentally sound practices mainly revolve around enterprises reducing their operating costs, the involvement of local communities in activities that help conserve the environment empower them thus social entrepreneurship.

### **2.2.2 Theory of Social Innovation**

Postulated by Joseph Alois Schumpeter, innovation theory which developed alongside other entrepreneurial theories presupposes that entrepreneurship is innovation (Chatterji, Glaeser, & Kerr, 2014). According to the researcher, Schumpeter believed that carrying out innovations is the only function which is fundamental in history. He viewed the occurrence of discontinuous and revolutionary change as the core of economic development which breaks the economy out of its static mode and sets it on a dynamic path of fits and starts. In supporting this assertion, Chetty and Stangl, (2010) holds that according to Schumpeter, an entrepreneur is an innovator who in their entrepreneurial process emerges with either new goods/ services, new method of production, new market and new source of supply of raw materials or new organization. In other words, it is the adoption of any one or a combination of the processes that implies entrepreneurship.

Though social innovation seems to have a long history Mumford (2002) and the term has rapidly amassed popularity as an umbrella concept describing an array of social programs and initiatives deserving attention Tansey (2011), social innovation theory apparently appears to be in its initial stages of development. Proponents of the theory believe that with social innovation being a complex term perceived differently by various researchers and scholars, a concise theory of social innovation would help not only to provide a unique definition of the term but also create a social innovation as niche area of study. For instance, Pue, Vandergeest, and Breznitz (2016) in an innovation policy paper noted that the flurry of social innovation activities has, as of yet, not led to

the development of a comprehensive theory of social innovation. This according to them is a critical missing step in the task of enacting public and private policies to develop, stimulate, and maximize social innovation. They observed that scholars were yet to agree on a definition or a unified sense of what social innovation is and what is it not. They therefore concluded that without a clearer idea of cause and effects in social innovation, it remains difficult to develop desirable interventions and scale such interventions up.

According to Howaldt and Kopp (2012), developing a theoretically grounded concept of social innovation as a specific mechanism of change is an essential condition for overcoming previous and existing limitations and one-sided focussing's oriented towards technological innovations, and moving a step closer to meeting the requirements of an integrative theory of social-technological innovation. They contend that social innovation is more than just a precondition for, concomitant phenomenon with, and consequence of technological innovations. They therefore regard such a broadening of perspective as being a precondition for leading the topic of innovation out of its past and current marginal position as the object of a specific sub-discipline, to the centre of sociological research and theory work contrary to observations of Rammert (2010). The researchers hold that since Schumpeter, innovation has essentially been reserved for economic and technological development, while sociology has mainly been interested in the associated social processes and social consequences. This might explain why it is that although sociology deals extensively with social innovations, it usually does so without naming them as such, and with few exceptions does without a sociological

concept of social innovations, preferring other concepts instead. This is remarkable insofar as Schumpeter's theory of economic development is heavily inspired by Gabriel Tarde's micro-sociological social theory, which for its part, despite a current astonishingly wide rediscovery, has so far not been intellectually absorbed from the point of view of the constitutive importance for Schumpeter's theory of social innovations.

Anderson, Curtis and Wittig (2014) on their part in acknowledging that social innovation is a term used globally to describe and identify quite different activities and that while it is a term that everyone likes to use, what it refers to not clear explores different definitional approaches or intentions legitimating, theoretical, action-reflection, broad and distinctive and considers why a definition of social innovation is important and what the crucial ingredients, informed more by practice than theory, might be. In the process, they allege that following lessons learnt from postmodernity and critical theory, social marketing, democracy, governance and social entrepreneurship, they arrived at a definition that is value-laden, distinctive and focused from inception to impact on equality, justice and empowerment. Just like other researchers, they acknowledge having undertaken a critical reflection on practice where theoretical insights reflect and learn from practice provide a definition of social innovation which is distinctive and focused. According to them, social innovations are new solutions to social challenges that have the intent and effect of equality, justice and empowerment.

From the established perspectives therefore, investors in tourism and hospitality sector just like other entrepreneurs are compelled to come up with innovations to ensure their

sustainability in a competitive and turbulent business environment. One way of doing this is to tailor their enterprises in such away as not only to benefit the local community but integrate it into the fabric of its locality through adoption of social entrepreneurial practices. According to Chatterji, Glaeser & Kerr (2014), Schumpeter's words that entrepreneurship is innovation has never seemed so appropriate as in the present, when modern capitalism is experiencing a serious crisis and lost his strength.

### **2.3 Empirical Review**

Empirical review on social entrepreneurship practices and community empowerment are a presented in this section. Studies indicate that social entrepreneurship offers economic opportunities for the poor through implementation of practices aimed at empowering the less fortunate in the society. Referred to as social entrepreneurial practices, these practices which attributed to entrepreneurs are meant not only to generate a return on investment to the implementers but also to touch the lives of others living within and around the enterprises (Mair & Marti, 2005). They are practices undertaken by social entrepreneurs as they go about their day to day activities. Schumpeter, cited in Santos (2012), understood social entrepreneurship as entrepreneurs in general with regard to the production of new goods, the discovery of new production methods and new markets, as well as the creation of new organizations. According to Bornstein and Davis (2010), social entrepreneurship is the process by which citizens build or transform institutions to advance solutions to social problems, such as poverty, illness, illiteracy, environmental destruction, human rights abuses and corruption, in order to make life better for many. Similarly, Nega and Shneider (2014) acknowledges being aware of the potential benefits

that arise from initiatives of social effective projects, even when they operate on a small scale.

Some researchers contend that social entrepreneurship starts with a given social problem and focuses on selecting between effective ways to positively impact the problem (Parris & McInnis-Bowers, 2014). The process, according to others, is understood to be an ongoing and repetitive cycle of envisioning, formulating, taking action, evaluating, and sustaining (London 2008). It follows the causation process of entrepreneurship starting with search for an opportunity, such as a solution for a market need or a new product that brings value to customers, followed by marshalling of resources (financial and otherwise), and culminating in the creation of a sustainable organization. According to Santos (2012), although social entrepreneurs usually start with small, local efforts, they often target problems that have a local expression but global relevance, such as access to water, promoting small-business creation, or waste management. The innovative solutions that social entrepreneurs validate in their local context often get replicated in other geographies and can spun new global industries (Zahra et al., 2009). An example is the growth of the microfinance industry throughout the world (Seelos & Mair, 2005). Consequently, social entrepreneurship is seen to be having profound implications in the economic system: creating new industries, validating new business models, and allocating resources to neglected societal problems. Social entrepreneurship has also been called the simultaneous pursuit of economic, social, and environmental goals by enterprising ventures (Haugh, 2006). The approach offers a more idealized view of social entrepreneurs as change agents in the social sector (Dees, 2001). It contrasts with

more pragmatic definitions that see social entrepreneurship as the generation of earned income by ventures in the pursuit of social outcomes (Boschee, 2001).

However, researchers are still not yet agreed on exactly what social entrepreneurship is or what entails. As matter of fact, Santos (2012) in alluding to the existing confusion contends that despite the increasing academic interest in social entrepreneurship, the management field still lacks a good conceptual understanding of the economic role and logic of action of social entrepreneurship. According to the researcher, even though social entrepreneurship is a growing field of economic activity and academic interest in which social entrepreneurs and the social oriented organizations they create have become important actors in our economic system, organizing resources into productive activities and creating value for society. Yet the very existence and economic role of social entrepreneurs seems at odds with the existing economic and organization theories which assume that economic action should be driven by self-interested behaviour of individuals and profit-driven motivations of organizational actors. Social entrepreneurs are thus often seen as deviant economic actors, as “do-gooders” that want to help the poor or disadvantaged segments of the population.

In addition, it has precipitated a situation in which several definitions abound, some analysts acknowledging the existence of as much as twenty definitions Zahra et al., (2009), a majority driven by practice rather than theory (Mair & Marti, 2006). Some observers noted that the concept of social entrepreneurship has become a large tent (Martin & Osberg, 2007) where many different activities are finding a home under a broad umbrella of “activities and processes to enhance social wealth” (Zahra et al.,

2009) or “entrepreneurship with a social purpose” (Austin et al., 2006). This notion is corroborated by Hemingway (2005) who observed that despite the growing scholarly interest in social entrepreneurship, there is no clear definition of its domain. This task has been complicated by social entrepreneurship's numerous manifestations, and the breadth of the scholarly communities studying the subject. Furthermore, the term itself combines two ambiguous words connoting different things to different people (Mair & Marti, 2006). Disagreements persist about the domain of entrepreneurship (Shane & Venkataraman, 2000; Zahra & Dess, 2001) and adding the value-laden prefix “social” further exacerbates this definitional debate.

Critical analysis indicates that most of these definitions are derived from the integration of two concepts entrepreneurship and social (Mair & Marti 2006; Martin & Osberg, 2007). As a consequence, the concept of social entrepreneurship is poorly defined and its boundaries with other fields of study remain fuzzy (Mair & Marti, 2006). Some authors consider this inclusive approach a beneficial situation for the development of the scholarly field of social entrepreneurship (Nicholls, 2008).). Based on this approach they develop arguments about how social entrepreneurship is connected with and may enrich more established fields of inquiry such as structuration theory, institutional entrepreneurship and social movements (Mair & Marti, 2006).

Further, the development of social entrepreneurship as an area for research closely resembles the development of research on entrepreneurship itself. Williams, Stewart, and Slack (2005) argued that interest in entrepreneurship as a field of study was crucially stimulated by community leaders' belief that entrepreneurship was a defining trend of



the 21<sup>st</sup> century. Similarly, we observe that the rise of scholarly interest in social entrepreneurship goes hand in hand with an increasing interest in the phenomenon among elites. Over the last few years, a number of successful business entrepreneurs have dedicated substantial resources to supporting social entrepreneurship. Scholars had earlier begun to distinguish between social and market entrepreneurship. Joseph A. Schumpeter's 1934 pioneering work on market entrepreneurship acknowledged the roles of personal qualities, such as boldness, imaginativeness, and creativity in enabling entrepreneurs to not operate passively in the world, but to disrupt the status quo by introducing previously unthought-of products, methods, and markets.

Aligned with Schumpeter's creativity notion is the entrepreneurial quality of alertness introduced by Kirzner (2009). An alert entrepreneur responds to existing possibilities, previously unseen, to create market opportunities (Kirzner 2009). Both the entrepreneurial process of identifying still unrecognized possibilities and the creativity of generating opportunities result in the creation of new economic opportunities. Entrepreneurs, including social entrepreneurs, act as agents of important changes in the economy, and thus become agents of economic growth and job and wealth creation that can improve the welfare of the community (Wiklund et al., 2011). By questioning the status quo, an entrepreneur either identifies or creates market possibilities (Gaglio & Katz 2001; Sarasvathy 2001). Entrepreneurship is understood in institutional economics as playing an essential role in advancing economic development and human wellbeing (Gimmon & Levie 2009; McDaniel 2005; Warnecke 2013).

Evidence show that economic theory holds that in perfect market conditions, economic agents pursuing their own self-interest will lead the economy to a Pareto optimal outcome in which resources is put to the best possible use and individuals would consume the services that they most value (Santos, 2012). This outcome according to the researcher in turn maximizes welfare since there can be no re-allocation of resources that makes a person better off without making another person worse off. This is the fundamental insight of the invisible hand suggested by Adam Smith and later demonstrated by the economist Vilfredo Pareto. Naturally, economies are not static since new needs, new technologies and new information arise, enabling new opportunities for improvement in the organization of resources and delivery of services. However, profit-oriented companies often invest resources and skills in becoming efficient in certain areas of activity. They may then be unable to identify new opportunities or, even if they do, they may not have incentives to invest in new resources, structures or services given the underlying ambiguity of new areas compared to the clarity of their current business (Santos & Eisenhardt, Forthcoming). Thus, managers and their corporations may become locked into increasingly erroneous views of the world (Hodgkinson), their core capabilities become core rigidities (Leonard-Barton, 1992), and the business model that made them successful may no longer constitute a good fit with the environment (Zott & Amit, 2009).

In response, commercial entrepreneurs need to pursue new opportunities for value appropriation, often creating a new market niches in the process (Santos, 2012) or developing an improved service or changing operating procedures to reduce the costs of

activities. Competition from entrepreneurs then forces established corporations to either adapt their business processes to remain competitive or risk losing their ability to compete. This often means adopting the innovations introduced by entrepreneurs or acquiring the innovative firms (Markides & Gerosky, 2004). Commercial entrepreneurship is thus the dynamic mechanism that keeps economies evolving towards a state in which resources are allocated and organized in the best way possible to benefit society (Schumpeter, 1934). Yet, economic activity cannot happen in an institutional vacuum. There is the need for a central actor, such as the government and its institutions, to establish the legal infrastructure of the system and enforce it. This infrastructure includes elements such as property rights and the rule of law. Moreover, in their pursuit of value appropriation, corporations may often push their mandate to maximize profits beyond what is socially acceptable, abusing their dominant position or developing anti-competitive tactics that reduce the value for society. Thus the government also has a crucial regulatory function, setting the legal and monitoring framework that guarantees that competitive market conditions are maintained.

While self-interested competition in regulated market conditions may be an optimal system from an economic efficiency point of view, this system may not lead to equitable economic outcomes since initial endowments and differences in capabilities often generate inequalities in the distribution of resources and welfare. Governments then also assume a re-distributive function, through the tax system and social coverage, to try to raise every individual in society beyond a minimum accepted level of individual welfare. Yet, it can be argued that governments often do not have the means or capabilities to

perform this re-distribution function, particularly when action is needed at a local level. The visible hand of the government is blunt and favours general solutions rather than customized actions. Here enter charitable organizations, which are groups of citizens concerned about a particular social inequality who create an organization that re-distributes resources to reduce that inequality. Charities usually source funds from governments, philanthropic organizations such as foundations, and wealthy individuals to pursue their mission for the benefit of disadvantaged populations. Charities represent the dynamic and distributed mechanism that makes economies move towards a more just distribution of resources and economic outcomes.

Existing literature shows that the important roles of social entrepreneurs in enabling economic opportunities include: the creation of access to financial resources; the use of social innovation; empowerment and social inclusion; and job creation. As a practice that integrates economic and social value creation, social entrepreneurship has a long heritage and a global presence (Mair & Marti, 2006). The social entrepreneur's intentionality is to improve a social problem by building a sustainable for-profit or non-profit venture to ensure the continuance of the organization's social mission (Santos, 2012). Though entrepreneurial phenomena aimed at economic development have received a great amount of scholarly attention (Busenitz, West III, Sheperd, Nelson, Chandler, & Zacharakis, 2003), entrepreneurship as a process to foster social progress has only recently attracted the interest of researchers (Alvord et al., 2004; Thompson, 2002). In the modern economic system, characterized by market-based capitalism with a

varying level of government sponsored services and an active social sector, the role and distinctive domain of social entrepreneurship needs exploration.

Social enterprises provide not-for-profit leaders an independent means of financing, where they combine non-profit with for-profit organisational features (Alter, 2006). Not-for-profit organisations, taking this route, are often known as ‘hybrids’ (Alter, 2007). ‘Mission drives social value creation, which is generated through not-for-profit programmes. Financial need and market opportunities drive economic value creation, which is delivered through business models’ (Alter, 2006). Hybrid social enterprises can develop within and across all three sectors (Mair & Noboa, 2003; Nicholls, 2008; Neck, Brush & Allen, 2009), with the condition that its primary focus must be on the social mission, not on economic value creation or profit making. Hasenfeld and Gidron (2005) developed a theoretical framework to study the conditions that lead to the emergence of multipurpose hybrid voluntary organisations and mentioned that they deliberately combine features of volunteer-run associations, social movements and non-profit service organisations.

Although all social enterprises create both social value and economic value, the decision to pursue a social enterprise is generally motivated by either the monetary gain or the amount of social impact it generates (Alter, 2006). For this reason, the purpose of social enterprise depends on the emphasis and priority given to its financial and social objectives, and therefore, it differs in different social enterprises (ibid.). Within the not-for-profit sector, on the basis of profit distribution (reinvest or distribute), two types of social enterprises exist. Contrary to the traditional non-profits, some social enterprises,

especially those established as cooperatives, are more relaxed about profit distribution and they are permitted to wholly or partially distribute profits among their beneficiaries in the form of additional products or services (Mair & Noboa, 2003). The majority of the literature on SE has emerged within the not-for-profit sector. Some scholars (Waddock & Post, 1991) relate social entrepreneurs with the creation or elaboration of a public organisation to alter the existing pattern of allocation of scarce resources.

A social enterprise is defined as an organization that concentrates on application of commercial strategies to enhance societal well-being, rather than maximizing profits for the external shareholders also referred to as the community (Ridley-Duff & Bull, 2015). Such enterprises therefore directly confront social needs through their products and services rather than indirectly through socially responsible business practices such as corporate philanthropy, equitable wages, and environmentally friendly operations or through unrelated business activities mounted by non-profits. They are argued to be accountable to their stakeholders and the wider community for their social, environmental and economic impact. Profits can be distributed as profit sharing to stakeholders or used for the benefit of the community. Santos (2012) contend that although social entrepreneurs usually start with small, local efforts, they often target problems that have a local expression but global relevance, such as access to water, promoting small-business creation, or waste management. Such innovative solutions that social entrepreneurs validate in their local context often get replicated in other geographies and can spun new global industries (Zahra et al., 2009). An example is the growth of the microfinance industry throughout the world (Seelos & Mair, 2005). Taken

from this perspective, social entrepreneurship was seen as having profound implications in the economic system: creating new industries, validating new business models, and allocating resources to neglected societal problems.

Such developments sparked academic interest, practitioner oriented research and several books focusing on social entrepreneurship being published within a few years (Dees, Emerson, & Economy, 2001; Elkington & Hartigan, 2008; Nicholls, 2009). Business schools which, with a few exceptions (Dees, 2001), had largely ignored this phenomenon joined the field in the last six years by creating academic centres and developing new courses and research (Mair & Marti, 2006). The concept of social entrepreneurship thus became a large tent Martin and Osberg (2007) where many different activities were finding a home under a broad umbrella of “activities and processes to enhance social wealth” (Zahra et al., Forthcoming) or “entrepreneurship with a social purpose” (Austin et al., 2006). A few scholars limit SE to the traditional non-profit sector only. In fact, most research efforts to date have positioned it primarily in the non-profit and public policy domains (Short, Moss & Lumpkin, 2009). They have focused only on charitable activities to meet the social mission. Many see SE as bringing business expertise and earned income (apart from philanthropy, subsidies and grants) to traditional non-profits to diversify its source of funding to achieve sustainability in its efforts towards a social mission (Lead-beater, 1997; Dees & Anderson, 2003; Boschee & McClurg, 2003; Weerawardena & Mort, 2006).

To address the issue of funding new social ventures, social entrepreneurs consider the strategy of moving into new markets to subsidise their social activities in two ways.

Either they exploit profitable opportunities in the core activities of their not-for-profit venture, or they do it via for-profit subsidiary ventures and cross-sector partnerships with commercial corporations (Boschee & McClurg, 2003; Boschee, 2006). Irwin (2007) argued that social enterprise typically falls somewhere in the middle of the two extremes of charitable organisations (where all income comes from charitable donations) and typical for-profit business (which aims to maximise profit over the long run and where the members distribute surpluses among themselves). However, the question is: Why does a charitable organisation not fit into the model of SE as a social enterprise? The main goal of SE was to solve a social problem or to fulfil societal needs and creates social change/social value. If an organisation is innovatively exploiting opportunities to pursue its social mission and exhibiting entrepreneurship behaviour, it would certainly be in the realm of SE, irrespective of its source of funding. The aim of a social enterprise was to create profits, like any other business (Irwin, 2007). However, unlike for-profit business, social enterprises do not seek to maximise profits and they do not distribute any of their surpluses to shareholders. Instead, they reinvest their surplus in the business, to enhance the service or invest it in the wider community (ibid.).

Social entrepreneurs make significant and diverse contributions to their communities and societies, adopting business models to offer creative solutions to complex and persistent social problems (Zahra et al., 2009). They observed that social entrepreneurship “encompasses activities and processes undertaken to discover, define, and exploit opportunities in order to enhance social wealth by creating new ventures or managing existing organizations in an innovative manner. According to the researchers, there are



three types of social entrepreneurs: Social Bricoleur, Social Constructionist, and Social Engineer. They observed that Social Bricoleurs usually focus on discovering and addressing small-scale local social needs. Social Constructionists typically exploit opportunities and market failures by filling gaps to underserved clients in order to introduce reforms and innovations to the broader social system. Finally, Social Engineers recognize systemic problems within existing social structures and address them by introducing revolutionary change. These entrepreneurs vary in how they define opportunities, view their missions, acquire resources, and address social ills.

However, the central driver for social entrepreneurship is the social problem being addressed in an innovative and entrepreneurial way. Social enterprises tackle a wide range of social and environmental issues and operate in all parts of the economy with a view to social value and wealth creation (Chell, 2007). The decision to form a particular form of social enterprise should depend on which format would most effectively mobilize the resources needed to address a particular social or environmental problem (Austin et al., 2006). Social enterprise has been defined by the UK Government as ‘a business with primarily social objectives whose surpluses are principally reinvested for that purpose in the business or in the community, rather than being driven by the need to maximize profit for shareholders’ (McHugh, Sinclair, Roy, Huckfield, & Donaldson, 2013). This definition adds another dimension to the discussion by highlighting the underlying financial motivation of sustainability of the social enterprise. Given these aspects of social entrepreneurship as entrepreneurial activity and social enterprises as organizations in which this activity manifests itself, a broader conceptualization of social

entrepreneurship, which underscores innovative, social value creating activity that can occur within or across the not-for-profit, business or government sectors (Austin et al., 2006; Zahra et al. 2009)

Globally, impacts of social entrepreneurship have been acknowledged by various researchers. Throughout the world, socially conscious individuals have introduced and applied innovative business models to address social problems previously overlooked by business, governmental and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) (Zahra et al., 2009). These entrepreneurs have played a vital role in ameliorating adverse social conditions, especially in underdeveloped and emerging economies where resource scarcity and corruption among governments and even NGOs severely limit the attention given to serious social needs (Prahalad, 2005; Zahra et al., 2009). Social entrepreneurs have also become highly visible agents of change in developed economies, where they have applied innovative and cost-effective methods to address nagging social problems (i.e., poverty, gender inequality, etc.) that have defied traditional solutions (Cox & Healey, 1998). The movement by several countries to “marketize” the social service sector Salamon (1999) has also fuelled the desire to use the efficiency of competitive markets to improve social performance (Goerke, 2003; Zahra et al., 2000). Several governments, including that of the US, have also dramatically cut federal spending on social services such as education and community development (Lasprogata and Cotton, 2003), creating a need for entrepreneurial activities to raise funds and address social needs.

Specifically, in Italy, there are thousands of social enterprises that provide a range of social services including the work of integration of disadvantaged people. In other countries, such as Sweden and Finland, the number of social enterprises is considerable; however, they are mainly active in specific fields, such as employment services and kindergartens. In contrast, Greece and Denmark represent countries where a very small number of social enterprises exist. Germany and the Netherlands exemplify the countries in which the existing social enterprises are not clearly differentiated from public or traditional third-sector organizations. However, social enterprises in these countries present innovative characteristics either in the services or products provided or in the methods of production. In the UK, social enterprises have undergone high growth rates with high levels of success in the pursuit of their aims. Similarly, Munoz (2009) enumerates trends and strategic implications of social entrepreneurship in China, Rametse and Shah (2012) reports on the outcomes of Gram Vikas' mission as achieved through the program called Movement and Action Network for the Transformation of Rural Areas (MANTRA) in which the entrepreneur set out to promote processes which are sustainable, socially inclusive and gender equitable, to enable critical masses of poor and marginalized rural people or communities to achieve a dignified quality of life in Orissa, Eastern India.

In Africa, Nega and Sneider (2014) illustrated the potential impact of social entrepreneurship on economic development with a specific focus on the contribution of microfinance. According to the researchers, social entrepreneurship could play an important role in development by facilitating the creation of organic, productive,

community-centred organizations that build on local culture and institutions. They observed that slow growth, worsening inequality, and dissatisfaction with public services in South Africa forced the ANC government to modify their neoliberal approach to development by embracing microfinance and market-based, anti-poverty strategies in the Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative for South Africa (AsgiSA). AsgiSA stressed the notion of addressing poverty and unemployment via microfinance and social entrepreneurship rather than state-led development, drawing on the lessons from the Grameen Bank (Desai, Maharaj & Bond, 2011).

It was observed that social entrepreneurship encourages community building between diverse groups of people which, in turn, can facilitate development. It cultivates the creative problem-solving of community groups when it places communal needs and ideas first, and prioritizes the development of community skills. SHAWCO projects in Cape Town regularly included university faculty and students, local businesses, and community members, which is typical of many social entrepreneurship endeavours. In facilitating cooperation between the state, community, educational institutions, and the private sector, social entrepreneurship cultivates relationships similar to the “triple helix” partnerships that established internationally competitive new industries in developed countries like Sweden (Schneider & Obersteiner, 2007).

Similar models have also been applied in Ethiopia though it was being used as a political vehicle by a corrupt government. The government was reported to be using microfinance as an instrument to reward political supporters and to punish opponents. Having largely relegated the supply of fertilizers and improved seeds to party-owned marketing

companies, party-owned MFIs are then used to provide credit to farmers to buy these critical inputs for the majority of the poor in rural Ethiopia. Party cadres and local government officials, who also sit on local MFI committees, then pick and choose the recipients of the microcredits and thus the agricultural inputs strictly on political criteria. A detailed study by Human Rights Watch on the abuse of foreign aid, including microfinance for political purposes in Ethiopia, reported numerous cases of such abuse.

In Kenya, documentary evidence show attempts by researchers to document practices of socio-entrepreneurs and their impacts on host communities. For instance, Black and O'Brien (2004) as well as Ewart (2005) discussed the CARE Kenya Rural Entrepreneurship and Agribusiness Promotion (REAP) project whose predominant objective was to increase income of smallholders through commercial horticultural production and marketing opportunities on a sustainable basis. The overall outcome of each of the cases point to the immense benefit that accrue from a sustainable socioeconomic interaction between entrepreneurs and the local community. However, and although there are a few studies on social entrepreneurship in the hospitality and tourism sector, most of the studies are focused on the hospitality industry in developed country contexts (Austin et al, 2006; Desa, 2007; Bohdanowicz & Zientra, 2008; Ergul & Johnson, 2011). Very little is known about the hospitality industry in the less developed countries, specifically Kenya. This calls for more empirical research in developing country contexts to further our understanding of social entrepreneurship and what the hospitality entities are doing in pursuance of social entrepreneurship.

### **2.3.1 Socioeconomic Practices and Empowerment of Communities**

The main aim of social entrepreneurship according to existing literature is to empower the poor and marginalized within the society. In the failure of the state and non-state actors to solve social problems bedeviling the society, social entrepreneurs seek to use a microeconomic solution for a macroeconomic problem in the process attaining structural transformation of an economy (Nega & Schneider, 2014). In the end their main aim is to attain economic sustainability. Economic sustainability refers to a business's ability to make profit in order to survive and benefit the economic systems at the local and national level' (Roberts & Tribe, 2008). Whereas the main aim of any enterprise is to make profit for the investor, socially conscious enterprises are sensitive to the environments within which they are operating in and therefore seek to empower those within their reach economically. Seen to be significant for enterprises operating among the poor and marginalized communities, this is aimed at fostering equity and good neighborliness between the enterprise and the community around it.

Evidence indicate that sustainable businesses consider their economic impact on the community, such as job creation, local wages, and their contribution to local economic growth as equally of paramount importance as their profitability. Researchers acknowledge the existence of a relationship between profit-seeking and social purpose at the root of the development of the wider concept of social economy, in which the phenomenon of social entrepreneurship falls (Fondazione, 2007). They talk of the need of social cohesion, where stable social ties are built through economic, social, cultural, political and civil institutions. Social cohesion in very often the object of the activities of

social enterprises. In this sense their goal is to eradicate barriers to social cohesion such as a lack of material and intangible means, those cognitive or physical elements that hamper people from having social ties, and the lack of access to employment, welfare benefits, and social and healthcare services.

The concept of social exclusion is strongly linked to the quality of interpersonal relationships, and is indeed more dynamic and operative than economic poverty. In a sense, in many countries, there an emergence of a new kind of businesses whose services are specifically tailored to addressing the emerging needs of the society (Borzaga & Bodini, 2014). Their main focus is on catering to locally existing basic needs that are not addressed by traditional organizations. Social enterprises are indeed characterized by the innovative approach with which they address social issues and find solutions to problematic situations. Depending on the need addressed, the process can involve the provision of goods or services and/or the creation of missing institutions, or the reshaping of inadequate ones. In this sense, their main objective is to change or modify the social and/or economic arrangements that have created the situation of failure to satisfy basic needs. One way of achieving this is through economic empowerment through socio-economic activities. By offering employment opportunities, educating or training youths to equip them with skills, such entities seek to better the lives of the vulnerable rather than give them handouts (Bornstein, 2004). In situations where the enterprises are consumers of goods and services in the course of their entrepreneurial activities, the vulnerable are given the priority to provide supplies. Such acts and an engagement across the supply chain to ensure similar values and practices are issues of

economic sustainability. In the process, the businesses maintain corporate profitability and internal financial stability (Landrum & Edwards, 2009).

Consequently, Parris and McInnis-Bowers (2014) reported an increasing interest in social entrepreneurs' roles in creating social value, fostering economic development, and advancing environmental sustainability. The researchers maintained that in institutional economics, there is extensive support for entrepreneurship as having a positive impact on economic development and personal wellbeing. Literature also notes that Governments in Europe and the United States now embrace social entrepreneurship as a driver of innovation and of solutions to complex societal problems (Klewitz, Zeyen, & Hansen, 2012). In light of the recent global economic and financial crisis, the researchers observed that some have welcomed social entrepreneurship as a much-needed alternative or complement to an economic system mainly driven by profit maximization and self-interest. Across the world, organizations such as Ashoka-Innovators for the public or the Schwab Foundation for Social Entrepreneurs promote social entrepreneurs as agents of change who have the potential to transform the societies in which they operate.

In particular, Palmås (2003) acknowledged the involvement of social enterprises in enhancing employment abilities for non-employed or socially undermined groups. Haugh (2006) reported on case studies undertaken in two administrative regions in north-east Scotland observed that from six community enterprises involved in the study, income had been generated from external sources. At different times in the study, each enterprise had recruited at least one employee and by the end of the study, three had long



term employment contracts with at least one employee. Thus, each venture had generated measurable, direct economic outcomes. In addition, each community enterprise had generated indirect economic outcomes. Income had been deployed to pay employees, purchase assets, attract business investment and host events that would bring visitors to the area. All employees were recruited locally, thereby increasing the likelihood that wages would be kept within the community and spent in local businesses. Whenever possible, assets were purchased locally.

For individual from the local community, the direct economic impact was income from employment. Indirect, long term impacts were also identified – one volunteer, for example, as a result of the knowledge and skills acquired from involvement with the community enterprise, had subsequently become self-employed. Her new business, selling locally grown produce, in turn led to further economic gains for local producers. Informants also referred to noneconomic, intangible benefits that they had gained from their involvement in community enterprise. These were articulated in references to feelings of increased independence, empowerment, motivation, enthusiasm and confidence in the future; and included opportunities for personal development, increased satisfaction, expanded personal networks and individual confidence building for both employees and volunteers. Collectively, they were coded as social outcomes.

Apart from the income of the community enterprise, the impacts at organizational level were said by informants to be primarily social: improving group skills, increased opportunities for interpersonal communication and teamwork, as well as raising the skills base of the enterprise (such as IT skills at Web Enterprise) and the achievement of

a national quality award for the organization (Investors in People) by Transport Enterprise. At the level of the community, informants referred to improvements in the economic health and vibrancy of their village. Marina Enterprise, for example, was instrumental in regenerating the villages in which it is located by acting as a conduit for boat owners and visitors to facilities in the village. This was also reported by an employee to be one of the driving forces behind the Sport Enterprise. The social impacts referred to by informants included increased community empowerment, independence and control, as well as greater cooperation within the community as a result of more social interaction between local people. Finally, in the broadest conception of community, informants from Tourism, Care and Marina reported that their organization had the potential to contribute to the wealth and vitality of the wider region.

In the hospitality and tourism sector, Social entrepreneurs (SEs) are regarded as drivers for linking destination communities with enterprises, aiming to create economic benefits and livelihoods. Researchers contend that sustainably managed tourism, including the hospitality industry, has the potential to provide employment opportunities, infrastructure, and financial gains to marginalised rural communities in developing countries (Butler & Hinch, 2007; Zeppel, 2006; Torres & Momsen, 2004). Increasing attention is also being observed as regards social entrepreneurs (SEs) and their importance in leveraging such positive effects for communities in developing countries with regard to the tourism sector (Sloan, Legrand, & Simons-Kaufmann 2014; Kokkranikal & Morrison, 2011). For accommodation businesses local purchasing practices are means to maximize the economic benefits of tourism for the local economy

and reduce the need for transport and energy consumption (Swarbrooke, 1999). Strong linkages can spread the economic benefit of tourism throughout the economy and could lead to improved development. One of the practices for social enterprise is to train and inspire the disadvantaged young people to be involved in culinary activities and by this benefit the community with giving the purpose to those people that might not have the opportunity of being employed.

In South Africa, a study set to assess the impact of socio-entrepreneurial practices of community-based tourism on the livelihoods of the local communities illustrated that the impact was greatest on the livelihood assets of participating women (Laeis, & Lemke, 2016). Data obtained indicated that income earned from entertainment and accommodation facilities as tourism business, on cascading down through the value chain to the women participating in the project bestowed the participating women with various livelihood assets. These were in the form of natural assets including access to seed material and individual trial garden plots on the farm where the women cultivated food for their own consumption or sale, leading to improved food security or additional income. The women also received a daily stipend of 44 ZAR (about US\$ 5.44; according to exchange rates on 1 March, 2012, at: [www.xe.com](http://www.xe.com)), which, in most cases, was their only income and contribution to their financial asset.

Human assets, in the form of education, were provided by the agricultural and life-skills training. However, the emerging sub-category of ‘impaired knowledge transfer’ also appeared important as there was, indeed, little evidence of knowledge transfer between lessons learned from the project and women’s own agricultural activities, both at the

farm and at their township premises. The participating women further enhanced their social assets by networking with other women and the facilitators of project and the Foundation. Conducive social exchange amongst the women and a black farm supervisor was observable and proved the utility of this capita. They also noted that income derived from tourism did not directly affect the entire local community but indirectly, through the women who participated in the project. Nevertheless, those households connected to the women benefitted from the monthly stipend provided by the project, which was often the only income of the household, as well as from other assets gained through the project.

Data obtained also illustrate that entrepreneurial practices of the travel and tourism sector contribute to the socio-economic empowerment of the host communities. Ramukumba et al., (2012) in an analysis of the socio-economic impacts of tourism for emerging tourism entrepreneurs in George municipality in the Western Cape Province South Africa established that promotion of tourism is a key strategy that could lead to economic growth, community development and poverty alleviation. According to the researchers, tourism had emerged as a significant development option in the post-apartheid South Africa. It was being perceived as an adopted strategy to creating more equitable economic growth, the sector expected to be the leading contributor to economic development in the country. Specifically, the study established that the tourism industry was contributing positively from a socio-economic perspective to the emerging tourism entrepreneurs, even though the majority of them are earning incomes very close and lower than what is considered a living wage from their enterprises. The study also

illustrated that tourism was helping to respond to the alleviation of poverty and the income earned was helping to respond to the basic needs of the entrepreneurs. Many of these entrepreneurs who were from poor backgrounds were employed within these enterprises which in themselves provided enabled the enterprises provide a new type of tourist experience as many of them are focusing on cultural tourism products.

Generally, while implementation of the practices has been linked with poverty alleviation and economic development in most instances, critics mainly practising economists insist that implementation of the practices from social entrepreneurial standpoint has limited potential for structural transformation and poverty alleviation (Nega & Schneider, 2014). They insist that implementation of such practices undermine support for state-led development and democratic reforms that are the preconditions necessary for structural transformation and long-term, large-scale development. They conceive implementation of socio-economic practices as being useful microeconomic strategy that can contribute to development in small ways, but that cannot possibly replace a democratic developmental state. According to the researchers, five factors are the main contributors of this shortfall. These according to the researchers include the fact that such programs are created almost universally as microenterprises that are difficult to scale up, they are usually facilitated through diverted financial resources and talented individuals from other development initiatives and their emphasis on financial sustainability creates pressures and requires compromises that undermine social entrepreneurship.

Others include the fact that social entrepreneurs are, by their very nature, focused on a specific problem or a market niche. This is not the type of vision that will drive an effective economic development program. Lastly, such programs can be and have been used by opportunistic regimes to mobilize donor money, and then use these resources to control the poor for narrow political ends. Their observation concurs with that of Lapeyre (2010) who had earlier established counter evidence to the notion that community-based tourism enterprises lead to poverty alleviation and empowerment which partly corroborates this observation. This study sought to assess the extent to which socio-economic practices of entrepreneurs impacts the livelihoods of communities along the coastal tourism circuit in Kenya.

### **2.3.2 Socio-Cultural Practices and Empowerment of Communities**

It has also been shown that socio-entrepreneurial practices apart from empowering locals socio-economically seek to recognize and embed the socio-cultural practices and norms of the local communities. In doing this, they seek to encourage sustainable business environment in which entrepreneurs and host communities mutually coexist. In tourism industry, socio-cultural sustainability is concerned with the social interaction, relations, behavioral patterns and values between people (Roberts & Tribe, 2008; Mason, 2012). It seeks to ascertain that since the main import of the industry entail harnessing economic value of the interaction between tourists and host communities; the interaction does not disadvantage the local communities' culture, practices as well as norms. A respectful interaction between hosts and guests, involvement of the local people and recognition of the contribution of traditions and culture to the tourist experience are key issues for sustainable businesses (Roberts & Tribe, 2008). According to Nadda, Dadwal,

Mulindwa. & Vieira, (2015) tourism is now seen as a viable tool for economic development and social change in most developing countries. This view was confirmed by Moufakkir (2012) who argued that tourism is an agent of change, a global phenomenon which plays a significant role in the socio-cultural evolution. It is sometimes seen as asymmetrical in terms of power relations where the affluent countries of the west are the generators of tourism and the less affluent countries are at the receiving end (Britton, 1982). Nonetheless, many people including those in rural areas see tourism as an economic and socio-cultural process for all those who participate in its activities. A key aspect to be considered here is how the processes of tourism's global expansions have played themselves within the developing world at the national, regional and local levels (Scott, Williams, Baker, Brace-Govan, Downey, Hakstian, & Webb, 2011).

In developing countries, tourism and accommodation industry might have impacts on the socio-cultural conduct of people. Generally, governments in such countries have employed a top down type of tourism planning model where all decisions of developing and promoting tourism are carried out by the central government leaving the local community destinations with little or no input in the activities that affect their livelihoods. This has led to some commentators Richards and Hall (2003) arguing that the forces of modernisation have turned the local communities into products sold to tourists and consumed as commodities. Local communities in such countries are expected to conform to the tourists' expectations of backward neighbourhood, which has not been tainted by modernisation and expected to impinge on its rustic rural tranquillity.

The question of authenticity in tourist experiences arises when cultural traditions get modified and altered for tourist consumption. At the same time, commoditization can lead to pseudo-events that are planned to be convenient for tourists which might lead to a falsification of the traditional meaning of the event (Mason, 2012). Consequently, cultural promotion through tourist education and initiatives to promote and enhance appreciation for cultural and historic heritage are indicators and actions outlined by Roberts and Tribe (2008).

Also significantly important and related to socio-cultural impacts of socio-entrepreneurial practices on tourism is the aspect of environmental conservation. Most touristic consumables are related to nature and the environment. National parks, wildlife, natural or indigenous forests or even sandy coastlines are all associated with the environment. Respectful consumption of these resources would strengthen not only the socio-cultural diversity of different destinations but also ensure sustainability of touristic activities and destinations. Consequently, environmental conservation is an important aspect of sustainable tourism activities. Studies indicate efforts of communities adjacent to touristic facilities with conservation attempts as a move to ensure sustainability of gains associated with socio-enterprises in tourism. For instance, Hughes, Morgan, Ireland & Hughes, (2014) reports on the commendable efforts of Forest of Hope Association (FHA), a small Rwandan NGO concerned with the conservation of the Gishwati Forest Reserve in Western Rwanda. Established in January 2012, FHA emerged from – and builds on – the Gishwati Area Conservation Programme (GACP), which began in 2008. FHA's main activities are conservation education, improving local



livelihoods and facilitating research on the biodiversity of the Gishwati Forest Reserve. During four years of operations, impressive conservation impacts have been achieved: illegal use of the forest has declined sharply; the size of the reserve increased from 886 hectares to 1,484 hectares; and the chimpanzee population grew from 13 to 20. Social impacts felt include the organisation generating 29 jobs, of which 25 were filled by local people; 13 school eco-clubs were established; and the capacity of 10 local cooperatives were increased. Similar outcomes are attributed to Kibale Association for Rural and Environmental Development, Uganda among others.

Related to the authenticity in cultural events is the authenticity in food and drink provided. The modern catering side of the accommodation industry has been criticized for offering ‘international’ menus with many imported ingredients or imitations of traditional local dishes. Sustainable business practices would be encouraging tourists to visit local food producers, providing local products and supporting organic and environmentally friendly agriculture and food processing industries (Swarbrooke, 1999). Involvement of the local population and a business’s involvement in the local community are also part of socio-cultural sustainable business practices. Supporting the community through sponsorship of activities or groups, membership in NGO and resident access to accommodation premises are possible targets (Roberts & Tribe, 2008). Similarly, involvement of locals in ownership of the enterprises should be the ultimate goal of their empowerment.

Historically, the presence of local community based enterprises in international tourism has been limited. Peredo and Wurzelmann (2015) in confirming this assertion, however

noted that the trend is changing due to the adoption of a business model that seeks to integrate locals into the running of the enterprises. Consequently, they observed that in recent years, indigenous enterprises are increasingly seen as an important community development tool, in recognition of their economic contribution in bolstering stagnating rural economies and diversifying economic sectors, and their ability to unify community members. This observation is supported by Briedenhann and Wickens (2004) as well as (Fennell & Dowling, 2003). The model referred to as ecotourism is seen as an effort by social entrepreneurs to chart a path for a different kind of involvement by transforming the historic expectations of Indigenous communities on foreign spectacle into a new reality as empowered entrepreneurs and owners. Through this model, they sought to address social, economic, and environmental challenges facing local communities which were not adequately addressed previously. The social entrepreneurs therefore undertook the steps with locals as individuals, organizations, and networks to provide benefits individually and corporately. Taken from this context, ecotourism is generally seen as an activity that generates economic and social benefits for local communities, as well as an alternative to other less sustainable practices of land use in natural ecosystems (Peredo & Wurzelmann, 2015).

Empirical literature links successful community-based ecotourism operations with the degree to which local governance factors including ownership, tenure, participation, decision-making processes, and revenue sharing arrangements are integrated to ensure that communities have control over the activities taking place and access to the benefits from touristic ventures (Butler & Hinch, 2007; Peredo Vide, 2010; Zeppel, 2007a). This

contrasts non-community-based ecotourism ventures, which are often controlled by outside operators with economic benefits accruing to private or government ventures. Other arguments claim that community-based tourism may not provide a viable level of income and employment, due to the alleged paucity of revenues, the inequity of benefit distribution, and the perceived social costs to communities (Din, 1993; Hitchcock, King, & Parnwell, 1993).

However, benefits from community-based tourism, including for local communities, may also go beyond financial outcomes. Scheyvens (1999) argued that community tourism may promote a range of benefits associated with empowerment, including economic, psychological, social, and political empowerment, and community unity, as local tourism ventures are often designed to involve nature conservation, political discussions, business enterprise, and income for community development (Fennell, 2003; Mitchell & Eagles, 2001). When locals have control over ecotourism development in their own communities, including direct participation in the planning and implementation phases, the negative effects and impacts are often minimised (York, 2000). Other scholars suggest that for many locally people's well-managed ecotourism is a way of achieving cultural, environmental, and economic sustainability for the community (Butler & Hinch, 2007; Epler, 2008; Mitchell & Ashley, 2010; Goodwin, Önköl, & Lawrence, 2011). However, too often the synergies between ecotourism, local development, and nature conservation are not achieved because local communities were not fully involved in the design of projects.

Yet, even when they have been involved, it has commonly been as cultural examples or exotic attractions rather than planners or managers (Honey, 1999; Stronza, 2005). It is also recognised that locals may increasingly be the owners, managers, entrepreneurs, and operators of ventures, generally supported by non-governmental organizations (NGOs) involved in conservation or community development (Zeppel, 2007b). In some places, local leaders are social entrepreneurs promoting initiatives that provide both collective and individual benefits (Peredo, 2011). Spear and Bidet (2003) defined five operational features for social enterprises: an activity launched by a group of citizens, decision-making power not based on capital ownership, a participatory nature involving those affected by the venture; an explicit aim to benefit the community, and limited profit distribution. In addition, the Institute for Social Entrepreneurs (2005) suggested that social entrepreneurship simultaneously pursues both a financial and a social return on investment. Social entrepreneurship is also used for non-profit enterprises founded to support or create economic opportunities for poor and disadvantaged populations while maintaining a positive financial bottom line (Alter, 2000).

If social entrepreneurship works best when it creates new kinds of social value, then it is most likely to occur in areas that have been deserted by the traditional economy (Mulgan, 2006). The main operational areas in which social entrepreneurs can create change are in poverty alleviation through empowerment, education, and training, including widening participation by the community, and the democratization of knowledge transfer, community regeneration, sustainable development, and environmental conservation, as well as advocacy and welfare projects (Bornstein, 2004).

Epler (2008) argued that ecotourism is a field ripe for collaboration with social entrepreneurs as they can play an economically sustainable role in both combating poverty and conserving the environment. For almost two decades, ecotourism had sought to address environmental and social ills and, in recent years, community-based tourism and ecotourism specialists have sought to help local communities develop their own enterprises in buffer zones and protected areas, but have only sometimes generated economically sustainable results.

Also significant in relation to socio-cultural practices of socio-entrepreneurs in tourism is the management of their interaction with local communities in respect to children. Investors in the tourism sectors have been variously accused of participating in or abetting un-culturally sound practices especially among natives (Omondi 2003; Jones, 2006). Two issues stand out in this regard: child labour and child sex tourism which not only negatively impacts the culture of the host communities but also the lives of children and youth. The International Labour Organization (ILO) defines child labour as work that deprives children of their childhood, their potential and their dignity, and that is harmful to their physical and mental development. A key aspect of child labour is that it is likely to interfere with children's right to education. Recent figures from the ILO show that 1 in 6 children work. 218 million children aged 5-17 are involved in child labour worldwide mainly in the Asia/Pacific region and Sub Saharan Africa (Häkli, & Kallio, 2014). However, child labour also occurs in industrialised countries. The ILO (2002) warns that in Central and Eastern Europe child labour has reappeared since countries there have made the transition to a market economy. Studies have also demonstrated

prevalence of child labour in the tourism industry (Pluss & Tourismus, 1999). According to the researcher, children are omnipresent in the tourism industry but not always in places where they can be easily noticed. Highly visible are those children who are actively scrambling for a share in the trade (for example: children selling fruit on the beach or craft at markets).

However, the children behind the scenes are virtually invisible (for example: children cleaning rooms in hotels). In the 2002 ILO report '*A Future without Child Labour*' it was noted that many children work in the informal economy which surrounds and supports the formal tourist industry. Usually when we think of child labour, we think of children slaving away in sweatshops, factories or mines or of children working on the streets in the informal sector. These are the 'visible' forms of work children do but the focus of the media and politics on these types of work has obscured the fact that there are also 'invisible' forms of work that children do hidden away from the public eye, at home, on farms or behind closed doors that also support the tourism industry (Bliss, 2006). Many of these children are young girls (IPEC, 2009). Maggie Black thinks the total number of children working in tourism is much higher than the rough estimate of 13 to 19 million children because the children doing 'invisible' work in the informal sector are excluded. She also gives various examples of how children can be doing work in the informal sector which in turn supports the formal sector in tourism like in plantations or in brick making (Bliss, 2006).

Commercial sexual exploitation is another form of child labour that has evolved in most touristic destination worldwide. It evolved as an appendage of sex tourism. Otherwise

known as tourism prostitution, sex tourism may be defined as tourism for which the main motivation or at least part of the aim of the trip is to consummate or engage in commercial sexual relations (Ryan and Hall 2001). Studies indicate that in recent years, the number of men (and women) travelling to foreign destinations usually in the Third World seeking sex tourism has increased tremendously (Herold, Garcia, & DeMoya, 2001); Ryan & Hall 2001). In the past, notorious destinations for sex tourism had been mainly the Southeast Asian countries such as Bangkok ('the red light capital of the world'), Thailand (sometimes called 'Thighland'), the Philippines, Indonesia, South Korea and Sri Lanka (Enloe 2002, Hall, Swain, & Kinnaird, 2003). Today, sex tourism has spread to other regions of the world including Goa (a coastal state of India), Cuba, the Dominican Republic, Brazil, Costa Rica, Eastern Europe and a number of African countries such as Kenya, Tunisia, South Africa and The Gambia (Ryan & Hall, 2001; Enloe 2002; Chissim 1996).

Sex tourism steadily increased as the tourism industry expands. However, little information is available on its nature, magnitude and the factors promoting it in Kenya and in Africa in general. Globally, international tourist arrivals have been increasing steadily from 69 million people in 1960 to 160 million in 1970, 458 million in 1990, and 625 million in 1998 (WTO, 1999) and this increase has included the increase in sex tourism through mass tourism, as many tourists visit new destinations (Cater, 1993; Harrison, 2003). In Kenya, international tourism has grown tremendously and is currently one of Kenya's leading and most well established industries. Most tourists travelling to Kenya are mass tourists coming to seek the five "S"s. Hence, the expansion

of mass tourism in Kenya is also directly associated with the increase in sex tourism in the country. This is evidenced by the inclusion of Kenya among the world's leading sex tourism destinations (Migot-Adholla, Mkangi, & Mbindyo, 1982.; Sindiga 1999; Chissim, 1996).

Although not officially stated, a good percentage of foreign tourists who visit Kenya often indulge in sex tourism or at least as part of the activities during their trip. The majority of the tourists visiting Kenya are mainly from Germany, the UK, Switzerland, Italy and France (Chissim 1996; Sindiga 1999). Others are from North America, Japan, Australia, New Zealand and European countries such as Spain, Sweden and also from the Scandinavian countries. Many of these countries have been generating sex tourists to some of the world's renowned sex tourism destinations such as Thailand (Ryan & Hall, 2001). Hence, we can conclude that they are likely to engage in the same activity while in Kenya.

Along with this, commercial sexual exploitation of children or child prostitution evolved along the tourist destinations involving young boys and girls (Tepelus, 2008; Omondi, 2003; Jones, 2006). Commercial sexual exploitation of children is defined as sexual abuse by an adult with remuneration in cash or in-kind to the child or a third person or persons. A child is any person under the age of 18, as defined by the United Nations *Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC)*. Child sex tourism (CST) and trafficking in children for sexual purposes are two forms of commercial sexual exploitation of children. According to Tepelus, (2008) for ECPAT International, child sex tourism is the sexual exploitation of children by a person or persons who travel from one place to



another, usually from a richer country to one that is less developed, and there engage in sexual acts with children. Child sex tourists can be domestic travellers or international tourists. CST often involves the use of accommodation, transportation and other tourism-related services that facilitate contact with children and enable the exploiter to be anonymous in the surrounding population and environment.

Trafficking in children for sexual purposes is defined as all acts involved in the recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of children within or across borders for the purpose of sexual exploitation. Trafficking is distinguished from smuggling and illegal migration by the motive to exploit. Commercial sexual exploitation of children constitutes a form of violence against children and is a criminal practice that violates children's rights. The issue of consent is irrelevant because the victim is a child and he/she cannot consent to abuse. Offenders will often use coercion, deception and violence to control and manipulate the child for exploitation. CST is reported to have evolved with the development and expansion of tourism infrastructure in different countries (Omondi, 2003).

A report on the Global study on sexual exploitation of children in travel and tourism show that even a two decades of efforts have failed to put a dent in CST and CSEC, that more children than ever before are being affected and that no country is immune (Hawke & Raphael, 2016). The Global Study highlights the need to re-frame this issue –looking beyond what was once referred to as ‘child sex tourism’. This means broadening the scope of policies, programmes and research to include tourism and travel (whether international or domestic), and identifying and addressing what it is, exactly, about travel

and tourism, that leaves children so vulnerable to exploitation. The research suggests that children from minority groups, boys and young children are far more vulnerable than previously understood, along with girls and children living in poverty.

While stressing that child victims have no single story and come from a wide range of backgrounds and circumstances, the global study finds that they all have one thing in common: their vulnerability. Sadly, child victims cannot assume that society will offer them the support they need: services for their rescue, rehabilitation and recovery are inadequate the world over (ECPAT International, 2007). These often hidden child victims need urgent help and real alternatives to build their future. According to the study, CST and CSEC have become far more complex, involving not only tourists but business travellers, migrant/transient workers and ‘volun-tourists’ intent on exploiting children, as well as large numbers of domestic travellers.

The Global study confirms that the offenders can come from any background and they do not all fit the stereotypical profile: a white, Western, wealthy, middle-aged male paedophile. Some may be paedophiles, but most are not. Offenders may be foreign or domestic, young or old. Some are women, and a few may be other children. Research for the Global Study indicates that the majority are ‘situational’ offenders – who may have never dreamed of sexually exploiting a child until given the opportunity to do so – rather than preferential offenders (Hawke & Raphael, 2016). The one thing both types of offenders have in common is ever-greater opportunities to exploit children, especially in environments where corruption is rife and impunity is the rule.

A range of findings have emerged from the nine regional reports carried out for the Global Study. Reports revealed some similarities, such as increasing diversification of travel and tourism infrastructure, increased use by offenders of mobile technologies and the preponderance of domestic or intra-regional travelling offenders (Tepelus, 2008; Hawke & Raphael, 2016). However, each region faces its own particular challenges in relation to CST and CSEC. Most tourists across East Asia are from within the region; domestic travellers far outnumber foreign tourists and CST and CSEC appears to be dominated by Asian men. Business travel is increasingly accompanied by the rise of a corporate culture involving participation in after-hours ‘meetings’ characterised by alcohol and sex. Inconsistent laws, definitions of children and interpretation of ‘consent’ in different countries of the region undermine the coordination and collaboration necessary to find and convict offenders. Many responses focus on trafficking and countries have low rates of prosecution for the sexual abuse and exploitation of children.

In Latin America, several countries and many households depend on revenue from tourism and travel, which increases the risk of SECTT for children and discourages reporting of the crime and the enforcement of relevant laws. Travel and tourism hotspots are often developed near poor and excluded communities, which can intensify disparities that expose children to SECTT: from income inequality to power imbalances (Hawke & Raphael, 2016). Middle East and North Africa was reported to face specific challenges that heighten the risk of SECTT: conflict, wealth disparity that fuel migration, the low status of women and girls, harmful traditions such as child or ‘temporary’ marriages and a lack of opportunities for youth. Some countries have been chastised by the Committee

on the Rights of the Child for lacking information and awareness about SECTT and services to assist child victims. While countries have laws against child sexual exploitation, some still criminalise victims and the region lacks laws that are harmonised, allowing offenders to escape from one jurisdiction to another.

In Africa, leading tourism industry experts from more than 20 African countries, North America, Europe, and Asia convened in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia in May 2007 to strategize the “branding of Africa as a Continental Tourism Destination” (ECPAT International, 2007). This was attributed to the fact that tourism had been viewed by many countries as a way to support economic development and earn foreign revenue. Such reports had linked an increase in tourism growth to increase in earnings in different destinations. However, tourism development, like any industry, must be appropriately managed to ensure sustainability, profit and positive benefits for society. A lack of protective mechanisms for children in tourism development could result in the increased exposure of children to child sex tourists and traffickers; negative impacts on the destination’s reputation; and vulnerable parts of society not benefiting from profits earned through tourism. By heavily promoting tourism, the potential increase of risks for children to child sex tourism and child trafficking was enhanced. It was observed that child sex tourists and those with a sexual interest in children were among the tourist arrivals. They, like most tourists, were also looking for an “ideal destination”, but where children were vulnerable and weak child protection mechanisms are prevalent.

Some African countries are considered emerging child sex tourism destinations; however, it is difficult to obtain statistics or actual figures on the scale of such violations

due to the lack of studies or research being conducted in tourist destinations in Africa. According to ECPAT International's African network members, the following countries are most affected by child sex tourism: Benin, Cameroon, Côte d'Ivoire, Ghana, Kenya, Madagascar, Mauritius, Morocco, Nigeria, Senegal, South Africa, The Gambia and Tanzania (Zanzibar). Of these, Kenya, South Africa, The Gambia, Morocco and Ghana are considered the more popular CST destinations. Nigeria was identified more as a source of child sex tourists in other African countries rather than a destination for CST. In The Gambia, research conducted by Child Protection Alliance (CPA) – the ECPAT group in the country – and Terre des Hommes, with boys involved in prostitution, confirmed that the perpetrators are usually foreigners (male and female), some of whom travel to The Gambia on package tour holidays for the specific purpose of having sexual relationships with young Gambian men. The research also indicated that a number of 'bumsters' – young people who follow tourists and offer to be a guide or a friend – are engaged in commercial sex or act as pimps. Anecdotal evidence and observation at certain locations around the beach and tourism development areas has shown that some of these young people are below the age of 18.

According to the Global study by Mapapu (2016), in Sub-Saharan Africa, increase in tourism and hospitality activities as per the data obtained from UNWTO in the last 20 years has correspondingly seen rise in CST and CSEC, although empirical data to support this is lacking. According to the study, the increase in diverse modes of travel and tourism has been found to attract visitors to once remote locations, and foreign direct investment which is bringing in unaccompanied male and female workers. The

region is reported to be seeing a surge in mobile data use with mobile internet traffic expected to rise 20-fold by the end of the decade. Meanwhile, traditional norms continue to pose risks for children, particularly their low social status and child marriage. At the same time, while most countries have ratified relevant international conventions, commitments have not translated into meaningful action for children and only a small percentage of child victims receive the help they need. Specifically, evidence gathered through the research indicated that CST and CSEC are on the rise in Africa. According to the study, while tourism had historically been associated with North and West African countries (such as Morocco and Senegal), an influx of tourists seeking sex with children – including African travellers – was now being reported elsewhere in the region. Studies conducted in Kenya, Madagascar, Senegal, South Africa and The Gambia in 2013 found that CST and CSEC were identified as a problem by stakeholders, community members and child victims in all the five countries (Netherlands ECPAT, 2014). Members of the ECPAT International regional network pointed to Benin, Cameroon, Côte d’Ivoire, Ghana, Kenya, Madagascar, Mauritius, Morocco, Nigeria, Senegal, South Africa, The Gambia and Tanzania (Zanzibar) as major destinations for travelling child sex offenders.

Similarly, Keenan (2009) noted that as the tourism industry undergoes dramatic changes, with the emergence of new online, unregulated modes of accommodation and transportation, children’s vulnerability is also rising. In particular, research revealed a trend toward the use of new types of infrastructure for SECTT, beyond traditional beach-front attractions. Non-traditional venues include settings associated with “voluntourism” and other child-contact institutions; travel infrastructure linked to national and

foreign direct investment; military bases and camps, refugee and migrant detention centres, policing infrastructures and peacekeeping missions; the adult sex trade and entertainment industry; and online platforms, among others. Almost all countries in Sub-Saharan Africa have ratified the major international conventions protecting children against SECTT-related crimes. However, implementation has been weak, so these commitments have generally not translated into meaningful action or change for children. Research for this report indicates that the same is true with regard to national legislation: even when updated laws are in place, enforcement is insufficient, leaving children vulnerable to SECTT and other forms of exploitation. Moreover, corruption often compounds these difficulties, creating an environment where perpetrators act with impunity. The Code of Conduct for the Protection of Children from Sexual Exploitation in Travel and Tourism has been adopted by 24 private businesses, mainly hotel groups and travel agencies, in the region. Unfortunately, greater scrutiny at leading hotels has driven SECTT offenders to use guesthouses, private rentals and low-budget hotels.

In Kenya, the commercial sexual exploitation of children in coastal areas is reported to be a shocking violation of their rights, and a reflection of the profound risk potentially faced by all children in within the country (Jones, 2006). Some ten to fifteen thousand girls living in coastal areas are said to be involved in casual sex work – up to 30% of all 12 to 18 year olds living in these areas. A further two to three thousand girls and boys are involved in full-time year round commercial activity. Many full-time child sex workers have migrated to the coast from other parts of the country, and have often been inaugurated into sex work before they arrive. The sexual exploitation of children is not

limited to coastal areas or to tourists, but can be found in communities across Kenya. About one in ten children involved in sex work are initiated before they reach puberty. The level and acceptance of sexual exploitation of children in coastal areas puts all children in Kenya at risk. It reflects a fundamental breakdown and corruption of families and communities, and a failure of the authorities to provide protection to children and to prosecute those responsible for promoting and profiting from child sex work. Tourists that exploit children are at the centre of a ring of corruption that involves many from the local community.

Child sex workers are often compelled to deliver sexual services sometimes even from locals including beach boys, bar staff, waiters, and others in order to access tourists. During the low tourist season, the local market for child sex workers keeps the system going (Hawke & Raphael, 2016). The sexual exploitation of children therefore thrives because of the complicity of a broad section of the local community. While some children are driven into transactional sex because of poverty, the high level of acceptance of child sex work in coastal communities makes it relatively easy for children to drift into casual sex in exchange for no more than extra pocket money. Many younger girls reported that they begin in local bars to gain experience and money to allow them to buy clothes, accessories and hairstyles that will enable access to the tourist market.

The consequence of inaction against child sex tourism and child trafficking for sexual purposes is the damage to the destination's reputation (ECPAT International, 2008). Child sex tourism and child trafficking for sexual purposes in tourism creates a negative



dependency that becomes unsustainable. Destinations that plan to genuinely develop as a “continental tourism destination”, must focus on developing themselves into sustainable and positively attractive entities. With reports indicating that tourists more than ever, are aware of social issues and are utilising their “customer power”, efforts aimed at correcting such social vices such as CST and child trafficking needs to be sorted out. The industry in realising this fact and as a moral responsibility have created programmes within themselves and joined the Code of Conduct for the Protection of Children from Sexual Exploitation in Travel and Tourism, as an industry initiative to combat this vice. This study sought to assess the extent to which enterprises within the coastal tourism circuit promote this undertaking.

Generally, previous studies in acknowledging the possible impacts of socio-entrepreneurial practices on host communities along the socio-cultural front have attempted to highlight best practices and at times shortcomings especially among the less developed and emerging economies (Stankova, 2019). According to the researchers, most projects are development projects aimed at preserving –or at least, minimising negative impacts on the indigenous culture. This is supported by Kottak and Arcal (2002) who emphasises that for effective conservation (as for development), the task is to devise culturally appropriate strategies. Enterprises implementing these projects would not succeed if they try to impose their goals without considering the practices, customs, rules, laws, beliefs, and values of the people to be affected. Stankova, (2019) therefore undertook an analysis of previous ecotourism projects implemented by social entrepreneurs with the aim of establishing their socio-cultural impacts on host

communities. Their analysis was based on six social-cultural elements including practices, customs, rules, laws, beliefs, and values of the host communities. Five case studies highlighting impacts of tourism on the local communities in different places each focussing on slightly different perspectives, the first dealt with the influence of tourism in general, then the next three articles describing case studies of multiple projects and the last one highlighting one specific project of ecotourism.

The first case study was undertaken by Tsartas (2003) and describes the development and influence of tourism along the coastal zone of the Greek insular and some Greek islands during the 1970 to 2000 period. The study which focused on socio-economic and cultural aspects on analysis of the changes isolated a number of development policies on the local, regional and national level. One of his findings is that the role of the family changed during that period. Among the Greeks, the family plays an important role and is strictly structured along a 'paternal' model in which the father is the main person within the family. Involvement of other members of the family including women and youth through employment within the touristic socio-enterprises altered the model when these persons other than the 'man' of the family started earning (more) money from the tourist industry. They became less dependent on the father and more individualistic oriented. It was reported that since then, the other members of the family other than the man had increasingly been playing a more important role compared to what they did 30 years ago, the difference being mainly attributed to the influence of increased income on the social groups. Observers contend the economic influence transcends beyond the family to the community. They maintain that with the coming of the enterprises and the tourists,

the social positioning of residents within the touristic destinations had changed and was being measured based on the level of income rather than the previous scale of social indices including education and family tradition. This means that even within the communities, those earning from the enterprises were now favourably rated than they had been previously regardless of their standing based on the previous index.

Therefore, the study concluded that tourists and tourism investments can and do influence the customs and values of local communities in targeted destinations (Stankova, 2019). Additionally, the study established that the value system of the Greek people had also changed due to tourists. Initially, the local economy had been a much 'closed' agricultural community, with almost everything totally dependent on the cities. Produce from the farms would be sold to surrounding cities as the main source of the community economic sustenance. Establishment of the eco-tourism enterprises brought a new dimension. As the tourist began to flow, the industry slightly tilted towards an economy based on the tourist sector. The local economies opened up and 'urban type' social and economic relationships started to develop. This affected the regulations within the communities as well. With this, the belief system of the local community was also affected as the last element. During the initial development phase of the mass tourism, most of the residents had no idea about some groups of foreigners and reacted often positive. When the numbers of tourists grew, the local people became more sceptical and would rather see them going than coming.

The second case study undertaken by Stone and Wall (2004) entailed an analysis of the relationship between two parks, eco-tourists and the local communities in Hainan region

in China. Findings isolated possible opportunities and constraints critical for the development of social entrepreneurship programs as well as community empowerment. Such include the immense expectations that the communities around the parks were found to have with regard to the possible opportunities that ecotourism could bring to them. A majority believed that the coming of tourists would bring wealth to the region. However, a portion of the residents were not supportive of the programs having been victims of displacement to give room for construction of the enterprises and parks. Those mostly affected were farmers who lost their farms and by extension their jobs. They were thus finding it difficult to survive having lost their main source of livelihood. Even though they had been compensated when their land which were inside national parks had been summarily acquired and their access to the land restricted with the enactment of restrictive laws, not all of them were able to get gainful employment. For some of them, even after being trained to be equipped with knowledge and skills related to tourism sector, not all of them were able to be gainfully employed within the sector. They were the casualties of the social-cultural element of change in practices and rules which they were expected to deal with. The transition from an agricultural economy to a tourist economy was however harsh on them making them feel bitter with the process thus the dissatisfaction.

Since not all were able to favourably socially position themselves to tap into the profits generated from the tourists especially the minority groups, there were those who were unhappy with the goings on. At the same time, it was alleged that enactment of legislations meant to regulate the coexistent between locals and tourist made it more

difficult for the residents to access some natural resources especially within the forests which formerly they had had easy access to. All these combined made it difficult for some of locals to fully support ecotourism projects within the study area. Nonetheless, improvements in infrastructure as well as income generated from the tourists were positive aspects of the investment which created a more encouraging view about ecotourism. Generally, the overall attitude towards the project was positive.

The third case as underscored by Mahony and Van Zyl (2002) was on the impact of tourism in South Africa. It was based on an analysis of the contribution of tourism on the development of rural communities living within touristic destinations. The study established that tourism enhances the cultural identity of local community. It was shown that proceeds emanating from tourists' expenditures were used by the local community to invest in historical and cultural assets and thereby strengthening their cultural background. Additionally, the establishment of accommodation facilities such as hotels provided the locals with the opportunity to sell their artefacts such as crafts and arts. This not only impacted the local economy positively but also contributed to a stronger cultural identity.

In the process of enhancing the local economy through profitable processes, traditional skills were maintained. The hospitality and tourism investments such as hotel played a social role as community resource centre. They acted as central places where locals could interact with external parties. In the process, tourism activities impacted the beliefs and customs of the local community and changed some practices of a group of locals. Knowledge and skills obtained by locals from education and training from

ecotourism activities enabled a smooth transition from farmer based economy to tourism based economy, a majority of locals becoming employees of the tourist sector. This made them able to earn money from the tourism activities and thus support the ecotourism projects. The study thus recommended that in order to make such projects profitable for the local community, it is necessary to set rules which permits stakeholders to agree on beneficiaries of targeted projects. This was found important since finding illustrated that the local community is highly dependent on such projects which ensure flow of income within the community. Measures thus need to be put in place to ensure that all persons are brought on board.

The fourth case entailed a comparative study of two projects in Costa Rica (Stem, Lassoie, Lee & Deshler, (2003). It was on a study about the contributions of ecotourism on conservation and community development. Findings established both positive as well as negative influences of ecotourism on community development as well as conservation efforts. Positive outcomes include improvement of community training facilities as well as exchange of ideas among locals and tourists. Locals also acknowledged having benefited from knowledge received through exchange with tourists or through formal training in anticipation of job transition. The beneficiaries of such programs were more likely to support conservation efforts. However, this varied depending on specific touristic sites. In some projects it was stated that the park personnel, for example, having learnt about environment issues played an important role in conservation, while in other cases it is the hotel establishment which played a minor role in conservation efforts. In both cases therefore, while there were local people involved in conservation efforts and

could be relied on to educate others, their involvement was at different levels and in different ways.

In contrast to this finding is the fact that some people said that they stopped hunting, because of a lack of time, not because they had become more positive about conservation. In fact, the legal restrictions were the real direct cause for the positive attitude towards conservation. For negative impacts, two issues were highlighted. First, respondents indicated that introduction of tourism activities had resulted in disintegration of the local community. According to some local residents, since people were more dependent on the profits from tourists, they were more willing to help visitors rather than their relatives. This caused a disintegration of the communities and even the families. Family traditions became less important, because those in contact with tourists tried to copy their customs and behaviour. Secondly, local residents complained of increased proliferation of drugs and alcohol whose abuse was on the increase. Use or consumption of such substances resulted in a change of custom of the local community.

The last case dealt with the impact of ecotourism within Richtersveld National Park in South Africa on the surrounding communities (Boonzaier, 1996). This study illustrated that even though tourism impacted the practices and livelihoods of the local community, the lifestyle and traditions of the residents changed in different ways than has been described in preceding cases. In this case, it was found that people within the local communities within the park had undergone modernisation with time contrary to what the tourists who wanted to experience the old traditions of minority tribes which were not used anymore. Being a minority community, the culture and practices of such

communities had been suppressed by the major communities around them. According to some researchers, they had in the process of wanting to gain acceptance from their neighbours changed their behaviour and hidden some of their traditions and practices (Boonzaier, 1996). The establishment of the national park on its part had increased people's expectations about the possibility of improving their economy. The project therefore had the approval and support of a majority within the local communities around the park.

Unfortunately, only a few of the residents could find jobs related to the project. The project therefore could not solve the unemployment problem among the locals within the project area. Another factor that weakened the credibility of the national park was the fact that some farmers still had access to their farms inside the park. This is because for some reasons known to the authorities and despite strict regulations, they were allowed to keep their farms within the park. This encouraged others who initially didn't have land within the park to attempt to access portions of land within the park especially during period of drought. It created a conflict between the locals and the authority since it was difficult to explain why some people were allowed to access land inside the park while others were not. It also endangered sustainability of the national park for future generations which had already been well known and accepted among the local community. This study sought to assess how socio-cultural practices of hospitality and tourism enterprises impacts empowerment of communities.



### **2.3.3 Green Initiatives and Empowerment of Communities**

Gupta and Sharma (2002) define green practices as environmentally friendly management principles in which executive levels convert natural resources into better outputs or products. In the hotel industry, practices associated with green concerns are diverse; they may encompass a variety of activities from pollution prevention to stakeholders' awareness campaigns regarding these activities. However, for the purpose of the study this research views green practices as internal efforts or activities of a hotel to implement environmentally friendly practices towards the goal of reducing its operating costs. Some scholars defined green hotel as an environmentally sensitive hotel that operates its business in a manner that minimizes degradation of the environment (Iwanowski & Rushmore, 2003). The specific areas of focus are energy efficiency, recycling, water conservation, and clean air practices (Bohdanowicz, 2005). Similarly, Manaktola and Jauhari (2007) define a green hotel as a lodging facility committed to ecological practices such as saving of water, energy and waste. These practices include water harvesting during the rainy season and encouraging switching off electrical gadgets which will not be in use. It also includes the use of solar energy for heating and cooling systems. Policies and guided frameworks on using fewer resources and an elaborate policy to employees can be done. Employee awareness is an important drive in establishing the relationship of green tourism and operating costs. Thus, green practices and their implications on the costs should be frequently communicated to the employee.

By frequently communicating this information to the employees, it encourages more participation and hence in the same way increases their awareness levels. In doing so

they should also highlight the benefits of the practices not in the sense of costs but specifically to the employees. This serves as a motivator to the employees to participate actively in the green movement. Hotels on another note should do their best to facilitate employees' participation in green practices (Bohdanowicz, 2005). If this is done the employees will not feel disadvantaged or inconvenienced in doing some of the practices such as using stair cases. The hotels can facilitate this by positioning offices or storerooms at convenient positions that would not strain the employees. Training should also be based on needs and interest of departments individually. Hence green goals can be made department specific focusing on their interests and needs. This gives the employees opportunities to give their contributions and ideas and at the same time encourage participation. The use of modern waste management techniques can also be utilized in these hotels which include re-cycling, re-use and transformation.

Kasim and Ismail (2012) noted that over the last decade, there has been a growing awareness within the global hotel industry of the relevance for environmental protection issues. Hotel corporations are seen to be changing their image by engaging in environmental initiatives. Some hotels even go further to include social responsibility issues in their agenda. Greater awareness on the potential economic and other less direct benefits of environmentally-friendly measures, coupled with the establishment of many "watch dog" and support organizations such as the International Hotel and Restaurant Association (IHRA) and Green Hotel Association (GHA) has fueled the rise of "green" and/or responsible hotels in many established tourism destinations. Nevertheless, environmental and social measures are not the traditional core competency of a hotel.

Thus, “green” and responsible measures may require additional investment and organizational change. From a business perspective, additional investments are futile if they do not result in higher market share. Simply put, a hotel's “green” and responsible measures are meaningless if met only with consumer apathy. Therefore, to justify the need for hotels to engage in responsibility measures, one of the questions that must be answered is-do the tourists care about hotels' social and environmental responsibility? Unfortunately, there is still little empirical knowledge of tourists' demand for responsible hotels, particularly within the context of developing countries.

Traditionally perceived as a smokeless industry, tourism and hospitality had been slow to address its negative impacts until the late 1980s, when ecotourism became a buzzword (Kasim, 2006). However, the flaws of ecotourism entail a shift of focus towards the role of key tourism players including hotels in sustainable tourism. According to the researcher, documented evidence on the incorporation of environmental and social measures in big hotel corporations, indicate an awareness of this role in the sector. Nevertheless, the dissemination of such awareness is in question due to the potentially big investment and organizational change involved. The difficulty may be even more so if not appreciated and supported by the market.

Unfortunately, there is little evidence to show if tourists are prioritizing “responsible” hotels. In other words, do tourists have the propensity to choose hotel attributes based on environmental and social criteria? To provide answers to these questions, a study was designed to provide an outlook on the demand of tourists for responsible hotels in Pulau Pinang, Malaysia. Specifically, it looked at the main criteria used when choosing a hotel,

tourists' preference as well as their attitude, interest and opinion relating to green and socially responsible hotel. Findings illustrated that most tourists still choose a hotel based on price, service quality and a hotel's physical attractiveness rather than environmental and social attributes. Most tourists also prefer non-environmentally friendly options in hotel rooms such as individual soap cakes, fresh towels and air conditioning compared to the alternatives given. The propensity towards responsible attributes (local culture, local cuisine, happy, friendly and knowledgeable staff) seems to depend on how relevant the attributes are to the quality of their holiday experience. Those that have indirect effects (conservation effort, employment of local, certification, environmental image) are not perceived as important. In addition, the findings do not support the general (local) idea that foreign tourists are more “caring” about environmental and social issues compared to the regional/domestic tourists. Overall, the results imply that suggestion about the rising number of environmentally conscious tourists cannot be substantiated. Therefore, there is a need to re-examine the contention that tourists are a major driver of sustainable tourism.

Rahman, Reynolds and Svaren (2012) in a study meant to analyze the “green,” or environmentally friendly, practices of American hotels examined how green hotels in the United States were regarding no-cost or low-cost practices. Respondents included 166 hotels, which were identified through a random sample of hotels from the American Hotel and Lodging Association and included chain and independent properties as well as properties of various sizes (based on the number of rooms). Results showed that chain hotels were at the time of the study stronger adopters of green practices than

independent hotels were, likely due to leveraging economies of scale through uniform corporate practices. In addition, hotels in the Midwest were found to be the most environmentally friendly in terms of their use of no-cost or low-cost green practices.

Additional results indicated that size (classified by number of rooms) had little effect on the extent to which hotels were trying to manage energy consumption. Al-Aomar and Hussain (2017) developed a framework for green assessment across a hotel supply chain, the proposed framework being derived from the theory of “value creation” with a focus on green awareness, green know-how, and green implementation. These aspects were further explored using a structured research method and specific research questions. The study was conducted in selected hotels in the United Arab Emirates (UAE). The study identified the currently used green practices across the supply chains of the surveyed hotels and confirmed the familiarity of UAE hotels with green practices and the awareness of green value. However, there was a gap in the green know-how in terms of the effective implementation of green techniques across the supply chain and the impacts of the adopted green practices. The study also identified the obstacles of adopting green practices across the hotel supply chain. Literature indicated a growing awareness of adopting green practices in the service sector in general and in the hospitality industry in particular. However, despite the viability of the topic, it appeared that comprehensive theoretical and analytical frameworks for assessing green practices in hotel supply chains were still underdeveloped. Thus, the proposed framework could be subsequently used by practitioners and researchers in conceptualization and assessment of green practices across hotel supply chains in the UAE and the region.

Results also provided an insight and guidance for adopting green practices across the supply chains of hotels globally.

In Africa, Mensah (2006) in a study meant to investigate the environmental management practices among different categories of hotels in the Greater Accra Region (GAR) of Ghana reported that larger hotels (Three to five star) were at the forefront of adoption and practice of environmental management practices. Also, for the hotels with environmental policies, such policies were geared towards achieving safe, clean and healthy environments.

### **Motives of green practices**

Studies identified three major motivations for green practices within the hotel industry (Chan, Shaw, Camero, Underwood, & Daily, 2006). The first driving force is government regulations towards green practices which have pressured the hotels. An example would be some countries such as Australia and New Zealand impose financial penalties for a property's noncompliance to green policies (Mensah, 2004). In Kenya, the EAC classification criteria awards higher grading to hotels that incorporate green initiatives in environmental conservation. The second driver involves monetary benefits or financial gains that can be realized from green practices (González & León, 2001). Many hotel organizations have reported financial benefits resulting from going green. The cost of the system was \$16,000, yet in only a 14-month period, a savings of \$14,000 was realized (Alexander & Kennedy, 2002). The third motivation for hotels adopting green practices is fostering positive public relations and marketing (Tzschentke, Kirk &

Lynch 2004). The term “green hotel” aids in attracting more business. Various reports show that corporations want to hold their business meetings at green hotels.

According to Bohdanowicz (2005), green practices are identified through energy efficiency, water conservation and waste management. These practices have an impact on the operating costs that a hotel can incur and also affect the performance of the hotel. These practices can however be evaluated in Energy Efficiency - due to the nature of hotels of providing comfort and service to guests, the hospitality industry is one of the most energy consumptive industries, Water Consumption - the hotel sector consumes much water through the use in various departments such as the laundry, kitchen and housekeeping (Gossling, 2005). Thus, internal water efficiency and management programs and investments in water-saving technology in rooms, facilities and attractions reduce costs could be considered. Waste management – where quantity of waste that is produced varies with the occupancy and also property (Petty et al., 2004). Waste generation in the hotel industry is very high whereby for one study that was done waste generation was as high as 30 pounds per room within the hotel industry (CIWMB, 2009). Erdogan and Baris (2007) also conducted a study to examine environmental practices implemented by Turkish hotels and found that paper and food waste are the greatest amount of waste generated sources of hotels. The food and beverage service area in particular generates various solid and organic wastes such as packaging and food waste, aluminum cans, glass bottles, corks and cooking oils. The housekeeping operation also generates cleaning materials and plastic packaging. In addition to solid waste from front-of-house areas, back-of-house areas also generate a huge amount of solid waste

such as toner cartridges, paper and cardboard waste and many other wastes from the hotel facility maintenance department (Baker & Nelson, 2005).

### **Waste recycling and production in hotels**

Previous research indicates that the level of hotels' commitment to waste sorting and recycling varies, depending on regulatory pressures and local government's support. For example, European hotels actively implement waste sorting and recycling programs in offices and kitchens, but not in guestrooms (Erdogan & Baris, 2007) while Ghanaian hotels are less committed to recycling programs, with only 17 percent of sampled hotels adopting recycling programs (Mensah, 2006). According to Alexandar and Kennedy (2002) food waste can be reduced by activities such as donation though sometimes there is controversy on the issue of sanitation and hygiene. The second contributing factor to food waste is related to the nature of the cooking itself. Bohdanowicz, (2005) states that overcooking, over preparation, cooking losses or packaging failure quickly lead to the accumulation of food waste. However, reduction efforts to reduce solid waste such as non-waxed paper products, cans or plastics are relatively undemanding as compared to food waste reduction.

Such adoptions were indicated to have impacted the environment and different destinations in various ways. Kasim (2009) observed that linking of tourism businesses and their environmental impacts may be obscured by tourism's image as a 'soft' industry. This may explain why there are few studies of the drivers and barriers involved in corporate environmentalism, particularly within the context of developing countries where tourism is often a major foreign exchange earner. In a study meant to assess the



evidence about the drivers of and the barriers to corporate environmentalism in the hotel sector of Penang, Malaysia using qualitative data obtained via elite interviewing, document analysis and personal observation, the researcher discusses the theoretical drivers of and barriers to corporate environmentalism in the study context. The findings indicate that without the introduction of more and stronger drivers, and without understanding and addressing the underlying barriers, instilling a sense of environmental responsibility in the hotel sector in Malaysia, as in other developing countries, may prove daunting.

#### **2.3.4 Social Innovations**

Evidence indicates that social innovation has the potential to provide solutions in various sectors, tourism included as an important developmental factor (Petrou & Daskalopoulou, 2013). This according to the researchers is attributed to its ability influence the transformation of community social capital from being customer oriented to community oriented. Van Oort and Lambooy (2014) in supporting this assertion emphasised that social innovation ensures environments that enable the development of prosperous businesses and start-up companies in which all stakeholders focus on better care for the working environment and the rules of the game, and less on the process. It therefore offers an important competitive edge for regions and countries. According to Alkier , Milojica, and Roblek (2017), technological development is added to the social innovation as connotation of new service solutions. The researchers observed that based on an analysis of theory and practice, social innovations incorporate both technological and/or organizational innovations. Its importance is different and varies depending on

the level of socioeconomic development of destinations. In more rural destinations they are more orientated in social solutions and missions. Social innovation as a source of social solutions in tourism therefore is concerned with transferring innovation knowledge and providing products, services and solutions to the needs of the tourists and community stakeholders.

Hospitality and tourism is a complex sector that has an important role in social and economic development of the society (Alkier , Milojica, & Roblek, 2017). The progress of the sector in any destination includes a multi stakeholder for which it presents a source of economic and social progress and a cause of negative effects at a social, environmental and economic level (Carlisle, Kunc, Jones & Tiffin, 2013). This is the reason why close attention should be taken with regard to the industry in order to ensure sustainable growth, which is represented by the establishment of the innovative environment, which ensures hospitality and tourism entrepreneurial projects that do not present value added only for the tourist, but also for all the local stakeholders (Laeis & Lemke, 2016; Peterlin & Pranicovic, 2015).

Social innovation solutions in the industry thus represent an important developmental factor, due to their influence on the transformation of the sector (Petrou & Daskalopoulou, 2013). Pace (2013) observed that it is important for tourism to focus on social innovations since it allows for an analysis of the cultural relationship involved in the adoption of innovation. In the process of the adaptation of the innovation, consumers have the option to use new products in different ways that transform social practices associated with the product. In order to achieve this, consumers should be recognized as

cultural agents who re-enact culture in the consumption process which can influence on the transforming practices associated with new products (Mosedale & Voll, 2017).

Existing literature illustrates that sustainable model of sharing economy has an important influence on launching social innovation in tourism combined with the internet technologies (Roblek, Stok & Mesco, 2016). It entails going for a social platform and mobile applications that allow things as sharing knowledge, products and services among consumers, business to customer and business to business. The online platforms have re-worked hospitality relationships and tourists get the opportunity to enact their agency and become cultural agents (Sigala & Kyriakidou , 2015). In this regard, social innovations became a part of the technological and/or organizational innovations after the year 2008 with the launch of a third industrial revolution. Technological breakthrough which enables the progress of (social) practices in tourism has changed the supply chain of tourist products. The technological development played an important influence on the changing business environment within tourism and hospitality industry. The educational providers became aware of the need to have the ability of developing and acquiring the basic concepts of learning about using information and communication technology and computer literacy, which would play an important role in the personal development and economic and social development of the society (Bisson, Stephenson & Viguerie, 2010).

By definition, social innovation refers to innovative activities and services which are carried out by social-mission organizations to fulfill unmet social needs in the society (Mulgan et al, 2007). European Commission defined social innovation as the

development and implementation of new ideas (products, services and models) to meet social needs and create new social relationships or collaborations. Vienna Declaration on its part promotes social innovation as an urgent alternative to technology-oriented innovations that fail to solve the problems that arose moving from an industrial to knowledge and service based society. According to the declaration, “such fundamental societal changes require the inclusion of social innovations in a paradigm shift of the innovation system” (Vienna Declaration, 2011). According to Santos (2012), social entrepreneurship is a process of economic innovation that occurs with a variety of characteristics of institutions based on the creation of values in which the approach used is generally suitable and appropriate to address problems in modern society. Hence, social innovation is closely related to social entrepreneurship, where the social entrepreneur is the actor of social innovation.

It is also interpreted as social changes, referring to the process and results of those changes. Social entrepreneurs bring and use ideas and innovative solutions to overcome social problems (Hoogendoorn, Pennings, & Thurik, 2011). They utilize personal leadership skills and capacity to solve problems that arise in particular communities or regions (Mulgan & Landry, 1995). Social entrepreneurs create social values by exploiting innovation such as establish new activities or organizations (Pervez, Maritz & Waal, 2013). They are often motivated to improve society or communities as agents of change by seizing opportunities others miss and improving systems, inventing new approaches, and creating sustainable solutions to change society or the communities where they are operating for the better, as advanced by the Skoll Foundation for Social

Entrepreneurship (Douhan, Eliasson, & Henrekson, 2007). Social entrepreneurship: a content analysis. *Journal of Strategic Innovation and Sustainability*, 7(1), 99-119.). They attack intractable problems, take huge risks, and seek out formidable goals such as economic and environmental sustainability and social equity (Elkington & Hartigan, 2008). Creativity, innovation, and resourcefulness are the elements of entrepreneurship most relevant to social entrepreneurs (Nicholls & Cho, 2006).

Social innovation is a new combination and/or new configuration of social practices in certain areas of action or social contexts prompted by certain actors or constellations of actors in an intentional targeted manner with the goal of better satisfying or answering needs and problems than is possible on the basis of established practices (Howaldt & Kopp, 2012). This definition suggests that for an activity to qualify as a social innovation, it must meet four criteria: it must be new, it must address a social challenge, the intent must be to create equality, justice and empowerment and the effect or end result must be equality, justice and empowerment. The key distinction is that social innovation deals with improving the welfare of individuals and communities through employment, consumption and/or participation, its expressed purpose being to provide solutions for individual and community problems”

Mulgan et al. (2007) observed that outcomes of social innovation are all around us and include self-help health groups and self-build housing; telephone help lines and telethon fundraising; neighbourhood nurseries and neighbourhood wardens; Wikipedia and the open university; complementary medicine, holistic health and hospices; microcredit and consumer cooperatives; charity shops and the fair trade movement; zero carbon housing

schemes and community wind farms; restorative justice and community courts. The researchers maintain that all these are examples of social innovation which are characteristically new ideas that work to meet pressing unmet needs and improve peoples' lives. They maintain that social innovations are essentially about old and new methods for mobilising the ubiquitous intelligence that exists within any society. They see the development of social innovation as an urgent task and one of the most urgent that is needed within the society. In a society in which there is a wide, and probably growing, gap between the scale of the problems faced and the scale of the solutions on offer, new methods for advancing social innovation are relevant in every sector but are likely to offer most in fields where problems are intensifying (from diversity and conflict, to climate change and mental illness), in fields where existing models are failing or stagnant (from traditional electoral democracy to criminal justice), and in fields where new possibilities (such as mobile technologies and open source methods) are not being adequately exploited.

At the young foundation we have particular reasons for being interested in this field. For over 50 years the young foundation's precursors were amongst the world's most important centres both for understanding social enterprise and innovation and doing it. They helped create dozens of new institutions (such as the open university and its parallels around the world, Which?, the school for social entrepreneurs and the economic and social research council) and pioneered new social models (such as phone based health diagnosis, extended schooling and patient led health care). Harvard's Daniel Bell (one of the USA's most influential social scientists in the second half of the last century)

judged Michael young to be the world's 'most successful entrepreneur of social enterprises', and in his work and his writings he anticipated today's interest in social enterprise and the broader question of how societies innovate (Young, 1983). There are many lenses through which to understand social innovation.

For much of the last century it was understood within much broader frameworks of thinking about social change, industrialisation and modernity. Small innovations were seen as reflections of big dynamics. In the contrary approach advocated by Karl Popper and others, social innovation was the incremental and experimental alternative to the errors of utopian blueprints and violent revolution (our reflections on theories of change and their relevance to social innovation are contained in this endnote **a**, p50). Today most discussion of social innovation tends to adopt one of three main lenses for understanding how change happens: individuals, movements or organisations.

This story of change emphasises the interaction between the innovators and the environment they are working in. It emphasises, too, that new ideas have to secure support if they are to survive. The support they need may include: the passion and commitment of other people, the money of patrons or the state and contracts or consumers. Social change depends, in other words, on alliances between what could be called the 'bees' and the 'trees'. The bees are the small organisations, individuals and groups who have the new ideas, and are mobile, quick and able to cross-pollinate. The trees are the big organisations – governments, companies or big NGOs – which are poor at creativity but generally good at implementation, and which have the resilience, roots and scale to make things happen. Both need each other, and most social change comes

from alliances between the two, just as most change within organisations depends on alliances between leaders and groups well down the formal hierarchy.

The study of innovation in business and science (and to a lesser extent public services) has progressed rapidly over the last few decades, with much richer theories and much more empirical analysis of specific sectors which has yielded a great wealth of insight. In science, there are extensive and distinct Reed (2007) literatures on invention and innovation. The pioneering work started at Sussex University in the mid-1960s remains the benchmark in terms of sophisticated, empirical study of innovation in science, technology and economics. Much of that work has focused on the long waves of technological and economic change, but there has also been a lot of more practical work. For example, one strand of research has tried to understand how the substantial public funding that is devoted to basic science should best be used. It has looked at whether to organise funding strategically or reactively in response to scientists' interests and enthusiasms. It has concerned itself with the role of intellectual property protection – and whether, for example, promising biotech ideas in a university should be quickly handed over to private companies and made secret. It has studied the global collaborations that now drive progress in fields like fusion technologies for energy, or new drugs for cancer, and the practical question of how far public support should spread from basic research, through support for generic technologies, to subsidy for promising applications. In business, the vast volume of analysis done on innovation has given rise to fairly well accepted typologies to understand the different types of innovation connected to products, services and processes. Some have used the distinctions between



total, expansionary or evolutionary innovations; others have preferred to differentiate between incremental, radical or systematic ones Walker, Jeanes and Rowland (2002), or between innovations that happen within organisations and those that cross organisational boundaries.

This body of work has provided many useful insights (Nooteboom, 2001). Economists have shown the importance of incentives and returns (including temporary monopolies) and the dynamics whereby many competing innovations consolidate on a dominant model – because of economies of scale, and sometimes because of the power of leading companies. They have also shown the importance of smallness in invention: patents from small firms are twice as likely to be amongst the top 1% of patents subsequently identified as having high impact (Mulgan & Albury, 2003). Other insights emphasise the importance of abundant venture capital and the common ways in which new models often start on the periphery and are then taken over by big organisations (for example, self-service supermarkets began in small retailers before being copied by big ones). Here, once again, we see how ‘bees’ and ‘trees’ can complement each other.

This is a community tourism project which aims to promote the economic and social development of local communities through the promotion of tourist activities that are streamlined by the communities themselves in order to defend and respect their identities by disclosing their customs. The project promotes not only interaction with the community but also its socio-economic development. This is a product that is not offered in the programs of other travel agencies. This NBM allows a positive impact on psychological, economic and social sustainability. For example, when the tourists are

taken to a craftsman or to a traditional shop, they are contributing to an increase in the owners' self-esteem, enhancing their personal development, and helping them to get more business. They are creating an active and sustained community around their routes of memories. The project began at April, 2012, and it took one year to implement. The major motivation was the lack of this kind of tourist projects involving the communities in the city of Porto, with special relevance to the historical center, and the will to help combating its desertification, promoting the stories, culture, customs and traditions of the old city. Now, the project is being developed by consolidating the routes. First of all, the entrepreneurs consider that financial sustainability, good spread of services, partnerships, and good quality service are the most important features in a NBM. They classified themselves as *creating*, because they work with the community with a new approach ensuring win-win situations, and create multiple value. Thus, they generate economic, social, psychological, and cultural value to all local communities, and also to all stakeholders (directly or indirectly), helping preserving their identity and fighting urban desertification. The nature of the project involves a whole set of associations, institutions, craftsmen, municipality, schools, and the general population

### **2.3.5 Community Empowerment**

Most authors have defined empowerment mainly as a process (Swift & Levin, 1987; Wallerstein & Bernstein, 1988; Rissel, 1994). It is understood as a process of increasing the ability of individuals, groups, organizations or communities to analyze their environment, identify problems, needs, issues and opportunities, formulate strategies to deal with these problems, issues and needs, and seize the relevant opportunities, design a plan of action, and assemble and use effectively and on a sustainable basis resources to

implement, monitor and evaluate the plan of actions, and use feedback to learn lessons (UNDP, 1995).

Empowerment at the community level of analysis - community empowerment -includes efforts to deter community threats, improve quality of life, and facilitate citizen participation. Wallerstein (1992) defines empowerment as follows: it is a social-action process that promotes participation of people, organizations, and communities towards the goals of increased individual and community control, political efficacy, improved quality of community life, and social justice. The outcomes of community empowerment may emerge as actual socio-environmental and political changes in community.

Empowerment is an essential aspect of social entrepreneurship. According to the World Bank, as cited in Santo (2012), empowerment refers to the asset and capability development of individuals or groups necessary to conduct certain actions in their lives. Empowerment is a significant aspect of social entrepreneurs because social entrepreneurs have limited access to resources when addressing social problems. Job creation is another contribution of social entrepreneurs. In literature, the labor market is believed to work as a competitive mechanism, meaning that individuals who get jobs in the market are those with the required skills. Thus, individuals lacking the skills will not get the job; this is known as skill mismatch. Skill mismatch is the poor's greatest obstacle in finding jobs. Though they actually have skills, they are unable to use them. Policy and institutional failures also contribute (Yunus, 2007; 2011).

Poverty also occurs when individuals who do not have jobs are unable to earn regular income. Therefore, the best possible way to help the poor is to create jobs and integrate the poor into available jobs outside the competitive labor market. Empowerment missions are focused on several areas: increasing capacity building so individuals can solve their own problems; connecting informal economy financial institutions in order to obtain financial services (Santo (2012). At the same time, it aims at establishing a network of cooperation with central and local government to facilitate and to protect efforts towards community empowerment; developing mutually beneficial cooperation with the business sector as well as financial sector; encouraging the development of a network of mutual cooperation with various groups in society as well as with philanthropy organizations, both domestic and international (Swadaya, 2007).

### **Aspects of community empowerment**

Empowerment has been noted to referring to the ability of people to acquire an understanding as well as control over personal, social, economic and political forces so as to take action to improve their own life situations (Israel et al., 1994). It is basically the process by which individuals and communities are enabled to acquire power and direct it to effectively gain greater control, efficacy, and social justice in improving for change their lives and their environment. Critical to the concept of empowerment process are actions which build individual as well as collective assets, and better the efficiency and fairness of the organizational as well as and institutional context which govern the use of these assets. It is also observed that there are three components of empowerment definition which are basic to any understanding of the concept:

empowerment is multi-dimensional, social, and a process. It is multi-dimensional in that it occurs within sociological, psychological, economic, and other dimensions (Page & Czuba, 1999). Further, empowerment also occurs at various levels, such as individual, group, and community. Empowerment is a social process, since it occurs in relationship to others, and it is a process along the continuum. Other aspects of empowerment may vary according to the specific context and people involved, but these three remain constant. How empowerment is understood also varies among perspectives and context.

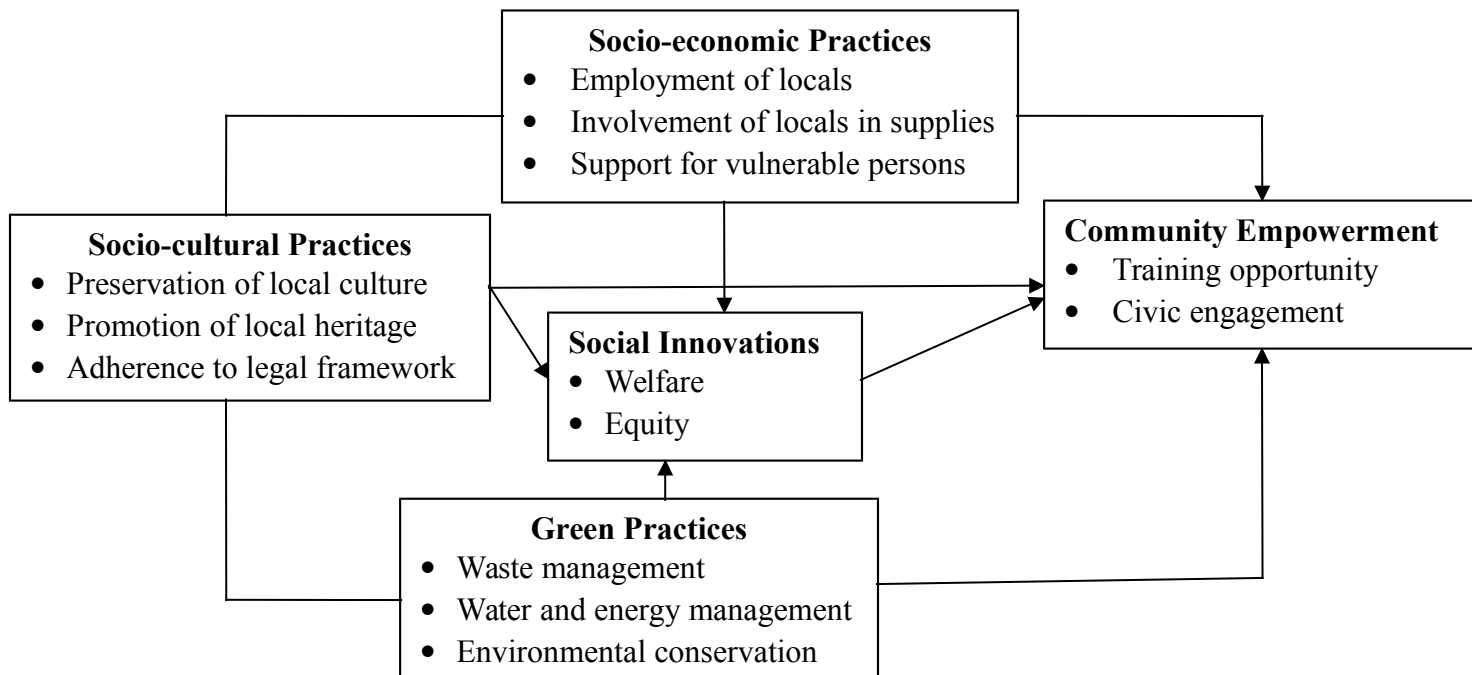
As an intrapersonal component, empowerment addresses the manner in which individuals think about themselves and includes concepts of perceived control, self-efficacy, motivations to control, and perceived competence. The interaction component of psychological empowerment assesses how people understand and relate to their social environment (Santos, 2012). Interactional characteristics address one's ability to develop a critical understanding of the forces that shape their environment and knowledge of the resources required and methods to access those resources to produce social change. Interactional characteristics include management skills, problem solving, and critical awareness. The behavioral component of psychological empowerment includes actions that address needs in a specific context.

To create change in organizations and communities, individual empowerment endeavors to enable people to become partners in solving the complex issues facing them. In collaborations based on mutual respect, diverse perspectives, and a developing vision, people work toward creative and realistic solutions. The inclusive individual and collective understanding of empowerment is crucial in programs with empowerment as a

goal, (Wilson, 1996; Florin & Wandersman, 1990; Speer & Hughey, 1995). Coastal communities are among the poorest in Kenya. The lucrative tourism industry has failed to deliver significant benefits and employment for host communities (Jones, 2006).

## 2.4 Conceptual Framework

Figure 2.1 conceptualizes the relationship between elements as perceived to be influencing community empowerment.



**Figure 2.1. Conceptual framework (Santos, 2012)**

According to the figure 2.1 which is the proposed interaction of the variables, community empowerment which is the dependent variable is influenced directly by entrepreneurs' socio-economic, socio-cultural and green initiatives in the direction shown by the arrows. The relationship is also mediated by social innovations.

## 2.5 Summary of Literature Review and Research Gap

Literature reviewed show that coastal tourism circuit in Kenya is dotted by a number of tourism and hospitality investments put up by local and international entrepreneurs eager

to tap into the booming tourism market. According to observers, the favourable weather conditions and sandy beaches within the region endows it with a favorable investment environment (Wilhite, 2016). Records also indicate that within the country, approximately 60% of all hospitality and tourism establishments are located within the coastal tourism circuit (Omondi, 2003, Jones, 2006), a majority overlooking the seafront. It is also illustrated that within the region, local communities live in conditions of abject poverty (KNBS, 2013). Specifically, four counties out of six in the coastal region including Lamu, Tana River, Kwale and Kilifi have communities some of who are the most hit by poverty and income inequality in the country (KNBS, 2013). The four counties are said to lead in poverty index with their residents experiencing problems of low income, expenditure and immense inequality. With anecdotal reports alleging massive investment in SE practices by the tourism and hospitality sector entrepreneurs, it is expected that the local communities would directly benefit from the empowerment programs emanating from the practices.

Globally and regionally in Africa, SE as practiced by entrepreneurs has been shown to provide local communities living in poor conditions such as those at the coastal tourism circuit in Kenya with a viable opportunity to turn around the course of their lives. For instance, Mohammed Yunus using the idea of the Grameen Bank provided a solution to the plight of poor Bangladeshis who were unable to acquire funds to start their own business. He gave out \$27 of his personal funds as loans to a group of poor women, who quickly started a sewing business that was able to generate enough income to help them pay back the loan, and more importantly, to rise above poverty (Martin & Osberg, 2007).

According to the researchers, “Grameen Bank sustained itself by charging interest on its loans and then recycling the capital to help other women.

Jacqueline Novogratz, a social entrepreneur redefined the practice of philanthropy by tapping into her business foresight and skills to fight poverty in developing countries through the Acumen Fund (Novogratz, 2010). Believing that traditional charity, which merely gives aid, is no longer an adequate solution to the problem of poverty, Novogratz used market-oriented approaches to tackle issues of poverty – by providing promising entrepreneurs, who bring the necessary goods and services to communities who need them, with patient capital. Rather than distributing handouts like a traditional charity, The Acumen Fund invested in socially-conscientious companies whose target customers were the world’s poor. Other model SE programs include Unite For Sight’s employed successfully in a variety of different social contexts in Ghana, Honduras and India Martin and Osberg (2007) and [“Vision Awake” Africa For Development](#) (VAAFD) among others. However, most of these programs are foreign based and none is tourism and hospitality sector related leaving a gap of research to be filled by studies specifically targeting the contribution of tourism and hospitality sector entrepreneurs on empowerment of communities in Kenya, an aspect that this study to make a contribution.



## **CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

### **3.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents the methodology that was adopted by the researcher to obtain information required to answer research questions. It provides an insight on the proposed research design, the target population as well as the sample procedure. It also contains the instruments for data collection and the anticipated method for data analysis.

### **3.2 Research Philosophy**

Research philosophy also referred to as research paradigm is a reasonably presented and realistically grounded argument that opens viewpoint on perception of objects or phenomenon that attract a researcher's attention (Gul, 2011). There are three dominant research philosophies which include positivism, phenomenology and pragmatism which constitutes ways of extracting, analyzing and using data about a phenomenon in research. Positivists view the universe as closed system in which one can observe and record empirical data to determine cause-effect relationships conclusively. Positivist investigations therefore tend to generate optimization techniques. Cooper and Schindler (2008) argued that these generalizable theoretical models generated explain and predict outcomes of simple cause effect relationships.

Phenomenologists on the other hand focus on immediate experience with the researcher being open and relying on experience of respondents. A researcher adopting a phenomenological paradigm describes facts as they appear and avoids any generalization (Ramsey, 1998). Phenomenologists argue for multiple interpretations of overtime constructed and reconstructed information through experience and qualitatively

collected data process to create a social reality (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008). Gul (2011) argued that positivism dilutes reality by imposing significant assumptions on the universe. The assumptions however make it possible for certain statistical tests to be performed. The author also faulted pure phenomenological methods on their heavy inclination to context, deficiency in priori assumptions and hardly reproducible.

This study sought empirical evidence on the interaction of variables as captured through several hypotheses to generalize the research findings. As such, it adopted aspects of positivist philosophy. However, respondents' personal opinion based on their experience in the course of their interaction with the elements was required to enrich the study. Consequently, aspects of phenomenological approach were adopted. Theoretical framework is based on knowledge gathered during literature review which is set to be subjected to empirical test to verify the nature and magnitude of relationships between the variables. In other words, the study adopted a hybrid research philosophy that integrates both positivist and phenomenology philosophy which is also referred to as pragmatism.

Pragmatism is a deconstructive paradigm that advocates the use of mixed methods in research, "sidesteps the contentious issues of truth and reality" (Feilzer 2010, p. 8), and "focuses instead on 'what works' as the truth regarding the research questions under investigation" (Tashakkori & Teddlie 2003b, p. 713). In that sense, pragmatism rejects a position between the two opposing viewpoints. In other words, it rejects the choice associated with the paradigm wars.

### **3.3 Research Design**

Research design also referred to as study design is the investigators plan of action for answering the research questions and realizing the study objectives (Flanigan, McFarlane & Cook, 2008). It has also been defined as the process of creating an empirical test to support or refute a knowledge claim. It is a plan of showing how the problems under investigation would be solved. This study was descriptive in nature. This is because it sought to describe the role of tourism and hospitality enterprise socio-entrepreneurial practices on community empowerment along the coastal tourism circuit in Kenya. It was appropriate because the purpose of the study was central in providing accurate statistical and reliable data on how much, how many and how often the phenomena of community empowerment occurred. It employed cross-sectional survey research design since data was collected to ascertain the contribution of the enterprises on community empowerment across a variety of respondents. The rationale behind the adoption of such an approach was based on the convenience and conviction that the method best allows exploration of a wide range of variables related to social entrepreneurial practices of hoteliers and their impact on empowerment of communities. Prior to commencement of data collection, permission was sought from the university through the Departmental Review Board. With the permit, the researcher presented a letter of introduction to the hoteliers sampled to formally seek permission and to book appointments for the real exercise of collecting data. Then data was collected in phases. Phase one involved the researcher administering the questionnaires to the hoteliers at the appointed time as agreed. In the process, the researcher obtained information about the beneficiaries of empowerment programs by the enterprises to be involved in the study.

Phase two involved the researcher administering questionnaire to members of the local community.

### **3.4 Target Population**

The study targets enterprises either registered with the Kenya Association of Hotel Keepers and Caterers (KAHC), classified facilities who are members of the association as well as members of local communities who are beneficiaries of the empowerment programs. Hoteliers registered with the association were targeted because they are a good formal representation of investors in hospitality industry within the region who subscribe to the association's code of ethics which prescribes basic rights and obligations of all members including the need to subscribe to socioeconomic empowerment programs (KAHC, 2017). Equally, classified facilities were targeted since classification criteria of facilities in East African Community demands that classified facilities should practice social inclusion (EAC, 2009). Further, the study targeted members of local communities including beneficiaries of employment opportunities, local suppliers of goods and services and civic leaders within the local communities.

There were a total of 50 KAHC registered enterprises and 10 classified enterprises who are not members of the association. Thus, a total of 60 enterprises were targeted. At the same time the study targeted 8 civic leaders in charge of the eight administrative zones where the tourism and hospitality enterprises are located. These include Diani beach in Kwale; Nyali beach, Bamburi beach and Shanzu beach in Mombasa; Kilifi beach, Malindi and Watamu in Kilifi county. Further, 25 chairpersons of beach operators within these zones were targeted to take part in the study. Lastly the study targeted beneficiaries

of the empowerment programs, who include persons from the local communities who are either employees of the enterprises or suppliers of goods and services to the enterprises. Thus the study targeted 213 respondents as summarized in Figure 3.1.

**Table 3.1.Target Population**

<b>Category of Respondent</b>	<b>Targeted</b>
<b>Population</b>	
Enterprise management	60
Employee representative	60
Suppliers' representative	60
Beach Operators representative	25
Civic leaders	8
<b>Total</b>	<b>213</b>

### **3.5 Sampling Procedure**

Sampling was done at two levels starting with tourism and hospitality entrepreneurs and local community beneficiaries. Since the population of the entrepreneurs is low enough for all of them to be included in the study, a census survey of all the tourism and hospitality entrepreneurs was undertaken. The general manager or the director of the enterprises was sampled to participate in the study. Additionally, the enterprise procurement officer as well as a representative of employees within each enterprise who is a local was picked to participate in the study. Management of the hotel enterprises were requested to direct the researcher to their local suppliers of goods and the chairperson of beach operators from their area who were then requested to participate in the study. Since suppliers and beach operators were sampled based on information obtained from sampled hotel enterprises, snowballing sampling was applied in this case.

Additionally, the civic leaders from the various administrative zones were purposively sampled. Therefore, the study employed census survey as well as purposive sampling to pick respondents to participate in the study. Also referred to as saturated sampling technique, census survey is advocated for where the target population is relatively low to enable one to include all of them in the study thus negating the use of other forms of sampling technique (Kothari, 2004). The study sampled the 213 respondents to participate in the study.

### **3.6 Instrumentation**

Due to the nature of this study, self-administered questionnaires and key informant interviews were used to collect data from sampled respondents. Self-administered questionnaire is considered the most appropriate in gathering data from hoteliers for the researcher because its administration would enable the researcher to collect relevant data from a large number of respondents easily. The questionnaire consisted of closed ended and open ended questions. Closed ended questions are easy to analyze because their information content is short. Open ended questions are appropriate to the study because in-depth information from respondent which provide room for respondents to air out their views freely is key to enable study meet its objective. An interview schedule was used to collect data from civic leaders. Other previous research instruments on social entrepreneurial practices were consulted in coming up with the items in the research questionnaire.

### **3.7 Pilot Study**

A Pilot study was carried out for the research instrument using 41 respondents affiliated to 12 hospitality and tourism facilities within Taita Taveta County, one of the six counties with tourism as one of the key economic activities. This number of respondents represents 20% of the study population as recommended by Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011). Falling within the coastal tourism circuit, Taita Taveta offered the most ideal place for piloting since its facilities were not to be engaged in the actual study.

#### **3.7.1 Validity**

The study used content and construct validity. According to Joppe (2000), validity determines whether the research instrument truly measures that which it was intended to measure or how truthful the research results are. Kothari (2004) intimates that content validity can be determined by using a panel of persons who shall judge how well the instruments meet the standards. To ensure that the instruments have content, the researcher consulted with supervisors and experts in measurement and evaluation in the School of Business and Economy of Kenya Methodist University to comment on the items in terms of relevance, sentence structure and adequacy of the instrument. Based on their recommendations, the instruments were modified.

Construct validity was also ensured by anchoring the constructs to theory and empirical review of data from which they were derived. The researcher further conducted a pilot test with 41 respondents who included management, beneficiaries and civic leaders purposively sampled from Taita Taveta County which also helped validate the instrument. Facilities from Taita Taveta were targeted at this stage to provide all the

categories of respondents with similar characteristics as the study sample. The choice was thus informed by the fact that the region is part of the coastal tourism circuit, some investors having properties in Taita Taveta County as well as Kwale, Mombasa or Kilifi which are within the scope of the study. During the pilot study, both the researcher and the research assistants were jointly involved in administering the research instruments and in clarifying all unclear issues emerging from the research instrument. In the process, a number of issues were noted requiring attention before the actual study. In general, three questionnaires piloted had items that were found to be longer by some respondents. They were edited to make the sentences simpler and shorter whilst maintaining the meaning and objective of variables being measured.

At the same time, variabilities in items across the different questionnaires were noted which affected ease of analysis. Specifically, attributes of respondents' bio-data, specific variables including social cultural practices and green initiatives which were not consistent across the three questionnaires made comparative analysis across different respondents' observations challenging. Harmonization was undertaken for all the variables across the different questionnaires to enable easy analysis.

Management questionnaire was found to consist of diverse items that could not be best attended to by the general manager only. The items seemed to inquire on empowerment issues relating to general management, human resource as well as information pertaining to procurement functions. Whereas the general manager easily responded to empowerment issues relating to general management, they found it difficult to report on



practices related to procurement and human resource functions. The questionnaire was dichotomized into three sections for the attention of the different management departments.

With regard to the questionnaire designed for beneficiaries, it was established that: Questionnaire items were found to be too loaded thus bulky, the same questionnaire requiring attention of suppliers as well as employees in one questionnaire. Due to unique empowerment needs derived by different beneficiaries from entrepreneurial practices of hoteliers, two separate beneficiary questionnaires were prepared one for employees and the second for suppliers and beach operators.

Beneficiaries were expected to quantifiably report on aspects derived from empowerment programs by the hoteliers. However, most of them found it difficult to provide data required with precision due to limited capacity to articulate expected issues. It is proposed that beneficiary questionnaire be amended to enable this cadre of respondents to perceptually qualify rather than quantify hoteliers' empowerment initiatives. Civic leaders had been categorized under beneficiaries, whilst in essence, they report on specific aspects of empowerment of communities derived from entrepreneurial practices of hoteliers. An interview schedule was designed for civic leader.

### 3.7.2 Reliability

Reliability is a measure of the degree to which a research instrument yields consistent results or data after repeated trials. Cronbach alpha was used to assess the reliability of the questionnaire to be used for data collection based on the data obtained from the pilot study. Gliem and Gliem (2003) describes Cronbach alpha as a technique that measures internal consistency reliability using only a single test administration to provide a unique estimate of the reliability for a given test. It is the average value of the reliability coefficients one would obtain for all possible combinations of items when split into two half-tests (Brown, 2002). For this study a reliability coefficient of 0.70 was considered as reasonable. The reliability data obtained during pilot study were as presented in Table 3.2

**Table 3.2. Reliability of Pilot Data**

<b>Variable</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Cronchbach's Alpha index</b>
<b>1. Community empowerment</b>	7	0.910
<b>2. Socioeconomic activities</b>	8	0.603
<b>3. Sociocultural Activities</b>	12	0.895
<b>4. Green Initiatives</b>	11	0.917
<b>5. Social Innovation</b>	5	0.875

Results obtained from the pilot show that the questionnaire items for each of the variables one, three, four and five yielded a reliability index of more than 0.7000 while that of the second variable was slightly less. Any reliability of 0.7000 and above is taken to depict an agreeable level of reliability for the instruments (Kothari, 2004). The questionnaire items were deemed reliable and therefore adopted for the study.

### **3.8 Methods of Data Collection**

Prior to commencement of data collection, permission was sought from the university through the Departmental Review Board. With the permit, the researcher presented a letter of introduction to the hoteliers sampled to formally seek permission and to book appointments for the real exercise of collecting data. Then data was collected in phases. Phase one involved the researcher administering the questionnaires to managers/directors of the enterprises at the appointed time as agreed. At the same time, the instruments for the procurement officer as well as that the employee representative was administered. In the process, the researcher obtained information about suppliers from the local community for later use. Phase two involved the researcher administering questionnaire to local suppliers identified during phase one. Phase three entailed the researcher administering questionnaires beach operators. Lastly, a key informant interview with the civic leaders was undertaken. The interview was audio recorded with the permission of the civic leaders.

### **3.9 Operational Definition of Variables**

In this section, variables, their indicators and operational definitions are identified and tabulated. Table 3.3 provides a summary of operationalization of the variables.

**Table 3.3. Operational Definition of Variables**

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Indicators</b>	<b>Operational definitions</b>
Community empowerment	Problem solving ability	Programs aimed at facilitating individuals to analyze the environment, identify problems, needs issues and opportunities, formulate strategies to deals with the issues and seize the opportunities, design a plan of action, implement a plan of action and evaluate the process.
	Ability to establish network	Programs and process aimed at establishment and sustenance of networks within enterprises and communities with the aim of creating social capital.
	Ability to participate in civic duties	Programs aimed at facilitating citizens' participation in civic activities.
Socioeconomic practices	Employment of locals	Priority of local communities to access job opportunities within the enterprises
	Involvement of locals in supplies Support to vulnerable persons	Purchase of goods and services from local communities Priority of vulnerable persons including women, youth and people living with disabilities to access opportunities within the tourism enterprises
	Opportunities for ownership	Percentage of shares of ownership of enterprises by locals
Sociocultural practices	Preservation of local culture	Respectful interaction between enterprises and the locals with regard to local traditions and culture
	Eradiation of child labour	Discourage recruiting, trafficking or use of forced labour in children.
	Eradiation of child sex tourism	Discourage sexual tourism or exploitation of human being in any form especially when applied to children
Green initiatives	Waste management	Responsible disposal of solid waste and waste water
	Water conservation	Responsible use of water resource and preservation of water sources within the community. Investing in water saving technology
	Energy conservation	Investment in renewable forms of energy. Investment in appropriate technology in energy conservation
Social innovation	Innovative training and personal development opportunities	Investment in innovative programs and practices

### 3.10 Methods of Data Analysis

Data was first checked for completeness, consistency and accuracy since in raw form it was difficult to interpret. It was then analysed qualitatively and quantitatively.

### **3.10.1 Qualitative Data Analysis**

Qualitative data obtained from civic leaders through interview was analyzed using thematic analysis. Owen, (2014) as cited in Flockhart, Foster, Mathews, Ross, Taylor,& Thomson, (2010) defines thematic analysis as “a process of segmentation, categorization and relinking of aspects of the data prior to final interpretation”. To this end, the following steps were undertaken; First and foremost, recorded interviews were transcribed verbatim or “near verbatim” Willig (2008) and each transcript read and short notes made to have a summary of statements of the main points of each respondent. Duplications within the main points of the respondents were deleted to reduce the number of similar categories and remain with relevant text. The reduced categories were then be grouped together and labelled as themes. According to Auerbach and Silverstein (2003) a theme is “an implicit topic that organizes a group of repeating ideas” (p. 38). Factors from each transcript that fit in specific categories were grouped together.

Secondly, specific themes were analyzed during the study and auxiliary themes developed in the process. These content-based themes were developed in line with literature reviewed, theory and study objectives. Then, respondents’ subjective experiences were woven into narrative using their own words as much as possible. In the process, a bridge emerged linking research objective to raw data. In the end and for confidentiality, each respondent’s real name was changed to a case number when reporting findings following the recommendations of Berg.

### **3.10.2 Quantitative Data**

Quantitative data was cleaned, coded, entered into a computer for analysis with aid of Statistical Package Social Science (SPSS) version 23 computer software. Initially, for each objective data obtained was tested for assumption of normality, multicollinearity, autocorrelation and heteroscedasticity. Shapiro-Wilk test was used to ascertain normality of the data, Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) was used to test for multicollinearity while Durbin –Watson test was used to test for autocorrelation. Glejser test was used to test heteroscedasticity and thus ascertain homoscedasticity of the data (Meyers, Gamst & Guarino, 2005, Tabachnick & Fidel, 2006). Lastly, factor analysis was used to check for construct validity along with Cronbach’s Alpha reliability of the elements of the instrument. Each of these tests are presented and discussed in chapter four.

This study sought to test four hypotheses. The first hypothesis sought to test the influence of socio-economic practices on empowerment of communities; the second hypothesis sought to test the influence of sociocultural activities on empowerment of communities while the third hypothesis tested the influence of green initiatives on community empowerment. Lastly the fourth hypothesis sought to evaluate the mediating role of social innovations on the relationship between socio-entrepreneurial practices of the enterprises and community empowerment. Mean and standard deviation as well as frequency and percentages were used to describe data obtained. The study intended to obtain data on the variables using Likert scaled items weighted between 1-least influences through 3-average influence to 5-greatest influence. At the same time, extent of community empowerment was rated as low or high. Since all the variables were

categorical, hypothesis 1, 2 and 3 were tested using simple linear regression at 0.05 level of significance (Model 1). Hypothesis 4 was tested using multiple linear regression analysis of the hierarchical form (Model 1 and 2). The models of the equation adopted were;

$$\text{Model 1 } Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \varepsilon$$

$$\text{Model 2 } Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \varepsilon$$

Whereby: Y is Community empowerment;  $\beta_0$  is regression constant;  $\beta_1 - \beta_2$  are regression coefficients;  $X_1$  is either Socio-economic practices or Socio-cultural practices or Green initiatives while  $X_2$  is Social innovation and  $\varepsilon$  is error term.

## **CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

### **4.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents an analysis of data obtained from the study and discusses the findings as set out in the objectives. Both quantitative and qualitative research findings are presented and discussed.

#### **4.1.1 Response Rate**

A total of 210 respondents affiliated to 42 hotel enterprises along the coastal tourism circuit in Kwale, Mombasa and Kilifi Counties participated in the study. Additionally, information was sought from 6 civic leaders within the study locale. Compared to the projected sample of 197 beneficiaries and 8 civic leaders, the study achieved a return rate of 100.0% for beneficiaries and 75% for civic leaders. The response rate is deemed reliable for data analysis as per Babbie and Muoton (2002) who reported that any response rate of 50% and above is adequate for analysis.

### **4.2 Demographic Information**

Demographic information considered for review include location of the enterprise, length of operation and membership/classification status for hotel enterprises while for the beneficiaries' designation, age, gender and work experience were considered.

#### **4.2.1 Demographics of Hotel Enterprises**

The findings on the demographic information of hotel enterprises were as summarized in Table 4.4.



**Table 4.4. Demographic Characteristics of Hotel Enterprises**

<b>Characteristic</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Status: KAHC Member Yes	36	85.7
No	6	14.3
<b>Total</b>	<b>42</b>	<b>100.0</b>
TRA Rating Yes	23	54.8
No	19	45.2
<b>Total</b>	<b>42</b>	<b>100.0</b>
Location of Enterprise: Kwale	14	33.3
Mombasa	19	45.3
Kilifi	9	21.4
<b>Total</b>	<b>42</b>	<b>100.0</b>
Length of operation in years: Less than 10	10	23.8
10-20	12	28.6
More than 20	20	47.6
<b>Total</b>	<b>42</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Data obtained indicate that the enterprises were categorized based on two parameters, membership to the association (KAHC) and TRA rating (classification). Information obtained illustrated that more than three quarters of the enterprises (85.7%) were members of the association as compared to who were not. At the same time, slightly more of the enterprises (54.8%) were classified facilities. With regard to location, more of the enterprises were drawn from Mombasa (45.3%) and Kwale (33.3%) as compared to those from Kilifi (21.4%). Lastly, more than three quarters of the enterprises (76.2%) had been in operation for either between 10 and 20 years or for more than 20 years.

#### **4.2.2 Demographics of Respondents**

The study also sought to assess the demographics of respondents including those in employees, suppliers and beach operators around the hotel facilities. Those in

management positions in the hotel enterprises were also included in the study. Findings were as summarized in Table 4.5.

**Table 4.5. Demographic Characteristics of Respondents**

<b>Characteristic</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Gender: Male	155	73.8
Female	55	26.2
<b>Total</b>	<b>210</b>	<b>100.0</b>
Age in years: Below 35	27	12.8
35-50	136	64.8
Above 50	47	22.4
<b>Total</b>	<b>210</b>	<b>100.0</b>
Designation: Management	42	20.0
Employees	66	31.4
Suppliers	37	17.6
Beach operators	65	31.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>210</b>	<b>100.0</b>
Work Experience (yrs): Less than10	67	31.9
10-20	92	43.8
Above 20	51	24.3
<b>Total</b>	<b>210</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Information contained in Table 4.5 show that data was obtained from 210 respondents including enterprise management, employees, suppliers and beach operators plying their trade around the enterprises. A significant majority (73.8%) were male compared to females (26.2%), a majority were either youths or in middle age (77.6%) indicating a young and vibrant workforce and except for a paltry 20% who were in management positions, the rest were beneficiaries. Lastly, information obtained illustrated that more than six out of ten of the respondents had more than ten years of work experience and thus could provide credible information required for the study.

Additionally, 5 civic leaders participated in key informant interview and thus provided qualitative data. Their particulars are as summarized in Table 4.6.

**Table 4.6. Interviewee Identity**

Participant Code	Location
A	Shanzu
B	Malindi
C	Tiwi
D	Diani
E	Nyali

Table 4.6 shows that five civic leaders given identities A, B, C, D and E for the purposes of anonymity participated in the interview and thus provided qualitative data for the study. They were drawn from Diani and Tiwi in Kwale, Nyali and Shanzu in Mombasa Malindi. The civic leaders had work experience ranging from 2 to 12 years and consisted of 4 males and 1 female.

#### **4.2.3 Diagnostic Tests**

A number of diagnostic tests were performed to ascertain the suitability of data obtained for anticipated analysis. The data was tested for normality, multi-collinearity, homoscedasticity and auto-correlation. Further, reliability and construct validity were ascertained.

##### **4.2.3.1 Normality**

A test of the normality of data obtained was based on Shapiro-Wilk test. Findings were as presented on Table 4.7.

**Table 4.7. Tests of Normality**

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov <sup>a</sup>			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistics	df	Sig.	Statistics	df	Sig.
Socio-economic practices	.081	108	.074	.985	108	.254
Socio-cultural practices	.125	108	.051	.910	108	.064
Green initiatives	.099	108	.071	.951	108	.091
Social innovations	.170	108	.070	.921	108	.080
Community empowerment	.161	108	.100	.936	108	.143

Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests were performed to assess the distribution scores for the dependent and predictor variables. Results showed that the statistics for Shapiro-wilk test ranged between 0.910 (p=0.064) for socio-cultural practices and 0.985 (p=0.254) for socio-economic. Tabachnick and Fidell (2006) opine that if Shapiro-Wilk statistic test shows a non-significant result (Sig value of more than .05), then the data is normally distributed.

#### 4.2.3.2 Multicollinearity

Multicollinearity was evaluated using Variance Inflation Factors (VIF). Data obtained illustrated VIF values ranging between 1.56 (socio-economic practices) and 2.34 (green initiatives). The tolerance ranged between 0.421 and 0.733. These values are acceptable as per Haley, Snaith, and Miller (2005) who advocates for VIF value of 1.5 and 10. Table 4.8 contains these findings.

**Table 4.8. Multicollinearity Test**

Collinearity Statistics	
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	<b>Tolerance</b>	<b>VIF</b>
Socio-economic practices	.733	1.563
Socio-cultural practices	.468	2.137
Green initiatives	.421	2.375
Social innovation	.542	1.845

#### 4.2.3.3 Auto-correlation

Auto-correlation was assessed based on Durbin-Watson test. Findings were as presented in Table 4.9.

**Table 4.9. Durbin-Watson Test**

<b>Model</b>	<b>R</b>	<b>R Square</b>	<b>Adjusted R Square</b>	<b>Std. Error of the Estimate</b>	<b>Durbin-Watson</b>
<b>1</b>	.814 <sup>a</sup>	.662	.649	3.95928	2.180

Information contained in table 4.9 shows the multiple linear regression model summary and overall fit statistics. Adjusted R<sup>2</sup> of the model is .649 with the R<sup>2</sup> = .662. This means that the linear regression explains 66.2% of the variance in the data. The Durbin-Watson d = 2.18, is between the two critical values of 1.5 < d < 2.5. Therefore, we can assume that there is no first order linear auto-correlation in our multiple linear regression data.

#### 4.2.3.4 Heteroscedasticity

Heteroscedasticity was tested using the Glejser test. Findings established p values >0.05 for all the variables; p=.334, p=.054, p=.143 and p=.060 for socio-economic practices, socio-cultural, green initiatives and social innovations as presented in Table 4.10. It was thus deduced that there is no problem of heteroscedasticity.

**Table 4.10. Glejser Test for Heteroscedasticity**

	Unstandardized		Standardized	T	Sig.
	Coefficients		Coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	-2.621	2.643		-.992	.324
Socio-economic practices	.068	.071	.064	.961	.339
Socio-cultural practices	.143	.073	.163	1.952	.054
Green initiatives	.100	.068	.130	1.478	.143
Social innovation	.806	.109	.574	7.381	.060

#### 4.2.3.5 Reliability and Construct Validity

The study had a total of five broad constructs which included socio-economic practices, socio-cultural practices, green initiatives, social innovation and community empowerment. The constructs were further subdivided into subcontracts. In general, thirteen subcontracts were derived for the study, socio-economic socio-cultural and green initiatives each having three constructs while social innovation and community empowerment having two each.

Construct uni-dimensionality of the indicators of each sub construct were evaluated by subjecting them to reliability and exploratory factor analyses. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was based on principal component analysis with varimax rotation. Preceding this, the factor loadings, Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measures of sampling adequacy and p-values for Barlett's Test of Sphericity were evaluated to check the factorability of the items. For every EFA, it was found that manifest variables had KMO Measures of Sampling Adequacy above the threshold of 0.6 (Kaiser, Merten, & Wetzel, 2018). All p-values in Barlett's test of Sphericity were also found to be less than the significance level of 0.05 (Bartlett, 1954).

Factor loadings for all the items of each construct in the study were then assessed. Items that were found to have factor loadings below 0.4 were dropped from further analysis. In addition, the reliability and internal consistency of the items representing each construct was estimated. This was done by obtaining item to total correlation scores for each item for all the constructs in the study. The measurement scale for each construct was further refined by only retaining indicators that had item to total correlation values of above 0.3 for further analysis (Howaldt, Kopp & Schwarz, 2015). The following subsections explain in detail the process of determination of reliability and construct validity of each of the constructs.

#### **4.2.3.5.1 Socio-economic Practices**

Elements of socio-economic practices were divided into three subcontracts including employment of locals, involvement of locals in supplies and support for vulnerable persons. The reliability and construct validity of the three sub-constructs were as presented.

##### **Employment of Locals**

The Cronbach Alpha for the scale was high at 0.751. Exploratory factor analysis using principal component analysis with Varimax rotation revealed that all the factor loadings were above the acceptable threshold of 0.4 (they ranged from 0.456 to 0.798). Item to total correlations scores ranged from 0.420 to 0.685. Therefore, all the items under employment of locals were retained for further analysis since reliability and construct validity was confirmed. These results are shown in Table 4.11.

#### **Table 4.11. Reliability Analysis of Employment of Locals Construct**

	<b>Factor loading</b>	<b>Item-Total Correlation</b>	<b>Alpha if Item Deleted</b>
Employment of locals	.796	.685	.548
invol local community residents	.777	.655	.576
Involve locals in ownership of the enterprise	.456	.420	.843

Cronbach's Alpha=.751

### **Involvement of Locals in Supplies**

The Cronbach Alpha for the scale was high at 0.908. Exploratory factor analysis using principal component analysis with Varimax rotation revealed that all the factor loadings were above the acceptable threshold of 0.4 (they ranged from 0.815 to 0.866). Item to total correlations scores ranged from 0.786 to 0.838. Therefore, all the elements of involvement of locals in supplies were retained for further analysis since reliability and construct validity was confirmed. These results are shown in Table 4.12.

**Table 4.12. Reliability Analysis of Involvement of Locals in Supplies Construct**

	<b>Factor loading</b>	<b>Item-Total Correlation</b>	<b>Alpha if Item Deleted</b>
Purchasing from local suppliers	.815	.786	.893
Involvement of the local community in provision of services	.866	.838	.850
Suppliers from the local community	.854	.825	.861

Cronbach's Alpha=.908

### **Support for Vulnerable Persons**

The Cronbach Alpha for the scale was high at 0.882. Exploratory factor analysis using principal component analysis with Varimax rotation revealed that all the factor loadings



were above the acceptable threshold of 0.4 (they ranged from 0.529 to 0.789). Item to total correlations scores ranged from 0.840 to 0.886. Therefore, all the items under support for vulnerable persons were retained for further analysis since reliability and construct validity was confirmed. These results are shown in Table 4.13.

**Table 4.13. Reliability Analysis of Support for Vulnerable Persons Construct**

	<b>Factor loading</b>	<b>Item-Total Correlation</b>	<b>Alpha if Item Deleted</b>
Employment of youths	.625	.689	.862
Employment of women	.615	.683	.863
Employment of persons with disabilities	.421	.529	.886
Involvement of youths from the local community in supplies	.738	.772	.847
Involvement of women from the local community in supplies	.789	.811	.840
Involvement of persons with disability in supplies	.600	.672	.865

Cronbach's Alpha=.882

#### **4.2.3.5.2 Socio-cultural Practices**

Elements of socio-cultural practices were divided into three subcontracts including preservation of local culture, promotion of local heritage and adherence to legal framework. The reliability and construct validity of the three sub-constructs were as presented.

#### **Preservation of Local Culture**

The Cronbach Alpha for the scale was high at 0.815. Exploratory factor analysis using principal component analysis with Varimax rotation revealed that all the factor loadings were above the acceptable threshold of 0.4 (they ranged from 0.389 to 0.642). Item to total correlations scores ranged from 0.484 to 0.680. Therefore, all the items under preservation of local culture were retained for further analysis since reliability and construct validity was confirmed. These results are shown in Table 4.14.

**Table 4.14. Reliability Analysis of Preservation of Local Culture Construct**

	<b>Factor loading</b>	<b>Item-Total Correlation</b>	<b>Alpha if Item Deleted</b>
Sensitize tourists to acquaint themselves with the characteristics of the coastal people	.547	.592	.784
Encourages host communities to acquaint themselves with guest expectations, taste and lifestyles.	.486	.560	.789
Consciously promote responsible hospitality business and ethical values acceptable to the host Kenyan people.	.597	.646	.772
Observe and respect the social and cultural traditions and practices of locals including minorities.	.642	.680	.770
Sign and adhere to the code of conduct against child sex tourism	.389	.484	.806
Have clauses in contracts with suppliers warning against sexual exploitation of children	.556	.594	.791
Cronbach's Alpha=.815			

### **Promotion of Local Heritage**

The Cronbach Alpha for the scale was high at 0.870. Exploratory factor analysis using principal component analysis with Varimax rotation revealed that all the factor loadings were above the acceptable threshold of 0.4 (they ranged from 0.588 to 0.816). Item to

total correlations scores ranged from 0.615 to 0.805. Therefore, all the items under promotion of local heritage were retained for further analysis since reliability and construct validity was confirmed. These results are shown in Table 4.15.

**Table 4.15. Reliability of Promotion of Local Heritage Construct**

	<b>Factor loading</b>	<b>Item-Total Correlation</b>	<b>Alpha if Item Deleted</b>
Pursue activities harmonious with the attributes and traditions of the coastal region.	.737	.738	.829
Promotes harmonious co-existences for all residents and non-residents in host establishments	.747	.743	.825
Defend and preserve tourism facilities and all of elements of cultural or natural heritage	.816	.805	.799
Provide information to guests through catalogs, brochures, tickets slips, websites etc	.588	.615	.876
Grand Mean= 3.77; Cronbach's Alpha=.870			

**Adherence to Legal Framework**

Table 4.15 presents the reliability and validity measures of the elements. The Cronbach Alpha for the scale was high at 0.926. Exploratory factor analysis using principal component analysis with Varimax rotation revealed that all the factor loadings were above the acceptable threshold of 0.4 (they ranged from 0.596 to 0.830). Item to total correlations scores ranged from 0.684 to 0.861. Therefore, all the items under adherence to legal framework were retained for further analysis since reliability and construct validity was confirmed.

**Table 4.16. Reliability of Adherence to Legal Framework Construct**

	<b>Factor loading</b>	<b>Item-Total Correlation</b>	<b>Alpha if Item Deleted</b>
Pursue activities harmonious in respect for the established laws, practices and customs.	.779	.821	.908
Undertake measures that secures the safety of local recourses and communities	.830	.861	.902
The facility has in place mechanisms that discourage any act considered criminal by the laws of Kenya e.g children in sex tourism	.696	.756	.916
Defend and preserve tourism facilities and all of elements of cultural or natural heritage	.777	.821	.908
Discourage sexual tourism or exploitation of human beings in any form, and especially when applied to children and the mentally or physically challenged persons.	.710	.772	.914
Report criminal cases related that breach the local culture	.596	.684	.925
Grand Mean= 3.83; Cronbach's Alpha=.926			

#### **4.2.3.5.3 Green Initiatives**

As a construct, green initiative had three subcontracts including waste management, water and energy conservation and environmental conservation. The reliability and construct validity of the three sub-constructs were as presented.

#### **Waste Management**

Elements of waste management were mean rated 3.63 (SD=0.905, N=210). Recycling and composting programs was the least rated (M=3.15; SD=1.35) while portion control and donating from left over was the highest rated element (3.78; SD=1.06). The Cronbach Alpha for the scale was high at 0.713. Exploratory factor analysis using principal component analysis with Varimax rotation revealed that all the factor loadings were above the acceptable threshold of 0.4 (they ranged from 0.489 to 0.760). Item to

total correlations scores ranged from 0.421 to 0.643. Therefore, all the items under waste management were retained for further analysis since reliability and construct validity was confirmed. These results are shown in Table 4.17.

**Table 4.17. Reliability of Waste Management Construct**

	<b>Factor loading</b>	<b>Item-Total Correlation</b>	<b>Alpha if Item Deleted</b>
Portion control and donating from left over	.489	.421	.747
Recycling and composting programs	.760	.643	.472
Use of organic products	.659	.544	.607

Grand Mean= 3.63; Cronbach's Alpha=.713

### **Water and Energy Management**

The Cronbach Alpha for the scale was high at 0.873. Exploratory factor analysis using principal component analysis with Varimax rotation revealed that all the factor loadings were above the acceptable threshold of 0.4 (they ranged from 0.725 to 0.860). Item to total correlations scores ranged from 0.687 to 0.819. Therefore, all the items under water and energy management were retained for further analysis since reliability and construct validity was confirmed. Table 4.18 presents the reliability and validity measures of the elements.

**Table 4.18. Reliability of Water and Energy Management Construct**

	<b>Factor loading</b>	<b>Item-Total Correlation</b>	<b>Alpha if Item Deleted</b>
The facility have in use water saving devices	.725	.687	.882
The facility have in use energy saving devices	.860	.819	.762
The facility use alternative energy forms	.811	.766	.812
Grand Mean= 3.57; Cronbach's Alpha=.873			

**Environment Conservation**

The Cronbach Alpha for the scale was high at 0.918. Exploratory factor analysis using principal component analysis with Varimax rotation revealed that all the factor loadings were above the acceptable threshold of 0.4 (they ranged from 0.659 to 0.819). Item to total correlations scores ranged from 0.715 to 0.826. Therefore, all the items under environmental conservation were retained for further analysis since reliability and construct validity was confirmed. Table 4.19 presents the reliability and validity measures of the elements.

**Table 4.19. Reliability of Environment Conservation Construct**

	<b>Factor loading</b>	<b>Item-Total Correlation</b>	<b>Alpha if Item Deleted</b>
Reducing use of harmful detergents	.697	.743	.909
Reducing the frequency of changing linen and towel	.659	.715	.914
Educate and sensitize staff on environmental issues	.819	.841	.889
Educate and sensitize guest on environmental issues through promotion materials	.802	.826	.892
Practice supplier policies that incorporate social and environmental considerations	.794	.820	.893
Grand Mean= 3.51; Cronbach's Alpha=.918			

#### 4.2.3.5.4 Social Innovation

Elements of social innovation were divided into two subcontracts including welfare and equity. The reliability and construct validity of the sub-constructs were as presented.

##### **Welfare**

The Cronbach Alpha for the scale was high at 0.920. Exploratory factor analysis using principal component analysis with Varimax rotation revealed that all the factor loadings were above the acceptable threshold of 0.4 (they ranged from 0.841 to 0.862). Item to total correlations scores stood at 0.852. Therefore, all the items under welfare were retained for further analysis since reliability and construct validity was confirmed. These results are shown in Table 4.20.

**Table 4.20. Reliability of Welfare Construct**

	<b>Factor loading</b>	<b>Item-Total Correlation</b>	<b>Alpha if Item Deleted</b>
Practices aimed at contributing towards empowerment of groups	.841	.852	-
Practices aimed at contributing towards social relations	.862	.852	-

Grand Mean= 3.10; Cronbach's Alpha=.920

##### **Equity**

The Cronbach Alpha for the scale was high at 0.874. Exploratory factor analysis using principal component analysis with Varimax rotation revealed that all the factor loadings were above the acceptable threshold of 0.4 (they ranged from 0.741 to 0.795). Item to total correlations scores ranged from 0.751 to 0.763. Therefore, all the items under

preservation of local culture were retained for further analysis since reliability and construct validity was confirmed. These results are shown in Table 4.21.

**Table 4.21. Reliability of Equity Construct**

	<b>Factor loading</b>	<b>Item-Total Correlation</b>	<b>Alpha if Item Deleted</b>
Practices aimed at satisfying human needs	.741	.763	.816
Practices aimed at contributing towards individual empowerment	.748	.757	.822
Practices intended to create equality, justice and empowerment	.795	.751	.827

Grand Mean= 3.43; Cronbach's Alpha=.874

#### **4.2.3.5.5 Community Empowerment**

Elements of community empowerment were divided into two subconstructs including training opportunity and civic engagement. The reliability and construct validity of the sub-constructs were as presented.

#### **Training Opportunity**

The Cronbach Alpha for the scale was high at 0.943. Exploratory factor analysis using principal component analysis with Varimax rotation revealed that all the factor loadings were above the acceptable threshold of 0.4 (they ranged from 0.798 to 0.874). Item to total correlations scores ranged from 0.803 to 0.892. Therefore, all the items under training opportunity were retained for further analysis since reliability and construct validity was confirmed. These results are shown in Table 4.22.



**Table 4.22. Reliability of Training Opportunity Construct**

	<b>Factor loading</b>	<b>Item-Total Correlation</b>	<b>Alpha if Item Deleted</b>
Training in sustainable and modern business standards	.803	.873	.922
Facilitating them to scan the environment for challenges and opportunities.	.836	.888	.917
Facilitating them to design and implement actionable plans.	.874	.892	.916
Educating and training of communities to be hospitable and welcoming	.798	.803	.944

Grand Mean= 3.22; Cronbach's Alpha=.943

**Civic Engagements**

The Cronbach Alpha for the scale was high at 0.927. Exploratory factor analysis using principal component analysis with Varimax rotation revealed that all the factor loadings were above the acceptable threshold of 0.4 (they ranged from 0.788 to 0.837). Item to total correlations scores ranged from 0.841 to 0.868. Therefore, all the items under civic engagement were retained for further analysis since reliability and construct validity was confirmed. These results are shown in Table 4.23.

**Table 4.23. Reliability of Civic Engagements Construct**

	<b>Factor loading</b>	<b>Item-Total Correlation</b>	<b>Alpha if Item Deleted</b>
Facilitating them to establish networks for welfare.	.837	.841	.903
Facilitating citizens' participation in civic activities.	.799	.868	.881
Coordination with local communities to protect investments.	.788	.845	.900

Grand Mean= 3.17; Cronbach's Alpha=.927

Table 4.24 compares the reliability index for constructs in the questionnaire obtained during piloting and the actual study.

**Table 4.24. Reliability Index of Socio-entrepreneurial Practices**

Variable	Pilot Data		Study Data	
	N	Cronbach's Alpha	N	Cronbach's Alpha
Community empowerment	7	0.910	7	0.962
Socio-economic activities	8	0.603	16	0.954
Socio-cultural Activities	12	0.895	16	0.923
Green Initiatives	11	0.917	11	0.915
Social Innovation	5	0.875	5	0.936

Results presented in Table 4.24 show that the questionnaire items for community empowerment, socio-cultural practices, green initiatives and social innovation yielded a reliability index of more than 0.7000 while that of the socio-economic practices was slightly 0.7000. Adjustments were made on the instruments as stated under validity and on use in the actual study, all the variables attained reliability greater than 0.9000. Specifically, elements of socio-economic practices attained the greatest positive deviation from 0.603 to 0.954, elements of social innovation attained 0.936 from 0.875 while those of socio-cultural merited the next largest positive deviation to stand at 0.923. The high reliability index of the variables implies high reliability of all the elements of all the variables.

### **4.3 Extent of Social Entrepreneurial Practices**

The study sought to assess the role of hoteliers' social entrepreneurship practices on empowerment of communities within the coastal tourism circuit in Kenya. Specifically, the role of socio-economic, socio-cultural, green initiatives and social innovations were

explored. Descriptive findings are presented in this section sequentially as per the objectives.

#### 4.3.1 Extent of Socio-economic Practices

The extent of socio-economic practices as adopted by the hotel enterprises was assessed based on eight statements. Findings were as illustrated in Table 4.25.

**Table 4.25. Hoteliers' Socio-economic Practices**

<b>Elements of SE Practices</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>SD</b>
Purchasing from local suppliers	3.37	1.41
Employment of locals	3.56	1.23
Involvement of the local community in supplies	3.22	1.37
Employment of local community residents	3.34	1.30
Involve locals in ownership of the enterprise	2.20	1.29
Employment of youths	3.35	1.29
Employment of women	3.03	1.23
Employment of persons with disabilities	1.94	1.19
<b>Grand Mean</b>	<b>3.00</b>	<b>1.29</b>

Information contained show that adoption of socio-economic practices by the hotel enterprises was mean rated at 3.00 (SD=1.29) out of 5 indicating that according to a majority of the respondents, the SE practices were fairly in use by the enterprises. Specifically, employment of locals (M=3.56; SD=1.23) attained the highest rating by the respondents followed by purchasing from local suppliers (M=3.37; SD=1.41) and employment of youths (M=3.35; SD=1.29) in decreasing order. However, employment of persons with disabilities (M=1.94; SD=1.19) merited the lowest rating indicating that it's the SE practice least embraced by the enterprises according to a majority of the respondents.

The study further sought to specifically establish the extent to which employment of locals and engagement of locals as suppliers of goods and services was being undertaken by the hotel enterprises. Findings were as illustrated in Table 4.26 and 4.27 respectively.

**Table 4.26. Employment of locals**

<b>Category</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>SD</b>
Employees from the local community	3.41	1.22
Youths from the local community	3.34	1.18
Women from the local community	2.96	1.30
Persons with disability	1.82	1.06
<b>Grand Mean</b>	<b>2.88</b>	<b>1.19</b>

Findings illustrated that comparatively, employment of locals was mean rated at 2.88 (SD=1.19) implying that the enterprises had fairly adopted employment of locals as a socio-economic practice confirming the earlier established above average mean rating of elements associated with employment of locals. Generally, employees from the local community merited the highest rating (M=3.41; SD=1.22) followed by employment of youths from the local community (M=3.34; SD=1.18) while employment of women (M=2.96; SD=1.30) and persons with disabilities (M=1.82; SD=1.06) were the least practiced. A similar trend was observed with regard to engagement of locals in supply of goods and services by the hotel enterprises as is illustrated in Table 4.27.

**Table 4.27. Supply of Goods and Services**

<b>Category</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>SD</b>
Suppliers from the local community	3.25	1.40
Youths from the local community	2.87	1.30
Women from the local community	2.63	1.37
Persons with disability	1.74	1.10
<b>Grand Mean</b>	<b>2.62</b>	<b>1.29</b>

Specifically, data obtained indicated that engagement of suppliers from the local community attained the most favourable mean rating (M=3.25; SD=1.40), youths and women from the local community merited slightly above average mean rating (M=2.87; SD=1.30: M=2.63; SD=1.37) while engagement of persons with disabilities obtained the least mean rating (M=1.74; SD=1.10). It can therefore be deduced that while the enterprises were engaged in practices that appeared to empower the local community economically through employment and engagement in supply of goods and services, their practice of affirmative action with regard to youth, women and persons with disabilities were still very weak. The study thus clustered the elements of SE practices into elements that relates to employment, supplies and support to vulnerable groups of persons. They were then cross-tabulated against category of respondents (management, employees, suppliers and beach operators) and the observation of each established as illustrated in Table 4.28, 4.29 and 4.30.

**Table 4.28. Employment of Locals against Respondents Category**

		<b>Designation</b>				<b>Total</b>
		Management	Employee	Supplier	Beach operator	
Low	Count	3	7	7	42	59
	% of Total	1.4%	3.3%	3.3%	20.0%	28.1%
Moderate	Count	19	33	8	14	74
	% of Total	9.0%	15.7%	3.8%	6.7%	35.2%
High	Count	20	26	22	9	77
	% of Total	9.5%	12.4%	10.5%	4.3%	36.7%
Total		42	66	37	65	210
%		20.0%	31.4%	17.6%	31.0%	100.0%

As was expected, data obtained indicated that a majority of respondents in management positions within the enterprises rated adoption of employment of locals highly (9.5%) or moderately (9.0%) as compared to those who rated its level of adoption to be low (1.4%). A similar trend was reported by suppliers with a majority reporting high (10.5%) levels of employment of locals. However, a majority of employees (15.7%) reported moderate rates of adoption of the practice and a majority of beach operators (20.0%) indicated low rate of employment of locals. Corroborating findings were observed with regard to results of cross tabulation of involvement of locals in supplies, a majority of those in management and suppliers reporting high rates of involvement of locals in supplies (9.0% and 8.1% respectively) compared to those who reported moderate and low levels of adoption of the practice. More of beach operators (21.0%) reporting low rates of engagement of locals in supply of goods and services while a majority of employees reporting moderate rates of engagement (13.8%).

**Table 4.29. Involvement of Locals in supplies Against Respondents Category**

		<b>Designation</b>				<b>Total</b>
		Management	Employee	Supplier	Beach operator	
Low	Count	6	15	4	44	69
	% of Total	2.9%	7.1%	1.9%	21.0%	32.9%
	Total					
Moderate	Count	17	29	16	17	79
	% of Total	8.1%	13.8%	7.6%	8.1%	37.6%
	Total					
High	Count	19	22	17	4	62
	% of Total	9.0%	10.5%	8.1%	1.9%	29.5%
	Total					
<b>Total</b>		42	66	37	65	210
<b>% of Total</b>		20.0%	31.4%	17.6%	31.0%	100.0%

With regard to support for vulnerable persons, a majority of respondents in management positions, employees and suppliers (13.3%, 14.8% and 8.6% respectively) reported moderate levels as compared to those who scored for high or low levels of adoption of the practice. Contradictory findings were observed for beach operators, a majority (25.7%) rating hotel enterprise level of support for vulnerable persons as low. This observation is illustrated in Table 4.30.

**Table 4.30. Support for vulnerable persons Against Respondents Category**

		<b>Designation</b>				<b>Total</b>
		Management	Employee	Supplier	Beach operator	
Low	Count	7	20	13	54	94
	% of Total	3.3%	9.5%	6.2%	25.7%	44.8%
	Total					
Moderate	Count	28	31	18	9	86
	% of Total	13.3%	14.8%	8.6%	4.3%	41.0%
	Total					
High	Count	7	15	6	2	30
	% of Total	3.3%	7.1%	2.9%	1.0%	14.3%
	Total					
<b>Total</b>		42	66	37	65	210
<b>% of Total</b>		20.0%	31.4%	17.6%	31.0%	100.0%

In general, findings illustrated favourable ratings by a majority of respondents in management positions and suppliers for adoption of the socio-economic practices by hotel enterprises as compared to those who felt rate of adoption was moderate or low. Employees on their part indicated moderate levels of adoption of the practices while beach operators felt the level of adoption of socio-economic practices by the hotel enterprises were still low. This means that whereas those in management being implementers of policies to operationalize the practices were expected to give more

favourable ratings since they are required as an obligation for association membership or for TRA rating (classification) to adhere to such practices. Suppliers as direct beneficiaries of hotel enterprises' socio-economic practices within very competitive supply chain with limited opportunities would be obliged to give a favourable rating. Beach operators on the other hand being providers of goods and services perceived to be in completion with hotel enterprises may provide contradictory observation. The findings as conformed to assertions by Ikwaye et al. (2016), also confirm adoption of socio-economic practices by hotel enterprises within the coastal tourism circuit in Kenya.

#### **4.3.2 Extent of Socio-cultural Practices**

The study also sought to assess the extent of adoption of socio-cultural practices as an aspect of hotel enterprises socio-entrepreneurial practices aimed at empowering local communities within the coastal tourism circuit in Kenya. Findings on elements of socio-cultural practices were as summarised in Table 4.28. Data obtained show that adoption of socio-cultural practices by the hotel enterprises was mean rated at 3.70 (SD=1.38) out of 5 indicating that according to a majority of the respondents, adoption of socio-cultural practices by the enterprises was fairly evident. A majority of the respondents indicated that the attempts to refrain from all trafficking in illicit drugs, arms, antiques, protected species and products and substances that are dangerous or prohibited by state law and regulations (M=4.04; SD=1.39) was the most adopted practice hence its high rating by the respondents followed by attempt to discourage sexual tourism or exploitation of human beings in any form, and especially when applied to children and the mentally or physically challenged persons (M=4.01; SD=1.38) and attempts to defend and preserve



tourism facilities and all of elements of cultural or natural heritage (M=3.71; SD=1.48) in decreasing order.

**Table 4.31. Hoteliers' Socio-cultural Practices**

<b>Activity</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>SD</b>
Sensitize tourists to acquaint themselves with the characteristics of the coastal people.	3.26	1.37
Encourages host communities to acquaint themselves with guest expectations, taste and lifestyles.	3.54	1.31
Pursue activities harmonious with the attributes and traditions of the coastal region.	3.76	1.28
Pursue activities harmonious in respect for the established laws, practices and customs.	3.70	1.35
Consciously promote responsible hospitality business and ethical values acceptable to the host Kenyan people.	3.65	1.40
Undertake measures that secures the safety of local recourses and communities	3.67	1.39
Promotes harmonious co-existences for all residents and non-residents in host establishments	3.70	1.38
The facility has in place mechanisms that discourage any act considered criminal by the laws of Kenya e.g children in sex tourism.	3.64	1.40
Defend and preserve tourism facilities and all of elements of cultural or natural heritage.	3.71	1.48
Observe and respect the social and cultural traditions and practices of locals including minorities.	3.68	1.40
Refrain from all trafficking in illicit drugs, arms, antiques, protected species and products and substances that are dangerous or prohibited by state law and regulations.	4.04	1.39
Discourage sexual tourism or exploitation of human beings in any form, and especially when applied to children and the mentally or physically challenged persons.	4.01	1.42
<b>Grand Mean</b>	<b>3.70</b>	<b>1.38</b>

However, the act of sensitizing tourists to acquaint themselves with the characteristics of the coastal people (M=3.26; SD=1.37) and attempt to encourages host communities to acquaint themselves with guest expectations, taste and lifestyles (M=3.54; SD=1.31) merited the lowest rating. This implies that with regard to adoption of socio-cultural

initiatives, not enough was being done by the hotel enterprises to educate tourists and the local communities on how best to coexist. This could explain some of the reported cases of misunderstandings and cultural conflicts between tourists and host communities.

Adoption of elements specific to adherence to legal provisions as attributes of socio-cultural practices was as illustrated in Table 4.32.

**Table 4.32. Legal Provisions**

<b>Specific Activity</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>SD</b>
Sign and adhere to the code of conduct against child sex tourism	4.69	0.69
Have clauses in contracts with suppliers warning against sexual exploitation of children	3.51	1.49
Provide information to guests through catalogs, brochures, tickets slips, websites etc	3.91	1.38
Report criminal cases related that breach the local culture	3.95	1.33
<b>Grand Mean</b>	<b>4.02</b>	<b>1.22</b>

Information obtained indicated that adoption of legal provisions by the enterprises as attributes of socio-cultural practices was mean rated at 4.02 (SD=1.22) indicating that according to a majority of the respondents, enterprises adoption of the practices was fairly good. Signing and adherence to the code of conduct against child sex tourism was the most prominent legal provision adopted by the enterprises (M=4.69; SD=0.69). Other practices highly rated include reporting criminal cases related that breach the local culture (M=3.95; SD=1.33), providing information to guests through catalogs, brochures, tickets slips, websites etc (M=3.91; SD=1.38) and having clauses in contracts with suppliers warning against sexual exploitation of children (M=3.51; SD=1.49) in decreasing order.

The elements of socio-cultural practices were clustered into three sub-variables: elements related to preservation of local culture/norms, that relates to promotion of local traditions/heritage and elements related to that relates to adherence to legal framework. A cross tabulation of each of the cluster of elements against respondents category was sought to compare the perception of different respondents with regard to adoption of the elements. Findings were as presented in Tables 4.33, 4.34 and 4.35.

**Table 4.33. Preservation of Local Culture**

		Designation		Total
		Management	Employee	
Low	Count	4	9	13
	% of Total	3.7%	8.3%	12.0%
Moderate	Count	8	16	24
	% of Total	7.4%	14.8%	22.2%
High	Count	30	41	71
	% of Total	27.8%	38.0%	65.7%
	Count	42	66	108
	% of Total	38.9%	61.1%	100.0%

Results from cross tabulation showed that more of the respondents (management and employees) reported higher level of preservation of local culture (27.8% and 38.0% respectively) compared to those reporting moderate levels (7.4% and 14.8% respectively) and low levels (3.7% and 8.3% respectively). Similarly, more of those in management, employees and suppliers (16.7%, 27.6% and 13.8% respectively) reported higher levels of promotion of local heritage by the enterprises compared to those reporting moderate levels (2.4%, 2.9% and 2.4% respectively) and low levels (1.0%, 1.0% and 1.4% respectively) as shown in Table 4.14. However, more of beach operators reported low levels for promotion of local heritage (12.4%) compared to high (9.5%) and moderate levels (9.0%).

**Table 4.34. Promotion of Local Heritage**

		<b>Designation</b>				<b>Total</b>	
		Management	Employee	Supplier	Beach operator		
Low	Count	2	2	3	26	33	
	% of	1.0%	1.0%	1.4%	12.4%	15.7%	
	Total						
Moderate	Count	5	6	5	19	35	
	% of	2.4%	2.9%	2.4%	9.0%	16.7%	
	Total						
High	Count	35	58	29	20	142	
	% of	16.7%	27.6%	13.8%	9.5%	67.6%	
	Total						
<b>Total</b>		Count	42	66	37	65	210
		% of	20.0%	31.4%	17.6%	31.0%	100.0%
<b>Total</b>							

At the same time, more of those in management, employees and suppliers (18.1%, 27.1% and 13.3% respectively) reported higher levels of adherence to legal framework by the enterprises compared to those reporting moderate levels (1.4%, 3.8% and 2.4% respectively) and low levels (0.5%, 0.4% and 1.9% respectively) as shown in Table 4.32. However, more of beach operators reported low levels for adherence (14.8%) compared to moderate (9.0%) and high levels (7.1%).

**Table 4.35. Adherence to legal framework**

		<b>Designation</b>				<b>Total</b>
		Management	Employee	Supplier	Beach operator	
Low	Count	1	1	4	31	37
	% of Total	0.5%	0.5%	1.9%	14.8%	17.6%
Moderate	Count	3	8	5	19	35
	% of Total	1.4%	3.8%	2.4%	9.0%	16.7%
High	Count	38	57	28	15	138
	% of Total	18.1%	27.1%	13.3%	7.1%	65.7%
	Count	42	66	37	65	210
	% of Total	20.0%	31.4%	17.6%	31.0%	100.0%

#### **4.3.3 Extent of Green Initiatives**

At the same time, the study sought to assess the extent of adoption of green initiatives as an aspect of hotel enterprises socio-entrepreneurial practices aimed at empowering local communities. Adoption of green initiatives by the hotel enterprises was mean rated at 3.49 (SD=1.30) out of 5 indicating that according to a majority of the respondents, their adoption was fairly good. A majority of the respondents acknowledged adoption of portion control and donating from left over thus its high mean rating (M=3.78; SD=1.06). It was followed by use energy saving devices (M=3.66; SD=1.36), educating and sensitizing staff on environmental issues (M=3.64; SD=1.34), use alternative energy forms and reducing use of harmful detergents (M=3.54; SD=1.32) in decreasing order. However, adoption of recycling and composting programs (M=3.15; SD=1.35) and use of organic products (M=3.16; SD=1.34) merited the lowest rating indicating that they

are the green initiatives least embraced by the enterprises according to a majority of the respondents. Table 4.36 presents this information.

**Table 4.36. Hoteliers' Adoption of Green Initiatives**

<b>Activity</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>SD</b>
Portion control and donating from left over	3.78	1.06
Recycling and composting programs	3.15	1.35
Use of organic products	3.16	1.34
Reducing use of harmful detergents	3.54	1.31
Reducing the frequency of changing linen and towel	3.53	1.31
Educate and sensitize staff on environmental issues	3.64	1.34
Educate and sensitize guest on environmental issues through promotion materials	3.42	1.33
Practice supplier policies that incorporate social and environmental considerations	3.44	1.28
The facility have in use water saving devices	3.50	1.35
The facility have in use energy saving devices	3.66	1.36
The facility use alternative energy forms	3.54	1.32
<b>Grand Mean</b>	<b>3.49</b>	<b>1.30</b>

The elements of green initiatives were clustered into four sub-variables: elements related to waste management, water management, energy conservation and elements related to environmental conservation. A cross tabulation of each of the cluster of elements against respondents category was sought to compare the perception of different respondents with regard to adoption of the elements. Findings were as presented in Tables 4.37, 4.38, 4.39 and 4.40.

**Table 4.37. Waste Management**

		<b>Designation</b>		<b>Total</b>
		Management	Employee	
Low	Count	4	5	9
	% of Total	3.7%	4.6%	8.3%
Moderate	Count	17	25	42
	% of Total	15.7%	23.1%	38.9%
High	Count	21	36	57
	% of Total	19.4%	33.3%	52.8%
	Count	42	66	108
	% of Total	38.9%	61.1%	100.0%

Results from cross tabulation showed that more of the respondents (management and employees) reported higher level of waste management (19.4%and 33.3% respectively) compared to those reporting moderate levels (15.7% and 23.1% respectively) and low levels (3.7% and 4.6% respectively). Results for water management were as recorded in Table 4.38.

**Table 4.38. Water Management**

		<b>Designation</b>				<b>Total</b>
		Management	Employee	Supplier	Beach operator	
Low	Count	0	6	2	29	37
	% of Total	0.0%	2.9%	1.0%	13.8%	17.6%
	Total					
Moderate	Count	18	16	10	21	65
	% of Total	8.6%	7.6%	4.8%	10.0%	31.0%
	Total					
High	Count	24	44	25	15	108
	% of Total	11.4%	21.0%	11.9%	7.1%	51.4%
	Total					
	Count	42	66	37	65	210
	% of Total	20.0%	31.4%	17.6%	31.0%	100.0%

Similarly, more of those in management, employees and suppliers (11.4%, 21.0% and 11.9% respectively) reported higher extent of water management by the enterprises compared to those reporting moderate levels (8.6%, 7.6% and 4.8% respectively) and low levels (0.0%, 2.9% and 1.0% respectively) as shown in Table 4.14. However, more of beach operators reported low levels for water management (13.8%) compared to moderate (10.0%) and high levels (7.1%). Adoption of energy conservation was as illustrated in Table 4.39.

**Table 4.39. Energy Conservation**

		<b>Designation</b>				<b>Total</b>
		Management	Employee	Supplier	Beach operator	
Low	Count	3	7	4	27	41
	% of Total	1.4%	3.3%	1.9%	12.9%	19.5%
	Total					
Moderate	Count	10	14	8	15	47
	% of Total	4.8%	6.7%	3.8%	7.1%	22.4%
	Total					
High	Count	29	45	25	23	122
	% of Total	13.8%	21.4%	11.9%	11.0%	58.1%
	Total					
Total		42	66	37	65	210
		20.0%	31.4%	17.6%	31.0%	100.0%

Results obtain show that almost as much as twice as much as those in management, employees and suppliers (13.8%, 21.4% and 11.0% respectively) reported adopting energy conservation by the enterprises compared to those reporting moderate levels (4.8%, 6.7% and 3.8% respectively) and low levels (1.4%, 3.3% and 1.9% respectively) as shown in Table 4.19. However, more of beach operators reported low levels of



adoption of energy conservation (12.9%) compared to high (11.0%) and moderate levels (7.1%). Adoption of environment conservation was as indicated in Table 4.40.

**Table 4.40. Environmental Conservation**

		<b>Designation</b>				<b>Total</b>
		Management	Employee	Supplier	Beach operator	
Low	Count	2	4	2	32	40
	% of Total	1.0%	1.9%	1.0%	15.2%	19.0%
Moderate	Count	9	17	11	17	54
	% of Total	4.3%	8.1%	5.2%	8.1%	25.7%
High	Count	31	45	24	16	116
	% of Total	14.8%	21.4%	11.4%	7.6%	55.2%
	Count	42	66	37	65	210
	% of Total	20.0%	31.4%	17.6%	31.0%	100.0%

Information contained in Table 4.40 shows that more of those in management, employees and suppliers (14.8%, 21.4% and 11.4% respectively) reported higher levels of environment conservation by the enterprises compared to those reporting moderate levels (4.3%, 8.1% and 5.2% respectively) and low levels (1.0%, 1.9% and 1.0% respectively). However, more of beach operators reported low levels for promotion of local heritage (15.2%) compared to those who scored for moderate (8.1%) and high levels of adoption (7.6%).

#### **4.3.4 Extent of Social Innovations**

Lastly, the study sought to assess the extent of adoption of social innovations as an aspect of hotel enterprises socio-entrepreneurial practices aimed at empowering local

communities. Findings on elements of green initiatives were as summarised in Table 4.41.

**Table 4.41. Hoteliers' Adoption of Social Innovation**

<b>Enterprise engages in:</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>SD</b>
Practices aimed at satisfying human needs	3.58	1.37
Practices aimed at contributing towards individual empowerment	3.37	1.33
Practices aimed at contributing towards empowerment of groups	3.05	1.37
Practices aimed at contributing towards social relations	3.15	1.36
Practices intended to create equality, justice and empowerment	3.33	1.38
<b>Grand Mean</b>	<b>3.30</b>	<b>1.36</b>

Data obtained show that adoption of social innovations was mean rated at 3.30 (SD=1.36) out of 5 indicating that according to a majority of the respondents, the practices were fairly evident. A majority of the respondents indicated that practices aimed at satisfying human needs (M=3.58; SD=1.37) was the most adopted innovation hence its high rating by the respondents followed by practices aimed at contributing towards individual empowerment (M=3.37; SD=1.33) and practices intended to create equality, justice and empowerment (M=3.33; SD=1.38) in decreasing order. However, practices aimed at contributing towards empowerment of groups (M=3.05; SD=1.37) and practices aimed at contributing towards social relations (M=3.15; SD=1.36) merited the lowest rating. This implies that with regard to adoption of social innovations, empowerment of groups and issues related to social relations were not yet adequately catered for compared to other innovations.

#### **4.3.5 Discussion of Findings on Extent of Socio-entrepreneurial practices**

The study to begin with sought to determine the extent of adoption of socio-economic practices by the hotel enterprises. Adoption of the SE practices was mean rated at 3.00 (SD=1.29) out of 5 indicating that according to a majority of the respondents, the SE practices were fairly in use by the enterprises. Employment of locals attained the highest rating followed by purchasing from local suppliers and employment of youths in decreasing order. However, employment of persons with disabilities merited the lowest rating. Palmås (2003) in a study acknowledged the involvement of social enterprises in enhancing employment abilities for non-employed or socially undermined groups. Haugh (2006) in reporting on case studies undertaken in two administrative regions in north-east Scotland observed that from six community enterprises involved in the study, income had been generated from external sources. At different times in the study, each enterprise had recruited at least one employee and by the end of the study, three had long term employment contracts with at least one employee. Thus, each venture had generated measurable, direct economic outcomes. In addition, each community enterprise had generated indirect economic outcomes. Income had been deployed to pay employees, purchase assets, attract business investment and host events that would bring visitors to the area.

With regard to socio-cultural practices, extent of adoption was mean rated at 3.70 (SD=1.38) indicating that a majority of the respondents consider level of adoption of socio-cultural practices to be fairly evident. Practices including attempts to refrain from all trafficking in illicit drugs, arms, antiques, protected species and products and

substances that are dangerous or prohibited by state law and regulations were highly rated. Others including attempt to discourage sexual tourism or exploitation of human beings in any form, and especially when applied to children and the mentally or physically challenged persons and attempts to defend and preserve tourism facilities and all of elements of cultural or natural heritage equally received relatively high rating. However, sensitization of tourists to acquaint themselves with the characteristics of the coastal people and encouraging host communities to acquaint themselves with guest expectations, taste and lifestyles were not highly rated implying less attention. It means according to a majority of the respondents, not enough was being done by the hotel enterprises to educate tourists and the local communities on how best to coexist. This could explain some of the reported cases of misunderstandings and cultural conflicts between tourists and host communities. Tsartas (2003) described the development of tourism along the coastal zone of the Greek insular and some Greek islands during the 1970 to 2000 period. The study which focused on socio-economic and cultural aspects on analysis of the changes isolated a number of development policies on the local, regional and national level.

Adoption of elements specific to adherence to legal provisions as attributes of socio-cultural indicated fairly high level of adoption, the variable meriting a mean rating of 4.02 (SD=1.22). Signing and adherence to the code of conduct against child sex tourism was the most prominent legal provision adopted by the enterprises. This is attributed to the fact that signing and adherence to the code of conduct against child sex tourism is a membership obligation for all members of the association as well as a contractual

obligation for tour operators who operate in key source markets. Other practices highly rated include reporting criminal cases related that breach the local culture, providing information to guests through catalogs, brochures, tickets slips, websites etc and having clauses in contracts with suppliers warning against sexual exploitation of children. Stem et al. (2003) reported disintegration of the local community due to introduction of tourism activities in Costa Rica. According to some local residents, since people were more dependent on the profits from tourists, they were more willing to help visitors rather than their relatives. This caused a disintegration of the communities and even the families. Family traditions became less important, because those in contact tourists tried to copy their customs and behaviour. Secondly, local residents complained of increased proliferation of drugs and alcohol whose abuse was on the increase. Use or consumption of such substances resulted in a change of custom of the local community.

Green initiatives equally merited above average mean rating ( $M=3.49$ ,  $SD=1.30$ ) indicating that according to a majority of the respondents, their adoption was fairly good. Practices including adoption of portion control and donating from left over were highly rated. Others include use energy saving devices, educating and sensitizing staff on environmental issues, use alternative energy forms and reducing use of harmful detergents. However, adoption of recycling and composting programs as well as use of organic products were lowly rated rating indicating that they are the green initiatives least embraced by the enterprises according to a majority of the respondents. Previous research indicates that the level of hotels' commitment to waste sorting and recycling varies, depending on regulatory pressures and local government's support. For example,

European hotels actively implement waste sorting and recycling programs in offices and kitchens, but not in guestrooms (Erdogan & Baris, 2007) while Ghanaian hotels are less committed to recycling programs, with only 17 percent of sampled hotels adopting recycling programs (Mensah, 2006). According to Alexandar and Kennedy, (2002) food waste can be reduced by activities such as donation though sometimes there is controversy on the issue of sanitation and hygiene. The second contributing factor to food waste is related to the nature of the cooking itself. Bohdanowicz, (2005) states that overcooking, over preparation, cooking losses or packaging failure quickly lead to the accumulation of food waste. However reduction efforts to reduce solid waste such as non-waxed paper products, cans or plastics are relatively undemanding as compared to food waste reduction. Mishra (2016) in a study entitled how green are our hotels; evidence from Thailand observed that all hotels had an environmental policy and they trained staff to be eco-friendly. They recycled waste, encouraged guests to be eco-friendly and reused linen towels. They use energy efficient bulbs, provide energy efficient appliances, use eco-friendly cleaning products, they have a manager in charge of environmental management and support the local community in which the hotel is located. They purchase in bulk to reduce packaging and composted food leftovers. They use low-flow shower heads/low-flow sink aerators and installed dual flush toilets. There are also other practices where the percentage of hotels practicing that is very less. For example, no air conditioners, installation of solar hot water systems, supported environmental NGOs in cash or kind and submitted environmental management programme to the environmental protection agency (EPA). The hotels were also asked what they do with their food leftovers. A majority of them sell it to pig farms. Some of

them donate to prisons, nearby temples, local homeless people or feed earthworms. Most of the hotels have a wastewater treatment plant. They clean the used water and use it again in the garden area. Individually, the hotels are trying their best to deal with the negative environmental impacts.

At the same time, findings indicated community involvement in environmental conservation programs including educating and sensitizing staff on environmental issues. This finding is consistent with observations by Mishra (2016) whose study established that hotels were undertaking different environment activities. They advised guests on local customs and traditions, educated guests on environmentally friendly practices, encouraged tourists to try new experiences such as customs, cultures and way of life. However, the percentage of hotels sponsoring research on environmental issues and producing brochures on recycled paper was less. All the hotels had varying perception about environmental management practices though they agreed that for sustainable tourism development to be achieved, hotels must embark on sound environmental management practices. They also acknowledged that the hotel industry would be increasingly pressurized by government legislation to take action on environmental issues and knew that taking action on environmental issues contributed to a hotel's brand image and competitive market position. At the same time, they believed that the hotel industry was likely to take action on environmental issues without external pressures, hotels owe it as a duty to protect the well-being of the communities in which they are located and that hotels contribute to local and global environmental problems through their operations.

Social innovation was also rated highly, elements of the variable attaining a 3.30 (SD=1.36) mean rating. Practices aimed at satisfying human needs, those aimed at contributing towards individual empowerment and practices intended to create equality, justice and empowerment were highly rated signifying high extent of adoption. However, practices aimed at contributing towards empowerment of groups and practices aimed at contributing towards social relations were lowly rated. This implies that with regard to adoption of social innovations, empowerment of groups and issues related to social relations were not yet adequately catered for compared to other innovations. Mulgan et al, (2007) observed that outcomes of social innovation are all around us and include self-help health groups and self-build housing; telephone help lines and telethon fundraising; neighbourhood nurseries and neighbourhood wardens; Wikipedia and the open university; complementary medicine, holistic health and hospices; microcredit and consumer cooperatives; charity shops and the fair trade movement; zero carbon housing schemes and community wind farms; restorative justice and community courts. The researchers maintain that all these are examples of social innovation which are characteristically new ideas that work to meet pressing unmet needs and improve peoples' lives. They maintain that social innovations are essentially about old and new methods for mobilising the ubiquitous intelligence that exists within any society. They see the development of social innovation as an urgent task and one of the most urgent that is needed within the society. In a society in which there is a wide, and probably growing, gap between the scale of the problems faced and the scale of the solutions offered, new methods for advancing social innovation are relevant in every sector but are likely to offer most in fields where problems are intensifying (from diversity and



conflict, to climate change and mental illness), in fields where existing models are failing or stagnant (from traditional electoral democracy to criminal justice), and in fields where new possibilities (such as mobile technologies and open source methods) are not being adequately exploited'

Generally, findings established moderate to high levels of adoption of socio-entrepreneurial practices. Zahra et al. (2009) indicates that throughout the world, socially conscious individuals have introduced and applied innovative business models to address social problems previously overlooked by business, governmental and non-governmental organizations (NGOs). These entrepreneurs have played a vital role in ameliorating adverse social conditions, especially in underdeveloped and emerging economies where resource scarcity and corruption among governments and even NGOs severely limit the attention given to serious social needs (Prahalad Bohnsack, Maloney & Leslie, 2005; Zahra et al., 2009). Social entrepreneurs have also become highly visible agents of change in developed economies, where they have applied innovative and cost-effective methods to address nagging social problems (i.e., poverty, gender inequality, etc.) that have defied traditional solutions (Cox & Healey, 1998). The movement by several countries to "marketize" the social service sector Salamon (1999) has also fuelled the desire to use the efficiency of competitive markets to improve social performance (Goerke, 2003; Zahra et al., 2000). Several governments, including that of the US, have also dramatically cut federal spending on social services such as education and community development (Lasprogata & Cotton, 2003), creating a need for entrepreneurial activities to raise funds and address social needs.

#### 4.4 Strength of Relationship between socio-entrepreneurial practices and community empowerment

The study sought to assess the strength of the relationship between socio-economic, socio-cultural, green initiatives and social innovation and community empowerment. The results are presented in Table 4.42 and discussed under each variable.

**Table 4.42. Relationship between Socio-entrepreneurial Practices and Community Empowerment**

	SOI	SEA	SCA	GRI	CE
Social Innovation (SOI)	1				
Socio-economic practices (SEA)	.574** <0.001	1			
Socio-cultural practices (SCA)	.643** <0.001	.519** <0.001	1		
Green initiatives (GRI)	0.025 0.722	0.1 0.148	0.085 0.22	1	
Community empowerment (CE)	.661** <0.001 210	.469** <0.001 210	.547** <0.001 210	0.018 0.792 210	1 210

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

##### 4.4.1 Socio-economic Practices and Community Empowerment

The strength of linear relationship between socio-economic practices (SEA) and community empowerment (CE) was evaluated based on Pearson's product moment correlation analysis. The results Table 4.22 for the relationship between SEA and CE ( $r=0.469$ ,  $n=210$ ,  $p<0.001$ ) illustrates a positive and significant linear relationship between socio-economic practices and community empowerment at 0.05 level of significance. It implies that enterprises who implement socio-economic practices

empower communities and enhanced adoption of socio-economic practices translates into enhanced empowerment.

#### **4.4.2 Socio-cultural Practices and Community Empowerment**

To establish the strength of relationship between socio-cultural practices (SCA) and community empowerment, a Pearson's correlation of the variables was undertaken. Correlation analysis results ( $r=0.547$ ,  $n=210$ ,  $p<0.001$ ) indicate that there was a positive and significant linear relationship between socio-cultural practices and community empowerment at 0.05 level of significance. This implies that as the implementation of SCA increases, community empowerment increases as well hence the adoption of socio-cultural practices translates into enhanced empowerment.

#### **4.4.3 Green Initiatives and Community Empowerment**

Further the results of the relationship between green initiatives (GRI) and community empowerment (CE) regarding the strength of relationship between green initiatives and community empowerment ( $r=0.018$ ,  $n=210$ ,  $p>0.792$ ). This result implies that though a positive relationship exists between GRI and CE, the relationship was not significant at 0.05 level of significance. This implies that though enterprises were implementing green initiatives, the relationship between GRI and empowerment of communities was not significant.

#### **4.4.4 Social Innovations and Community Empowerment**

According to the results, there was a very significant strong and positive relationship between social innovations (SOI) and CE ( $r=0.661$ ,  $n=210$ ,  $p<0.001$ ). The results imply that social innovations and community empowerment are very significantly and

positively related; and that the more social innovations are brought about by the enterprises, the more will be community empowerment.

#### **4.4.5 Discussion of Findings on Strength of Relationship between socio-entrepreneurial practices and Community Empowerment**

The study also aimed at assessing the strength of the relationship between socio-economic, socio-cultural, green initiatives and social innovation and community empowerment. The relationship between each of the variable and community empowerment was sought via a correlational analysis. The findings ( $R=0.469$ ,  $n=210$ ,  $p<0.001$ ) of a positive and significant linear relationship between socio-economic practices and community empowerment at 0.05 level of significance. This finding suggests that enterprises which implement socio-economic practices empower communities and enhanced adoption of socio-economic practices translates into enhanced empowerment. The finding is consistent with the observations of Haugh (2006) in reporting on case studies conducted in two administrative regions in north-east Scotland where it was observed that from six community enterprises involved in the study, income had been generated from external sources. At different times in the study, each enterprise had recruited at least one employee and by the end of the study, three had long term employment contracts with at least one employee. Thus, each venture had generated measurable, direct economic outcomes. In addition, each community enterprise had generated indirect economic outcomes. Income had been deployed to pay employees, purchase assets, attract business investment and host events that would bring visitors to the area. All employees were recruited locally, thereby increasing the likelihood that wages would be kept within the community and spent in local businesses.

Whenever possible, assets were purchased locally. For individual from the local community, the direct economic impact was income from employment. Indirect, long term impacts were also identified – one volunteer, for example, as a result of the knowledge and skills acquired from involvement with the community enterprise, had subsequently become self-employed. Her new business, selling locally grown produce, in turn led to further economic gains for local producers. Informants also referred to noneconomic, intangible benefits that they had gained from their involvement in community enterprise

Similarly, results of the correlation analysis ( $r=0.547$ ,  $n=210$ ,  $p<0.001$ ) indicated a positive and significant linear relationship between socio-cultural practices and community empowerment at 0.05 level of significance. The implication is that enterprises which implement socio-cultural practices may empower communities. At the same time, enhanced adoption of socio-cultural practices translates into enhanced empowerment. Kasim (2006) in agreeing with this assertion pointed out the negative social impacts as transition of traditional lifestyle to modernity, value conflict and deterioration of local identity, loss of traditional economy, potential displacement, and loss of authenticity of local arts and crafts, increased crimes and low-paying jobs are challenges that players of tourism sector have to contend with on improper implementation of the socio-cultural practices.

With regard to green initiatives, the results ( $r=0.018$ ,  $n=210$ ,  $p>0.792$ ), there was a positive but insignificant linear relationship between green initiatives and community empowerment at 0.05 level of significance. This finding implies that the level of green

initiatives being implemented by the enterprises has no significant relationship with community empowerment in the locations where the enterprises operate. This finding somewhat concurs with that of Kasim (2009) who found that linking of tourism businesses and their environmental impacts may be obscured by tourism's image as a 'soft' industry. This may explain why there are few studies of the drivers and barriers involved in corporate environmentalism, particularly within the context of developing countries where tourism is often a major foreign exchange earner. In a study meant to assess the evidence about the drivers of and the barriers to corporate environmentalism in the hotel sector of Penang, Malaysia using qualitative data obtained via elite interviewing, document analysis and personal observation, the researcher discusses the theoretical drivers of and barriers to corporate environmentalism in the study context. The findings indicate that without the introduction of more and stronger drivers, and without understanding and addressing the underlying barriers, instilling a sense of environmental responsibility in the hotel sector in Malaysia, as in other developing countries, may prove daunting.

Findings also illustrated a linear relationship between social innovation and community empowerment, ( $r=0.661$ ,  $n=210$ .  $p<0.001$ ) illustrating a positive and significant linear relationship at 0.05 level of significance. In this regard, enterprises that implement social innovations may empower communities and thus enhanced adoption of social innovations translates into enhanced community empowerment.

## 4.5 Influence of Social Entrepreneurial Practices on Community Empowerment

The study sought to assess the influence of hoteliers' social entrepreneurial practices on community empowerment. Specifically, the influence of socio-economic, socio-cultural, green initiatives and social innovations were explored. Findings are presented in this section sequentially as per the objectives.

### 4.5.1 Socio-economic Practices

An inferential interpretation of the existing relationship between socio-economic practices and empowerment of communities sought regression analysis yielded results as presented in Tables 4.43, 4.44 and 4.45.

**Table 4.43. Influence of Socio-economic Practices on Community Empowerment (Model Summary)**

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.688 <sup>a</sup>	.474	.471	.90520

a. Predictors: (Constant), SEP

Table 4.43 on model summary show R which is the correlation between the observed and predicted values of dependent variable implying that the association of 0.688 between socio-economic practices and empowerment of communities was good. R-Square is coefficient of determination and measures the proportion of the variance in the dependent variable – empowerment of communities - that is explained by variations in the independent variables – socio-economic practices. This implied that 47.4% of variance or correlation between dependent and independent variables. That is, 47.4% of variations or changes in community empowerment are explained by socio-economic practices. Table 4.44 provides information on the model significance.

**Table 4.44. Influence of Socio-economic Practices on Community Empowerment (ANOVA)**

<b>Model</b>	<b>Sum of Squares</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>Mean Square</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
<b>Regression</b>	153.471	1	153.471	187.301	.000 <sup>b</sup>
<b>Residual</b>	170.432	208	.819		
<b>Total</b>	323.904	209			

a. Dependent Variable: ComE

b. Predictors: (Constant), SEP

The ANOVA statistics shown in Table 4.44 was used to present the regression model significance. An F-significance value of  $p = 0.000$  was established showing that there is a probability of 0.0% of the regression model presenting a false information. Therefore, the model is very significant. The regression coefficient provides information on the existing relationship between the dependent and independent variable.

**Table 4.45. Influence of Socio-economic Practices on Community Empowerment (Regression Coefficient)**

<b>Model</b>	<b>Unstandardized Coefficients</b>		<b>Standardized Coefficients</b>	<b>t</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
	<b>B</b>	<b>Std. Error</b>	<b>Beta</b>		
<b>(Constant)</b>	.679	.194		3.492	.001
<b>SEP</b>	.864	.063	.688	13.686	.000

a. Dependent Variable: ComE

$$\text{Community Empowerment} = 0.679 + 0.864X_1 \quad P = 0.000$$

Where  $X_1$  = Socio-economic practices;  $\beta_0 = 0.679$ ;  $\beta_1 = .864$

The regression constant shows that when the independent variable (socio-economic practices) is constant at zero, the respondents' empowerment would be 0.679. It was established that empowerment of communities would increase by 0.864 with every unit positive increase in hotel enterprises' socio-economic practices. This statistic is



significant at 95% confidence level,  $t(1, 207)=13.69$ ,  $p<0.001$ . This implies that there exists a significant relationship between hotel enterprise socio-economic practices and empowerment of local communities. Therefore, the null hypothesis  $H_{01}$  which stated that socio-economic practices of hoteliers at the coastal circuit in Kenya have no significant influence on empowerment of community was rejected.

An interview with civic leaders on the level of hotel enterprise adoption of socio-entrepreneurial practices and their impact on community empowerment yielded contradictory findings. With regard to socio-economic practices, interviewees concurred that locals were getting a “raw deal” from the enterprises since they were not being given decent employment opportunities. They alleged that locals were mostly relegated to “casual and contract engagements” unlike the “more lucrative permanent jobs mostly in management positions which are reserved for expatriates and people from upcountry.” Specifically, interviewee A alleged that middle level managers were notorious in denying locals permanent employment opportunities despite support from top management to engage locals. Interviewee B however maintained that it is the low season phenomenon which is the main contributing factor to the low engagement of locals in employment opportunities within the enterprises. At the same time, it was his considered opinion that the managements’ preference for expatriates as well as employees from “up country” who were well trained in service delivery could also be a contributing factor to low employment of locals by the enterprises. This was supported by interviewee D and E who also indicated that locals due to their “lack of interest” in

school and training were ill equipped for most jobs which are technical and thus found themselves left out during recruitments.

Interviewee E stressed that middle level managers in most of the enterprises were practising nepotism and thus denied locals even those jobs that they could do. Contrary to this observation, Haugh (2006) reporting on case studies undertaken in two administrative regions in north-east Scotland observed that from six community enterprises involved in the study, income had been generated from external sources. At different times in the study, each enterprise had recruited at least one employee and by the end of the study, three had long term employment contracts with at least one employee. Thus, each venture had generated measurable, direct economic outcomes. In addition, each community enterprise had generated indirect economic outcomes. Income had been deployed to pay employees, purchase assets, attract business investment and host events that would bring visitors to the area. All employees were recruited locally, thereby increasing the likelihood that wages would be kept within the community and spent in local businesses. For individual from the local community, the direct economic impact was income from employment. Indirect, long term impacts were also identified – one volunteer, for example, as a result of the knowledge and skills acquired from involvement with the community enterprise, had subsequently become self-employed. Similarly, Palmås (2003) acknowledged the involvement of social enterprises in enhancing employment abilities for non-employed or socially undermined groups.

Supply of goods and services is an important socio-economic practice whose adoption by the enterprises could empower the local communities. Enterprises embrace it by giving locals including women, youth and persons with disabilities opportunities to supply goods and services that the enterprises require instead of sourcing for them elsewhere. When probed for their knowledge of the enterprise adoption of the practice, interviewee A indicated not being aware of any local groups given opportunity by any hotel enterprise within his jurisdiction to supply goods or service to the enterprise. The interviewee blamed stringent requirements and pre-qualifications rules set out by the hotel enterprises as the main deterrent making it difficult for locals to get such opportunity. This was supported by interviewee C who lamented that local farmer's cherry and tomatoes were literally going waste due for lack of market while hotels within the area were sourcing for such commodities from "upcountry or supermarket. According to him, "it is painful to see the fruits of the labour of hardworking youths and women groups go to waste or being fed on by monkeys for lack of good market which is readily available in the hotel enterprises." Meanwhile established businessmen and women were having a field day supplying similar commodities sourced from elsewhere. In supporting this claim, interviewee B and E noted that on the few occasions that locals were given opportunity for supply, they were either not paid or they experienced delayed payment for the supplies made which in the end demoralized them. This finding is contrary to observations of Haugh (2006) who in an analysis of case studies undertaken in two administrative regions in north-east Scotland reported that the enterprises where sourcing their supplies from the local community whenever possible.

Indirect, long term impacts were also identified – one volunteer, for example indicated that as a result of the knowledge and skills acquired from involvement with the community enterprise, had subsequently become self-employed. Her new business, selling locally grown produce, in turn led to further economic gains for local producers. Similarly, Sloan et al. (2014) as well as Kokkranikal and Morrison (2011) noted increasing attention being observed as regards social entrepreneurs and their importance in leveraging positive effects for communities in developing countries with regard to the tourism sector. Evidence specifically show that for accommodation businesses, local purchasing practices are means to maximize the economic benefits of tourism for the local economy and reduce the need for transport and energy consumption (Swarbrooke, 1999). Strong linkages can spread the economic benefit of tourism throughout the economy and could lead to improved development.

Support for vocational and professional training has also been seen to be one of the practices with which socio-entrepreneurs could empower communities. One of the practices for social enterprise is to train and inspire the disadvantaged young people to be involved in culinary activities and by this benefit the community with giving the purpose to those people that might not have the opportunity of being employed. Thus, an inquiry was made from the civic leaders on the extent to which they were aware of this practice being embraced by the enterprises. In response, all the civic leaders were categorical that the hotels within their areas of jurisdiction “have never supported training of locals” to the best of their knowledge. Specifically, interviewee E noted that

even on occasions when as leaders that they had appealed to the enterprises for support in training opportunities, lack of cooperation from hotel enterprises persisted.

Interviewee C on his part observed that it was very difficult for locals to get internship places or opportunities for on-the-job training in hotel enterprises. Contrary to this, Laeis and Lamke (2016) in a report on the impact of socio-entrepreneurial practices of community-based tourism on the livelihoods of the local communities indicated that income earned from entertainment and accommodation facilities as tourism business, on cascading down through the value chain to the women participating in the project bestowed them with various livelihood assets. These were in the form of natural assets including access to seed material and individual trial garden plots on the farm where the women cultivated food for their own consumption or sale, leading to improved food security or additional income. Human assets, in the form of education, were provided by the agricultural and life-skills training. Emerging sub-category of 'impaired knowledge transfer' also appeared important as there was, indeed, evidence of knowledge transfer between lessons learnt from project undertaken and women's own agricultural activities, both at the farm and at their own premises. Participating women further enhanced their social assets by networking with fellow women and project facilitators.

In general, adoption of socio-economic practices by the hotel enterprises was mean rated 50% by the interviewees thus implying an average level of implementation. Ramukumba et al., (2012) in an analysis of the socio-economic impacts of tourism for emerging tourism entrepreneurs in George municipality in the Western Cape Province South Africa established that promotion of tourism is a key strategy that could lead to

economic growth, community development and poverty alleviation. According to the researchers, tourism had emerged as a significant development option in the post-apartheid South Africa. It was being perceived as an adopted strategy to creating more equitable economic growth, the sector expected to be the leading contributor to economic development in the country. Specifically, the study established that the tourism industry was contributing positively from a socio-economic perspective to the emerging tourism entrepreneurs, even though the majority of them are earning incomes very close and lower than what is considered a living wage from their enterprises. The study also illustrated that tourism was helping to respond to the alleviation of poverty and the income earned was helping to respond to the basic needs of the entrepreneurs. Many of these entrepreneurs who were from poor backgrounds were employed within these enterprises which in themselves provided enabled the enterprises provide a new type of tourist experience as many of them are focusing on cultural tourism products.

#### 4.5.2 Socio-cultural practices

Similarly, an inferential interpretation of the existing relationship between socio-cultural practices and community empowerment sought via regression analysis yielded results as presented in Tables 4.46, 4.47 and 4.48.

**Table 4.46. Influence of Socio-cultural Practices on Community Empowerment (Model Summary)**

<b>Model</b>	<b>R</b>	<b>R Square</b>	<b>Adjusted R Square</b>	<b>Std. Error of the Estimate</b>
<b>1</b>	.625 <sup>a</sup>	.391	.385	.74854

a. Predictors: (Constant), SCPs

Table 4.46 on model summary show R which is the correlation between the observed and predicted values of dependent variable implying that the association of 0.625

between socio-cultural practices and empowerment of communities was good. R-Square is coefficient of determination and measures the proportion of the variance in the dependent variable – empowerment of communities - that is explained by variations in the independent variables – socio-cultural practices. This implied that 39.1% of variance or correlation between dependent and independent variables. That is, 39.1% of variations or changes in community empowerment are explained by socio-cultural practices. Table 4.47 provides information on the model significance.

**Table 4.47. Influence of Socio-cultural Practices on Community Empowerment (ANOVA)**

<b>Model</b>	<b>Sum of Squares</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>Mean Square</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
<b>Regression</b>	38.090	1	38.090	67.980	.000 <sup>b</sup>
<b>Residual</b>	59.393	106	.560		
<b>Total</b>	97.483	107			

a. Dependent Variable: ComE

b. Predictors: (Constant), SCPs

The ANOVA statistics in Table 4.47 was used to present the regression model significance. An F-significance value of  $p = 0.000$  was established showing that there is a probability of 0.0% of the regression model presenting a false information. Therefore, the model is very significant. The regression coefficient provides information on the existing relationship between the dependent and independent variable.

**Table 4.48. Influence of Socio-cultural Practices on Community Empowerment (Regression Coefficient)**

<b>Model</b>	<b>Unstandardized Coefficients</b>		<b>Standardized Coefficients</b>	<b>t</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
	<b>B</b>	<b>Std. Error</b>	<b>Beta</b>		
<b>(Constant)</b>	-.440	.507		-.868	.387
<b>SCPs</b>	.962	.117	.625	8.245	.000

a. Dependent Variable: ComE

$$\text{Community Empowerment} = -0.440 + 0.962X_2 \quad P = 0.000$$

Where  $X_2$ = Socio-cultural practices;  $\beta_0 = -0.440$ ;  $\beta_2 = .962$

The regression constant shows that when the independent variable (socio-cultural practices) is constant at zero, the respondents' empowerment would be -0.440. It was established that empowerment of communities would increase by 0.962 with every unit positive increase in hotel enterprises' socio-cultural practices. This statistic is significant at 95% confidence level,  $t(1, 207)=8.245$ ,  $p<0.001$ . This implies that there exists a significant relationship between hotel enterprise socio-cultural practices and empowerment of local communities. Therefore, the null hypothesis  $H_{02}$  which stated that socio-cultural practices of hoteliers at the coastal circuit in Kenya have no significant influence on empowerment of community was rejected.

Qualitative findings from interviews with civic leaders illustrated a general reluctance by enterprises to support promotion of local culture. Interviewees insisted that besides "few local dancers who were occasionally invited to entertain guests in hotels," there is nothing else of substance that the enterprises undertake towards promotion of local culture. Interviewee D reported a queer undertaking by enterprises management within his/her area of jurisdiction. According to the civic leader, "they would schedule local animation teams and traditional dance groups and even allocate funds for the same but instead proceed to play recorded disco and pocket the approved funds reserved for the events". Such behaviour not only robbed the locals a source of livelihood but more importantly deny locals a chance of display and promote local culture and tradition. The



tourists are also denied the opportunity of sampling the local culture and as well as interact with the locals.

Interviewee A in supporting this claim cited a case in which a particular group from the local community which had been formed to showcase local culture to tourist within her area disintegrated due to lack of support from hoteliers. Roberts and Tribe (2008) noted that in developing countries, tourism and accommodation industry might have impacts on the socio-cultural conduct of people. Generally, governments in such countries have employed a top down type of tourism planning model where all decisions of developing and promoting tourism are carried out by the central government leaving the local community destinations with little or no input is the activities that affect their livelihoods. This has led to some commentators Richards and Hall (2003) arguing that the forces of modernisation have turned the local communities into products sold to tourists and consumed as commodities. Local communities in such countries are expected to conform to the tourists' expectations of backward neighbourhood, which has not been tainted by modernisation and expected to impinge on its rustic rural tranquillity. The question of authenticity in tourist experiences arises when cultural traditions get modified and altered for tourist consumption. At the same time, commoditization can lead to pseudo-events that are planned to be convenient for tourists which might lead to a falsification of the traditional meaning of the event (Mason, 2012). Consequently cultural promotion through tourist education and initiatives to promote and enhance appreciation for cultural and historic heritage are indicators and actions outlined by Roberts and Tribe (2008).

The enterprises were also blamed for erosion of local culture by the respondents. Interviewee C and D indicated that tourism activities within their areas of jurisdiction were partly responsible for rampant drug and substance abuse among youths. According to the interviewees, some of the tourists were reported to be introducing youths to drugs and once hooked, they are sometime even forced to turn into thieves to sustain the habit. Such unbecoming behaviour was detrimental to the local communities whose members were even being driven deeper into abject poverty. This is a negative linkage of tourism. Contrary to this, reports from Mahony and Van Zyl (2002) established that tourism enhances the cultural identity of local community. It was shown that proceeds emanating from tourists expenditures were used by the local community to invest in historical and cultural assets and thereby strengthening their cultural background. Additionally, the establishment of accommodation facilities such as hotels provided the locals with the opportunity to sell their artefacts such as crafts and arts. This not only impacted the local economy positively but also contributed to a stronger cultural identity. In the process of enhancing the local economy through profitable processes, traditional skills were maintained. The hospitality and tourism investments such as hotel played a social role as community resource centre. They acted as central places where locals could interact with external parties. In the process, tourism activities impacted the beliefs and customs of the local community and changed some practices of a group of locals.

Knowledge and skills obtained by locals from education and training from ecotourism activities enabled a smooth transition from farmer based economy to tourism based economy, a majority of locals becoming employees of the tourist sector. This made them

able to earn money from the tourism activities and thus support the ecotourism projects. The study thus recommended that in order to make such projects profitable for the local community, it is necessary to set rules which permits stakeholders to agree on beneficiaries of targeted projects. This was found important since finding illustrated that the local community is highly dependent on such projects which ensure flow of income within the community. However, in Costa Rica, Stem et al. (2003) reported disintegration of families and local communities on introduction of tourism activities. According to some local residents, since people were more dependent on the profits from tourists, they were more willing to help visitors rather than their relatives. This caused a disintegration of the communities and even the families. Family traditions became less important, because those in contact tourists tried to copy their customs and behaviour. At the same time, local residents complained of increased proliferation of drugs and alcohol whose abuse was on the increase. Use or consumption of such substances resulted in a change of custom of the local community.

In pursuit of practices aimed at discouraging exploitation of children and vulnerable populations within the community, E mentioned that there were no reported cases of child labour in hotels, a factor that could be attributed to the strict code of conduct for association members as well as application of labour laws enforced by the local employees' unions. Studies have demonstrated prevalence of child labour in the tourism industry (Pluss & Tourismus, 1999). According to the researcher, children are omnipresent in the tourism industry but not always in places where they can be easily noticed. Highly visible are those children who are actively scrambling for a share in the

trade (for example: children selling fruit on the beach or craft at markets). However, the children behind the scenes are virtually invisible (for example: children cleaning rooms in hotels). ILO (2002) in its report noted that many children work in the informal economy which surrounds and supports the formal tourist industry. According to the body, usually when we think of child labour, we think of children slaving away in sweatshops, factories or mines or of children working on the streets in the informal sector. These are the 'visible' forms of work children do but the focus of the media and politics on these types of work has obscured the fact that there are also 'invisible' forms of work that children do hidden away from the public eye, at home, on farms or behind closed doors that also support the tourism industry (Bliss, 2006). Many of these children are young girls (IPEC, 2009). Maggie Black thinks the total number of children working in tourism is much higher than the rough estimate of 13 to 19 million children because the children doing 'invisible' work in the informal sector are excluded. She also gives various examples of how children can be doing work in the informal sector which in turn supports the formal sector in tourism like in plantations or in brick making (Bliss, 2006).

Sexual exploitation of children has also been linked with tourism activities in most destinations globally. Along the coastal tourism circuit in Kenya, some studies had alleged that as much as 30% of all 12-18 year olds living in these areas were involved in casual sex work (ECPAT, 2007). This represents approximately 10,000-15,000 children. Hotel enterprises along with their employees were accused of aiding and abetting this practice which put to risk children. In response, the enterprises undertook to reverse the trend through compliance with the requirements of the international code of conduct

against child sex tourist and commercial sexual exploitation of children in travel and tourism. An inquiry was thus made from the civic leaders to assess their conception of the level of hotel enterprise compliance with efforts to combat sexual exploitation of children within their areas of jurisdiction.

In response, a majority of the civic leaders acknowledged that whereas the vice persists, it was no longer prevalent among the mainstream hotel enterprises. Interviewee A attributed this to strict adherence by the mainstream hotel enterprises to the Sexual Offense Act as well as the signed code of conduct by hoteliers. This was supported by interviewee C, D and E. They however attributed the ongoing cases of child sex tourism as well as commercial sexual exploitation of children to “staff and other operatives from hotels who link the children to tourists as pimps or on commission”. Alternative accommodation facilities including private homes, villas and some lodges who were neither members of KAHC or classified hotel enterprises were reported to be the major perpetrators of the vice. According to interviewee B, “some staff and owners of such private accommodation facilities were even colluding with some guests to stage manage scenes of poverty and pornography for photo and video which would then be used to solicit for donor funding”.

#### **4.5.3 Green Initiative**

At the same time, an inferential interpretation of the existing relationship between green initiatives and empowerment of communities was sought via regression analysis. Findings were as presented in Tables 4.49, 4.50 and 4.51.

**Table 4.49. Influence of Green Initiatives on Community Empowerment (Model Summary)**

<b>Model</b>	<b>R</b>	<b>R Square</b>	<b>Adjusted R Square</b>	<b>Std. Error of the Estimate</b>
<b>1</b>	.643 <sup>a</sup>	.413	.408	.73455

a. Predictors: (Constant), GIs

Table 4.49 contains information on model summary showing R which is the correlation between the observed and predicted values of dependent variable implying that the association of 0.643 between green initiatives and empowerment of communities was good. R-Square is coefficient of determination and measures the proportion of the variance in the dependent variable – empowerment of communities - that is explained by variations in the independent variables – green initiatives. This implied that 41.3% of variance or correlation between dependent and independent variables. That is, 41.3% of variations or changes in community empowerment are explained by green initiatives.

Table 4.50 provides information on the model significance.

**Table 4.50. Influence of Green Initiatives on Community Empowerment (ANOVA)**

<b>Model</b>	<b>Sum of Squares</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>Mean Square</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
<b>Regression</b>	40.290	1	40.290	74.672	.000 <sup>b</sup>
<b>Residual</b>	57.193	106	.540		
<b>Total</b>	97.483	107			

a. Dependent Variable: ComE

b. Predictors: (Constant), GIs

The ANOVA statistics in Table 4.50 was used to present the regression model significance. An F-significance value of  $p = 0.000$  was established showing that there is a probability of 0.0% of the regression model presenting a false information. Therefore, the model is very significant. The regression coefficient provides information on the existing relationship between the dependent and independent variable.

**Table 4.51. Influence of Green Initiatives on Community Empowerment (Regression Coefficient)**

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
<b>(Constant)</b>	.699	.354		1.974	.051
<b>GIs</b>	.777	.090	.643	8.641	.000

a. Dependent Variable: ComE

$$\text{Community Empowerment} = 0.699 + 0.777X_3 \quad P = 0.000$$

Where  $X_3$ = Green initiatives;  $\beta_0 = 0.699$ ;  $\beta_1 = 0.777$

The regression constant shows that when the independent variable (green initiatives) is constant at zero, the respondents' empowerment would be 0.699. It was established that empowerment of communities would increase by 0.777 with every unit positive increase in hotel enterprises' green initiatives. This statistic is significant at 95% confidence level,  $t(1, 207)=8.641$ ,  $p<0.001$ . This implies that there exists a significant relationship between hotel enterprise green initiatives and empowerment of local communities. Therefore, the null hypothesis  $H_{03}$  which stated that green initiatives of hoteliers at the coastal circuit in Kenya have no significant influence on empowerment of community was rejected.

Qualitative findings from interviews with civic leaders showed that hotels were relatively efficient in management of both solid waste and waste water from their facilities. These initiatives were also supported by counties and private garbage and waste management companies through contractual arrangements with hotels. However, it was the feeling of some of the interviewee that most hotels in their regions had greatly

contributed to degradation of coral reef and erosion and were a big source of plastics and other wastes on the beach. They also accused hotels of blocking the public access routes to the beach causing substantial non-economic costs on the local communities for example, loss of access to resources (particularly beaches), displacement from agricultural land, social and cultural disruption and exploitation.

Water conservation was reported to be done well by all interviewees, A stated that most hotels were water sufficient from alternative water sources including desalination and boreholes, considering the scarcity of the resource. However, D, while supporting this assertion, stated that the conservation initiatives were not beneficial in any way to local communities some of whom went for many days without the resource when the counties delay in paying the bills and water has to be disconnected. Similar positive feedback was reported by all about energy conservation by hotels. Additionally, the interviewees mentioned that hotels within their jurisdictions had invested in generators and solar energy among other renewable sources of energy. This was attributed to the fluctuation of power supply from the country's main electricity supplier. However, D noted that these initiatives were for the benefit of individual hotels and that local communities were not benefitting in any way from the alternative energy nor conservation initiatives by hoteliers towards energy.

At the same time, the interviewees maintained that hotels had done well in conservation of natural resources. Specifically, interviewee A, indicated that within his area of jurisdiction, the enterprises had achieved much as regards beach conservation as well as cleaning. This was supported by interviewee D who stated that hotels within his area of



jurisdiction had supported the colobus trust and beach management initiatives. However, interviewee stated that hotels no longer supported conservation initiatives as they did in the past by participating in national conservation days. B specifically mentioned that devolution had derailed the relationship that existed between civic leaders and hotels, noting that some devolved activities rendered their interventions on conservation almost irrelevant.

With regard to participation in civic engagements, interviewee A thought there was 50% initiative by hotels in supporting civic activities within their regions. In refuting this claim, interviewee B mentioned that there was no support at all and also blamed this state of affairs to the effects of devolution. Interviewee D seemed angered by claims that hotels supported communities' affirmative action's through support from visitors to the hotels. This he said was a scheme by some managers who latter go to beneficiary institutions such as schools to siphon money and donations back for their personal benefits. Most of the interviewees mentioned that they had not done any formal requests to hotels for such support in the recent past. Hotels did not support any civic works related to tree planting. It was also reported that in the past, they actively participated in National conservation days, but due to low business, this support in kind had reduced. There was also no structured forum for engagement according to C. While refuting hotels self-assertions of support, interviewee A mentioned in Kiswahili "Mavi yakinuka huenda hutayaona lakini utaskia harufu" translated to imply that any development however small, may not be visible, but it is not difficult to feel the benefits of any such initiatives. Accordingly, hotels did not support the communities in any meaningful way

to warrant the assertions of such initiatives, especially, according to interviewee A, civic leaders were not aware of any such initiatives. Generally, a majority of the civic leaders called for more cooperation between hoteliers and themselves to better focus empowerment initiatives and align civic support to enhance the beneficiaries' experiences.

#### 4.5.4 Joint Effect of Socio-entrepreneurial Factors on Community Empowerment

Lastly, a joint effect of socio-economic, socio-cultural and green initiatives on community empowerment was assessed based on a hierarchical regression analysis. Findings were as presented in Tables 4.52.

**Table 4.52. Joint Effect of SEP, SCP and GI on Community Empowerment**

Model	R <sup>2</sup>						F	p	t	p
		R <sup>2</sup> change	F change	d <sub>1</sub>	d <sub>2</sub>	Sig. F change				
<b>1</b>	.238	.238	33.148	1	208	.000	33.15	.000	5.757	.000
<b>2</b>	.432	.194	35.874	1	207	.000	39.96	.000	5.990	.000
<b>3</b>	.484	.051	10.351	1	206	.002	32.47	.000	3.217	.002

a. Dependent Variable: ComE

b. Predictors: (Constant), SEP

c. Predictors: (Constant), SEP, SCPs

d. Predictors: (Constant), SEP, SCPs, GIs

Elements of SEP, SCP, GI and CE were regressed against each other hierarchically in a regression model as shown:

$$\text{Model 1: } Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \varepsilon$$

$$\text{Model 2: } Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \varepsilon$$

$$\text{Model 2: } Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \varepsilon$$

Where  $Y$  = Community empowerment,  $X_1$  = Socioeconomic practices,  $X_2$  = Sociocultural practices,  $X_3$  = Green initiatives,  $\beta_0$  is regression constant;  $\beta_1 - \beta_3$  are regression coefficients.

First, SEP was regressed against CE. The model obtained which was significant,  $F(1, 208)=33.15$ ,  $p<0.001$  accounted for 23.8% of variation in CE. SEP positively and significantly predicted CE ( $t=5.757$ ,  $p<0.001$ ). When SCP was added to the SEP and CE model and regressed against CE, SCP increased the odds in community empowerment by a further 19.4% of the total variance, the change being significant,  $F(2, 207)=35.87$ ,  $p<0.001$ . SCP positively and significantly predicted CE ( $t=5.990$ ,  $p<0.001$ ). Addition of GI in the SEP, SCP and CE model increased the variation in CE by 5.1%,  $F(3, 206)=10.351$ ,  $p<0.001$  the model being significant. GI positively and significantly predicted CE ( $t=3.217$ ,  $p<0.01$ ). Jointly, SEP, SCP and GI accounted for 48.4% of the total variance in CE, the joint effect being significant,  $F(3, 206)=32.465$ ,  $p<0.001$ .

#### **4.5.5 Discussion of Findings on Influence of Socio-Entrepreneurial Practices on Community Empowerment**

The study sought to assess the influence of hoteliers' socio-entrepreneurial practices on empowerment of communities. Specifically, the influence of socio-economic, socio-cultural, green initiatives and social innovations were explored. With regard to socio-economic practices, model summary showed that 47.4% ( $R^2 = 0.474$ ) of the variations or changes in community empowerment are explained by socio-economic practices, this observation being significant,  $F(1, 208)=187.30$ ,  $p<0.001$ . Regression coefficient,  $t(1, 207)=13.69$ ,  $p=0.00$  showed that there exists a significant relationship between hotel enterprise socio-economic practices and empowerment of local communities. The results

imply that a significant majority of the respondents consider adoption of socio-economic practices by hotel enterprises to significantly influence community empowerment. The findings corroborates that of Ramukumba et al., (2012) who in an analysis of the socio-economic impacts of tourism for emerging tourism entrepreneurs in George municipality in the Western Cape Province South Africa established that promotion of tourism is a key strategy that could lead to economic growth, community development and poverty alleviation. According to the researchers, tourism had emerged as a significant development option in the post-apartheid South Africa. It was being perceived as an adopted strategy to creating more equitable economic growth, the sector expected to be the leading contributor to economic development in the country. Specifically, the study established that the tourism industry was contributing positively from a socio-economic perspective to the emerging tourism entrepreneurs, even though the majority of them are earning incomes very close and lower than what is considered a living wage from their enterprises. The study also illustrated that tourism was helping to respond to the alleviation of poverty and the income earned was helping to respond to the basic needs of the entrepreneurs. Many of these entrepreneurs who were from poor backgrounds were employed within these enterprises which in themselves provided enabled the enterprises provide a new type of tourist experience as many of them are focusing on cultural tourism products.

Findings on Socio-cultural practices indicate high level of influence descriptively. Regression model used to test the inferential relationship showed that 39.1% ( $R^2=0.391$ ) of the total variance or changes in community empowerment are explained by socio-

cultural practices, the observation being significant,  $F(1, 208)=67.98$ ,  $p<0.001$ . Regression coefficient,  $t(1, 207)=8.245$ ,  $p<0.001$  implied a significant relationship between socio-cultural practices and community empowerment. The findings means that according to a significant majority of the respondents, adoption of socio-cultural practices by hotel enterprises significantly influences community empowerment along the coastal tourism circuit. Stankova (2019) in their study observed that tourists and tourism investments can and do influence the customs and values of local communities in targeted destinations. Additionally, the study established that the value system of the Greek people had also changed due to tourists. Initially, the local economy had been a much 'closed' agricultural community, with almost everything totally dependent on the cities. Produce from the farms would be sold to surrounding cities as the main source of the community economic sustenance. Establishment of the eco-tourism enterprises brought a new dimension. As the tourist began to flow, the industry slightly tilted towards an economy based on the tourist sector. The local economies opened up and 'urban type' social and economic relationships started to develop. This affected the regulations within the communities as well. With this, the belief system of the local community was also affected as the last element. During the initial development phase of the mass tourism, most of the residents had no idea about some groups of foreigners and reacted often positive. When the numbers of tourists grew, the local people became more sceptical and would rather see them going than coming. Similar findings are attributed to Mahony and Van Zyl (2002), Stem et al. (2003), Stone and Wall (2004) as well as Tsartas (2003).

Similarly, for green initiatives, findings showed that 41.3% ( $R^2=0.413$ ) of the variations or changes in community empowerment are explained by green initiatives, the observation being significant,  $F(1, 106)=74.67$ ,  $p<0.001$ . Regression coefficient,  $t(1, 207)=8.641$ ,  $p<0.001$  showed that there exists a significant relationship between hotel enterprise green initiatives and empowerment of local communities. The findings imply that a significant majority of the respondents consider adoption of green initiatives to significantly influence community empowerment along the coastal tourism circuit.

On the whole, findings illustrated the significant influence of socio-economic, socio-cultural and green initiatives on community empowerment. This means all the three socio-entrepreneurial practices were found to significantly influence community empowerment. This is in line with the observations of several researchers who have enumerated the significance of social entrepreneurial practices in their research findings. Munoz (2009) acknowledged trends and strategic implications of social entrepreneurship in China, Rametse and Shah (2013) reported on the outcomes of Gram Vikas' mission as achieved through the program called Movement and Action Network for the Transformation of Rural Areas (MANTRA) in which the entrepreneur set out to promote processes which are sustainable, socially inclusive and gender equitable, to enable critical masses of poor and marginalized rural people or communities to achieve a dignified quality of life in Orissa, Eastern India. In Africa, Nega and Sneider (2014) illustrated the potential impact of social entrepreneurship on economic development with a specific focus on the contribution of microfinance. According to the researchers, social entrepreneurship could play an important role in development by facilitating the

creation of organic, productive, community-centred organizations that build on local culture and institutions. In Kenya, Black and O'Brien (2004) as well as Ewart (2005) discussed the CARE Kenya Rural Entrepreneurship and Agribusiness Promotion (REAP) project whose predominant objective was to increase income of smallholders through commercial horticultural production and marketing opportunities on a sustainable basis. The overall outcome of each of the cases point to the immense benefit that accrue from a sustainable socioeconomic interaction between entrepreneurs and the local community.

#### **4.6 Mediating Influence of Social Innovation on the Relationship between SE and CE**

The mediating influence of social innovations implemented by the enterprises was determined by regressing the variables against community empowerment in a four step process. An analysis of the mediation of social innovation between socioeconomic, socio-cultural practices and green initiatives and empowerment of communities was attempted as follows:

##### **4.6.1 Mediation effect of Social Innovation between Socio-economic practises and Empowerment of Communities**

Elements of SE, SI and CE were regressed against each other in a regression model as shown below in a three step series:

$$\text{Model 1: } Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \varepsilon$$

$$\text{Model 2: } Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \varepsilon$$

Where  $Y$  = Community empowerment,  $X_1$  = Socioeconomic practices,  $X_2$ = Social innovation,  $\beta_0$  is regression constant;  $\beta_1 - \beta_2$  are regression coefficients.

First, SE was regressed against CE. The model obtained which was significant,  $F(1, 208)=58.76$ ,  $p<0.001$  accounted for 22% of variation in CE. SE positively and significantly predicted CE ( $\beta=0.464$ ). Secondly, SE was regressed against SI. The second model was also significant,  $F(1, 208)=101.99$ ,  $p<0.001$  and accounted for 32.9% of total variance. Similar observation was made with regard to the third model assessing the relationship between SI and CE, the model  $F(1, 208)=161.00$ ,  $p<0.001$  accounting for 43.6% of variation in CE. For the fourth model, SE and SI were regressed against CE stepwise, first by introducing SE followed by SI. Introduction of SI in the SE and CE model increased the variation in CE by 22.8%,  $F(1, 207)=85.67$ ,  $p<0.001$  the model being significant. An analysis of the regression coefficient in Table 4.48 illustrated complete mediation of SI between SE and CE.

**Table 4.53. Regression Coefficients for Socio-economic and Social Innovation**

Model		Unstandardized		Standardized	t	Sig.
		Coefficients		Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.340	.043		7.866	.000
	Socio-economic	.464	.061	.469	7.665	.000
2	(Constant)	.182	.040		4.523	.000
	Socio-economic	.133	.062	.135	2.139	.034
	Social Innovation	.581	.063	.583	9.256	.000

Mediation effect of Social Innovation between Socio-cultural practices and Community Empowerment



Elements of SC, SI and CE were regressed against each other in a regression model as shown below in a four step series

**Model 1:**  $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \varepsilon$

**Model 2:**  $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \varepsilon$

Where Y = Community empowerment, X<sub>1</sub> = Socio-cultural practices, X<sub>2</sub>= Social innovation, β<sub>0</sub> is regression constant; β<sub>1</sub> – β<sub>2</sub> are regression coefficients

First, SC was regressed against CE. The model obtained which was significant,  $F(1, 208)=88.92$ ,  $p<0.001$  accounted for 30% of variation in CE. SC positively and significantly predicted CE ( $\beta=0.561$ ). Secondly, SC was regressed against SI. The second model was also significant,  $F(1, 208)=146.34$ ,  $p<0.001$  and accounted for 41.3% of total variance. Similar observation was made with regard to the third model assessing the relationship between SI and CE, the model  $F(1, 208)=161.00$ ,  $p<0.001$  accounting for 43.6% of variation in CE. For the fourth model, SC and SI were regressed against CE stepwise, first by introducing SC followed by SI. Introduction of SI in the SC and CE model increased the variation in CE by 46.2%,  $F(1, 207)=62.52$ ,  $p<0.001$  the model being significant. An analysis of the regression coefficient in Table 4.49 illustrated complete mediation of SI between SC and CE.

**Table 4.54. Regression Coefficients for Socio-cultural and Social Innovation**

Model		Unstandardized		Standardized	t	Sig.
		Coefficients		Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.221	.047		4.662	.000
	Socio-cultural	.561	.060	.547	9.430	.000
2	(Constant)	.146	.043		3.420	.001
	Socio-cultural	.214	.068	.209	3.143	.002
	Social	.524	.066	.526	7.907	.000

Mediation effect of Social Innovation between Green Initiatives and Community Empowerment

Elements of GI, SI and CE were regressed against each other in a regression model as shown below in a four step series

**Model 1:**  $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \varepsilon$

**Model 2:**  $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \varepsilon$

Where  $Y$  = Community empowerment,  $X_1$  = Green initiative,  $X_2$  = Social innovation,  $\beta_0$  is regression constant;  $\beta_1 - \beta_2$  are regression coefficients

First, GI was regressed against CE. The model obtained which was significant,  $F(1, 106)=74.67$ ,  $p<0.001$  accounted for 41.3% of variation in CE. GI positively and significantly predicted CE ( $\beta=0.494$ ). Secondly, GI was regressed against SI. The second model was also significant,  $F(1, 106)=74.20$ ,  $p<0.001$  and accounted for 41.2% of total variance. Similar observation was made with regard to the third model assessing the relationship between SI and CE, the model  $F(1, 208)=161.00$ ,  $p<0.001$  accounting for 43.6% of variation in CE. For the fourth model, GI and SI were regressed against CE stepwise, first by introducing GI followed by SI. Introduction of SI in the GI and CE model increased the variation in CE by 23.0%,  $F(2, 105)=94.64$ ,  $p<0.001$  the model being significant. An analysis of the regression coefficient in Table 4.55 illustrated complete mediation of SI between GI and CE.

**Table 4.55. Regression Coefficient for Green Initiatives and Social Innovation**

Model		Unstandardized		Standardized	t	Sig.
		Coefficients		Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	4.894	2.480		1.974	.051
	Green initiatives	.494	.057	.643	8.641	.000
2	(Constant)	1.554	1.983		.783	.435
	Green initiatives	.186	.058	.241	3.177	.002
	Social innovation	.878	.107	.626	8.240	.000

In general, the last objective set out to assess the mediating role of innovations implemented by the hotel enterprises. Findings established that social innovation mediates between socio-economic and community empowerment. Similarly, mediation effect of social innovation was established in the relationship between socio-cultural practices and community empowerment. Lastly, mediation effect was also found with regard to green initiatives. Howaldt and Kopp (2012) in supporting this assertion observed that social innovation is a combination and/or configuration of social practices in certain areas of action or social contexts prompted by certain actors or constellations of actors in an intentional targeted manner with the goal of better satisfying or answering needs and problems than is possible on the basis of established practices. Consequently, social entrepreneurs bring and use ideas and innovative solutions to overcome social problems (Hoogendoorn, Pennings, & Thurik, 2011). They utilize personal leadership skills and capacity to solve problems that arise in particular communities or regions (Mulgan & Landry, 1995). Social entrepreneurs create social values by exploiting innovation such as establish new activities or organizations (Pervez, Maritz & Waal, 2013). They are often motivated to improve society or communities as agents of change by seizing opportunities others miss and improving systems, inventing new approaches,

and creating sustainable solutions to change society or the communities where they are operating for the better (Skoll Foundation for Social Entrepreneurship, 2005). They attack intractable problems, take huge risks, and seek out formidable goals such as economic and environmental sustainability and social equity (Elkington & Hartigan, 2008). Creativity, innovation, and resourcefulness are the elements of entrepreneurship most relevant to social entrepreneurs (Nicholls & Cho, 2006).

## **CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

### **5.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents a summary of the research findings, conclusions, recommendations and suggestions for further research. The main purpose of this study was to determine the role of socio-entrepreneurial practices on empowerment of communities within the coastal tourism circuit in Kenya.

To achieve the study purpose, a cross sectional survey research design was adopted. Data was obtained from management of classified facilities as well as members of Kenya Association of Hotel Keepers and Caterers at the coastal tourism circuit in Kwale, Mombasa and Kilifi Counties. Hotel managements, employees, suppliers and beach operators from the study area responded to the questionnaires. Civic leaders within the study area also participated in key informant interview. Information obtained was analyzed both qualitatively using thematic analysis as well as quantitatively with the aid of SPSS version 20 computer software.

### **5.2 Summary of Findings**

The contents of the study findings are summarized based on respondents' demographic variables and the four study objectives.

#### **5.2.1 Respondents' Profile**

Participants included 210 respondents including hotel managers, employees, suppliers and beach operators working in or affiliated to 42 hotel enterprises along the coastal tourism circuit in Kwale, Mombasa and Kilifi Counties. Five civic leaders from the

study locale also participated in the study. Of the 42 enterprises, 36 were members of KAHC and 23 were classified facilities. Based on gender, a majority were males. At the same time, findings established that a majority of the respondents were either youths or in middle age indicating a young and vibrant workforce.

### **5.2.2 Influence of Socio-economic practices on Community Empowerment**

The influence of socio-economic practices on community empowerment was assessed based of the extent and effect of the practices. Descriptive statistics indicated above average mean rating for adoption of socio-economic practices by hotel enterprises along the coastal tourism circuit in Kenya implying great extent of adoption of the practice. Employment of locals as a socio-economic practice attained the highest mean rating while employment of persons with disabilities was the least adopted. Correlation analysis showed that socio-economic practices are positively and significantly related with Community empowerment, the relationship being linear. Regression analysis illustrated that there exists a significant relationship between hotel enterprises socio-economic practices and community empowerment at 0.05% level of significance.

### **5.2.3 Influence of Socio-cultural Practices on Community Empowerment**

The influence of socio-cultural practices on community empowerment was also assessed based of the extent and effect of the practices. Descriptive statistics showed that the extent of adoption of socio-cultural practices was high, extent of adoption of the practices being the greatest. In particular, attempts to refrain from all trafficking in illicit drugs, arms, antiques, protected species and products as well as substances that are dangerous or prohibited by state law and regulations being highly rated. Correlation

analysis also showed that socio-cultural practices are positively and significantly related with community empowerment, the relationship being linear. Regression analysis illustrated that there exists a significant relationship between hotel enterprises socio-cultural practices and community empowerment at 0.05% level of significance.

#### **5.2.4 Influence of Green Initiatives on Community Empowerment**

The influence of green initiatives on community empowerment was also assessed based of the extent and effect of the practices. Descriptive statistics showed that the extent of adoption of socio-cultural practices was above average, portion control and donating from left-overs meriting the highest rating. Correlation analysis showed that green practices are positively and significantly related with community empowerment, the relationship being linear. Regression analysis illustrated that there exists a significant relationship between hotel enterprises green practices and community empowerment at 0.05% level of significance.

#### **5.2.5 Mediating Influence of Social Innovation in the Relationship between Socio-entrepreneurial Practices and Community Empowerment**

The mediating influence of social innovations implemented by the enterprises was determined through regression analysis. Descriptive statistics indicated above average mean rating for adoption of social innovations by hotel enterprises, implementation of practices aimed at satisfying human needs being the most prominent innovation adopted. Findings from regression analysis showed a significant influence of socio-economic, socio-cultural, green initiatives social innovation on community empowerment. Ultimately, hierarchical regression analysis illustrated that social innovation mediates

the relationship between socio-economic practices and community empowerment. Similar observation was reported for the relationship between socio-cultural and green innovation and community empowerment.

### **5.3 Conclusions**

From the findings in the preceding sections, the following conclusions are drawn. First, and in line with the purpose of the study which was to determine the role of social entrepreneurial practices of tourism and hospitality enterprises on community empowerment along the coastal tourism circuit in Kenya, findings illustrated that socio-economic practices positively and significantly influences community empowerment. In particular, the enterprises were reported to be involving the locals in supply of goods and services, providing employment opportunities to locals and involving the locals in enterprise ownership. It can therefore be concluded that hotel enterprises' socio-economic practices are significant contributors of community empowerment.

Secondly, findings also illustrated that socio-cultural practices positively and significantly influences community empowerment along the coastal tourism circuit in Kenya. Hotels were reported to be involved in preservation of local culture, eradication of child labour and eradication of child sex tourism. It can therefore be concluded that socio-cultural practices of the hotel enterprises are also significant contributors of community empowerment.

Thirdly, the study established that there exists a positive and significant relationship between hotel enterprises green initiatives and community empowerment. In particular,



green initiatives including waste management, water conservation, energy conservation and environmental conservation were the most predominant practices adopted by the enterprises. It can therefore be concluded that hotel enterprises' green practices are significant contributors of community empowerment.

Additionally, the study was to establish the mediating role of hoteliers' social innovations on empowerment of communities in coastal tourism circuit in Kenya. It is concluded that social innovations adopted by the hotel enterprises including investments in innovative programs and practices mediated the relationship between hotel enterprises' entrepreneurial practices and empowerment of communities implying that SE practices led to innovations by the firms which in turn influenced community empowerment.

The study therefore contributes to the body of knowledge in the Socio-entrepreneurial Theory in that it highlights the significance of socio-entrepreneurial practices on sustainable empowerment of communities. It provides a means with which entrepreneurs can sustainably mitigate arising conflicts between their enterprises and host communities. By adopting socio-economic practices, sociocultural practices and green initiatives, entrepreneurs integrate their enterprises in the local communities' fabric thus making them part and parcel of the community. Cases of conflicts of interests between host communities and the enterprises are minimized and whenever they arise, they could be easily isolated and amicable solutions provided.

At the same time, the study contributes to the social innovation theory in that it confirms the significance of innovations in seeking to address social concerns. By highlighting how different innovation undertaken by entrepreneurs solve social challenges and empower the locals, the study focuses innovations for the good of all as opposed to exclusive profit maximization.

## **5.4 Recommendations**

Based on the conclusions drawn from the findings of this study, recommendations for policy and for further study are follows

### **5.4.1 Policy Recommendations**

Since the study established low levels of adoption of empowerment for youths, women and persons with disabilities policies to address the socio-economic empowerment gaps specific to this cadre of persons should be formulated and implemented.

The study while inquiring on adoption of socio-cultural practices established minimal extent of sensitization of tourists and the local communities by the enterprises on how best to coexist. The ripple effect was evident in the reported cases of misunderstandings and cultural conflicts between tourists and host communities. It is recommended that awareness programs for local communities and the tourists be enhanced to help foster mutually beneficial interaction.

It was also found that whereas the hotel enterprises had adopted some elements of green initiatives including waste management, water management, energy conservation and environment conservation, minimal effects was reported by the beneficiaries. It is

recommended that the tourism and hospitality enterprises formulate policies and strategies of enabling the inherent benefits of the green practices to trickle down to the host communities.

Similarly, whereas it was established that social innovations were the main hallmark of socio-entrepreneurial practices of the enterprises, innovations directed at empowerment of groups and issues related to social relations were not yet adequately catered for compared to other innovations relative to socio-economic, socio-cultural and technological innovations which are not directly benefiting the locals. Policy interventions by hotels are needed to focus on innovations that deal directly with locals especially the vulnerable within the local community.

Additionally, it was established that whereas the enterprises reported their involvement in various community empowerment programs, a majority of the beneficiaries indicated being unaware of the same. Findings indicated neglect by the enterprises to engage with civic leaders especially at the local community level in the process of implementing any empowerment programs that are intended to benefit the community. It is recommended that the enterprises should foster a positive working relationship with the local civic leaders to aid in disseminating positive enterprise-community relationship important for empowerment programs.

#### **5.4.2 Recommendations for Further Research**

It is suggested that further research be conducted to include a longitudinal study of role of social entrepreneurial practices of tourism and hospitality enterprises on empowerment of communities along the coastal tourism circuit in Kenya. Further, a

comparative study on the role of social entrepreneurial practices of tourism and hospitality enterprises on empowerment of communities between the coastal tourism circuit in and other regions in Kenya.

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## APPENDICES

### Appendix A: List of Classified Facilities along The Coastal Circuit in Kenya

1. BAOBAB BEACH RESORT
2. AMANI TIWI BEACH RESORT
3. BEST WESTERN PLUS CREEKSIDE
4. AZUL MARGARITA BEACH RESORT
5. DIANI REEF BEACH RESORT &SPA
6. BAMBURI BEACH HOTEL
7. DIANI SEA LODGE
8. DIANI SEA RESORT
9. HEMINGWAYS WATAMU
10. DRIFTWOOD BEACH CLUB
11. HOTEL ENGLISHPOINT & SPA
12. EDEN VILLAGE RESORT
13. JACARANDA INDIAN OCEAN BEACH RESORT
14. ELEWANA AFROCHIC DIANI BEACH HOTEL
15. KILILI BAHARINI RESORT & SPA
16. LEISURE LODGE BEACH&GOLF RESORT
17. MNARANI CLUB &SPA
18. LEOPARD POINT BEACH RESORT
19. MOFFAT COURT HOTEL
20. MEDINA PALMS
21. MSAMBWENI BEACH HOUSE &PRIVATE VILLAS
22. NEPTUNE BEACH RESORT
23. NEPTUNE PARADISE BEACH RESORT &SPA
24. PINWOOD BEACH RESORT &SPA
25. NEPTUNE VILLAGE BEACH RESORT &SPA
26. NORTH COAST BEACH HOTEL
27. PLAZA BEACH HOTEL
28. OCEAN BEACH RESORT
29. PRIDEINN HOTEL MOMBASA
30. PRIDEINN PARADISE BEACH RESORT CONFERENCE CENTRE&SPA
31. SEVERIN SEA LODGE
32. REEF HOTEL
33. SOUTHERN PALMS BEACH RESORT
34. SAROVA WHITESANDS BEACH RESORT &SPA
35. SERENA BEACH RESORT&SPA
36. SUN AFRICA BEACH RESORT
37. TRAVELLERS BEACH HOTEL&CLUB
38. SURFSIDE VILLAS
39. THE ONE WATAMU BAY
40. TURTLE BAY BEACH CLUB
41. THE MAJI BEACH BOUTIQUE HOTEL
42. VOYAGER BEACH RESORT
43. SILVER PALM SPA &RESORT

44. JAMUIA CONFERENCE & BEACH RESORT
45. AQUARIUS CLUB INTERNATIONAL RESORT
46. MORNING STAR DIANI
47. SWAHILI BEACH RESORT
48. PAVILION HOLIDAY RESORT
49. THE VILLA LUXURY SUITES HOTEL
50. MAKWETU VILLA
51. KAHAMA HOTEL MOMBASA
52. KASKAZI BEACH HOTEL
53. SENTRIM CASTLE ROYAL HOTEL
54. NYALI SUN AFRICA BEACH HOTEL & SPA
55. THE SANDS AT NOMAD
56. MILELE BEACH RESORT
57. MOMBASA BEACH HOTEL
58. LANTANA GALU BEACH
59. PAPILLON LAGOON REEF
60. BLISS RESORT

## Appendix B: Management Questionnaire

The questionnaire is intended to gather information about strategies, programs and activities that your establishments undertake that gives due regard to local communities. The information obtained from this questionnaire will be treated confidentially and will not be used for any other purpose other than to enrich the study. Thanks for accepting to take part in the programme.

**Please tick (✓) the box that matches your answer or fill the space provided**

### Section I: Background Information

**1. Personal Details**

Gender: Male ( ) Female ( )

Age in years: Below 35 ( ) 35-50 ( ) Above 50 ( )

Designation: General Manager ( ) Operations Manager ( ) Director ( )

**2. Location of business: Diani beach ( ) Nyali beach ( ) Shanzu beach-Mombasa**

( ) Bamburi beach ( ) Kilifi beach ( ) Malindi ( ) Watamu ( )

Name of Enterprise -----

Length of operation: Less than 10 years ( ) 10 to 20 years ( ) More than 20 years ( )

Status: Member of KAHC; Yes ( ) No ( )

TRA Rating; Yes ( ) No ( )

### Section II: Socioeconomic Activities

**3. In a scale of 1-5 indicate the extent to which your enterprise undertakes the following economic activities.**

Note: 1=No extent; 2=Little extent; 3=Average extent; 4=Great extent and 5=Very great extent

Activity	1	2	3	4	5
Purchasing from local suppliers					
Employment of locals					
Involvement of the local community in supplies					
Employment of local community residents					
Involve locals in ownership of the enterprise					
Employment of youths					
Employment of women					
Employment of persons with disabilities					

4. Kindly indicate the extent to which the following categories of persons are employed by your enterprise. Note: 1=No extent; 2=Little extent; 3=Average extent; 4=Great extent and 5=Very great extent

Category	1	2	3	4	5
Employees from the local community					
Youths from the local community					
Women from the local community					
Persons with disability					

5. Kindly indicate the extent to which the following categories of persons are engaged as suppliers of goods and services to your enterprise. Note: 1=No extent; 2=Little extent; 3=Average extent; 4=Great extent and 5=Very great extent

Category	1	2	3	4	5
Suppliers from the local community					
Youths from the local community					
Women from the local community					
Persons with disability					

### Section III: Socio Cultural Initiatives

6. In a scale of 1-5 indicate your agreement with statement on the extent to which your enterprise engages in the following activities. Note: 1=Strongly disagree; 2=Disagree; 3=Not sure; 4=Agree and 5=Strongly agree

Activity	1	2	3	4	5
Sensitize tourists to acquaint themselves with the characteristics of the coastal people.					
Encourages host communities to acquaint themselves with guest expectations, taste and lifestyles.					
Pursue activities harmonious with the attributes and traditions of the coastal region.					
Pursue activities harmonious in respect for the established laws, practices and customs.					
Consciously promote responsible hospitality business and ethical values acceptable to the host Kenyan people.					
Undertake measures that secures the safety of local recourses and communities					
Promotes harmonious co-existences for all residents and					

non-residents in host establishments					
The facility has in place mechanisms that discourage any act considered criminal by the laws of Kenya e.g children in sex tourism.					
Defend and preserve tourism facilities and all of elements of cultural or natural heritage.					
Observe and respect the social and cultural traditions and practices of locals including minorities.					
Refrain from all trafficking in illicit drugs, arms, antiques, protected species and products and substances that are dangerous or prohibited by state law and regulations.					
Discourage sexual tourism or exploitation of human beings in any form, and especially when applied to children and the mentally or physically challenged persons.					

7. Indicate to what extent your enterprise undertake each of the following specific measures meant to discourage any act considered criminal by the laws of Kenya

Specific Activity	1	2	3	4	5
Sign and adhere to the code of conduct against child sex tourism					
Have clauses in contracts with suppliers warning against sexual exploitation of children					
Provide information to guests through catalogs, brochures, tickets slips, websites etc					
Report criminal cases related that breach the local culture					

#### Section IV: Green Initiatives

8. In a scale of 1-5 indicate the extent to which your enterprise engages in the following activities related to green initiative.

Note: 1=No extent; 2=Little extent; 3=Average extent; 4=Great extent and 5=Very great extent

Activity	1	2	3	4	5
Portion control and donating from left over					
Recycling and composting programs					
Use of organic products					
Reducing use of harmful detergents					
Reducing the frequency of changing linen and towel					
Educate and sensitize staff on environmental issues					
Educate and sensitize guest on environmental issues through promotion materials					

Practice supplier policies that incorporate social and environmental considerations					
The facility have in use water saving devices					
The facility have in use energy saving devices					
The facility use alternative energy forms					

### Section V: Social Innovation

9. In a scale of 1-5 indicate the extent to which your enterprise engages in the following social activities. **Note:** 1=No extent; 2=Little extent; 3=Average extent; 4=Great extent and 5=Very great extent

Enterprise engages in:	1	2	3	4	5
Practices aimed at satisfying human needs					
Practices aimed at contributing towards individual empowerment					
Practices aimed at contributing towards empowerment of groups					
Practices aimed at contributing towards social relations					
Practices intended to create equality, justice and empowerment					

### Section VI: Community Empowerment

10. In a scale of 1-5 indicate your agreement with statement on the extent to which your enterprise engages in the following activities. **Note:** 1=Strongly disagree; 2=Disagree; 3=Not sure; 4=Agree and 5=Strongly agree

Enterprise engages locals through:	1	2	3	4	5
Training in sustainable and modern business standards					
Facilitating them to scan the environment for challenges and opportunities.					
Facilitating them to design and implement actionable plans.					
Facilitating them to establish networks for welfare.					
Facilitating citizens' participation in civic activities.					
Coordination with local communities to protect investments.					
Educating and training of communities to be hospitable and welcoming.					



## Appendix C: Employee Questionnaire

The questionnaire is intended to gather information about strategies, programs and activities that tourism and hospitality establishments undertake that are of benefit to local communities. The information obtained from this questionnaire will be treated confidentially and will not be used for any other purpose other than to enrich the study. Thanks for accepting to take part in the programme.

**Please tick (✓) the box that matches your answer or fill the space provided**

### Section I: Background Information

**1. Personal Details**

Gender: Male ( ) Female ( )

Age in years: Below 25 ( ) 26 – 45 ( ) Above 45 ( )

Location: Diani ( ) Nyali beach ( ) Serena beach ( ) Bamburi beach ( ) Kilifi

( ) Malindi ( ) Watamu ( )

Department \_\_\_\_\_

Educational qualification: Primary ( ) Secondary ( ) Post-secondary ( )

Others ( )

Work Experience: Less than 10 years ( ) 10 to 20 years ( ) More than 20 years

( )

### Section II: Socioeconomic Activities

**2. In a scale of 1-5 indicate the extent to which your enterprise undertakes the following economic activities.**

Note: 1=No extent; 2 = Little extent; 3=Average extent; 4=Great extent and 5=Very great extent

Activity	1	2	3	4	5
Purchasing from local suppliers					
Employment of locals					
Involvement of the local community in supplies					
Employment of local community residents					
Involve locals in ownership of the enterprise					
Employment of youths					
Employment of women					
Employment of persons with disabilities					

3. Kindly indicate the extent to which the following categories of persons are employed by your enterprise. Note: 1=No extent; 2=Little extent; 3=Average extent; 4=Great extent and 5=Very great extent

Category	1	2	3	4	5
Employees from the local community					
Youths from the local community					
Women from the local community					
Persons with disability					

4. Kindly indicate the extent to which the following categories of persons are engaged as suppliers of goods and services to your enterprise. Note: 1=No extent; 2=Little extent; 3=Average extent; 4=Great extent and 5=Very great extent

Category	1	2	3	4	5
Suppliers from the local community					
Youths from the local community					
Women from the local community					
Persons with disability					

### Section III: Socio Cultural Initiatives

5. In a scale of 1-5 indicate your agreement with statement on the extent to which your enterprise engages in the following activities. Note: 1=Strongly disagree; 2=Disagree; 3=Not sure; 4=Agree and 5=Strongly agree

Activity	1	2	3	4	5
Educate tourists to understand the culture of the coastal people.					
Sensitize local communities on expectations, taste and lifestyles of tourists.					
Engage in activities that are in harmony with traditions of the coastal region.					
Engage in activities that respect the established laws, practices and customs.					
Promote responsible ethical business values.					
Undertake measures that secures the safety of local recourses					
Undertake measures that secures the safety of local communities					

Promotes harmonious co-existences between locals and non-locals					
Discourages acts that contravene local culture					
Preserve tourism facilities including elements of cultural and natural heritage.					
Observe and respect the social and cultural traditions and practices of locals including minorities.					
Refrain from all trafficking in illicit drugs, arms, antiques, protected species and products and substances that are dangerous or prohibited by state law and regulations.					
Discourage sexual tourism or exploitation of human beings in any form, and especially when applied to children and the mentally or physically challenged persons.					

6. Indicate to what extent your enterprise undertake each of the following specific measures meant to discourage any act considered criminal by the laws of Kenya

Specific Activity	1	2	3	4	5
Sign and adhere to the code of conduct against child sex tourism					
Have clauses in contracts with suppliers warning against sexual exploitation of children					
Provide information to guests through catalogs, brochures, tickets slips, websites etc					
Report criminal cases related that breach the local culture					

#### Section IV: Green Initiatives

7. On a scale of 1-5 indicate the extent to which your enterprise engages in the following activities related to green initiative. Note: 1=No extent; 2=Little extent; 3=Average extent; 4=Great extent and 5=Very great extent

Activity	1	2	3	4	5
Portion control of consumables					
Recycling and composting programs					
Use of organic products					
Reducing use of harmful detergents					
Reducing the frequency of changing linen and towel					
Educate and sensitize staff on environmental issues					
Educate and sensitize guest on environmental issues through promotion materials					
Practice supplier policies that incorporate social and environmental considerations					

The facility have in use water saving devices					
The facility have in use energy saving devices					
The facility use alternative energy forms					

### Section V: Social Innovation

8. In a scale of 1-5 indicate the extent to which your enterprise engages in the following social activities. **Note:** 1=No extent; 2=Little extent; 3=Average extent; 4=Great extent and 5=Very great extent

Enterprise engages in:	1	2	3	4	5
Practices aimed at satisfying human needs					
Practices aimed at contributing towards individual empowerment					
Practices aimed at contributing towards empowerment of groups					
Practices aimed at contributing towards social relations					
Practices intended to create equality, justice and empowerment					

### Community Empowerment

9. In a scale of 1-5 indicate your agreement with statement on the extent to which your enterprise engages in the following activities. **Note:** 1=Strongly disagree; 2=Disagree; 3=Not sure; 4=Agree and 5=Strongly agree

Enterprise empowers locals through:	1	2	3	4	5
Training in sustainable and modern business standards					
Facilitating them to scan the environment for challenges and opportunities.					
Facilitating them to design and implement actionable plans.					
Facilitating them to establish networks for welfare.					
Facilitating citizens' participation in civic activities.					
Coordination with local communities to protect investments.					
Educating and training of communities to be hospitable and welcoming.					

## Appendix D: Supplier/Beach Operators Questionnaire

The questionnaire is intended to gather information about strategies, programs and activities undertaken by tourism and hospitality establishments in your area that are of benefit to yourself and members of the local community. The information obtained from this questionnaire will be treated confidentially and will not be used for any other purpose other than to enrich the study. Thanks for accepting to take part in the programme. **Please tick (✓) the box that matches your answer or fill the space provided**

### Section I: Background Information

#### 1. Personal Details

Gender: Male ( ) Female ( )

Age in years: Below 25 ( ) 26 – 45 ( ) Above 45 ( )

Supplier ( ) Beach operator ( )

Location: Diani ( ) Nyali beach ( ) Serena beach ( ) Bamburi beach ( ) Kilifi

( ) Malindi ( ) Watamu ( )

Educational qualification: Primary ( ) Secondary ( ) Post-secondary ( )

Others ( )

### Section II: Socioeconomic Activities

#### 2. In a scale of 1-5 indicate the extent to which hotel enterprises undertakes the following socio-economic activities.

Note: 1=No extent; 2=Little extent; 3=Average extent; 4=Great extent and 5=Very great extent

Activity	1	2	3	4	5
Purchasing from local suppliers					
Employment of locals					
Involvement of the local community in supplies					
Employment of local community residents					
Involve locals in ownership of the enterprise					
Employment of youths					
Employment of women					
Employment of persons with disabilities					

#### 3. Kindly indicate the extent to which hotel enterprises engages the services of the following categories of persons. Note: 1=No extent; 2=Little extent; 3=Average extent; 4=Great extent and 5=Very great extent

Category	1	2	3	4	5
Employees from the local community					
Youths from the local community					
Women from the local community					
Persons with disability					

4. Kindly indicate the extent to which hotel enterprises engage the service of following categories of persons are in supply of goods and services. Note: 1=No extent; 2=Little extent; 3=Average extent; 4=Great extent and 5=Very great extent

Category	1	2	3	4	5
Suppliers from the local community					
Youths from the local community					
Women from the local community					
Persons with disability					

5. Kindly state the type of supply: Goods ( ) Services ( )  
 Frequency of supply: Daily ( ) Weekly ( ) Monthly ( )  
 Mode of payment: Cash ( ) Cheque ( ) Other ( ) If other, please state \_\_\_\_\_  
 Kindly indicate promptness of payment of supplies: Prompt ( ) Not prompt ( )  
 Kindly rate level of access to opportunity to supply goods and services by the local community to hotels: Very difficult ( ) Difficult ( ) Easy ( ) Very easy ( )

### Section III: Socio Cultural Initiatives

6. In a scale of 1-5 indicate your agreement with statement on the extent to which hotel enterprise engages in the following activities. Note: 1=Strongly disagree; 2=Disagree; 3=Not sure; 4=Agree and 5=Strongly agree

Activity	1	2	3	4	5
Educate tourists to understand the culture of the coastal people.					
Sensitize local communities on expectations, taste and lifestyles of tourists.					
Engage in activities that are in harmony with traditions of the coastal region.					
Engage in activities that respect the established laws, practices and customs.					
Promote responsible ethical business values.					
Undertake measures that secures the safety of local recourses					

Undertake measures that secures the safety of local communities					
Promotes harmonious co-existences between locals and non-locals					
Discourages acts that contravene local culture					
Preserve tourism facilities including elements of cultural and natural heritage.					
Observe and respect the social and cultural traditions and practices of locals including minorities.					
Refrain from all trafficking in illicit drugs, arms, antiques, protected species and products and substances that are dangerous or prohibited by state law and regulations.					
Discourage sexual tourism or exploitation of human beings in any form, and especially when applied to children and the mentally or physically challenged persons.					

7. Indicate to what extent hotel enterprises undertake each of the following specific measures meant to discourage any act considered criminal by the laws of Kenya

Specific Activity	1	2	3	4	5
Have clauses in contracts with suppliers warning against sexual exploitation of children					
Provide information to guests through catalogs, brochures, tickets slips, websites etc					
Report criminal cases related that breach the local culture					

#### Section IV: Green Initiatives

8. On a scale of 1-5 indicate the extent to which your enterprise engages in the following activities related to green initiative. Note: 1=No extent; 2=Little extent; 3=Average extent; 4=Great extent and 5=Very great extent

Activity	1	2	3	4	5
Demand use recyclable materials in packaging of products					
Undertakes composting programs for waste					
Encourage supply of organic products					
Undertake measures to reduce use of harmful detergents					
Educate and sensitize suppliers on environmental issues					
Educate and sensitize guest on environmental issues through promotion materials					
Practice supplier policies that incorporate social and environmental considerations					

The facility have in use water saving devices					
The facility have in use energy saving devices					
The facility use alternative energy forms					

### Section V: Social Innovation

9. In a scale of 1-5 indicate the extent to which hotel enterprise engages in the following activities. **Note:** 1=No extent; 2=Little extent; 3=Average extent; 4=Great extent and 5=Very great extent

Enterprise engages in:	1	2	3	4	5
Practices aimed at satisfying human needs					
Practices aimed at contributing towards individual empowerment					
Practices aimed at contributing towards empowerment of groups					
Practices aimed at contributing towards social relations					
Practices intended to create equality, justice and empowerment					

### Community Empowerment

10. In a scale of 1-5 indicate your agreement with statement on the extent to which hotel enterprise engages in the following activities. **Note:** 1=Strongly disagree; 2=Disagree; 3=Not sure; 4=Agree and 5=Strongly agree

Enterprise empowers locals through:	1	2	3	4	5
Training in sustainable and modern business standards					
Facilitating them to scan the environment for challenges and opportunities.					
Facilitating them to design and implement actionable plans.					
Facilitating them to establish networks for welfare.					
Facilitating citizens' participation in civic activities.					
Coordination with local communities to protect investments.					
Educating and training of communities to be hospitable and welcoming.					

### Appendix E: Civic Leaders Interview Schedule



The interview schedule is intended to gather information about strategies, programs and activities undertaken by tourism and hospitality establishments in your area that are of benefit to members of the local community. The information you provide will be highly confidential and will only be used for the purposes of this study. Your cooperation is highly appreciated.

1. Locality \_\_\_\_\_
2. Designation \_\_\_\_\_
3. How long have you been working as a civic leader?  
\_\_\_\_\_
4. How do you relate with the hotel establishments within your area?
5. What do hotels within your jurisdiction in collaboration with your office engage in line with each of the following practices:
  - a) Socioeconomic practices: Employment of locals-  
Supplies of goods and services from locals-  
Support for vocational and professional training-
  - b) Sociocultural practices:  
Promotion of local culture, preservation of cultural tradition-  
Discouraging exploitation of locals including children and the vulnerable  
in the society-  
  
Promotion of locals and the business community-
  - c) Green initiatives: Waste disposal-  
Conservation of water-  
Conservation of energy-  
Conservation of local natural resources-
  - d) Civic activities: Tree planting-

National conservation days-

Support for community affirmative activities-

6. Do you have anything more to add?

**Thank very much for your time**

## Appendix F: KEMU Research Authorization Letter



### Kenya Methodist University

P. O. Box 267 - 60200  
Meru, Kenya  
Email: [info@kemu.ac.ke](mailto:info@kemu.ac.ke)

Tel: (+254 - 020) 2118423-7, 064 - 30301/31229  
Fax: (+254 - 064) 30162  
Website: [www.kemu.ac.ke](http://www.kemu.ac.ke)

August 1, 2017

Executive Secretary  
National Council for Science and Technology  
P.O Box 30623 – 00100  
**NAIROBI**

Dear Sir/ Madam

**RE: IKWAYE SAMWEL – BUS-4-7089-1/2015**

This is to confirm that the above named is a bona fide student of Kenya Methodist University pursuing a Doctor of Philosophy Business Administration and Management.

Samwel is undertaking a research study on “Role of Socio-Entrepreneurship Practices on Empowerment of Communities Within the Coastal Tourism Circuit in Kenya”. To successfully complete his research work, he requires relevant data in his area of study.

In this regard, we kindly request your office to issue him a research permit to enable him collect the data for his academic research work.

We thank you in advance for your cooperation.

Yours faithfully





Dr. Evangeline Gichunge  
Associate Dean, Research Development & Board of Postgraduate Studies



Nairobi Campus: Kolmange Street, P. O. Box 45240 - 00100 Nairobi - Tel. +254-20-2118443/2248172/2247987/0725 - 751878. Fax +254-20-2248160. Email: [nairobicampus@kemu.ac.ke](mailto:nairobicampus@kemu.ac.ke)  
Nakuru Campus: Mache Plaza, 4th Floor, P. O. Box 3654 - 20100, Nakuru, Tel +254-51-2214456 Fax 051-2216446. Email: [nakurucampus@kemu.ac.ke](mailto:nakurucampus@kemu.ac.ke)  
Mombasa Campus: Former Oshwal Academy, P. O. Box 89983, Mombasa. Tel: +254-41-2495945/8. Fax 041-2495946. Email: [mombasacampus@kemu.ac.ke](mailto:mombasacampus@kemu.ac.ke)

Appendix G: NACOSTI Research Authorization Letter

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

Telephone: +254-20-2213471, 2241349, 3310571, 2219420  
 Fax: +254-20-318245, 318249  
 Email: dg@nacosti.go.ke  
 Website : www.nacosti.go.ke  
 When replying please quote

9<sup>th</sup> Floor, Utalii House  
 Uhuru Highway  
 P.O. Box 30623-00100  
 NAIROBI-KENYA

Ref: No. **NACOSTI/P/17/13991/18757**
Date: **23<sup>rd</sup> August, 2017**

Samwel Oriyamah Ikwaye  
 Kenya Methodist University  
 P.O. Box 267- 60200  
 MERU.

Authorize to collect data in  
 Mombasa County

**RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION**


Following your application for authority to carry out research on *Role of socio-entrepreneurial practices on the empowerment of communities within the Coastal Tourism Circuit in Kenya,* I am pleased to inform you that you have been authorized to undertake research in **Kilifi, Kwale, Mombasa Counties** for the period ending **22<sup>nd</sup> August, 2018.**


COUNTY COMMISSIONER  
 MOMBASA

13/10/17

You are advised to report to the **County Commissioners and the County Directors of Education, Kilifi, Kwale, Mombasa Counties** before embarking on the research project.

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

  
**GODFREY P. KALERWA MSc., MBA, MKIM**  
**FOR: DIRECTOR-GENERAL/CEO**



Copy to:  
 The County Commissioner  
 Kilifi County.

COUNTY COMMISSIONER  
 KILIFI COUNTY  
 P. O. Box 29-80108,  
 KILIFI