

KROK UNIVERSITY
Educational and Scientific Institute of Management and Adult Education
Department of Management Technologies

Adedapo Aderayo Ajewole

UDC: 338.486.1(510)

Thesis

On the Topic << Tourism Management in Kenya>>

Specialty: 073 Management

Educational Programme: Management of Tourism

Thesis contains the results of individual work. The use of ideas, results, and texts of other authors have references to the relevant source.

_____ (A.A. Adedapo)

(Signature, Initials, Surname of the applicant)

Scientific Supervisor (Consultant)

Bielova Olena Ihorivna

PhD (in Economics), associate professor

Kyiv -2021

PLAN

INTRODUCTION	3
SECTION 1: THEORETICAL ASPECTS OF TOURISM MANAGEMENT IN KENYA.....	6
1.1 Essence of Sustainable Tourism Development	6
1.2 Features of Sustainable Tourism Development.....	9
1.3 Methodological approaches to assessing sustainable tourism development in East Africa	19
SECTION 2. PRACTICAL ASPECTS OF TOURISM MANAGEMENT IN KENYA.....	30
2.1 Organizational and economic characteristics Kenya’s tourism industry ..	30
2.2 Analysis of sustainable tourism development in East Africa.....	37
2.3. Evaluating the effectiveness of sustainable tourism development management in East Africa.....	43
SECTION 3. IMPROVEMENT OF TOURISM MANAGEMENT IN KENYA	48
3.1 Ways to overcome weaknesses in sustainable tourism development in East Africa	48
3.2 Rationale for the improvement of sustainable tourism development in East Africa	56
3.3. Effectiveness of improving sustainability of tourism development in East Africa	61
CONCLUSIONS.....	67
REFERENCES.....	71
DECLARATION	80

INTRODUCTION

Relevance of topic. The tourism industry in Sub-Saharan Africa has developed at one of the fastest rates in the last decade, with growth rates of more than 10% in 2006, 7% in 2007, and 5% in 2008 and 2009, respectively, and this optimistic trend is expected to continue in the future, despite the global recession. However, there are major differences in tourism growth between countries and sub-regions.

The purpose of the work is, using Kenya as a case study, to investigate the causes of stagnation in the East African sub-region, as well as the possibility of tailoring, adapting, and/or applying key concepts of sustainable tourism in developing and managing the tourism industry in the East African sub-region, which is still in its infancy for sustainable tourism development management in Kenya.

The objectives of the work are to identify and outline the growth potential of the tourism industry in Kenya as a means of improving the socio-economic conditions of the local communities around the coastal province; examine the contradictions and challenges facing the development of viable sustainable tourism industry in Kenya; examine how tourist attractions have been utilized as well finding out potential further exploitation; and determine the nature of existing economic linkages between the tourist centres and other sectors of the economy

The object of the study is sustainable tourism development in Kenya.

The subject of the study is a sample the four of the seven coastal districts in Kenya

Overview of the problem. In order to develop tourism in Kenya in a manner which does not adversely affect the growth of this important industry in the future, it is essential to ensure that it develops sustainably. Forward linkages create between waterfront places of interest, acting as a local multiplier where payment is appropriated to different areas of the economy through the improvement of neighbourhood abilities. It likewise prompts the improvement of basic infrastructure projects, such as schools. Reasonable the travel industry advancement supports the utilization and protection of

normal, social and social assets. Local stakeholder must participate in the management of sustainable tourism development management, with neighbourhood networks being empowered by public authority and industry administrators. Education and monitoring are vital sustainable tourism development for communities to profit off their ecological and sociocultural legacy.

To achieve this goal, the following issues that need to be addressed:

- To assess the relationship between linkages and sustainable tourism development management;
- To assess the relationship between Sustainable use of resources and sustainable tourism development management;
- To assess the relationship between Stakeholder participation and sustainable tourism development management;
- To assess the relationship between Education with monitoring and sustainable tourism development management.

Research Methodology. In order to assess this, a Random, stratified and cluster technique was employed to sample the coastal districts in Kenya, which conformed to three clusters and were chosen randomly. From this sampling frame, stratified sampling was used for classified registered hotels. Various stakeholders were assessed through qualitative in-depth face-to-face interviews. Secondary data was identified through various reports from the Ministry of Tourism and Wildlife, Central Bureau of Statistics, Kenya Wildlife Services Library, Internet Facilities, statistical abstracts, Economic Surveys, Kenya Association of Tour Operators records (KATO), National Museums of Kenya, Maps, Photographs, Newspapers, and Magazines.

Interview question forms were designed for both international and domestic tourists. The tourists were selected randomly from the hotels, the beaches, and the Coastal tourist centres. They were asked to evaluate the attractiveness and the adequacy of the facilities in satisfying their desire for the cultural product. They also gave their views and suggestions on how to improve the facilities. A sample size of 50 tourists was randomly acquired directly from the hotels and Coastal tourist centres. Thirty

questionnaires were distributed randomly to the hotels, ten in each cluster, and twenty were administered in the Coastal tourist centres in the three clusters. The interview question forms were distributed randomly to the tourists through hotel receptionists and tour guides accompanying tourists in the centres or along the beaches.

A sample size of 60 residents was selected using random sampling from the three clusters. Each cluster had 20 residents interviewed. The total sample was drawn from individuals within a range of one kilometre from the centres.

SECTION 1: THEORETICAL ASPECTS OF TOURISM MANAGEMENT IN KENYA

1.1 Essence of Sustainable Tourism Development

Since 2000, Sub-Saharan Africa has consistently had the world's highest annual rise in tourist arrivals, second only to the Middle East. This pattern has persisted even through the current economic downturn, with the continent experiencing growth rates of +5% in 2008 and 2009, respectively, while the rest of the world saw a 4% drop in tourist arrivals and revenue in 2009 (UNWTO, 2010). . The rise in disposable incomes in tourist-producing countries, as well as the rising popularity of new types of tourism activities, especially among the wealthy, has fuelled interest in the continent, as has the desire of these well-to-do travellers to discover new destinations offering an alternative, sustainable natural and cultural experience.

Even though the continent has been growing steadily since 2001, Africa's share of the tourist market is still very small, at just 5% - or about 50 million tourists - out of a total of nearly 900 million visitors in 2009 (UNWTO, 2010). Furthermore, only a few countries in North, Central, West, and South Africa have reaped the benefits of this boom, while the East African sub-region has seen no substantial development. The willingness to learn more about the triggers for sub-regional growth inequalities in general, as well as the stagnation of tourism growth in Kenya and the East African sub-region, as well as other unanswered questions that arose during discussions (with some associates who worked in the tourism industry) about the state of the industry in Kenya and the sub-region in general, led to the creation of the Tourism Research Group.

Various definitions of sustainable tourism and tourism within the sense of sustainable growth have been advanced by eminent experts, academics, and scholars of tourism and hospitality studies, depending on the viewpoint from which it is studied, which some contend are the same term or two entirely different concepts (Weaver, 2006; Sharpley, 2000; Nijkamp and Verdonkshot, 1995; Butler, 1993). As Hunter (2003), Sharpley (2000), and Butler (1993) argue, at its most basic level, there is a

dichotomy in how sustainable tourism is viewed (i.e., as an end in itself or as a means to an end) and characterised by the various actors involved.

Sustainable tourism, according to Butler (1993, p. 29), is “a form of tourism that can retain its viability in a given region for an indefinite period of time”. Cater and Goodall (1992) wrote about how sustainable tourism depends on meeting the needs of the host community in terms of improved standards of life, satisfying the demands of the increasing tourist numbers and continuing to attract them to achieve this, and safeguarding the environment to achieve the two foregoing aims” (p. 318); while to achieve the two foregoing aims.

“The definition of sustainability is fundamental to the reassessment of tourism's role in society,” writes Archer and Cooper (1994). It necessitates a long-term perspective on economic activity and ensures that tourism consumption does not surpass the host destination's capacity to cater for potential tourists” (p. 87).

The growing need and demand for a coherent and integrated approach to the growth of both the economy and the environment in the tourism sector gave birth to sustainable tourism. The phenomenal increase in technological advancements, wages, and post-war prosperity (especially from the 1950s) in many developed countries resulted in an increase in the purchasing power of people who could now afford more to engage in leisure and travel experiences that were previously only available to a select few. Thus, after this time, demand for tourism activities and travel grew steadily, resulting in the rapid and, in many cases, unregulated growth and construction of tourism infrastructure seeking to maximize short-term economic benefits while paying little attention to the environmental repercussions. The flaws in this myopic approach were exposed in the 1970s, when the negative effects of tourism, especially as a source of revenue, were visible and felt on natural and cultural ecosystems at the destination level (UNEP, 2002; Archer et al., 2005; Holden, 2000; Coccossis and Nijkamp, 1995). Tourism destinations are rapidly deteriorating as a result of this.

These organisations also began to emphasise the importance of caution in the industry's growth, especially at the destination level. A radically new approach to

looking at and researching tourism as a whole started to circulate among tourism researchers and practitioners in the late 1980s and early 1990s. It was built on the need to tailor tourism development to the specific characteristics of each destination to mitigate the negative effects of tourism development thus far. This strategy advocated for the 'identification' of tourism (Jafari, 2003; Jafari, 2001). In the late 1980s and early 1990s, the popularity of green movements and activities, as well as new brands of alternative tourism activities, as well as sustainable development concepts and practices, coincided with an increasing awareness of tourism as a very important subject and indispensable element of the global economy, especially after the tremendous influx of tourists.

With the establishment of numerous organisations and bodies at national, regional, and international levels all exclusively dealing with tourism growth and management sustainably, efforts have been made to grow the industry as a whole, but more specifically at regional and national levels. This was because the 'environment is a major element of the tourist product, and tourists, it can be understandably argued, are consumers of the environment who travel to the producers' place, which in this case is the tourist destination, to consume the product' (Goodall, 1992, p. 60). The caveat, however, is if this product is not well conserved and managed, it eventually loses its value (Goodall, 1992, p. 60).

1.2 Features of Sustainable Tourism Development.

An audit of the current writing is significant in this examination since it uncovers the limits and shortcomings, qualities and holes which past specialists and researchers have neglected to address. This examination plans to address both the impediments and shortcomings to fill in and connect existing holes.

Three theories can be applied to this research in relation to the sustainability of tourism development management in Kenya.

The first theory, the Development Stage Theory, discusses how development occurs incrementally. This may depend on five phases of monetary advancement model (Rostow, 1960). These range from a) traditional, subsistence-based societies b) developing the pre-conditions for economic take-off, c) taking off, d) driving towards maturity, and e) entering the age of mass consumption. It expresses how traditional agricultural nations are in an earlier period of the advancement cycle, yet will eventually follow the Euro-American improvement measure. Similarly, in their dissertation on Tropical seaside tourism in the Caribbean model, Thurot (1973) identified three periods of financial turn of events, while Schlenke and Stewig (1983) partner the five phases of monetary advancement with the development of home-grown the travel industry.

These theories suggest that an traditional, subsistence-based societies often have few individuals who have enough extra time and funds to bear the cost of relaxation travel. Over time, a larger variety of social classes are able to take part in local tourism increases as the economy develops. It is just in the last phase of "high mass utilization", wherein that all social classes can manage the cost of occasional travel. This is correlated with investments in the tourism industry. Indeed, while reflecting on the Rostow model, Hunter (2002) observes how tourism "encroaches" on traditional societies. He gives the example of the Gulf region to discuss how investments and innovations are made in the tourism sector as they progress towards "developed" status.

While these phases of the tourism industry in coastal area are critical for local economies, it is important to ensure the long-term sustainability of the industry. Miossec (1977) recommends that development of the tourism industry begins with a pioneer resort. With time, resorts increase prompting the foundation of a progression and a utilitarian specialization of resorts. In the last stage, vacationer resorts are appropriated uniformly distributed across the region, with appropriate transport linkages and network to the retreats. In this manner, any adjustment in the hotel is an adjustment in its customer base.

Pearce (1981) sees one insufficiency in Miossec's (1976) model. They state that improvements to the travel industry in underdeveloped nations regularly happens in secluded retreats, which don't follow an especially interconnected progressive design. In this manner, transportation linkages between the hotels often remain scanty. This observation is prescient to Kenya, where resorts are insufficiently conveyed. Pearce (198) proceeds to clarify that travel industry advancement has a beginning stage. It just happens "inside a current financial construction where a few types of metropolitan progressive system and a vehicle network are as of now found, and not in an "unfilled space". These enclaves of resort construction have been addressed by a few analysts like Matznetter, (1979); Britton, (1991); and Jenkins, (2011), who contend that not all retreats are territories. Until this point in time, the travel industry actually follows a similar design colonialist set up yet, since the hypothesis recognizes the phases of advancement, the model can be applied in the travel industry concentrates in Kenya yet for certain changes.

Building on the work of Christaller (1964); Cohen (1972), Plog (1973), Butler (1980), however, provide an analysis of how a tourism industry develops in an area. These changes are depicted in Figure 1, which indicates how these linked stages over time impact the number of tourists.

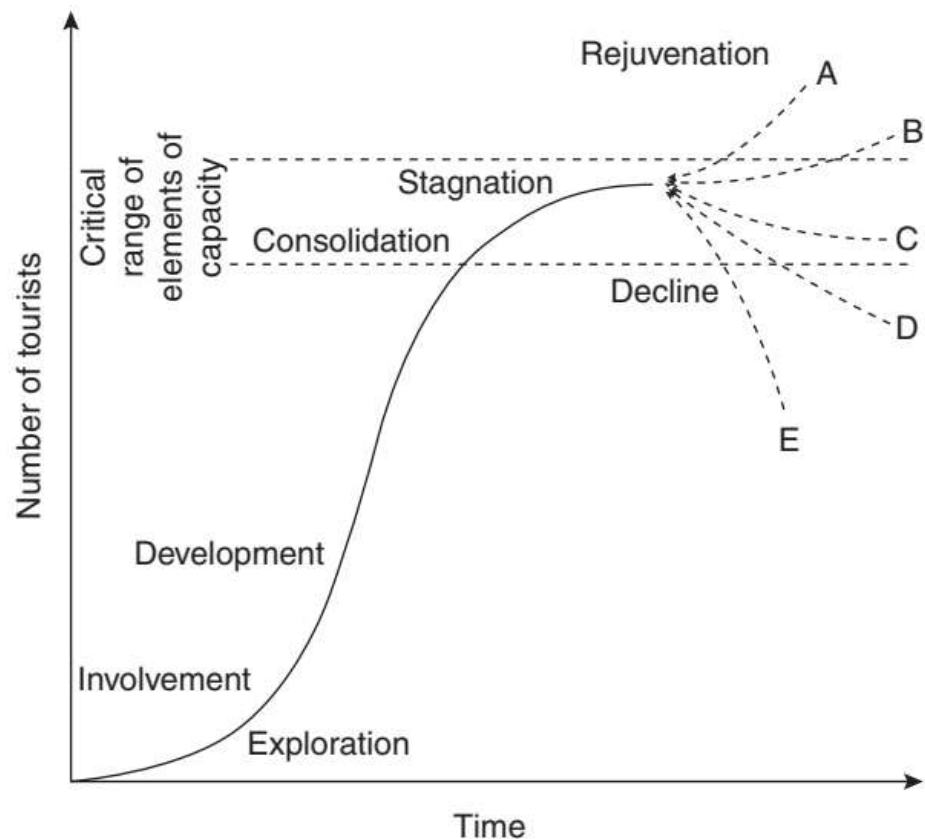


Fig 1.1 The evolution cycle of a resort (Adapted from Butler,1980.)

The figure depicts how some adventurous tourists “discover” sites with few public resources but a lot of natural beauty. As this exploration phase continues, locals begin interacting with the tourists. This interaction includes involvement of industrialising forces, which provide basic services, resulting in the formation of definite market areas. As these market forces become involved, the development of additional tourist facilities takes place, resulting in rapid growth in the number of tourists to an area. In some cases, the numbers of tourists may outweigh the local population. Following this development phase, tourism becomes an increasingly intrinsic part of the local economy. This results in the consolidation of local markets, but often at a trade-off of the increased growth. Over time, the number of tourists starts to stagnate, as the tourist destination is no longer “trendy”. Plog (1973) holds the view that this decrease is unavoidable in the improvement interaction that returns along a continuum of appeal.

The Diffusion theory suggests that "there will be a spread, a sifting, development or improvement driving forces from the most created to less created zones" (Browet, 1979). This will prompt a change of the first variations after an underlying polarization, (Hirschmann 1958 and Alonso 1968). This hypothesis proposes that for successful destruction of backwardness, it is important to set up development shafts, for example, urban areas or monetary areas with a high network with different enterprises thought to have a high multiplier impact (Perroux, 1955; Myrdal, 1956 and Friedman, 1966). It very well may be finished up from the above realities that the majority of the town places of interest have come about because of the inn business because of its high multiplier impact yet their commitment to territorial improvement still can't seem to be analysed. Development shafts have arisen as metropolitan focuses yet the pace of spread impact to the fringe has been moderate and is a long way from being figured out.

Christaller and Friedmann (2002, 2009) consider the travel industry as an advanced alternative for hazardous districts that have minimal formative potential and are monetarily immature like the agricultural nations. The travel industry creates districts fit to the escalated advancement of the travel industry and related enterprises, consequently, featuring the travel industry as an "instrument" of improvement in the fringe locales. Since the travel industry utilization happens at the spot of creation, it is considered to affect the economy through its various relationship with different ventures (e.g. agribusiness, fishery, ranger service, building and workmanship). In this manner, it is considered to have a solid multiplier impact on the nearby economy.

Pearce (2011) states that the stability of global vacationers in non-industrial nations and has prompted the advancement of traveller resorts which are open from resorts close to the capital. The simply opening to new districts is through the foundation of new worldwide air terminals. Since most delight vacationers have a place with the "Sand, Sun and Sea" class, such an improvement is well on the way to happen along the coast. On the off chance that the coast is desolate or far off, the travel industry will have not many back-ward linkages since the majority of the farming items should

be imported accordingly, the multiplier impact will be lost to the nearby economy. This has been upheld by a contextual investigation of Cancun, Mexico, where following fifteen years of advancement, practically all provisions actually come from removed areas. This examination will assess forward linkages and the degree to which they impact country change as far as development in financially non-industrial nations like Kenya.

A few examinations believe the travel industry to be generally packed in the capital, in monetary focuses and in the beach front areas. Opperman's (2000) investigation of Malaysia represents that travel industry is least significant in fringe locales, while monetary and political focuses in Malaysia have better than expected portions of the travel industry. Comparative outcomes have been gotten in the Philippines, Mexico and Peru (Thomas, 2007), where the multiplier impacts have seldom arrived at the guessed levels on the grounds that an impressive level of the spending in fringe districts is attracted away to the metro shaft for example to the public level. This hypothesis has as an uplifting objective for the spread of the travel industry from the metro shaft to the outskirts. In this way, there is a chance of immaterialness in the beach front area of Kenya where the business is profoundly focused.

The Dependence Paradigm is a worldview created because of researchers' disappointment with the dispersion worldview. It keeps up that because of reliance, entrepreneur improvement in the centre persistently discovered its way into the travel industry through researchers like Britton (1996); Hoivik and Heiberg (1980) and Husbands (1986). The mainstream presumption of this hypothesis is that the travel industry is work serious and capital broad and is, consequently, ideal for non-industrial nations. In any case, this presumption has confronted analysis, especially the seriousness of mass the travel industry set up in numerous spots (Diamond, 2000; Husbands, 1986; Moller, 2012; Vorlaufer, 2003; Mathews and Ritcher 1991).

The disappointments of the travel industry are noticeable both in its association and its direction towards global business sectors. The underlying speculation costs in mass the travel industry is frequently excessively high for agricultural nations and,

thusly, lead to reliance on unfamiliar capital (Britton, 2012; Rodenburg, 1989). The executive's positions are habitually involved by outsiders and the objective promoted by organizations in the created nations. Consequently, the conundrum emergency happens, where the travel industry is being utilized as an apparatus for the improvement of the outskirts, while the whole association and control of the business live in the centre locale. This gives an illustration of "arranging the reliance on the centre" to cultivate advancement of the outskirts (Husbands, 1986).

In physical, business and socio-mental terms, the travel industry in a fringe economy can be conceptualized as an area industry. Vacationer appearance focuses in the fringe are ordinarily the essential metropolitan places of ex-provinces and now works as political and financial focuses of free nations. Travellers on bundle visits will be moved from global vehicle terminals to inns and resort zones. The vehicle, visit association and convenience Phases of their schedules will be limited generally to formal area the travel industry organizations. The vacationers will go between resort groups and get back to the essential metropolitan zones for take-off (Britton, 2012: 341)

Using Kenya as a case study, this study explores the possibility of sustainably developing and managing the tourism industry in the East African sub-region which is still a long way to development.

Tourism has been referred to worldwide as the industry of the 21st century and it is one of the most important economic, social, cultural and political phenomena of the century to which the State cannot be indifferent (Ceballos-Lascurain, 1996). Kenya is one of those developing countries in which tourism plays a crucial role in the economy since it is the second highest foreign exchange earner after agriculture (Economic Survey, 2020). It is in the foregoing context, that there has been for some time now, a widely held view, that there is a positive relationship between tourism and economic development. This is because it is not only an efficient source of badly needed foreign exchange, but also a source of government revenue and represents a true motor of development, especially in the case of Kenya (RoK, 2018).

Tourism is the mainstay of the economy of the Coast Province contributing between 60-70 percent of the total earnings to the province (RoK, 2018). Statistics show that 56 percent of the Coast Provinces 2.4 million people live below the poverty line, and only a small proportion of the local population receives meaningful benefits. This is because tourism benefits have been more apparent at the national level than the local level, thus ignoring the plight of those living in destination communities (Adeola, 2019). In view of this, tourism industry has been perceived as an agent of poverty due to its failure to uplift the socio-economic status creating an apparent disproportionate participation of foreign versus domestic elements at different levels within the country and abroad making it an externally oriented industry. It is in response to what is perceived as a lack of equitable economic returns that this study attempts to examine the role tourist centres play in terms of income generation, creation of employment, ownership and management of tourist sites, as well as examining problems hindering the development of a viable sustainable tourism industry in Kenya.

The underlying concern of this study is whether tourism yield, financial returns to the coast population which would justify the further development of the tourism industry, since currently tourism benefits do not appear to reflect any significant multiplier effect on other economic sectors or in narrowing the socio-economic gaps that exist in the region.

There are a few scientific publications in Sub-Saharan Africa dealing with (sustainable) tourism issues, but the focus has mostly been on countries in Central and Southern Africa (Akama, 1997, 1998, 1999; Mbaiwa, 2003a, 2003b, 2004, 2005a, 2005b), with very little research being done in East Africa to find out the reasons for this unpopular pattern in a country that has recognised it (Akama, 1997, 1998, 1999; Mbaiwa, 2003a (Shackley, 2006).

As a result, there is a scarcity of literature and academic research on tourism in the sub-region, particularly in Kenya, necessitating more research in this area, the findings of which could be applied in the field to grow and manage the country's tourism industry in a sustainable manner.

The only pieces of written literature about tourism in Kenya can be found in a few existing specialized guidebooks (e.g. Lonely Planet) and on the websites of a few specialized niche tour operators, as well as in some Ministry of Tourism working documents (many of which are outdated) (MINTOUR).

The aim will be to tailor and adapt key principles of sustainable tourism to Kenya's tourism industry growth and management. In the case of this study, the principle of sustainable tourism growth management envisions public/private/community sector collaborations of all tourism industry stakeholders actively engaging in the development and management of the country's tourism resources in a fair and just manner such that present and future generations profit.

This study is significant because it focuses on the attraction of the community's resources which reflect its natural and cultural heritage. It is, therefore, the community's responsibility to protect and conserve its resources through the operation of coastal province tourist centres which will eventually lead to self-sufficiency by providing tourist facilities and services. Tourism is a community affair and its success depend entirely on the local people (Orams, 2016). The successful operation of tourist activities requires the community's participation as host in order to provide a reservoir of information and create enthusiasm within the industry.

In so doing, hostility toward visitors, including some ugly incidences of crime already experienced, will be arrested at the community level (Murphy, 2018). Kenya's cultural image needs to be strengthened and tourist attractions diversified in order to lure source markets. This will be a key to attract long-haul tourists who tend to be motivated more culturally by related attractions.

The **principal objectives** of this thesis are as follows:

- a. To identify and outline the growth potential of the tourism industry in Kenya as a means of improving the socio-economic conditions of the local communities around the coastal province.
- b. To examine the contradictions and challenges facing the development of viable sustainable tourism industry in Kenya.

c. To examine how tourist attractions have been utilized as well finding out potential further exploitation.

d. To determine the nature of existing economic linkages between the tourist centres and other sectors of the economy

Based on these objectives, this thesis will address the **following research questions**:

a. What is the growth potential of the tourism industry in Kenya as a means of improving the socio-economic conditions of the local communities around the coastal province?

b. What are the contradictions and challenges facing the development of viable sustainable tourism industry in Kenya?

c. To what extent have tourist attractions been utilized? Is there adequate potential for further exploitation?

d. What is the nature of existing economic linkages between the tourist centres and other sectors of the economy?

HO There is no significant relationship between linkages and sustainable tourism development management

H1 There is a significant relationship between linkages and sustainable tourism development management

HO There is no significant relationship between Sustainable use of resources and sustainable tourism development management

H2 There is a significant relationship between Sustainable use of resources and sustainable tourism development management

HO There is no significant relationship between Stakeholder participation and sustainable tourism development management

H3 There is a significant relationship between Stakeholder participation and sustainable tourism development management

HO There is no significant relationship between Education and monitoring and sustainable tourism development management

H4 There is a significant relationship between Education and monitoring and sustainable tourism development management

1.3 Methodological approaches to assessing sustainable tourism development in East Africa

This section discusses some of the different research methods that are widely used when performing quantitative and qualitative studies, as well as the ones that were used in this report. This is to help the reader understand why this particular approach and methodology were chosen, since, as Bell (1995) correctly observed, researchers often use words and jargon that are incomprehensible to others.

The coastal region consists of seven districts which form the Coast Province. These include Mombasa, Kilifi, Kwale, Malindi, Taita-Taveta, Tana River and Lamu. Bearing in mind the breadth and scope of this study, financial and time limitations, there was need to use a small and manageable sample. As such, random sampling method was used to select four districts which were representative of the whole region from which inferences were made. The sample comprises Kwale, Mombasa, Kilifi and Malindi districts. The four districts were given numbers which conformed to three clusters and were chosen randomly. The clusters were confined to the administrative boundaries of the districts.

A sample size of 257 was chosen using random, stratified and cluster sampling respectively. The sample population comprised those directly working in the tourism industry. A set of seven interview questions were distributed to the following categories of the population: local residents, Ministry of tourism officials, tour operating companies, curio kiosk owners, hotel managers, tourists, and coastal tourist centres. Table 3.3 is a summary of the sample survey and the number of respondents who answered the interview questions. Other secondary sources of information included: The Kenya Wildlife Services personnel (KWS), Kenya Association of Tour Operators personnel (KATO), Ministry of culture officers, Mombasa Tourist Coast Association (MTCA), Coast Development Authority (CDA), National Museums of Kenya and the Ministry of technology and training officials.

Population	Sample size	Response
Tourism Officials	12	12
Tourist	50	32
Curio Owners	45	32
Local Residents	60	30
Hotel Managers	31	29
Tour Operators	47	21
Village tourist Centres	12	12
Total Sample size	257	168

Table 1.1 A number of respondents who answered interview questions, Source Field Research (2018/2019)

Since the sample frame of this study is extremely broad and considering financial and time limitation, a sample size of 257 was chosen. The selected sample is believed to be a representative portion of the population. Random, stratified and cluster sampling technique was employed because it was believed to reduce costs and increase the accuracy of the findings.

Stratified sampling was used for classified registered hotels. The hotels formed five strata according to 1-5-star classification. There are 97 classified star hotels in the Province from which the sample was drawn. One third of each class was used to form a sample size of 31 hotels. Using the number of classified hotels which were operational at the time of the research, a number was assigned to each of the names of the 97 hotels and written on small papers. Thirty-one (31) hotels were then picked randomly each at a time and 31 interview question forms were administered to the hotel managers through the post office and in person. Out of 31 interview question forms distributed to hotel managers, 25 were returned to the researcher duly filled. Only hotel managers were interviewed because they were believed to have better access to the information required for this study.

Table 1.2 illustrates the distribution of classified hotels, the sample size and the number of respondents.

Star Classification	Number of Classified Hotels in the Coastal Region	Selected Sample size 1/3 of each class
1	18	6
2	28	9
3	28	9
4	14	4
5	9	3
Total	97	31

Table 1.2 The distribution of classified hotels, Source RoK (2018) and Field Research (2018/2019)

Random sampling was used to select 10 percent of tour operating companies from a list of 471 firms registered under the Tour Industry Legal Act (TILA). A sample size of 47 was selected and interview question forms were administered personally. Out of 47 interview question forms, only 21 were properly filled and used for data analysis. Tour Operators were chosen because they had easy access to adequate information concerning tourists' recreation interests besides the parks and the beach.

Cluster sampling was used to select three clusters from four administrative districts in the Coast Province. Names of the four districts were written on small papers and the name of cluster attached Kilifi and Malindi districts were assigned the same number in order to form one cluster. Random sampling technique was employed to select three clusters which included, South Coast Cluster (Kwale district), Mombasa Cluster (Mombasa district) and North Coast Cluster (Kilifi and Malindi districts). Clusters included four districts in the study area namely, Kwale, Mombasa, Kilifi and Malindi. The three clusters were restricted to the administrative boundaries as indicated in Table 1.3.

Number of Clusters	Location of Clusters
Cluster 1	North Coast (Kilifi and Malindi Districts)
Cluster 2	Mombasa Districts
Cluster 3	South Coast (Kwale District)

Table 1.3 The three clusters, Source: Field Research (2018/2019)

From the three clusters, coastal tourist centres were identified. Twenty centres were assigned numbers and random sampling was used to select a representative sample size of 12 coastal tourist centres. Sampling was necessary to enable the researcher to reach the coastal centres members who lacked an organized place for meeting. It was observed that other centres only existed by name but were not in operation at the time this research was being carried out. A set of 12 interview question forms were administered personally by the researcher who interviewed the administrators or owners of coastal tourist centres. The researcher also held informal discussions with the dancers and members of the coastal tourist centres who were well acquainted with information regarding the operations of the centres.

An interview question forms was designed for both international and domestic tourists. The tourists were selected randomly from the hotels, the beaches and from the Coastal tourist centres. They were asked to evaluate the attractiveness and the adequacy of the facilities in satisfying their desire for the cultural product. They also gave their views and suggestions on how to improve the facilities. A sample size of 50 tourists was randomly acquired directly from the hotels and Coastal tourist centres. Thirty questionnaires were distributed randomly to the hotels, ten in each cluster and twenty were administered in the Coastal tourist centres in the three clusters. The interview question forms were distributed randomly to the tourists through hotel receptionists and through tour guides accompanying tourists in the centres or along the beaches.

Out of the 50 tourists who were approached for interviews, 32 of them responded to the questions and gave worthwhile information which was later analysed. Some of the returned question forms contained uncompleted information and were discarded.

This phase of the research was hampered by several limitations. In most hotels movement of tourists was strictly monitored, while in the village centres, they had a limited time since their programme was tightly scheduled. In addition, the hotel management did not permit any disturbance of their clients when in the hotel or elsewhere. Hotel managers stated clearly that any disturbances or interference with tourists would be treated with severity.

Random sampling was used to select an adequate sample of curios and handicraft operators from a total of 450 in the region that are registered under the Ministry of Tourism and Wildlife (RoK, 2018). Ten percent of the total population was chosen randomly forming a sample size of 45 curio operators. Names of all the curio operators were written on small papers and each was assigned a number. Forty-five papers were then randomly picked to form a sample. Interviewees included those operating along the beaches and those running curio kiosks. A total of 32 interview question forms were filled and returned to the researcher for analysis.

In order to obtain information on the current status of tourism at the coast, and the factors that influenced the current proliferation of village tourist centre in the region, 12 tourism officials from the Ministry of Tourism Coast region were interviewed using an interview question form. They were also required to state the role village tourist centres play in the region. All 12-interview question form. were duly filled and returned to the researcher for analysis.

A sample size of 60 local residents was selected using random sampling from the three clusters. Each cluster had 20 residents interviewed. The total sample was drawn from individuals within a range of one kilometre from the centres. This was to allow for adequate and reliable information since previously it was realized that those living far from the resort were mostly ignorant of what the centres represented. The interviews ministered to the residents were aimed at determining whether benefits accruing form village 8 had any positive influence on the socio-economic welfare of the local people. It was also in the interest of this research to find out the extent to which local residents participate in the ownership, management and organization of these centres, and especially the level of employment.

Some people gave irrelevant responses, others left were too scared to talk because of the pandemic that was currently taking place (social distancing). Also, with the uncooperative attitude of the people, Ramadhan proved an inappropriate time to do this research. Very often houses were locked since family members had to pray. Although this proved to be a hindrance to data collection, a sample of 32 interviews were adequately conducted with relevant information received and analysed.

It is important to note that most of the sample size for all variables was restricted to 30 or more. As such, it is possible to conclude that this study operated within the limits of the normal distribution since it concurs with the arguments of Dixon and Leach (1979) that a sample size of 30 is the smallest sample that can be expected to conform to normal distribution on which sampling theory is based.

Data was gathered from primary and secondary sources. Primary source data for analysis were collected through in-depth personal interviews with tour operators, tourist, curio operators, and proprietors of village tourist centres, local residents, hotel managers and tourism officials. It was also obtained from field observation where photographs were taken of important sites such as village tourist centres, designed homesteads, entertainment groups and curio vendors in kiosks and along the beaches.

Secondary information related to tourism statistical data was extracted from the following: Ministry of Tourism and Wildlife, Central Bureau of Statistics, Kenya Wildlife Services Library, Internet Facilities, statistical abstracts, Economic Surveys, Kenya Association of Tour Operators records (KATO), National Museums of Kenya, Maps, photographs, Newspapers and Magazines.

Where the study object is a single item (case) or a small number of objects, case studies are usually then chosen form of research (cases). This was the case in this study. The aim of the study was to look into the factors that influence the development and management of sustainable tourism in Kenya. Case studies have two key characteristics, according to Yin (2002) and Eisenhardt (2012): first, they may incorporate several sources of data, and second, they take place over a period of time. There are various methods for performing case-based research, but the advantages that

accrue when researching a phenomenon in its natural sense, climate, or setting, as is the case for all case-based research, are universal.

Case studies have three distinct advantages, according to Yin (2002): they concentrate on 'how' or 'why' questions, the investigator has little or no influence over the cases, and the question(s) being posed are about current phenomena in a real-life sense. Case studies have an additional advantage in that they are empirically driven, which means there is a greater chance of generating new theory from their findings (Stake, 2000; Eisenhardt, 2012). The case study is the most popular research technique used in tourism studies. This is because, in general, a variety of factors such as culture, place, history, and development level have a significant effect on the context of each tourist site or destination (Ritchie et al., 2004). These factors promote the use of case studies, which generally concentrate on unique locations, as the preferred study technique of many tourism researchers, including this researcher. The researcher's decision to use a case study as the research strategy was influenced by three main factors: the essence of the phenomenon being studied, the need to study in context, and the need to expose insights and perspectives in the management of sustainable tourism growth in Kenya. This topic demanded a great deal of research, which could best be accomplished through a case study focusing solely on Kenya.

In this study, the researcher used a descriptive case-based design to make a large number of observations in a small number of situations in order to gain an in-depth understanding or insight into the case in question and develop a narrative capable of linking the observations made into a plausible account of their connections to each other. This is because, as some social scientists have suggested, case-based methods should be used to describe cases or Small-N cases that are relevant either because they are intrinsically interesting (Stake, 2009) or because they represent a much larger population or the most advanced members (elite) of that population. Case studies are therefore not "samples," but they can be used in situations where a deep theoretical understanding of the necessary social changes is needed (in this case, the management of Kenya's tourism sector's sustainable development) (Gomm et al, 2000; Rogowsky, 2004).

A case-based study technique was also the best choice since the researcher was concerned with "why" problems, which are usually more explanatory of specific circumstances within a given context. The findings may be used to draw justified and defensible inferences in order to establish or evaluate causal interpretive theory. As a result, the case study was used as a qualitative research tool that not only narrowed the scope of the study (making it clearer), but also greatly increased the emphasis and concentration on the subject at hand, allowing for the exploration and use of several data collection methods from various sources.

Face-to-face in-depth interviews with public and private sector stakeholders (officials of the Ministry of Tourism and other related ministries, private tour operators, community-based organisations dealing with tourism, and community representatives) were used to collect data on their views, attitudes, and appraisal of the state of the industry after considering many alternative methods.

According to Mason (2002), in-depth interviews are one of the most widely known methods for performing qualitative study. People's expertise, understanding, beliefs, interpretations, and experiences, according to Mason (2002), are meaningful properties of the research topic being examined, and qualitative interviews are better than other methods for obtaining information on these properties from people. As a result, in-depth interviews are considered an effective and realistic way to get to what some qualitative researchers refer to as the ontological components of social life (Silverman, 2001). Rubin and Rubin (1995, p.6) differentiate qualitative interviews from other types of data collection by defining three main characteristics:

- Qualitative interviews are extensions or modifications of ordinary conversation but the interviewer pays more attention and intensity to listen to what the interviewee says.
- Secondly, qualitative interviewers are more interested in the understanding, knowledge and insights of the interviewees than categorising people or events in terms of academic theories.

- Thirdly, the interview content as well as its flow and choice of topics change to match what the interviewee knows and feels.

“The researcher immerses herself or himself in a research environment and systematically examines dimensions of that setting, experiences, relationships, acts, incidents, and so on, inside it,” according to observation, which is commonly used to study people's behaviour (Mason, 2002 p.60). Gold (1958) described four different roles that the observer may play, depending on the degree of involvement of the researcher: complete observer, participant as observer, observer as participant, and complete participant. However, Sarandakos (2006, p.207) points out that "observation is accessible to all measurable social phenomena other than human phenomena." Only by witnessing the context of the occurrence or situation to which people refer can a detailed understanding be gained, according to Bryman (2010).

As a consequence, the researcher's presence in the field is needed to investigate these settings, which is normally achieved by observation. As a consequence, observation is a very useful method for gathering qualitative knowledge about a product's contextual dimensions, which Gottlieb et al. (2005) say play an important role in assessing the quality of the holiday experience, as was the case with this report. Part of the research involved assessing and inventorying Kenya's tourism potential (natural parks, reserves, and cultural sites), both visited and unvisited by tourists but with the potential to become tourist attractions, as well as how they could be built for the socio-economic benefit of local communities. However, according to Sarantakos (2005), there are a variety of concerns that must be considered by the researcher when performing research that involves observation as one of the data collection methods.

There are questions of interpretation and reliability that critics of observation as a research tool have often posed. Even though the issue of imposition is inherent in any social study because the researcher chooses what to observe, document, use, and determine what is important, there is always the possibility that the observer's attitudes, beliefs, and values heavily influence his understanding of the phenomenon being

examined during observation. As a consequence, there's a risk that the observer will enforce his own perspective on the relevant description or interpretation.

Data analysis, according to Dey (2015, p.30), is the method of splitting data into its constituent components in order to expose its characteristic elements and structure. According to Dey (2015), the process may begin with an initial definition, be broken down into bits of data, identified interrelationships among these bits, and end with the creation of a new account based on the re conceptualization of the data, depending on the researcher. This segment discusses how the data was analysed, which was achieved in three steps. It began with data transcription, followed by a summary of the interviewee profiles and a review of the data collection process. The data was then analysed in the second level, which included audio-visual data gathered during the field observation. Categories were developed and emerging themes were discovered during the research process. The third stage included figuring out how these themes were linked.

The most fundamental and yet necessary component of qualitative data analysis is definition, which Geertz (2017) and Denzin (2015) define as "thin" and "thick." Denzin (2015) goes on to say that "thin" description differs from "thick" description in that "thick" description is the layered, rich, and contextual description of an event, environment, or social scene, while "thin" description is the layered, rich, and contextual description of an event, setting, or social scene. This study employs a technique known as "thick" classification. Taking into account the information gathered from the transcribed interviews, the focus during the presentation of the qualitative information gathered from observation and secondary sources was put on the conditions of the participants.

Without respondents and a fieldwork environment, a study is difficult to conduct. As a result, getting access to people and places is critical to the research process. This study was carried out in accordance with the Ethical Guidelines, which state that "if social research is to continue to be of benefit to society and the groups and individuals within it, then social researchers must conduct their work responsibly and in light of the moral and legal order of the society in which they practise..." (p. 13), and

that "social researchers must conduct their work responsibly and in light of the moral and legal order of the society in which they practise..."

Furthermore, at every point of the study, the confidentiality and anonymity of all information derived from the interviews had to be guaranteed. Data was held in a safe location and was only used for testing. Furthermore, the interview forms were completely anonymised, with no names or other personal identifiers, and without written permission, ensuring that the user (visitor) generated data was kept private.

The Ministry of Tourism (MINTOUR) also issued research authorizations, giving the researcher unlimited access to some of the stakeholders and sites visited. The researchers first made contact with the respondents by phone or email, in which the researcher outlined the project's goals and objectives, explaining the need to invade the respondents' time. An appointment was made after the respondent agreed to an interview, and the interview took place on the agreed-upon date. The researcher was the only one who performed the interviews.

After obtaining written approval from the participants, all but three interviews and conversations were tape-recorded. The intention of the research and the interview procedures were explained to the interviewee at the start of each interview. Despite the nervousness and discomfort that some respondents expressed when such subjects were discussed, the use of the audio recorder was critical to the success of the interview process of the study.

Any significant points were taken down during the interviews and discussions. The tapes and notes were collected at the conclusion of each interview session and deposited in a safe deposit box that was leased for the duration of the field trip. The researcher left his business card with his email address (for those with internet access and email) and phone number in case they wanted to contact him or collect the study results in the future.

SECTION 2. PRACTICAL ASPECTS OF TOURISM MANAGEMENT IN KENYA

2.1 Organizational and economic characteristics Kenya's tourism industry

Kenya a rapidly growing population, rising from 57th in 1955 to 27th in 2019 in global rankings. Presently, the economy is mainly agrarian, with over 80% of the population depending on farming. Three fourths of this population live in rural communities, and a further two fifths relying on agriculture. Tourism is growing as a source of earning for Kenyans because it is a major source of jobs, foreign exchange, and a significant contributor to a country's GDP. According to Akama (1999), Kenya is an excellent example of a developing country that has adopted tourism as a key strategy for socioeconomic growth. Tourism, according to Sindiga (2020), plays a critical role in Kenya's economy, contributing 8.8% of GDP in 2019. Similarly, David Western, Kenya's former Director of Wildlife, claims that tourism revenue now outnumbers tea and coffee by a factor of two (Julius Kipng'etich, 2012).

Kenya's tourism industry can be traced back to colonial times in 1898, when the East African Protectorate Gazette presented legislation, establishing game reserves. A hunting department was established by British authorities in 1907 to manage wildlife and hunting throughout the country. In 1945, land was administered by an independent board of trustees, which set aside national parks. The Nairobi National Park was established in 1946 under this legislation.

Since the 1960s, Kenya's coast has rapidly developed its tourism industry. This expansion has had significant socio-cultural impacts, particularly on the ecology and local economy. Entrepreneurial activity has a significant impact on the ecological and human characteristics of the region. Transportation infrastructure and beach hotels have been upgraded with a view to attracting the rapidly growing international coastal tourism market and its growing demand for sun, sea and sand. Expanding coastal tourism has led private sector developers to seek more beach frontage land for tourism development.

The 1980s were characterised by haphazard mushrooming of hospitality facilities, damaging coastal and marine ecosystems. This was as due to inappropriate land-use, and poorly implemented regulations governing how hospitality facilities and infrastructure are distributed. To maximize profits, most private and international investors placed their capital investments in locations perceived to have high potential for quick profit returns such as the coast. This was at the cost severe dilapidation of resources. Tourist hotels bring revenue, but also degrade delicate lagoons, sand beaches and coral reefs. Tourists tend to flock to these fragile environments, resulting in overcrowding and over-exploitation of these resources. Consequently, the quality of the coastal tourism product is increasingly being reduced.

To overcome these problems, the Kenya Tourist Development Corporation (KTDC) was founded in 1966, following Kenya's independence in 1964. To create local ownership of the tourism industry and reduce influence and ownership by previous colonial powers, KTDC was given the mandate to fund aspirant Kenyans in the industry. Kenyans were historically oppressed by the colonial government and only worked as menial labourers in the tourism industry. In this regard, Dieke (1991, 274) shows that wildlife and beach life are indicators. Kenya was largely emphasised to satisfy the leisure needs of white settlers and periodic European adventures. KTDC began a programme of purchasing shares in foreign-owned businesses to sell them to promising Kenyan entrepreneurs on favourable terms. The truth is that many Kenyans could not afford to invest in the tourism industry because they lacked both financial and technological capital. In the long run, foreign-owned firms, along with a few Kenyan elites (as directors), took advantage of these opportunities and invested jointly in these tourism innovations. Olindo (2018) correctly points out that ibis' creative approach to localizing the tourism industry has failed because distinguishing between international and locally operated tourism firms is nearly impossible.

The Kenya Tourism Board (KTB) was established to market and publicise private tourism. It partnered with the media, and public and private sectors to promote local, regional and international travel to the country. For the past five consecutive years, the World Travel Awards has voted the KTB as a leading African tourist board.

Their mandate includes sustainable tourism development for ensuring that business flourishes, benefits locals, to provide enriching experiences to tourists and to protect the resources. To support its mandate, the KTB established a 12-member Sustainability Committee to realise the KTB Sustainability Policy. This policy focuses on education, social responsibility, conservation, social responsibility, empowerment and heritage preservation. KTB is also diversifying the tourism industry, enabling the spread of the tourism across various parts of the country; and to ensure a thriving tourism industry through the influx of travellers.

Although his point is right, it appears that the government's recent economic liberalization has encouraged more foreign-owned companies to invest in the country's tourism industry. In this case, scholars such as Schuurman (2015) have argued that selling national assets on a large scale to foreign private capital could result in re-colonization and dependence of developing countries on developed countries to the north. The result is a vicious cycle of poverty. The Kenyan director of tourism echoed this sentiment, stating that "liberalisation is resulting in more foreign-owned hotels and tour operators, resulting in little economic gain remaining within the country." (As cited in Castilho and Hertscher 2018:23).

Kenya's government has continued to provide incentives to international investors to this day. These incentives could take the form of tax breaks to allow them to participate in the tourism industry (personal communication with an economist from the Ministry of Tourism and Wildlife, 2020).

Kenya is primarily a mass tourist destination, with most visitors spending a few days sightseeing in the city before venturing out to nearby terrestrial areas such as Amboseli National Park for two to three days of wildlife game watching (Weaver, 2002). Gakahu and Goode (2016) warn that "the big five obsessions has blinded potential visitors to the variety of other choices that Kenya can offer eco-tourists outside of the parks." As a result, it seems that the big five mind-sets are causing more harm than good, as even though visitors visit environmentally sustainable places, they are likely to travel to other destinations as part of their itinerary.

Specialist tour operators, such as green and eco-friendly tour operators, are gaining popularity in the tourism industry today, both of which offer a variety of eco-products. "At one end of the sector is a multitude of medium and small independent operators who are mainly foreign-owned and expatriate staffed," write Castilho and Herrseher (2018.6). They show that when faced with domestic competition, companies are eager to enter the eco-tourism industry. This has led to the development of private conservation areas in developing countries by some independent tour operators.

Kenya became a popular tourist destination after independence in 1964, thanks to the marketing of all-inclusive tour packages from abroad. Tourists flocked to Mombasa and the surrounding National Parks because of the low-cost charter flights. As the number of tourists increased, hotels sprung up all along Kenya's coast. As a result, the government-built infrastructure to support the then-booming boost industry, especially in the coastal provinces.

Between the equator and latitude $4^{\circ} 50'$ south, and longitude $37^{\circ} 30'$ east, lies the Coast Province. It is bordered on the east by the Indian Ocean, on the north by the Somali Republic, on the south by Tanzania, and on the west by the North Eastern, Eastern, and Ritt Valley Provinces. The shoreline runs approximately 480 kilometres from the Somali border at $1^{\circ} 30'S$ to $0.05'S$ in a NE-SW direction. Mombasa, Kilifi, Kwale, Malindi, Lamu, Taita Taveta, and Tana River districts make up the Coast Province administrative region. The Province has a total area of 83,099 km².

Topography

Kenya is located on the eastern part of continental African, and borders the Western Indian Ocean. The country has 640 km of coast line. Mombasa has more than 650,000 residents, and is the largest seaport in Eastern Africa. Therefore, it serves a role in the national and regional economy.

DISTRICTS	AREA (km²)
Mombasa	282
Lamu	6,813
Taita-Taveta	16,813
Tana River	38,782
Kilifi	4,878
Malindi	7,605
Kwale	8,322
Total Area	83,099

Table 2.1: Coast Province Total Area (Km²) Source: RoK, Population Census, Vol. 1 (2010)

The Coast consists of coral reefs, creeks, muddy tidal flats, sandy beaches and rocky shores.

The south eastern and north eastern monsoon winds impact the rainfall patterns across the coast. The rainy season is during late March and early June, which decreases from August. During the rain seasons the coastal strip receives the highest amounts of rain with the amount decreasing inland. The weather is consistent with equatorial latitudes. For example, Mombasa has an annual mean temperature of 26°C.

The area comprising the Coast Province rises gradually from the sea level to 900m on the eastern boundaries. It can be divided into 6 distinct relief regions:

(1) The Coastal Plain

This is a narrow belt whose width varies from about 3Kms in the extreme north to over 50kms near the Tana River delta. It lies generally below 30m except from Malindi northwards where the land occasionally rises to about 60 m. The shores of the coastal plain are made of off-shore coral reefs, which enclose shallow stretches of water known as lagoons and narrow bays, for example, Malindi, Sheshale, and Ungwana. Wave deposition is active resulting in the formation of sandy beaches such as Nyali, Kenyatta, Shanzu, Shelly, and Diani beaches. Other features found here are the Tombolo, sand bars, spits, caves, cliffs, stacks, and wave-cut platforms. All these features attract a large number of tourists to the Coast region.

The tourism industry is developing along the coastline from Lamu on the North, and Diani in the South Coast. Recently, the region has experienced an upsurge in coastal tourism. Two-thirds of the total international tourist arrivals in the whole country visit the coastline. However, in spite of the fact that the Kenyan coast and the tourists visiting bring benefits to the local population through promoting indigenous culture and employment in the hotel industry, there are some adverse effects of this influx. Tourism can cause destructive changes in land use, encroachment into agricultural land, and new socio-cultural problems such as crime, breakdown of traditional Islamic codes of behavior and trivialization of local culture.

(2) The Foot Plateau

The land in this region rises to an altitude of between 60-135m above sea level. The foot is characterized by a flat surface except in a few areas like Mwembe Chungu, Ngoni, and Mtuni hills which rise to over 120m. These hills are of great interest to visitors to the region.

(3) The Coastal Range

The region is characterized by hills and short ranges. These hills include Simba (347m) and Mwangwea (705m), west of the Watamu Wacha and Gaabo. The area contributes significantly to agricultural production which supports the tourist industry in the whole of the coast region.

(4) The Nyika Platform

The Nyika is a dry area that lacks large lakes and rainfall is scarce. Permanent rivers include the Athi and the Tana. Most of the rivers are small and seasonal characterized by dry valleys.

The Mzima springs supply water to Mombasa town as well as the hotels along the coast. This area is also important because it contains the largest national parks in Kenya namely, Tsavo East and Tsavo West.

(5) The Tana River Basin and Lowlands/The Plateau and its residual hills

Both the Tana River and the Residual Hills cover extensive areas which are barren and unproductive. The significance of the Tana River appears during the rainy season when flooding pollutes most of the beaches in Malindi and extends as far as Watamu Marine Park

Various types of tourism activities presently take place in Kenya. These range from photographic nature and hunting safaris through ecotourism, wildlife gaming, cultural tourism, mountain climbing, as well as sun and ocean tourism at Kenya's Indian Ocean amongst others. Map 1.3.2 above indicates the areas where some of the different tourism activities take place.



Figure 2.1 Different Tourism Activities Source: www.mapsofworld.com

2.2 Analysis of sustainable tourism development in East Africa

There is a strong correlation between the tourism industry and key economic sectors of the economy. For instance, the arrival of a tourist has a multiplier effect on the economy. From the figure 2.2 below, it's clear that the influence of the travel industry occurs through direct impact (involving the tourist directly spending money to buy typical tourism products), through the indirect impact (consumption of all intermediate goods by resorts, including products bought from suppliers. Usually forms the tourism supply chain and crucial for the promotion of locally produced goods) or through induced impact (that includes expenditures by employees of the tourism sector or companies that benefit from tourism on locally produced goods and services).

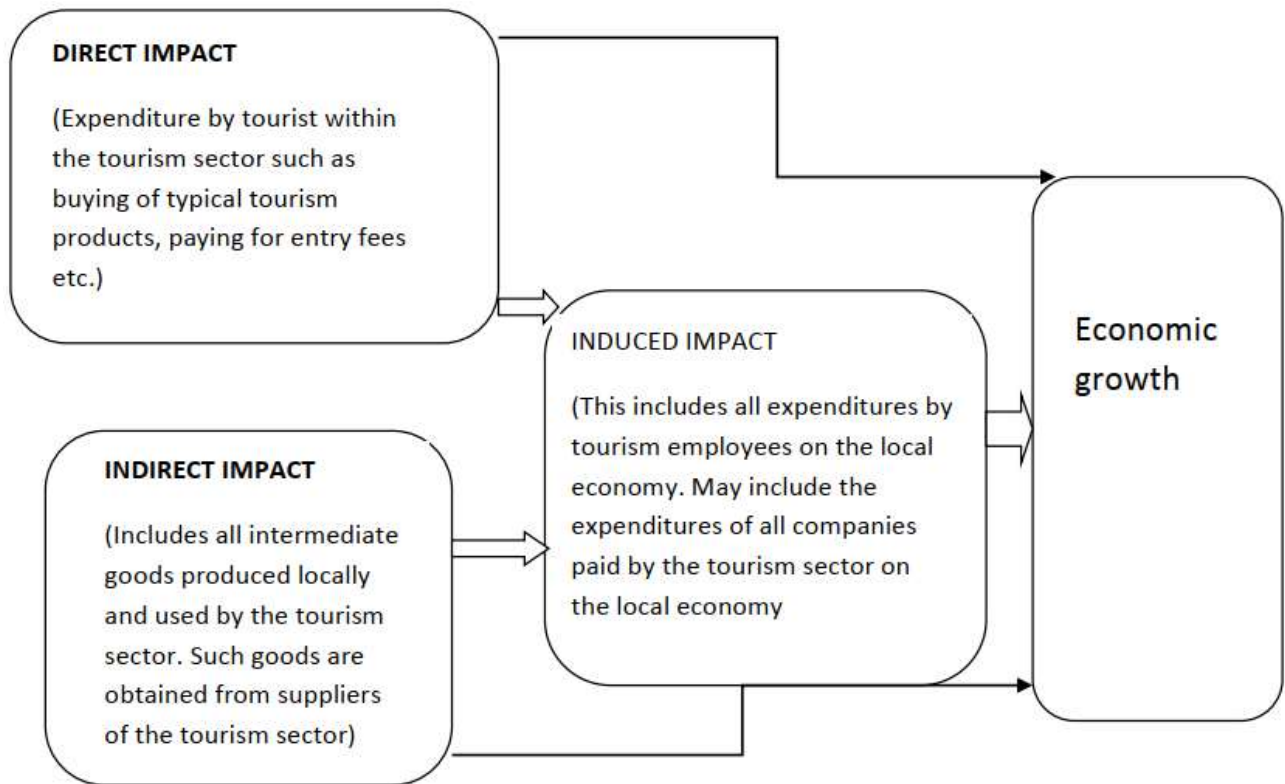


Figure 2.2 Direct and indirect roles of tourism in stimulating economic growth. Adapted from Akama (2016)

A Social Accountability Matrix for Kenya, developed by P. Wobst and B. Schraven (2003), identified 33 main account headings: 33 activities, 33 commodities, primary factors of production (wage payments and indirect business taxes), institutions (households and governments), accumulation, imports/ exports. The factor account is divided into agricultural capital, nonagricultural capital, agricultural labour, and nonagricultural labour.

By measuring the contribution to GDP, primary or extractive activities, including agricultural production, are collectively found to be the mainstay of Kenya's economy, contributing 47.2% of GDP. However, analysis by Valle and Mark (2009) found that, when considered individually, tourism contributes an average of 3% to the aforementioned factor account. Further, secondary or manufacturing and industrial activities are magnified by a factor of 6.5% as a result of tourism. The tertiary sectors, including public and private services together, account for 46.3% of GDP. In this group, private services production accounts for 13% of GDP. The importance of

tourism (included in other private services exports) as a foreign exchange earner is emphasized by its higher contribution to the total export at over 22.1% of exports. It is instructive that transport and food activities follow at 14.4% and 9.7%, respectively. Coffee and tea, the other traditionally important foreign exchange earners for the economy, follow in importance at 9% and 13% of total exports, respectively. The findings of their analysis can be found in Table 2.2.

	Production	Tourism	%	Employ	Tourism employ	%	Value added	Tourism value added	%
1 Maize	64,382	6,290.012	3.72	6,205	606.218	0.57	26,036	2,543.673	3.12
2 Other Cereals	27,967	2,773.053	1.64	2,749	272.576	0.26	23,114	2,291.856	2.81
3 Roots and Tubers	27,938	2,771.417	1.64	6,836	678.074	0.64	14,827	1,470.821	1.80
4 Pulses	47,435	4,642.187	2.74	6,836	668.951	0.63	21,789	2,132.362	2.61
5 Sugar Cane	7,412	691.437	0.41	44,480	4,149.367	3.93	4,196	391.429	0.48
6 Fruits	29,793	2,807.856	1.66	39,013	3,676.799	3.48	16,002	1,508.116	1.85
7 Vegetables	57,360	5,357.007	3.16	5,442	508.243	0.48	24,252	2,264.960	2.77
8 Cutflowers	5,398	0.000	0.00	9,114	0.000	0.00	3,065	0.000	0.00
9 Tea	35,294	646.140	0.38	80,915	1,481.341	1.40	17,196	314.814	0.39
10 Coffee, Green	19,877	51.272	0.03	60,584	156.275	0.15	10,786	27.822	0.03
11 Beef & Veal	27,921	2,830.662	1.67	7,630	773.538	0.73	14,882	1,508.753	1.85
12 Milk & Dairy	36,745	3,651.815	2.16	4,458	443.048	0.42	18,045	1,793.360	2.20
13 Other Livestock	34,791	3,366.604	1.99	18,982	1,836.822	1.74	17,456	1,689.157	2.07
14 Fishing	10,222	926.981	0.55	581	52.688	0.05	8,987	814.985	1.00
15 Forestry & Logging	3,868	272.518	0.16	17,339	1,221.611	1.16	3,452	243.209	0.30
16 Mining	5,602	236.880	0.14	5,259	222.376	0.21	1,434	60.636	0.07
17 Food	291,519	27,074.986	16.00	41,460	3,850.620	3.65	127,802	11,869.680	14.54
18 Textiles, Leather & Footwear	26,194	2,112.114	1.25	57,739	4,655.699	4.41	3,407	274.718	0.34
19 Wood & Paper	23,687	1,316.620	0.78	23,417	1,301.612	1.23	8,127	451.732	0.55
20 Petroleum	135,299	10,059.071	5.94	4,594	341.550	0.32	8,136	604.887	0.74
21 Other Chemicals	22,084	1,392.557	0.82	15,209	959.038	0.91	5,389	339.816	0.42
22 Non metallic	35,901	2,256.188	1.33	16,208	1,018.587	0.96	11,957	751.434	0.92
23 Metal Products (incl. Mach & Equ)	25,362	1,849.178	1.09	37,141	2,708.001	2.56	3,934	286.833	0.35
24 Electricity, Gas & Water	34,937	2,468.652	1.46	24,576	1,736.543	1.64	6,561	463.601	0.57
25 Construction	29,702	406.858	0.24	88,994	1,219.039	1.15	14,069	192.717	0.24
26 Trade	153,488	11,925.574	7.05	161,834	12,574.034	11.90	86,925	6,753.821	8.27
27 Transport & Communication	129,272	6,445.669	3.81	81,317	4,054.571	3.84	90,355	4,505.217	5.52
28 Owned Housing	28,489	2,110.986	1.25	3,353	248.452	0.24	27,070	2,005.840	2.46
29 Other Private Services	174,326	57,222.228	33.81	105,159	34,518.272	32.68	100,770	33,077.590	40.51
30 Public Admin	79,815	4,994	0.00	162,801	10.186	0.01	22,393	1,401	0.00
31 Education	81,709	3,991.226	2.36	315,921	15,431.742	14.61	7,614	371.920	0.46
32 Health	28,823	1,310.565	0.77	93,533	4,252.892	4.03	14,055	639.073	0.78
33 Agr Services	14,732	6.557	0.00	26,759	11.909	0.01	8,594	3.825	0.00
	1,757,344	169,269.864	100.00	1,576,437	105,640.674	100.00	772,677	81,650.058	100.00
		9.63			6.70			10.57	

Table 2.2 Interactivity and Commodities Transactions, Households, Labour, and Capital Payments as a result of tourism. Adapted from Valle and Mark (2009)

The impact of climate change

These economic benefits are vulnerable, particularly to the effects of global warming and climate change. This is due to an absence of financial, institutional and technological means to address these problems. Rising sea level could create flooding, increased storm surges, land erosion, and intrusion of saltwater. The extent of the sea level will vary from place to place and will be affected by geology, topography and other human activities.

Climate models show that, over the next several decades, sea level is expected to continue to rise. The global average sea level is projected to rise at the end of the 21st century. For instance, a considerable population and economic assets are estimated to be found in Mombasa's low-lying coastal zone. It is estimated that an increase in sea level of just 30 cm could result in 17% of the city being submerged. This sea level increase, therefore, poses considerable economic threat. Mombasa has experienced frequent climate-related disasters, such as severe flooding which occurred in October 2006. Intense rainfall, affected approximately 60,000 people in the city, caused infrastructure damage.

The rise in sea levels, coupled with an increase in intense and extreme weather events, such as storm surges, can increase low lying areas being inundated, salt water intrusion shoreline erosion. This leads to salinity levels increasing in coastal aquifers. This will influence the ecosystem and therefore adversely affect tourism. Furthermore, these processes impact agriculture, fishing, infrastructure, marine parks and water resources. Warm sea temperatures, severe weather events, and rising sea-levels will destroy coral reefs, which protect the coast. In turn, this can cause deforestation of mangrove swamps, which are coastal attractions for tourists. This deforestation leads to further coastal erosion, adversely affecting vulnerable species.

Globally, temperatures have risen by about 0.74°C on average in the last century. The average global surface temperature, Temperatures have warmed by 0.7°C in Africa over the twentieth century. This will increase mean annual temperatures. It is projected that

the temperature will increase from 1° to 3.5°C by 2050s. It is likely that the rising summer heat will adversely impact the numbers of international tourists arriving in the country to visit the coastal areas. Further, rising temperatures will boost the demand for cooling, exerting significant pressure on the energy budget. For instance, a significant cooling demand in Mombasa has been seen a rise of 240-340% in cooling burden.

Higher temperatures also heat the sea's surface, causing an expansion in water volume and therefore intensifying rising sea levels. Climate change will adversely alter Kenyan coastal biodiversity, as various animal and fish species struggle to survive in their rapidly changing ecological conditions. The warming sea surfaces, increase in frequency of extreme weather conditions, destroying coral reefs. A loss of coral reef can cause coastal erosion, presenting major coastal management issues in both Kenya and neighbouring Tanzania. The impact of ocean warming on coral reefs was clearly evidenced by the 1997/1998 extreme El Nino bleaching the coral reef, which contributed to a 30% loss of the reef and reducing tourism in Mombasa causing a financial loss amounting to US \$12-18 million.

Currently, tourism is threatened by climate change, and the threat will increase over time. Temperature, rainfall, and extreme climate events are on increase. All these contribute to the destruction of tourist destinations, reducing traveller activities and adversely impacting revenue generation. The threats posed by climate change to tourism can adversely impact coastal residents who do not have the alternatives. Therefore, it is essential that natural existing attraction sites are maintained.

A World Bank (2010) report found that there are four critical issues threatening the tourism sector in Kenya. Firstly, the report observes that degrading natural assets threaten the future development of tourism. As observed earlier, increasing populations of people and invasive cultivation practices threaten sustainable development of the sector. Further, overdevelopment and overcrowding create threats, which are compounded by cross-jurisdictional policy challenges, limiting how effectively land and wildlife management. Moreover, coastal assets are being unevenly used and

developed. To address these issues, the report recommends the creation of an enabling cross-jurisdictional entities to effectively manage natural assets. Further, there is a need to develop integrated destination expansion plans based on effective regulation.

Secondly, the development of the private sector is impaired by limited access to finance, complicated taxation and regulation and licensing schemes; and shortage of technical expertise. Insufficient public services and infrastructure impair the development of a competitive and economically viable tourism experience in destination areas. Increased access to finance for private sector operators can, therefore, boost the tourism sector. Further, effectively utilising technical assistance to foster business development and increasing public-private partnerships to support environmentally sustainable electricity, water, and sanitation systems in tourism development areas. Further development of transport infrastructure could also improve access, facilitating wider involvement by local and indigenous communities.

Thirdly, inadequately trained labour forces reduce the sector's ability to be and competitive. This lack of adequately trained labour for developing coastal destinations. To address this issue, assessing labour forces and training needs for tourism products to build career paths for workers, boosting professionalization. Establishing a hospitality and tourism education programme in the coastal region, expand efforts to train wildlife guides, and developing public-private partnerships to support demand-driven skills training nationally can improve the tourism industry development.

2.3. Evaluating the effectiveness of sustainable tourism development management in East Africa

Out of the 219 hotel establishments in the country in 1976, 34% could be found in the Coast. One advantage of a rapidly growing tourist industry is an increase in job openings. The creation of tourist sector employment opportunities requires training farmers to be workers in semi-skilled roles. Training these people is expensive. This has the potential to reduce the profitability of investment in the tourist industry. Declining profits might necessitate foreign investment or local government involvement. 80% of visitors to the Coast come from Europe. Domestic tourism accounts for 6% and 9%, while North America accounts for 6.5%.

Often, the desire to maximise profits comes at the cost of sociocultural and environmental factors. Tourism is spread across multiple sectors, ranging from fishing, transport and hospitality. Women often occupy office roles and chamber maids. A higher proportion of hotels in Kenya provide full dining facilities than in Europe where there is often a range of restaurants to choose from. Consequently, Kenyan hotels employ greater numbers of people as staff for kitchen and dining room staff.

Tourist expenditures are tapped out of the host country through hotel construction, and the development of relevant supportive infrastructure for the tourist industry. This requires equipment and materials unavailable to lower and middle income economies, such as air-conditioning, elevators, vehicles, and food and drink. This importation cost places an unduly high foreign exchange burden for constructing international-standard tourist.

Beyond the costs of imported goods, the industry's hotels are owned by international chains which take a significant percentage of the profits overseas in the form of remissions. Further, most of the highest-paying positions are usually held by expatriates, who spend money on imported goods and bank their savings abroad. International hotel chains may well be retained through public and private partnerships

or services contracts which may yield better returns than if they actually owned the hotels.

Airlines and tourist operators are becoming increasingly powerful as a result of their position in the market. This increases their hold on the entire industry. Thus, international hotel chains are often developed in conjunction with airlines, while tour operators have built up their own airlines to carry the tourists. The development of computerised reservation systems can increase occupancy rates, thus increasing the hold of international chains,

The host country has problems in directly selling services to tourists. National tourist offices in tourist-generating countries will only attract potential tourists who have already decided on their holiday destination. International tour operators generate more business than any single national office. The direct approach aims to increase advertising, thereby influencing the tourist before they go into the travel agent. Expensive advertising campaign can use a sizable portion of the foreign exchanged expected to be generated by the tourist industry.

A possible result of the economic exclusion of locals from tourism is a deep-seated resentment towards the industry throughout Kenyan society. The sector has been viewed as 'parasitic', resulting in resentment and a 'dependency. The sociocultural 'costs' of tourism are often not easy to quantify.

Based on this literature, a model has been developed in an effort to clarify the elements liable for supportability of the travel industry area and advancement the board. It uncovered the prevailing job the vacationer business just as the in the waterfront economy, and how the provincial traveller industry goes about as an umbrella under which any remaining related areas are housed. This can be found in Figure 2.3.

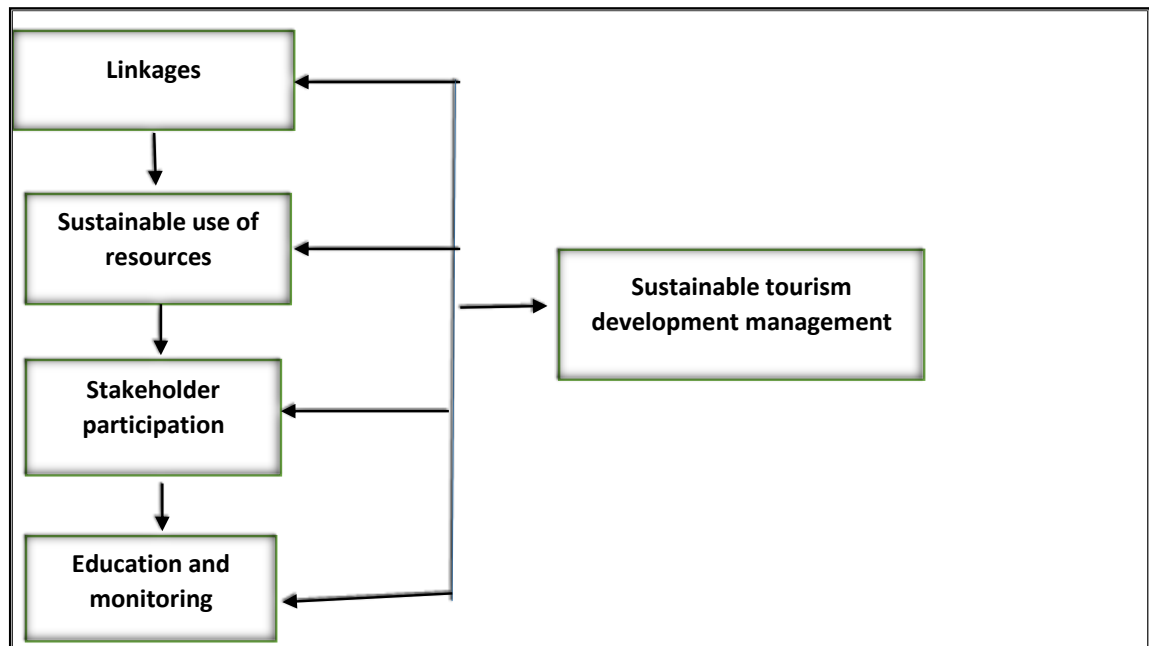


Figure 2.3. Elements liable for supportability of the travel industry

These elements are below:

1. Linkages and sustainable tourism development management

Forward linkages create between waterfront places of interest, visit working firms, inns and the territorial vacationer industry. These connections go about as a local multiplier where payment is appropriated to different areas of the economy through the improvement of neighbourhood abilities, e g handcrafts, and trinkets. It likewise prompts the improvement of foundation, for example, schools and wellbeing focuses, and empowers the development of different areas of the economy like agribusiness and fishing exercises.

Aware of the way that practicality that the travel industry is a vital part of feasible turn of events, maintainable the travel industry arranging, advancement and the board ought not to be done in disconnection. Indeed, legitimate arranging and the executives are the fundamental keys to fruitful the travel industry advancement at the underlying and operational stages individually. Ill-conceived and oversaw (reasonable) the travel industry adventures are destined to be grievous to the host networks, visitors

and the actual spot as experience has demonstrated (Tosun and Timothy, 2001; Tosun, 2000).

2. Sustainable use of resources and sustainable tourism development management

Reasonable the travel industry advancement supports the utilization and protection of normal, social and social assets. For this to be successfully evolved, legitimate arranging and the executive's rules must be set somewhere near the specialists worried about due thought to the natural and HR. In these rules, standards and arrangements, care ought to be taken to ensure that these assets are ideally, fittingly and proportionately utilized through empowering dynamic participation that between the different partners. (Harris et al., 2002).

3. Stakeholder participation and sustainable tourism development management

Dynamic partner interest is supported and requested of all gatherings at all phases of the turn of events and operational cycle. In economical the travel industry improvement the executives, the neighbourhood networks (which before now where side-lined by the administrations and financial backers) are called upon and empowered by the public authority and industry administrators to take on dynamic parts in the entire interaction of the travel industry advancement from origination through wanting to execution and operationalization (Getz and Timur, 2005).

4. Education and monitoring and sustainable tourism development management

On the off chance that people in the future have a possibility of profiting by our ecological and sociocultural legacy, at that point these must be secured and with the end goal for these to be better ensured and rationed, all partners working in the travel

industry should be accomplished and prepared by specialists from the public authority, visit administrators and nongovernmental associations (NGOs) on the advantages of maintainable the travel industry as well as on the need to create, oversee and practice the travel industry structures which are earth, socio-socially and financially feasible. The travel industry faculty ought to be constantly prepared and instructed in meetings, workshops and classes on the significance of keeping up and noticing maintainability standards just as on the procedures and methodologies which can be utilized to screen and quantify the adequacy of these standards so guest fulfilment is ensured and the assets are not annihilated (ICRT, 2002)

SECTION 3. IMPROVEMENT OF TOURISM MANAGEMENT IN KENYA

3.1 Ways to overcome weaknesses in sustainable tourism development in East Africa

To identify the ways of overcoming difficulties in sustainable development, this section is devoted to the results obtained from the researcher's in-depth interviews and observations during fieldwork. It starts with a summary of the different interviewees' sample profiles and their positions in Kenya's tourism industry.

This section also summarises the results of interviews with tourism officials, hotel managers, tourists, Kenya's Ministries of Tourism, Culture, and Forestry, representatives from local communities and popular initiative groups (CIGs), and Kenya-based tour operators about the condition of the tourism industry in Kenya.

The researcher interviewed a total of 168 respondents with 90 females and 78 males from various walks of life. These ranged from tourists, tourist officials, village tourist centres, local residents, hotel managers, tour operators and curio owners. Figure 3.1 illustrates the percentage of the individuals interviewed during the research.

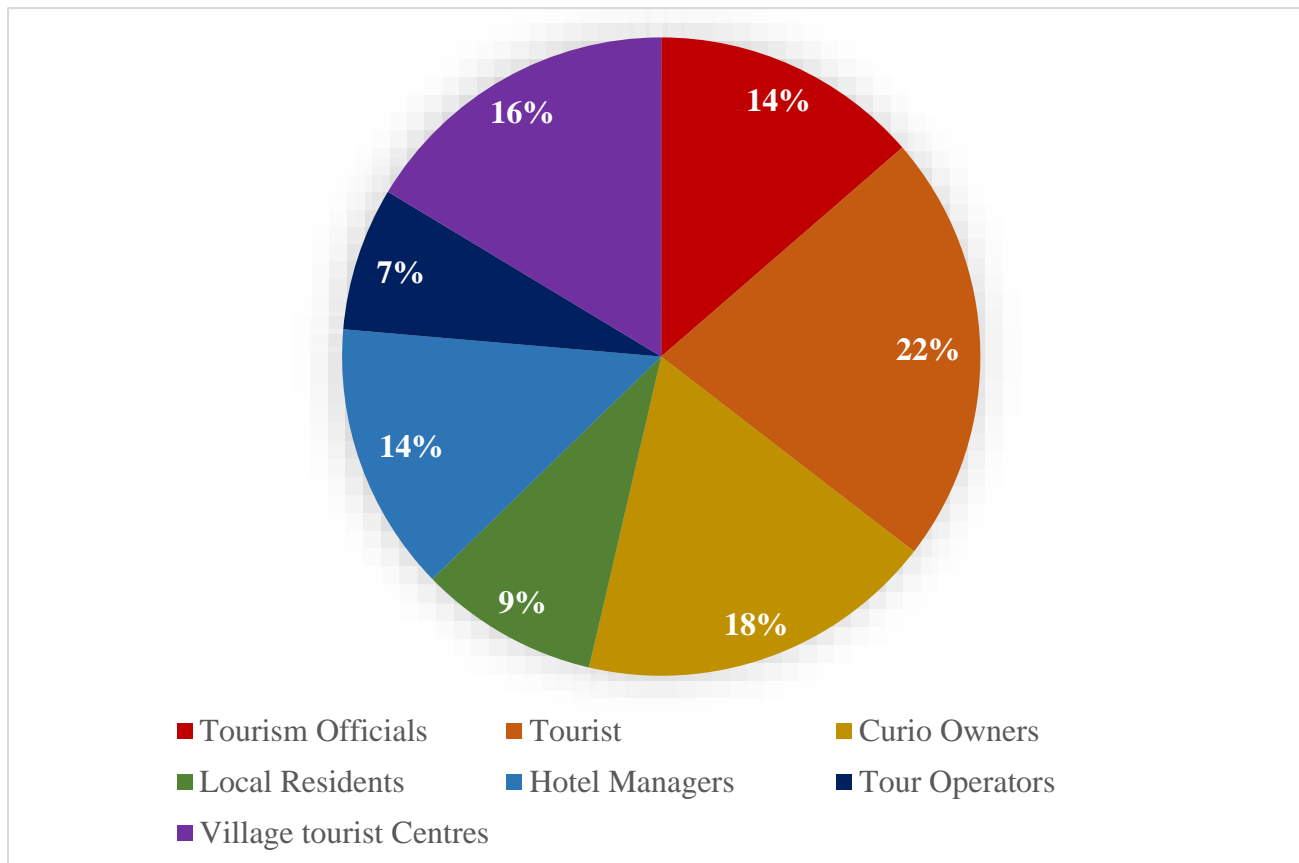


Figure 3.1: Groups of Individuals interviewed

The figure indicates that among all respondents, 8% were Tour Operator, 10% were Local Residents, 15% were Tourism Officials, 15% were Hotel Managers, 18% were Village tourist Centre workers, 20% were Curio Owners, and 24% were Tourists.

These results, when combined with field observations and secondary data collected in Kenya during the fieldtrip (which provide information about some of the sites visited), provide a "thick" overview of Kenya's level of sustainable tourism growth and management (Denzin, 2015).

Observation data is used to give more weight (or to point out inconsistencies) to the information gathered through in-depth interviews (dealing with the details of the history, management and preservation as well as contextual information about the level of tourism development, availability of service and other related infrastructure and commoditization of the particular sites visited and Kenya in general). Despite the depth of the interviews, it was possible to group the data produced into two main categories of evaluative factors required for sustainable tourism development management in

Kenya after reading and analysing the interviews as well as reading and re-reading the field notes, from which some key themes emerged. The first was made up of core factors that could directly contribute to and have an impact on tourism growth and management, while the second was made up of supporting factors that could promote and speed up the process of developing a sustainable tourism industry in the region, even if they were not directly related.

The first group of inferential variables looked at issues that have a direct impact on Kenya's tourism industry and its growth management. The following key concepts emerged from the debate, and have been summarised in Figure 3.1.

a) Tourism policy

During the discussions with all stakeholders, the existence of a general tourism management policy system, as well as a sustainable tourism policy for Kenya, was discussed early on. There was no clearly established strategy for the growth and management of tourism in general, and sustainable tourism in Kenya in particular, according to all respondents interviewed. This was also the case at MINCULT, where there was no specific policy in place at the time of the research for using the country's cultural resources as a tool for tourism growth. The above response clearly points the significance of tourism policy and stakeholders' involvement.

The discussion also focused on how a large utilization of imported goods and services means that prices are affected by exchange rates. Therefore, some certain destinations will be relatively cheaper or expensive. Since international tourism is highly competitive, and several destinations offer a similar experience, slight changes in prices result in people going to other destinations. Economic situations affect both the extent of Kenya's tourist flows and receipts. For Kenya to benefit from tourism trends, it must develop policies aimed to improve its attraction to foreign tourists, improve standards and quality of product, but must also execute these programs in a

careful, sensitive, and planned way that ensures the cooperation of the local communities.

b) Finance

Both interviewees agreed that finance is one of the most important requirements for the successful development of a sustainable tourism industry not only in Kenya but around the world. The availability of funds for project creation was seen as a major benefit that aided in the implementation of major reforms and the achievement of successful development in the tourism industry, both in the public and private sectors. As opposed to all other ministries, MINTOUR and MINCULT had the largest budgets. As of 2018, the annual budget for both ministries were expected to be Sh790 billion. Based on the above response of the respondents, the researcher identified a significance with Sustainable use of resources and Finance.

The socio-economic activities practiced by local communities are diverse, and can include agriculture, farming animals, cottage industries, tourism and hospitality activities, small- and medium-size retail enterprises, and financial services scattered throughout rural regions. These activities compete over land and related resources. To prioritise the development of tourism, adequate financing is required to incentivise the local population to work in the tourism industry.

Further, financing is required for adequate development of supportive transportation and infrastructure projects. This includes money for marketing, publicity and education. These will be explored in greater detail below.

c) Marketing and publicity

Relatable, controlled tourism marketing, which is a critical component of long-term tourism development, has been a priority for MINTOUR since its inception (in theory). Nonetheless, all of the interviewees agreed that very little is currently being

done to promote the country's reputation as a desirable tourist destination abroad. Despite the fact that a Tourism Marketing Plan was drawn up for the MINTOUR in 2002, it was only partially implemented due to mismanagement of finance and tourism professionals, according to one respondent. Kenya has often attended international tourism fairs, but financial mismanagement has made it much more difficult for the tourism industry to flourish to its full potential. From the view of the respondents, there is also a significance with marketing and publicity with Sustainable use of resources.

d) Enabling themes

After a review of the stakeholder interviews, the second category of evaluative factors emerged, which included the state of service infrastructure, human resource growth in the sector, government and community prioritization of the travel and tourism industry, the effects of sub-regional political stability, and internal security in Kenya as a tourist destination.

e) Service infrastructure

Accommodation, transportation, protection, and public health facilities and programmes are examples of service infrastructure that indirectly but ultimately contribute to making a destination appealing to tourists. The nature and quality of these facilities in a destination have a huge effect on whether it is popular or not.

f) Accommodation

Over the last decade, the country has seen a substantial rise in the number of lodging establishments. Accommodation was thus not a problem in the major cities, but it was difficult to find quality accommodation facilities in the hinterland to meet tourist demand. The majority of the hotels had been built, and were still being built, without the Ministry of Town Planning and Housing's permission. As a result, some of

them struggled to meet international and national requirements, resulting in a high prevalence of hotels offering poor service.

g) Transportation infrastructure

One of the stumbling blocks for the sustainable development of tourism in Kenya, according to the interviewees, is the general transportation infrastructure into and throughout Kenya. During the discussions, ground and air transportation, which were the two key modes of locomotion into and out of the country, were discussed.

From the above revealed, the researcher acknowledged that Service infrastructure, accommodation and transport and transport infrastructure have a significance with linkages in the sustainable tourism development in Kenya.

h) Human resource development

All respondents viewed a lack of well-trained and skilled staff, as well as the actions of some tourism industry employees, as a major hindrance to the growth of a sustainable nature and cultural tourism industry in Kenya. "There is a shortage of skilled staff, and the problem is very serious," one respondent said. "If we build institutions and the people are not well educated, they will not be dynamic, and they will collapse into ruin immediately." From the view of the respondents, there is also a significance with human resource development with Sustainable use of resources.

i) Tourism industry prioritisation

The tourism industry was and continues to be a relatively unknown economic field in Kenya, according to all interviewees, and its growth has been prioritised by either the government or local communities. One respondent said, "...the [journalists] take time to go around and examine the condition of the tourism industry or speak with tour operators and other stakeholders." This demonstrates the importance of tourism

not only in government, but also in the media and culture at large.” As a result, the government and local authorities will gain a lot of information about organisation, management, and profits from the industry. Based on the above response of the respondents, the researcher identified a significance with the tourism industry prioritisation with the education and monitoring in the sustainable tourism development in Kenya.

j) Geopolitical situation and internal security

Given that visitors prefer to avoid places where natural or political disasters occur, all of the interviewees regarded regional and national security as critical factors in determining whether a destination is appealing or not. Even though Kenya was politically relatively peaceful and prosperous, they all agreed that political instability in most of the region's neighbouring countries had a major impact on the region's attractiveness as a potential tourist destination. As a result, the tourism sector was negatively impacted.

Tourism Policy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • There was no clearly established strategy for the growth and management of tourism in general, and sustainable tourism
Finance	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • MINTOUR and MINCULT had the largest budgets. As of 2018, the annual budget for both ministries were expected to be Sh790 billion.
Marketing and publicity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • little is currently being done to promote the country's reputation as a desirable tourist destination abroad.
Service and Infrastructure	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Accommodation, transportation, protection, and public health facilities
Accommodation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Difficult to find quality accommodation facilities in the hinterland to meet tourist demand.
Transportation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ground and air transportation, which were the two key modes of locomotion into and out of the country, were discussed
Human resource development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack of well-trained and skilled staff

Figure 3.1. Summary of findings

3.2 Rationale for the improvement of sustainable tourism development in East Africa

This segment examines how exact discoveries impact the improvement of places of interest in various pieces of the world. The point of this part is to set up the current holes, shortcomings and impediments of past examinations. An endeavour will be made to fill existing holes and correct shortcomings.

The concept of sustainable development was developed by the Brundtland Commission in *Our Common Future* (1987). The economic activities associated with tourism has an effect on the destination's environment. The environment is considered to be a major pull-factor for tourists, making a destination desirable and attractive. This, the environment is an indispensable asset to the industry, and protecting the environmental resources are major consideration for the industry.

Tourism often presents indigenous communities with one of the few opportunities for local development, employment and revenue generation. It is to be noted that intensive tourism is equivalent to killing the goose which lays the golden egg., as it has an adverse effect on fragile coastal ecosystems.

The tourism industry's positive, as well as its perceived or real negative contributions, include its impact on environmental, social and economic indicators. Guidelines for the evaluation of sustainable tourism project planning and development focus on meeting the needs of tourists, as well as raising the living standards and conditions of locals. Five types of environmental indicators are listed below:

- Fragility of ecosystems and biodiversity
- Waste disposal
- Water consumption
- Intensity of land use and physical impact

Protection of the atmosphere, noise level and visual impact.

Adholla (2016), inspected the effect of the travel industry on the beach front populace. He uncovered that the business produced occupations and utilized a bigger number of individuals than most different enterprises in a similar area. The nearby individuals, in any case, didn't straightforwardly profit by the business since work was by and large offered to all Kenyans. The present circumstance perseveres and keeps on encouraging financial inconsistencies and a condition of backwardness which should be tended to limit the monetary holes existing in the area.

Karenga (2002) sees that the part of eco-the travel industry is significant in limiting the effect of the travel industry on the climate. He contends that the advancement of neighbourhood culture will help with beating the current set-backs, making the travel industry more alluring to a more prominent the travel industry market in future. His examination, in view of the Severing Sea Lodge at the coast, advocates the utilization of locally accessible materials like the district's foliage for covering, and the consolidation of conventional engineering plans in arranging resorts with the goal that visitors can learn and better appreciate the set of experiences, just as climate of the area. He underscores that customary abilities and gifts can be used in nearby settings to make a more appealing business sector in the business, since it doesn't invigorate development as different areas do. This investigation is to decide how neighbourhood abilities can be used to animate territorial development and increase the expectations of living of the nearby individuals.

Musyoki et al. (2010) stresses local area investment and responsibility for scale traveller undertakings. This is seen as a more practical method of turning the travel industry vehicle towards achieving the objective of confidence and monetary supportability of the nearby individuals in the waterfront district. While proprietorship advances between social communications, a multiplier impact in horticulture, the crafted works and transport areas, waterfront places of interest will in general elevate a group to-individuals the travel industry which will offer vacationers a chance to meet individuals from various social foundations, where the recipients of these traveller exercises will be simply the neighbourhood local area. Albeit this view is firmly

identified with this investigation, it needs subtleties on how the focuses are to be coordinated and how the advantages stream straightforwardly from the business to the focuses. Henceforth, the requirement for a serious examination on the connection among the travel industry and local turn of events.

Odhiambo (2012) contends that joblessness has become a major issue in underdeveloped nations. ILO (2014), perceiving the issue, asked the public authority to address the expanding issue of joblessness by urging the populace to take up different sorts of pay producing projects. The majority of the casual exercise's individuals take part in and the inconsistent expansion of limited scope casual traveller exercises is as of now a reaction to this call. The Kenya Government has put a ton of accentuation on the formation of new work openings as a method of checking joblessness issues and mitigating destitution through proceeded with public development (RoK 2000-2015). Beach front places of interest have, nonetheless, not been tended to as an elective item which could facilitate the issue of joblessness at the coast district.

Opperman (2000) communicates fulfilment with the local area exercises of Tortuguero who created sporting exercises, for example, nature arranged excursions, and kayak guided Visits Ocean turtle strolls and so forth these exercises are said to create income predictable with eco-the travel industry goals. From this examination information, half of the family (57%) had in any event one individual utilized straightforwardly in have administrations, and the majority of the organizations were staffed by occupants dissimilar to different organizations which didn't uphold the neighbourhood local area. This examination brings up the positive commitment of the travel industry to the local area where lion's share cooperation is useful to all. Culture frames the establishment of these diversion communities which Opperman appears to overlook.

Irandu (2009) advocates the foundation of traveller towns or privately-run visitor houses which could give a high financial multiplier impact and permit the populace to assume a larger part in the responsibility for vacationer industry. He proposes that

neighbourhood individuals offer nearby items to lodgings as a method of using agrarian assets and diminishing imports. The job of town places of interest is featured in this investigation; however, a satisfactory clarification is missing regarding how the produced pay is to be circulated to acquire a critical change the district. The current investigation targets overcoming this issue.

Rahman (2001) talks about the part of culture in advancing the travel industry. He expresses that the personality of a country is identified with its way of life which normally won't be equivalent to that of different countries. Subsequently, public and private associations have a task to carry out in the advancement of a country's way of life. One significant impact of the conservation and improvement of culture is its potential for pulling in vacationers to a country. As the travel industry builds the resultant monetary assets can be reused to allow broadening inside the way of life and thus increment its allure to Culture is too rich to possibly be limited to a solitary job, subsequently, the requirement for additional examination to set up whether town focuses assume any critical part in the seaside district.

Ryan (2010) contends that sightseers want to have a more profound inclusion with the general public and the way of life of the local area facilitating them, which helps in building up a connection between the two. Sightseers relate to the local area by collaborating with those in nearby shops, lodgings and films, with drivers and aides where they set up well-disposed binds with the neighbourhood individuals. The sightseers are portrayed as investing energy to make themselves agreeable in the organization of the neighbourhood individuals. Despite the fact that association makes a friendly relationship that draws in travellers back to the local area, it ought to be noticed that this collaboration can be a significant wellspring of financial advantage to the local area on the grounds that the relationship is a connection between the waterfront places and the vacationer business.

It is important to understand stakeholder perceptions in order to ensure sustainable planning and management of resources. The impacts of sustainable tourism can be perceived differently across community members, and can vary between interested and affected parties. Without this context, sustainable management plans prove ineffective, hindering the goal of meeting beliefs or perceptions.

3.3. Effectiveness of improving sustainability of tourism development in East Africa

The findings of the data collection and analysis can be assessed through the conceptual framework elaborated in Figure 2.3.

1. Linkages and sustainable tourism development management

It has been observed earlier that forward linkages act as a local multiplier, wherein payment is appropriated to different areas of the economy through the improvement of neighbourhood abilities, e.g. handcrafts, and trinkets. These linkages are impaired, however, by poor quality accommodations and transport facilities, particularly in the hinterlands. Ill-conceived and poorly supervised tourism sectors may adversely affect the host networks, visitors and the local environment. These linkages must include improvement of the security situation, as this can negatively impact the rise in tourism in the region. Details are presented in Figure 3.2.

These linkage systems also include security, as it serves as a sustainable benefit for both the locals and tourists. During their stay and transit, tourists be provided with a reasonable assurance of adequate safety. Local people must also be confident that their well-being will benefit, and that tourists are not going to steal their property and religious artefacts. This requires resources to be spent in both fortifying sites and cordoning-off local security threats. This applies to both the tourist site and transit. Local people must be made aware of the potential benefits tourism may bring. If they can see their local economies improving without local values, cultures and traditions being compromised. Security is both social and psychological

These challenges offer significant opportunities, though, as appropriately formulated public-private partnerships, guaranteed by effective policy, can meaningfully improve these linkages. As the findings indicate, there is considerable growth in the industry, which has been prioritised by both the government or local communities.

These linkages can help address insufficient capacity building for tour guides, and help in developing training programmes for local workers.

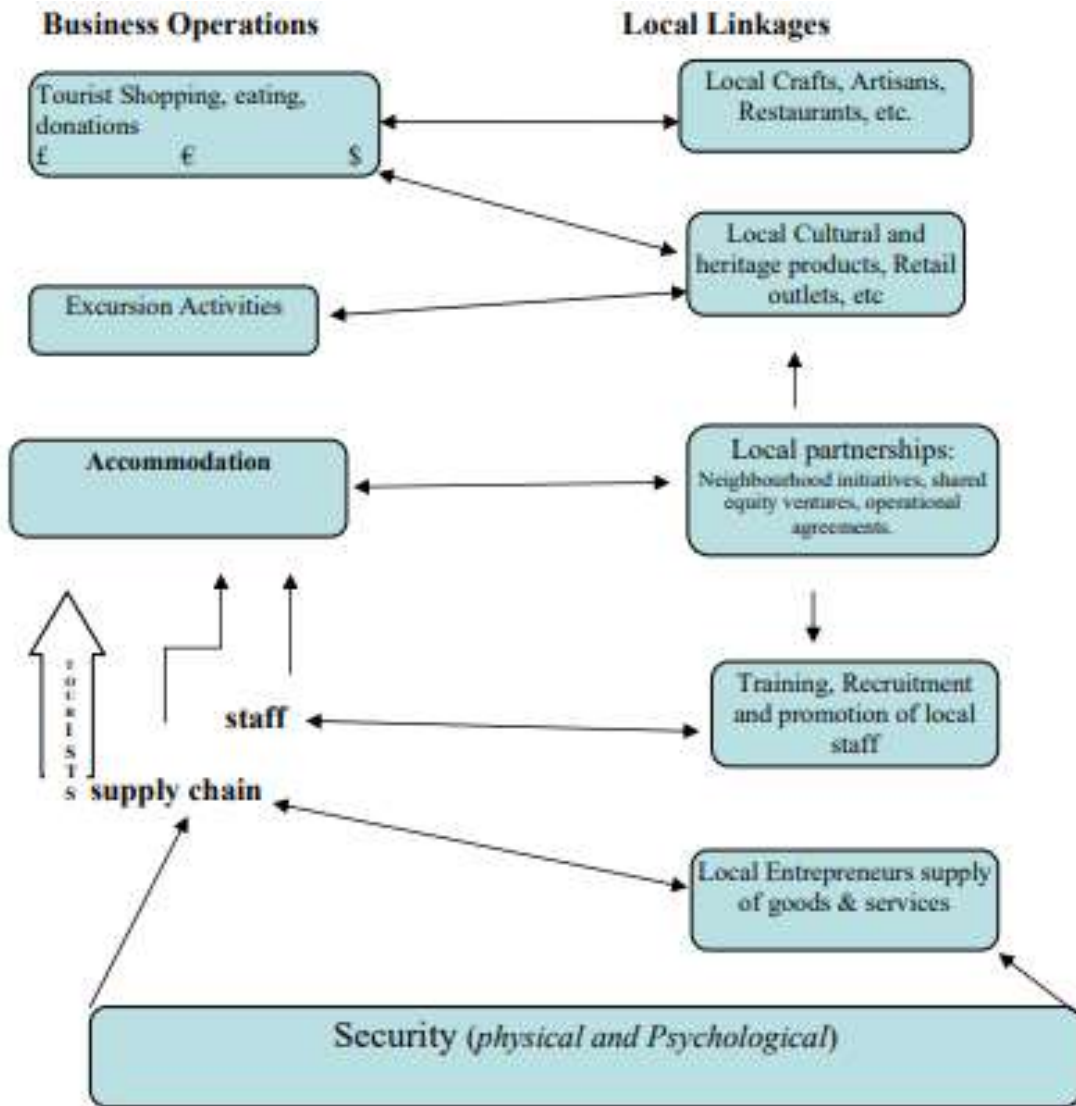


Figure 3.2. Linkages between tourism and local economies

2. Stakeholder participation and sustainable tourism development management

The absence of clear-cut tourism policy curbs the potential of dynamic partner interest at all phases of the turn of events and operational cycle. Although it has been observed that the tourism industry has among the largest budgetary share, the lack of policy may result in the ineffective distribution of these funds. This may explain Valle and Mark (2009)'s observation that tourism does not contribute as much to Kenya's GDP as would otherwise be expected.

This is mitigated by the significant amount of funding directed towards tourism. In economic terms, the travel industry improves the neighbourhood networks (which before now were side-lined by the administrations and financial backers) are called upon and empowered by the public authority and industry administrators to take on dynamic parts in the entire interaction of the travel industry advancement from origination through wanting to execution and operationalization (Getz and Timur, 2005). Stakeholder participation can be both formally and informally. Participation includes numerous activities, and is categorised as: "Non-participation", "Degrees of Tokenism" and "Degrees of Citizen Power".

Non-participation may seem to be a form of public participation, allowing planners to explain their decisions to the stakeholders. These stakeholders have no input in the decision, but are informed of it.

"Degrees of Tokenism" describe how stakeholders are allowed to voice their interests. While stakeholders have no power to influence decisions, they still have a forum to voice their concerns.

Degrees of Citizen Power involve stakeholders not only being able to voice their interests, but allows them to impact the decisions being made. This approach allows locals to be more involved in decision-making.

Stakeholders must be involved throughout the entire planning and management process. For stakeholder participation to be successful, the involvement needs to be

fair, effective, wise, stable and filled with knowledge. Stakeholders' interests must be taken into account fairly during the process.

3. Sustainable use of resources and sustainable tourism development management

Sustainable development is one that meets the needs of the present generation without impairing future generations' ability to meet their requirements. This involves protecting local heritage and the environment, preserving essential ecological processes; ensuring that productivity can be sustained into the long-term future. Sustainable resource usage is predicated on economic development, environmental protection and social development. These aim to ensure adequate balance between the environment and society.

Sustainable tourism requires maintaining essential ecological processes, conserving natural and cultural heritage, and using environmental resources. Further, optimal resource utilisation also requires conserving cultural heritage and traditional values, and respecting the socio-cultural authenticity of host communities. Ensuring viable, long-term economic operations requires the provision of socio-economic benefits to all stakeholders are fairly distributed, particularly for poverty alleviation and income-earning opportunities and social services to host communities.

Sustainable tourism development requires the informed participation of all relevant stakeholders, as well as strong political leadership to ensure wide participation and consensus building. Achieving sustainable tourism is a continuous process and it requires constant monitoring of impacts, introducing the necessary preventive and/or corrective measures whenever necessary. Sustainable tourism should also maintain a high level of tourist satisfaction and ensure a meaningful experience to the tourists, raising their awareness about sustainability issues and promoting sustainable tourism practices amongst them.

Using resources sustainably; reducing overconsumption and waste; maintaining diversity; integrating tourism into planning; supporting and involving local economies; consulting stakeholders and the public; and ensuring staff are adequately trained.

4. Education and monitoring and sustainable tourism development management

For local communities to earn a profit from their ecological and sociocultural legacy, these must be secured and with the end goal for these resources to be better ensured and rationed. It has been observed that serious shortages of skilled staff, are compounded by the absence of training institutions and a poorly educated workforce, resulting in an absence of appropriate specialists from the public authority, administrators and nongovernmental associations (NGOs). This reduces the likelihood of developing standards for sustainable tourism development.

By incorporating both environmental awareness and management into staff training, it would be easier to implement environmental policies in the tourism industry. Adequate staff training regarding both the importance and complexities of tourism within a socioeconomic and environmental context would further foster the staff's pride in what they do. Further, this would lead to improved experiences for tourists as well as for host communities and the broader industry. Staff occupying front-office roles in hotels and travel agencies, tour guides and travel agencies, all are front-facing roles, for which staff must be adequately trained. Their opinions and experiences provide valuable input for the industry as well as for tourists and the host communities. Further, adequately trained staff can encourage a shared sense of environmental awareness among tourists, which will further contribute to the industry's sustainability.

Training must include multi-cultural education to sensitise staff to the cultural differences among tourists, and to highlight the expectations of both guests and hosts. Poorly trained local workforces would result in the need to "import" human resources, possibly leading to a reduction in profit, and reducing the industry's sustainability. This can be remedied by training local staff from the community. This applies to all roles

in the sector, from front office and back office workers, food and beverage managers and tour operators. It is important to take into consideration that training of local personnel must not be restricted to low paid and low status jobs. This training can be held locally or abroad, and include in-house short courses on university degrees. This may prove cost-effective for both the tourism industry in the long-run.

CONCLUSIONS

This chapter provides a summary of the findings and conclusions based on the objectives of the study, the hypotheses and the core chapters. The study focuses on sustainable tourism development management in the Coast Province using coastal tourist centres as a case study. Suggestions, recommendations and contributions of the study and areas of further research are highlighted. Finally, problems and constraints are examined that affect entrepreneurs and hinder them from realizing their objectives and goals for successful economic performance in the region are examined.

The findings revealed that there exists a significant relationship between the number of employees and the number of coastal tourist centres in the clusters. Statistics, however, indicated that the amount of income accruing to the centres determined the number of people the centres employed. Thus, the amount of income flowing to the centres from their clients was a stronger factor in determining the number of employees, rather than the number of centres in the region.

This study revealed that the centres were locally founded, hence, local ownership levels were very high. Although ownership was not exclusively restricted to the local people but was also distributed among other Kenyans, the management of the centres was in the hands of the local people. Individual ownership accelerated the emergence of local capitalists who however, failed to share their surpluses with their employees. However, coastal tourist centres gave the locals an opportunity to participate effectively in the sector through employment and other related economic activities. Incomes accruing to the centres are generally low, resulting in low remuneration, hence leading to low contribution to the development of the region. Despite the low salaries, however, the people were able to meet their basic needs and the life of the poor majority improved.

Findings from this study revealed that strong linkages existed between the coastal tourist centres and other sectors of the economy. The linkages revealed in this study are: (a) economic linkages, i.e., funding and establishment of centres (b)

provision of equipment (c) provision of skilled personnel (d) provision of employment for graduates from the centres (e) provision of markets for products made in the centres (f) accommodations for clients in hotels (g) payments for performances. Linkages pointed toward a prospective dependency in terms of funding, employment, leisure and entertainment and marketing. It is through these linkages that the performance of the village centres has been strengthened, and the hotels have benefited by the proximity of local products at reasonable prices. Economic linkages with related sectors of the economy, especially with the local residents, were found to be strong and their existence was appreciated since they were beneficial and uplifted the economic status of the local people through employment and purchase of local products.

The study revealed the following contributions of coastal centres to regional economic development, (a) employment creation (b) income generation (c) marketing of products (d) participation of local people in ownership (e) promotion of tourism (f) attraction of foreign exchange (g) conservation of culture-ecotourism (h) infrastructural development. Although the centres do not realize large amounts of income, they provide employment as well as an alternative means of livelihood for many local people who would otherwise have no source of income.

Problems that entrepreneurs faced in their operations which hindered coastal tourist centres from realizing their goals and objectives are linked to the following: (a) lack of funds (b) lack of protective government policy (c) competition (d) exploitation (e) lack of skills, expertise and training (f) declining number of clients (g) lack of marketing strategies (h) lack of tourism education (i) poor infrastructure. Government financial support (8.3%) was minimal and was insufficient to cope with the demands facing local investors. In view of these problems, entrepreneurs recommend that comprehensive planning and policies be formulated and be enforced by the government in order to revamp the sector.

Based on these findings, the following recommendations can be made:

(i) To Government Planners and Policy Makers

From this study, planning and policy issues regarding coastal centres operations need to be addressed since culture is a major factor and one of the major tourist attractions at the coast. Some of the recommendations include:

- There is need for the government to create avenues for local people to gain access to financial assistance by including them in the loaning system which would enable them to acquire funds to invest and to expand their businesses
- The government should develop well defined policies that provide entrepreneurial protection from middlemen and exploiters in the major industry.
- Tourist Resource exploitation in the region should favour the local people since they are the main stakeholders of the resources and are committed to the protection of the environment and to eco-tourism goals and objectives.

(ii) To Scholars

Scholars in the tourism field will find the information given in the form of maps, statistical tables and figures useful in providing new information and data for reference purposes. The new maps reveal the relationship between the hotels and coastal tourist centres, while tables and figures provide explanations for the existing linkages in different sectors within the tourism industry.

This study has been exclusively concerned with the operations of village centres in the coast region, however, studies could be carried out in other regions of Kenya in order to point out opportunities to local investors and encourage local participation in the tourism industry.

The conceptual model fits in explaining the relationships and linkages existing between different tourism sectors. The scholarly literature used in this study is helpful in updating some of the Present outdated materials. Research revealed new data on

levels of employment, ownership, Organization management of the centres, sources of funding and the general performance of coastal centres which heretofore were lacking.

The study found that tourism had a catalytic impact on the economy of the region with regard to Regeneration of income and creation of employment. The establishment of coastal centres was closely linked to the rapid development of hotels between 2000 and 2010. The major factors that motivated entrepreneurs to locate the centres were income and employment. This fact was demonstrated by the number of local employees working in the centres.

The study revealed that coastal centres offered a unique attraction to both local and foreign tourists and could be an effective tool for rural development. Although the centres played a relatively smaller part in the regional economy, they stimulated the growth of other sectors of the economy which led to the general growth of the region.

REFERENCES

- Adeola, O., & Evans, O. (2019). Digital tourism: mobile phones, internet and tourism in Africa. *Tourism Recreation Research*, 44(2), 190-202.
- Adholla, S.E. (2012): Survey of Attitudes of Kenyans towards Tourism, Institute of Development Studies, University of Nairobi. (IDS. Cr. No. 7 UON)
- Akama J. (2000). Tourism development in Kenya: Problems and policy alternatives. *Progress in Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 3 (2), pp. 95-105.
- Akama, J. (2015). The evolution of tourism in Kenya. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 7 (1), pp. 6-25.
- Akama, E. (2016). International tourism receipts and economic growth in Kenya 1980-2013.
- Akama, J. (2009). Marginalisation of the Maasai in Kenya. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 26 (3), pp. 716-718.
- Alonso, W. (1968): Urban and Regional Imbalances in Economic Development. *Economic Development and Change* 17:1-14.
- Archer, B., & Cooper, C. (1994). The positive and negative impacts of tourism, *revue Global Tourism*, Editura Theobald.
- Archer, B., Cooper, C., & Ruhanen, L. (2005). The positive and negative impacts of tourism. *Global tourism*, 3, 79-102.
- Banks, M. (2007). *Using Visual Data in Qualitative Research*. London: Sage.
- Beech, J. and Chadwick, S. (eds.) (2006). *The Business of Tourism Management*. Harlow: Financial Times Prentice Hall.
- Bramwell, B. and Sharman, A. (2002). Collaboration in local tourism policy making, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 26, pp. 392–415.

- Britton, R. (1980). Shortcomings of third world tourism. *Dialectics of third world development*, 241-248.
- Britton, S. (1991). Tourism, capital, and place: towards a critical geography of tourism. *Environment and planning D: society and space*, 9(4), 451-478.
- Britton, S. (1996). Tourism, dependency and development. Apostolopoulos, Y. Leivadi, S. y Yiannakis, A.(eds.), *The Sociology of Tourism*, London, Routledge, 155-172.
- Britton, S. G. (2000): The political Economy of Tourism in the Third World. *Annals of Tourism Research* 9:331-358.
- British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) (2010d). Kenya country profile. Available online at: http://news.bbc.co.uk/1/hi/world/africa/country_profiles/1024563.stm [accessed: 30.03.2021]
- Browett, J. G. (1979): Development, the Diffusion Paradigm and Geography. *Progress in Human Geography* 4:57-79
- Browett, J. G. (1982): Out of the Dependency Perspectives. *Journal of Contemporary Asia* 12: 145-157.
- Butler, R. W. (1980). The concept of a tourist area cycle of evolution: Implications for management of resources. *Canadian Geographer*, 24(1), 5–12
- Butler, R. W. (1991). Tourism, environment and sustainable development. *Environmental Conservation*, 18, pp. 201–209.
- Butler, R. W. (1993). Tourism development in small islands: Past influences and future directions. *Tourism development in small islands: past influences and future directions.*, 71-91.
- Butler, R.W. (2010): The Concept of a Tourism Area Cycle of Evolution. Implications or the Management of Resources. *Canadian Geographer* 24:5-12

- Buhalis, D. (2000). Marketing the competitive destination of the future. *Tourism Management*, 21(1), 97-116.
- Buhalis, D. and Fletcher, J. (2001). Environmental impacts on tourist destinations: An economic analysis. In: H. Coccossis and P. Nijkamp (eds). *Sustainable Tourism Development*. Adlershot: Avebury.
- Cater, E., & Goodall, B. (1992). *tourism Most destroy its resource base*. Environmental Issues in the 1990s, AM Mannion and SR Bowlby (eds.). John Wiley & Sons, Chichester, UK.
- CC Africa (2007). *Luxury African Safari*. Available online at: <http://www.ccafrica.com> [accessed: 24.03.2021].
- Ceballos-Lascurain, H. (1996). *Tourism, ecotourism, and protected areas: The state of nature-based tourism around the world and guidelines for its development*. Iucn.
- Christaller, W. (1964) Some considerations of tourism location in Europe: The peripheral regions – underdeveloped countries – recreation areas. *Papers in Regional Science* 12 (1), 95–105.
- Cohen, E. (1972). Toward a sociology of international tourism. *Social research*, 164-182.
- Coccossis, H. and Nijkamp, P. (eds.) (2010). *Sustainable Tourism Development*. Adlershot: Avebury.
- Cronin, L. (2000). A strategy for tourism and sustainable developments. *World Leisure and Recreation*, 32 (3), pp. 12-18.
- Clift, S. and Carter, S. (eds.) (2000). *Tourism, and Sex: Culture, Commerce and Coercion*. London: Cassell.
- Cukier, J. (2002). Tourism employment issues in developing countries: Examples from Indonesia. In: R. Sharpley and D.J. Telfer (eds). *Tourism and Development: Concepts and Issues* (pp. 165-201). Clevedon: Channel View Publications

- Curry, S. and Morvaridi, B. (1992). Sustainable tourism: Illustrations from Kenya, Nepal and Jamaica. In: C. Cooper and A. Lockwood (eds). *Progress in Tourism, Recreation and Hospitality Management*, 4, (pp. 131-139). London: Belhaven Press.
- Diamond, J (2000): *Tourism's Role in Economic Development: The Case Reexamined*. *Economic Development and Cultural Change* 25:543-553
- Deike, P. (ed.) (2000). *The Political Economy of Tourism Development in Africa*, New York: Cognizant Communications.
- Denzin, N. and Lincoln, Y. (eds.) (2000). *Handbook of Qualitative Research*. Thousand Oaks, CA, London: Sage.
- Doolin, B., Burgess, L. and Cooper, J. (2002). Evaluating the use of the web for tourism marketing: A case study from New Zealand. *Tourism Management*, 23 (5), pp. 557-561.
- Eber, S. (ed.) (2007). *Beyond the Green Horizon: Principles for Sustainable Development*. Godalming, Surrey: WWF.
- Edgell, D.L. (2006). *Managing Sustainable Tourism: A Legacy for the Future*. Binghampton, New York: The Haworth Press.
- Friedman, M. (1966). Interest rates and the demand for money. *The Journal of Law and Economics*, 9, 71-85.
- Fyall, A. (2003). Marketing visitor attractions: A collaborative approach. In A. Fyall, B. Garrod and A. Leask (eds). *Managing Visitor Attractions: New Directions* (pp. 236- 252). Oxford: Elsevier.
- Fyall, A. and Garrod, B. (2005). *Tourism Marketing: A Collaborative Approach*. Clevedon: Channel View Publications.
- Getz, D, and Timur, S. (2005). Stakeholder involvement in sustainable tourism: Balancing the voices. In: W.F. Theobald (ed). *Global Tourism* (pp. 230-247) (3rd edition). London and New York: Elsevier Butterworth-Henemann.

- Gilbert, D. (2008). Managing marketing for tourism. In: C. Cooper, J. Fletcher, A. Fyall, D. Gilbert and S. Wanhill (eds). *Tourism: Principles and Practice* (pp. 510-544) (4th edition). Harlow: Pearson Education Ltd.
- Gretzel, U., Yuan, Y.-L and Fesenmaier, D.R. (2000). Preparing for the new economy: Advertising strategies and change in destination marketing organizations. *Journal of Travel Research*, 39 (2), pp. 146–156.
- Gummesson, E. (2000). *Qualitative Methods in Management Research*, (2nd edition). London: Sage
- Harris, R., Griffin, T. and Williams, P. (eds.) (2002). *Sustainable Tourism: A Global Perspective*. London: Elsevier.
- Hirschman, A. O. (1958). *The strategy of economic development*, Yale Univ. Press, New Haven.
- Husbands, W. C. (1986). Periphery resort tourism and tourist—resident stress: An example from Barbados. *Leisure Studies*, 5(2), 175-188.
- Hoivik, T. and T. Heiberg (1980) Centre-periphery tourism and self-reliance, *International Social Science Journal*, 32: 69-97
- Holden, A. (2000). *Environment and Tourism*. London and New York: Routledge.
- Hudson, S. and Miller, G. (2005). Ethical considerations in sustainable tourism. In: W.F. Theobald (ed). *Global Tourism*. pp. 248-266. London: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Hunter, C. (2002). Aspects of the sustainable tourism debate from a natural resource's perspective. In: R. Harris, T. Griffin and P. Williams (eds). *Sustainable Tourism: A Global Perspective* (pp. 180-194). London: Elsevier.
- Hunter, M. (2012). The stages of economic development from an opportunity perspective: Rostow extended. *Geopolitics, History, and International Relations*, 4(2), 52-80.

<http://www.responsibletravel.com> (2007). Extraordinary, inspiring holidays that make a difference [Online]. [Accessed: 18.04.2021].

Jafari J. The scientification of tourism. Hosts and guests revisited: Tourism issues of the 21st century. 2001:28-41.

Jafari, J. (2003). Research and scholarship: the basis of tourism education.[Reprint of original article published in v. 1, no. 1, 1990: 33-41.]. *Journal of Tourism Studies*, 14(1), 6-16.

Jamrozy, U. (2007). Marketing of tourism: A paradigm shift towards sustainability. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 1 (2), pp. 117-130.

Jenkins, J., Dredge, D., & Taplin, J. (2011). Destination planning and policy: process and practice. *Destination Marketing and Management: Theories and Applications*. Wallingford, Oxfordshire: CABI, 21-38.

Jones, S. (2017). The analysis of in-depth interviews. In: R. Walker (ed). *Applied Qualitative Research* (pp. 80-87). Aldershot: Gower Press.

Jones, T. (2003). Coastal zones in sub-Saharan Africa: Tourism and Coastal Development. A Scientific Review of the Issues Influencing Sustainability and Vulnerability in Coastal Communities. London: The Natural History Museum and Royal Society. Available online at: <http://www.unep-wcmc.org> [accessed: 12.03.2020].

Kalisch, A. (2001). *Tourism as fair trade: NGO perspectives*. London: Tourism Concern.

Li, W. (2006). Community decision-making: Participation in development, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 33 (1), pp. 132–143.

Marekia, E.N. (2016). Managing wildlife in Kenya. In: C. Juma and A. Kirino (eds). *Gaining Ground* (pp. 155–179). Nairobi: Acts Press.

- Mason, J. (2002). *Qualitative Researching*. London: Sage.
- Matznetter, J. (1979). Border and tourism-Fundamental relations. *Frankfurter wirtschafts-und sozialgeographische Schriften Frankfurt/Main*, (31), 61-73.
- Matthews, H. G., & Richter, L. K. (1991). Political science and tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 18(1), 120-135.
- Mbaiwa, J.E. (2003a). The socio-economic and environmental impacts of tourism development on the Okavango Delta, north-western Botswana. *Journal of Arid Environments*, 54 (2), pp. 447-467
- Miossec, JM (1977). A model of tourist space. *The Geographic Space* , 41-48.
- Möller, P. (2012). Young adult transition in a tourism dominated rural area. *Tourism planning & development*, 9(4), 429-440.
- Musyoki, A.K., Khayesi, M. and Musyoki, B. (2002): *Tourism Development in the Coast Region of Kenya*. A Paper presented at the First National Conference Planning of Mombasa and Environments, May, 2002.
- Myrdal, G. (1956). *An international economy: problems and prospects*.
- Nijkamp, P., & Verdonkschot, S. (1995). *Sustainable tourism development: a case study of Lesbos*.
- Oppermann, M. (2000). *Tourism destination loyalty*. In H. Zhang, X. Fu, L.A. Cai, & L. Lu (2014). *Destination image and tourist loyalty: A metaanalysis*. *Tourism Management*, 40, 213-223.
- Pearce, D. G. (1981). *Tourist development*. Longman Group Limited..
- Pearce, P. L. (2011). *Tourist behaviour and the contemporary world (Vol. 51)*. Channel view publications.
- Perroux, F. (1955). Note on the notion of "growth pole" . Publisher unknown.

- Plog, S. C. (1974). Why destination areas rise and fall in popularity. *Cornell hotel and restaurant administration quarterly*, 14(4), 55-58.
- Rodenburg, E. E. (1989). The effects of scale in economic development: tourism in Bali. *Europäische Hochschulschriften 10 (Fremdenverkehr)*, (11), 205-225.
- Rostow, W. W. (1960). *The stages of economic growth: A non-communist manifesto*. Cambridge university press.
- Schlenke, U., & Stewig, R. (1983). Endogenous tourism as a measure of the degree of industrialization in industrialized and developing countries. *Erdkunde*, 37(2), 137-145.
- Sharpley, R and Telfer, D.J. (eds.) (2002). *Tourism Development: Concepts and Issues*. Clevedon: Channel View Publications.
- Sharpley, R. (2000b). The influence of the accommodation sector on tourism development: lessons from Cyprus. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 19 (3), pp. 275-293.
- Thomas, R. (2007). Tourism partnerships and small firms: power, participation and partition. *The International Journal of Entrepreneurship and Innovation*, 8(1), 37-43.
- Thurot, J. M. (1973). *Le Tourisme tropical balnéaire: le modèle caraïbe et ses extensions* (Doctoral dissertation, Université d'Aix-Marseille, Institut du travail et des recherches sociales, Centre d'études du tourisme).
- UNEP, G. M. A. (2002). *United Nations environment programme. Chemicals*, Geneva, Switzerland.
- UNWTO. (2010). *Tourism highlights 2008 edition*. Retrieved from http://www.unwto.org/facts/eng/pdf/highlights/UNWTO_Highlights10_en_HR.pdf
- Vorlaufer, K. (2003). Tourismus in Entwicklungslandern. *Geographische Rundschau*, 55(3), 4-13.

Weaver, D.B. (2006). *Sustainable Tourism: Theory and Practice*. London: Butterworth-Heinemann.

Weaver, D. and Lawton, L. (2002). *Tourism Management* (2nd edition). Australia: John Wiley and Sons.

Wobst, P., & Schraven, B. (2003). *The social accounting matrix (SAM) for Kenya*. Washington, DC: International Food Policy Research

WTTC. (2008). *Progress and priorities 2008/2009*, World Travel and Tourism Council. Retrieved September, 23, 2010, from http://www.wttc.org/eng/Tourism_Research/Policy_Research/Annual_Reports,_Progress_and_Priorities/

DECLARATION

I, student of the Kodolanyi Janos University, aware of my responsibility of the penal law, declare and certify with my signature that my thesis

entitled

.....

is entirely the result of my own work. I have faithfully and accurately cited all my sources, including books, journals, handouts and unpublished manuscripts, as well as any other media, such as the Internet, letters or significant personal communication.

I understand that

- literal citing without using quotation marks and marking the references
- citing the contents of a work without marking the references
- using the thoughts of somebody else whose work was published, as of our own thoughts

are counted as plagiarism.

I declare that I understood the concept of plagiarism and I acknowledge that my thesis will be rejected in case of plagiarism.

Budapest,yearmonth.....day

.....

Signature of thesis writer

Appendix 1:1

Interview instruments / Discussion guidelines

1. Preliminaries

- Job title
- Role/functions How long have you been in the job?
- Generally speaking, how would you describe the current state of the Kenya's tourism industry?

Kenya's tourism seems to be in a state of crisis. The number of international arrivals and overnight stays has been steadily declining in the last 7 years in spite of the fact that sub-Saharan Africa has been experiencing the fastest growth in tourism. In your opinion, is there a crisis in the industry?

If yes:

- What are the types of crises facing the Kenya's tourism?
- What plans and strategies are being devised and implemented to manage and overcome these crises?

2. Organisational culture/structure

How the Ministry of Tourism is organised (departments and sub departments)?

What are the principal roles and responsibilities of the various departments in the development of Kenya's tourism?

How these departments are interrelated and is the relationship functional?

3. Inter-ministerial and international cooperation

What is the relationship between the Ministry of Tourism (MINTOUR) and

- Ministry of Culture (MINCULT)
- Ministry of Environment and Nature Protection (MINEP)
- Ministry of Ministry of Forestry and Fauna (MINFOF)
- Ministry of Transport (MINTRANS)

Are there clear boundaries between the various ministerial responsibilities with regards to?

- Tourism development management;
- Decision making;

- Devising and implementing solutions to problems

Considering the fact that all these ministries have something to do with tourism, is there an overlapping of responsibilities and conflicts of interest between them?

What is the relationship between Kenya and other international bodies responsible for tourism development and management?

- World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO)
- United Nations Environmental Programme (UNEP)
- World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC)

How does Kenya's tourism benefit from these relationships?

4. Sustainable development of tourism

Over the last decade most governments have come to recognise - or at least pay lip service to - the need for a sustainable tourism.

What is the Kenya government actually doing to promote the sustainable development of tourism in the country?

Do you feel there is a commensurate rise in new sustainable tourism ventures and sensitivity among local inhabitants, or is sustainable tourism still the domain of politicians, academics and consultants?

Sustainable tourism demands the protection, justifiable and commensurate use of natural resources so that future generations are not left out. However the tendency is that conflicts always arise on how to use and manage these natural resources.

What is the government doing to practically guarantee the justifiable exploitation of these resources which include:-

- Forest products and destruction of coastal sites and fauna by logging firms
- Avoiding the handing out logging concessions near reserves
- Poaching and the illegal trade in wildlife species which are necessary if eco-tourism is to be developed

What is the relationship between the MINTOUR and other stakeholders?

- Tour operators
- Local communities
- Local NGOs

5. Tourism legislation and policies

Is there any particular legal framework guiding the operation of the tourism industry in Kenya?

If yes:

- Which?
- Why are they important?
- How stringently are they applied and respected by stakeholders in the industry?
- What are the risks/penalties involved if these laws are not respected?

Various ministries have a connection with the tourism industry.

Is there no conflict of interest in the implementation of the various tourism laws and policies with other ministries (MINEP, MINFOF)?

6. Accommodation and transport infrastructure

Tourists visit a destination when they are sure of the availability of some basic necessities like accommodation, transport and health services. The accommodation industry in Kenya is not very well organised and Kenya officially has only ten 5 star hotels.

- Which measures are being taken to curb the spread of illegally constructed and non-licensed hotel/inn operators which have sprung up haphazardly all over the country in the last two decades?
- Why is air transport very expensive into and within Kenya when compared to other African countries in spite of the high volume of passenger traffic?
- What measures have been undertaken and are planned for the future to reduce these high transport costs and lure tourists into the country?
- Is the government prepared to accept charter flights for tourism growth?

7. Marketing and publicity

How many tourists do you normally receive in a year?

Where do they come from (Nationalities)?

Do you make use of intermediaries for distributing your products?

- Wholesalers
- Other tour operators

- Retailers
- Other service providers

Many foreigners with an interest in visiting Kenya often complain about the high flight and living costs as a key factor hindering them from coming.

• What in your opinion is the reason for these high costs in Kenya when compared to other countries (South Africa, Cameroon, Gambia, Zanzibar, etc) which offer similar services?

• Will you be prepared to lower your fares to accommodate a higher number of tourists?

8. Challenges and prospects

Do you consider yourself as a successful tour operator?

As a tour operator in Kenya, what do you consider to be the principal challenges faced by people operating in your line of business?

What do you think can be done to improve the situation of Cameroon's tourism industry?

From the perspective of:

- Tour operators
- Government
- Communities where tourism operations are undertaken

In your opinion what are the prospects of growth in your niche of operations?

The tourism season lasts for about 6 months. What do you do during the rest of the year?

Do you organise trips for local residents also? I mean domestic tourism.

What are your future plans? Do you think about expanding your operations or about ways of providing much better quality services?

9. Is there anything else you will like to add?

Thanks for your time