

**SUCCESS FACTORS AND BARRIERS TO LOCAL COMMUNITY  
ENGAGEMENT IN TOURISM ENTREPRENEURSHIP IN THE  
TARANGIRE-MANYARA ECOSYSTEM, TANZANIA**

**BY**

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Doctor of Philosophy in Tourism Management**

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## DECLARATION

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## DEDICATION

This thesis is lovingly dedicated to my beloved wife, Clemencia Charles, and our precious daughter, Eliana Richard, whose unwavering love, patience, and encouragement have been a constant source of strength throughout this journey. Your presence in my life has given me purpose, resilience, and hope.

I also extend my heartfelt gratitude to my dear parents, Aloyce Kisasembe and Romarda Daud, who raised me with love and guided me with wisdom. Though you passed away before witnessing this milestone, your moral and material support, your prayers, and your steadfast belief in my potential continue to illuminate my path. This achievement is a reflection of your sacrifices and your enduring love. I am deeply, and forever, grateful

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## ABSTRACT

Tourism entrepreneurship plays a critical role in global economic growth and job creation. Recognizing this, the Government of Tanzania has actively promoted tourism entrepreneurship to empower local communities to engage. Despite these efforts, engagement in tourism entrepreneurship within the Tarangire–Manyara ecosystem remains limited. This is particularly concerning given that poverty levels among local communities remain high despite the region’s abundant natural and cultural resources. This study therefore aimed to explore how local communities engage in tourism entrepreneurship. More specifically, it identified and described ways in which local community engage in tourism entrepreneurship, examined success factors influencing their engagement, examine the barriers they face, and evaluated the entrepreneurial propensity of indigenous and non-indigenous residents in utilizing tourism opportunities. Guided by the Entrepreneurial Ecosystem Theory and Entrepreneurial Opportunity Recognition and Development, a qualitative exploratory case study was conducted using an interpretivist philosophical stance. The sample population was drawn across four administrative wards such as Mto wa mbu, Esilalei, Nkaiti and Mwada, selected through purposive and snowball sampling. A total of 89 participants formed the final sample size. Data were collected through semi-structured interviews with business owners, tourism officers, and trade officers; focus group discussions with village leaders; and document reviews of government reports and policies. All data were analyzed using content analysis. The findings revealed that the Tarangire–Manyara Ecosystem offers a wide range of entrepreneurial opportunities, with local community members participating in cultural tourism, accommodation, food and beverage services, tour guiding and transportation. It also found multiple success factors influencing local community engagement such as access to financial capital, strong social networks, supportive regulations, entrepreneurial traits, prior experience, marketing skills, education, and market demand which interact within a broader network of stakeholders. It further found a series of interconnected barriers that limit local community engagement. These include limited capital, weak networks, restrictive policies and high fees, market competition, poor marketing skills and language barriers. These constraints reinforce one another across the same stakeholder system, creating a challenging environment for starting and sustaining tourism enterprises. The study further found that non-indigenous residents capitalize tourism entrepreneurial opportunities than indigenous residents, largely due to better access to capital, tourism education and experience, fewer restrictive socio-cultural norms, and stronger entrepreneurial traits. The study concludes that while tourism opportunities are diverse, their successful capitalization depends on both individual effort and external ecosystem factors. It recommends forming entrepreneurial groups, providing targeted training and mentorship, and creating supportive business environments. Overall, the study validates the applicability of the Entrepreneurial Ecosystem framework and Entrepreneurial Opportunity Recognition and Development in rural tourism contexts, emphasizing that the effective capitalization of tourism opportunities among local communities depends not only on the availability of resources but also on the interaction between individual entrepreneurial efforts and the surrounding ecosystem.

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**ABBREVIATION AND ACRONYMS**

|       |  |
|-------|--|
| Brela | Business Registration and Licensing Agency |
| GDP   | Global Domestic Product                    |
| MNRT  | Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism  |
| MSMEs | Micro, Small and Medium-Sized Enterprises  |
| UNWTO | United Nations World Tourism Organization  |
| URT   | United Republic of Tanzania                |
| WBG   | World Bank Group                           |
| WEF   | World Economic Forum                       |
| WTTC  | World Travel and Tourism Council           |

## OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF TERMS

|   |  |
|---|--|
| <b>Entrepreneurship</b>                 | Is the process of developing something new and valuable by investing time and effort, taking on financial, psychological, and social risks, and ultimately gaining rewards such as monetary profit, personal fulfillment, and greater independence (Buzza & Mosca, 2009)   |
| <b>Entrepreneurial propensity</b>       | Refers to an individual's tendency, likelihood, or inclination to engage in entrepreneurial activities, such as starting a new business, identifying opportunities, or taking entrepreneurial risks (Lee et al., 2011)   |
| <b>Entrepreneurial Ecosystem Theory</b> | Is a theory which conceptualizes entrepreneurship as a dynamic system of interconnected actors (individuals, institutions, and organizations), contextual factors (social, political, economic, and cultural), and the relationships among them within a specific geographic setting which interact to either support or obstruct entrepreneurial activity (Fubah & Moos, 2021; Stam & van de Ven, 2021) |

**Local Community**

Is a group of individuals residing or working within the same geographic area who share certain cultural traits or common interests; they have a sense of belongingness with their fellow members, and try to satisfy their social, economic, political, and psychological needs (Jaafar et al., 2017; Scherl & Edwards, 2007). Tourism academics they refer community as locals, natives, residents, indigenous people, destination people, or hosts. In this study the term “local community” refers to indigenous residents who are ethnic group or traditional groups native to the Tarangire-Manyara ecosystem by birth and non-indigenous residents, who are individuals born elsewhere in Tanzania.

**Theory of Entrepreneurial Opportunities Recognition and Development**

This theory contends that entrepreneurship begins with the ability to recognize opportunities that others may overlook. This process is influenced by the entrepreneur’s prior knowledge, creativity, and alertness. Once an opportunity is identified, it must be developed through activities such as information gathering, resource mobilization, experimentation, and iterative refinement to transform it into a viable business venture (Ardichvili et al., 2003; Shane & Venkataraman, 2000).

|                                 |   |
|---------------------------------|---|
| <b>Tourism</b>                  | Is the activities of people travelling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for leisure, business or other purposes for not more than one consecutive year (Cooper et al., 2008). |
| <b>Tourism Entrepreneurship</b> | Refer to refers to the process of establishing and managing a legally recognized business within the tourism sector (Bagherifard et al., 2013; Biswas & Mamun-Or-Rashid, 2018)                        |

## **CHAPTER ONE**

### **INTRODUCTION**

#### **1.0 Overview**

This chapter provides an overview of the study's background, outlines the problem statement, defines the research objectives and questions, highlights the significance of the study, scope of the study and limitation of the study.

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

Local community engagement in tourism entrepreneurship has gained significant attention in recent years, largely due to its contribution to local community development. Tourism entrepreneurship create employment opportunities, generates income, and more importantly supports the growth of local businesses, fostering sustainable and inclusive economic progress (Chiutsi & Mudzengi, 2012; Kideghesho et al., 2021; Utami et al., 2023). In rural areas, tourism entrepreneurship is primarily a community-based (Elena et al., 2015; Utami et al., 2023) and is largely composed of micro, small and medium-sized enterprises (MSMEs), which play a crucial role in channeling economic benefits to the grassroots level (Dimoska et al., 2015). In this approach, local communities are being placed at the center of tourism product development and the value distribution chain (Chiutsi & Mudzengi, 2012). It challenges the outdated notion that local community involvement in tourism development is limited to serving as low-wage labor for large tourism conglomerates (Chiutsi & Mudzengi, 2012). Instead, it promotes active community participation as entrepreneurs, decision-makers, and key beneficiaries within the tourism value chain (Blackstock, 2005). This approach is closely linked to rural development, fostering a sense of ownership among local communities and encouraging a more positive perception of protected areas (Abukari & Benedict, 2020). Several countries around

the world have adopted this approach, yielding valuable lessons from their successes (Chiutsi & Mudzengi, 2012; Imbaya et al., 2019; Salleh et al., 2016; Utami et al., 2023).

Globally, tourism has proven to be a cornerstone of economic activity, contributing significantly to both employment and GDP. In 2019, the industry was responsible for approximately 334 million jobs and generated around 10.4 percent of global gross domestic product (GDP), which equated to a staggering USD 9.2 trillion. In Africa, the industry created more than 25 million jobs and generated over US\$186 billion across the continent in 2019 (WTTC, 2023). In East Africa, the industry created approximately 7.1% of total employment and generated an average of 9.5% to the GDP in the East African Community Partner States in 2019 (Muoki, 2021).

In the Tanzanian, tourism is recognized as a major priority within development agenda (URT, 2017) due to the sector's significant contribution to job creation and income generation (Kyara et al., 2021; Malleo & Mtengwa, 2018; Nzarabahi, 2017). The sector contributed about USD 3.4 billion in 2023 (Mboghoina & Simba, 2024) and accounted for approximately 11.1% of total employment (1,550,100 jobs) in 2019, making it the second-largest contributor to national income after the manufacturing sector, and the third-largest provider of employment in the country (Kyara et al., 2021). On average, the tourism sector accounts for 17.2% of the national Gross Domestic Product (GDP)(URT, 2024). Tourism entrepreneurship in Tanzania is also framed within the broader context of community-based tourism (CBT). In this approach local community are encouraged to develop tourism-related enterprises such as homestays, guiding services, cultural performances, handicrafts, and ecotourism ventures (Lemunge et al., 2025; Lwoga, 2015; Mgonja et al., 2015). A

large percentage of these businesses are practiced adjacent to protected areas (Lwoga, 2015; Mgonja et al., 2015; Ngonya, 2015). They created both direct and indirect employment opportunities for skilled, semi-skilled, and unskilled individuals (Henseler et al., 2022; Kinyondo & Pelizzo, 2015; Muganda, 2009).

The Tarangire-Manyara ecosystem stands as one of the most significant and iconic tourist destinations in northern Tanzania. It encompasses a diverse range of land uses, including national parks, game reserves, wildlife management areas, game-controlled areas, open lands, and as well as surrounding village lands (Kissui, 2008). These village lands are inhabited by local communities, primarily pastoralists and agro-pastoralist groups, who coexist with wildlife in their daily lives (Kissui et al., 2019; Muganda, 2009). The area is renowned for its rich biodiversity, iconic wildlife, and vibrant cultural heritage, which collectively make it a major attraction for tourism activities (Kissui et al., 2019; Muganda, 2009). These activities have opened up numerous tourism-based entrepreneurial opportunities, including travel agencies, tour guiding services, accommodation facilities, transport services, handicraft businesses, and local food ventures (Gara & Mhache, 2021; Mmbaga et al., 2024; Mrema, 2015; Muganda et al., 2010). Today, tourism is widely acknowledged and actively promoted as a crucial source of livelihood for local communities. It significantly contributes to employment creation and household income generation, thereby enabling communities to enhance their economic well-being while participating in sustainable and culturally meaningful activities (Mmbaga et al., 2024; Muganda et al., 2010). In addition, tourism investors play a pivotal role in supporting local governments in the implementation of various socio-economic development initiatives, further fostering community development (Mrema, 2015). Beyond its economic benefits, tourism has also strengthened local engagement in conservation efforts, encouraging communities

to actively participate in protecting and preserving their natural and cultural heritage (Abukari & Benedict, 2020; Mgonja, 2023; Njole, 2011). However, it has been observed that foreigners often benefit more from the available opportunities than the local communities (Lwoga, 2013; Salazar, 2009; Tourism Officer-Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism [MNRT], personal communication, September 15, 2022). This disparity raises an important question: how do local communities' access and take advantage of tourism entrepreneurial opportunities.

Studies on entrepreneurship examine entrepreneurial engagement from multiple perspectives. The first perspective views entrepreneurial engagement through the lens of opportunity recognition and development (Ardichvili et al., 2003; Gumel, 2018; Lickiss, 2014). According to Ardichvili et al. (2003) entrepreneurship is a dynamic process involving four essential elements: the entrepreneur, the opportunity, resources, and the creation of a new venture. Entrepreneurship begins with the entrepreneur, who serves as the central actor responsible for identifying opportunities, mobilizing resources, and initiating the establishment of a new organization. Among these components, opportunities are fundamental, as the entrepreneurial process cannot advance without them. An entrepreneur's capacity to identify and exploit opportunities is shaped by a variety of factors, including entrepreneurial alertness, information asymmetry, prior knowledge, personality traits, social networks, and the type of opportunity itself (Ardichvili et al., 2003; Gumel, 2018). Together, these factors influence how effectively entrepreneurs perceive, evaluate, and act upon potential opportunities in their environment.

A second perspective examines entrepreneurial engagement in relation to individual-level factors such as prior knowledge, beliefs, cognitive processes, experiences, and

perceptions of value both monetary and non-monetary. These also include education, experiential learning, and other personal attributes, as well as contextual factors like culture, formal institutions, and the availability of resources (Ács et al., 2014; Lampadarijos, 2015; Nikolić et al., 2015).

A third perspective emphasizes the role of the entrepreneurial ecosystem. Scholars such as Stam and van de Ven (2021) and World Economic Forum (2013) argue that entrepreneurial success or failure is shaped by the interplay of multiple actors and environmental factors within the ecosystem. The actors include local community, government and policy makers, financial institutions, educational institutions, NGOs, tour operators and private partners while factors include finance, skills, policies and regulations, experience, education and market (Stam & van de Ven, 2021; World Economic Forum, 2013).

## **1.2 Problem Statement and Justification**

Tourism entrepreneurship plays a vital role in stimulating local economies and significantly contributes to national GDP (UNCTAD, 2017). In Tanzania, the sector generated about 11.1% of total employment (1,550,100 jobs) in 2019 (Kyara et al., 2021) and contributed about USD 3.4 billion in 2023 (Mboghoina & Simba, 2024). Given this significant, tourism entrepreneurship has become a key focus within Tanzania national policy framework (URT, 1999, 2003, 2017), and the government has established a range of strategies and initiative among them community based tourism entrepreneurship aimed at empowering and enhancing participation of local communities in the tourism sector (Lwoga, 2015; Salazar, 2012).

Despite these initiatives, local community engagement in tourism entrepreneurship within the Tarangire-Manyara ecosystem remains limited. This is particularly

concerning given that poverty levels among local communities remain high, despite the region's abundant natural and cultural resources and growing tourist numbers (Mcdowell, 2012). Furthermore, many communities perceive the benefits derived from protected areas as inequitable, which can further undermine their willingness to support conservation efforts (Abukari & Benedict, 2020).

Many extant entrepreneurship studies have identified a wide range of factors that determine entrepreneurial engagement, emphasizing the complex interaction of personal, environmental, institutional, and systemic influences (Ács et al., 2014; Adeyemi, 2021; Lampadarios, 2015; Nikolić et al., 2015; Stam & van de Ven, 2021). While this body of literature provides valuable theoretical insights, a significant gap remains in understanding how these factors function within specific local tourism contexts, particularly in ecologically sensitive and conservation-driven landscapes such as the Tarangire–Manyara ecosystem in Tanzania. Furthermore, many studies tend to focus primarily on the success factors and barriers influencing the growth of small and medium enterprises (SMEs) (Lampadarios, 2015; Satar & John, 2018; Zahra, 2011), with comparatively limited research examining local community engagement. While such research provides valuable insights, there is a lack of holistic understanding of the factors that enable some locals to successfully engage in tourism entrepreneurship, while others fail to do so. This gap presents an opportunity to investigate how local communities identify and capitalize on tourism opportunities, as well as to examine the key success factors and barriers influencing their engagement in tourism entrepreneurship within the Tarangire–Manyara Ecosystem.

### **1.3 Study Objectives**

#### **1.3.1 General Objective**

To explore how the local community engages in tourism entrepreneurship within Tarangire-Manyara Ecosystem in Tanzania, and examine the key success factors and barriers influencing their engagement.

#### **1.3.2 Specific Objectives**

1. To identify and describe the ways in which the local community engages in tourism entrepreneurship within the Tarangire-Manyara ecosystem
2. To examine success factors influencing local community engagement in tourism entrepreneurship within Tarangire-Manyara Ecosystem
3. To examine the barriers that hinder local community engagement in tourism entrepreneurship within Tarangire-Manyara Ecosystem
4. Evaluate entrepreneurial propensity of indigenous residents and non-indigenous residents in utilizing tourism opportunities within Tarangire-Manyara Ecosystem

### **1.4 Research Questions**

1. How does the local community engage in tourism entrepreneurship within the Tarangire-Manyara Ecosystem?
2. What are the success factors influencing local community to effectively engage in tourism entrepreneurship within Tarangire-Manyara ecosystem?
3. What are the barriers influencing local community engagement in tourism entrepreneurship within Tarangire Manyara Ecosystem?

4. How does the entrepreneurial propensity of indigenous and non-indigenous residents differ in utilizing tourism opportunities within Tarangire-Manyara Ecosystem?

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

There has been an increasing use of tourism entrepreneurship as a strategy to maximize the sector's potential contribution to poverty reduction, biodiversity conservation, destination competitiveness, and sustainable tourism development (Ibrahim et al., 2018; Nzarabahi, 2017; Utami et al., 2023). The study identified various tourism entrepreneurial opportunities within the Tarangire-Manyara ecosystem and the forms of enterprises in which local communities engage. It further examined the key success factors and barriers influencing their participation in tourism entrepreneurship, as well as the differences in entrepreneurial propensity between indigenous and non-indigenous residents. This study makes a significant contribution to understanding community engagement in tourism entrepreneurship within the Tarangire-Manyara ecosystem. Methodologically, it demonstrates the effectiveness of a qualitative approach using semi-structured interviews, focus group discussions, and document reviews, providing a replicable framework for analyzing complex social and economic interactions in rural tourism contexts. Theoretically, it validates and applies the Entrepreneurial Ecosystem Theory and the Entrepreneurial Opportunity Recognition and Development framework, showing that successful tourism entrepreneurship depends not only on individual skills but also on the dynamic interaction of multiple actors and ecosystem factors, including policies, financial institutions, NGOs, tour operators, and social networks. Practically, the findings offer actionable insights for policymakers, tourism stakeholders, and local communities, such as forming entrepreneurial groups, providing targeted training and

mentorship, improving access to financial resources, strengthening business networks, and creating supportive policies and infrastructure, all aimed at enhancing indigenous community participation, improving livelihoods, and promoting sustainable development in the ecosystem.

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

This study explored how local community engage in tourism entrepreneurship in the Tarangire-Manyara Ecosystem in Tanzania, their success factors and barriers. It further evaluated entrepreneurial propensity between indigenous residents and non-indigenous residents in utilizing tourism entrepreneurial opportunities. The study targeted the local community engaging in tourism business in four administrative wards in the Tarangire-Manyara Ecosystem, that is Mto wa Mbu, Esilaei, Nkaiti, and Mwada. The wards were selected as the study area due to their proximity and the presence of significant tourism activities. In this study, the term local community refers to both indigenous residents who are ethnic groups or traditionally from the Tarangire-Manyara ecosystem by birth and non-indigenous residents, who were born elsewhere in Tanzania but have relocated to the area for employment, settlement, or other reasons. It focused on micro, small, and medium-sized tourism enterprises (MSMTEs) (URT, 2003) that have been in operation in the study area. It further also involved village leaders, trade and tourism officers from Monduli and Babati districts, and tourism officers from the Tarangire and Manyara National parks. The study's data collection was conducted over four-month period, from April to August 2024. The study is limited to qualitative inquiry, utilizing semi-structured interviews, focus group discussions, and document reviews to gain in-depth insights

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

While this study provides valuable insights into tourism entrepreneurship in the Tarangire-Manyara Ecosystem, it is important to acknowledge several limitations that may have affected the depth, scope, and generalizability of the findings. The study was confined to the Tarangire-Manyara Ecosystem, which may limit the generalizability of the findings to other regions with different socio-economic, cultural, or environmental contexts. Some respondents may have provided socially desirable answers or overstated their challenges and achievements, especially regarding business performance, or regulatory compliance. Although content analysis was guided by prescribed themes, qualitative research, especially using tools like MAXQDA, is still subject to the researchers' interpretation, which can introduce bias in how data is coded and understood. By focusing solely on tourism-based entrepreneurship, the study may not fully capture cross-sectoral linkages or other entrepreneurial opportunities that interact with tourism (e.g., agriculture, transport).

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **2.0 Overview**

This chapter addresses several issues related to tourism entrepreneurship by reviewing some significant aspects that have emerged from various secondary data sources such as reports, articles, conference proceedings, and other sources of information. The chapter covers the concept of tourism industry, tourism industry at the international level, Africa, East Africa and Tanzania. It also highlights entrepreneurship, tourism entrepreneurship, entrepreneurship in Tanzania, community engagement in tourism entrepreneurship, a theoretical review and conceptual framework.

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

The term tourism is defined by Cooper et al. (2008) as the activities of people traveling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for leisure, business, or other purposes for not more than one consecutive year. Tourism is further defined as a social, cultural, and economic phenomenon involving the movement of people to destinations outside their usual environment for personal, business, or professional purposes (UNWTO, 2017). The UNWTO (2017) further clarifies that people who are visiting unusual places are called visitors, who can either be tourists or excursionists; residents or non-residents performing various activities in the destination. The activities that are being performed while in the destination are what is called tourism (Camilleri, 2018). These activities may involve market transactions or not, and they can either differ from or resemble those typically performed in an individual's daily routine. The origins of modern tourism can be traced back to Western Europe in the 17th century, with significant development occurring in 1841 when Thomas Cook organized the first package tour to nearby cities and town (Cooper et al., 2008;

Rotich, 2012). Tourism, as a field of study, presents several challenges and misconceptions for those who study, teach, and conduct research in the discipline. Tourism is often characterized as a multifaceted industry because it integrates various sectors such as transportation, hospitality, entertainment, and attractions. Despite being widely recognized, tourism's status as an industry is contested due to its absence of a formal production process and the intangible nature of its outputs, in contrast to more traditional sectors like agriculture. The unstructured nature of the tourist business, in particular, has made it difficult to assess its impact on the economy in comparison to other industries (Cooper et al., 2008).

According to Cooper et al. (2008) and Middleton et al. (2009), the tourism industry comprises five key components: hospitality, attractions and events, transport, travel organizers and intermediaries, and destination organizing sectors. The hospitality sector includes hotels, lodges, bed and breakfasts, guest houses, timeshares, conferences, villas, cottages, rest houses, inns, restaurants, and cafes. The attractions and events sector include wildlife attractions, cultural attractions, theme parks, sports, and landscapes. The transport sector includes airlines, railways, buses, car rental operators, and shipping lines. The travel organizers and intermediaries sector include tour operators, travel agencies, and conference organizers, and the destination organizations sector include national tourist offices, destination marketing organizations, local tourist offices, and tourists' associations.

## **2.2 Tourism at the Global level**

Tourism has traditionally played a significant role in driving socioeconomic development across many countries and regions. Tourism has the potential to generate employment and support the growth of local enterprises, particularly in rural areas, while also promoting the development of infrastructure and public services (ILO,

2022; Manzoor et al., 2019). The industry makes a substantial contribution to the economic growth of a country, as reflected in its GDP (Manzoor et al., 2019). The resilience of the sector is a result of the active engagement of local people in tourism activities in the form of employment or tourism-based entrepreneurial business operations such as hotels, restaurants, curio shops, and others (Jaafar et al., 2011; Maria, 2016).

Prior to 2020, the global tourism sector was one of the world's fastest-growing and largest economic sectors (ILO, 2022; WTTC, 2022). The industry contributed about US\$8 trillion to the global economy, representing 10.4 percent of global gross domestic product (GDP) in 2019 (ILO, 2022; Kumar & Ekka, 2023). The number of foreign tourists arriving worldwide increased by 4% to 1.5 billion in 2019. This is a significant increase from the remarkable growth rate of 6% in 2018 (BoT et al, 2019). Tourism-related entrepreneurial activities contributed to more than 300 million jobs, making up 10.6% of all employment worldwide, and generated 10.4% of the global gross domestic product (GDP) (USD 9.2 trillion) in 2019 (ILO, 2022; WTTC, 2021). Approximately 80 percent of tourism is found in micro, small, and medium enterprises (UNCTAD, 2017). According to global market share trends, Europe continues to have the highest share (50.8%), followed by East Asia, the Pacific, and the Americas. With shares below 5%, Africa and the Middle East had the lowest percentage (BoT et al, 2019).

In 2020, the world experienced a drastic drop in international arrivals by 74 percent worldwide, from 1.5 billion in 2019 to 381 million, due to restrictions, border closures, prohibition of public events, total or partial quarantines, confinement, and physical distancing caused by the COVID-19 pandemic disease. Travel and tourism experienced a loss of almost US\$4.5 trillion in 2020 (ILO, 2022). The decline was felt

across the entire sector, including small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs), which account for a total of 80% of all global GDP (ILO, 2022; WTTC, 2022). Africa's international arrivals fell by 70 percent, America by 69 percent, Europe by 71 percent, and the Middle East by 76 percent (ILO, 2022). The commotion caused by economic activity in the tourism sector has had a tremendous impact on the livelihood of people, as most of them lost their jobs and income (Brozović & Saito, 2022).

However, prospects remain hopeful, with the industry demonstrating a strong capacity for recovery and resilience once again. Despite the challenges the sector faces, the prediction indicates a robust decade of development. The GDP of travel and tourism is anticipated to increase by 5.8% annually on average between 2022 and 2032, exceeding the 2.7% annual growth of the total economy. It was envisaged that the travel and tourism GDP could reach 2019 levels by the end of 2023. Additionally, it is predicted that within the following ten years, the sector will add up to 126 million new jobs (WTTC, 2022).

### **2.3 Tourism in Africa**

In an effort to promote development, tourism has emerged as a major driver of economic growth in Africa (Thetsane, 2019). The industry is regarded as attractive because it creates jobs, generates government revenue, boosts individual incomes, brings in foreign currency, encourages inward investment, and fosters regional development (Dieke, 2020; Thetsane, 2019). It is one of the economic priorities at continental, regional, and national levels. At the continental level, the African Union's Agenda 2063 and the Tourism Action Plan under its New Partnership for Africa's Development recognize the importance of tourism in driving the African continent (UNCTAD, 2017). The importance of tourism in supporting socioeconomic development has also been highlighted by policy frameworks in several countries,

such as the Sustainable Tourism Development Framework of the Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa, the 1998 Protocol on Tourism of the South African Development Communities, and the Sustainable Tourism Master Plan 2013–2023 of the Intergovernmental Authority on Development (ibid.). National development plans for most African countries have also considered the importance of tourism in socioeconomic development (ibid.)

Since the 1990s, Africa's growth, employment, and trade have been significantly impacted by tourism. International arrivals to the African continent grew by an average of 6 percent per year between 1995 and 2014 and tourism export revenues by 9 percent per year. Tourism contributed an annual average of \$166 billion to the GDP in 2014 (UNCTAD, 2017). North Africa especially Morocco recorded the highest in terms of international arrivals (2,778,000), followed by Tunisia (2,012,000) in 2020 (UNWTO, 2021). UNWTO (2021) reported that in Sub-Saharan Africa, South Africa continues to lead in terms of international arrivals (2,802,000), followed by Mauritius (309,000) in the same year (UNWTO, 2021). In terms of receipts, Morocco generated 3829 USD million, in 2020, followed by Tunisia at 889 USD million, while in sub-Saharan Africa, South Africa recorded 2471 USD million in 2020, followed by Tanzania at 1,068 USD million, Kenya at 472 USD million, and Uganda at 463 USD million (UNWTO, 2021). All these were possible due to the richness of natural, untapped cultural, and historical resources that African countries endowed (Landry & Johnson, 2018).

Within East Africa, tourism contributed an average of 9.5% to the GDP of the East African Community Partner States in 2019 (Muoki, 2021). The contribution is higher than the average in Tanzania (17.1%), followed by Rwanda (10.0%) and Kenya

(9.7%), and less than average in Uganda (5.6%) and Burundi (5.1%) in 2019 (Muoki, 2021).

## **2.4 Tourism in Tanzania**

The tourism industry in Tanzania has witnessed remarkable growth, playing a pivotal role in driving the country's economic progress. It has expanded significantly substantially, making a significantly contribution to the overall economic development of Tanzania. On average, the tourism sector accounts for 17.2% of the national Gross Domestic Product (GDP)(URT, 2024). Tanzania is truly magnificent country endowed with diversity of tourism resources it is endowed with, ranging from natural habitats, aquatic bodies, and beaches to breathtaking landscapes, a diversity of cultures, and adequate archaeological monuments (Kisasembe, 2022; URT, 1999). It ranks eighth among 136 countries worldwide for its abundance of natural resources.(Henseler et al., 2022). The warm hospitality of Tanzanians, combined with the country's rich cultural diversity, offers visitors an engaging and immersive experience that makes them feel genuinely welcomed. Globally, Tanzania stands out as the only country that has designated over 44% of its landmass as protected areas, demonstrating a strong commitment to conservation (TANAPA, 2020). Currently, there are 21 National Parks after the dissolution of Kigosi National Park and 25 Game Reserves (LEAT, 2024; Kiffner et al., 2023). The most visited destinations are the Serengeti, Lake Manyara, and Tarangire National Parks, as well as the Ngorongoro Conservation Area. For instance, Tarangire-Manyara Ecosystem alone received 200,944 in 2022 compared to 125,244 in 2021(MNRT, 2022). Main tourism activities include wildlife viewing, visiting relatives and friends, the beach, mountain climbing, business, shopping, medical, cultural, meetings and conferences, bird watching, diving and sport fishing, religion, academics, and hunting (MNRT et al, 2022).

Wildlife and beaches however is reported to be the most preferred activities (Kisasembe, 2022; MNRT et al, 2022).

Despite the significant decline in tourist numbers due to COVID-19, statistics reveal that international visitors rose from 922,692 in 2021 to 1,454,920 in 2022, a 57.7% increase. This surge led to a corresponding rise in international tourism earnings, which grew from USD 1,310.3 million to USD 2,527.8 million in 2022 (MNRT et al, 2022). Tanzania exhibits a unique trend in foreign tourism receipts compared to other developing African countries. Between 2010 and 2019, tourism accounted for an average of 23.95% of Tanzania's total exports, surpassing Uganda (21.17%), Kenya (16.22%), South Africa (9.24%), Ghana (5.65%), and Mozambique (4.68%). These figures suggest that Tanzania holds a comparative advantage in boosting its economy through strategic investment in the tourism sector. (Kyara, 2021). The primary international source markets for tourism in Tanzania include the United States, the United Kingdom, and France, while within sub-Saharan Africa, Kenya, Zambia, and Zimbabwe are the leading contributor (MNRT et al, 2022). Statistics indicate that 30.9 percent of visitors prefer visiting protected areas to view wildlife in its natural environment (URT, 2018).

Statistics further show that the Tarangire-Manyara ecosystem received a significant number of international tourists, increasing from 270,182 in 2017 to 300,944 in 2022.(MNRT, 2022). The increase of tourism activities in this particular area has also generated various tourism entrepreneurial opportunities such as accommodation services, cultural tourism enterprises, handicrafts, tour guiding, food and beverage services, and transportation (Mmbaga et al., 2024; Mrema, 2015). Tourism significantly contributes to economic growth and poverty reduction by generating

both direct and indirect employment opportunities, especially for low-skilled and unskilled worker (Henseler et al., 2022; Kinyondo & Pelizzo, 2015). It accounted for approximately 11.1% of total employment (1,550,100 jobs) in 2019, making it the second-largest contributor to national income after the manufacturing sector, and the third-largest provider of employment (Kyara, 2021; WBG, 2021).

**Table 2.1: International Visitors Arrival and Receipts in Tanzania 2012-2022**

| Year | Visitor Arrivals | Annual Change (%) | Receipts (USD Million) | Receipts (TZS '000,000) | Annual Change (%) |
|------|------------------|-------------------|------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------|
| 2012 | 1,077,058        | 24.0              | 1,712.75               | 2,691,929.18            | 27.7              |
| 2013 | 1,095,884        | 1.7               | 1,853.28               | 2,962,653.40            | 10.1              |
| 2014 | 1,140,156        | 4.0               | 2,006.32               | 3,316,647.59            | 11.9              |
| 2015 | 1,137,182        | -0.3              | 1,901.95               | 3,774,443.94            | 13.8              |
| 2016 | 1,284,279        | 12.1              | 2,131.57               | 4,640,641.05            | 22.9              |
| 2017 | 1,327,143        | 3.2               | 2,258.96               | 5,040,191.55            | 8.6               |
| 2018 | 1,505,702        | 11.0              | 2,412.30               | 5,855,154.48            | 16.2              |
| 2019 | 1,527,230        | 1.4               | 2,604.46               | 6,057,453.07            | 3.5               |
| 2020 | 620,867          | -59.3             | 714.59                 | 1,636,339.64            | -73.0             |
| 2021 | 922,692          | 48.6              | 1,310.34               | 3,010,899.25            | 84.0              |
| 2022 | 1,454,920        | 57.7              | 2,527.77               | 5,821,454.31            | 93.3              |

**Source:** Immigration Department and Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism, 2022

Given the significance of tourism, the government of the United Republic of Tanzania has adopted various initiatives aimed at facilitating the development, management, and promotion of tourism while ensuring the protection of the environment, cultural heritage, and the rights of tourists and local communities. Some of these initiatives can be reflected in various policies and laws include National Tourism Policy of 1999 (URT, 1999), Tourism Act of 2008 (URT, 2008), Small and Medium Enterprise Development Policy (URT, 2003) and other ministerial strategies. The Tanzania's tourism policy of 1999 outline strategies governing tourism development, these

include product development and marketing, land for tourism, infrastructure development, human resources and development; and community participation (URT, 1999). The Tourism Act of 2008 governs key legal elements concerning the establishment, management, and regulation of tourism, covering licensing, community engagement, environmental sustainability, consumer rights, and tourism promotion (URT, 2008). While Small and Medium Enterprise Development Policy (URT, 2003) focus on creating an enabling environment for enterprises development

## **2.5 The Concept of Entrepreneurship**

There has been a lot of concern about the connectedness of entrepreneurship with other economic sectors in recent years. Regardless of the degree of development, entrepreneurship has become a global movement (Loganathan & Jayaprakash, 2020). It is commonly acknowledged as the principal driver of economic growth and one of the most significant contributors to output (Meyer & De Jongh, 2016; Thurik & Wennekers, 2004). Today, no country can attain long-term economic growth or enhance the welfare of its citizens without the active engagement of entrepreneurs (Amolo & Migiro, 2014). Consequently, entrepreneurship has become a focal point in global policy debates, recognized as a vital engine of economic growth and development. The key to understanding entrepreneurship is to understand both the entrepreneur and entrepreneurship.

The term 'entrepreneur' originates from the French word 'entreprendre,' which means 'to undertake (Isaga, 2015; Jonsson, 2017). The concept of an entrepreneur was first recognized by an economist, Richard Cantillon (1680-1734), and generally refers it as an individual who purchases goods at fixed prices and resells them at variable market prices, thereby contributing to market stability (Rusu et al., 2012). He stresses that the prerequisite for the existence of an entrepreneur is uncertainty, and the outcome can

be profit or loss. The concept was well expanded by Jean-Baptiste (1767-1832), who considered the factor of production and the importance of managerial skills in a business. He defines an entrepreneur as an economic agent who brings together all factors of production, such as labor, capital, and land. Schumpeter (1934), as cited in Deakins and Freel (2012), views an entrepreneur as someone defined by what they do rather than what they own, emphasizing that innovation and creativity are central to entrepreneurship. According to him, in order to be considered an entrepreneur, a person must do one of the following: introduce a new good or improve the quality of a good; introduce a new method of production; open a new market; use a new source of raw materials; and carry out a new organizational form of an industry (Snow & Snow, 2021). Allen (2000) further argues that an entrepreneur is someone who creates, organizes, and owns a business. Shane and Venkataraman (2000) on other hand define that an entrepreneur as a person who establishes a new organization. Thus, entrepreneurs are those who can identify and analyze business possibilities, assemble the resources needed to capitalize on them, and take the required steps to achieve success (Okpara, 2007).

The below definitions of entrepreneurs demonstrate that there are no agreed-upon standard definitions of an entrepreneur, bringing the disputed or universally accepted concept of entrepreneurship into question. Scholars of entrepreneurship have given numerous definitions of the term, some of which have no common characteristics at all (Table 2). Despite having significantly varied perspectives, all these definitions agree that entrepreneurship involves newness, organization, creation, money, and risk-taking. Thus, an entrepreneur is a creator, the process involved in creation is entrepreneurship, and innovative creation is an object that satisfies human needs and wants.

In other words, we can say that an entrepreneur is the actor and entrepreneurship is the act (SavoIU, 2010). Entrepreneurship entails the adoption of new ways of thinking and acting in order to create, improve, and renew value for a specific set of individuals, an organization, and society (Tambwe, 2015).

**Table 2.2: Selected Definition of Entrepreneurship**

| <b>Author</b>                 | <b>Definition</b>  |
|-------------------------------|--|
| Cantillon (1755)              | Entrepreneurship is an act of assuming risk, by buying at a certain price and selling at an uncertain price, bearing the risk caused by price fluctuation in the market.   |
| Knight (1921)                 | Entrepreneurship is an ability to deal with risk and uncertainty   |
| Schumpeter (1934)             | Entrepreneurship is seen as making new combinations which include the introduction of new goods, new methods of production, opening of new markets, new sources of supply and new organizations.   |
| Timmons (1997)                | Entrepreneurship is the ability to create and build something from practically nothing. It is initiating, doing, achieving, and building an enterprise or organization rather than just watching, analyzing, or describing one. It is a knack for sensing an opportunity where others see chaos, contradiction, and confusion. |
| Kuratko and Hodgetts (2001)   | Entrepreneurship as a process of innovation and new venture creation through four major dimensions: individual, organizational, environmental, and process.  |
| Shane and Venkataraman (2000) | Entrepreneurship is the process by which opportunities to create future goods and services are discovered, evaluated and exploited   |
| Hisrich and Peters (2002)     | Entrepreneurship is the process of creating something new with value by devoting the necessary time and effort, assuming the accompanying financial, psychic, and social risk, and receiving the resulting rewards of monetary and personal satisfaction and independence  |
| Deakins and Freel,(2009)      | Entrepreneurship is the process that involves creation of a new economic entity centered on a novel product or service offered elsewhere in the market   |
| Sima, Bordânc, & Sima (2015)  | Entrepreneurship as a work-related attitude of an individual or of human collectivity is applied in a certain place and in certain conditions to maximize the profit.  |

Adapted and modified from (Hitt et al. (2002); Isaga (2015); Shane et al.( 2003)

It also shows that entrepreneurship is a creative process (Shane et al., 2003). This study adopts the definition of entrepreneurship proposed by Shane and Venkataraman (Shane & Venkataraman, 2000), who describe entrepreneurship as the process of

identifying, evaluating, and exploiting opportunities to introduce new goods, services, or organizational processes.

## **2.6 Entrepreneurship and Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises (MSMEs)**

Entrepreneurship is an elusive term as it is commonly linked with small business management because it involves the process of recognizing opportunities and development of new ventures (Stokes & Wilson, 2006). Entrepreneurship is not limited to new, small companies, the private sector, the public sector, or for-profit businesses (Ball, 2005); rather, it is a way of life, although it is generally connected with profit-making activities in a corporate environment. Entrepreneurship is not about starting or running a business, but rather about a behavioral pattern or set of behavioral qualities (Kirby, 2009). In this context, there is a strong and significant link between entrepreneurship and Micro, Small, and Medium Enterprises (MSMEs). Entrepreneurship can be understood as the dynamic process of identifying opportunities, mobilizing resources, and establishing new ventures (Shane & Venkataraman, 2000). It is through this process that MSMEs are often created. While entrepreneurship focuses on the innovative and strategic actions involved in launching and growing a business, MSMEs represent the tangible outcome enterprises that operate on a micro, small, or medium scale (Lucky & Olusegun, 2012). Thus, entrepreneurship serves as the driving force behind the emergence and development of MSMEs.

## **2.7 Tourism Entrepreneurship**

Tourism entrepreneurship is defined as various activities related to the tourism, hospitality, and leisure sectors by creating and operating a legal tourist enterprise (Bagherifard et al., 2013; Biswas & Mamun-Or-Rashid, 2018). Lordkipanidze (2002)

further defined tourism entrepreneurship encompasses all commercial activities, whether small or large-scale, located in urban or rural areas, and owned by individuals, business partners, or large corporations, that provide a wide range of services within the tourism industry. These services cover transportation, the hotel and catering sectors, travel agencies, tour operators, entertainment, the production and marketing of arts and crafts, sports tourism, and the development of game reserves, parks, and zoological/botanical garden (Afenyo-Agbe, 2020; Lordkipanidze, 2002; Manalu et al., 2023; Nzarabahi, 2017). The above definitions highlight the strong and dynamic relationship between tourism and entrepreneurship. Tourism creates demand and opportunities that encourage the development of entrepreneurial ventures, while entrepreneurship, in turn, drives innovation, enhances service delivery, and stimulates the overall growth and diversification of the tourism industry. Together, they form a mutually reinforcing cycle that supports economic development and job creation.

## **2.8 Entrepreneurship Development in Tanzania**

The history of entrepreneurship in Tanzania followed through pre-colonial, colonial, post independent and socialist, liberalization and economic restructuring stages of development.

### **2.8.1 Pre-Colonial Era**

In this period, entrepreneurship was not much realized since major means of production were controlled by rulers in chiefdoms, kingdoms, and empires. Travel was much restricted to trading and political activities (Green, 2013; Lwoga, 2013). Thus, few people were wealthy and leaders were in control of entrepreneurial activities.

### **2.8.2 Colonial Era**

In this period, colonial authorities established rules and regulations to suppress local innovation and creativity. Africans were cheap laborers and raw materials producers for industry in Europe. They were limited to engaging in small business, and the few who obtained elementary education were employed as clerks and performed other low duties. White people worked as bankers, importers and exporters, and manufacturers, while Asians and Arabs occupied wholesaler and retailer businesses (Isaga, 2015; Mavere, 2013). The investment environment therefore favored European entrepreneurs. In this period, tourism was established to meet the needs of colonialists (westerners) and their families who traveled to observe wildlife viewing and hunting (Lwoga, 2013; Salazar, 2009).

### **2.8.3 Post Independent and Socialist Era (1961-1985)**

To enhance development after independence, Tanzania came up with a five-year plan to attract foreign direct investment (FDI). The plan did not perform as planned, so the country adopted the Arusha Declaration philosophy as an alternative strategy in 1967. Through the socialist viewpoint, banks, hotels, import-export, large-scale industry, schools, hospitals, and transportation were nationalized (Mavere, 2013). A policy was implemented to discourage private business ownership, favoring government-run or cooperative enterprises instead. Additionally, government employees and ruling party officials were barred from engaging in profit-making activities. As a result, educated Tanzanians primarily took on roles as leaders and civil servants, leaving entrepreneurial pursuits largely to Asians and a small minority of indigenous individuals. This led to a culture of passive reliance on the state among the local population, hindering the development of key entrepreneurial traits such as initiative, risk-taking, ambition, and related skills. The break-up of the East African Community

in 1977, the international oil crisis in the early 1970s, and the war between Uganda and Tanzania in 1978/79 resulted in severe shortages of foreign currency and consumer goods, under-utilization of industrial capacity, inflation, and a drop in real purchasing power among wage earners, driving them to engage in small business activities to supplement their meager earnings (Keskin & Abdalla, 2020; Mavere, 2013).

#### **2.8.4 Liberalization and Economic Restructuring (1986 to date)**

In response to the economic crisis that began in the mid-1970s and lasted into the 1980s, the government pursued an economic reform program that included the liberalization of practically all economic sectors, as well as the privatization and nationalization of public-sector jobs. The program led the government to shift its economic policy away from reliance on state-owned firms toward the promotion of foreign investment and local entrepreneurship. Instead of taking direct ownership and administration of firms, the government continued to play a facilitative role, and the private sector was given authority to drive economic growth (Kamuroza, 2013). The reform resulted in retrenchments, job freezes, the privatization of state-owned enterprises, and the government's disengagement from some operations, all of which resulted in significant job losses. Thus, the only way for them to survive is through self-reform. Many of Tanzanians started micro and informal businesses to make a living. The government also encouraged workers to engage in self-reliance. This significantly contributed to the improvement of entrepreneurship activities. Since the 1990s, entrepreneurship has been experiencing exponential growth, gaining legitimacy and drawing the interest of even highly educated individuals (Mavere, 2013).

During the implementation of economic reforms, the government has devised various strategies and programs to tackle significant constraints. These initiatives comprise of the Strategic Trade Policy, the SME Development Policy, Agricultural Sector Development Strategy, Rural Development Strategy, Micro-finance Policy, BEST Programme, and Poverty Alleviation Strategies etc.

Entrepreneurship evolves around four categories such as micro, small, medium and large business; however, a huge number of businesses operate as micro, small, and medium enterprises (MSMEs) (Henseler et al., 2022). Most micro enterprises are family-owned businesses which also fall under the informal sector. Since independent the number of Tanzanians engaging in entrepreneurship has been growing steadily, though overall performance is still very low relative to the country's massive potential (Nkatura & Sumuni, 2021; Yahya & Mutarubukwa, 2019). In the year 2006, 40% of households in Tanzania's mainland were working in the informal economy, as compared to 35% in 2001 (URT, 2007). In 2010, Tanzania recorded over 3 million micro, small, and medium enterprises (MSMEs), which employ about 5 million people (Madatta & Chen, 2020; MTI, 2012). Most of them were working in the trade sector (1,758,896), followed by service sector (964,235), manufacturing sector (430,381); and 17,364 were in other sectors (MTI, 2012). Recent data sources show that small and medium enterprises (SMEs) in Tanzania account for about 95 percent of the business in Tanzania, contributing about one-third of the country's GDP (Madatta & Chen, 2020; Tanzaniainvest, 2023). Micro, small and medium-sized enterprises (MSMEs) have made a substantial contribution to revenue generation, employment creation, and the growth of both rural and urban areas. Empirical evidence shows that large percent of school leavers who failed to get employment in the public sector end up in the MSME sector (Mavere, 2013; Olomi, 2006). Various

literatures however, reveals that MSMEs in Tanzania are confronted with problems such as unfavorable legal and regulatory framework, poor business development services, undeveloped infrastructure, limited access of SMEs to finance, ineffective and poorly coordinated institutional support framework (Kamuroza, 2013; URT, 2003). Despite constraints MSMEs face, there are several promising opportunities for the MSMEs in various sectors such as construction, hospitality and tourism, agriculture, transportation, education, health etc.

## **2.9 SME Policy in Tanzania**

The SMEs nomenclature is used to mean micro, small and medium enterprises. It is also used generically as all micro, small and medium enterprises (MSMEs) (MTI, 2012; URT, 2003). The SMEs cover non-farm economic activities mainly manufacturing, mining, commerce and services.

There is no universally agreed definition of SMEs as they vary from country to country depending on the level of development. Some countries define SMEs based on total revenue or total investment while others use the number of employees as deciding factor. It is generally much easier to identify a small business when you see one than to define it, although sometimes even identifying the small business entity may not be easy at all. It is apparent that a small firm in the UK and/or USA might not be small as in Tanzania, or alternatively a large firm in Tanzania might not be large in the above countries. The International Finance Corporation (IFC), The Multilateral Investment Guarantee Agency (MIGA) and The World Bank Group SME Department (2019) have adopted the following definition of SME for its programs as shown in table 2.3.

**Table 2.3: The common global SME definition of IFC, MIGA and the World Bank Group-SME**

| <b>SMEs Characteristics</b> | <b>No. of Employees</b> | <b>Capital investment</b>   | <b>Annual turnover</b>      |
|-----------------------------|-------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Micro-enterprise            | Less than 10            | Less than \$100,000         | Less than \$100,000         |
| Small enterprise            | 10-50                   | \$100,000 to \$3 million    | \$100,000 to \$3 million    |
| Medium enterprise           | 51-300                  | \$3 million to \$15 million | \$3 million to \$15 million |

Source:(World Bank et al., 2019)

In Tanzania context, MSMEs fall under four categories. These include micro, small, medium, and large enterprises. These categories are defined based on the number of employees and the capital investment in machinery, as shown in table 2.4. However, when an enterprise falls under more than one category, the deciding factor will be the level of capital investment (for example, an enterprise that has three employees but has a capital investment greater than 5 million TSh will qualify as a small business). The establishment of Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs) Development Policy meant to address constraints and tap the full potential of the sector. It aims to foster job creation and income generation through promoting the creation of new SMEs and improving the performance and competitiveness of the existing ones to increase their participation and contribution to the Tanzanian economy (URT, 2003). The policy strategies to address MSMEs are divided into four which include legal and regulatory framework, physical infrastructure, business development services and Institutional Framework for SMEs Development.

**Table 2.4: Categories of Business in Tanzania**

| <b>Category</b>   | <b>Employees</b> | <b>Capital Investment in Machinery (Tshs.)</b> |
|-------------------|------------------|--|
| Micro enterprise  | 1–4              | Upto5 mil.                                     |
| Small enterprise  | 5–49             | Above 5mil.to 200 mil.                         |
| Medium enterprise | 50–99            | Above 200mil.to 800 mil.                       |
| Large enterprise  | 100+             | Above 800 mil.                                 |

Source: Ministry of Industry and Trade (URT, 2003)

### **2.9.1 Legal and Regulatory Framework**

According to (URT, 2003, 2017), the legal and regulatory framework is seen big constraints of MSMEs, they are bureaucratic, costly and centralized. The policy strategy therefore addresses the simplification and rationalization of procedures and regulations to encourage compliance and minimize transaction cost. This can be obtained through simplifying business registration and licensing procedures, simplifying tax system and introducing tax incentives to nurse SMEs, train and sensitize SMEs on intellectual property and establishing a window within the commercial court for SMEs dispute settlement.

### **2.9.2 Physical Infrastructure**

Physical infrastructures such as working premises, roads, cold rooms, warehouses, power, water and communication in Tanzania are very poor which adversely affect the development of the SMEs (URT, 2003, 2017). The policy strategy to address this includes improvement of physical infrastructures and provision of utilities in collaboration with Local Authorities, private sector and development partners.

### **2.9.3 Business Development Services**

Business development services such as entrepreneurship, marketing, business training, technology development and information are not accessible and hardly to afford because they are costly (URT, 2003, 2017). As a result, operators of the sector experience low skills. The policy strategy designed to overcome include promotion of entrepreneurship development education and training, curricula development, introduction of entrepreneurship programs; capacitating institutions to provide business training to SMEs; facilitating and supporting programs aimed at increased access of information pertinent to the development of SMEs; facilitating acquisition

and adaptation of technologies joint venture and capacity building; facilitating marketing through various support programs such as linkages between small and large enterprises, SME exhibition; facilitating easy financial access through opening up SMEs window in financial institutions and simplification of procedures for SMEs in accessing fund;

#### **2.9.4 Institutional Framework for SMEs Development**

Supporting SMEs development is an important aspect in entrepreneurship, but the existing institutions supporting the SME sector are weak, fragmented, uncoordinated and concentrated in urban areas (URT, 2003, 2017). The policy strategy for this is that the government should facilitate strengthening of institutions and associations supporting the SME sector through establishment of networking, associations and forums.

#### **2.10 Micro, Small and Medium Tourism Enterprises (MSMTEs) in Tanzania**

Following independence, the tourism industry had a notable uptick in growth. The Tanzania National Tourist Board (TNTB) was founded in 1962 to enhance tourism development. The board was replaced by the Tanzanian Tourist Corporation (TTC) in 1971 (Lwoga, 2013; Salazar, 2009). The government also created state hospitality-based enterprises such as the Kilimanjaro Hotel, Lake Manyara Hotel, New Africa Hotel, New Arusha Hotel, and Bahari Beach Hotel, as well as several lodges in the Serengeti National Park and Ngorongoro Conservation Area (Lwoga, 2013).

The adoption of the Tourism Policy in 1999 and the Small and Medium Enterprises Act in 2003 accelerated the development of the tourism industry and the expansion of small and medium tourism-based enterprises. The number of licensed tourism-related firms expanded from 591 to 1067 by 2013 (URT, 2015). Currently, there are over

1586 registered tourism-related businesses, including lodging, hotels, safari companies, and safari hunting (Tourism Officer, MNRT, personal communication, September 15, 2022). At the Tarangire-Manyara ecosystem, there are more than 80 registered tourism-based enterprises, most of which are lodges (Tourism Officer, MNRT, personal communication, September 15, 2022). However, there are hundreds of tourism-based entrepreneurial businesses that are not registered. This shows that the extent of tourism-related entrepreneurship in Tanzania continues to expand. Entry into tourism-based entrepreneurship is considered to be simple as compared to other sectors as it involves both skilled and unskilled people (Kinyondo & Pelizzo, 2020). Tourism offers a diversity of entrepreneurial opportunities for the local community, including ventures in hotels and catering services, transportation, tour guiding, cultural and traditional services, arts and crafts, restaurants and casinos, training institutions, conference centers, research institutions, museums, galleries, and various natural and cultural attractions, to name just a few (Nzarabahi, 2017). Large percent of these business are Micro, small and medium- sized enterprises (Henseler et al., 2022).

Despite continuous efforts to strengthen Tanzania's economy, tourism business owners continue to face a range of challenges. These include limited access to investment capital, outdated technology, restrictive regulations, inadequate infrastructure, a shortage of skilled labor, low product quality standards, bureaucratic procedures, and a general lack of awareness regarding market opportunities and customer needs (Lwoga, 2015; Nzarabahi, 2017). These concerns affect the growth and sustainability of tourism-related entrepreneurship in rural communities.

### **2.11 Engagement in Tourism Entrepreneurship**

Most entrepreneurs around the world operate within the micro, small, and medium enterprise (MSME) sector. Micro, small, and medium enterprises (MSMEs) make up about 90% of all businesses worldwide and provide over half of global employment (Pedraza, 2021). While in the tourism sector, tourism based Small and medium enterprises contributed approximately, 80 percent of tourism workforce globally (UNCTAD, 2017). The majority of these businesses are organized as sole proprietorships, which means they are owned and operated by one person (Aminova & Marchi, 2021; Anderson, 2017; MTI, 2012). In this setup, the business and the owner are legally considered the same, making the individual personally liable for all aspects of the business, including its debts and obligations (Kirby, 2009).

In Tanzania, a total of 2,754,697 individuals were reported to own and operate micro, small, or medium-sized enterprise (MTI, 2012). A large percentage (96.4%) of them operated as sole proprietors, while around 3.5% were in partnerships (MTI, 2012). Like in many part of the world large percent of MSMEs are in trade sector followed by service sector (MTI, 2012). A general comparison with other industries reveals that tourism as a service sector has advantages that are superior to those of other industries. Tourism has multiplier effects that manifest in earnings from tourism, monetary expenditure, job creation, and the multiplier effect of foreign investment (Kessy et al., 2018; Rusu, 2011). This implies that in regions where tourism is actively practiced, there is a likelihood that the local community engage in tourism-based entrepreneurial opportunities. There are a wide range of entrepreneurial opportunities within the tourism sector which offers amalgams of products and services to tourists, including accommodation, catering, transportation, attractions,

and recreational activities (Dimoska et al., 2015; Nzarabahi, 2017; Ramli et al., 2022). Most of these enterprises are operated in the form of community-based tourism.

In this approach, local communities are being placed at the center of tourism product development and the value distribution chain (Chiutsi & Mudzengi, 2012). It challenges the outdated notion that local community involvement in tourism development is limited to serving as low-wage labor for large tourism conglomerates (Chiutsi & Mudzengi, 2012). Instead, it promotes active community participation as entrepreneurs, decision-makers, and key beneficiaries within the tourism value chain (Blackstock, 2005). This approach is closely linked to rural development, fostering a sense of ownership among local communities and encouraging a more positive perception of protected areas (Abukari & Benedict, 2020). Several countries around the world have adopted this approach, yielding valuable lessons from their successes.

In Kenya, community-based tourism has grown notably in areas such as the Maasai Mara and Amboseli, where indigenous communities have developed various tourism enterprises, including cultural experiences, eco-lodges, and guided wildlife tours (Imbaya et al., 2019). In Uganda, community-based tourism is practiced around several national parks, including Bwindi Impenetrable Forest National Park, where local communities participate in gorilla trekking activities and showcase their culture and traditions (Ahebwa et al., 2012). In Ghana, community based tourism is practiced at Wli offering accommodation, food and beverage services, souvenirs, and tour guiding (Afenyo-Agbe, 2020). Similarly, in Malaysia local community engages in tourism entrepreneurship offering food and beverages businesses followed by boat service business, resort accommodation business, grocery store, equipment activities (9%) rental of vehicles (7%), souvenir shop (4%), tourism agents, laundry shop and a

few engage on the business of drawing batik pattern (Sharif & Tuan Lonik, 2017). In Langkawi Island, Nordin et al. (2014), found that majority of entrepreneurs (67.3%) engage in supporting services business such as grocery store, food and drink shops, cafe, laundry, bars and restaurants, followed by tourism service business (36.9%) such as tourist guides, transportation business, accommodation and others. Mshenga and Richardson, (2013), on other hand found that majority of local people in Mombasa engage in micro, small and medium enterprises supplying food staff such as fruits, fish, vegetables, eggs, meat, chicken, dairy products, milk, baked products, maintenance products, cereals, kitchen items, alcohol and security. He further established that maintenance products and services such as repainting, repairs, electrical supply, and minor plumbing are provided by Kenyan micro and small enterprises (MSEs). In Tanzania, community-based tourism is the most common form of tourism practiced in areas adjacent to protected areas. In recent years, there have been more than 50 enterprises managed by local communities and hundreds of additional tourism ventures operated by individual community members (Kisasembe, 2022; Lemunge et al., 2025; Lwoga, 2015; Mgonja et al., 2015).

## **2.12 Success Factors and Barriers to Engagement in Tourism Entrepreneurship**

There is a great interest in entrepreneurship in many developing countries, but a smaller number of people dare to engage in entrepreneurial activities. Many individuals turn to entrepreneurship not out of a desire to seize a promising opportunity, but because they face limited alternatives for employment or income (Fairlie & Fossen, 2018; Mavere, 2013; van der Zwan et al., 2016). Engagement in entrepreneurship depends on what Shane et al., (2003) called "a willingness to become an entrepreneur". According to the study, entrepreneurship is a result of human action and is also influenced by external factors. It further argues that

opportunities influence entrepreneurial behavior, even though there are other factors. In the process of entrepreneurship, opportunities are central to venture creation (Lickiss, 2014), so without opportunity, nothing will happen in the entrepreneurship process. Shane and Venkataraman (2000) defined entrepreneurial opportunities as “situations in which new goods, services, raw materials, and organizing methods can be introduced and sold at a price greater than the cost of their production. Opportunity is described as a market need, underemployed resources, or capabilities (Ardichvili et al., 2003; Gumel, 2018). Opportunity recognition and exploitation is an essential process in the actualization of a new venture. However, how well each person sees opportunities can vary. These individual variations may exist due to genetic makeup, type of information possessed, background, and experience (Ardichvili et al., 2003). Identification and selection of the right opportunities are therefore important components in determining entrepreneurs’ success because opportunity recognition responds to market needs and fits them with available resources.

Various terminologies and expressions have emerged in the effort to identify the factors and conditions that foster entrepreneurship. Some of the terms and expressions include factors that influence entrepreneurship intention (Karanja et al., 2016; Shamsudin, 2017); factors affecting Small & Medium Enterprises (SMEs) Start-up and Growth (Anderson, 2017) determinants of entrepreneurship (Adeyemi, 2021), success factors for SMEs (Gumel & Bardai, 2023; Sefiani, 2013), barriers to entrepreneurial intention (Amanamah et al., 2018), entrepreneurial start up motivations (Ismail, 2019), factors influencing participation in entrepreneurship (Farah & Abdi, 2014). The findings from this review suggest that these influencing conditions can also be understood as success factors and barriers to entrepreneurial engagement and therefore will be the focus of the study.

Previous study shows that engagement in entrepreneurial activities is influenced by numerous factors that can either promote or hinder the entrepreneurial process. Gumel and Bardai (2023) identified six factors contributing to success or barrier, these include the age of owners, gender of owners, education level, prior work experience, entrepreneurial orientation and personality. Sendra-Pons et al. (2022) in their study found that institutional factors such as political stability, the structure of property rights, and tax and expenditure policies, government effectiveness, regulatory quality, rule of law, procedures for starting a business and access to credit act as success factors or barriers in the entrepreneurial environment. Chawla et al. (2010) on other hand considered marketing, industry trends, capital, competitive forces, location, and owner experience as a key success or barrier factors in small business sector. Chong (2012) established that the success or barrier for Malaysians small and medium enterprises are government support, access to capital, training, managerial skills, marketing, competitive prices, customer services, social skills, human resources management, location and family and friends support prevail. Ng and Kee (2012) identified intellectual capital, organizational innovation, entrepreneurial characteristics and competence, leadership and management, human resource, motivation and market orientation as a critical factor for entrepreneurial success or barriers. Munzir and Habidin (2021) on other hand found three determining factors for the success or barriers for entrepreneurship engagement, which include strategic planning, training and education and entrepreneurship orientation. Al-tit and Omri (2019) found six success factors but the most critical one are individual factors, management factors, business support and capital availability. Zahra, (2011) further found that the failure of the business is caused by poor management, poor support from banks and financial institutions, a limited economic environment, and

insufficient government policies. Other argue that the success of enterprise is a function of internal and external factors (Guzman & Santos, 2001; Sefiani, 2013). Lampadarijos et al. (2017) on other hand categorized success factors which could also be barriers into three factors such as entrepreneurial factors such as gender, owner age, educational level, experience and management skills; Enterprises factors which include human capital, marketing, strategic planning, customer relationship management, financial resources, business networks, business age and size; and Business environment factors include political, economic, socio cultural and technological. Nikolić et al. (2015) categorizes these factors into individual and non-individual. Individual factors primarily refer to entrepreneur characteristics, such as personal traits, gender, owner skills, and motivation. The non-individual factors are further divided into internal and external influences. Internal factors are those related to decisions made within MSMEs, while other factors arise from within MSMEs themselves, such as the use of outdated technology, poor marketing, lack of ability to compete with other similar businesses, lack of innovation and others. The external factors are factors that are not predictable such as limited access to finance, poor market conditions, bankruptcy of main customer or supplier, strong competition and others. Satar and John (2018) categorizes enterprise success into three: individual, organizational and institutional. Individual factors include business planning skills, entrepreneurial orientation, leadership and network. Organization factors include innovative financing, marketing, community engagement, human capital and organizational culture, while institutional factors include government support. Ács et al.(2014) categorize factors for entrepreneurial development into two; individual-level and contextual factors. The individual factors include prior knowledge, belief, cognitive processes, experiences, and 'education and experience' perception of value

(monetary/non-monetary) while the contextual factors include culture, formal institutions and resource availability. However, the environmental factor Cuervo (2005) separate them into economic and institutional environment. Adeyemi (2021) consider both economic and institutional environment as contextual factors. In his study Adeyemi (2021) found five contextual factors which enable or inhibit entrepreneurship development; these include access to finance, formal institutions, industry/market dynamics, informal institutions and organizational factor.

Other scholars such as Ancona et al.(2023); Isenberg (2010); Purbasari et al. (2020); Stam and van de Ven (2021) views that the success or failure in entrepreneurial engagement is determined by the nature of the entrepreneurial ecosystem. Isenberg (2010) define an ecosystem entrepreneurial ecosystem as a set of individual elements (such as leadership, culture, human capital, markets, and others), which are combined in complex ways. Stam (2015) further defined as a set of interdependent actors and factors that are governed in such a way that they enable productive entrepreneurship. Van de Ven (1993) identified four key components of an entrepreneurial ecosystem referred to as "infrastructure that support and sustain entrepreneurship. These include institutional arrangements, public resource endowments, market demand, and proprietary business activities. World Economic Forum (2013) further proposed eight pillars of successful ecosystem which include key factors (resources) like human capital, finance and services; the actors (talent, investors, men-tors/advisors, entrepreneurial peers); the formal (government and regulatory framework') and informal institutions (cultural support') enabling entrepreneurship; and finally, access to customers in domestic and foreign. Fubah (2021) further proposed three elements such as surroundings, entrepreneurs and their businesses. These elements continuously interact and depend on one another. Meanwhile, Stam and van de Ven

(2021) proposed three key elements of the entrepreneurial ecosystem: (1) institutional arrangements, which encompass formal institutions, cultural norms, and network structures; (2) resource endowments, including physical infrastructure, finance, leadership, talent, knowledge, intermediary services, and demand; and (3) proprietary functions, referring to entrepreneurial firms that commercialize innovations. In their study, Abdulai and Hussain (2023) identified government, financial institutions, higher education, support services, knowledge, and culture as key entrepreneurial factors that support new venture development and contribute to entrepreneurship growth. Satar and John (2018) categorize access factors into three such individual, organizational and institutional.

The literature review above presents factors that both enable and hinder entrepreneurial engagement, examined across multiple dimensions and perspectives. Some scholars view entrepreneurial engagement through the lens of internal and external factors, while others consider it in terms of individual versus non-individual factors. Additionally, some scholars examine it from the perspective of the entrepreneurial ecosystem. These factors collectively shape an individual's decision to pursue entrepreneurship, as well as the approach they take in navigating entrepreneurial ventures. This study adopted individual and contextual factors in the context of entrepreneurial ecosystem which emphasize the importance of interactions and interdependencies among actors and factors. Actors refer to any individual, group, organization, or entity that plays a role in the creation, development, or growth of entrepreneurial ventures while factors refers to any element such as individual capability, infrastructural or regulatory that influences the creation, growth, and sustainability of entrepreneurial ventures (Abdulai & Hussain, 2023; Alvedalen & Boschma, 2017; Fubah & Moos, 2021; Purbasari et al., 2020; Stam, 2015; Stam &

van de Ven, 2021). These actors and factors interact with each other and contribute to the overall functioning of the ecosystem.

There is a strong view in the literature that the success of an entrepreneurial business must be due to the entrepreneur. An entrepreneur is a central actors who identify opportunities, create new ventures, and take risks to bring innovations to the market (Shane & Venkataraman, 2000). An entrepreneur is the driving force behind MSMEs, utilizing these enterprises as the primary platform to bring their innovations to life, test business models, and contribute to economic development (Lucky & Olusegun, 2012). Thus, success or failure of MSMEs is directly tied to the attributes, capabilities, decisions, and commitment of the entrepreneur or owner. Without him non-entrepreneurial activity will happen.

### **2.12.1 Individual Entrepreneurial Characteristics**

Entrepreneurial characteristics can be viewed in three categories: social demographic, psychological and non-psychological. These attributes are essential factors that shape an entrepreneur's mindset, decision-making ability, risk tolerance, and overall readiness to engage in entrepreneurial activities

#### **Social demographic**

*Age of the owner* is one of the powerful factors influencing entrepreneurial engagement. The age of owners varies, as individuals may begin a business at different points in their lives and for various reasons (Lampadarios et al., 2017). A considerable amount of literature has been published on the effect of age on success or failure in entrepreneurial engagement. Age is associated with innovation, risk taking and experiences. It has been said that younger people are more likely than older ones to take chances and expand their businesses. Reynolds in Lampadarios et al

(2017) found that the most entrepreneurially active individuals are aged 25-44. Ahinful et al.(2021) on other hand found that age matters in entrepreneurial engagement because influence prior work experience. The study reveals that experience is gained over time, older owners, particularly those in SMEs, tend to have more accumulated expertise. This is well evidenced in Sefiani (2013) who found that large percent of people engaged in SMEs were aged between 25-45 (68%). Age therefore stands as an enabler or inhibitor in entrepreneurial engagement.

*Gender* plays a significant role in the social dynamics of the local communities, influencing various aspects such as the types of activities undertaken by household members, the ownership and control of resources, and the decision-making processes regarding the allocation and use of resources within the household. A significant body of research has been done on the impact of gender on entrepreneurial engagement. Despite mixed results, most studies find gender to be associated with entrepreneurship engagement. Sefiani (2013) for instance, in his study found that Male (98%) engages more in entrepreneurship than female. Similarly, Mshenga and Richardson (2013) found that majority of MSE were owned by men than female. Casmir (2016) further found that men (51.6%) engage more in entrepreneurial activities than female (48.4%). Access to resources and prevailing cultural norms often favor men over women, creating significant barriers that inhibit women's participation in entrepreneurship (Mori, 2014; Sefiani, 2013).

### **Psychological Factors**

*Personality Traits* refer to the personal characteristics and psychological traits of an individual entrepreneur. Entrepreneurs tend to share distinctive qualities that differentiate them from others in society (Kirby, 2009). Many studies found that entrepreneurial engagement have been highly associated with personality traits such

as need for achievement, locus of control and risk-taking propensity (Alshebami et al., 2022; Ardichvili et al., 2003; Isaga, 2015; Kirby, 2009). The need for achievement is an important individual factor that leads to success or failure in entrepreneurial engagement. MacClelland (1961) as cited in Isaga (2015) argues that individual's engagement in entrepreneurship is highly influenced by achievement need. He contends that individuals with high in (nAch) are more likely to pursue entrepreneurial jobs than those who are low in (nAch). (nAch) is psychological quality differing among individuals and cultures. Strong need for achievement (high nAch) is the main driver of most venture formation and entrepreneurship.

The locus of control is another important personality trait that influences entrepreneurial engagement. This focuses on individual perception over what primarily drives the events they experience. According to Isaga (2015), an individual views the outcomes of an event as either under their control or influenced by external factors beyond their control. Kirby (2009) argues that a person who believes in internal control believes that the achievement of a goal is dependent on his or her own behavior or individual characteristics, but people with an external locus of control believe that the result does not depend on their action. Thus, individuals with an internal locus of control would likely undertake entrepreneurial roles more positively than those with an external locus of control (Isaga, 2015). Luthans and Youssef-Morgan (2017) in their work on positive psychology in entrepreneurship, highlighted how an internal locus of control fosters resilience and proactivity in entrepreneurs, helping them navigate obstacles and capitalize on opportunities.

Risk-taking is another important internal factor thought to contribute to people engagement in entrepreneurship, rooted in classical economic theory (Kirby, 2009). It is all concerned with people's willingness to engage in risky activities. It asserts that

those with high success requirements would have a moderate propensity to take risks. It is believed that taking moderate risks will provide challenges but will also be attainable. For instance Rauch et al.(2016) contends that risk taking is a core personality trait that influences how entrepreneurs perceive and act on opportunities. They argued that entrepreneurs' risk-taking propensity can lead to greater opportunities for innovation and business success. Morris et al. (2018) on other hand commented that risk taking affects business decisions and long-term survival. An individual who possesses these traits is more likely to develop a positive outlook toward engaging in entrepreneurial activities. These traits shape their attitudes, enhance confidence in their abilities, and increase their willingness to take initiative and pursue business opportunities

### **Non-Psychological Factors**

*Previous experience* refers to an individual's unique information about a particular subject accumulated through work experience, education, and others (Soelaiman & Liediana, 2021). Previous studies indicate that the owner's previous experience influences entrepreneurial engagement (Ardichvili et al., 2003; Guzman & Santos, 2001; Lampadarios et al., 2017; Sefiani, 2013; Soelaiman & Liediana, 2021). With the accumulated information and knowledge gathered from life experiences, some people may create a link that enables them to recognize the opportunity related to it. People tend to establish businesses based on their prior experience. For instance, it is likely for someone who manages a certain hotel to start an enterprise connected to lodging. Many scholars argued that, the higher the entrepreneur previous experience, the higher the entrepreneurial quality will be, since this experience involves a learning process that helps them to identify opportunities (Guzman & Santos, 2001; Sefiani, 2013). Gumel and Bardai (2023) found that prior experience contributed highly in

small business operations. Soelaiman and Liediana (2021) established that previous experience obtained through suggestions and criticism enables food and beverage entrepreneurs to become more sensitive to opportunities. Lampadarios et al.(2017) on other hand argues that mistakes are likely to be low for individual characterized with prior experience. Thus, the previous serves as a motivator for a person to engage in tourism based entrepreneurial activities

*Social relations(network)* refer to the connections, interactions, and relationships between individuals or groups in a society (Cuervo, 2005). Social relationships facilitate access to valuable information and networks, serving as a crucial source of entrepreneurial opportunities. One of the important elements of social relations is family relations. The family can serve as a valuable source of information and offers complementary resources, management skills, networks, financial support, and guarantees (Cuervo, 2005). Kirby (2009) for instance revealed that children of self-employed parents are more likely to be exposed to entrepreneurship than children of employed parents The same outcome was revealed by Georgescu and Herman (2020) who found that students with an entrepreneurial family background have higher entrepreneurial intention than those who do not. X. Zhang (2023) on other hand found that the history of the family in the business have an impact on the success of entrepreneurial venture. Isaga (2015) further established that self-employed parents may serve as a role model for their children and subsequently affect their career choice. Family background foster likelihood of an individual to engage in entrepreneurship because it enhance network, financial support and risk taking (Edelman et al., 2016).

The other aspect of social relations is professional network. A professional network is a group of individuals connected through work-related relationships, such as

colleagues, mentors, industry peers, clients, and other business contacts. These connections can provide support, information, advice, job or business opportunities, collaborations, and referrals. Evidence from several literature shows that professional networks not only stimulate the growth of businesses but also create business opportunities and enhance business information. For example, Mshenga and Richardson (2013) networking enables SMEs to access critical information such as customer information, supplier information and capital for their business. Lampadarios et al. (2017) further argue that networking allows businesses to tap into a variety of opportunities, such as market expansion, access to new clients, and collaboration with industry peers. The research emphasizes that well-established networks enhance the ability of businesses to navigate challenges, innovate, and achieve sustainability. Furthermore, they suggest that the strength and quality of these networks directly impact on the effectiveness of a business's strategic decisions, resource acquisition, and overall performance.

*Motivation* refers to desire to do something new or is stimulus to act (Adeyemi, 2021). Several sources revealed that motivation contributed significantly to engagement in entrepreneurship. van der Zwan et al. (2016) established that an individual desire to engage in entrepreneurial activities is due to either push or pull factors. Push factors are factors related to dissatisfaction with the current situation or position such as breaking up or being passed over for promotion, which pushes them to start a venture while pull factors are those that entice someone to launch and manage a new business because the potential has captured their attention. Studies shows that enterprises driven by pull were more successful than those driven by push factors is considered (Amit & Muller (1995). A pull factor stimulates entrepreneurship by encouraging an individual to seize an economic opportunity,

leading them to establish a business that aligns with their personal goals and self-fulfillment (Cuervo, 2005).

*Skills* are crucial to the entrepreneurial process and play essential role in achieving business success (Caliat, 2024). Skills are defined as the qualities or attributes necessary for an entrepreneur to launch and effectively run a business in a competitive environment (Akande, 2011). Entrepreneurship requires a diversity of skills necessary to assume the risks involved in starting and managing a business. Essential entrepreneurial skills include accounting, customer service and marketing (Msoka, 2013). Accounting skills encompass essential competencies such as record keeping, financial management, and financial reporting (Akande, 2011; Msoka, 2013). These skills enable entrepreneurs to accurately track business transactions, manage cash flow, prepare budgets, and produce financial statements, all of which are vital for informed decision-making and long-term business sustainability. Customer service skills are the abilities and traits that enable a person to effectively interact with customers, meet their needs, and ensure a positive experience (Matanga, 2020; Msoka, 2013). Marketing is a societal process by which individuals and groups obtain what they need and want by creating, offering and freely exchanging products and services of value with others (Kotler & Keller, 2009). Communication is central to all marketing activities (Ayiku & Grant, 2025). Wide number of studies reveal that marketing is one of the factors that influence engagement in entrepreneurship by helping entrepreneurs connect with their target audience, build brand awareness, and establish trust (Ayiku & Grant, 2025; George, 2020; Msoka, 2013). Sales and marketing Skills enable entrepreneurs to build brand awareness, connect with target audience and drive sales (George, 2020). According to Elizabeth (2013), an entrepreneur should possess knowledge of seasonal fluctuations in goods, the ability

to assess product sales potential, an understanding of current market trends, and the ability to identify customer needs and shortages in goods. Additionally, an entrepreneur should have expertise in advertising, the ability to evaluate and interpret factors that indicate the level and strength of competition, and the ability to assess the availability of raw materials and the scarcity of finished products. Munzir and Habidin (2021) on other hand argue that through marketing an entrepreneur can identify with his competitors and choose the best promotion strategies to attract more customers. In their study, Ayiku and Grant (2025) found that entrepreneurial marketing skills influences sales growth for SMEs. Yong (2019) on other hand found that social media marketing enhances entrepreneurial success by fostering strong and lasting relationships with clients. Therefore, marketing enables entrepreneurs to reach a global audience at a relatively low cost, which helps in building engagement through interactive content, customer service, and community-building initiatives.

### **2.10.2 Contextual Factors**

Contextual factors are external conditions or circumstances that influence an individual's behavior, decisions, performance, or development (Riccardo & Aurore, 2014). No universally accepted contextual factors influencing entrepreneurship have been identified in literature, although they are typically categorized as formal and informal institutional factors. These factors include economic conditions, cultural norms, political and legal systems, and institutional support that affect the effectiveness of collaboration and the broader entrepreneurial process. According to (Stevenson & Jarillo, 1990) these are the variables external to the individual or the organization that can either facilitate or hinder entrepreneurial effort. Understanding the environmental factors in which entrepreneurs operate is essential, as these

contextual elements play a significant role in shaping entrepreneurial aspirations. A considerable amount of literature has been published on the effect of contextual factors in enabling or inhibiting entrepreneurial engagement. Among the factors embed in the contextual environment include access to finance, government policies and support, Regulatory environment, market dynamics and infrastructure

*Access to Finance* is widely accepted by several scholars that it plays significant role in entrepreneurial engagement especially at the commencement of the business (Farah & Abdi, 2014; Gumel & Bardai, 2023; Lampadarios et al., 2017; Mshenga & Richardson, 2013; Nkwabi, 2019; Sefiani, 2013). To start and grow an enterprise, one needs capital. Capital enables entrepreneurs to convert ideas into reality since they need financial resources to launch and grow their ventures. According to Alsalam and Naji (2019), capital facilitates bringing together land, machines, and raw materials. It acts as a lubricant for the production process. Al-tit & Omri (2019) found that the success of SMES is highly determined by capital of the enterprise. Anderson (2017) found that working capital was one of the major concerns for start-up entrepreneurs. Most entrepreneurs start businesses with self-finance, thus making it difficult to accommodate the operational costs needed. Some entrepreneurs therefore opt to seek alternative sources of funding such as loans, venture capital, and crowdfunding (Tony, 2023). These funding options are seen as important solutions, enabling businesses to invest in new technologies, expand operations, and create employment opportunities. Thus, Availability of financial options can have a positive impact on entrepreneurs, particularly when procedures are simplified and user-friendly. Conversely, complex, rigid, or inaccessible financial processes may discourage individuals from pursuing entrepreneurial activities. Literature shows that entrepreneurs often face significant challenges when seeking funding. These difficulties include strict lending

requirements, lack of collateral, high interest rates, limited access to formal financial institutions, and insufficient financial literacy. Such barriers can hinder entrepreneurs from securing the capital needed to start or grow their ventures. For instance, Sefiani (2013) in his study revealed that availability of finance is a biggest constraint for start-up entrepreneurs than large business due to lack of collateral, lack of information and higher cost of interest. Complicated procedures and high interest rate lead most of people to utilize informal sources of credit because does not accrue any interest and does not require collateral, however this kind of operations hinder large investment (Mshenga & Richardson, 2013). Farah and Abdi (2014) on other hand establish that inaccessibility of credit hindered women participation due to due to lack of collateral and negative perception. Laeis and Lemke (2016) further revealed that failure to secure funds hinders entrepreneurial development in South Africa.

*Market Dynamics and Competition* is widely accepted by many scholars that market competition enabling or inhibit entrepreneurial engagement (Nikolić et al., 2015; Zahra, 2011). All businesses in respect of their size operate in a very competitive environment and thus need to be proactively undertaking market strategies to win their rivals. The level and intensity of competition in the industry influence pricing strategies, product development, and market positioning. Zahra (2011); Nikolić et al.(2015), for instance argue that business failure may happen due to the lack of ability to compete with other similar businesses. Competition is viewed to have positive or negative effect on the entrepreneurial process (Sefiani, 2013)

*Government Policies* support entrepreneurship by creating a favorable business environment through simplified regulations, tax incentives, access to funding, and programs that promote innovation and skill development. Previous studies identified seven important area in which government support such as education and training,

marketing, technical, extension and consultancy, information, and facilities (Sarder et al., 1997; URT, 2003). Sefiani (2013) found that majority of participants subscribed to the influence of government support in business success, through training programs and technology. He revealed that both successful and less successful entrepreneurs' compliment the importance of government support, though they complain that it is not satisfactory. Dzafic and Babajic (2016) in their study, found that development and success of enterprises depend on the support that government offered. It is the responsibility of the government to implement business-friendly policies and eliminate bureaucratic and administrative barriers by simplifying regulations. Such support can help create an attractive environment that facilitates the smooth operation of entrepreneurial ventures. Conversely, failure to provide this support may discourage both potential and existing entrepreneurs from starting or continuing their businesses. In Tanzania context, the government has stipulated a number of strategy of services to enhance entrepreneurial development such as provision of education, capacity building, provision of information, and technology transfer (URT, 2003, 2017). However, several researchers found that there is limited support from the government, which results in low engagement by people in entrepreneurship (Anderson, 2017; Nkwabi, 2019). For instance Kazimoto (2014) in his study found that despite government policies that comprehends SMES support, little entrepreneurs get financial support when they need it

*Legal Framework and Regulatory Environment-* regardless of the size, all businesses operate within framework of the law and regulations (Lampadarios et al., 2017; Opusunju et al., 2018). The government may enact legislation and regulations that can encourage or deter people from opening their own enterprises. Regulatory frameworks that are simplified and helpful can foster an environment where

entrepreneurs can succeed. For example, if a government imposes a high tax, bureaucracy may affect the financial cost of an enterprise, thus making an entrepreneur less interested in engaging in entrepreneurship. The government can increase or decrease taxes for some companies. The government can also restrict foreign companies by imposing high taxation to protect the interests of local, small, and medium enterprises. The bureaucratic challenges faced by entrepreneurs as well as the laws and regulations governing business operations, licensing, and compliance might influence how easy it is to conduct business. Even though regulations can foster MSMEs development, MSMEs are disadvantageous against their large counterparts (Lampadarios et al., 2017). Opusunju et al. (2018) in their study, found that bureaucracy and corruption have a negative influence on enhancing innovation on a small business scale. In line with that Kashmiri and Akhter (2017) indicate that the creation of a fair legal framework, streamlining business registration, encouraging a variety of funding, enforcing strict intellectual property laws, investing in education, and simplifying tax legislation are among the government's primary roles in fostering entrepreneurship. Njogu (2015) further comprehends the role of government in entrepreneurial development. He asserts that regulatory frameworks such as taxes, regulations, and other public rules and institutions determine the performance of entrepreneurship. It really affected eucalyptus tree farmers' ability to obtain loans and permits. Fumo and Jabbour (2011) identifies corruption, taxes, bureaucracy, and a lack of information on government support services as barriers for micro and small businesses in Mozambique. Sefiani (2013) also found corruption and bureaucracy to be a major problem faced by businesses in Tangier.

*Taxation Policies*-The government is the one usually imposes tax rates and incentives, which have a big impact on entrepreneurial ventures. Favorable tax laws, such as

those that provide tax advantages or incentives for small enterprises, can boost the number of entrepreneurs by alleviating their financial burdens and boosting their profits after taxes. This enables business owners to devote more resources to company expansion and innovation. However, entrepreneurs may find it challenging due to high tax rates and complex tax legislation. Wang (2015) in his survey, for instance found that tax rate, affect entrepreneurial engagement. In line with this, Sefiani (2013) found that both less successful and successful entrepreneurs complemented the tax system, but they were complaining that the tax is too high. In Tanzania context several literatures found that many entrepreneurs complained of the multiplicity of taxes, duties and other fees that enterprises are required to pay to government institutions in Tanzania particularly during the start-up (Anderson, 2017; Nkwabi, 2019). In line with that, Mashenene & Rumanyika (2014) in their study commented that the business failure in Tanzania is highly contributed by taxes.

*Educational System* refers to the structured network of institutions, policies, practices, and processes that provide formal education within a society (Hatos, 2014). It encompasses all levels of learning from early childhood education to higher education and vocational training and is typically governed by national or regional authorities. The role of the appropriate education system in shaping entrepreneurial engagement has been highlighted by several scholars. Kobylńska and Ryciuk (2022); Wei et al. (2019) view entrepreneurial education at the school level and post school level. At school level entrepreneurial education refers to the degree to which entrepreneurship training is incorporated into primary and secondary education, while entrepreneurial education at the post-school level pertains to its integration within higher education institutions. Education exposes young people to entrepreneurial thinking, typical challenges, and standard processes (Kobylńska & Ryciuk, 2022). Entrepreneurship

education is delivered through a range of educational initiatives, such as courses, training programs, and workshops (Fayolle & Gailly, 2015; Kobylińska & Ryciuk, 2022). Universities and colleges serve as key centers of knowledge, equipping students with the skills necessary to cultivate entrepreneurial mindsets (Kobylińska & Ryciuk, 2022). Individuals who receive education and training in entrepreneurship can contribute to and help build a stronger, more dynamic business environment within the country. Thus, regions with access to education particularly entrepreneurial education tend to stimulate opening of the companies compared to areas where such educational opportunities are limited (Kobylińska & Ryciuk, 2022). Brush et al.(2002) argued that formal education is a valuable personal resource for entrepreneurs because it offers solid technical knowledge that could be useful in sporting potential ventures. Guzman and Santos (2001) revealed that higher levels of education increase an individual's intrinsic motivation and energizer. Similarly, Anderson (2017) revealed that education is critical factor for the start-up and growth because it is considered as a means of consolidating knowledge and experience, ranging from entrepreneurship knowledge to managerial soft skills. Mónico et al. (2021) further found that entrepreneurship education influenced students' entrepreneurial motivations. The importance of education is also proved from the study of Farah and Abdi (2014), who found that large percentage of women lacked education, which hindered their involvement in entrepreneurship. Mshenga and Richardson (2013) further found that the majority of MSE owners in Mombasa, did not have any formal business training which hindered their ability to effectively manage financial issues and human resources. Sefiani (2013) on the other hand found that successful firms have relatively higher educated parents than those less successful.

*Social Cultural Norms*-these are informal institutions consisting of the shared beliefs, values, customs, and behaviors that are considered acceptable within a specific society or group (Adeyemi, 2021; Schillo et al., 2016). These norms influence how people interact, what is seen as appropriate or inappropriate, and how individuals view roles, responsibilities, and identity. These norms can either support or restrict individuals' willingness and ability to engage in entrepreneurship (Fritsch et al., 2015). Evidence from literature shows that some entrepreneurial decisions are driven by informal decision factors such as cultural notion, shared acceptable beliefs, established practices, and some social norms (Adeyemi, 2021; Schillo et al., 2016). Some culture hinders or facilitates entrepreneurship development. According to Kobylińska and Ryciuk (2022), socio-cultural factors such as fear of failure, perceived opportunities, and the presence of role models are key drivers influencing entrepreneurial behavior. For instance Kirby (2009) revealed that not all religions are supportive of entrepreneurship and he quoted some verses from the bible in Mathew (19;23;24) which discouraged wealth creation equating it with corruption. Such culture creates lacks spirit of self-reliance. The presence of role models within society or the family has also been found to play a significant role in promoting entrepreneurship, as these individuals serve as sources of inspiration and aspiration for others. For instance, Efrata et al. (2021) found that the existence of entrepreneurial role model encourages innovativeness, risk tolerance and proactive spirit. Values and beliefs shape how individuals interpret and express key entrepreneurial traits, such as risk-taking, productivity, independent decision-making, and the aspiration to pursue entrepreneurship (Çelikkol, 2019).

## **2.11 Theoretical Framework**

As Cooper et al. (2008) noted that tourism is a multidisciplinary phenomenon in which it involves more than one subject, such as geography, business, sociology, psychology, law, education, anthropology, parks and recreation, political sciences, transportation, marketing, agriculture, and ecology; therefore, its studies cannot be limited to a single discipline. Theories from other disciplines are therefore essential in understanding success factors and barriers for local community engagement in tourism entrepreneurship. A quite number of theories examined factors that lead to opportunity identifications and exploitation. Some theories were based on internal factors, others on external factors, and some considered both. The internal element (person) is considered first when explaining entrepreneurship, followed by the external factor (environment) (Davidsson, 2004; Njogu, 2015). To this study, psychological theories of entrepreneurship, the theory of opportunity identification and development, entrepreneurial ecosystem theory will be adopted.

### **2.11.1 Theory of Entrepreneurial Opportunity Recognition and Development**

The theory contends that entrepreneurship begins with recognizing opportunities that others may not see. Opportunity identification and selection of the right opportunity for a new business are important factors in entrepreneurship. Major factors involved in opportunity recognition and development that lead to business formation include entrepreneurial alertness, information asymmetry and prior knowledge, personality traits, social networks, and the type of opportunity itself (Shane & Venkataraman, 2000). The development process begins when entrepreneurial alertness exceeds a threshold level. Alertness is likely to increase when there is a coincidence of several factors, such as certain personality traits, relevant prior knowledge and experience, and social networks. Alertness is at the core of the entrepreneurial process and

engagement. Ardichvili et al. (2003) reveals that personality characteristics and environment interact to create conditions that foster higher entrepreneurial alertness, which may eventually lead to new ventures. Personality characteristics can be seen as internal, while environmental elements are seen as external factors, and both have a significant role in the success or failure of an entrepreneurial endeavor. Two personality traits have further been identified, such as the optimism of entrepreneurs and creativity. Other factors identified as internal include information asymmetry and prior knowledge. Ardichvili et al. (2003) stated that an entrepreneur will discover the opportunity that is related to the field in which they are already qualified. Prior knowledge may either be due to an entrepreneur's special interest or work experience. Social networks are examples of environmental factors that interact with personality traits. Entrepreneurs who have access to proper entrepreneurial information through their networks can identify opportunities more quickly than those who do not. Once identified, opportunities must be developed into viable ventures through resource mobilization, planning, and adaptation to the local context (Ardichvili et al., 2003).

### **2.11.2 The Entrepreneurial Ecosystem Theory**

Entrepreneurial ecosystem theory is a theory draws from multiple disciplines including cluster theory, process theory, resources dependence theory, social capital theory, system theory, network theory, knowledge spill over theory, stakeholders theory and social network theory (Fubah & Moos, 2021). The theory combines entrepreneurial and ecosystem aspects (Fubah & Moos, 2021; Stam & van de Ven, 2021). The entrepreneurial, refers to situations where new products, services, raw materials, or organizational methods are introduced and sold at a price that exceeds the cost of their production (Shane & Venkataraman, 2000), while the ecosystem is a word emerged from biology and describe the interaction of living things and their

surroundings which function together as a single unit (Fubah & Moos, 2021; Purbasari et al., 2020). In the context of business, entrepreneurial ecosystem encompasses the entrepreneurs, environment, and their businesses, with the entrepreneurs and their ventures acting as the living organisms within it (Fubah & Moos, 2021). The theory therefore conceptualizes entrepreneurial ecosystem as the network of interconnected actors (individuals, organizations, institutions), factors (social, political, economic, and cultural), and relationships (between actors and factors) within a specific geographic context, which interact to either support or obstruct entrepreneurial activity (Fubah & Moos, 2021; Isenberg, 2010; Stam, 2015; Stam & van de Ven, 2021). Stam (2015); Stam and van de Ven (2021) identified ten key components of entrepreneurial ecosystem which include formal institutions, network, culture, physical infrastructure, finance, demand, support services/intermediaries, knowledge, talent, and leadership.

The theory of the entrepreneurial ecosystem has been widely applied in recent research to understand the dynamics that foster entrepreneurship in various contexts. For instance, Spigel (2017) applied the theory in a comparative study of entrepreneurial ecosystems in North American cities, illustrating how cultural attributes and historical trajectories shape ecosystem development. World Economic Forum (2013) on the other hand, applied the entrepreneurial ecosystem framework to systematically examine which of the eight recognized pillars of an ecosystem are most critical to entrepreneurs in driving the growth of their ventures. Rather than treating all components of the ecosystem as equally influential, their study identified the specific elements such as accessible markets, human capital/workforce, and funding and finance consistently emerge as the most critical factors influencing company growth on a global scale. Abdulai and Hussain (2023) further used the theory to

examine dynamics of the entrepreneurship ecosystem and entrepreneurship development in Africa and found that human capital, venture capital, infrastructure, systems, and support mechanisms act as the key catalysts driving long-term entrepreneurship development across the African continent. In the tourism context, Bachinger et al. (2022) employed the entrepreneurial ecosystem theory to explore the unique characteristics of ecosystems within the tourism sector. By comparing tourism-specific ecosystems to established entrepreneurial ecosystem models, the study highlighted the central role played by networks of businesses and organizations in supporting entrepreneurial activity. Moreover, the authors emphasized that contextual elements such as local culture and natural landscape function not merely as background features but as critical resources that shape and sustain tourism entrepreneurship. Similarly Eichelberger et al.(2020) employed the theory to explore, test, and analyze smart aspects among experts in terms of Entrepreneurship Ecosystem, residents, and tourists visiting Innsbruck. Köseoglu (2025) additionally employed theory to explore how the Entrepreneurship Ecosystem fosters tourism competitiveness by analyzing international arrivals, tourism expenditures, and employment. While (Altin, 2025) employed the theory to examine the key components of entrepreneurship ecosystems in the hospitality and tourism industry, focusing on policy, finance, culture, support, human capital, and market dynamics.

## **2.12 Research Gap**

Many extant entrepreneurship studies have approached entrepreneurial engagement from diverse theoretical and analytical perspectives, reflecting the multidimensional nature of the phenomenon. Several scholars distinguish between internal and external factors that either enable or hinder individuals from engaging in entrepreneurial activities (Guzman & Santos, 2001; Sefiani, 2013). Others frame entrepreneurial

engagement through the interaction between the entrepreneur, the enterprise, and the broader business environment, arguing that performance and participation are shaped by the alignment of these three domains (Lampadarijos et al., 2017). A further strand of literature differentiates between individual and non-individual factors, emphasizing how personal traits, motivations, and competencies interact with structural conditions such as finance, infrastructure, and institutions to influence entrepreneurial outcomes (Nikolić et al., 2015). Similarly, scholars such as Ács et al. (2014), Adeyemi (2021) and Cuervo (2005) categorize the determinants of entrepreneurial development into individual-level factors (e.g., skills, experience, aspirations) and contextual factors (e.g., policies, markets, sociocultural conditions). More recent work adopts an entrepreneurial ecosystem perspective, viewing entrepreneurial engagement as emerging from the dynamic interplay of interconnected actors, institutions, resources, and environmental conditions (Ancona et al., 2023; Isenberg, 2010; Purbasari et al., 2020; Stam & van de Ven, 2021). While both approaches have significantly contributed to our understanding of entrepreneurship, a major gap persists in understanding how these factors operate in specific local tourism contexts, particularly in ecologically sensitive and conservation-driven landscapes such as the Tarangire–Manyara ecosystem in Tanzania. Moreover, many studies on entrepreneurship tend to focus primarily on the success factors and barriers influencing the growth of small and medium enterprises (SMEs) (Lampadarijos, 2015; Satar & John, 2018; Zahra, 2011), with comparatively limited research examining local community engagement. While such research provides valuable insights, there is a lack of holistic understanding of the factors that enable some locals to successfully engage in tourism entrepreneurship, while others fail to do so. This gap presents an opportunity to investigate how local communities identify and capitalize tourism

opportunities, as well as to examine the key success factors and barriers to their engagement in tourism entrepreneurship within the Tarangire-Manyara Ecosystem.

### **2.13 Conceptual Framework: Success and Barriers in Rural Tourism Entrepreneurship**

The conceptual framework in appendix demonstrates that successful engagement in tourism entrepreneurship within rural communities' results from a dynamic interplay between interdependent actors and a range of contextual factors. At the beginning of this framework are local entrepreneurs, typically community members, who initiate and manage tourism-related enterprises such as homestays, craft markets, guiding services and cultural tours. Entrepreneurs' ability to identify opportunities, develop business ideas, and establish viable tourism ventures depends on key individual attributes. These include prior experience, relevant education and training, personality traits and marketing competencies. When these attributes are present, community members are more likely to recognize tourism opportunities and take initiative in creating new ventures. However, lack of experience, insufficient education and training, limited personality traits and limited marketing competences can become significant barriers, preventing potential entrepreneurs from entering or succeeding in the tourism sector.

Beyond individual capabilities, rural tourism entrepreneurs operate within a broader ecosystem shaped by multiple supporting or constraining actors: Government and policymakers, at national and local levels, play a central role by shaping the regulatory environment. Supportive policies such as tax incentives, simplified business registration, tourism zoning, and public investment in infrastructure enhance the ease of doing business. Conversely, bureaucratic procedures, restrictive regulations, or lack of public investment act as barriers that discourage

entrepreneurship. Educational and training institutions strengthen local capacity by providing entrepreneurship development programs, tourism-specific training, and skill-building initiatives. Accessible and relevant training enhances service quality and innovation, while the absence of such training limits business performance and growth. Financial institutions, including banks, microfinance providers, and development funds, determine the level of access to capital. Affordable loans and financial products support business start-up and expansion, whereas collateral requirements, high interest rates, or limited rural outreach create financial barriers. Non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and development agencies act as facilitators, offering technical support, grants, and capacity-building programs. Their involvement can empower local communities; however, short-term interventions without sustained support can limit long-term entrepreneurial success. Tour operators and private sector partners provide critical market linkages by connecting rural tourism products to national and international visitors. These partnerships expand market reach and increase visibility. When such linkages are weak or non-existent, rural entrepreneurs face difficulties attracting customers and competing with established tourism providers.

In addition to these actors, several contextual factors shape the extent to which entrepreneurship efforts succeed or face obstacles: Access to finance supports venture creation and growth, while lack of financial resources limits expansion and resilience. Infrastructure and technology, including roads, transportation services, electricity, internet connectivity, and digital tools, greatly influence operational efficiency and marketing reach. Poor infrastructure, in contrast, restricts tourist mobility and hinders business operations. Social capital and networks, particularly trust-based community relationships, enable information exchange, mentorship, collaboration, and customer

referrals. Weak networks or internal community conflicts can create fragmentation and reduce collective success. Market demand and tourism flows, such as the growing global interest in rural, cultural, and experiential tourism, create opportunities for new products and services. Low demand or seasonal fluctuations, however, reduce business viability. Policy and regulatory environment, including tourism-friendly regulations and reduced bureaucratic barriers, encourages business formation. Conversely, complex regulations can deter individuals from formalizing businesses (See appendix vi)

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

#### **3.0 Overview**

The study aimed to explore how the local community engage in tourism entrepreneurship in the Tarangire-Manyara Ecosystem in Tanzania, success factors and barriers influencing their engagement. A researcher believed that gaining a deeper understanding of this situation would enable practitioners to identify the most effective ways to enhance the entrepreneurial spirit among local people. In seeking understanding of this phenomenon, the study addressed four research questions (a) How does the local community engages in tourism entrepreneurship within the Tarangire-Manyara Ecosystem? (b) What are the success factors influencing local community to effective engages in tourism entrepreneurship in the Tarangire-Manyara ecosystem? (c) What are the barriers influencing local community engagement in tourism entrepreneurship in the Tarangire Manyara Ecosystem? (d) How does the entrepreneurial propensity of indigenous and non-indigenous residents differ in utilizing tourism opportunities in the Tarangire-Manyara Ecosystem? This chapter describes the research methodologies that were used to meet the study's goals. The chapter starts with an introduction to the research topic, including its history and why it was chosen. It outlines the research paradigm adopted, the study population, sample size, methods utilized, and the selection of participants. In addition, the study outlines the research tools that were utilized to collect data for the study, their reliability and validity, the data collection techniques and analysis.

#### **3.1 Research Design**

A research design is a plan, structure, and method of investigation created to find solutions to a problem or research issue (Kumar, 2014). It details the location of the

study and the sample that was used, how many items were chosen, what kind of data were gathered, how data were handled, how long data collection took place, and how much money was required to complete the study (Kothari & Garg, 2014; Saunders et al., 2009). Various research designs exist, and the choice among them depends on the study objectives, available data sources, urgency of decision-making, and the costs associated with data collection (Kothari & Garg, 2014; Kumar, 2014; Saunders et al., 2009).

This study adopted exploratory case study design, used a qualitative approach, guided by an interpretivist philosophical stance. An exploratory case study design was chosen to enable an in-depth examination of a complex phenomenon within its real-life context. This type of research is particularly useful when exploring a topic with limited prior understanding or established theories (Creswell & Poth, 2007). This approach thus facilitated an understanding of the various entrepreneurial activities undertaken by local community members, as well as the identification of success factors and barriers affecting their participation in tourism entrepreneurship within the Tarangire-Manyara ecosystem. The interpretivist paradigm guided the study since this approach assumes that human nature is complex and multidimensional and seeks to understand meaning and experience of individuals within their social and cultural contexts (Adam & Kamuzora, 2008; Bolderston, 2012; Saunders et al., 2009). In this approach, generalization is not as crucial as positivists believe because business settings are not the same (dynamic) and change frequently (Adam & Kamuzora, 2008). This approach aligns well with the qualitative methodology, as it allows the researcher to engage closely with participants, capturing their lived experiences, opinions, motivations, and challenges in their own words. As Elin and Poblete (2010) argue that studies concerning perceptions, beliefs, ideas, and opinions cannot be

measured in a quantitative way. This research tried to uncover what people think and why they think that way. It involved exploring and understanding “the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem” (Creswell & Poth, 2007). It further focused on how people interpret and make sense of their experiences in order to comprehend the social reality of individuals (Mohajan, 2018). Facts were collected naturally based on the respondents opinions (Mavere, 2013). This philosophical attitude is especially effective in theoretically less advanced domains (Elin & Poblete, 2010; Kirkwood, 2009), such as tourism entrepreneurship, since the majority of previous studies in Tanzania were based on positivist assumptions (see, for review, (Anderson, 2017; Isaga, 2015; Mashenene & Rumanyika, 2014; Nkwabi, 2019; Viswanadham, 2017). In general, this strategy enabled to collect, analyze, and interpret data obtained through interviews and focus group discussion (Creswell & Poth, 2007)

### **3.2 Description of Study Area**

The research took place within the Tarangire-Manyara ecosystem in Tanzania. The Tarangire-Manyara ecosystem is the most important and iconic protected areas in northern Tanzania. It encompasses a diverse range of land uses, including national parks, game reserves, wildlife management areas, game-controlled areas, open lands, and as well as surrounding village lands (Kissui, 2008). These village lands are inhabited by local communities, primarily pastoralists and agro-pastoralist groups, who live harmoniously with wild animals (Kissui et al., 2019; Muganda, 2009). The decision to choose the Tarangire-Manyara Ecosystem as a study area was due to several factors: First, the area is renowned for its rich biodiversity, iconic wildlife, and vibrant cultural heritage, attracting a significant number of tourism activities such as game drives, hunting, cultural tourism experiences, walking safaris, bird watching,

and photographing (MNRT et al, 2022; (Muganda, 2009; Sachedina, 2006). Second, increased number of tourism establishments such as tourist lodges, homestays, guest houses, and campsites (Muganda, 2009). Third, increasing number of tourist arrivals in recent years from 270,182 in 2017 to 300,944 in 2022 (MNRT, 2022) as it open more opportunities. Fourth, the co-existence of wildlife and human being around the area in which traditional people such as Maasai, Waarusha, Iraqw, and Mbugwe, who are pastoralists and agriculturists, and several migrants from within and outside Tanzania. Fifth, presence of human wildlife conflict caused by crop-damage and livestock depredation, leading local farmer's economic loss resulting into deepening of poverty (Harionhay & Røskaft, 2015). Lastly, accessibility of the area throughout the year by all types of visitors, including tourists visiting major renowned attractions such as Ngorongoro Conservation Area and Serengeti National Park, which together make it a perfect destination for tourism activities (Muganda, 2009). However, what was not clear, and what remains the focus of this research, was how the local community engage in tourism entrepreneurship and what could be success, factors and barriers for their engagement.

### **3.3 Sampling Methods**

According Kumar (2018), sampling is the process of selecting a subset of individuals (samples) from a larger population (sampling population) to serve as the basis for estimating or predicting the presence of unknown information, conditions, or outcomes related to the entire group. To reach a wide range of individuals and capture diverse perspectives from different groups, this study employed a multistage, non-random sampling technique. At first, two districts, such as Monduli and Babati District Council were purposely selected from among four districts. The rationale for selecting the region is its significant number of tourism-based entrepreneurial

activities. At the second stage, four wards such as Mto wa Mbu, Elisaei, Mwada and Nkaiti were purposely selected from thirty-five wards (two wards from each district). The criteria for selection of these four wards were proximity to the protected areas and presence of tourism based entrepreneurial activities. Thirdly, tourism-based entrepreneurs from Mto wa Mbu, Elisaei, Mwada and Nkaiti were selected using snowball sampling technique. Fourthly, key informants comprise of village leaders of four villages from each of the four wards, trade officers and tourism officers from two districts, and tourism officers from Tarangire and Manyara National Parks were purposely selected. Similarly, proximity to the protected area and presence of tourism based entrepreneurial activities were the main criteria. Lastly, the study selected representatives (portion) from owners of micro, small and medium tourism-based enterprises using snow ball technique (Tabuena et al., 2021).

### **3.3.1 Purposive Sampling**

In this technique, the researcher select a group of people who are thought to be reliable for the study (Saunders et al., 2013; Singh & Masuku, 2014). The selection of the sample and the sampling units is made solely at the discretion and judgment of the researcher (Saunders et al., 2009). This technique was employed to select key informants, specifically the village leaders. The selection was based on two criteria: first, the village of the leader had to be located within or adjacent to protected areas; second, the village needed to have tourism-based entrepreneurial activities such as hotels, camps, curio shops, and others. This technique was further used to select four tourism officers from Lake Manyara and Tarangire National Parks; and Monduli and Babati Districts. A tourism officer is a person who is a professional responsible for promoting tourism in a certain area or district. Lastly, Trade Officers from Moduli

and Babati Districts were also selected through purposive sampling. Trade officers are professionals who support and promote trade and commerce in a district.

### **3.3.2 Snowball Sampling**

Snowball sampling is a technique in which a researcher identifies one member of a community of interest, speaks with him or her, and then asks that person to name other members of the population to whom the researcher might speak. This individual is then asked to suggest the researcher to someone else, and so on (Saunders et al., 2009). This technique was employed to compile a list of participants engaged in tourism-based enterprises. A researcher, through the help from a village leader first identified one member of a local community operating tourism enterprises, spoke with him, and then asked that person to name other members of the population operating tourism-based enterprises. This technique was deemed more appropriate given that the population involved in tourism-based entrepreneurship was unknown (Bryman, 2016). In Tanzania, this method is particularly suitable due to the difficulty in obtaining reliable information or accurate counts of enterprises involved in tourism-based entrepreneurial activities (Eijdenberg et al., 2019; Isaga, 2015).

## **3.4 Population and Sampling Design**

### **3.4.1 Population**

A population refers to the entire group of individuals or items about which information is sought (Adam & Kamuzora, 2008; Kombo & Tromp, 2006; Saunders et al., 2009). A target population therefore is defined as a group of people, objects, or things from whom samples are obtained for measurement or from whom a researcher has an interest in finding something (Kombo & Tromp, 2006). The target population for this study comprised members of the local communities living within the Tarangire–Manyara Ecosystem, specifically in Monduli District of Arusha Region

and Babati District of Manyara Region, Tanzania. These districts have a total number of 36 wards but only four wards such as Mto wa Mbu, Esilaei, Nkaiti, and Mwada were involved in this study due to the proximity and presence of tourism activities. The four wards have a total number of 14 villages with an estimated population of 56,289 (URT, 2013). Administratively, these districts have trade officers appointed by the government, ward executive officer (WVO) and village executive officer (VEO) who are also appointed by the government. In each village there is a village chairperson who is elected by the villagers and sub-village leaders. Each protected area usually has a tourism officer. Current data indicate that there are approximately 84 registered tourism enterprises operating within the study area, along with a significant number of unregistered tourism-based businesses (Tourism Officer, Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism [MNRT]) (personal communication, September 15, 2022).

**Table 3.1: Target Population**

| <b>Groups</b>             | <b>Population size</b> |
|---------------------------|------------------------|
| Tourism-based enterprises | 84                     |
| Village leaders           | 18                     |
| Tourism officers          | 5                      |
| Trade officers            | 2                      |
| <b>Total</b>              | <b>109</b>             |

Source: Researcher (2024)

Accordingly, the study participants were drawn from local communities in Tanzania, including both indigenous and non-indigenous residents who own MSMTEs, as well as village leaders, trade officers, and tourism officers from two districts. Additionally, tourism officers from Tarangire and Manyara National Parks, along with a representative from the Tanzania Wildlife Management Area, were included, as summarized in Table 3.1. These individuals were selected for their extensive

knowledge, experience, expertise, and active involvement in the tourism industry within the study area.

### **3.4.2 Sample Size**

Sample size refers to the number of units selected from the population to constitute a sample (Kothari & Garg, 2014). Although many researchers have emphasized the importance of determining the sample size before data collection (Bryman, 2016; Kothari & Garg, 2014; Saunders et al., 2009), some researchers argue that determining a sample size in advance is not necessary in qualitative research (Mandal, 2018; Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2005; Sim et al., 2018). The number of participants is usually determined by the saturation point. Data saturation is a situation when a researcher finds enough information to replicate the study, or no more new information is obtained, or further coding is no longer feasible (Fusch & Ness, 2015; Guest et al., 2006; Mandal, 2018). In qualitative research, saturation appears to be the criteria by which sample size is determined, unlike in quantitative research, where it is determined by statistical tools (Guest et al., 2006). The emphasis in qualitative research is on exploring the range of opinions and the richness of the information gathered, not on counting the number of opinions of people or whether they are representative of the whole population (Burmeister & Aitken, 2012; Mandal, 2018). Sampling is therefore based on appropriateness and adequacy (Mandal, 2018). Guest et al., (2006), argue that data saturation typically occurs within the first 12 interviews, while Marshall et al., (2013), suggest that saturation in grounded qualitative studies is generally reached between 20 and 30 interviews. For single case studies, they note that 15 to 30 interviews are usually sufficient to achieve saturation. Saunders and Townsend (2016) however suggested that approximately 30 participants are sufficient when analyzing a single organization or group, whereas around 50 participants are

recommended when the study involves multiple organizations or is structured around multiple groups in qualitative analysis. These suggestions aided in determining the approximate number of participants required for this study.

Since the study involved Small and Medium Tourism Enterprises (SMTEs) encompassing a numerous business types, the researcher reached data saturation after 50 interviews, which concur with (Saunders & Townsend, 2016). However, additional interview were conducted until 60 so that to verify quality of data saturation as suggested by (Sarfo et al., 2021). Mto wa Mbu Ward exhibited the greatest diversity of tourism-based enterprises, necessitating a larger number of interviews to capture the full range of perspectives. This was followed by Esilalei and Nkaiti Wards. In contrast, Mwada Ward, characterized by a lower level of business diversity, reached saturation more quickly. Purpose and snowball sampling were used to reach an adequate number of people to obtain different views from different categories. 60 participants were selected from tourism-based enterprises using snowball sampling. In addition, purposive sampling was employed to select 4 tourism officers and 2 trade officers, who also participated in interviews. Furthermore, purposive sampling was employed to select 23 village leaders who participated in Focus Group Discussions. Initially, the study planned to involve 18 village leaders. However, during data collection, an additional 5 leaders requested to participate, noting that they possessed valuable information and experience related to the area and its tourism activities. This brought the total number of participants in the focus group discussion to 23. Consequently, the overall sample size increased to 89 participants, as presented in Table 3.2

**Table 3.2: Group Sample Size Guidelines and Sampling Techniques**

| <b>Groups</b>             | <b>Population size</b> | <b>Actual Sample Size</b> | <b>Sampling Technique</b> |
|---------------------------|------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|
| Tourism-based enterprises | 84                     | 60                        | Snowball sampling         |
| Village leaders           | 18                     | 23                        | Purposive sampling        |
| Tourism officers          | 5                      | 4                         | Purposive sampling        |
| Trade officers            | 2                      | 2                         | Purposive sampling        |
| <b>Total</b>              | <b>109</b>             | <b>89</b>                 |                           |

Source: Researcher (2024)

This sample is sufficient enough to provide perspective on the study, as Bolderston (2012); Burmeister and Aitken (2012); Kothari and Garg (2014) argue that the sample size should not be too large or too small. Entrepreneurs who meet the definition of an entrepreneur were considered for the selection process (Kirkwood, 2009).

### **3.5 Data Collection Methods**

Data collection methods are an important aspect in social science research because they determine the quality, accuracy and reliability of data collected. To obtain in-depth information of the phenomena many scholars suggested the use of multiple methods and triangulation (Creswell & Poth, 2007; Maryring, 2014; Sargeant, 2012). This strategy adds rigor, breadth and depth to the study and provides corroborative evidence of the data obtained. This research enriched by two major types of data such as primary and secondary data and collected through various methods.

#### **3.5.1 Primary Data**

Primary data are data that are gathered directly from respondents or data that are originated from the field (Kombo & Tromp, 2006; Saunders et al., 2009). Data collected was conducted through semis semi structured interviews and focus group discussion from April 2024 to August 2024 when it reached saturation (Saunders & Townsend, 2016).

### 3.5.1.1 Interview

The interview was selected as the primary method of data collection in this research. This method refers to data collection technique which involves face to face interaction between interviewer and interviewee (Bolderston, 2012; Bryman, 2016; Saunders et al., 2009). This method provide three options based on flexibility: structured, semi-structured, and unstructured interviews (Saunders et al., 2009). To get meaningful comparisons of responses, a semi-structured interview was administered to collect primary data from entrepreneurs of tourism firms, Tourism officers and Trade officers. The rationale for using this method is that it enabled both the collection of data from multiple individuals and an in-depth exploration of their personal experiences with engagement in tourism entrepreneurship. Second, this technique allowed individuals to express their opinions independently (Bolderston, 2012; Elin & Poblete, 2010). Third, this technique allowed adjustments of questions depending on the interviewee's understanding and situation. The researcher used four research questions as a framework to develop interview questions. The interview questions were first administered to the tourism-based entrepreneurs living adjacent protected Kilimanjaro National Park as pretesting for evaluation and finetuning.

A list of topics and questions to be addressed were prepared, and the interviewer used these questions to engage in a formal interview with the respondents (Saunders et al., 2009). The Kiswahili language was used as a medium of communication during the interview, except for respondents who were willingly to use English. Respondents were given freedom to choose the appropriate language they prefer. The interviewer asked supplementary questions to get clarification on the subject matter. Prior to the interview, owners and officers were contacted for an appointment on the interview date and asked to read and sign the informed consent form regarding their

involvement in the research. At the beginning of the interview, the interviewers introduce themselves, initiate a friendly but professional conversation, and explain the purposes, importance of participation, and expected duration of the interview. The interviews were conducted simultaneously with audio recording and assigned codes as indicated in Table 3.3 to enable easy transcription and analysis. The interview typically lasts for twenty minutes to an hour. Local conditions did not allow extended interview sessions, as most entrepreneurs were often occupied with attending to their customers. The interview time was within a range as (George, 2020) suggested that semi structure interview may range from 15 to three -quarter of an hour long. It was also concur with the study conducted by Eijdenberg et al.(2019) who used 30 minutes. The interview protocol consisted of five parts, the introduction of tourism-based entrepreneurship, local community engagement in tourism entrepreneurship, success factors, barriers and propensity between local and non-local residents.

**Table 3.3: Interview Participant codes**

| <b>Ward</b>                                | <b>Sample Size</b> | <b>Participant Code</b> |
|--|--------------------|-------------------------|
| Esilalei                                   | 14                 | IN1-IN14                |
| Mto wa Mbu                                 | 29                 | IN15-IN43               |
| Nkaiti                                     | 14                 | IN44-IN57               |
| Mwada                                      | 3                  | IN58-IN60               |
| Tourism Officer Lake Manyara National Park | 1                  | TOint02                 |
| Tourism Officer Tarangire National Park    | 1                  | TOint04                 |
| Tourism Officer Babati District            | 1                  | TOint01                 |
| Tourism Officer Monduli District           | 1                  | TOint03                 |
| Trade Officer Babati                       | 1                  | TROint01                |
| Trade Officer Moduli                       | 1                  | TROint02                |
| <b>Total</b>                               | <b>66</b>          |                         |

### **3.5.1.2 Focus Group Discussion (FGD)**

This study also used focus group discussion to collect primary data from village leaders as a key informant because most of these officials have limited time. A focus group discussion (FGD) is an in-depth field method in which a small, homogeneous

group (typically six to twelve people) meets to discuss subjects on a study agenda (George, 2011; Saunders et al., 2009). The rationale for using this strategy is that this study aimed to gather detailed information on the group's concepts, perceptions, and thoughts concerning local people's engagement in tourism-based entrepreneurship, their success factors and barriers. It also helped to identify common experiences and shared concerns (Bolderston, 2012). To maximize disclosure among focus group participants, four groups were composed and divided based on Wards. Four focus group discussions (FGD1, FGD2, FGD3, and FGD4) were held in Esilalei, Mto wa Mbu, Mwada and Nkaiti Wards compound. The participants of the focus group discussions were drawn among village leaders in the respective wards. These leaders were selected for their extensive knowledge of the area and their experience in the tourism industry within the study region. The Focus Group Discussion (FGD) at Esilalei Ward consisted of eight participants, while the FGD at Mto wa Mbu Ward included seven participants. In contrast, the discussions at Mwada and Nkaiti wards each comprised four participants which of course matches with (Eijdenberg et al., 2019) whose Focus groups ranges from four to ten participants. The number was determined by the criteria set prior to data collection such as proximity to the protected area and presence of tourism-based enterprises. This sample size was deemed sufficient to gather relevant and meaningful information, in line with recommendations by (Gill et al., 2008). The group at Mwada and Nkaiti were composed of all males while the group at Mto wa Mbu were composed of 6 male and 1 female participants, and group at Esilalei were composed of 6 male and 2 female participants respectively. Irrespective of their gender, all participants had equal status as village executive leader, therefore gender inferiority was not an issue and all participants were free to talk. Codes were used during the discussion proxy to their

names thus, participants were identified by P1, P2.... P17, P8 so that to maintain anonymity. The groups were informed in advance to confirm their participation. The discussion was held in a relaxed setting in the Ward Executive conference room and refreshments were supplied to allow participants to freely express themselves. The discussion was moderated by a qualified moderator and assisted by an observer who was also taking notes and keeping records. Two tape recorders were used to capture the participants' discussions to ensure that no important information was missing. Each session lasted an hour to one thirty minutes. A small thank you gift for the participants was provided as appreciation. The focus group discussions were used to ascertain information obtained from individual participants.

**Table 3.4: Focus Group Discussion Participant codes**

| <b>Ward</b>  | <b>Sample Size</b> | <b>Participant Code</b> |
|--------------|--------------------|-------------------------|
| Mwada        | 4                  | P1..... P4              |
| Nkaiti       | 4                  | P1..... P4              |
| Mto wa Mbu   | 7                  | P1..... P7              |
| Esilalei     | 8                  | P1..... P8              |
| <b>Total</b> | <b>23</b>          |                         |

### **3.5.2 Secondary Data**

To address the aforesaid research questions, the study required the collection of secondary data so that it could understand the key issues the research is trying to explore. As Saunders et al. (2009) argue that secondary data are data used for a research project that were originally collected for some reason. Secondary data in this research were investments manual from Tanzania National Parks, and Tanzania Wildlife Management Area, financial institutions policy and regulations and Tanzania Revenue Authority. Other important source of secondary data was government publications such as Small and Medium Enterprises development Policy, National Tourism Policy

and Tourism master Plan. These were sources of information as they described investments procedures, eligibilities for loans and taxes and entrepreneurial strategies and initiatives. These data enabled the validation of the initially collected information. The process of reviewing document commenced with developing a research question, then identifying and assessing the dataset. The following steps were followed to determine the appropriate match of a dataset to a research investigation: These include questions such as: What was the purpose of this study; who was responsible for collecting the information; what information was actually collected; when was the information collected; how was the information obtained; and how consistent is the information obtained from one source with information available from other sources (Johnston, 2014).

### **3.5.3 Pre-Testing**

Pre-testing was conducted in the community living adjacent Kilimanjaro National Park from 12<sup>th</sup> to 20<sup>th</sup> March 2024. It was designed to assess whether the interview questions would be understood by the interviewees or not. Pre-test enabled to assess the validity and reliability of research instruments of whether the instrument answers what is supposed to be answered. A total number of 10 questions were administered to the owner of tourism-based enterprises. Participants provided some suggestions that enabled improvement of research instruments.

### **3.6 Data Analysis Techniques**

Refers to techniques of breaking down data and clarify the nature of the component parts and the relationship between them (Saunders et al., 2009). It involves derivation of explanation and interpretation of findings based on descriptions (Bailey & Bailey, 2017). Because data were collected through interviews and focus group discussions,

the analysis process followed qualitative methods. Thus, the analysis focused on identifying themes, patterns, and key insights from participants' response. The researcher continuously examined the data for comparisons to identify emerging concepts, repeatedly revisiting it to establish connections between these concepts and the research questions. The MAQDA version 24.4.1 software was utilized to streamline qualitative content data analysis and improve its reliability and transparency. MAXQDA is a computer-assisted qualitative and mixed methods data, text, and multimedia analysis software tool (Slehat, 2018). The reason for choosing this computer aided qualitative data analysis software was that firstly, it aids in the methodical study and interpretation of data sources such as interviews, newspaper articles, focus groups, photos, videos, audio files, bibliographical data, tweets, and even statistical data sets. Secondly, the software is widely used in social science. Thirdly, it is user-friendly and cost-effective. Fourthly, the program enabled the researcher to store, categorize, retrieve, and compare data effectively. Although the software helped in simplification of the monotonous tasks, the analysis itself remain to the discretion of the researcher as Kelle (1997) suggest: "the computer's role is limited to functioning as an intelligent archiving ("code-and-retrieve") system, while the analysis itself is always conducted by a human interpreter" Thus, the researcher used software to ease the analysis process, while still guiding and reviewing the data through content analysis procedures.

### **3.6.1 Content Analysis**

Content analysis refers to the process of converting enormous volumes of text into codes, summarizing these into categories, and sometimes tabulating the data to determine the frequency of specific concepts or variables (Elo & Helvi, 2007). It can also be defined as a research method for the subjective interpretation of the content of

text data through the systematic classification process of coding and identifying themes or patterns (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). Hsieh and Shannon (2005) distinguished three types of qualitative content analysis: conventional, directed, and summative. Traditional conventional analysis is a method where coding categories are derived directly from the textual data (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005; Humble & Mozelius, 2022). This analysis is classified as an inductive or bottom-up approach. Directed content analysis is a type of analysis where initial codes are guided by a theory or relevant research discovery to guide the coding process (Daněk, 2023; Hsieh & Shannon, 2005; Humble & Mozelius, 2022). This analysis is a logical, top-down, theory-driven procedure. Summative content analysis is a method of analysis that entails counting and comparing important words or materials before interpreting the underlying content (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005; Humble & Mozelius, 2022). To interpret meaning from the content of text data, all three approaches use the naturalistic paradigm. This study used directed content analysis approach. Thus, data analysis was based on predetermined categories extracted from theories and previous research findings. Prior themes were developed as shown in (Table 3.5 and Table 3.6) and codes were developed and fitted according to the themes. Open coding approach involved going through all transcripts and coding the emerged issues as they appeared. An aspect that did not fit the theme framework, I created a new theme/category based on the principles of conventional analysis as Elo & Helvi (2007); Hsieh & Shannon (2005) recommended that any text that could not be categorized with the initial coding scheme or do not fit to the categorization frame can create a new category.

**Table 3.5: Tourism Based-Entrepreneurial Activities Initial Codes**

| <b>Theme</b>                             | <b>Description</b>  |
|--|---|
| Establishment of accommodations          | These include lodgings, campsites, cottages, villas etc.                                    |
| Establishment of arts and crafts         | These include wood crafts, painting and drawing, jewelry making, leatherwork, textiles etc. |
| Offering Transportation Services         | These operations of taxi, tourist vehicles, motorcycles, three wheels (Bajaj), bicycles.    |
| Establishment of tour guiding service    | These include guidance and interpretation of resources                                      |
| Establishment of training Centers        | These are training centers offering language studies, tour guiding etc.                     |
| Offering catering and restaurant service | These include preparation of food, delivery and social events                               |
| Establishment of Cultural Tourism        | Offering cultural experiences such as Maasai cultural Boma, village walk etc.               |

**Table 3.6: Success Factors/Barriers Initial Codes**

| <b>Theme</b>                        | <b>Description</b>  |
|-------------------------------------|---|
| Age                                 | The length of time a person or organization has lived.  |
| Gender                              | Male and female.  |
| Education                           | Formal and informal methods by which people learn and grow  |
| Family background                   | Social, economic, educational, and cultural environment in which a person is raised.  |
| Prior Experience                    | Knowledge, skills, and competence gained from previous activities, jobs, education, or life situation.  |
| Personality Traits                  | A specific way of thinking that enables individuals to identify opportunities, take calculated risks and turn ideas into actions.                                     |
| Social networks                     | Platform that allows individuals or organizations to connect, communicate and interact with others.   |
| Finance                             | Involves acquiring funds, managing assets, allocating resources, and making decisions about financial planning, investment, and risk management.                      |
| Government support                  | various forms of assistance or aid provided by government entities to individuals, businesses, communities, or organizations.   |
| Taxes                               | Compulsory financial charges or levies imposed by a government on individuals, businesses, or other entities.   |
| Government policies and regulations | Are rules, guidelines, and actions put in place by governmental bodies to manage economic, social, environmental, and cultural activities within a country or region. |

This study used eight steps of content analysis identified by (Zhang & Wildemuth, 2009) as showed below in (Table 3.7). Following interview and focus group discussion, the primary data were transformed into text. The transcription was done to all questions administered by the interviewer as suggested by (Zhang & Wildemuth, 2009). The transcription was done immediately every evening and were crosschecked with audio records. The familiarization of data was done through going forth and back while identifying initial codes. This stage aimed to reduce what have been collected to a manageable data base as Bloomberg & Volpe (2012; Creswell & Poth (2007) referred to as “winnowing process”. The initial coding process included single words, phrases, sentences, and paragraphs (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2012). Verbatim was also considered and incorporated during transcription. Master copy was developed and kept away as advised by Bloomberg & Volpe (2012) to back up all data and putting away one master copy for safe keeping. Documents were subsequently imported into MAXQDA version 24.4.1. Data was identified using labels like ENint01, TOint01, and TROint01. In these labels, "EN" for example stands for the entrepreneur, "int" denotes the interview, and "01" signifies the sequence in which the data was entered into the MAXQDA 24.4.1 software. The initial codes and coding scheme were generated in the software by the guidance of previous related study and theories. Two coders independently checked the consistency of the codes in the first four documents and fine-tuned to align with the research questions.

The entire corpus of text was coded based on previous studies and theories (Daněk, 2023; Hsieh & Shannon, 2005; Humble & Mozelius, 2022). The merged codes were then incorporated, resulting in the emergence of new themes (Zhang & Wildemuth, 2009). During the coding process, memos were identified and have been labeled. After coding the entire data set, codes were rechecked whether they work in relation

to the entire data set and those that found similar were merged with the existing code or developed a new theme or category. This process enhanced the consistency of codes and avoided mistakes while coding proceeds. Themes were then concluded and identified with their connectedness and final figures and tables were generated.

**Table 3.7: Steps in Developing Categories /Theme (Zhang & Wildemuth, 2009)**

| <b>Steps</b>                                     | <b>Description</b>   |
|--|--|
| 1. Data Preparation                              | Transcription, reading and re-reading, and jotting down initial ideas using initial coding.  |
| 2. Define the Unit of Analysis                   | Identifying of main theme or subject used during analysis. Units of analysis are expressed through a single word, a phrase, a sentence, a paragraph or entire document.          |
| 3. Development of Categories and a Coding Scheme | Creation of preliminary codes or labels from data. Codes are derived from three sources: data, previous related studies, and theories.   |
| 4. Testing Coding Scheme on a Sample of Text     | Checking consistency of codes based on inter-coder agreement. if matches with research question. If the level of consistency is low, the coding rules must be revised.           |
| 5. Code All the Text                             | Code the entire corpus of text based on previous codes and emerged data. The added codes might become a new theme.   |
| 6. Assess coding consistency                     | After coding the entire data set, recheck the consistency of codes so that to avoid mistakes while coding proceeds   |
| 7. Draw Conclusions from the Coded Data          | Exploring the properties and dimensions of categories, identifying relationships between categories, uncovering patterns, and testing categories against the full range of data. |
| 8. Reporting Methods and Findings                | Report the coding process, as well as the methods used to establish trustworthiness and findings in line with the study objectives   |

### **3.7 Trustworthiness**

Trustworthiness is a term closely related to the concept of ‘validity & reliability’ in quantitative research (Sefiani, 2013). Reliability is the degree to which a repeated trial of an experiment, test, or measuring method provides the same results, while validity is the degree to which variations in measuring instruments reflect genuine differences between individuals being tested (Saunders et al., 2009). Therefore, reliability and validity basically describe the quality of consistency or measurement. This means that

if the researchers repeat the study, they should produce the same results. Although the concepts are rooted in a positivist perspective, they can also be applied in a naturalistic environment (Golafshani, 2003).

In qualitative research therefore the term trustworthiness is used proxy to validity and reliability to measure quality of the research. It is an important aspect of research that can be used to demonstrate the validity and reliability of a study (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2012). In qualitative research, various authors have proposed that the concepts of credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability can be utilized to establish the trustworthiness of a study (Cope, 2014; Golafshani, 2003; Saunders et al., 2009; Sefiani, 2013; Stahl & King, 2020). The curability of research in qualitative research is determined by the ability and effort of the researcher (Golafshani, 2003).

### **Credibility**

Credibility refers to the truth of the data or the participant views and the interpretation and representation of them by the researcher (Cope, 2014; Polit & Beck, 2012; Sefiani, 2013). It describes how research findings match reality. In this research, data were collected directly from the field by the researcher himself, this enables researcher to in-depth understand the phenomena under the study. The data were collected by multiple methods such as interview and focus group discussion and double-checked by the researcher and trained researcher. These data were compared through triangulation to corroborate the researchers' conclusions. Transcriptions were also done by researchers and trained researchers, and the initial transcriptions were sent to some participants for review to verify their accuracy, and feedback was received from the participants.

**Dependability**

Dependability refers to whether one can track the process and procedures used to collect and interpret the data (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2012). It is concerned with the degree to which findings can be replicated (Merriam, 1998). This suggests that if the study is replicated in the same context with the same methods and participants, comparable results are likely to be obtained. In the present study the dependability was obtained through provision of detailed and thorough explanation of how the data were collected and analyzed as (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2012) referred to an audit trail. It was further achieved through involvement of trained researchers in coding system of interview and focus group discussion. This process of verifying consistency helps minimize the potential biases of a single researcher in collecting and analyzing the data.

**Transferability**

Transferability refers to the degree to which findings can be applied or generalized to other contexts or groups (Cope, 2014; Polit & Beck, 2012; Sefiani, 2013). It concerns how well the study enables readers to determine whether similar processes would occur in their own settings and community by providing an in-depth understanding of how they manifest at the research site. Bloomberg & Volpe (2012) referred to it as fit or match between the research context and other context as judged by the reader. In this study, transferability was achieved through detailed description of study areas which provide a reader with sufficient information. It was further obtained through detailed description of content analysis process which helped identification of the themes. The description of MSMEs within the context of the Tarangire-Manyara Ecosystem provides readers with an understanding of this specific context, helping them apply the research findings to other settings.

### **Confirmability**

Confirmability refers to the researcher's ability to show that the data accurately reflect the participants' responses, rather than being influenced by the researcher's biases or perspectives (Cope, 2014; Polit & Beck, 2012; Sefiani, 2013). The concept of confirmability Sefiani, (2013) compared with objectivity in quantitative research. It demonstrated how the researcher reached and interpreted. In this study, confirmability was achieved through provision of detailed quotes from participants that illustrate each emerging theme.

### **3.8 Ethical Consideration**

When organizing research and recruiting organizations and individuals to participate, gather, analyze, and report the acquired data, ethical concerns must be addressed. In the context of research, consider ethics to be the appropriateness of behavior with respect to the rights of persons who become the topic of research or are affected by it (Saunders et al., 2009). As a result, a researcher must ensure the privacy and confidentiality of research participants. The following ethical rules were followed during the research as recommended by (Bryman, 2016; Saunders et al., 2009): the researcher obtained the necessary research permits from the relevant government organizations before data collection. In compliance with legal requirements, the researcher applied for and obtained a research permit from the Tanzania Wildlife Research Institute (TAWIRI), the Tanzania Commission for Science and Technology (COSTECH), Tanzania National Parks and Tanzania Wildlife Management Area. After obtaining the necessary research permits, the study took the following ethical considerations into account before, during, and after its implementation. Firstly, the researcher obtained participants' consent before the interviews and focus group discussion. Secondly, the researcher ensured that participants are aware of the study's

objectives, that their participation was entirely voluntary, and that they have the option to terminate the interview at any time. Third, the investigator ensured that he won't cause any harm to the host communities.

## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **STUDY FINDINGS**

#### **4.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents the study's findings, which aimed to explore how the local community engages in tourism entrepreneurship within the Tarangire-Manyara Ecosystem in Tanzania. The chapter is structured as follows: Section one provides entrepreneurs' information on the study participants. Section two identified and described ways in which the local community engages in tourism entrepreneurship within the ecosystem. Section three examines the success factors that influence local community engagement in tourism entrepreneurship. Section four examines the barriers that hinder community engagement in tourism entrepreneurship. Section five evaluates the entrepreneurial propensity of both indigenous and non-indigenous residents in capitalizing on tourism-based opportunities within the Tarangire-Manyara Ecosystem.

#### **4.2 Demographic Profile**

Demographic profile such as gender, age, education, and ethnicity are considered important factors influencing an individual's engagement in tourism entrepreneurship. A total of 60 owners of Micro, Small, and Medium Enterprises (MSMEs) were interviewed, as shown in Table 4.12, along with 6 key informants. The finding indicates that most participants in tourism-based entrepreneurial businesses within the Micro, Small, and Medium Enterprises sector were male, with 46 male participants (76.7%), while 14 female participants (23.3%) were recorded. In terms of age, most owners were aged between 51-60 years, with 19 participants (31.67%), followed by 41-50 years old with 15 participants (25%), 21-40 years old with 13 participants (21.67%), 21-30 years old with 8 participants (13.3%), and 71+ years with 3 participants

(5%). The smallest group was aged 61-70 years, with 2 participants (3.33%). Regarding education, the findings showed that most business owners have completed either primary or secondary education, with 23 participants (38.33%) in each category. This followed diploma and bachelor's degrees with 5 participants (8.33%) in each. The smallest group was no formal education and certificates with 2 participants (3.33%) in each category. Notably, there were no participants with a master's degree or doctorate. Regarding the key informants, the findings indicated that out of six participants, five were male and one was female. Of the 60 entrepreneurs interviewed were Chaggas, who originated from Kilimanjaro and Arusha to capitalize on tourism opportunities, accounting for 21 participants (35%). The second-largest group were the Maasai, mostly from Ngorongoro, with 11 participants (18.33%). Other groups included the Iraqw (13.33%, 8 participants), Waarusha (6.67%, 4 participants), and a variety of indigenous groups such as the Makonde, Zaramo, and Mbugwe, each with 3 participants (5%). The Sambaa (Tanga) and Nyamwezi (Tabora) groups each had 2 participants (3.33%), while the Ngoni (Ruvuma), Pare (Kilimanjaro), and Bena (Njombe) groups had 1 participant (1.67%) each. When asked about their duration of residence in the Tarangire-Manyara Ecosystem, the findings showed that most entrepreneurs had lived there for over 31 years (33.33%, 20 participants). This was followed by those with 11-20 years of duration (28.33%, 17 participants), and those with 1-10 years of duration (20%, 12 participants). The smallest group had 21-30 years of duration, accounting for 11 participants (18.33%).

**Table 4.1: Summary of Demographic Profile**

| <b>Description</b> | <b>Criteria</b>     | <b>Frequency</b> | <b>Percentage (%)</b> |
|--------------------|---------------------|------------------|-----------------------|
| Gender             | Male                | 46               | 76.67                 |
|                    | Female              | 14               | 23.33                 |
| Age                | 51-60 years         | 19               | 31.67                 |
|                    | 41-50 years         | 15               | 25.00                 |
|                    | 31-40 years         | 13               | 21.67                 |
|                    | 21-30 years         | 8                | 13.33                 |
|                    | 71 + years          | 3                | 5.00                  |
|                    | 61-70 years         | 2                | 3.33                  |
| Level of Education | Primary             | 23               | 38.33                 |
|                    | Secondary           | 23               | 38.33                 |
|                    | Diploma             | 5                | 8.33                  |
|                    | Degrees             | 5                | 8.33                  |
|                    | No Formal Education | 2                | 3.33                  |
|                    | Certificate         | 2                | 3.33                  |
|                    | Masters             | 0                | 0.00                  |
|                    | Doctorates          | 0                | 0.00                  |
| Ethnic Group       | Chagga              | 21               | 35.00                 |
|                    | Maasai              | 11               | 18.33                 |
|                    | Iraqw               | 8                | 13.33                 |
|                    | Muarusha            | 4                | 6.67                  |
|                    | Makonde             | 3                | 5.00                  |
|                    | Zaramo              | 3                | 5.00                  |
|                    | Mbugwe              | 3                | 5.00                  |
|                    | Sambaa              | 2                | 3.33                  |
|                    | Nyamwezi            | 2                | 3.33                  |
|                    | Ngoni               | 1                | 1.67                  |
|                    | Pare                | 1                | 1.67                  |
|                    | Bena                | 1                | 1.67                  |
|                    | Duration of Stay    | 31+              | 20                    |
| 11-20              |                     | 17               | 28.33                 |
| 1-10               |                     | 12               | 20.00                 |
| 21-30              |                     | 11               | 18.33                 |

### **4.3 Local Community Engagement in Tourism Entrepreneurship**

The first research question aimed to identify and describe how the local community engages in tourism entrepreneurship. To address this, it was necessary to understand how aware the local community is of the entrepreneurial opportunities in the tourism industry. Through interview and focus group discussion, participants revealed that

tourism activities at Tarangire-Manyara Ecosystem created diverse tourism entrepreneurial opportunities such as the establishment of arts and crafts businesses, provision of traditional food, creation of accommodation facilities, offering guiding services, setting up bicycle rentals and bicycle tours, establishing cultural bomas, supplying agricultural products (foodstuffs), opening supermarkets, organizing cultural tours, starting safari companies, launching local breweries, opening lounge bars, establishing fast food center/restaurant, providing construction and maintenance services, offering balloon safaris, creating zip lines, organizing traditional performances, setting up farm tours, and offering hot coffee services. This is reflected in participants comments such as ENint1 who said that “The lodges have created numerous potentials such as the establishment of walking safaris, coffee sales, biking tours, popular bajaj and accommodations like homestays, campsites, and lodges”. ENint17 further added that “Attractions have created opportunities such as painting, carvings, engaging in rice and banana farming, growing vegetables for guest meals, and fishing for sale to hotels”. This finding was further supported by a key informant who stated that:

*These attractions have created numerous opportunities, such as tourism companies offering guided tours, accommodation services, and various entertainment options. Tourism has also led to agricultural opportunities, with visitors touring farms and purchasing produce. There are also cultural tourism businesses where the community earns income from traditional food preparation and local crafts. Additionally, opportunities for canopy walking, transportation (bajaj, bodaboda), and local shops have emerged. NGOs focused on environmental conservation, like the Red Banana Plantation, and orphanage centers have also been established. (TOint02)*

The village leaders also highlighted entrepreneurial opportunities resulting from tourism activities taking place in the area. These include “Making and selling

beadwork, baskets, and mats, selling of Massai shuka, beadwork and camps” (PP1, PP2, PP3, PP4).

When asked how the local community has leveraged tourism opportunities within the Tarangire-Manyara Ecosystem, participants indicated that they have indeed taken advantage of the tourism boom in the area to establish businesses related to the tourism industry. Based on interviews conducted with owners of Small and Medium Tourism Enterprises (SMTEs), six (6) key themes that emerged, illustrating the various types of tourism-related entrepreneurial activities in which the local community is engaged. These include cultural tourism, accommodation services, food and beverage services, tour guiding services, transportation services, and safari outfitters.

It was found that tourism enterprises varied significantly from ward to ward (table 4.2). For instance, Mto wa Mbu Ward demonstrated the highest diversity of tourism-based enterprises, including a large proportion of cultural tourism businesses, accommodation services, food and beverage establishments.

**Table 4.2: Types of Tourism-Based Enterprises Local Community Engages**

| Types of Business | Accommodation | Food & Beverages | Cultural Tourism | Tour Guiding services | Safari Outfitter | Transportations Services |
|-------------------|---------------|------------------|------------------|-----------------------|------------------|--------------------------|
| <b>Wards</b>      |               |                  |                  |                       |                  |                          |
| <b>Mto wa Mbu</b> | 6             | 11               | 8                | 2                     | X                | 2                        |
| <b>Esilalei</b>   | 6             | X                | 8                | X                     | 1                | X                        |
| <b>Nkaiti</b>     | 3             | 1                | 9                | X                     | X                | X                        |
| <b>Mwada</b>      | 1             | X                | 2                | X                     | X                | X                        |

Nkaiti Ward followed, with a notable presence of cultural tourism businesses and accommodation services. Esilalei Ward was characterized by a high concentration of Maasai Boma cultural tourism enterprises alongside accommodation services. In

contrast, Nkaiti had minimal tourism activity in some areas, with only a single accommodation facility and traditional dance performances reported. Findings shows that establishment of these entrepreneurial ventures was influenced by entrepreneurial alertness, prior knowledge, networks, and nature of opportunities

### **Cultural Tourism**

An overwhelming majority of participants reported cultural tourism as their primary entrepreneurial activity among members of the local community within the Tarangire-Manyara ecosystem, with 27 out of 61 codes (42% coverage) in MAXQDA 24.4.1 referenced under the theme types of tourism entrepreneurial activities the local community engaged in. Three forms of cultural tourism were identified such as arts, cultural Handicrafts and Artistic expressions. A total of 5 wood carvings were identified, with 4 located in Mto wa Mbu ward and 1 in Esilalei ward. This is reflected in participants comments such as ENint38 who said, “I am involved in carving sculptures and selling them to tourists, as well as supplying them to major art stores,” while ENint24 similarly stated, “We are currently engaged in carving and selling figurines to visitors.” Others highlighted activities such as creating artwork depicting wildlife and Maasai culture. ENint35 noted, “We provide explanations about our artwork to tourists... we are registered and recognized by the village.” ENint14 also emphasized group-based model, combining artistic creation with environmental conservation and education.

Interestingly, not all community members were directly involved in the production of cultural items. Some focused on the retail aspect, selling souvenirs and crafts through curio shops. 13 curio shops were identified, with 9 located in Nkaiti and 4 in in Mto

wa Mbu ward. ENint04 stated, “I am currently engaged in running a curio shop where I sell crafts, sculptures, mats, and beads,”

Other participants revealed to engage in Maasai Boma tourism, where visitors are offered immersive cultural experiences. 8 Maasai bomas were identified, with 7 located in Esilalei ward and 1 in Mwada ward. ENint46 described their enterprise

*I run a cultural homestead where visitors can experience traditional Maasai life... I live and work with local women, performing for tourists, lighting fires, and building our homes using cow dung.*

ENint13 added depth by noting that their pioneering efforts introduced the concept of Boma tourism in Esilalei in 2009 after relocating from the Ngorongoro Conservation Area (NCA).

This theme was echoed during focus group discussions, where community leaders emphasized widespread involvement. One speaker stated:

*Many locals actively engage in tourism; for example, if tourists visit a boma with around 200 people, all are involved in tourism-related activities. Pastoralists have embraced tourism as an income source, with local training institutions offering tourism and English courses. I also took advantage of tourism as I have established a home stay, though it does not work perfectly, but I do get a substantial number of customers. (Speaker: PP 8)*

Participants offering cultural boma tourism widely acknowledged the economic impact of cultural tourism on their households and communities. The sale of beadwork, performance of traditional dances, and hosting of tourists directly generate income. ENint06 highlighted the tangible benefits

*My tourism business has contributed to increasing the income at the boma because we receive money from tourists visiting our cultural site. Additionally, local women sell their beadwork to tourists, which provides them with income. The community has also been able to fund the education of our children. (ENint06)*

Several participants confirmed that vehicles visiting Bomas are charged a fee typically around \$20 per vehicle which provides a steady income stream to the community.

Additionally, some participants reported being engaged in performing arts, such as traditional dance, as a complementary source of income and cultural expression.

*ENint58* succinctly shared, “*We are engaging in traditional dance,*”

### **Accommodation Based Enterprises**

An overwhelming majority of participants also reported engaging in accommodation-based enterprises as their primary form of entrepreneurial activity within the Tarangire-Manyara ecosystem, with 17 out of 61 codes (28% coverage) referenced in MAXQDA 24.4.1 under the theme types of tourism entrepreneurial activities that the local community engages in. Participants revealed that they were offering lodging and campsite services, while others were offering both lodging and campsite services simultaneously. A total of 15 lodges and campsites were identified, with 6 located in Mto wa Mbu ward, 6 in Esilalei ward, 3 in Nkaiti ward, and 1 in Mwada ward. This is evident in participants' comments, such as *ENint05* who said that “I am currently operating a campsite, which I established a year ago. I invested in land for this purpose, and I am providing tent accommodation. I also aspire to start a lodge. I have been in this business for 10 years”. *ENint21* further added that “I am currently engaged in managing campsites and lodges. I also rent space for various events and organize fire camps. I have been in this business for 18 years”. *ENint42* further said

*We are currently involved in providing accommodation services with a lodge and campsite. Our business has been operational for over 10 years. We started with a campsite because the campsite was easy to establish as one needs to have a camping ground which can be*

*planted trees, a toilet and a kitchen and camping facilities such as tents and chairs.*

### **Food and Beverages Services**

A significant number of participants identified food and beverages as a tourism-based entrepreneurial activity within the Tarangire-Manyara ecosystem. In the analysis using MAXQDA 24.4.1, 12 out of 61 codes (20% coverage) were linked to the theme of types of tourism entrepreneurial activities that local community engage in. A total of 12 food and beverage establishments were identified, of which 11 were located in Mto wa Mbu ward and 1 in Nkaiti ward. This is reflected in participants comment such as ENint15 who said “I am offering coffee services, and my main customers are tourists and driver guides, I also offer a gift shop, and financial services. I have been in this business for five years now”. ENint54 further emphasized that “I am involved in running a food service business for about 14 years focusing visitors and staff working at Tarangire National Park. We employ 42 people, all of whom are staff from Tarangire National Park. ENint40 on other hand said “I am currently engaged in running a lounge bar that offers drinks, food, and music. I have been in this business for 10 years”.

Some participants further shared their thoughts that they primarily focus on offering traditional food. Out of the 11 food and beverage establishments in Mto wa Mbu, 4 offer traditional food. This is reflected from participant’s comment who said “I am currently engaged in preparing and selling traditional foods such as ugali, rice, vegetables, bananas, beans, and meat. I have been in this business for over 10 years” ENint27. ENint28 further commented that “We are engaged in preparing and selling traditional foods such as maize, pilau, bananas, meat, green vegetables, cassava, ugali, and many others. I have been in this business for 30 years. It was stated that Pilau is

the most preferred food. Participants reveal that they sell at 10-15\$ per plate depending on the agreement with the tour operator.

Interestingly, some participants chose not to offer food and beverage services directly to clients. Instead, they focused on supplying foodstuff items such as fruits, vegetables, meat, and other essentials to camps and lodges. This perspective is reflected in comments from the participants, such as Enint23 who said, “I am involved in supplying vegetables, fruits, and food to hotels, and I have been in this business for 6 years”. Enint29 further emphasized

*I am involved in selling foods such as fruits and vegetables, and I also supply foods like bell peppers, tomatoes, eggplants, carrots, and onions to camps. I have been in this business for more than 10 years and supplying more than one lodge*

### **Tour Guiding Services**

Tour guiding Services was also revealed as another important theme during the interview, highlighting entrepreneurial activities local community engage within the Tarangire-Manyara Ecosystem. This theme was referenced in 2 out of 61 codes, accounting for 3% of the coverage in MAXQDA 24.4.1. This is reflected in participants comments such as Enint43 who said that “I am currently engaging in organizing and leading tourist to safaris, hiking trips, and lake Manyara tours. I have been in this business for 4 years”. ENint19 on other hand said, “I am involved in guiding”.

### **Transportation Services**

Transportation Services was also revealed as another important theme during the interview, highlighting entrepreneurial activities local community engage within the Tarangire-Manyara Ecosystem. This theme was referenced in 2 out of 61 codes,

accounting for 3% of the coverage in MAXQDA 24.4.1. This is reflected in participants comments such as ENint31 who said that “I am currently engaged in bicycle rental and organizing bicycles and Bajaj tours to the Lake. I have been in this business for 7 years”. ENint36 further commented “I am currently involved in renting out bicycles and lead tourist to various places here in Mto wa Mbu, and I have been in this business for 5 years”.

### **Safari Outfitters**

Lastly, Safari Outfitters was highlighted by a few participants as an entrepreneurial activity local community engage in the Tarangire Manyara Ecosystem. It was referenced in 1 out of 61 codes, accounting for 2% of the total coverage in the MAXQDA 24.4.1 analysis. This is reflected in participants comments such as ENint12 who said, “I am currently involved in running a shop that rents out tourist equipment, such as guest tents, climbing gear, mattresses, and shoes”

## **4.4 Success Factor for Local Community Engagement in Tourism Entrepreneurship**

The second research question aimed to present the success factors for local community engagement in tourism-based entrepreneurship in the ecosystem. Success factors are operationalized as the key elements, conditions, or attributes that are crucial for the successful capitalization of tourism entrepreneurial opportunities. Through interviews with business owners and key informants and focus group discussion with village leaders, eleven (11) key themes were identified as significant factors influencing the local community's engagement in tourism entrepreneurship. These include access to capital, strong social networks, personality traits, supportive government policies and regulations, prior experience, effective marketing and

promotion, service quality, supportive family background, access to entrepreneurial education and training, tourism demand and teamwork. These factors play a crucial role both during the startup phase and throughout the operational lifecycle of tourism businesses, contributing to their growth, sustainability, and long-term impact.

### **Access to Financial Capital**

An overwhelming majority of participants emphasized the accessibility of financial capital as a key factor influencing the successful engagement in tourism entrepreneurship within the Tarangire-Manyara Ecosystem. This theme accounted for 46 out of 159 codes (29%) coverage in MAXQDA 24.4.1. This is reflected in participants comments who said “our personal capital as a group enabled us to start the business; we did not seek loans from the government or banks” ENint38. Similarly, ENint40 further said “personal funds from other businesses, including farming and vegetable cultivation, also helped in establishing the lodge”. ENint54, further commented “key factors included our initial capital, which we raised by each contributing 200,000Tsh shillings, and purchasing equipment to start the business.” Participants revealed various internal and external sources of funds enabled them to establish an entrepreneurial venture. Personal saving was a common source among participants as they accumulated funds through other jobs. One participant indicated:

*I financed the establishment of my business with tips from guests and my salary savings. I also sold some cattle to raise additional capital. Attending entrepreneurship seminars provided me with the necessary motivation and knowledge. (ENint05)*

Other participants obtained funds for the business through livestock selling, as commented by ENint13, who said:

*Key factors include capital obtained from selling my livestock (goats and cattle) and the experience I gained from managing other bomas*

*in NCA. This combination provided the financial resources and skills needed to start my own boma.*

While others obtained funds through farming and back up from parents, as revealed by participant ENint30 who said a key factor includes personal capital obtained through farming, and the access to products from my parents' farms, which facilitated the establishment of the business. Interview with participants further revealed the role of relatives in generating funds for the businesses. For instance, participant ENint29 noted “The initial capital was provided by a relative. We also received a low-interest loan after forming a group of five women, starting with city cleaning, and later establishing a poultry farming group. We now have 1,500 chickens”.

The issues of external was reinforced to be an important source of funds for both startup business and existing ones despite the various constrained inherent in this type of finance. Participants revealed that they secured funds through loans from financial institutions to back up their personal funds. On this, the participant ENint48 said, “We also obtained a loan from NMB bank, which helped us increase our capital. I secured the loan with my grandfather as a guarantor, using our house as collateral. Similarly, ENint29 commented that

*.....we also received a low-interest loan after forming a group of five women, starting with city cleaning, and later establishing a poultry farming group. We now have 1,500 chickens.*

Apart from financial institution as their source of funds, participants also raised funds through borrowing money from friends. On this, participant ENint08 said: “Key factors included borrowing money from friends as initial capital to start the Maasai homestead”.

### **Strong Social Network**

Strong networking emerged as another significant theme frequently highlighted by participants as key factors in the successful engagement in tourism entrepreneurship within the Tarangire-Manyara Ecosystem, with 37 out of 159 codes (23% coverage) highlighted in MAXQDA 24.4.1. Participants commented on various ways in which social networks contributed to entrepreneurial engagement. Some participants mentioned family support helped secure initial capital and launch businesses. For instance, ENint02 said “My family's support was crucial in starting the business. We held a family meeting and raised funds from selling livestock to invest in the tourism venture. Other participants revealed on the connection with tour companies and tour guides encouraged them to engage in tourism business as ENint10 said “The current factors supporting my business include the assurance of receiving guests and strong relationships with tourism companies. The local community have also been very supportive”. Similarly, ENint46 commented “Key factors included a good relationship with tour guides and encouragement from XY Company, which inspired me to start this tourism venture”. Furthermore, the support from social networks extends beyond advice and encouragement; it also involves tangible financial assistance, such as loans from friends, family and Bank. For instance, ENint48 said

*Support from friends provided ideas and encouragement. We also obtained a loan from NMB bank, which helped us increase our capital. I secured the loan with my grandfather as a guarantor, using our house as collateral. We also get customers through guides as we have such experience working with them, so they know us.*

### **Personality Traits**

The interview further revealed personality Traits as another important factor for the successful local community's engagement in tourism entrepreneurship at Tarangire-

Manyara Ecosystem, with 17 out of 159 codes (11 % coverage) referenced in MAXQDA 24.4.1. Participants described several ways in which personal motivation and internal drive influenced their engagement in entrepreneurial activities. For example, one participant attributed their success to self-efficacy, highlighting the role of personal effort. This is evident in ENint20's comment: "Key factors included my personal efforts, as I started with employment to generate capital. Additionally, some of my friends contributed by giving me some products." Similarly, ENint39 stated, "My success in establishing this business came from my personal efforts after working as a domestic worker," underscoring the importance of perseverance and self-reliance. Apart from business owners, the theme was supported by focus group discussion 4 participants who said, "Personal efforts and available capital have been crucial". Speaker: PP3. Furthermore, some participants credited their entrepreneurial involvement to an internal locus of control and self-initiative. For instance, ENint06 commented

*My personal efforts and initiative were key factors in starting the boma. I believed that a boma would help people earn income. We pooled family resources to start the boma after selling some livestock. We did not receive loans from banks or government assistance; the idea of starting the business came from my own recognition of the opportunity*

Others were motivated by a strong need for achievement and self-drive, as reflected in the comment by participant ENint04, who stated, "Our efforts are entirely self-driven, with no contribution from the government or other individuals".

### **Supportive Government Policies and Regulations**

Supportive regulation and government Policies also emerged during interviews as another important factor in the successful engagement of the local community in tourism entrepreneurship within the Tarangire-Manyara Ecosystem, with 16 out of

159 codes (10% coverage) highlighted in MAXQDA 24.4.1. This is reflected on participants comments such as ENint14, who said “Government support in promoting tourism both domestically and internationally, such as through the Royal Tour Film, has increased tourist numbers and benefited our business, as it is a key route for tourists heading to Ngorongoro and Serengeti”. ENint22, further said “The support from local village governments has been helpful, as I was well-received despite being new to the area”. The issue of government support was also complimented by the Tourism officers during the interview as they comment: For instance, TOint 01 noted “Supportive investment policies, such as those managed by Burunge WMA, have been beneficial. The local communities are now able to sell their land for investment, though some may later regret this decision. However, WMA investments have proven profitable”. TOint04 added “TANAPA's policy of involving local communities in conservation, which has raised awareness about the importance of conservation and entrepreneurship through the "Good Neighbor" program.

In a similar vein, the issue of supportive government policies was emphasized by a speaker: PP1 from FGD1 who said, “Government policies support tourism promotion, and stability and peace contribute to this as investments are discouraged in conflict areas”. Speaker: PP 3 from FGD 3 further commented “Government policies promote tourism and improve access to loans also support engagement”. Other participants commented on regulations imposed by the government, highlighting both opportunities these regulations present for their entrepreneurial ventures. For instance, ENint48, said “The requirement for electronic fiscal devices (EFD) from TRA also enhances trust among visitors, as some prefer to receive receipts. ENint50, further added that “The use of debit machines attracts many customers, especially those who

want to make large purchases, as many customers do not carry large amounts of cash”.

### **Prior Experience**

The theme of previous work experience was consistently identified in the data as a key success factor for local community engagement in tourism entrepreneurship within the Tarangire-Manyara Ecosystem. This theme was referenced in 12 out of 159 codes (8% coverage) in MAXQDA 24.4.1. This fundamental factor was supported by participants comments such as ENint04 who said “Key factors included the experience we gained from Maasai people from Ngorongoro who inspired us. We also raised funds as a family and chose a location close to the road to attract visitors easily”. Previous work experience was not only seen an important during the initial phase of entrepreneurial capitalization but also in the operational phase. This is reflected on participant comment such as ENint45 who said “My experience in the business and patience, especially during low seasons, help sustain the business. It requires perseverance to overcome challenges and continue operating”.

### **Marketing Skills**

Marketing skills were highlighted by participants as an important factor in the successful engagement of the local community in tourism entrepreneurship within the Tarangire-Manyara Ecosystem, with 11 out of 159 codes (7% coverage) highlighted in MAXQDA 24.4.1. This is reflected in participants comments such as ENint04, who said “effective marketing and advertising have helped my business attract many tourists”. ENint20 further commented on the advantages of location as he said “the location makes it easy for visitors to reach us, and guides help bring in tourists,

although they require compensation. Our group has also facilitated joint advertising showcasing our business”. ENint50 on other hand commented:

*We usually go to the entry gate at Tarangire National Park convincing guides who check in and out telling them about our offering. We usually pay them 40,000 Tsh as a break to whoever stops our business and pay them 20 % of whatever a customer will purchase.*

### **Access to Entrepreneurial Education and Training**

Access to entrepreneurial education and training was also highlighted as a key factor contributing to participants' engagement in tourism entrepreneurship within the Tarangire-Manyara Ecosystem, with 4 out of 159 codes (3% coverage) referenced in MAXQDA 24.4.1. These findings are supported by comments from participants, such as ENint58, who said “Key factors included pooling personal capital within our group and receiving education from the Hand in Hand organization on entrepreneurship, which was very helpful”. ENint05, further said “... attending entrepreneurship seminars provided me with the necessary motivation and knowledge”. The importance of education and training in tourism entrepreneurship among the local community within Tarangire-Manyara Ecosystem was also supported by tourism officer who said:

*Education is a major factor, as those with entrepreneurial education have seized opportunities. Community living in this area is surrounded by Lake Manyara and Tarangire National Park in which we have community relations programs educating the surrounding community on environmental conservation and entrepreneurship through groups such bee keeping. (TOint02)*

### **Supportive Family Background**

Supportive family background was also reported by participants to be an important factor for the successful local community's engagement in tourism entrepreneurial activities at Tarangire-Manyara Ecosystem, with 4 out of 159 codes (3% coverage)

referenced in MAXQDA 24.4.1. This is reflected on participants comments such as ENint47, who said “initially, my husband was a farmer, and he used his capital to buy and start this business”. ENint33, further commented that “I inherited this business from my husband, and I am also a rice farmer. I usually sign contracts with them either to supply daily or monthly. Participant ENint23, further comment:

*My motivation came from my family background in farming and learning the business from my father. After completing my education, I chose to focus on this business as I already had experience and connections with various companies. I farm, buy from local farmers, and sometimes import products from Arusha and Nairobi. Also, friends encouraged them to supply them. Of the currently I am supplying to more than 10 camps*

### **Market Demand**

Market demand emerged as a successful factor for local community engagement in tourism entrepreneurship within the Tarangire-Manyara Ecosystem, with 3 out of 159 codes (2% coverage) highlighted in MAXQDA 24.4.1. This is reflected on participants comments such as ENint57 who said “the presence of tourists is the main factor contributing to my business's success. The idea was supported by trade officer who commented “The high number of tourists visiting, Tarangire National Park, continues to drive engagement in tourism-based entrepreneurship”. TROint01. Similarly, PP4 from FGD 4. Commented that “Observing tourists and seeing locals earning from visitors has provided motivation”.

### **Teamwork**

Lastly, teamwork was highlighted by participants as a success factor for local community engagement in tourism-based entrepreneurship within the Tarangire-Manyara Ecosystem. This was highlighted during the interviews, with 2 out of 159 codes (1% coverage) identified in MAXQDA 24.4.1. This is reflected on participants

comments such as ENint01, who said “good cooperation with my employees has enabled me to run my lodge efficiently. My employees provide support and encouragement, which is crucial for the business”. ENint37 also commented “Teamwork with staff and tour companies that have ability to speak more than one language”.

#### **4.5 Barriers to Local Community Engagement in Tourism Entrepreneurship**

The third research question aimed to present the barriers that prevent the local community from engaging in tourism-based entrepreneurship within Tarangire-Manyara ecosystem. Barriers are operationalized as the various challenges and obstacles that prevent the local community (often residents of areas with tourism potential) from actively engagement in tourism entrepreneurship. To identify these issues, thirteen (13) themes reported during interview and focus group discussion as barriers that prevent the local community from engaging in tourism entrepreneurship. These include limited financial capital, restrictive government policies and regulations, market competition, seasonality in tourism demand, vulnerability to external shocks, inadequate marketing skills, poor infrastructure, low level of trust, limited business network, lack of previous experience, price fluctuation, poor community support and language barriers. These factors play a crucial role both during the startup phase and throughout the operation of the business, often inhibiting the successful establishment or growth of businesses within the tourism sector.

##### **Limited Financial Access**

Limited financial access emerged as a key inhibiting factor for local community engagement in tourism entrepreneurship within the Tarangire-Manyara Ecosystem, with 44 out of 166 codes (27 % coverage) highlighted in MAXQDA 24.4.1. Participants commented on various ways in which limited financial access inhibits

engagement in tourism entrepreneurial activities. A lack of sufficient capital restricted participants' ability to fund their businesses in the early stages of business start-up. This is reflected in participants comments such as ENint22, who said that “the main challenge was a lack of capital, as I did not have sufficient funds and had no support. ENint04, further said “lack of funds was a major barrier since building a boma is costly” ENint47, on other hand commented “a key barrier was having insufficient capital to purchase crafts, some of which are imported from neighboring countries”. Limited funds were found more challenging when it comes to operational cost as participants ENint14 revealed

*Key challenges included having limited capital and needing funds to pay guides who would bring in clients. The tour drivers demand 50,000/= to 70,000/=. Apart from that a tour guide needs to be paid 20% of whatever will be bought. ENint14*

*Current challenges include paying tour drivers to bring clients to my shop (40,000 shillings per driver as a "break") and a 20% commission on each item sold. Limited capital and the need for additional loans also pose difficulties. ENint55*

Limited financial access among local community also emerged during an interview with trade and tourism officers as reflected in participant comments such as TOint03 who said, “Lack of capital limits people's ability to start businesses”. Similarly, the issue emerged during Focus Group Discussion as Speaker: PP5 from FGD 1 responded “Limited capital prevents many entrepreneurs from investing in tourism”.

Given the inherent difficulties in securing funds to establish and operate businesses, some participants shared that they sought alternative sources of capital. On this, participants ENint51commented “the main barrier was having insufficient capital, which led me to take a loan”. Securing loans from financial institutions, however, was revealed to be a big challenge due to high interest rates and restrictive conditions

posed by the financial institutions such as possession of certain collateral. On this, participant ENint15 commented

*Bank loan conditions are tough, forcing us to rely on groups that cannot provide substantial amounts. SACCOS allows borrowing up to three times the amount deposited at a 7% interest rate, but banks require assets as collateral, with loan interest starting at 15% and full payment due upfront.*

This challenge had also emerged during focus group discussion as Speaker: PP 5 from FGD 3 commented that “Banks provide loans with stringent conditions and high interest rates, which can be a barrier”.

Participants further noted that banks were reluctant to provide loans for entrepreneurial ventures due to negative perceptions of the tourism industry as seasonal and unable to generate stable income, as revealed by participant ENint37 who said “the other challenges are in the accessibility of funds from banks, as most banks are not ready to offer loans to tour operators due to the seasonal nature of the business. They don’t trust tourism operators because they don’t believe in tourism businesses”. Similar statement was also raised during Focus Group discussion as Speaker: PP 8 from FGD 3 said “Difficulty in securing loans for tourism businesses due to perceived risks and high competition”.

### **Restrictive Regulatory Environment and Policies**

Restrictive regulatory environment and policies were also highlighted by participants as key factors hindering local community engagement in tourism entrepreneurship at the Tarangire-Manyara Ecosystem, with 32 out of 166 codes (19% coverage) referenced in MAXQDA 24.4.1. Participants commented on various ways in which regulations and policies hindered their participation. Participants complained about bureaucratic registration process in tourism business. This is reflected in participants’

comments such as ENint05, who said, "challenges include the registration process for my business and finding trustworthy employees." ENint15 further commented, "Registration also had significant challenges as it took a long process."

Participants also expressed concerns about the numerous government taxes and fees, noting that these not only add to substantial operational costs but also create confusion, ultimately discouraging their engagement in tourism entrepreneurship. On this, participants commented:

*The Mto wa Mbu ward was included in a Wildlife Management Area (WMA), as a regulation all tour operators were required to pay \$28 per guest, which has led many to direct their guests to Karatu instead. There is only one TALA for hotel and accommodation, however for the district council there are two licenses for accommodation and drinks. Bed night levy (1%) and service levy (0.3%) continue to hamper businesses. (ENint17)*

*Numerous government taxes such as land, beverage, and vehicle taxes, TRA, and service levies. For example, TALA, beverages, and vehicle taxes, TRA, and service levies are substantial. Additionally, the inclusion of the Mto wa Mbu area in a Wildlife Management Area (WMA) requires tour operators to pay \$30 per guest, leading many to direct their guests to Karatu instead. (ENint32)*

*Main challenges are higher government fees and licenses (Too many taxes), and additional charges such as TALA (USD 300), NEMC (Tsh 750,000), Hosha, TBS (Tsh 200,000), TRA, water well (250,000) and others. (ENint42)*

Other participants further complained about mandatory use of electronic fiscal Machine (EFD) as it is very expensive for start-up entrepreneurs. On this participants ENint30 noted "current challenges include government requirements for small businesses to acquire receipt machines (EFD machines), which is very expensive and too long process to get".

Additionally, participants expressed concerns about the high taxes imposed by the Tanzania Revenue Authority, noting that these charges are levied without adequate

consideration of the actual expenses incurred in running their businesses. This is reflected in participants' comments, such as ENint01 who said

*High taxes remain a challenge for entrepreneurs, as the income is less than the taxes estimated by the Tanzania Revenue Authority (TRA). The TRA assumes that lodge or campsite owners have high revenues without considering the significant expenses for maintenance, staff wages, and food, as well as the seasonal nature of the business.*

Participants also criticized the government's tax system, highlighting a lack of taxpayer education and support before taxes are levied. On this point, participants ENint28 commented that “the government also imposes high taxes and does not consider the local conditions and does not support local entrepreneurs”. ENint49, noted that “high taxes significantly affect us, and there is a lack of education provided, particularly regarding OSHA penalties”.

More than that, participants complained about government staff acting unprofessionally when exercising their duties. On this point, participant ENint15 said “One challenge was TRA (Tax Revenue Authority) because they lack understanding of businesses and tend to estimate without seeing the actual business”. Similarly, ENint19 commented that “TRA's increasing taxes and fees, sometimes imposed unfairly, have been challenge”. Furthermore ENint37, commented, “Challenges included government officials shutting down my office for three months without a valid reason and a lack of understanding from government leaders.”

### **Market Competition**

Market competition also stands out as key limiting factors for local community engagement in tourism entrepreneurial activities within the Tarangire-Manyara Ecosystem, with 20 out of 166 codes (12% coverage) highlighted in MAXQDA

24.4.1. Participants commented on various ways in which competition inhibits entrepreneurial engagement. Participants commented that the growth in tourism business establishments has led to increased competition, which in turn has resulted in a decline in customer numbers. This is reflected in participants' comments such as ENint13, who said "increased competition as more bomas have been established, leading to a decrease in the number of visitors compared to previous time when I was the only one in the area". ENint18, further said "competition was a challenge because, when we started, there were many guests, but later, others copied our model by building lodges and lowering their rates.

Some participants further remarked that increased competition has led businesses to incur higher operational costs. For example, they pointed out a recent issue involving 'commissions' locally referred to as 'breaks' demanded by driver guides, who expect payment from businesses each time they bring customers to their establishments. This is reflected on participants comments such as ENint45 who said "current challenges include high competition and the need to pay 50,000Tsh to tour drivers to bring clients to my shop. Additionally, there is a 20% commission fee deducted from sales made to tourists". Similarly, ENint47, commented "current challenges include intense business competition where traders must pay tour drivers a Tsh 50,000 "break" fee to bring tourists. Additionally, there is a 20% commission paid to drivers on sales, which was not the case before. ENint41 further commented:

*Recent challenges include the lack of networks with big companies/hotels and this happening because we are very small. Driver guides also demand certain percent usually 30,000/= whenever they stop the business and get paid 20% to whatever a customer purchases to the shop. So, they prefer to take their customers to the big companies because they are sure of getting commission.*

Participants complained that small businesses face stiff competition with large businesses who have more resources. For instance, participant ENint1 who commented that “there is also the issue of competing with larger companies that can afford to pay guides and offer better incentives”.

### **Seasonality**

Seasonality was further revealed as significant factor highlighted by participants as hindering the local community's engagement in tourism entrepreneurial activities at the Tarangire-Manyara Ecosystem, with 15 out of 166 codes (9% coverage) referenced in MAXQDA 24.4.1. Participants described various ways in which seasonality hinders their engagement in entrepreneurial activities, highlighting its impact on income stability, customer demand, and long-term business planning. Participants revealed that the tourism business is highly seasonal, with distinct high and low periods that significantly affect overall operations and income stability. This is reflected in participants' comments such as ENint04, who said, “current challenges include the low season, which results in a lack of customers.” ENint16 further commented, “Challenges include the seasonal nature of the business, with no activity during the low season.” Participant ENint2 added, “Low number of guests during the off-season, which still requires paying taxes.” Finally, ENint52 stated, “Challenges include the seasonal nature of the business, with low season causing spoilage of goods except from June we usually make good business.”

### **Vulnerability to External Shocks**

External shocks were highlighted by participants as important factors hindering local community engagement in tourism entrepreneurial activities in Tarangire-Manyara Ecosystem, with 15 out of 166 codes (9% coverage) referenced in MAXQDA 24.4.1.

Participants commented on various ways in which external shocks inhibited their engagement. Participants noted that the COVID-19 pandemic imposed widespread travel restrictions, resulting in a sharp decrease in tourist arrivals and negatively impacting the continuity and performance of related business activities. This is reflected in participants' comments such as ENint14, who said, "Current challenges include the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic, which has reduced tourist numbers. Participants also commented on the impact of local environmental factors, such as flooding, which significantly disrupt business operations. On this participant ENint36 said, "Current challenges include flooding due to heavy rains, which affects accessibility." Similarly, ENint21 shared, "Flooding in the area has necessitated costly repairs to the building." Additionally, participants complained about geopolitical conflicts, such as wars, which negatively affect tourist mobility and, in turn, impact their businesses. For instance, ENint41 mentioned, "The impact of the Iraq war was predominant, which reduced tourist numbers and resulted in losses as I still had to pay taxes." ENint41 also commented on the ongoing "Russia-Ukraine conflict, which has also impacted tourism."

### **Inadequate Marketing Skills**

The interview further identified inadequate marketing skills as a factor hindering local community engagement in tourism entrepreneurship within Tarangire-Manyara Ecosystem, with 12 out of 166 codes (7% coverage) referenced in MAXQDA 24.4.1. Participants complained that they received a low number of customers due to limited visibility and exposure in the market, which also affect business profitability. This is reflected in participants' comments such as ENint03, who said, "initial challenges include a lack of tourists due to low visibility. I had to pay tour drivers to promote my business and bring guests." ENint11 further commented, "a major barrier was

attracting guests due to a lack of recognition." ENint43 highlighted, "branding and gaining the trust of tourists were significant challenges."

### **Poor Infrastructure**

Poor infrastructure was another important factor hindering local community engagement in tourism entrepreneurship in the Tarangire-Manyara Ecosystem, with 7 out of 166 codes (4% coverage) referenced in MAXQDA 24.4.1. Participants commented on various ways in which infrastructure prevented their engagement in entrepreneurial activities. Participants mentioned that they were unable to access basic utilities such as water. This is reflected in participants' comments such as ENint09, who said, "A significant challenge was the lack of water, which made the construction of the lodge difficult until we initiated our own water well project." Additionally, participants complained about road conditions. On this participant ENint27 said, "Initial challenges included poor infrastructure, such as inadequate facilities. I had to build new structures, including a kitchen and a restroom, to accommodate the business need."

### **Limited Network**

Limited business network was another important factor hindering local community engagement in tourism entrepreneurship in the Tarangire-Manyara Ecosystem, with 4 out of 166 codes (2% coverage) referenced in MAXQDA 24.4.1. Participants noted that limited personal relationships with driver guides and tour operators significantly restricted their customer reach and business growth. This is reflected in participants' comments such as ENint13, who said, "initial challenges include attracting customers due to a lack of personal connections and the absence of tourism agents and tour guides to bring in visitors." ENint38 further commented, "challenges include

attracting tourists initially due to lack of connections with tour drivers and waiting for tourists to pass by the streets.” Participant ENint41 added, “recent challenges include the lack of network to big companies/hotels and this happening because we are very small.”

### **Luck of Trust**

Lack of trust was also reported as a factor hindering local community engagement in tourism entrepreneurship in the Tarangire-Manyara Ecosystem, with 4 out of 166 codes (2% coverage) referenced in MAXQDA 24.4.1. Participants expressed concerns over the lack of trust among key service providers, including camps, tour guides, and lodge managers, noting that this distrust creates barriers for small-scale tourism operators seeking to establish partnerships and grow their businesses. This is reflected in participants' comments such as ENint33, who said, “Some camps are not trustful as they don't pay on time or completely don't pay.” ENint36 also noted, “Some tour guides are not trustworthy; they charge high fees to tourists but only provide me with a small portion or no payment at all.” Participant ENint39 added, “Some lodge managers are not trustworthy and may claim that products are of poor quality to avoid payment.”

### **Lack of Previous Experience**

Lack of previous experience was another important factor hindering local community engagement in tourism entrepreneurship in the Tarangire-Manyara Ecosystem, with 4 out of 166 codes (2% coverage) referenced in MAXQDA 24.4.1. Participants also voiced concerns that limited industry-specific knowledge and experience impeded their ability to manage their businesses effectively. This is reflected in participants' comments such as ENint25, who said, “Challenges at the beginning were newness in

the business as it was hard to know where to get stocks and how much to sell them.” ENint28 further commented, “We also lacked experience in serving foreign guests.”

### **Price Fluctuation**

Price Fluctuation was also a standout factor hindering local community engagement in tourism entrepreneurship in the Tarangire-Manyara Ecosystem, with 4 out of 166 codes (2% coverage) referenced in MAXQDA 24.4.1. Participants expressed concern that frequent price changes of goods negatively impacted their revenues and increased running costs. This is reflected in participants' comments such as ENint23, who said, “Fluctuating prices are a challenge, but there is no issue with companies as we have formal contracts, so there is no fraud.” ENint33 further commented, “Price fluctuates and is too high nowadays.” ENint33 also mentioned, “Current challenges include rising costs.”

### **Language Barriers**

Lastly, language barriers were mentioned by participants as a factor hindering local community engagement in tourism entrepreneurial activities at the Tarangire-Manyara Ecosystem, with 2 out of 167 codes (1% coverage) referenced in MAXQDA 24.4.1. Participants noted that communication barriers limited their ability to effectively engage with and serve foreign tourists. This is reflected in participants' comments such as ENint22, who said, “Selling directly to tourists was difficult due to language barriers.” ENint28 further commented, “We also lacked experience in serving foreign guests, and language barriers were a significant challenge.”

## **4.6 Entrepreneurial propensity of indigenous and non-indigenous residents in Tourism Entrepreneurship**

The fourth research question evaluates the entrepreneurial propensity of indigenous and non-indigenous residents in utilizing tourism-based opportunities within the

Tarangire-Manyara Ecosystem. Entrepreneurial propensity, in this context, is operationalized as an individual's inclination to engage in entrepreneurship, including the establishment of businesses, the identification of market opportunities, and the willingness to take risks to create or expand a business. The study findings reveal that out of the 60 participants involved in various tourism entrepreneurial activities, 37 (62%) were non-indigenous residents, while 23 (38%) were indigenous residents. This can be reflected on participants comments such as ENint10, who said “Migrants have been more proactive in seizing tourism opportunities compared to the local residents, as most investors are newcomers or migrants”. ENint47 further commented “nonresidents are more proactive in seizing tourism opportunities compared to local residents”. The interview with tourism officer further cemented that “non-local residents tend to seize more opportunities than locals due to better capital and understanding of the tourism industry” (TOint 01).

The interviews and focus group discussions further revealed four (4) key disparity factors, that differentiate indigenous and non-local indigenous residents in terms of entrepreneurial engagement. These factors include both intrinsic and external elements such as tourism entrepreneurial knowledge and experience, sociocultural norms, access to financial resources, personality traits, and prior experience.

### **Tourism Entrepreneurial Knowledge and Experience**

Tourism entrepreneurial knowledge and experience were highlighted by majority of participants as a critical distinguishing factor in the entrepreneurial propensity between indigenous residents and non-indigenous residents in capitalizing on tourism-based opportunities within the Tarangire-Manyara Ecosystem, with 38 out of 100 codes (38% coverage) referenced in MAXQDA 24.4.1. Participants pointed out

various ways in which tourism entrepreneurial knowledge and experience differentiate indigenous and non-indigenous in seizing tourism opportunities. Participants revealed that indigenous residents often lack tourism education when compared with non-local indigenous. This is reflected on participants' comments such as ENint04, who said "a major issue is the lack of education about tourism, which hinders local residents from fully engaging in tourism-based entrepreneurship". ENint30 added "additionally, a lack of understanding about tourism limits local residents' engagement, giving non-local residents more opportunities". ENint54 further commented

*Residents often do not take advantage of opportunities due to a lack of tourism education. Even with support, they may not succeed because they lack business knowledge. For example, World Bank support in building tourism facilities has not been effective due to this lack of education.*

ENint02, on other hand stated "A lack of knowledge and understanding about tourism is a major issue. While many locals recognize the opportunities, they are unaware of the benefits of tourism". Similarly, ENint07 added "Local residents often do not recognize the importance of tourism and the opportunities it presents". These comments were also supported by tourism officers who said, "Local residents have not fully embraced tourism opportunities due to poor education" (TOint04). It was further raised by some participants during focus group discussion as Speaker: PP3 from FGD 2 responded "Lack of education is a challenge, as many people are unfamiliar with tourism and focused on pastoralism".

The interviews further revealed a significant difference between indigenous and non-indigenous residents in terms of prior experience with tourism-related entrepreneurial activities. Participants consistently noted that indigenous residents often do not engage in tourism opportunities primarily due to their limited experience in the sector.

This is reflected on participants' comments such as ENint55 who said "non-indigenous residents come with the intention of improving their lives and have a better understanding of tourism opportunities due to their previous experiences". ENint52 further added "non- indigenous residents often come with prior experience in tourism and have successfully implemented practices from other regions". Similar comments appeared during focus group discussion as Speaker: PP 7 from FGD 3 said "Experienced migrants who have gained skills elsewhere capitalize effectively, whereas locals are less engaged". In contrast, locals were often described as having less exposure to tourism-related activities, which limits their ability to capitalize on opportunities. For example, ENint15 commented "I think locals have failed to seize opportunities because they lack the courage and have less exposure compared to newcomers".

### **Social Cultural Norms**

Social cultural norms were another frequently highlighted theme as a distinguishing factor in the entrepreneurial propensity between indigenous residents and non-indigenous residents in capitalizing on tourism-based opportunities within the Tarangire-Manyara Ecosystem, with 27 out of 100 codes (27% coverage) referenced in MAXQDA 24.4.1. Participants revealed various ways in which social norms distinguish indigenous and non-indigenous entrepreneurial propensity. Participants revealed that residents place a high level of trust and respect in traditional livelihoods, particularly farming, fishing, and livestock rearing. This is reflected in participants' comments such as ENint24, who said "I believe locals are not seizing opportunities because they have their farms and businesses here. They may not see the need to abandon their current businesses for something new". ENint27 added, "I believe indigenous residents are not fully capitalizing on tourism opportunities due to their

settled lifestyles and traditional focus on farming”. Similarly, ENint38 noted “Many locals are focused on agriculture and do not see tourism as an opportunity because they are at home, they are engaging much in agriculture”

Additionally, participants revealed that indigenous people often inherit land and assets from their parents, which encourages them to continue with traditional ways of life. This inherited stability leads to a reluctance to take risks, particularly the perceived uncertainty associated with tourism-related entrepreneurship. This is reflected in participants’ comments such as ENint24 who said “I believe locals are not seizing opportunities because they have their farms and businesses here. They may not see the need to abandon their current businesses for something new”. ENint31 added “Local residents are complacent due to inherited assets from their parents, which limits their engagement in tourism-based entrepreneurship”.

### **Financial Capital**

Financial capital was another theme highlighted by participants as a distinguishing factor in the entrepreneurial propensity between indigenous and non-indigenous residents in capitalizing on tourism-based opportunities within the Tarangire-Manyara Ecosystem, with 21 out of 100 codes (21% coverage) referenced in MAXQDA 24.4.1. Participants indicated that access to capital is a crucial resource for entrepreneurial engagement. They emphasized that the absence of financial capital significantly limits the ability of individuals, especially residents to seize business opportunities, invest in tourism ventures, or scale up existing activities. This is reflected on participants comments such as ENint18 who stated, “I believe locals struggle to take advantage of opportunities due to a lack of capital since they do not have funds” ENint09 further mentioned, “Many locals lack sufficient capital to start lodges, campsites, or hotels”.

In contrast non-indigenous residents were generally described as more proactive in seeking tourism opportunities. As ENint36 stated “non-indigenous residents take advantage of tourism opportunities because they are seeking better livelihoods and often have sufficient capital to invest”. Similar comments were given by Tourism office who said, “Local residents have not fully embraced tourism opportunities due to poor education, limited capital, and a lack of self-confidence TOint04 and Speaker: PP5 FGD 1 who said, “Limited capital is a significant obstacle, as tourism requires substantial investment”.

### **Personality Traits**

Personality traits were another theme frequently highlighted by participants as an important factor influencing the entrepreneurial propensity of indigenous and non-indigenous residents in capitalizing on tourism-based opportunities in the Tarangire-Manyara Ecosystem, with 14 out of 100 codes (14% coverage) referenced in MAXQDA 24.4.1. Participants described indigenous resident as generally more risk-averse compared to non-indigenous individuals, who were seen as more willing to take entrepreneurial risks. Indigenous were perceived to prefer the security of traditional livelihoods, such as farming, and were often hesitant to invest time or resources in unfamiliar ventures like tourism. This is reflected in participants' comments such as ENint12, who said, “Many locals are hesitant to start their own businesses and prefer employment.” ENint23 added that “Many locals lack assertiveness, confidence, and fear failure, which prevents them from engaging in tourism-based entrepreneurship.” ENint28 noted “I believe local residents are hindered by a lack of initiative and a desire to benefit solely from their traditional ways of life”. In contrast, non-indigenous residents were generally described as more proactive in seeking tourism opportunities. Similar statement was raised by

TROint01, who said “Local residents are often focused on agriculture and may lack sufficient education and understanding of tourism”. The focus group discussion further supported this as Speaker: PP4 from FGD 4 said “Traditional practices focus on cattle herding rather than business”.

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **SUMMARY OF THE FINDINGS, DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION**

#### **5.1 Introduction**

This chapter provides a comprehensive interpretation of the findings on local community engagement in tourism entrepreneurship within the Tarangire-Manyara Ecosystem. Drawing on both qualitative data and relevant literature, this chapter addresses the central research question: How does the local community engage in tourism entrepreneurship within the Tarangire–Manyara Ecosystem in Tanzania, and what are the key success factors and barriers influencing their engagement? To guide the inquiry and provide structured analysis, four research objectives were developed: To identify and describe how the local community engages in tourism entrepreneurial activities within the Tarangire-Manyara Ecosystem, examine success factors influencing local community engagement in tourism entrepreneurship, examine the barriers that hinder local community engagement in tourism entrepreneurship and evaluate entrepreneurial propensity of indigenous residents and non-indigenous residents in utilizing tourism entrepreneurial opportunities in the Tarangire-Manyara Ecosystem. The discussion provides a comprehensive understanding of the dynamics shaping community involvement in tourism entrepreneurship in the context of the ecosystem.

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

The findings revealed a diversity range of tourism entrepreneurial opportunities within the Tarangire–Manyara Ecosystem, with local communities engaging in cultural tourism, accommodation services, food and beverage provision, tour guiding, transportation, and safari outfitting. The findings also highlighted critical success

factors influencing local community engagement in tourism entrepreneurship. These include access to financial capital, strong social networks, supportive regulatory frameworks, entrepreneurial personality traits, prior experience, marketing skills, family support, entrepreneurial education, and market demand.

Conversely, the study identified barriers hindering community engagement in tourism entrepreneurship. These include limited access to financial capital, weak social networks, restrictive policies and regulatory frameworks, market competition, lack of prior experience, inadequate marketing skills, insufficient infrastructure, language barriers, and vulnerability to external shocks.

Finally, the study found disparities in entrepreneurial engagement between indigenous and non-indigenous residents, with non-indigenous communities participating more actively in tourism entrepreneurship. These disparities are largely attributed to their greater access to financial capital, more extensive tourism-related knowledge and experience, fewer restrictive socio-cultural norms, and stronger entrepreneurial personality traits.

### **5.3 Discussion**

Engagement in tourism entrepreneurship at Tarangire- Manyara Ecosystem is dominated by Males. This disparity may be partly explained by deeply rooted traditional gender roles and responsibilities, which often limit women's participation in economic and leadership activities. Female underrepresentation may result in missed opportunities for inclusive development and gender-balanced benefits from tourism. These findings align with Sajilan et al. (2015), who assert that women in developing countries often face greater challenges in pursuing entrepreneurship, as they strive to improve their families' living standards something that is difficult to

achieve through low-paying or low-skilled jobs. Similarly, Khanal and Prajapati (2023) found that males show a slightly greater inclination toward entrepreneurship. Sanga (2020) further revealed that men are more actively involved in entrepreneurial activities than women.

Most of the local community engaging in tourism entrepreneurship fall within the 51–60 years age range, suggesting that tourism entrepreneurship is primarily pursued by middle-aged individuals. This reflects a demographic with more life experience, possibly more capital, and well-established local networks, consistent with Welmilla et al.(2011), who argue that individuals often develop and enhance their skills as they grow older due to improved time management skills.

Most of the MSMEs owners have either primary or secondary education, with only a small proportion holding diplomas or degrees. This indicates that most entrepreneurs are operating at a semi-formal level, likely relying on experience rather than formal training, consistent with Isaga (2015), who found that formal education level appears to have little impact on the growth of SMEs in Tanzania. However, they contrast with the findings Welmilla et al.(2011), who reported that higher levels of education are positively associated with the development of SMEs. While tourism entrepreneurship does not always require high levels of formal education, the lack of higher education may limit business management skills, language proficiency, digital marketing capability, and compliance with formal sector regulations.

The ethnic distribution reveals a diverse set of groups engaging in tourism entrepreneurship, with the Chagga and Maasai being the most represented. This suggests that both economic capacity and cultural heritage play key roles in tourism engagement. The inclusion of other groups such as the Iraqw, Mbugwe, and Zaramo

reflects the multi-ethnic nature of the region, which can enrich the tourism experience. These findings are in line with Kirby (2009) who states that societies differ in their emphasis on the need for achievement due to variations in cultural values, social structures, and economic systems. These factors influence how individuals are socialized, the types of goals they pursue, and the rewards they associate with success. In a similar view Wang (2018) found that ethnicity play role in women entrepreneurship process.

The data further shows that a significant proportion of participants have lived in the area for more than 20 years, indicating a strong sense of place, local knowledge, and community embeddedness among tourism entrepreneurs. At the same time, the presence of newer residents may indicate migration motivated by tourism-related opportunities, pointing to the economic pull of the ecosystem. These findings align with the work of Redhead and Bika (2022), who argue that staying longer in a particular place often motivates business engagement.

### **5.3.1 Local Community Engagement in Tourism Entrepreneurship**

The presence of attraction in the Tarangire-Manyara Ecosystem has created numerous entrepreneurial opportunities for the local community to engage in. These include the establishment of arts and crafts businesses, provision of traditional food, development of accommodation facilities, guiding services, bicycle rentals and tours, cultural bomas, and supply of agricultural products, opening of supermarkets, cultural tours, tour guiding services, local breweries, lounge bars, fast food centers, and provision of construction and maintenance services, zip lines, traditional performances and farm tours. These findings suggest that the local community possesses a clear awareness and understanding of the entrepreneurial potential offered by tourism. This is consistent with the work of Nzarabahi (2017) who revealed a diverse range of

tourism-related entrepreneurial opportunities in Tanzania. Such opportunities extend beyond Tanzania and are observed in various other countries as well. For instance in Ghana, Afenyo-Agbe (2020) highlighted tourism entrepreneurial opportunities local community engages such as provision of accommodation, food and beverage services, souvenirs, and guiding services for both domestic and international tourists. In the same vein, Nyoko and Fanggidae (2021) revealed diverse range of tourism opportunities in Labuan Bay, Indonesia, including transportation, accommodation, food and beverages, tourism and travel services, sports and recreation, MICE (Meetings, Incentives, Conferences, and Exhibitions), traditional handicrafts, event organization, and entertainment. These findings indicate that tourism in the area is a multi-sectoral industry offering diverse opportunities for local entrepreneurial engagement.

The presence of a diverse range of entrepreneurial opportunities has attracted local community members to engage in tourism in various ways, including the establishment of cultural tourism enterprises, accommodation services, food and beverage outlets, transportation services, tour guiding, and safari outfitting. These patterns of engagement are illustrated in Chapter Four. These enterprises reveal a complex relationship between entrepreneurial activities local communities engage in, and factors influenced establishment of such kind of ventures, consistent with Entrepreneurial Opportunity Recognition and Development Theory (Ardichvili et al., 2003; Shane & Venkataraman, 2000), which posits that individuals identify and act upon opportunities based on their awareness, motivations, and ability to evaluate market needs. The ability of some local community members to establish enterprises demonstrates effective opportunity recognition and the capacity to transform these opportunities into viable businesses.

The engagement of local communities in cultural tourism enterprises suggests a growing recognition of the economic and social value of their cultural assets. Communities have strategically leveraged their traditions, customs, crafts, performances, and ways of life to attract tourists, thereby creating meaningful economic opportunities, enhancing livelihoods, and fostering the preservation of cultural heritage. This form of tourism not only enables communities to tell their own stories but also strengthens cultural pride and identity. As noted by Mgonja et al. (2015) that cultural tourism programs offer opportunities to empower local communities by facilitating their participation in tourism activities, ultimately contributing to income generation and poverty reduction. Cultural tourism serves as an entry point into the economy for the community from disadvantaged backgrounds, as it requires little or no capital investment to start a business as it lies in the skills of local people that are passed from generation to generation (Nyawo et al., 2015). Engagement in cultural tourism entrepreneurial activities is grounded in deep local knowledge, traditional skills, and a growing awareness of the demands of the tourism market, consistent with (Ardichvili et al., 2003), who emphasize the importance of prior knowledge and entrepreneurial alertness in opportunity recognition.

Engagement in accommodation-based businesses among local community members reflects the opportunities created by the demand for lodging during safari visits and broader shift in the hospitality industry, where ownership is increasingly in the hands of local, consistent with Lwoga (2013) and Mshenga and Richardson (2013), who revealed that there is broader shift in the hospitality industry, where ownership is increasingly in the hands of local, in contrast to earlier periods when most lodging facilities were dominated by foreign investors. The growing demand for accommodation has opened up valuable opportunities for local communities to

engage in entrepreneurial ventures, significantly contributing to the socio-economic wellbeing of rural areas (Kimaiga & Kihima, 2018; Korir et al., 2013; Mrema, 2015). Engagement in accommodation entrepreneurial activities is rooted from entrepreneurial alertness, consistent with Ardichvili et al.(2003), argued that opportunities in the tourism sector can only be recognized by entrepreneurs who possess the ability to identify and capitalize on untapped potential.

The engagement of local community members in food and beverage businesses within the Tarangire–Manyara Ecosystem reflects a strong link between tourism and agriculture, consistent with Manalu et al. (2023) and, Quan and Wang (2004), who emphasize that food and beverage services constitute a fundamental component of tourist consumption during travel. It further align with Manalu et al. (2023), who argue that food and beverage services offer valuable opportunities for local residents to start and expand food-related enterprises. Additionally, the sale of traditional foods contributes to the growth of culinary tourism, providing an extra revenue stream while preserving local food heritage. This aligns with Abas et al. (2023) who highlight traditional food businesses as important attractions for tourists seeking authentic culinary experiences. The establishment of food and beverage services, particularly those offering traditional cuisine, is driven by the growing awareness of tourists' increasing demand for authentic local dining experiences, consistent with Ardichvili et al. (2003) and Soelaiman & Liediana (2021), who argued that opportunity can be identified only if an entrepreneur has ability to notice and act upon untapped potential in the tourism sector. Furthermore, the provision of traditional food rooted in local culture to satisfy tourist preferences for authentic culinary experiences underscores the importance of prior knowledge in opportunity identification. As Ardichvili et al. (2003) contend, heightened entrepreneurial alertness when combined with culturally

embedded knowledge increases the likelihood of recognizing and acting on viable business opportunities.

The engagement in tour guiding services among local community members further indicates a diversification of tourism-related entrepreneurship and community empowerment align with Martino (2023); Mustafa (2022); Nejmeddin (2020) who highlighted the essential role of tour guides in advancing tourism development and enhancing the overall visitor experience. The establishment of tour guiding services as an entrepreneurial activity is rooted in the local community's deep knowledge of the area's natural and cultural resources, as well as their growing awareness of the rising demand for resource interpretation and organized tours, consistent with Ardichvili et al. (2003) and Gumel (2018), who argue that prior knowledge and heightened awareness of market needs are critical components in the recognition and development of entrepreneurial opportunities. Through engagement in tour guide services significantly supports local livelihoods by generating income, creating jobs, and promoting economic diversification (Aşçi & Akgün, 2025).

Furthermore, the engagement of local community in transportation services within the Tarangire–Manyara ecosystem reflects a growing opportunity in transportation sector. By establishing local rental centers and operating various modes of transport including bicycles, three-wheel motorcycles (bajajs), and motorcycles (bodabodas) community members are actively facilitating the movement of tourists between attractions and accommodation sites. This growing involvement not only addresses the logistical needs of the tourism sector, but also contributes to local job creation, entrepreneurial opportunities, and the generation of sustainable income. This finding are in line with George (2020), who revealed the crucial role of transportation in tourists destinations. Given the growing variety of transportation options and the

increasing demand for mobility, local communities particularly youth have capitalized on these opportunities. In his study, Msangi and Pesha (2023) found that this kind of business is predominantly operated by youth. This form of tourism allows tourist to enjoy rural tourism and amenities (Sykes & Kelly, 2022). It facilitates access to diverse destinations and greatly enhances the overall tourist experience (Rohini & Meenakshi, 2024). Although only a small percentage of the community is currently involved in this sector, it signifies a growing business opportunity for local people. The idea of establishing transportation entrepreneurial related ventures stem from the growing demand for mobility services among tourists and strong connections between tour operators and residents, consistent with (Ardichvili et al., 2003), who emphasize that opportunity recognition is often enhanced through access to relevant information and networks. Tour operators, recognizing the value of local knowledge and accessibility, began collaborating with community members to facilitate last-mile transport for tourists.

Lastly, engagement in safari outfitting businesses among local people implies that local community members are increasingly recognizing and exploiting diverse tourism-related opportunities beyond traditional activities such as cultural tourism and food services, consistent with the work of Nzarabahi (2017) Nzarabahi (2017), who highlights that tourism diversification creates a wide range of entrepreneurial opportunities, including support services that local communities can venture into. The idea of identifying this business opportunity and successfully tap into it largely depends on their awareness of the needs and preferences of adventure-seeking tourists. This concur with (Ardichvili et al., 2003), who assert that an entrepreneur can only identify an opportunity if they possess the necessary awareness.

### **5.3.2 Success Factor for Local Community Engagement in Tourism Entrepreneurship**

This section presents a discussion on the critical success factors influencing local community engagement in tourism-based entrepreneurial activities within the broader ecosystem. Success factors are operationalized as the key elements, conditions, or attributes that are crucial for success (Gumel & Bardai, 2023; Lampadarios, 2015). Most of the literature describes success factors primarily in the context of SME performance, with relatively few studies focusing directly on entrepreneurial success. Although there are distinctions between entrepreneurship and SMEs, a strong relationship exists between the two. Entrepreneurial success often forms the basis for the success of SMEs (Lucky & Olusegun, 2012), as the entrepreneur's ability to recognize and exploit opportunities directly influences the performance and sustainability of the enterprise. Therefore, many of the success factors associated with SMEs may, in fact, be rooted in entrepreneurial attributes and behaviors. This underscores the importance of understanding success from a broader perspective that encompasses both entrepreneurial and business dimensions.

A substantial amount of literature reveals that interest in entrepreneurial engagement and the eventual creation of entrepreneurial ventures is influenced by a complex interplay of factors. Nikolić et al. (2015) classify these factors into individual and non-individual categories, while other scholars identify both internal and external influences (Guzman & Santos, 2001; Sefiani, 2013). Lampadarios et al. (2017) further expand this classification into three main categories: entrepreneurial factors, enterprise-specific factors, and business environment factors. Similarly, Satar and John (2018) categorize the determinants of enterprise success into individual, organizational, and institutional factors. Ács et al. (2014) group the drivers of

entrepreneurial development into two broad categories: individual-level and contextual factors. In contrast, Cuervo (2005) disaggregates environmental influences into economic and institutional components, which Adeyemi (2021) later reclassifies under the broader umbrella of contextual factors. Additionally, scholars such as Ancona et al.(2023); Isenberg (2010); Purbasari et al. (2020); Stam and van de Ven (2021) approach entrepreneurial success and barriers through the lens of the entrepreneurial ecosystem, highlighting the systemic nature of these influencing factors.

At Tarangire-Manyara Ecosystem, the main success factors identify are access to financial capital, strong social networks, personality traits, supportive government policies and regulations, effective marketing, prior experience, service quality, access to entrepreneurial education and training, supportive family background market demand and teamwork, , consistent with Entrepreneurial Ecosystem Theory, which posits that entrepreneurial engagement is shaped by the interaction of multiple actors and contextual conditions that collectively support or inhibit entrepreneurial activity (Isenberg, 2010; Stam, 2015; Stam & van de Ven, 2021).

The access to financial capital constitutes a key component of the entrepreneurial ecosystem, significantly influenced the successful participation of local communities in tourism entrepreneurship. Local communities with access to financial capital from sources such as livestock sales, family support, savings, tourist tips, and loans were found to be more successful in starting and managing tourism businesses compared to those with limited financial access. This aligns with previous studies such as Anderson (2017), who found that working capital is a key concern for start-up entrepreneurs. It also echoed with the work of Azizi (2024), who found that 82% of young entrepreneurs finance their businesses through personal savings, while only 8%

rely on bank loans. Moreover, the findings align with Mshenga and Richardson (2013), who found that most people utilize informal sources of credit because it does not accrue any interest and does not require collateral. These findings highlight the critical role of financial resources in entrepreneurial engagement among local communities. Without sufficient capital, entrepreneurs face significant barriers to launching and expanding their businesses. Financial resources are essential for covering initial costs, scaling operations, and ensuring long-term sustainability

Strong social networks are an entrepreneurial ecosystem factor influencing successful engagement in tourism entrepreneurship. Local community members with strong connections such as family members, tour guides, and tourism companies benefited not only from advice and encouragement but also from valuable guidance and tangible financial support. These forms of social capital played a crucial role in shaping their decisions to pursue tourism-related entrepreneurial ventures. This finding aligns with Gumel (2018), who demonstrated that entrepreneurs with extensive social networks are more likely to recognize and exploit entrepreneurial opportunities than those with weaker or limited networks. Lampadarijos et al. (2017) extended that networking allows businesses to tap into a variety of opportunities, such as market expansion, access to new clients, and collaboration with industry peers. In support of the study, Mshenga and Richardson (2013), also found that social network enables SMEs to access critical information such as customer information, supplier information and funds for their business. In a similar vein, Soelaiman and Liediana (2021) found that social networks facilitated access to valuable information through interactions with suppliers, customers, business partners, and non-business contacts in food and beverages SMEs. These findings imply that social networks, which include family, friends, local communities, and professional connections is essential resources

for entrepreneurial engagement. The support and trust within these networks can help overcome financial barriers, provide guidance on operations, and generate business opportunities through word-of-mouth referrals and professional relationships.

Personality traits emerged as another critical entrepreneurial ecosystem factor that influenced successful engagement in tourism entrepreneurship. Local communities with a strong need for achievement, an internal locus of control, and high self-efficacy were found to engage in tourism entrepreneurship. The findings are in line with Alshebami et al. (2022); Ardichvili et al. (2003); Isaga (2015), who revealed that entrepreneurial engagement is highly associated with personality traits such as need for achievement, locus of control and risk-taking propensity. In support of the findings, Neneh (2012) found that entrepreneurs who possessed strong personality traits tended to outperform others in key areas such as creativity, risk-taking propensity, and growth. It is further supported with the work of Isaga (2015), who found that entrepreneurs with a high need for achievement, a strong internal locus of control, and greater innovativeness are more likely to experience business growth. These findings underscore the importance of personality traits in helping individuals overcome challenges and achieve success in entrepreneurial activities, even in the absence of external financial support.

Supportive government policies and regulatory frameworks are further a key enabler within the entrepreneurial ecosystem, significantly influencing successful engagement in entrepreneurial activities in the tourism sector. Government efforts in tourism marketing, the enactment of favorable tax laws, the enforcement of Electronic Fiscal Devices (EFDs) and debit machine usage, and the provision of education and training programs have contributed to increased tourist arrivals, enhanced trust between

tourists and service providers, and encouraged greater local community participation in tourism entrepreneurship. These findings are consistent with Kashmiri and Akhter (2017), who indicate that the creation of a fair legal framework, streamlining business registration, encouraging a variety of funding, enforcing strict intellectual property laws, investing in education, and simplifying tax legislation are among the government's primary roles in fostering entrepreneurship. Additionally, Sefiani (2013), found that majority of participants subscribed to the influence of government support in business success, through training programs and technology. Most of small and medium businesses performed well due to enabling regulatory environment. These findings imply that supportive government policies, whether through promotional campaigns, regulatory recognition, investment policies, or conservation programs, are vital for empowering the local community and encouraging their participation in tourism entrepreneurship. Such support not only helps with attracting tourists but also provides the necessary infrastructure and frameworks for businesses to thrive. These findings further suggest that compliance with tax regulations, particularly using electronic fiscal devices (EFDs) and debit machines, is an important competitive strategy. Since most customers do not carry large amounts of cash, offering electronic payment options can enhance trust and satisfaction among visitors, ultimately contributing to business success.

Additionally, prior experience emerged as entrepreneurial ecosystem factor contributed significantly to the successful engagement of local communities in tourism entrepreneurship. Local community members with previous employment and exposure possessed the knowledge and skills that enabled them to engage in tourism entrepreneurial activities. These findings are in line with those of Ardichvili et al. (2003), who revealed that with the accumulated information and knowledge gathered

from life experiences, some people may create a link that enables them to recognize the opportunity related to it. Additionally, Lampadarios et al. (2017), revealed that mistakes are likely to be low for individuals characterized with prior experience. Soelaiman and Liediana (2021), further found that previous experience obtained through suggestions and criticism enables food and beverage entrepreneurs to become more sensitive to opportunities. This suggests that the skills and insights gained from earlier jobs serve as a bridge, enabling individuals to identify and capitalize on opportunities as they evolve.

In addition, Marketing Skills played a crucial role in enabling the successful engagement of the local community in tourism entrepreneurship. The local community with knowledge and skills in marketing were able to implement effective marketing and promotional strategies, which helped attract tourists and enhance business visibility. This finding aligns with George (2020), who revealed that marketing skills enable entrepreneurs to build brand awareness, connect with target audience and drive sales. It further concurs with Ebenezer and Anthony (2024), who found that business promotion plays a crucial role in achieving success in entrepreneurial ventures by enhancing brand visibility, driving customer engagement, and ultimately increasing sales and revenue. With marketing an entrepreneur can identify his competitors and choose the best promotion strategies to attract more customers (Munzir & Habidin, 2021). This implies that marketing skills are essential in sustaining long-term business success in the tourism industry as it creates visibility and repeat customers.

Moreover, family background was further emerged as enabler for local community engagement in tourism entrepreneurship within Tarangire Manyara Ecosystem. The local community members with strong family background were more likely to secure

start-up capital, gain relevant knowledge, and receive inspiration to pursue tourism entrepreneurship journeys. These findings are echoed with Cuervo (2005), who revealed that family can serve as a valuable source of information and offers complementary resources, management skills, networks, financial support, and guarantees. It further align with Kirby (2009), who revealed that children of self-employed parents are more likely to be exposed to entrepreneurship than children of employed parents. In support of that, Isaga (2015), revealed that self-employed parents serve as a role model for their children and subsequent affect their career choice. Edelman et al.(2016) further commented that family background foster likelihood of an individual to engage in entrepreneurship because it enhances network, financial support and risk taking. These findings imply that a strong family foundation, whether through financial support, inherited businesses, or the transfer of skills and knowledge, is crucial for launching and sustaining entrepreneurial activities in the tourism sector.

Access to entrepreneurial education and training was identified as another key factor enabling successful entrepreneurial engagement among the local community. Local community members who acquired formal training and attended entrepreneurship seminars gained the knowledge and skills necessary to effectively engage in tourism entrepreneurship. These findings is consistent with Anderson (2017) who revealed that education plays a vital role in business start-up and growth, as it serves to consolidate knowledge and experience ranging from entrepreneurial understanding to managerial soft skills. Formal education is a valuable personal resource for entrepreneurs because it offers solid technical knowledge that could be useful in sporting potential ventures (Brush et al., 2002). Kobylińska and Ryciuk (2022), further revealed that education exposes young people to entrepreneurial thinking,

typical challenges, and standard processes. Additionally, Isaga (2015) found that Managerial experience and vocational carpentry education appear to influence the growth of SMEs specifically in terms of sales and asset accumulation. According to Gardner (2019) and Lourenço (2012) entrepreneurship education supports the personal growth of small business owners, helping them achieve success and maintain long-term business sustainability. In relations to that, Mujtaba et al. (2025) found that entrepreneurial education serves as a key factor in shaping social interactions and motivating students to view entrepreneurship as a viable career option. These findings demonstrate that community empowerment through entrepreneurial education and training equips individuals with the necessary skills, knowledge, and motivation to start and sustain tourism-based businesses. It also highlights the significance of community-level educational programs tailored to local opportunities, which not only improve individual capacities but also contribute to broader community engagement in tourism-related entrepreneurial activities.

Additionally, the study identified market demand as a key factor driving the successful involvement of the local community in tourism entrepreneurship, consistent with Fitriani (2018), who revealed that the growth of tourism, as reflected in the notable increase in tourist numbers positively contributes to the development of micro, small, and medium-sized enterprises (MSMEs). This study found that local community members noticed an increase in tourism, which led to higher demand for goods and services. As more tourists visited, there was a rise in the need for lodging, tour guiding, food, handicrafts, and transport. This growing market encourages locals to start and develop their own tourism-related businesses, which can boost their income and improve livelihoods. This finding is in line with Mshenga et al. (2010) who found that the growth of Micro and Small Enterprises (MSEs) in Mombasa, was

significantly influenced by the number of tourists visiting the place. In similar vein, Afenyo-Agbe (2020), found that the growing influx of tourists in Wli in Ghana contributed significantly boosted the demand for a wide range of services, including accommodation, food and beverages, souvenirs, transportation, and entertainment.

### **5.3.3 Barriers to Local Community Engagement in Tourism Entrepreneurship**

This section presents a comprehensive discussion of the findings on the barriers that hinder local community engagement in tourism-based entrepreneurship within the Tarangire-Manyara Ecosystem. Barriers are operationalized as the various challenges and obstacles that prevent local community (often residents of areas with tourism potential) from actively engagement in tourism entrepreneurship. These barriers can prevent community from successfully establishing or growing businesses within the tourism sector. Barriers to entrepreneurial engagement have been widely documented in previous research. Among of these studies are those written by Nikolić et al. (2015) classify these barriers into individual and non-individual categories, Guzman and Santos (2001); Sefiani, 2013) classified as internal and external influences, Lampadarijos et al. (2017) classified them into entrepreneurial barriers, enterprise-specific barriers, and business environment barriers. Similarly, Satar and John (2018) categorize them into individual, organizational, and institutional barriers. Ács et al. (2014) group the drivers of entrepreneurial development into two broad categories: individual-level and contextual barriers. Additionally, scholars such as Ancona et al.(2023); Isenberg (2010); Purbasari et al. (2020); Stam and van de Ven (2021) approach entrepreneurial barriers through the lens of the entrepreneurial ecosystem, highlighting the systemic nature of these influencing factors. At Tarangire-Manyara Ecosystem, the main barriers identified include limited financial capital, restrictive government policies and regulations, market competition, seasonality, external

shocks, in adequate, poor infrastructure, low level of trust, inadequate network, lack of experience, price fluctuation, poor community support, and language barriers, consistent with Entrepreneurial Ecosystem Theory, which posits that entrepreneurial engagement is shaped by the interaction of multiple actors and contextual conditions that collectively support or constrain entrepreneurial activity (Isenberg, 2010; Stam, 2015; Stam & van de Ven, 2021).

Limited financial capital emerged as the most critical barrier constraining local community engagement in tourism entrepreneurship within the Tarangire–Manyara Ecosystem. Many community members lack access to start-up funds, credit facilities, and financial support necessary for investing in tourism ventures. As a result, they are unable to establish or expand businesses, unlike individuals with adequate financial resources who are better positioned to participate in the tourism economy. These findings are consistent with Eijdenberg et al.(2019), who found that obtaining capital in Tanzania is particularly challenging for small entrepreneurs due to strict lending requirements. It also in line with Nzarabahi ( 2017), who revealed that large percent people are faced difficulties accessing funding through loans and other financial sources. Financial challenges among entrepreneurs are not unique to Tanzania. Studies by Bricknell and Kertay (2024), Laeis and Lemke (2016), Mshenga and Richardson (2013), and Sefiani (2013), highlight that entrepreneurs in many developing contexts face significant obstacles in obtaining external financing. These findings imply that limited access to capital remains a major barrier to entrepreneurial engagement, without adequate funding, entrepreneurs are restricted in their capacity to invest in infrastructure, develop competitive services, or scale their businesses. According to Alsalam and Naji (2019), capital is essential because it brings together land, machinery, and raw materials and serves as a vital lubricant in the production

process. Structural challenges within the financial system including high interest rates, stringent lending conditions, and collateral requirements disproportionately affect small entrepreneurs, especially those operating in rural or informal settings. Additionally, banks often perceive tourism as a high-risk, seasonal, and unstable industry, which further discourages them from extending credit to tourism enterprises. These constraints deter potential entrepreneurs from seeking necessary funds, thereby limiting their ability to start or sustain tourism-related businesses.

Restrictive government policies and regulations also emerged as a major barrier to local community engagement in tourism entrepreneurship. Bureaucratic procedures in business registration pose significant challenges to tourism entrepreneurship, as the processes are often slow, complex, and discouraging particularly for small and first-time entrepreneurs. Moreover, numerous government taxes and fees increase operational costs and create confusion, deterring many from starting or expanding tourism-related businesses. These findings imply that multiple government fees (such as TALA, NEMC, Hosha, and TBS charges), bureaucratic hurdles, and high taxation significantly overwhelm new entrepreneurs, leading to low engagement in tourism entrepreneurship. The findings resonate with Eijdenberg et al. (2019), who revealed that unclear regulations, complicated bureaucratic procedures, bribery, and high tax burdens pose significant challenges for Tanzanian businesses. SMEs in Tanzania are required to renew their licenses annually, a process that is financially and administratively burdensome. It also echoes with Sikika (2019), who noted that Tanzania's tax laws lack clarity, resulting in frequent changes and confusion among entrepreneurs.

In Tanzania, the business registration process involves several steps including registering a business name through BRELA, obtaining a Tax Identification Number

(TIN) from the TRA, and finally acquiring a business license from the relevant local authority (TTP, 2025). This lengthy and complex process leads many start-up entrepreneurs to operate informally. Compounding this is the highly complex tax system, which includes various direct and indirect taxes such as corporate income tax (charged at 30%, even for start-up companies), VAT, import duties, and excise duties (TRA, 2024). These taxation burdens may discourage entrepreneurial efforts. For instance, Nyimbi et al. (2024), revealed that high VAT on tourism services increases travel costs, reducing tourist demand and ultimately discouraging investment in the sector. Charging high tax rates also leads some entrepreneurs to avoid formal registration (Eijdenberg et al., 2019). The findings are further consistent with Kanu (2018), who argue that excessiveness and rigidity of laws and regulations affect entrepreneurial venture in several ways. For instance, overpriced regulations discourage survival and lifestyle entrepreneurs from starting or registering an existing one. He further reveals that complicated laws and regulations consume a lot money, time and effort. Amanamah et al.(2018), Darnihamedani et al. (2015), Khan (2022) and Medrano et al., (2021) collectively emphasize that stringent regulations, strict financial requirements, and excessive taxation discourage entrepreneurial intention, reduce access to financial support, diminish profits from innovation, and ultimately deter investment in new ventures.

Market competition was another major barrier to local community engagement in tourism entrepreneurship within the Tarangire–Manyara Ecosystem. Increased competition in the tourism sector has reduced customer numbers for many MSMTEs. Some business owners’ resort to paying informal commissions known as "breaks" amounting 50,000TZs and additional of 20% commission paid to drivers on sales to driver guides to bring customers. Although effective, this practice reduces profit

margins and benefits larger companies with greater capital and stronger networks. Consequently, smaller operators struggle with limited visibility and market reach. This aligns with Keelson et al. (2024), who noted that globalization, technological advancement, and new market entrants place pressure on SMEs. While competition can drive innovation and operational efficiency (Abdul, 2019; Keelson et al., 2024; Ocloo et al., 2014), it can also strain resources and cause less resilient enterprises to exit the market. These findings demonstrate that stringiest competition, elevated operational costs, and difficulty maintaining profitability hinder local community engagement in tourism entrepreneurship. Keelson et al. (2024), argued that competition can propel enterprises to innovate but may also overwhelm weaker firms. Zahra (2011) and Nikolić et al.(2015) further emphasized that businesses often fail due to an inability to compete effectively.

Seasonality is another significant barrier to local community's engagement in tourism entrepreneurship at the Tarangire-Manyara Ecosystem. Local community face significant challenges due to the uncertainty of tourist flows between off-peak (March to May) and peak seasons (June to October and December to February). During the off-peak period, often experience low customer turnout, while the peak season brings a surge in visitors. This imbalance often leads to reduced revenue during the low season, making it difficult for businesses to maintain consistent cash flow, retain staff, and cover operational costs throughout the year. Such seasonal fluctuations pose serious barriers to sustaining local community engagement in the Tarangire-Manyara Ecosystem. As a result, many community members are discouraged from pursuing or continuing with tourism entrepreneurship, limiting their long-term participation in the sector. These findings are supported by the work of Eijdenberg et al. (2019) who found that seasonal demand constrains entrepreneurial activities in a developing

countries. Additionally, Afenyo-Agbe (2020), observed that seasonality poses a significant challenge to the growth and sustainability of tourism entrepreneurship within the community. Due to uncertainty of tourist flow many individuals work in tourism during the high season and revert to fishing, farming, charcoal production, and chopping firewood during the low season (UNICEF, 2018).

External shocks further exacerbate barriers to tourism entrepreneurship in the Tarangire–Manyara Ecosystem. Events such as the COVID-19 pandemic, flooding, and geopolitical conflicts significantly reduced tourist mobility due to safety concerns and global instability. The decline in international travel particularly affected small and medium enterprises that heavily rely on international visitors. The findings are consistent with the work of Miklian and Hoelscher (2021), who found that SMEs are more vulnerable to shocks than larger enterprises, which often have greater resilience. According to them, shocks can affect businesses through specific issues such as damage to property, equipment, or supply chains, as well as through macro-level impacts like economic downturns, reduced demand, and negative effects on employees. Similarly, Bizri et al. (2012) similarly demonstrated that political and economic instability undermines national development and discourages entrepreneurial activity. These findings imply that external shocks create unpredictability and instability, limiting business continuity and discouraging local entrepreneurs from entering or staying in the sector.

Inadequate marketing skills also emerged as a key barrier to tourism entrepreneurship. MSMTes frequently receive few customers due to limited market visibility, adversely affecting profitability and discouraging continued engagement. These findings correspond with Khandare et al. (2022), who emphasized the role of marketing in entrepreneurial success, and Ebenezer and Anthony (2024), who highlighted business

promotion as central to business growth. This implies that marketing skills are essential for crafting effective promotional strategies, enhancing visibility, and attracting customers.

Inadequate infrastructure significantly inhibits local community engagement in tourism entrepreneurship. In the Tarangire–Manyara Ecosystem, limited access to clean and reliable water and poor road conditions discourages community members from participating in tourism ventures. These challenges hinder the transport of goods, access to services, and smooth travel for tourists, affecting business efficiency and growth. This aligns with Kanu, (2018), who emphasized that poor infrastructure such as unreliable roads, electricity, water supply, and telecommunications impedes entrepreneurial growth. This implies that the lack of adequate infrastructure especially basic utilities and reliable transportation systems acts as a critical barrier to business operations

Lack of trust was another notable barrier limiting local community engagement in tourism entrepreneurship. Mistrust among service providers such as camps, tour guides, and lodge managers creates obstacles for small-scale operators seeking partnerships and business expansion. Without trust, collaboration and information sharing are limited, reducing referral opportunities and market access. These findings are consistent with Eijdenberg et al.(2019) and Tunio et al. (2021), who identified mistrust as a significant barrier in tourism entrepreneurship. In tourism, services are often dependent on collaborations between different actors, the lack of trust can severely hinder overall entrepreneurial engagement.

Weak social networks also constrained local community engagement in tourism entrepreneurship. Local community with limited relationships with tour operators and

driver guides failed to gain referrals and attract tourists. These findings align with Ardichvili et al. (2003), Gumel (2018) and Mshenga and Richardson (2013) who found that stronger networks facilitate opportunity recognition and increased sales. Sefiani (2013), similarly argued that weak networks limit access to information, resources, and support. These findings imply that relationships are essential for gaining referrals and attracting tourists, and the absence of strong networks placed local entrepreneurs at a disadvantage compared to more connected competitors. The findings are further ascertain the findings of Mshenga and Richardson (2013), who found that business owners with less professional groups experienced less sales than those who belonged to a certain professional groups. According to Nida (2017), networks can form through formal memberships, supplier and distributor relationships, and interactions with relatives and acquaintances. In tourism, networking with operators and hotels is essential for visibility and sustained business performance.

Lack of previous experience also emerged as a barrier to local community engagement in tourism entrepreneurship. Local communities often lack exposure to industrial practices, compared to non-local community. This implies that when local communities don't have enough experience or insight into how industries operate, they may misunderstand what customers want, trends in the market, fall short of standard service or product quality. This gap hinders their ability to run sustainable and competitive businesses. These findings align with (Lampadarios et al., 2017; Sefiani, 2013), who argued that lack of experience and business management skills contributes to business underperformance and failure.

Price fluctuations posed another barrier to local community engagement in tourism entrepreneurship. Local community were often faced with rising prices which

production costs for local entrepreneurs, reducing revenues and discouraging investment. These findings align with (Khan, 2022; Marealle, 2015; Robson & Obeng, 2008), who found that inflation negatively affects entrepreneurial ventures. It is also consistent with Cant et al. (2013), who noted that inflation raises production costs and affects both SMEs and consumers. This demonstrates that price fluctuations discourage prospective entrepreneurs, as they limit the ability to create stable budgets.

Language barriers significantly hindered local community engagement in tourism entrepreneurial activities within the Tarangire-Manyara Ecosystem. In this study it was found that limited language skills restricted communication with tourists and access to key market information, thereby reducing opportunities for meaningful participation in the tourism sector. These findings imply that language proficiency is a key factor for successful engagement in the tourism industry. Without the ability to communicate effectively with international visitors, local entrepreneurs may struggle to build relationships, provide quality services, and expand their customer base. These findings align with the work of Eijdenberg et al. (2019), who found that language is a significant cultural barrier constraining entrepreneurial activities as many local entrepreneurs were unable to communicate with international customers. Similarly, (Batinoluho, 2018), highlighted that language barriers often hinder tourism operators from effectively developing strong communication skills and offering multilingual services. Effective communication is essential for shaping positive tourist experiences, managing expectations, and fostering trust especially in multicultural environments where language differences are common. Mensah-Ansah et al. (2011) established that addressing language barriers is crucial to ensuring that tourists can travel more freely and comfortably. In support of this, Nzarabahi (2017) found that most of people working in tourism industry were unable to speak English fluently

and accurately. They also had limited proficiency in other international languages such as French, Spanish, German, and Hindi. This language barrier limits their ability to enter the tourism business, which is an international industry that requires effective multilingual communication.

#### **5.3.4 Entrepreneurial propensity between indigenous and non-indigenous residents**

This section presents and discusses the fourth research question which evaluates the entrepreneurial propensity of indigenous and non-indigenous residents in utilizing tourism-based opportunities within the Tarangire-Manyara Ecosystem. Entrepreneurial propensity, in this context, is operationalized as an individual's inclination to engage in entrepreneurship, including the establishment of businesses, the identification of market opportunities, and the willingness to take risks to create or expand a business. In the Tarangire–Manyara Ecosystem, non-indigenous residents are more inclined toward entrepreneurial engagement than indigenous residents, with the disparity largely attributed to differences in tourism education and experience, socio-cultural norms, access to financial capital, and personality traits.

Tourism education and experience are critical distinguishing factor in the entrepreneurial propensity between indigenous residents and non- indigenous residents in capitalizing on tourism-based opportunities within the Tarangire-Manyara Ecosystem. Indigenous resident at Tarangire-Manyara possessed limited knowledge and experience on tourism, that hinders their ability to recognize and pursue tourism entrepreneurial opportunities. Conversely, non-indigenous residents tend to come equipped with better understanding and knowledge of the tourism sector, often derived from exposure to more developed tourism hubs or formal education. Furthermore, non-indigenous residents often possess greater industrial experience,

which enhances their skills in tourism and entrepreneurship. These findings are consistent with Kim et al.(2014), who noted that low education levels and lack of knowledge about tourism hinder local community participation in tourism development. It further align with Ahmadi et al. (2013), who argue that a low level of awareness within the local community serves as a barrier, discouraging their participation in tourism development. Similarly, Isaga (2015) noted that entrepreneurs with prior experience in the industry where their current business operates are more likely to experience growth in sales, assets, and employment. According to Soelaiman and Liediana (2021), previous experience obtained through suggestions and criticism enables entrepreneurs to become more sensitive to opportunities. Mistakes are believed to be low for individual with prior experience (Lampadarios et al., 2017). These findings demonstrated that the value of knowledge and previous tourism experience are crucial in fostering entrepreneurial success within the tourism sector. Such experience equips individuals with practical knowledge, industry insights, and in-depth awareness of tourist needs and market dynamics, all of which are essential for running a successful tourism-related business.

Social cultural norms further distinguish indigenous from non-indigenous residents in entrepreneurial engagement. Indigenous residents in the Tarangire–Manyara ecosystem are guided by sociocultural norms, including strong trust in and respect for traditional livelihoods such as farming, fishing, and livestock rearing. The inheritance of land and assets from their parents further reinforces these traditions, encouraging them to maintain their customary ways of life and discouraging the pursuit of alternative livelihood strategies. In contrast, non-indigenous residents, are not bound by these inherited roles or cultural expectations, thus tend to be more open to innovation and are more willing to engage in emerging sectors such as tourism. These

findings are in line with Kobylińska and Ryciuk (2022), who noted that socio-cultural factors such as fear of failure, perceived opportunities, and the presence of role models are key drivers influencing entrepreneurial behavior. It further concurs with Çelikkol (2019), who argued that values and beliefs shape how individuals interpret and express key entrepreneurial traits, such as risk-taking, productivity, independent decision-making, and the aspiration to pursue entrepreneurship. These findings imply that certain societal norms promote entrepreneurial engagement, while others discourage it.

Financial capital is another distinguishing factor in the entrepreneurial propensity between indigenous residents and non-indigenous residents. Indigenous individuals faced greater challenges in securing funds for their businesses compared to their non-indigenous counterparts, many of whom arrived with pre-existing capital to invest. The findings are consistent with Anderson (2017) who claims that capital is a key success factor for entrepreneurs. The absence of financial capital can severely impact an entrepreneur's ability to sustain and grow their business. It also concurs with Brau et al. (2015) and Gardner (2019), who revealed that access to capital is essential for ensuring growth, maintaining stability, and achieving profitability especially small business owners. This financial constraint often leads to stalled business development, reduced competitiveness, and, ultimately, business failure (Laeis & Lemke, 2016; Ngorora & Mago, 2016). These findings imply that financial capital is a critical factor in entrepreneurial engagement, without adequate funding, entrepreneurs may struggle to cover operational costs, invest in necessary equipment, hire skilled personnel, or respond to market demands.

Lastly distinguishing factor between indigenous and non-local indigenous in capitalizing on tourism-based opportunities is personality traits. In the Tarangire–

Manyara Ecosystem, personality traits such as the need for achievement, risk-taking propensity, tolerance for ambiguity, and innovative behavior were present among indigenous residents; however, these traits were less pronounced compared to those of their non-indigenous counterparts. These findings are consistent with (Isaga, 2015), who noted that entrepreneurs who characterized with strong need for achievement, self-efficacy, high internal locus of control, and greater innovativeness are more likely to experience business growth. It also in line with the study of Karabulut (2016), Karanja et al.(2016) and Salameh et al. (2022) who found that personality traits lead to entrepreneurial intention. The low levels of key personality traits among indigenous residents imply a significant barrier to entrepreneurial engagement, given that entrepreneurship fundamentally originates from the entrepreneur's characteristics.

#### **5.4 Conclusion**

This study explored the success factors and barriers influencing local community engagement in tourism entrepreneurship within the Tarangire-Manyara Ecosystem. The findings provide compelling evidence that the Tarangire–Manyara Ecosystem offers a wide diversity of entrepreneurial opportunities, with local community members actively engaging in multiple sectors such as cultural tourism, accommodation services, food and beverage provision, tour guiding, transportation, and safari outfitting

However, engagement in tourism entrepreneurship among local communities in the Tarangire–Manyara Ecosystem is shaped by a constellation of success factors including access to financial capital, strong social networks, supportive regulatory frameworks, entrepreneurial personality traits, prior experience, marketing skills, family support, access to education, and market demand. These factors rarely operate in isolation; rather, they interact dynamically within a complex web of relationships

involving multiple stakeholders who collectively influence the entrepreneurial landscape. Key stakeholder are local community members, the primary entrepreneurs whose skills, motivation, and prior experience drive the establishment of tourism ventures. Their success, however, depends significantly on the support of other actors: government and policymakers who create an enabling regulatory environment, exemplified by initiatives such as the adoption of Electronic Fiscal Devices (EFDs); financial institutions that facilitate access to capital; educational institutions that provide capacity-building and skills for opportunity identification; NGOs and development agencies that offer training, seminars, and grants; and tour operators and private-sector partners that provide essential market linkages. Collectively, these actors and factors shape the conditions under which local tourism entrepreneurship emerges and thrives within the ecosystem

The study further identified multiple interrelated barriers that significantly hinder local community engagement in tourism entrepreneurship within the Tarangire–Manyara Ecosystem. These barriers include limited access to financial capital, weak social networks, restrictive policies and regulatory frameworks such as high taxes and multiple fees, intense market competition, lack of prior experience, inadequate marketing skills, poor infrastructure, language barriers, and vulnerability to external shocks. These constraints do not operate independently; rather, they interact within a complex network of relationships involving multiple stakeholders who collectively create a challenging environment for starting and sustaining tourism enterprises. At the center are local community members, the primary entrepreneurs, whose limited skills, low motivation, and insufficient experience reduce their ability to engage effectively in tourism ventures. The government and policymakers contribute to these difficulties through unfriendly policies and regulations that discourage participation.

Financial institutions further constrain entrepreneurial efforts through strict lending requirements and limited access to credit. Educational institutions, when inaccessible, restrict opportunities for skill development and opportunity recognition. NGOs and development agencies, when their capacity-building programs do not reach local communities, inadvertently limit entrepreneurial empowerment. Additionally, weak networks with tour operators and private-sector partners hinder market linkages and reduce incentives for venture creation. Collectively, these interrelated barriers shape an environment that significantly restricts local community participation in tourism entrepreneurship.

Finally, the findings from this study on the entrepreneurial propensity of indigenous and non-indigenous residents in the Tarangire-Manyara Ecosystem reveal a significant disparity in the ability and willingness to utilize tourism-based opportunities. While both groups reside within the same geographical and ecological space, non-local indigenous demonstrate higher levels of entrepreneurial engagement. This can be attributed to their greater access to financial capital, higher levels of tourism knowledge and experience, fewer restrictive socio-cultural norms, and stronger entrepreneurial personality traits.

This study provides critical insights into the dynamics of local community engagement in tourism entrepreneurship, highlighting how local community engages, success factors and the barriers to entrepreneurial engagement. Its findings are especially important as they offer practical implications for a range of stakeholders.

- For practitioners, the research helps identify areas where targeted support and capacity building can significantly enhance local business performance.

- For policymakers, the study informs the design of more inclusive, supportive, and responsive policies that foster a conducive environment for community-led tourism enterprises.
- The study contributes to the theory by validating the Entrepreneurial Ecosystem framework in rural tourism contexts, highlighting that entrepreneurial success depends on both individual effort and the strength of the surrounding ecosystem

### **5.5 Recommendations**

The study highlights several ways in which local community engage in tourism entrepreneurship, success factors and barriers that hinder their engagement, despite their strong entrepreneurial intentions. Their engagement is determined by the complex interactions of actors and contextual factors which either facilitated or inhibit participation. Considering these findings, the study puts forward the following recommendations aimed at addressing these challenges and enhancing the participation and success of local entrepreneurs in the tourism sector

- i. Establishment of entrepreneurial groups. These groups would serve as platforms for collaboration, peer learning, and resource sharing. Through group structures, entrepreneurs can collectively address common challenges, access joint funding opportunities, and engage in cooperative marketing strategies.
- ii. Implementation of targeted training and mentorship programs tailored to the specific needs of tourism entrepreneurs. These programs should focus on critical areas such as recognizing and evaluating tourism opportunities,

business planning and management skills, language and communication skills, Digital literacy and online marketing

### **5.6 Suggestions for further Research**

Building on the findings of this study, future research could explore several key areas to deepen understanding and address existing gaps

1. Design and test a framework that aligns entrepreneurial ecosystem theory with the unique socio-economic and cultural context of rural Tanzanian communities.
2. Examine the underlying socio-cultural, economic, and experiential factors contributing to disparities between non-indigenous residents in tourism entrepreneurial engagement.
3. Investigate tourist motivations, spending patterns, and preferences across different segments to help local entrepreneurs tailor products and services more effectively.
4. As this study utilized a qualitative approach, future research could benefit from employing mixed methods designed to provide a more comprehensive understanding of the topic.

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## APPENDICES

### **Appendix I: Consent letter**

You are invited to participate in the study titled “Success factors and barriers to community engagement in tourism-based entrepreneurship at Tarangire-Manyara Ecosystem in Tanzania”. This study is being conducted by Richard Kisasiembe, pursuing PhD in Tourism Management, at Moi University, Kenya. So, the study is carried out as a partial fulfillment of the requirements for the mentioned degree above.

Please assist in answering the following questions as honestly as possible. You may skip any question that you don't want to respond. The information you give will be treated confidentially and used solely for the purpose of this study. Your response to the questions is anonymous and you will not be identified as a respondent unless you wish to do so.

## **Appendix II: Interview Guidelines: - Owner of Selected tourism-based enterprises**

Welcome, everyone, to this interview. The purpose of this session is to gather insights and perspectives on success factors and barriers (such as socio-cultural, economic, political and environmental) for local community engagement in tourism-based entrepreneurship within the Tarangire-Manyara ecosystem. Your experiences and viewpoints are invaluable in understanding the success factors and barriers for sustainable development in the region.

1. Gender \_\_\_\_\_
2. Age \_\_\_\_\_
3. Residential status \_\_\_\_\_
4. Education background \_\_\_\_\_
5. For how long have you been living in this place? \_\_\_\_\_

6. Could you please tell us on your perspective regarding the concept of tourism?

*(Tafadhali unaweza kutuambia juu ya mtazamo wako kuhusu dhana ya utalii?)*

7. Could you please tell us the key tourism attractions that are found in this place?

*(Je, unaweza kutuambia vivutio muhimu vya utalii vinavyopatikana mahali hapa?)*

8. What entrepreneurial opportunities have this tourism attractions brought in?

*(Je, vivutio hivi vya utalii vimeleta fursa gani za ujasiriamali?)*

9. In what type of tourism-based entrepreneurial opportunities you mentioned above are you currently engaging, and for how long have you been in this business?

*(Je, ni aina gani ya fursa za ujasiriamali wa kitalii ambazo umetaja hapo juu unafanya kwa sasa, na umekuwa kwenye biashara hii kwa muda gani?)*

10. What motivated you to engage in tourism based entrepreneurship?

*(Nini kilikusukuma kujihusisha na biashara ya utalii?)*

11. How would you describe the success of your business?

*(Unawezaje kuelezea mafanikio ya biashara yako ya utalii?)*

12. Reflecting on the inception of establishment of your tourism business, what were the key factors enabled you to establish this business?

*(Ukivuta kukumbuka juu ya kuanzishwa kwa biashara yako ya utalii, ni mambo gani yaliweza kukuwezesha kuanzisha biashara hii?)*

13. Considering the ongoing operations of your business, could you elaborate on the present-day factors that continue to contribute to your engagement in tourism-based entrepreneurship?

*(Kwa kuzingatia shughuli zinazoendelea za biashara, unaweza kufafanua mambo gani yanakuwezesha kuendesha biashara yako ya utalii vizuri?)*

14. Can you tell me any initiatives that have been implemented by either the government or private sector to encourage and support you to engage in tourism entrepreneurship?

*(Je, unaweza kutuambia juhudi zozote ambazo zimetokelezwa na serikali au sekta binafsi ili kukuchochea na kukusaidia kujihusisha biashara ya utalii?)*

15. Reflecting on the inception of your tourism business, what were the key factors that you may consider was a barrier to establishing this business?

*(Ukivuta kumbukumbu juu ya kuanzishwa kwa biashara hii ya utalii, ni mambo gani ambayo unaweza sema yalikuwa kikwazo wakati unaanzisha?)*

16. Could you elaborate on the present-day factors that continue to limit you to successful engagement in tourism business?

*(Je, unaweza kufafanua mambo ambayo yapo amabyo yanakukwamisha kujishughulisha vizuri kwenye hii biashara za utalii?)*

17. What are some existing initiatives that help to address these barriers and promote community engagement in tourism-based entrepreneurship?

*(Je, ni baadhi ya mipango gani iliyopo inayosaidia kukabiliana na vikwazo hivi na kukuza ushirikishwaji wa jamii katika ujasiriamali?)*

18. In your opinion, how would you explain about the propensity of local residents as compared to non-local residents in utilizing tourism-based entrepreneurial opportunities?

*(Kwa maoni yako, unawezaje kueleza kuhusu tabia ya wakazi wa eneo hili ikilinganishwa na wakazi wasio wenyeji katika kutumia fursa zinazotokana na utalii?)*

19. In your opinion, what are the issues that may limit residents in engaging in tourism-based entrepreneurship?

*(Kwa maoni yako, ni masuala gani ambayo unadhani yanawazuia wakazi wa eneo hili kujihusisha na ujasiriamali utalii?)*

20. In what ways do non-local residents capitalize on tourism-based opportunities within the ecosystem?

*(Je, ni kwa namna gani wakazi wasio wenyeji huchangamkia fursa za utalii zilizopo hapa?)*

21. What should be done in order to enhance tourism based entrepreneurship in this community?

### **Appendix III: Interview Guidelines: Key Informants (Trade and Tourism Officers)**

Welcome, everyone, to this interview. The purpose of this session is to gather insights and perspectives on success factors and barriers for local community engagement in tourism-based entrepreneurship within the Tarangire-Manyara ecosystem. Your experiences and viewpoints are invaluable in understanding the success factors and barriers for sustainable development in the region.

1. Gender \_\_\_\_\_
2. Education background \_\_\_\_\_
3. Current position \_\_\_\_\_
4. For how long have you been working in this place? \_\_\_\_\_
5. Could you please tell us on your perspective regarding the concept of tourism?  
*(Tafadhali unaweza kutuambia juu ya mtazamo wako kuhusu dhana ya utalii?)*
6. Could you please tell us the key tourism attractions that are found in this place?  
*(Je, unaweza kutuambia vivutio muhimu vya utalii vinavyopatikana mahali hapa?)*
7. What entrepreneurial opportunities have this tourism attractions brought in?  
*(Je, vivutio hivi vya utalii vimeleta fursa gani za ujasiriamali?)*
8. Are there any specific tourism-based entrepreneurial businesses that community members participate in? If so, please elaborate including (local/nonlocal resident)  
*(Je, kuna biashara zozote za utalii ambazo wanajamii wanashiriki? Ikiwa ndivyo, tafadhali fafanua -ya kigeni/watanzania/wenyeji)*

9. What motivated these community members to start tourism-based businesses in this ecosystem?

*(Je, unafikiri ni nini kiliwasukuma wanajamii hawa kuanzisha biashara za utalii mahali hapa?)*

10. In what ways do these tourism-based businesses contribute to the socio-economic development of the local community living in this place?

*(Je, ni kwa njia gani biashara hizi za utalii zinachangia katika maendeleo ya kijamii na kiuchumi kwa jamii za wenyeji mahali hapa?)*

11. How would you describe the success of the tourism business in this place?

*(Unawezaje kuelezea mafanikio ya biashara za utalii katika eneo hili?)*

12. Reflecting on the business establishment, what are the key factors that enabled establishment of tourism based entrepreneurial venture among communities?

*(Ukivuta kukumbuka juu ya uanzishwaji wa biashara, ni mambo gani yaliyowawezesha wakazi kuanzisha biashara za utalii ?)*

13. Considering the ongoing operations of business, could you elaborate on the present-day factors that continue to contribute to effective engagement in tourism-based entrepreneurial ventures among the local community?

*(Kwa kuzingatia shughuli zinazoendelea za biashara, unaweza kufafanua mambo gani yanyowawezesha wakazi kuendesha biashara zao za utalii?)*

14. Can you tell me any initiatives that have been implemented by either the government or private sector to encourage and support the local community to engage in tourism entrepreneurship?

*(Je, unaweza kutuambia juhudi zozote ambazo zimetokelezwa na serikali au sekta binafsi ili kuhimiza na kukusaidia wazawa kujihusisha biashara ya utalii?)*

15. Based on your experience in establishing businesses, what are the key factors that you may consider as a barrier for establishing tourism businesses?

*(Kwa uzoefu wako juu ya uanzishwaji wa biashara, ni mambo gani ambayo unaweza sema yanakua kikwazo cha kuanzisha biashara za utalii?)*

16. Could you elaborate on the present-day factors that continue to limit the local community to successful engagement in tourism business?

*(Je, unaweza kufafanua mambo ambayo yanaendeleakuwakwamisha wakazi wa eneo hili kutojikusisha ipasavyo kwnye biashara za utalii?)*

17. What are some existing initiatives that help address these barriers and promote community engagement in tourism-based entrepreneurship?

*(Je, ni baadhi ya mipango gani iliyopo inayosaidia kukabiliana na vikwazo hivi na kukuza ushirikishwaji wa jamii katika ujasiriamali?)*

18. In your opinion, how would you explain the propensity of residents as compared to non-local residents in utilizing tourism-based entrepreneurial opportunities?

*(Kwa maoni yako, unawezaje kueleza kuhusu tabia ya wakazi wa eneo hili ikilinganishwa na wakazi wasio wenyeji katika kutumia fursa zinazotokana na utalii?)*

19. In your opinion, what are the issues that may limit residents in engaging in tourism-based entrepreneurship?

*(Kwa maoni yako, ni masuala gani ambayo unadhani yanawazuia wakazi wa eneo hili kujikusisha na ujasiriamali utalii?)*

20. In what ways do non-local residents capitalize on tourism-based opportunities within the ecosystem?

*(Je, ni kwa namna gani wakazi wasio wenyeji huchangamkia fursa za utalii zilizopo hapa?)*

21. What should be done in order to enhance tourism based entrepreneurship in this community?

**Appendix IV: Focus Group Discussion Guidelines: - Key Informants (Village leaders)**

Welcome, everyone, to this focus group discussion. The purpose of this session is to gather insights and perspectives on success factors and barriers for local community engagement in tourism-based entrepreneurship within the Tarangire-Manyara ecosystem. Your experiences and viewpoints are invaluable in understanding the success factors and barriers for sustainable development in the region.

1. How do you understand the concept of tourism? *(Je mnaelwa vipi dhana ya utalii?)*
2. Based on your experience, what are the tourism attractions that are found in this place?  
*(kwa uzoefu wenu, mnaweza kutuambia ni vivutio vya utalii vinapatikana mahali hapa?)*
3. What entrepreneurial opportunities have this tourism attractions brought in?  
*(Je, vivutio hivi vya utalii vimeleta fursa gani za kjasiriamali mahali hapa?)*
4. How would you describe the way community members capitalize tourism-based entrepreneurship?  
*(Je, unaweza kuelezea vipi kuhusu jinsi wananchi wamechangamkia fursa za biashara za utalii?)*
5. In your opinion, what motivated the local community to engage in tourism based entrepreneurial business?  
*Kwa mtazamo wako, ni nini kimewasukuma wanajamii kujihusisha na biashara za utalii?*
6. What do you comment on the contribution of tourism-based businesses to the socio-economic development of the local community in this place?

*Je, una maoni gani kuhusu mchango wa biashara za utalii katika maendeleo ya kijamii na kiuchumi mahali hapa?*

7. Based on your experiences and observations, what could be the prevailing factors contributed to local community engagement in tourism-based entrepreneurship?

*Kulingana na uzoefu na uchunguzi wako, ni sababu zipi zinazoweza kuwa zimechangia ushiriki wa wananchi katika biashara za utalii?*

8. Based on your experiences and perspectives, what would you say about the prevailing reason (past or current) that you may consider as barriers for local people's engagement in tourism-based entrepreneurship?

*(Kulingana na uzoefu na mitazamo yako, unaweza kusema nini kuhusu sababu iliyopo (ya zamani au ya sasa) ambazoo zinaweza kuwa ni vikwazo kwa wanachi kujiusisha na biashara za utalii?)*

9. Based on your experiences, what are some existing initiatives that help address these barriers and promote more inclusive and equitable community engagement in -based entrepreneurship?

*(Kulingana na uzoefu wako, unaweza kusema nini kuhusu sababu (ya zamani au ya sasa) ambayo unaweza kusema ni vikwazo kwa jamii kujihusisha na biashara za utalii?)*

10. In your opinion, how would you explain about the propensity of residents as compared to non-local residents in utilizing tourism-based opportunities in the Tarangire-Manyara Ecosystem?

*(Kwa maoni yako, unawezaje kueleza kuhusu tabia ya wakazi wa eneo hilo ikilinganishwa na wakazi wasio wenyeji katika kutumia fursa zinazotokana na utalii?)*

11. In your opinion, what are the issues that may limit residents in engaging in tourism-based entrepreneurship?

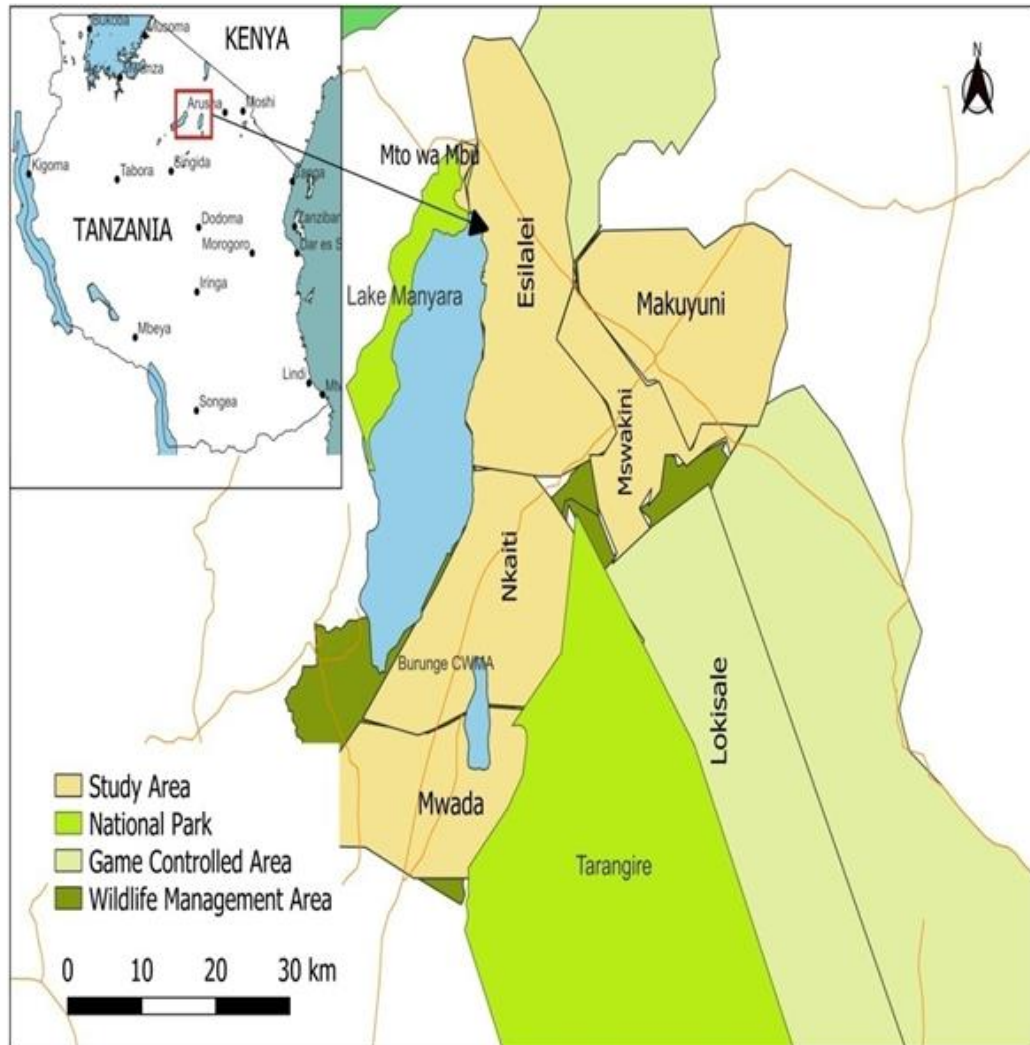
*(Kwa maoni yako, ni masuala gani ambayo yanaweza kuwazuia wakazi wa eneo hili kujihusisha na biashara za utalii?)*

12. In what ways do non-local residents capitalize on tourism-based opportunities within the ecosystem? *(Je, ni kwa njia zipi wakazi wasio wenyeji*

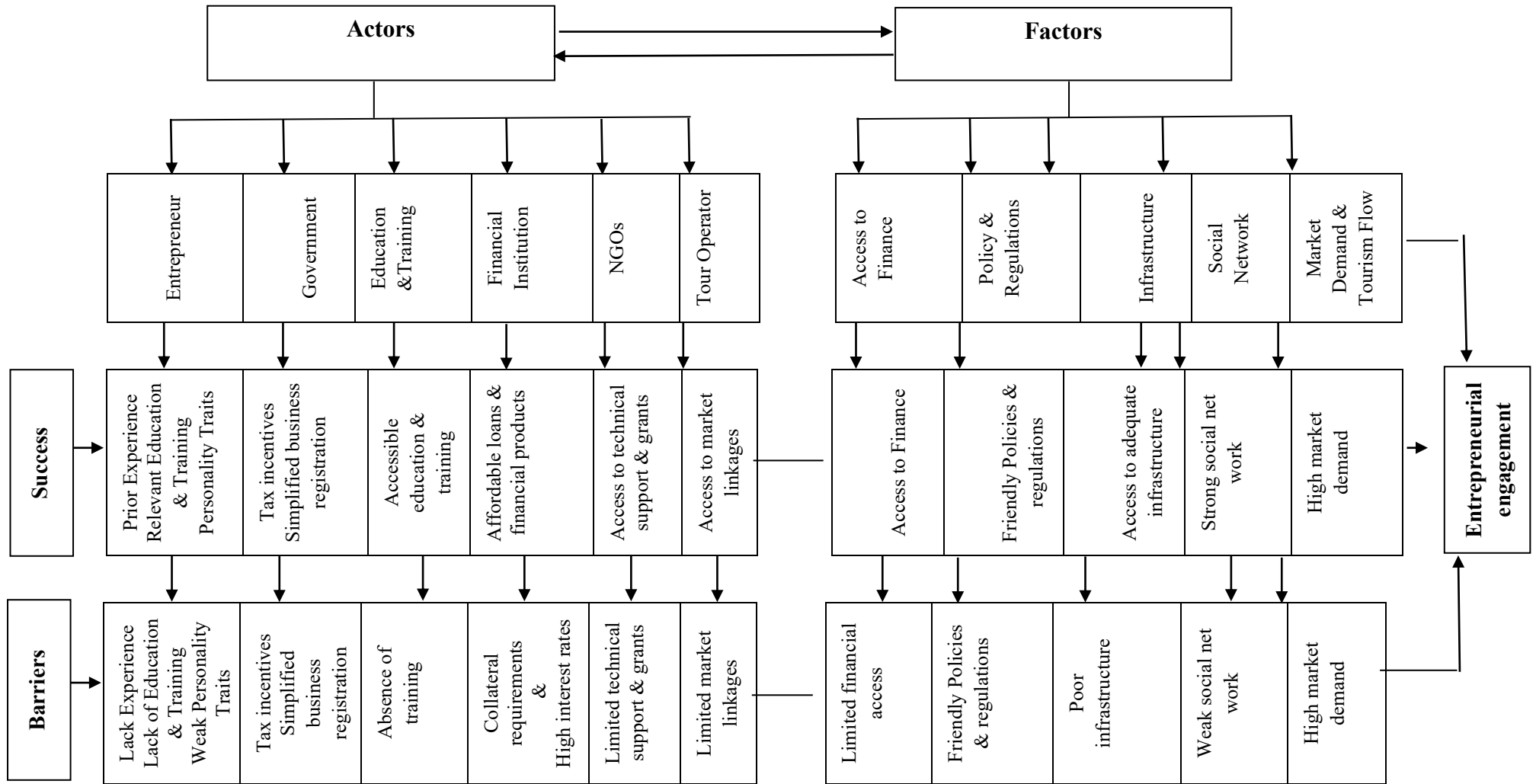
*huchangamkia fursa za utalii?)*

22. What should be done in order to enhance tourism based entrepreneurship in this community?

**Appendix V: A map of Tarangire-Manyara Ecosystem showing study area**



**Appendix VI: Conceptual Framework: Success and Barriers in Rural Tourism Entrepreneurship**



## Appendix VII: Research Approval Letters



**MOI UNIVERSITY  
OFFICE OF THE DEAN  
SCHOOL OF TOURISM, HOSPITALITY & EVENTS MANAGEMENT**

**Telephone:** 0715054320/0754349595  
**Fax:** (053) 43047  
**E-mail:** deansthe@mu.ac.ke

Box 3900  
**ELDORET**  
Kenya

Ref: MU/STHE/PG/23

5<sup>th</sup> February, 2024

**TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN**

Dear Sir/Madam,

**RE: RECOMMENDATION LETTER – MR. RICHARD ALOYCE KISASEMBE –  
TOU/5737/21**

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

He has successfully completed his course work and defended his proposal titled: “**Success Factors and Barriers to Local Community Engagement in Tourism Entrepreneurship in The Tarangire-Manyara Ecosystem**”

Mr. Kisasiembe has been allowed to proceed to the field for data collection.

Any assistance accorded to him will be appreciated.

Yours faithfully,


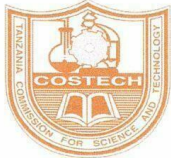
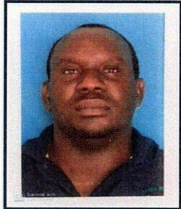





**PROF. JACQUELINE KORIR  
DEAN, SCHOOL OF TOURISM, HOSPITALITY & EVENTS MANAGEMENT**



(ISO 9001:2015 Certified Institution)

## Appendix VIII: Research Permit

|   |   |   |
|---|---|---|
|    | <p>UNITED REPUBLIC OF TANZANIA</p> <p>MINISTRY OF EDUCATION, SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY</p> <p>TANZANIA COMMISSION FOR SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY</p> |                      |
|    |   |   |
| <p><b>RESEARCH PERMIT</b></p>   |   |   |
| Permit Number:  | CST00000430-2024-2024-00288   |   |
| Date issued:  | 19/03/2024  |   |
| Researcher Name:  | Richard Aloyce Kisasembe  |   |
| Nationality:  | UNITED REPUBLIC OF TANZANIA   |   |
| Research Title:   | Success Factors and Barriers to Local Community Engagement in Tourism Entrepreneurship at Tarangire-Manyara Ecosystem                         |   |
| Research Areas:   | Arusha, Manyara   |   |
| Validity:   | From 19/03/2024 to 18/03/2025   |   |
|   |   |   |
| <p>Director Research Coordination and Promotion</p>   |   | <p>Director General</p>   |
|   |   | <br>DOI: 43ED 80C4 |



UNITED REPUBLIC OF TANZANIA  
MINISTRY OF EDUCATION, SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY  
TANZANIA COMMISSION FOR SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY



In reply please quote: CST00000430-2024

Date 19/03/2024

Permanent Secretary,  
President's Office,  
Regional Administration and Local Government,  
P.O Box 1923,  
DODOMA.

Dear Sir/Madam,

**INTRODUCTION LETTER ON RESEARCH PERMIT**

1. I wish to introduce Richard Aloyce Kisasembe, citizen of UNITED REPUBLIC OF TANZANIA who has been granted Research Permit No. CST00000430-2024-2024-00288 dated 19/03/2024.
2. The permit allows him/her to conduct research titled "Success Factors and Barriers to Local Community Engagement in Tourism Entrepreneurship at Tarangire-Manyara Ecosystem" under the terms and conditions as per the National Research Registration and Clearance Guideline of 2022. The research will be conducted in Arusha, Manyara.
3. COSTECH is therefore kindly requesting you to introduce the researcher(s) to relevant Regional Administrative Officer(s) and support with any necessary assistance and guidance under national laws and regulations.
4. Thank you for your cooperation

Dr. Amos Nungu  
DIRECTOR GENERAL

**CC. Regional Administrative Secretary:**  
Arusha, Manyara



DOI: 43ED 80C4

**Appendix IX: Plagiarism Awareness Certificate**

SR943



*ISO 9001:2019 Certified Institution*

**THESIS WRITING COURSE***PLAGIARISM AWARENESS CERTIFICATE*

This certificate is awarded to

*RICHARD ALOYCE KISASEMBE*

**TOU/DPHIL/5737/21**

In recognition for passing the University's plagiarism

Awareness test for Thesis entitled: **SUCCESS FACTORS AND BARRIERS TO LOCAL COMMUNITY ENGAGEMENT IN TOURISM ENTREPRENEURSHIP IN THE TARANGIRE-MANYARA ECOSYSTEM** with similarity index of 4% and striving to maintain academic integrity.

Word count: 50168

Awarded by

Prof. Anne Syomwene Kisilu

CERM-ESA Project Leader Date: 17/07//2025