# ATLAS

## Tourism and Leisure

# Review

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# ATLAS Tourism and Leisure Review
# Volume 2017 – 2
# ATLAS Africa, conference proceedings 2015

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ATLAS

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# ATLAS Tourism and Leisure Review
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## Preface

Last year, at the occasion of the 25th anniversary of ATLAS, we presented the first 3 Volumes of our new periodical, ATLAS Tourism and Leisure Review. With the launch of ATLAS Tourism and Leisure Review we expect to adequately address the many requests in the last few years about publication opportunities.

June 2017 ATLAS organizes the 10th ATLAS Africa conference in Eldoret, Kenya focusing on "Africa's Tourism and Travel Competitiveness: Opportunities and challenges". The theme was selected on the premise that despite exponential growth of tourism in terms of earnings and visitor numbers, Africa still trails other continents in terms of tourist arrivals and receipts. For example according to the UNWTO, Africa had a market share of only 5% of the international tourist arrivals in the year 2015. Key challenges identified include, among others, the continent's competitiveness.

We are happy that the publication of this second Volume of 2017 coincides with the 10th ATLAS Africa conference. It includes papers from the 2015 ATLAS Africa conference, which took place in Dar es Salaam. We would like to thank. Rita Nthiga, Laban Rotch and Øystein Jensen for editing the three papers.

René van der Duim
ATLAS chair

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# An assessment of the potential of conference tourism product develoment Inmalindi Town Kenya

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**Abstract**

Tourism is without among the top foreign income earners in many countries. The urge to improve the state of tourism in these countries is on the rise. Therefore, many forms of tourism are being innovated in order to increase the competitiveness. One of these forms of tourism is conference tourism. However, some tourism destinations are yet to realize the potential of this type of tourism. Malindi town which is a robust tourist destination for beach and leisure tourism has not embraced conference tourism to its full potentiality. This study sought to investigate the potential for conference tourism product development in Malindi town. This study employed a survey study research design. The target population for this study was 200 respondents comprising of hotel staff from selected hotels offering conference services, staff in tour companies , conference tourists and corporate clients visiting the town. Simple random sampling technique was used to acquire a representative sample of 60 respondents. Questionnaires were used to collect data. The data collected was coded and analysed descriptively using SPSS and then was presented by use of graphs and frequency tables. This is so because the town already had popular conferencing venues. The study concluded that several strategies were prerequisite for conference tourism development. Some of the recommended strategies include, vigorous development of conference tourism infrastructures, marketing and promotion and fostering stakeholder relationships towards tourism development. Most importantly, the growth of this form of tourism is dependent on its associated benefits to the society. The key findings indicate indicated that 70% tourists recommended Malindi as a Conference city while 60% commended that they would return to Malindi for the same. The study concludes that Malindi town had potential for conference tourism development and recommends that this tourism town should be well marketed by all tourism stakeholders for full exploitation of the tourism conference product.

## 1.1 Background of the Study

Rogers T. (2003) asserts that tourism is without doubt among the top foreign income earners in many countries. The urge to improve the state of tourism in these countries is on the rise. Therefore, many forms of tourism are being innovated in order to increase the competitiveness. One of these forms of tourism is conference tourism. Conference tourism is among the four elements of the broader MICE tourism. MICE is an acronym for the Meetings, Incentives, Conventions and Exhibitions tourism segment. In this case, the conference is referred to meetings and conventions. Nonetheless, Ryan C. Crotts, J. & Litvin S. (2007) refer to conference tourism as a form of business tourism. Business tourism is defined as “travelling for the purpose of carrying out trade and engaging in commerce” (Holloway et al., 2009, p.286).

MICE is therefore a business-oriented segment, involving obligatory (or non-discretionary) travel(Chen, 2006). Its global market is worth around $30 billion a year worldwide, with some countries such as Singapore (30% of national GDP) heavily relying on its revenues(Rogers, 2003).Worldwide, at least 50 million trips are taken each year for MICE purposes. This type of tourism is exhibiting encouraging growth potential, with Russia, India and China likely to drive the market(Rogers, 2003). An increasing recognition that motivational programmes are important for staff retention means that the MICE tourism market will increase in the coming years(Caribbean Tourism Organization, 2014). Whilst the MICE market is expected to continue to exhibit moderate growth, it is dependent upon the prevailing economic circumstances. A confident market will lead to more meetings and incentives whilst a nervous market is liable to have the opposite effect(Rogers, 2003; Chen, 2006; Caribbean Tourism Organization, 2014).

Indeed, the convention (conference) and meeting industry have a long history and has changed over time. Historians found evidences of past people who would gather to discuss common interests such as government, hunting, or tribal celebrations (Rogers T. 2003). The first convention was set up in 1986 in Detroit in the USA when the national trade and professional associations had developed and displayed interests to bring members together at conventions and locations around the USA. Since then and in 1950s afterwards, the growth of convention industry was enhanced by both increased supply and demand such as tourism-related factors. Such factors included increased in disposable income, the greater propensity to travel, improvements in transportation industry and increased leisure time.

Conference tourism – a component of MICE tourism – is lately, receiving global recognition because of the increasing growth in international businesses. In Africa, for example, conference tourism is increasingly gaining popularity. South Africa is, therefore, the leading conference tourism destination in Africa, followed by Cairo and Casablanca in Egypt and Morocco respectively (Victoria Safaris, 2013). Victoria Safaris2013 further reveals that in East Africa, several cities are engaged in businesses and conferences, thus, increasing the potential of conference tourism in the region. For instance, in Uganda, the development of the New Serena hotel boosted the conferencing package, thus Ugandacan currently to handle a larger number of visitors for conferencing. In Tanzania, Arusha which is the headquarters of the East Africa Community which takes a number of visitors from all over region states during state meetings (Victoria Safaris, 2013). In Kenya too, facilities such as KICC and the UN Complex, all in Nairobi have made the country a leading destination for conference tourism in the East African region. Furthermore, Kenya is ranked fourth in conference tourism in Africa, behind South Africa, Egypt and Morocco (Victoria Safaris, 2013). Such facilities as KICC in Nairobi, Leisure Lodge and Mombasa Beach Hotel among others have magnificent conference facilities of international standards, to facilitate the potential of conference tourism growth in Kenya (Victoria Safaris, 2013).

From the background information above, it is clearly seen that the significance of conference tourism and MICE tourism at large is and indispensable development. In Kenya, in particular, the future of tourism currently lies on tourism product innovations such as conference tourism. With the uncontrollable aging of traditional tourist attractions, conference tourism remains the only option to revitalise the tourism industry. Furthermore, Oxford Business Group report of 2014 reveals that with the increasing international business partnerships and intergovernmental business integration, the future of conference tourism is much promising.

### 1.2 Problem Statement

Although many tourism destinations tend to be more attractive, their destination management organisations have run out of ideas of new forms of tourism. Main approaches are to just promote the traditional and tiring tourism products. As a result, these destinations normally lose their appeal to many visiting tourists. Such incidences are attributed to the fact that Destination Management Organizations (DMOs are incapable of mapping out the new travelling trends and needs which are nowadays, entirely business-related.Such inabilities to tap new opportunities have made many destinations to lag behind in terms of competitiveness. Nonetheless, new forms of tourism such as MICE tourism and specifically, conference tourism are more marketable and should be tried by DMOs. Hence, this research study strived to narrow this gap by identifying the potential of conference tourism in the Kenyan Coastal town of Malindi.

### 1.3 Purpose of the study

The purpose of this study was to assess the potential of conference tourism in Malindi. The significance of tourism in the economy of many nations cannot be overlooked. Therefore, this study’s sole purpose was to provide those technical approaches to enable smooth development of conference tourism in Malindi as well as offering future tourism operators with the required knowledge on how to easily develop ‘the popular form of tourism’ that is, conference tourism.

### 1.4 Research Objectives

#### 1.4.1 General Objective

To assess the potential of conference tourism product development in Malindi town

#### 1.4.2 Specific Objectives

i. To examine the current state of Malindi town as a conference tourism destination
ii. To identify the significance of conference tourism on the wider tourism industry in Malindi
iii. To identify the strategic management approaches for conference tourism development in Malindi town

### 1.5 Research Questions

i. What is the potentiality and current state of Malindi town as a conference tourism destination?
ii. What is the significance of conference tourism on the wider tourism industry in Malindi?
iii. What are the strategic management approaches for conference tourism development in Malindi?

### 1.6 Significance of the Study

The findings on this study will contribute to the knowledge and information on how prevalent conference tourism is in the larger tourism industry growth.

### 1.7 The Scope of the Study

The study on the assessment of the potential of conference tourism product development in Malindi town was conducted from June to October 2014 through a survey study research design. The study was conducted in Malindi town. The target population were the hotel managers and staff, the tour operators and corporate bodies in the town. Data was gathered by the researchers using questionnaires and reviewing of secondary sources of data with relevant information on conference tourism and the tourism industry at large.

### 1.8 Conceptual Framework

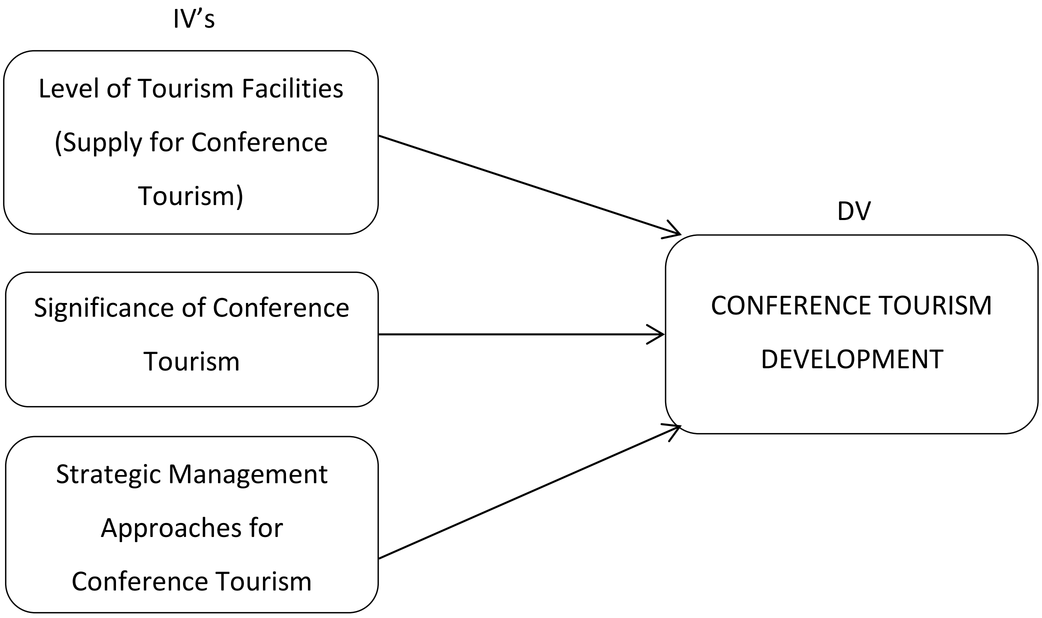


**Figure 1.1:** Conceptual framework of the potential of conference tourism
Source: Authors (2014)

**Literature review**

## 2.0 Introduction

This chapter discusses the literature related to the conference tourism and MICE tourism at large. The literature review is broadly on concept of tourism product development. It particularly focuses on the tourism product development, MICE tourism, the significance of MICE and particularly, conference tourism, and the management implications of conference tourism management.

## 2.1 Tourism Product Development

A rigorous definition of tourism is, at best, an elusive goal. Nevertheless, Verma (2013) defines tourism as “the sum of the phenomena and relationships arising from the interaction among tourists, business suppliers, host government, host communities, and origin governments, in the process of attracting, transporting, hosting and managing the tourists and other visitors.” Furthermore, a conclusive tourism definition also requires the aspects of tourist attractions. Without attractions tourists would not visit destinations and consequently, attractions need to be periodically developed in order to attract many visitors. Thus, it calls for tourism product development. Product development is a prerequisite for satisfying tourists' chang- ing demands and insuring the long-term profitability of the industry. Ideally, tourism products meet marketplace demands, are produced cost-efficiently, and are based on the wise use of the cultural and natural resources of the destination. It may consist of one or a combination of components, including physical goods, services, experiences, events, persons, places, properties, organizations, information and ideas (Kotler, 2001).

By definition, TPD is seen as embracing all elements with which the visitor to a destination comes into contact, including infrastructure (for example, transport and utilities), the service personnel, places of lodging, attractions and activities, facilities and amenities (UNWTO & ETC, 2011). It can also be defined as comprising only those attractions, activities and facilities that are specifically provided for the conference tourist.

Without the infrastructure– in Malindi – to support the development of what tourists wants to see and do on their visit; TPD cannot fully succeed (UNWTO & ETC, 2011). Therefore, the tourism industry in Malindi must respond to the changing wants and needs of consumers and stakeholders. With the business philosophy and model, it is necessary to consider the effect TPD concept may have on Malindi destination, and what is the social obligation to positively work within these boundaries (Alberta Tourism, 1991).

Development cannot take place unless the necessary factors of production are available in the destination (Cole, 2010), for instance place, trained people and investment capital (Stabler et al., 2010; Jafari, 2003; UNWTO & ETC, 2011). Furthermore, the destination attractiveness requires both foreign and local development strategies for the type tourism development processes (Wang & Pizam, 2011), in this case conference tourism in Malindi.Therefore, a tourism destination needs a good product portfolio strategy so as to develop tourism from the existing supply of the destination – based on the existing attractions and resources. For example, a destination requires the essential infrastructures, facilities and services needed to make the development come true (Masip, 2006).

### 2.2 Conference Tourism

Although commonly referred to as conference tourism, it is known as conventions in the four elements of MICE tourism. It is the fastest, largest and most lucrative area in the larger tourism industry. It is globally recognized as the most valuable economic contribution to tourism destinations and its significant growth potential (Chen, 2006). They may be hosted in any place, thus resulting to competition among host destinations.

Conference tourism has become an important tourism product that provides a boost for urban destinations with a vacation for tourism. It makes it possible to reactivate destinations that are seasonal – such as Malindi that highly depends on coastal and marine tourism – while increasing the demand for high-end services and providing a relatively high mean expenditure per tourist (Basquetour, 2014). This kind of tourism attracts a large number of visitors, and brings great profit to countries promoting it(Alotrip.com, 2014).This kind of tourism is being vastly developed in various countries across the globe. In Rwanda, the tourism which has received an impressive growth of 12% since 2009, far above the global average of 3-5%, has developed a new tourism strategy (conference tourism) to accelerate the development and diversification of tourism (RDB, 2014).

This conference tourism market was estimated to be $280 billion globally growing at approximately 10-15% annually with 14,000 meetings organized on a regular basis (ICCA, 2007). It is a part of business tourism that is worth $ 672.5 billion. In Pacific Asia (these areas have bolstered their potential of MICE tourism more than any other region in the world) for example, the market share for MICE tourism hit the record of $60 million by the year 2007 (The Economic Times, 2008).In Malindi town too, there are popular conferencing venues in Malindi include Coral Key Beach Resort, Woburn Residence Club and Driftwood Beach Club (Conference.co.ke, 2014). Plans of expansion of the industry are also in the works for the coastal town as is the case of the rest of Kenya (Conference.co.ke, 2014; Travel Africa Vacations, 2014). Economics Times continue to assert that such evidences therefore, the potential for conference tourism cannot be overlooked by those tourism destinations that want to tap more tourist arrivals. Therefore, the need to enhance strategies for conference tourism development in Kenya as a tourist destination is indispensable if the Kenya as a destination is to become a more marketable destination.

### 2.3 Significance of Conference Tourism in Destinations

Conference tourism caters for the high-quality and, therefore highly-yield end of the market. For instance, in 2001, the overseas conference visitors in the UK spent £146 per day compared with an average of just £56 per day for all other categories of visitors (Internal Passenger Survey, 2002). With such greater spending power of business tourists, it implies that there are increased economic benefits for the host destination and a greater return on its investment in infrastructure and marketing(Rogers, 2003, p.23). This type of tourism normally takes place throughout the year, disregard of the seasonality of tourism. Thus, it is an added benefit to tourism because it means that there is no clash between demand of leisure tourism and conference tourism, but rather they are complimentary. Furthermore, its all-year-round nature means the creation and sustenance of permanent jobs, as opposed to temporary jobs which are characteristics of leisure tourism. Conference tourism thus, offers 'career' rather than just jobs(Rogers, 2003, p.23).

Rogers (2003) purports that conference travel trip organisers need to be very keen to ensure that it is successful as possible. Such approaches can be achieved by giving conference trip visitors the pleasant and positive experience of the destination in the event is being held. For instance, through showing most attractive and scenic parts of the destination with the hope that such approaches will evoke remarkable and memorable experience and repeat visitations as well as referrals(Rogers, 2003, p.24). As Davidson (1994) says:

> "A business visitor who leaves with a good impression of the conference becomes an unpaid ambassador for that place…these are influential people whose opinion of the destination will be instrumental in determining its image in the minds of others who are yet to visit the destination."

In its simplest form, conference tourism is less destructive to the surrounding environment than mass tourism. It is normally concerned with smaller numbers. This form of tourism is characterised by the use of coach transferswithin a destination, thus minimizing traffic congestion and environmental pollution. Furthermore, since business tourists travel in groups it is easier to inform them about the local residents in the host destinations, so as to enhance enjoyable stay and minimise misunderstandings between tourists and the local host community(Rogers, 2003, p.23).

2.4Strategic Approaches and Implications on Conference Tourism Management
Several studies have indicated that in choosing a conference venue, meeting planners tend to assess convention hotels based on some common key attributes, that is, the strategic approaches. The four most commonly cited factors are: location of the hotel; quality of the meeting facilities; quality of service; and quality of guest rooms(Dube & Renaghan, 2000; Hinkin & Tracey, 2003) as well as cost of the service. Furthermore, as Wu and Weber(2005) found out that the helpful, friendly staff, adequate restrooms, nearby accommodation, a clean and well maintained venue and signage within the venue as well as ease of access to the location of the conference venue are issues for conference tourism organisers should consider.

Thus, the implications for conference tourism are majorly based on the venues. They are perhaps the most visible supply side element of the MICE sector and are certainly a very important part of the sector. They include conventions centres, hotels or motels, event centres, club facilities and community halls among others (Deery et al., 2005; Tourism Auckland, 2008). Other researches have also been conducted to uncover those factors that are controllable by conventions organisers and the extent to which these factors influence the satisfaction of conference guests (Ryan et al., 2007). As shown in Table 2.1 below, the most important factors are similar in various research studies.

**Table 2.1:** Successful factors for conference tourism management

| (Wu & Weber, 2005) | (Breiter & Milman, 2006) | (Ryan et al., 2007) |
|---|---|---|
| 1. Availability of ventilation in the meeting rooms<br>2. Availability of state-of-the-art facilities<br>3. Comfort of seating<br>4. Adequacy of restrooms<br>5. Helpfulness of staff<br>6. Language ability of staff<br>7. Maintenance of the venue<br>8. Proximity to accommodation<br>9. Courtesy of staff<br>10. Transport to the venue | 1. Overall cleanliness of the venue<br>2. Maintenance of the venue<br>3. Directional signage in the venue<br>4. Proximity to accommodation<br>5. Adequacy of the restrooms<br>6. Ability to get a cell phone signal<br>7. Helpfulness of staff<br>8. Directional signage to the venue | 1. Cleanliness of the restrooms<br>2. Quality of service<br>3. Friendliness of service<br>4. Directional signage to the venue<br>5. Ease of identifying car park entrance<br>6. The ease of registration<br>7. Standard of the event<br>8. The overall ambience of the venue |

*(Source: Wu & Weber, 2005, Breiter & Milman, 2006 and Ryan et al., 2007)*

As seen in the review above, the management of a tourism product goes hand in hand with tourism policy and a clear and specific vision of the development, planning and marketing issues that should be applied. The management of a destination and its tourism products needs an organization that leads, coordinates and directs the different agents involved (both public and private) in the development of tourism products (Moraru, 2011). The creation of products has to be oriented toward specific markets and specific targets, to be able to offer the adequate products to fulfil their needs and expectations and, therefore, promote the creation of value within a tourism destination (Masip, 2006).

## Methodology

### 3.0 Introduction

This chapter presents a detailed description of the research methodology. It describes techniques that will be used in the research to collect and analyse the data. It includes a description of the study area, research design, sampling techniques, data collection procedures and data analysis and presentation techniques, research limitations and research reliability and validity.

### 3.1 Study Area

The study took place in Malindi town. It is 120 kilometres northeast of Mombasa(Wikipedia, 2014). The population of Malindi was 207,253 as of the 2009 census (Kenya Open Data, 2014). The town is the epitome of tourism in the coastal region as well as the second largest coastal town after Mombasa (Lewis, 2014).The tourists’ attractions in the town include the Malindi Marine Park, beautiful sunny beaches, heritage sites such as Vasco da Gama pillar, and luxury beach hotels(Kenya Space, 2014; Kenya Tourist Board, 2014). Specifically, the researcher visited the following hotels in Malindi; the Key Beach Resort, the Woburn Residence Club and the Driftwood Beach Club, and also several tour operators in the town.

### 3.2 Research Methodology

#### 3.2.1 Research Design

This study adopted a survey research design. This design as defined by Orodho (2003) is a method of collecting information by interviewing or administering a questionnaire to a sample of individuals; by describing specific characteristics of a large group of persons, objects or institutions, through questionnaires (Jaeger, 1988; Gable, 1994). Besides, the design was used because of its descriptive nature to assist the researcher in collecting data from members of the sample for the purpose of estimating the population parameters. Moreover, the design described and explained rather than just predict the topic under study (Oso & Onen, 2009, p.77), and also involved the collection of relevant data which best explains the relationship between the research variables (Saunders et al., 2009).
Based on the nature of the research problem, the research study employed the use quantitative methodology through a survey strategy. The quantitative research method enabled the researcher to measure the relationship between the research variables easily and more accurately; unlike in qualitative method where most of the data is measured through expressions(Marczyk, 2005). Moreover, quantitative research method is best used in a deductive research approach in order to make it to quantify the relationships of the variables investigated in the study(Simon, 2011)

#### 3.2.2 Target Population

Research population refers to the total number of potential participants in a research study. For the purpose of this study, the target population were the hotel managers and staff, the travel tour operators, tourists and corporate bodies. However, due to time constraints related with this study, the target population only consisted of 200 respondents as shown below. Nevertheless, the researcher picked the target group because they are directly influenced by the topic under study.

**Table 3.1:** Target Population

| Group | Target Population |
|---|---|
| Hotel managers/staff | 50 |
| Tour operators/agents | 50 |
| Business travellers | 50 |
| Corporates | 50 |
| Total | 200 |

*Source: Authors, (2014)*

### 3.2.3 Sample Size

Since it is usually impractical to use the entire population when conducting a study on large-scale populations, it is quite important to select a sample of representative members to participate in the study (Ghuari & Gronhaug, 2005).A sample is part of the total target population that has been procedurally selected to represent the target population (Oso & Onen, 2009, p.81). At least 30% of the total population is representative (Borg & Gall, 2003). Thus, the sample size was60 participants and which represented 30% of the total target population. Among these, each group category was represented by 15 individuals.

**Table 3.2:** Sample Population

| Group | Target Population | Percentage (%) | Sample Population |
|---|---|---|---|
| Hotel managers/staff | 50 | 50 x 30% | 15 |
| Tour operators/agents | 50 | 50 x 30% | 15 |
| Business travellers | 50 | 50 x 30% | 15 |
| Corporates | 50 | 50 x 30% | 15 |
| Total | 200 | 200 x 30% | 60 |

*Source: Authors, (2014)*

### 3.2.4 Sampling Techniques

The sampling technique refers to basic technique where a group of subjects are selected for study from a larger group. Therefore, this study used simple random sampling techniques to select its sample. For simple random sampling, each individual was chosen entirely by chance and had an equal chance of being included in the sample. This technique was used because it was error-free and required less advanced knowledge of the population under study.

### 3.2.5 Data Collection Techniques

#### 3.2.5.1 Primary data

Primary research involves collecting first-hand data from the original sources (Zikmund, 2000). It brings into the study a new set of data which has never been acquired by other researchers. It is the most important in a research study because it adds more value to the existing knowledge, while helping researchers to be able to verify the existing theories. In this study, the researcher employed the use of questionnaires (with both open-ended and close-ended questions). Normally, questionnaires help the researcher to collect a lot of information over a short time; are suitable for both literate and illiterate respondents; and facilitate information needed in writing (Oso & Onen, 2009, p.91).

#### 3.2.5.2 Secondary data

Secondary research involves the collection of data using documented materials prepared by other people for their own purposes. In this study, secondary datawas gatheredfrom different reference materials including published books and journal articles and internet sources in order to facilitate diversity in the data collected. The reference materials were carefully selected based on their reliability and relevance to the research problem.

### 3.2.6 Data Analysis and Presentation

The questionnaire (quantitative) data was coded and entered into the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) for computation of descriptive statistics. SPSS was used to run descriptive statistics such as frequency and percentages so as to present the quantitative data in form of tables and graphs based on the major research questions. Pie charts, graphs and frequency tables were used in data presentation.

### 3.2.7 Limitations of the Research Study

The generalizability of this study was limited to the hotels and tour firms where the study took place. It could also be that the results were comparable and that it may be generalizable to the target population. The respondents could also have impacted the results and therefore in some ways may have changed their behaviours and provided biased information during the data collection.

### 3.2.8 Ethical Considerations

Ethics are defined as s method, procedure, or perspective for deciding how to act and for analysing complex problems and issues. The identity of individuals from whom information was kept strictly confidential; gender equity was borne in mind, without bias of any kind; the respondents were not coerced to give information; and the truth of the results was based on factual interpretation of data.

### 3.2.9 Reliability and Validity

Validity is the accuracy of data based on the research results (Mugenda & Mugenda, 1999). In this study, the questionnaires were validated basing on content and face validity. Reliability is the ability of the research instruments to consistently measure and yields consistent results after repeated trials(Mugenda & Mugenda, 1999). It is concerned with consistency, dependability or stability of a test (Nachmias, 1996). The research tools were pre-tested to identify any misinterpretations and ensure their validity (Neuman, 2009). Finally, to ensure reliability and validity of the measurements, previous measures from similar research were adopted in this study (Neuman, 2011).

## Findings

### 4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings of the research study; from the participants profile to the variables under study.

### 4.1 Demographic profile of the respondents

#### 4.1.1 Hotel Staff and Tour Operators

The participants in the study were divided into two major categories, that is, the staff and the tourists. Of the total in the group, 50% were male and 50% were female. Furthermore, out of the total staff respondents, half (50%) were aged between 21-0 years, 30% were aged between 31-40, 6.7% were aged between 41-50 years while the rest 13.3% were above 50 years.On of education, 13.3% reached secondary school, 56.7% had reached college whereas the remaining 30% were university leavers. Regarding their occupation, 50% were hotel staff while the other 50% were tour operators. Finally, 3.3% of the staff category had worked for less than 5 years, 26.7% had work experience of 6-10 years, 40% had worked for 11-15 years, and 23.3% had worked for 16-20 years while only 6.7% having worked for over 21 years. These results are illustrated in the table 4.1 below.

**Table 4.1:** The demographic profiles of the hotel and tour operators

| | | Frequency | Percent |
|---|---|---|---|
| Gender | Male | 15 | 50.0 |
| | Female | 15 | 50.0 |
| Age in years | 21-30 | 15 | 50.0 |
| | 31-40 | 9 | 30.0 |
| | 41-50 | 2 | 6.7 |
| | Above 50 | 4 | 13.3 |
| Level of Education | Secondary | 4 | 13.3 |
| | College | 17 | 56.7 |
| | University | 9 | 30.0 |
| Work Occupation | Hotel staff | 15 | 50.0 |
| | Tour operators | 15 | 50.0 |
| Working experience | Less than 5 years | 1 | 3.3 |
| | 6-10 years | 8 | 26.7 |
| | 11-15 years | 12 | 40.0 |
| | 16-20 years | 7 | 23.3 |
| | Over 21 years | 2 | 6.7 |

*(Source: Research findings, 2014)*

#### 4.1.2 Tourists and Corporates Bodies

Of the total tourists and corporate clients interviewed from the selected hotels and conference facilities, 60% were male while 40% were female, and therefore, 50% were tourists while the reset 50% were corporates. Also, 46.7% were aged between 21-30 years, 26.7% were aged between 31-40 years, 10% were aged between 41-50 years and the remaining 16.7% were above 50 years. In terms of education, 10% had reached primary level, 16.7% were of secondary, 50% were college leavers while 23.3 % were of university education level, as shown in table 4.2 below.

**Table 4.2:** The demographic profiles of the tourists and corporates

| | | Frequency | Percent |
|---|---|---|---|
| Gender | Male | 18 | 60.0 |
| | Female | 12 | 40.0 |
| Age in years | 21-30 | 14 | 46.7 |
| | 31-40 | 8 | 26.7 |
| | 41-50 | 3 | 10.0 |
| | Above 50 | 5 | 16.7 |
| Level of Education | Primary | 3 | 10.0 |
| | Secondary | 5 | 16.7 |
| | College | 15 | 50.0 |
| | University | 7 | 23.3 |
| Occupation | Tourists | 15 | 50.0 |
| | Corporates | 15 | 50.0 |

*(Source: Research findings, 2014)*

### 4.2 The Potential of Conference Tourism Development in Malindi

The first objective of the study sought to examine the potential and current state of Malindi town as a conference tourism destination. The corporates were asked to identify factors that have satisfied them in Malindi as a conference destination. Out of the total corporates, 70% totally satisfied, 23.3% satisfied while the remaining 6.7% were neither satisfied nor dissatisfied with the overall satisfaction with the events held in Malindi. Regarding the additional services for conference tourism in Malindi, 56.7% were totally satisfied, 30% were satisfied, 6.7% were neither satisfied nor dissatisfied, while the rest 3.3% were dissatisfied with the additional services. Further, 63.3% were totally satisfied with the safety and security in Malindi. The rest 30% and 6.7% were satisfied and neither satisfied or dissatisfied respectively about the safety of Malindi. Regarding transportation, 70% and 30% were totally satisfied and satisfied respectively on the range of transportation facilities in the town. Consequently, 66.6% were totally satisfied with the value for their money while the rest 33.3% were just satisfied; on the other hand, 56.7% were totally satisfied, 36.7% were satisfied whereas the remaining 6.7% were neither satisfied nor dissatisfied with the size and comfort of the meeting facilities in Malindi. Finally, 70% were totally satisfied while the rest 30% were satisfied with the conference costs that include registration and optional extras.

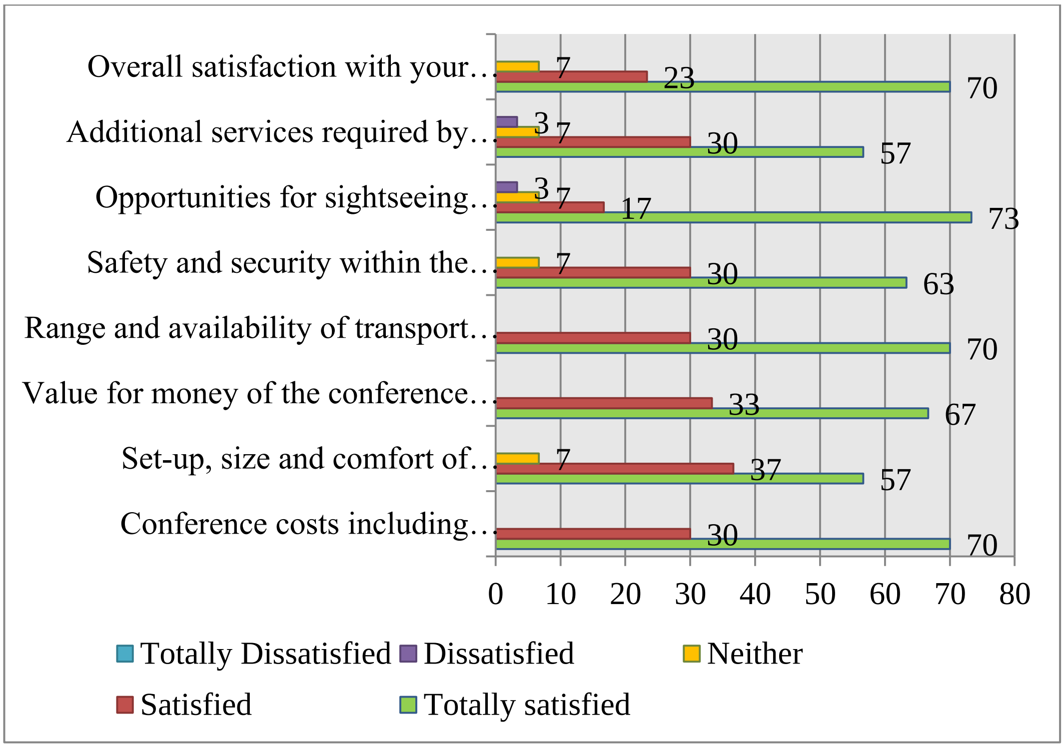


***Figure 4.1:*** *Potential of Conference Tourism Development in Malindi (Source: Research findings, 2014)*

### 4.3 Motivation factors and Attributes of Malindi as a Conferences and Meeting Destination

#### 4.3.1 Motivational Attributes According to Hotel and Tour Operators

The staff were exclusively asked to rate the attributes of the conference facilities in Malindi that attracted them most. Of the total, 80% said that the conference halls were very good, 13.3% and 3.3% identified them as good and average respectively. Regarding the technical support and equipment in conferences, 56.7% pointed them as very good, 36.7% find them to be good while 6.7% found them average. Basing on the associated specials programs such as galas, 86.7% found them very good while the remaining 13.3% found them to be just good.

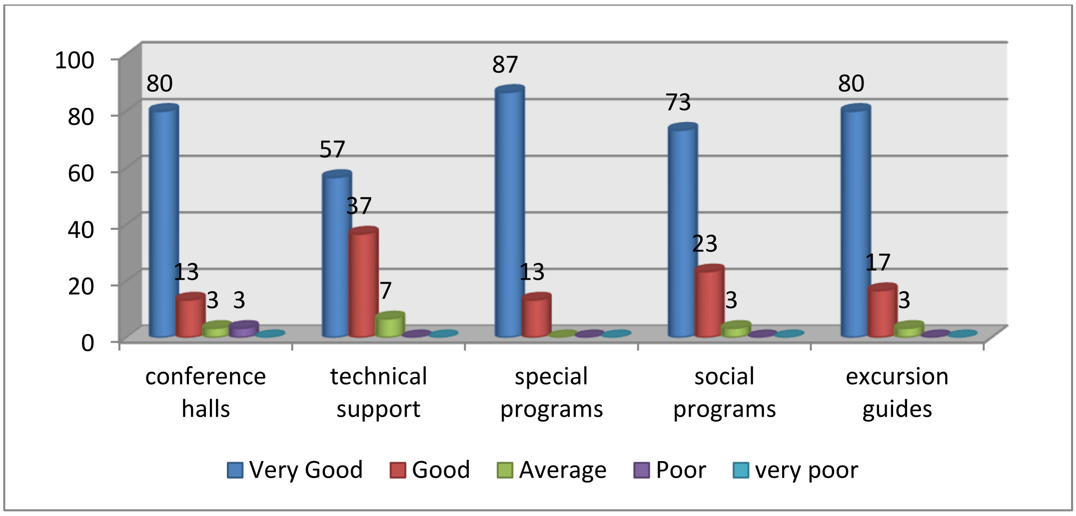


*Figure 4.2: Motivational Attributes According to Hotel and Tour Operators (Source: Research findings, 2014)*

### 4.3.2 Motivational Attributes According to Tourists and Corporates bodies

The tourists were also asked to rate the attributes of the components of conference and meeting tourism in Malindi. Out of the total tourists, 55% found that conference halls in Malindi are very good and 30% found them to be good as well. Only 15% found them to be average. Regarding technical support, 60% indicated the technical support was very good while 26.7% and 13.3% found tit to be good and average respectively. Furthermore, 53.3% and 26.7% found associated specials programs such as galas to be very good and good respectively. Only 20% found special programs to be of average rate.

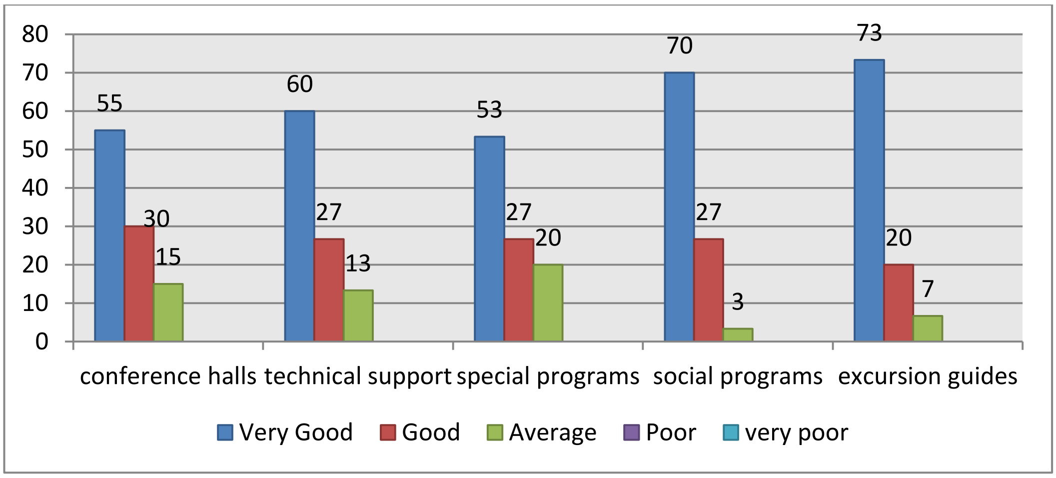


***Figure 4.3:** Motivational Attributes According to Tourists and Corporates bodies (Source: Research findings, 2014)*

### 4.4 Influencing Factors towards the Choice of Conference Destination

The tourists were finally asked what factors would influence their choice for conference tourism destination. Of the total, 43.3% and 36.7% were strongly influenced as well as just being influenced by prior knowledge of the destination respectively. The remaining 40% were neither influenced nor not influenced by prior knowledge of the destination. Also, exactly half (50%) were strongly influenced by other tourist attractions such as heritage attractions in their choice of conference tourism destination. The rest 40% were influenced by the same factor while 10% were neutral on the factor. Over 80% (53.3% and 30%) were also strongly influenced by entertainment facilities while the remaining 16.7% were neutral on the significance of entertainment options on their choice conference tourism destinations. On safety of the destination, over 63.3% chose it to be the influencing factor during the choice of a destination while 33.3% and 46.7% were (strongly) influenced by the price of the conference facilities and referrals from others.

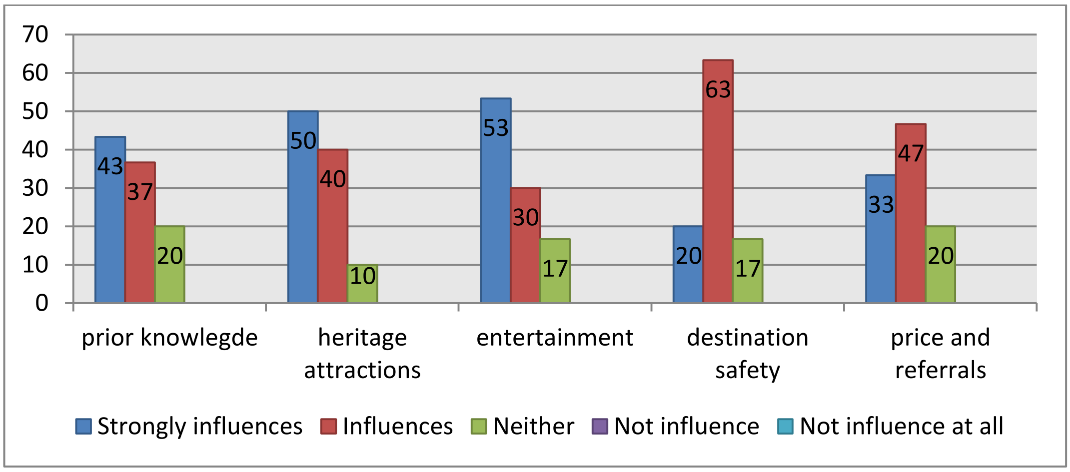


*Figure 4.4: Influencing Factors towards the Choice of Conference Destination (Source: Research findings, 2014)*

### 4.5 Significance of Conference Tourism

The objective on the significance of conference tourism on the wider tourism sector was also examined. In this section, only the tour operators, hotel operators and corporate society answered it. Exactly 40% strongly agreed and 36.7% agreed that conference tourism caters for the high-quality and high-yield tourism markets. While 13.3% neither agreed nor disagreed, only 6.7% and insignificant 3.3% agreed and strongly disagreed that conference tourism caters for high-end tourists' markets. On the other hand, 43.3% strongly agreed, 36.7% agreed and the remaining 20% were neutral when asked if conference tourism can act a cushion for seasonality in the tourism industry. Moreover, regarding the benefits to tourists, 53.3% strongly agreed, while 26.7% agreed and 20% were neutral that conference tourism has associated social-cultural benefits to the attendees. With regards to economic benefits, 36.7% and 40% strongly agreed and agreed respectively that conference tourism results to economic benefits; only 23.2% neither agreed nor disagreed with this statement.

**Table 4.3: Significance of Conference Tourism**

| | Strongly Agree | Agree | Neither | Disagree | Strongly Disagree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Conference tourism caters for the high-quality and, therefore highly-yield end of the market | 40% | 36.7% | 13.3% | 6.7% | 3.3% |
| Conference tourism act as a cushion for seasonality in the tourism industry | 43.3% | 36.7% | 20% | 0 | 0 |
| There are socio-cultural benefits to MICE attendees | 53.3% | 26.7% | 20% | 0 | 0 |
| There are economic benefits to the MICE industry | 36.7% | 40% | 23.2% | 0 | 0 |
| There are environmental benefits | 50% | 26.7% | 16.7% | 6.7% | 0 |

*(Source: Research findings, 2014)*

As far as the tourists and tourism corporate clients were concerned, 40% strongly agreed, 30% agreed, 26.7% neither agreed nor disagreed while 3.3% disagreed that there are socio-cultural benefits to MICE attendees.

**Table 4.4: Socio-cultural benefits to MICE according to corporate bodies**

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Valid | Strongly Agree | 12 | 40.0 | 40.0 | 40.0 |
| | Agree | 9 | 30.0 | 30.0 | 70.0 |
| | Neither | 8 | 26.7 | 26.7 | 96.7 |
| | Disagree | 1 | 3.3 | 3.3 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 30 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

*(Source: Research findings, 2014)*

### 4.6 Strategic Management Approaches for Conference Tourism Development

The final objective sought to find out some of the considerations conference tourism organisers have before preparing or choosing conference tourism destinations. The objective sought to identify probable strategic approaches on conference tourism development. To begin, over half (56.7%) of the respondents considers the state-of-the-art facilities as an extremely important factor for their decisions on destination. The remaining 26.7% and 16.7% considered to be important and somewhat important respectively. On the other hand, 60% agreed cumulatively that conference facilities comfort is an extremely important consideration for the choice of conference services. While the rest 33.3% found it somewhat important, only 6.7% found it unimportant consideration. Regarding friendliness of the contact staff, majority (70%) found it to be an extremely important consideration while 10% suggested it to be equally important. Moreover, exactly 40% saw it extremely important to have accommodation facilities in the proximity of conference destinations. The rest of the respondents found it important (23.3%) and somewhat important (23.3%) that accommodation proximity as a perfect consideration for conference services development. Only 13.3% found it to be not important consideration. With signage as a consideration, half (50%) found it be extremely important. The rest 13.3%, 16.7%, 16.7% and 3.3% found it to be important, somewhat important, not important and extremely an important factor respectively.

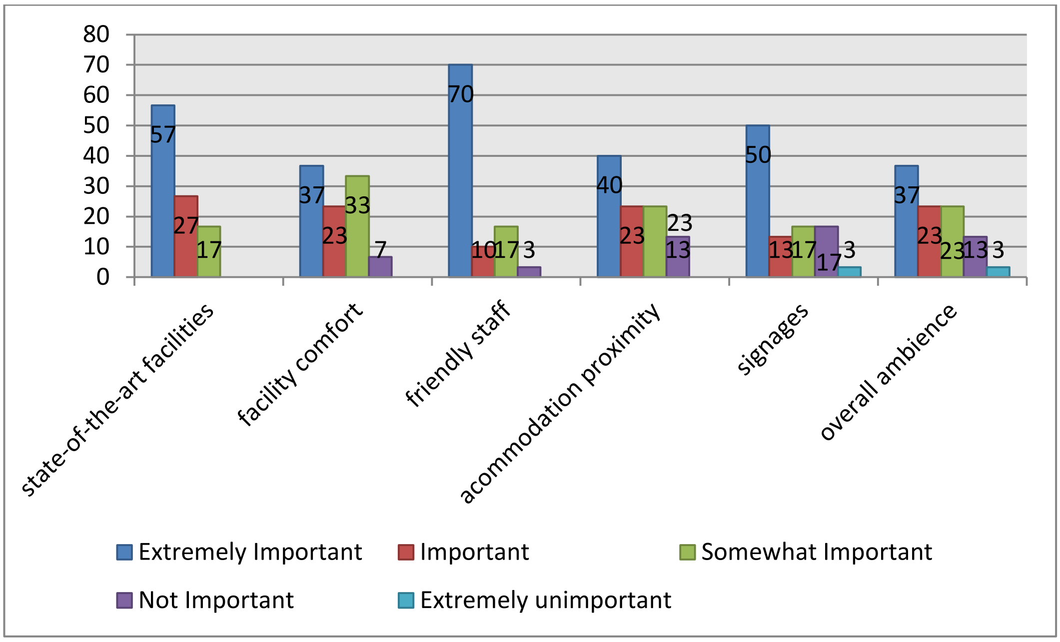


***Figure 4.4:*** *Strategic Management Approaches for Conference Tourism Development*
*(Source: Research findings, 2014)*

At the end, the tourists were asked to evaluate the state of Malindi. Exactly 70% promised to recommend Malindi as a destination for conference tourism, while 66.7% liked to go back to Malindi once more for conference tourism.

**Table 4.5:** Evaluation of Malindi as conference destination

| | Yes | No |
|---|---|---|
| Recommend Malindi as a good conference place | 70% | 30.0% |
| Like to come to Malindi once more | 66.7% | 33.3% |

*(Source: Research findings, 2014)*

They were also asked about the image of Malindi before and after the visit. Slightly above 40% had positive image of Malindi while over 60% had positive image of Malindi as a conference destination after their visits in Malindi.

**Table 4.6:** Image of Malindi before and after visit

| | Very positive | Positive | Neutral | Negative | Very negative |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Image of Malindi did you have before | 6.7% | 43.3% | 50% | 0 | 0 |
| Image of Malindi do you have now | 60% | 33.3% | 6.7% | 0 | 0 |

*(Source: Research findings, 2014)*

## Discussion, conclusion and recommendations

### 5.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the discussion of the findings, conclusions and recommendations for practice

### Discussion

### 5.1.1 The Potential of Conference Tourism Development in Malindi

The potentiality of tourism is something that has eluded the minds of many, especially those who are chasing several tourism opportunities. Specifically, the concept of conference tourism and MICE tourism at large has been a challenge to its realisation. However, with keen considerations about the potential of tourism it is true to suggest that the concept of conference tourism is attainable. According to other literature, stakeholders in the tourism industry admits that Kenya and Malindi in particular, has immense potential in the conferencing sector that is yet to be fully exploited and that the country has the power to establish itself as a prime mice destination in international meetings market (Ministry of Tourism, 2012). Therefore, as indicated in the research findings too, the potential of conference tourism is rife in Malindi. To begin, by the indication that the majority of the respondents (70%) were satisfied with the overall attendance of meetings in Malindi, it is clear implication to tourism operators that Malindi is the place for conference tourism destination in Kenya.

Secondly, since over the half of the participants (56.7%) were totally satisfied by not only conference, but also by additional services offered besides conference facilities, tourism and hotel operators should be aggressive. These findings suggest that Malindi being a haven for tourism activities, it requires a variety of diversified tourism products that will complement the anticipated conference tourism. It also implies that not all tourists – be it leisure or business travellers and corporate individuals – would just attend conference events and leave, but will require other experiences to fulfil their visits to a particular destination. Apart from being a holiday destination, Malindi also hosts Conference, Retreats, Seminars and Workshops of any kind and as per your specifications. For instance, the PrideInn Eden Roc Hotel in Malindi has special negotiable rates tailored to suit everybody’s satisfaction. In keeping abreast of dynamic conferencing technology, the hotel has invested heavily in audio visual technology. In addition, the hotel has freshly refurbished Conference Halls in order to upgrade them into state-of-the-art conferencing facilities (Conference.co.ke, 2014; Gari, 2012).

Nevertheless, this does not mean offering expensive tourism services to tourists, but rather ensure that these business travellers in Malindi receive their value for money. As the findings indicated the potential of conference tourism in Malindi is dependent on the fact that business travellers and corporates receive their value for money –as this will make them (66.7%) totally satisfied. Above all the preceding discussion, the safety and security of the tourists and that of Malindi as a destination is much important consideration for the potential of conference tourism in Malindi. To the tourism and hotel operators, the role of security in destination management cannot be overlooked, thus it plays significant role in tourism potential and growth, especially in this era of spontaneous terror scares and insecurities in major tourism destinations.

In the continuation of the above discussion, all the four categories of participants, that is, the hotel and tourism operators and tourists and corporates felt similar about the overall attributes of conference facilities in Malindi. From the past conferences held in Malindi all the groups found the conference halls to be very good, with over 50% subscribing to the ‘very good’ choice. Besides conference facilities, the groups also indicated that for Malindi to be a conference tourism destination, other attributes such as technical support offered by conference facilitators, special programs as well as excursion across the town are important prerequisites to conference tourism.

All the positive comments about Malindi as a destination for conference tourism can be attested to the fact that the conference tourists were influenced by several factors in choosing Malindi as their preferred destination. According to the findings in the previous chapter, it seems majority of the tourists and corporates had prior knowledge of Malindi as a conference destination. This implies that vigorous marketing campaigns are inevitable if Malindi tour and hotel operators wish to continue selling Malindi as a tourist destination. Furthermore, majority of the same group or participants pointed out issues such as price of the facilities as well as referrals by counterparts as some of the factors that mostly influenced their choice of Malindi. Other factors included safety of the destination together with its variety of entertainment options and its heritage attractions. These are just but some of additional tourism products components that could be used by tour operators in Malindi to attract more tourists besides just conference travellers.

### 5.1.2 Significance of Conference Tourism

Over the years proponents and critics of tourism have been on the checkout of the significance of the tourism sector to the society. As a consequence therefore, conference tourism which is as well a special form of tourism must be of the significance to the society or it to be accepted and supported too. This kind of tourism attracts a large number of visitors, and brings great profit to countries promoting it (Alotrip.com, 2014). As the findings in the previous sector have indicated, the significance of conference tourism in Malindi comes in many ways. For hotel and tour operators, conference tourism is the medium to attract high-spending tourists (Internal Passenger Survey, 2002). Furthermore, this form of tourism usually attracts only high-yield tourism markets (Internal Passenger Survey, 2002). As far as other forms of tourism activities are concerned, the findings imply that conference tourism is a cushion for the seasonality of the tourism industry as is mostly independent of temporal conditions as the major tourist attractions which are highly affected by changes in weather conditions (The Economic Times, 2008). It makes it possible to reactivate destinations that are seasonal – such as Malindi that highly depends on coastal and marine tourism – while increasing the demand for high-end services and providing a relatively high mean expenditure per tourist (Basquetour, 2014). In previous literature revealed that conference tourism is now being used by some countries to bolster their overall tourism sector. For example, in Rwanda the tourism which has received an impressive growth of 12% since 2009, far above the global average of 3-5%, has developed a new tourism strategy (conference tourism) to accelerate the development and diversification of tourism (RDB, 2014).

On the other hand, just like the other types of tourism the survival of conference tourism in Malindi is dependent on its socio-cultural benefits. This implies that if tourism fails to deliver benefits to the surrounding communities and the tourists and specifically if it yields negative socio-cultural effects, then its existence is under extreme jeopardy. Besides economic and environmental benefits are a must as indicated by the research findings (Rogers, 2003, p.23).

### 5.1.3 Strategic Management Approaches for Conference Tourism Development

Finding the best approaches to manage the on-going developments of conference tourism in Malindi is still a challenge since it is still a new concept. However, this study sought to identify some of the best strategic approaches that could be used in the process. According to the previous studies, tourism development cannot take place unless the necessary factors of production are available in the destination (Cole, 2010), for instance place, trained people and investment capital (Stabler et al., 2010; Jafari, 2003; UNWTO & ETC, 2011). For example, a destination requires the essential infrastructures, facilities and services needed to make the development come true (Masip, 2006). Thus, as a matter of fact, the contemporary conference tourism is more about state-of-the-art facilities. As the study revealed, with the increased competition it calls for installing such facilities that will not only hold conference events, but be able to as many conferences as possible within the same period and most importantly those facilities that provide for any requirements required by business travellers. This is what in other words referred to as state-of-the-art facilities (Wu & Weber, 2005). Indeed, these facilities should also offer comfort to those using them. Nevertheless, it is irrational and pointless if there are no friendly staff members to cheer up the conference tourists as revealed in the findings. The implication is that friendliness between tour operators and their customers is invaluable for the success of the business. Building friendly relationship with your customers is one of the surest ways to attract many tourists and therefore all hotel and tour operators should embrace this. Furthermore, as for hotel operators, besides conference facilities there is need for accommodation facilities to be in the vicinity for the business travellers to rest their heads after long day of meetings. It is meaningless for them to seek for accommodation elsewhere, and it is business for both hotel operators and tour operators alike. In summary, conference tourism development should embrace all elements with which the visitors come into contact, including infrastructure (for example, transport and utilities), the service personnel, places of lodging, attractions and activities, facilities and amenities (UNWTO & ETC, 2011).

**5.2 Conclusion**

In conclusion, the findings have largely revealed that Malindi has the extraordinary potential to be regional conference centre if not an international conference centre. The destination is well endowed by potential conference facilities as well as other hospitality facilities such as hotels and accommodation facilities and other tourist attractions sites that would complement the concept of conference tourism. Due to the fact that Kenya is ranked 4th in Africa and among top 50 globally in terms of conference tourism, Malindi stands an upper chance to become a renowned conference tourism destination. However, this cannot happen if several strategies are not put in place. As seen in the findings, fostering stakeholders' relationship as well as improving the existing infrastructural facilities are prerequisites to proper future developments of conference tourism. On the other hand, this form of tourism should be beneficial to the society for it to be accepted.

Nevertheless, this research study did not fully exhaust all the extent and proper frameworks for conference tourism development in Malindi. Therefore, the researcher suggest that there is need to carry out further studies to elucidate how well tourism operators in Malindi can tap this new concept of tourism and make the tourism success story Kenya can tell to the global tourism sector.

**5.3 Recommendations on the findings**

Due to the increased growth of the market of business travellers across the world, the development of conference tourism is now inevitable. Therefore, a proper conference tourism product audit is necessary towards forging a united front in tourism development. A product audit should include determining the number of conferencing facilities in the Malindi and their capacities, determining what number of these facilities has accommodation and those without and determining the available accommodation around facilities without; distance & capacities.

Conference tourism is a niche market product and should be differentiated, though complimented with other tourism products. Developing a conference tourism brand would be the next prudent step in differentiating this unique product. Malindi tourists' attractions sites have been identified by culture (of coastal people) and coastal and marine tourism, that is, for a long time such that it's very hard to think of Malindi as a tourism destination without thinking of the two. Thus, by taking advantage of these strengths and creating an extension identity would be ideal in differentiating the conference tourism product with the general holiday product. This will entail; logo and colour for the brand; slogan; website and; convention bureau.

On the other hand, for proper development of conference tourism, it will require both the development and promotion of the concept of conference tourism not only in Malindi but in Kenya at large. Through this, the tourism operators will be able to bridge the competition gap from both the established and emerging MICE tourism destinations regionally and globally. Thus in order to improve the state of conference tourism in Malindi and Kenya and improving the country's ranking as well, there is need to develop cohesive and symbiotic relationships among tourism stakeholders.

Creating professional and respectful relationships within the conference industry and with key conference tourism industry partners not only makes business sense, it makes common sense. Professional, respectful and mutually beneficial relationships are what are lacking within the county as well as the country's meeting industry. Forging of such symbiotic relationships locally and internationally can grow this unique tourism sub sector by leaps and jumps.
Finally, the establishment of a fully-fledged and government supported conventional body would be the best intervention in the promotion of conference tourism. By de-centralizing tourism promotion and marketing, the government would essentially harness the advantages related to outsourcing. By combining, sharing and expanding core competencies, these networks enhance the efforts of marketing the county's tourism sector

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# Pro-poor tourism training for rural economic development arround Ruma National Park, Kenya

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**Abstract**

Tourism host communities in Kenya mostly live in areas that are generally characterized by high levels of poverty, non-value added peasant farming, limited access to markets and information, low levels of local community participation in tourism, low levels of knowledge and technical skills, low levels of investment, poor infrastructure, and limited access to essential services. The tourism industry has a good chance to contribute to the development of these areas due to the fact that the tourists travel, seek and consumer tourism products at their geographical locations and in the process facilitates ripple-effect in the purchasing of tourism and its related goods and services in-and-outside the destination. In effect, this opens up the areas and creates both direct and indirect socio-economic linkages with other sectors of the economy which if managed well and with good policy frameworks, benefits the poor host communities. Unfortunately, development planners and tourism administrators at local level, rarely focus on tourism as a socio-economic activity that can support and supplement existing livelihoods further leaving host communities trapped in poverty. It was established that the main causes of poverty were poor farming methods (26%) and low levels of education and skills (20%). It was also established that some of the hindrances to local communities' participation in tourism were lack of favorable policies (26%) and low level of education and technical skills (21%). In conclusion local people's participation in tourism is hindered by lack of policy interventions in form of skills training, identification and mapping of natural/cultural heritages found in the area, and participation in tourism supply chains. It was recommended that the government in collaboration with private sector, civil society and local community should develop clear and well defined policy framework that will support and enhance local peoples' skills and technical training to enable them participate and benefit from tourism development. This paper shares the lessons learned from the research carried at Ruma National Park, Kenya.

## Introduction

The convergence of high tourism growth in developing countries generally and in particular those with high poverty rates has generated significant interests of tourism as a poverty reduction strategy (Mitchell and Ashley, 2007; Harrison, 2008; Scheyvens, 2011; UNWTO, 2005). However, tourism growth may not mean much for the poor unless it significantly impacts positively on their lives. There is therefore, need to find ways to bring local people living around tourist destinations into the tourism chain in order change their lives for the better.

Tourism has had minimal impacts on rural development because of its weak linkages with local economies, and particularly with agriculture which is the main economic activity in most rural landscapes (Rueegg, 2009). Rural areas in which most tourism and its activities in developing countries is located and consumed, generally have high levels of poverty and are characterized by low levels of investment, limited access to markets, information and credit, environmental degradation, poor infrastructure, high levels of unemployment, marginalization of women and the youth, and limited access to essential services (Holland, *et al*, 2003). Within tourism planning and development discourse, there has been a growing realization that tourism development may not be alleviating poverty and that pro-poor tourism policies and practices must be developed in favor of the most venerable groups in society (Jamieson, *et al*, 2004). Tourism investments which increases indirect and induced impacts reduces leakages and enhances linkages, thereby benefiting and increasing the host community's socio-economic activities may be desirable. The conventional approach to tourism investment in Kenya focuses on attracting more international tourists, foreign exchange earnings, balance of payment, and employment creation (Meyer, 2006). These, most often fail to directly touch the livelihoods of the poorest in society. If tourism has to directly and indirectly contribute to the socio-economic wellbeing of these people, there is need for alternative strategies that will diversify rural areas' livelihoods in order to make them economically viable and attract investments. With good policies, management and targeted strategic support, tourism represents a significant opportunity for development, diversification, and poverty reduction in poor rural destinations. However, for these to succeed, tourism must make local communities the centers of tourism development.

In the development arena, practitioners working with host communities know little about tourism products and its related markets, and in most cases initiate projects without input of local communities, business expertise and private business partners. In the commercial world, tourism companies readily think about local donations as corporate social responsibility but fewer seek the commercial and local advantages that can come from doing business differently. And in the public sector, destination level approach to tourism would need complementary policies from agriculture, transportation, enterprise, finance, land and other natural resources, information technology, plus authority and skills at local level in order to touch the lives of the poor (Ashley & Goodwin, 2007). Pro-poor impacts are likely to be higher in a destination where out-of-pocket spending is higher, small and micro enterprises (SMEs) have access to capital and business support, un-skilled and semi-skilled workers have access to target training, small scale infrastructure support local business development, and tourism company's demand for locally procured products is matched by adequate capacity for production and marketing on the supply side.

**Poverty and Tourism Destination Areas**

As many as 75% of the world's poor live in the rural areas which are part of top tourist destinations particularly in developing countries (Holland, *et al*, 2003; UN, 2005). The poor have lower levels of consumption and are characterized by a lack of purchasing power in the market, and human under-development (Jamieson, et al, 2004; Father Wresinski, 1987). Poverty is reflected in lack of access to basic goods/services such as education, health-care, water and sanitation, housing, markets and information, food, life expectancy, child mortality, and unemployment (WB, 2009). For example, access to information lead to a better understanding of agricultural techniques which can lead to increased productivity even in subsistence agriculture.

Poverty has become one of the biggest enemies of mankind in the 21st century as reflected in the SDGs, MDGs and Vision 2030 (UN, 2015, 2005; GoK, 2008), and tourism has become an important item in the world economy. The UNWTO (2004b) has identified poverty reduction a long with climate change as global challenges to the tourism industry. As one of the largest and growing economic sectors, tourism can be a significant contributor to economic growth (Smith, 2006). However, the current structure of the industry leaves the door open for massive economic leakages and whatever remains is captured by rich local elites leaving the poor highly marginalized and resentful (Chok, Macbeth, & Warren, 2007). If it were possible to retain more of the benefits of tourism within host communities and ensure more of it reaches the poorest, there would be considerable potential for tourism-based poverty reduction, and this is largely the basis of pro-poor tourism (Meyers, 2006; Ashley et al., 2000).

The poor are socially excluded from and have minimal access to various social services and other forms of social welfare enjoyed by the rich in their society. The poor are generally marginalized in the decision-making processes, lack marketable skills and only access very minimal and lower levels of employment opportunities. Lacking access to savings and capital, the poor generally experience high levels of vulnerability to changes in market conditions. The result is that their basic needs are not met, and they do not have a state of 'well-being' but 'ill-being' (Gordon, 2005; UNWTO, 2005).

Though Kenya has tried to implement various strategies to reduce poverty, it remains widespread and a critical development challenge in the country. This calls for a systematic and integrated approach to deal with this challenge. For many years, Kenyan tourism has generally done well, but it rarely provides significant economic opportunities for local residents and especially the poor at its various tourism destination areas (GoK, 2003; UNICEF, 2008).

According to the country's Fact Sheet (CRA, 2011), poverty rate in Kenya stands at 46%, and is determined largely by natural resources. Along with urbanization, low poverty levels are associated with good climate, tourism, and location along the coast and in transport corridors. Performance of three counties in terms of poverty rate ranking showed that; Kajiado at11.6% (ranked 1 as the richest county), Lamu (ranked 7), Narok (ranked 9), all of which are tourist destinations, clearly shows that tourism has marked influence on development outcomes. It therefore, must be noted that tourism should play its part in poverty reduction.

According to literature reviewed, the overall poverty rate for Suba sub-county where Ruma National Park is located was between 64% and 74% of the total population, HIV/AIDs prevalence ranged from 34% to 37%, life expectancy at 53.1%, under 5 years mortality at 130/1000, absolute poverty at 40.03%, income from rural self employment at 1%, urban self employment at 3%, wage employment at 5%, income from agriculture at 51%, and income from fisheries at 40% (KNBS, 2007; Suba District Statistic office, 2009). These statistics indicate that the level of poverty was very high and even though Ruma National Park is located in this area, tourism did not feature anywhere as contributor to the livelihoods of local residents. Box 1 is the summary of the main causes of poverty for communities around Ruma National Park and some possible suggestions.

| **Box 1. Summary of Causes of Poverty around Ruma National Park** |
|---|
| 1. ***Poor methods of farming*** – peasant or subsistence farming was prevalent here with no value-addition (there was no evidence of commercial or mechanized farming) leading to low farm yields. This means that, farmers are not able to produce enough food for consumption and income generation, calling for alternative livelihoods sources to supplement agriculture such as pro-poor tourism. |
| 2. **Out-dated Culture** – a large part of the residents of the area still remain loyal to the retrogressive socio-cultural practices such as: early marriages leading to school drop-outs which deny young people education and needed skills; polygamous marriages which leaves most families struggling in an environment of limited economic options; fear of contradicting traditional culture which impedes innovation, development and the realization of full potential of all members of society especially women and other vulnerable groups. There is needed to re-look at some cultural practices a fresh and discard retrogressive ones in favor of those which support livelihoods. |
| 3. **Lack of organized community groups** – some of the other livelihood sources in the area are fishing, sand harvesting, charcoal burning and bee keeping. However, most of these activities are cartels-driven, leaving little resources in the hands of the poor. The area needs some form of community groups i.e. savings and credit societies (sacco), and professional associations managed by group members themselves with some professional inputs, which may serve as; “torch bearers”, agents of community change and custodians of equitable benefits sharing and distribution. |
| 4. **Limited access to information, markets and credit facilities** – At the time of this study, the area had only one commercial bank, which significantly limited access to financial services for small business operations and expansion. As part of strengthening business operations, attention should be focused on improved access to information, markets and credit by local people in-order to expand their livelihoods operations and sustain supply chains. Information access improves agriculture productivity, contributes to improved education and to better health standards being applied. |

| | |
|---|---|
| 5. | **Poor infrastructure** – the area had severe infrastructural challenges, both in terms of "hard" infrastructure and 'soft' infrastructure. The road network, power supply, social service provision, information technology were all very poor. The government must invest in these assets because they are key ingredients in the growth of SMEs, people's health, transportation and storage, provision goods/services, and access to markets in/outside the area, which in turn leads to improved livelihoods for local communities. |
| 6. | **Diseases** – Malaria and HIV/AIDs were and are still major problems in the area even though initiatives by ICIPE and both public/private efforts to reduce them are laudable. Prevalence for HIV/AIDs stood at 34%, which affected the productivity of households and labor. The area has also limited health centers and human development, which are essential to sustainable health population for development. Both the government and development partners should work together in order to sustainably deal with the challenges various diseases. |
| 7. | **Environmental degradation** –There was severe degradation of natural resources due to population pressure, poor farming methods, uncontrolled harvesting and poverty. There is need for sustainable alternative land use options such as Pro-poor Tourism, which will likely reduce pressure on the unsustainable utilization of natural resources. |
| 8. | **Brain drain** – High rates of unemployment, have led to large number of young people and the area's professional elite to migrate to commercial centers outside the area such as Nairobi, Kisumu, Mombasa, etc. The area therefore, has limited human resources in terms of ideas and projects implementation from within the community. Successful tourism development demands local participation, capacity building, skills development and training. This will lead to start-up of SMEs, investments in tourism and other, leading to alternative livelihood opportunities and activities including cooks, guides, interpreters, cleaners, clerks, suppliers, etc offering unemployed youths and women opportunities to benefit economically and socially. |

Despite of documented tourism potential for poverty reduction (Ashley & Haysom, 2009), there was no evidence that local people had embraced it as a tool for improving their living standards. The low opinion about tourism as a land use option may be averted through policy interventions generally and in particular, investment in education and targeted training among the local people. With policies that are inclusive Ruma National Park, may be a catalyst for economic growth and diversification, employment creation, infrastructure development, revitalization of traditional industries (handicrafts, cultural activities), human resource development, and enterprise development (Holland et al, 2003).

Market trends in tourism reveal rising consumer awareness of both environmental and socio-economic issues in tourist destinations. The business case for poverty reduction is that entrepreneurship cannot succeed in societies that fail (Gordon, 2005). There are many companies in the tourism industry that would perhaps be interested in investing in poverty reduction initiatives in rural communities, but do not have the skills, time or insights as to how to do so. But for the majority, the claim is that poverty is not their business, despite the risks and opportunities that such a position presents. These have led to resentment and sometimes open hostility towards tourism, leading to severe natural resources degradation, poaching, civil strife, and loose of lives and property (Roe, et al, 2004). This is because beyond the enclave nature of tourism in most developing destinations, tourism is dependent upon the tolerance of local communities, tourist experiences and safety. Furthermore, tourism is a service and recreational industry which requires well-motivated local staff who feels that their communities are deriving benefits from tourism industry. If given an opportunity, they will likely increase their commitment to providing better services to clients that will make them stay longer and spend more within the local economy.

**Training and Skills Development**

Training is accepted as important in all spheres of economic activity. Training is one of the major strategies through which backward linkages can be increased for local destination communities in relation to tourism. Broadly, increasing backward linkages refers to increasing the collaboration with and usage of other economic sectors in the area to stimulate the economy as a whole and to create synergy between different sectors that often have a long history of non-collaboration and lack of integration. The aim of creating linkages is to reduce the high import content in the tourism sector in the area by substituting goods/services from outside the area and foreign imports with local suppliers. Currently, linkages between tourism, agriculture and manufacturing are weak in most local tourist destination areas thereby living little room for tourism to contribute to the economic wellbeing of local poor people (Ashley *et al*, 2000; Meyers, 2009). In practical terms this calls for creating linkages between tourism and local people. Hence, successful tourism development requires developers/investors to address the challenges of product quality, non-collaboration and non-consultation, skill availability, and harmonization of the interests of all stakeholders in tourism development (Bowden, 2005).

Training of local people will help them learn the skills of marketing, business start-up, hospitality, heritage interpretation, visitor management, conservation, negotiation, and planning. It will facilitate them to maximize linkages into the local economy and minimize leakages, build-on and complement existing livelihood strategies, and evaluate tourism incentives for their contribution to local economic development and not just the increase in international arrivals. It will also lead to managing environmental risks, health and safety, increased emphasis on the economic and social aspects, and increasing the tourists' experiences beyond purchased transport, accommodation and guiding services. Training in the long-term will lead to product quality, high performance, and competitive provision of services. It will enable local people to own competitive SMEs, supply complementary products/services to supplement provision of resort activities and thus, enrich tourist experience and increase length of stay (Ashley & Haysom, 2009). Studies ( Louks, 1988) have noted that lack of training is a major reason for high incidences of business failure, and failure to group and set-up cooperative ventures.

In the international development community, the focus of most interventions have shifted from identifying ways in which economic growth in developing countries can contribute to overall development to a much more specific focus on poverty reduction (Jamieson, *et al*, 2004). In fact, there has been a growing realization that economic growth may not necessarily reduce poverty and that policy commitments to reduce poverty can only be achieved if there is a specific and integrated effort to raise the well-being of the poor in developing countries. The UN’s Millennium Development goals (MDGs) and now Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and Kenya’s Vision 2030 are the most recent and explicit state of commitment to pro-poor growth with a direct focus on reducing the numbers of people living in extreme poverty (UN, 2005, 2015; GoK, 2008).

**Methodology**

This research followed a mixed methods case study design (Creswell, 2003). Data were collected thru: (1) A questionnaire was applied to 72 respondents (local residents 57, NGOs 3, CBOs 2, tourists 10); (2) Interviews with 8 community leaders, 4 public and private sector members in the tourism industry; (3) Participant observation in 3 visits; (4) Archival data analysis of documents.
The questionnaire sought information on self-reported beliefs or behavior on causes of poverty, sources of livelihoods, and utilization of national park resources, benefits of tourism, training and the role of government. There was also questionnaire on various demographic variables as family size, level of education and income, occupation. The questionnaire findings benefited from comparison and cross-checking with the data collected thru interviews and observation. Conversely, the gender ratio was weighted more towards male because of cultural norms that are in favor of male.

**Discussion and Results**

Box 2 shows most of the identified existing means of economic livelihoods and what the respondents felt should be done to improve existing livelihoods.

| **Box 2: Existing Means of Economic Livelihoods at Ruma and suggestions** |
|---|
| 1. **Farming** – subsistence farming is practiced in this area and targeted maize, millet, beans, onions and potatoes. However, most respondents felt that the area has potential for commercial farming which may thru training and awareness enable farmers to produce farm products for consumption, commercial markets, and participation in the tourism supply chain creating linkages with the local economy and employment within and outside the destination. Inclusive tourism, will lead to SMEs start-up at local destination and beyond, creating linkages with other sectors of local economy, further demonstrating positive impacts on the poor. |
| 2. **Livestock keeping** – the findings of the study showed that livestock breeds kept in the area were of poor/low quality with limited commercial value. However, the livestock would form part of tourism supply chain in terms of meat and milk supply to hotels, resorts, and other tourism related activities. Training will usher in livestock improvement in terms of quality, high yield and reduced numbers and most likely leading to a sustainable balance in the use of pasture between livestock and wildlife. According the respondents, training is likely to empower farmers in terms of; information, market access, technology in modern livestock keeping/storage methods, quality production and supply chain, and development of small business enterprises capable of meeting and maintaining the standards (health and safety) which are necessary for a tourism product. |
| 3. **Natural heritage harvesting** – this is partly responsible for the degradation of the Forests/rivers; reduced number of fish, poultry and bee keeping, reduced number of sand grounds, and increased soil erosion. These unsustainable land use practices need to be halted or minimized through training and awareness, and initiation of inclusive alternative and sustainable land use options such as pro-poor tourism initiatives. Training will usher in new techniques, commercial skills, organizational capacity, visitor management skills, storage, identification skills, production of quality and standards, sales skills, market and linkages both to local tourist establishment and outside markets. |

4. **Tourism** – the current practice of tourism is under the category 2 protected area model of conservation approach, where tourists pay for services at Ruma National Park but all remittances are channeled to the national government leaving nothing for local communities. Participants in this study felt that tourism in its current structure, was not making a positive contribution to the natural and cultural heritage, and was not generating direct tangible benefits to the host communities. They felt that there was need for policy interventions, involvement of civil society and professional tourism associations for advocacy role in training and educating the local youths, women and entrepreneurs, and other stakeholders on the possibilities of developing and supporting skills training in various areas critical to tourism like supply chains, tourism information centers, cultural centers, tour guiding, visitor management, interpretation, mapping and identification, service quality provision, cooking, cleaning, laundry, shoe shining, gardening, retail sales, etc. Tourist felt that visible and accessible goods and services, quality services, health and safety, and security, would make them feel comfortable outside established hotels and resorts, and to spend their resources in the local economy, stay much longer and enrich their experience.

Respondents further said that training and financial support will enable them to establish various SMEs for example selling drinks, fruits, handicrafts, food, wears, pictures, laundry services, carpentry work, repairs, and supply of inputs to tourist establishments. Some of the incomes from these enterprises may be small, but do provide a critical buffer and make a difference in the poor peoples' livelihoods and their communities (Roe, et al, 2002, Ashley & Goodwin, 2007). The successes of these SMEs that are critical in the local peoples' livelihoods in rural areas largely depend on integrated policy interventions that are both investment and local people friendly. In addition, NGOs and local and national civil societies could assume useful advocacy role for and in training and educating local youths, women and entrepreneurs and other stakeholders about the possibilities of developing various supply chains (Janis, 2011; Hashimoto and Telfer, 2011). Training will provide poor local communities with the knowledge and technical skills on what complementary products the poor can develop to make destinations more attractive to the tourists, extend their length of stay, and provide employment and other income benefits to the poor in a way that forms part of the holiday experience. With community enlightenment and direction, income and benefits from tourism can be spread to a larger proportion of society, For example, Lianshulu Lodge in Namibia has helped a neighboring community establish a traditional village for tourists. The lodge directs clients to the village as part of their stay at the lodge. In Chiclayo, Peru, a local hotelier invites local crafts people into their hotel to demonstrate their crafts in the hotel lobby and to sell directly to guests. In Pokhara, Nepal, the Tiger Tops Mountain Travel Company actively purchases locally produced products for its lodge. Further, Wilderness Safaris in South Africa ensures that most of the staff, except management, are hired from the local area, and provided with training opportunities that enable them to advance in the company. This has led to low staff turnover and peaceful neighbors. There was no evidence that this has been done around Ruma National Park.

In general, the respondents identified the major areas of training on pro-poor tourism around Ruma National Park as: water recreation (canoeing, sun-bathing, boat-racing, sport-fishing); re-construction and preservation of cultural heritage attractions; management and interpretation of traditional cuisine, festivals, ceremonies and local museum tourism; provision of information; management of tourists and tour guiding; conservation; farming; SMEs creation and management; transportation and tax operations; basic food and beverage production; fisheries; beekeeping; service provisions; traditional and conventional accommodation; bookkeeping/accounting; supply management and production.

## Conclusions

Tourism growth does not necessarily lead to inclusive growth. However, policy interventions are critical to inclusive growth. Local communities border and live with tourism products and attractions (i.e. wildlife, culture, etc) and are sometimes tourism products/attractions themselves. However, there are limited economic opportunities for local people in areas sounding major tourist destinations. Therefore, there is need for new tourism strategies that will ensure inclusivity and participation of all stakeholders in tourism development. Training generally and vocational training in particular, is vital to enable local people to provide quality services directly, and to conceptualize, start, implement and market small tourism enterprises that they will directly manage. Training is necessary in enabling local people develop necessary skills for developing and sustaining their own small enterprises, negotiate joint-venture agreements, and enable them engage in constructive and profitable dialogue with other stakeholders in the tourism industry. Training that targets the poor is important in an effort to realize sustainable and integrated local tourism economy; training and skills development leads to high levels of local participation, production, and access market, technology, and information; and training leads low levels of dependence on external suppliers in a tourist destination area. Knowledge provision and skills development gives local poor people confidence to participate in various aspects of the tourism chain and therefore, it is one way of bring and anchoring inclusivity in tourism development. In the long term inclusive growth requires sustainability of biodiversity, formulation of new tourism strategies and integration of the concepts of tourism and inclusive growth. This must be anchored on progressive policy interventions driven by human resource development and training.

## Recommendations

1. The Government should develop clear and well defined policy interventions that will support and enhance: local peoples’ training, knowledge provision and technical skills; investment in tourism; tourism benefit sharing/distribution; access to markets, information, finance and technology; and linkages to other sectors of the economy.

2. The Government should put in place policy frameworks and mechanisms to: preserve and conserve the destination’s natural and cultural heritages;

diversify tourism products; support local entrepreneurs to invest in tourism support and related enterprises in order to generate income, create employment opportunities, and be part of the tourism supply chain.

3. Train local farmers to empower them in terms of: information and awareness, market access, and technology in modern crop farming, livestock keeping, improvement, and beef storage leading to development of SMEs capable of meeting and maintaining high quality production and standards (health and safety) which are necessary for a tourism product. These way farmers become part of tourism supply chain.

4. There is need for strong partnership involving public sector, private sector, civil society, professional tourism associations and local communities to provide training generally and in particular vocational training that will provide specific and targeted skills to local people to enable them not only participate but also feel truly included in various areas critical tourism like supply chains, tourism information centers, cultural centers (traditional cuisines and, festivals, ceremonies, local museum, etc), tour guiding and visitor management, interpretation, mapping and identification, quality service provision, water recreation(i.e. canoeing, sun-bathing, boat racing, spot fishing, etc), retail sales (food vendors), among others targeting local youths, women, and other entrepreneurs. This and other will lead to diversified tourism products and activities in order to; create linkages with other sectors of the economy, increase tourism benefit sharing/distribution, create employment for the youth and women, expand tourist activities and most likely increased satisfaction, increase length of stay and spend in the local community.

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# Capacity building for inclusive growth in community-based tourism initiatives in Kenya

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**Abstract**

Community-Based Tourism (CBT) initiatives have been promoted as tools for poverty reduction and inclusion of communities in conservation especially in wildlife-rich community lands in Sub-Saharan Africa. However, for CBT initiatives to realize their potential, community involvement is important. Community involvement however, requires the community to have the capacity to engage in and participate in decision-making. The concept of capacity building for communities has thus become increasingly important since the 1980s as governments, donors, and implementing agencies such as NGOs seek to realize more sustainable impacts from development assistance. The African Wildlife Foundation (AWF), conservation NGO in Eastern and Southern Africa, has since the late 1990s implemented community capacity building initiatives among communities engaged in tourism-based community-private investor partnerships. This article investigates the outcomes of AWF's capacity building interventions in two CBT initiatives; the Satao Elerai and the Kilitome Conservancies in Kenya. Empirical data were collected between January and April 2015 through in-depth semi-structured interviews, literature review and document analysis. Both communities demonstrate minimal internal and external community interactions, limited learning opportunities for members and minimal shared vision and teamwork among the communities. The investigation reveals the complexity of delivering community capacity building. The study further showed that the capacity building outcomes are hindered by among others, barriers such as power imbalances among community members, limited financing and the community set-up.

## Introduction

Since the 1990s, CBT initiatives have been promoted as a mechanism for sustainable development, poverty alleviation, and biodiversity conservation in wildlife-rich community lands in Eastern and Southern Africa (Western & Wright 1994; Adams 2004; Kiss 2004; Spenceley & Goodwin 2007). CBT is believed to have the potential to not only increase local incomes and jobs, but also to develop skills, institutions, and bring empowerment of local people (Ashley & Garland 1994). In addition, benefits from tourism in communal areas are seen as a key tool for building local support for conservation and sustainable natural resource use (Ashley & Garland 1994). This is in line with the community-based conservation discourse which aims at achieving the goals of conservation and development simultaneously (Western & Wright 1994; Wainwright & Wehrmeyer 1998; Hackel 1999; Brown 2002; Adams 2004; Igoe 2006; Mahanty et al. 2006). However, for community-based initiatives to realize their potentials, community involvement and benefit sharing are fundamental (Ashley & Garland 1994; Goodwin & Santilli 2009).

The challenge for community involvement and participation has however been that communities are faced with shortcomings related to limited capacities, knowledge of the market in designing products, limited access to information, skills, and capital (Ashley & Garland 1994; Kiss 2004; Moscardo 2008). In order to reduce the challenges faced by communities with regard to participation in development initiatives, including tourism, the concept of capacity building has become increasingly important as governments, donors and implementing agencies seek to realize more sustainable impacts from development assistance (ISRDS 2000). In general terms, community capacity is about collective knowledge and ability within the community itself and the knowledge and ability are used to define problems and options from within the community (Moscardo 2008).

In this article, we focus on two conservancies in Kenya initiated by African Wildlife Foundation (AWF). In these conservancies, land owners set aside land for conservation on which a private investor runs an eco-lodge on each. The community receives leasehold money for setting aside land for conservation as well as bed-night fee from every guest who stays in the hotel. The conservancies are managed through a board comprising of representatives from the private investor, community and AWF (see Figures 2 and 3). The AWF engages in diverse capacity building interventions both at the initial stages of setting up the conservancies as well as in the ongoing ventures. Moreover, AWF's founding tenet is to build the capacity of the people of Africa to steward the continent's natural assets through scholarship and capacity building of both individuals and institutions (AWF 2009).

Although a number of studies have investigated these and similar CBT initiatives (Kiss 2004; Spenceley 2005; Manyara & Jones 2007; Sumba et al. 2007; Mitchell & Muckosy 2008; Snyman 2012; Lamers et al. 2015; Nthiga et al. 2015;), there is still limited understanding of the capacity building interventions focused on communities. An understanding of the outcomes of the capacity building initiatives is important because the success of CBT initiatives in terms of both conservation and development depends on the involvement of the communities (Ashley & garland 1994; Ashley & Roe 2001; Kruger 2005). This article therefore establishes the outcomes of the capacity building interventions on the conservancies.

**Conceptual Framework**

There are diverse definitions of the term community capacity (Moscardo 2008). However, according to Hounslow (2002:20), 'community capacity is the ability of individuals, and communities to manage their affairs and to work collectively to foster and sustain positive change'. The various characteristics of community capacity include aspects related to: knowledge and the ability to define and suggest solutions for problems; the ability to critically evaluate proposed projects and activities; local leadership and entrepreneurship; specific technical and managerial skills in target areas; networks and community cohesiveness; equitable partnerships with external organizations; resources and infrastructure; and motivation and confidence (Goodman et al. 1998; Hounslow 2002; Simpson et al. 2003; Lavarack 2005; Slater et al. 2005; Balint 2006; Woodhouse 2006).

On the other hand, the concept of capacity building for communities according to UNDP entails the creation, utilization and retention of capacity to achieve goals such as poverty reduction, enhancement of self-reliance and improvement of lives (UNDP, 2010). UNDP further notes that capacity building requires among others acquisition of individual skills, institutional capacities as well as the development of opportunities to put the skills and networks to productive use in the transformation of society. In addition, improving capacity in organizations usually involves changing the process by which members of the organisation work together and make decisions. Diverse development organizations, AWF included, have engaged in various capacity building programmes for communities. One way of assessing the outcomes of capacity building interventions is the Learning Organisation Approach (Senge 1990). According to Senge (1990: 3), learning organisations are ‘organisations where people continually expand their capacity to create results they truly desire, where new and expansive patterns of thinking are nurtured, where collective aspiration is set free and where people are continually learning to see the whole together’. Any type of organization can be a learning organization, including businesses, educational institutions, nonprofits, and community groups (Gruidl & Hustedde 2003).

To analyze the outcomes of the capacity building interventions in the two conservancies, this article focuses on the five dimensions of the Learning Organisation Model (LOM); systems thinking, personal mastery, mental models, shared vision and team learning (Senge 1990). The learning organization approach (see Figure 1) has been widely applied in evaluating capacity building programmes in community development, nutrition, youth development and small businesses (Stevens & Lodl 1999; Gruidl & Hustedde 2003; Magzan 2012) with limited application to CBT initiatives.

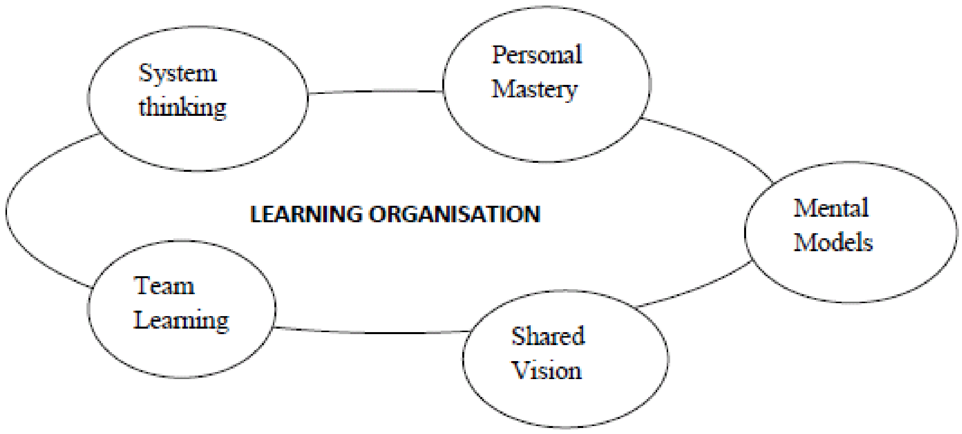


**Figure 1:** The Learning Organization Approach Model
*Adapted and modified from Senge (1990)*

Systems' thinking is a cornerstone dimension that integrates the others (Senge 1990; Senge *et al*. 1994; Stevens & Lodl 1999). According to Senge, analyzing systems' thinking in an organisation includes looking at aspects such as the ability to comprehend and address the whole and to examine the interrelationships between the parts. Personal mastery involves a continuous process improving individual and communal capabilities. On the other hand, mental models encompass the assumptions, generalizations and mental pictures or images that influence behaviour and understanding of the world. Moreover, shared vision dimension includes aspects such as a common identity and shared values and vision. Finally, team learning entails the practice of group interaction, coordination and mobilization of energies and actions to achieve common goals.

In this article we view the two conservancies as organizations and evaluate the outcomes of the various capacity building interventions to the community based on the five dimensions of the LOM (see Table 1). Systems' thinking is here characterized in terms of interactions between the units of the conservancies, the interactions of the conservancies with external networks and the understanding and reactions to issues confronting the conservancies. Personal mastery is characterized in terms of the available avenues to share rewards and learning, new knowledge and skills and avenues for improving individual and communal capabilities. On the other hand, mental models refer to the observed behaviour and practices modification arising from individual and communal world views; including: turning the mirror inward to unearth individual and communal internal pictures of the world to bring them to the surface and hold them rigorously to scrutiny; the ability to carry on 'learningful' conversations that balance inquiry and advocacy, where people expose their own thinking effectively and make that thinking open to the influence of others. In addition, shared vision is conceptualized in terms of shared vision, identity and values.

Finally, team learning is evaluated in terms of the flow of information within the conservancies, feedback mechanisms and coordination within the conservancies. For both conservancies, diverse capacity building interventions have been initiated by AWF including set up of local institutions, technical and financial support (AWF 2009). This article further assesses the outcomes of the interventions in relation to the local and national context, community power relations and set-up.

**Table 1:** Conceptualization of the Learning Organisation Model Dimensions

| **Learning Organisation Model Dimensions** | **Sub-dimensions/ Determining elements** |
|---|---|
| systems' thinking | • Interactions between units<br>• Interactions of the conservancies with external networks<br>• Understanding and reactions to issues confronting the conservancies |
| Personal Mastery | • Available avenues to share rewards and learning<br>• New knowledge and skills<br>• Avenues for improving individual and communal capabilities |
| Mental Models | • Observed behaviour and practices arising from individual and communal world views<br>• Ability/willingness to learn new skills and develop new orientations. |
| Shared Vision | • Shared vision, identity and values |
| Team Learning | • Flow of information within the conservancies<br>• Feedback mechanisms<br>• Coordination within the conservancies |

**Methodology**

The study employed a case study approach (Yin 2009). The research investigates the outcomes of AWF's capacity building interventions on two CBT initiatives; the Satao Elerai and the Kilitome Conservancies in Kenya. Empirical data were collected between January and April 2015 through in-depth semi-structured interviews, literature review and document analysis. A total of 15 interviews comprising of community leaders (10), AWF staff (3) and private investor representatives (2) were interviewed.

The choice of interviewees was determined by the prominence of their role in the management of the conservancies. The interviews and documents were transcribed and summarized in light of the Learning Organisation Approach. The analyzed information was strengthened and supported with secondary data and literature review.

**The African Wildlife Foundation (AWF) Capacity Building initiatives**

Since the 1990's, AWF has been involved in Community Based Natural Resource Management (CBNRM) by supporting conservation enterprises which they define as "a commercial activity which generates economic benefits in a way that supports the attainment of a conservation objective" (Elliott & Sumba 2010: 4). A major strategic intervention for engaging communities in these enterprises and related community-based conservation initiatives has been through capacity building. AWF focuses on building capacity at the community level because 'conservation efforts must ultimately rest in the hands of the people of Africa' (AWF 2009: 19).The assumption is that local communities are best placed to conserve natural resources; and that they will do so if the benefits of conserving them exceed the costs, and if those natural resources can be directly linked to their quality of life (Rozemeijer 2001).

AWF does not have an organized or systematic 'curriculum' for capacity building but integrates capacity building system into its conservation work. According to one respondent…. 'AWF since the implementation of the Conservation of Biodiverse Resource Areas (COBRA) program has engaged in various capacity building interventions with communities'. The various interventions include but not limited to: familiarization/benchmarking trips, community meetings for awareness creation, skills development, building and strengthening of community institutions and organizing workshops on various issues. In addition, …'AWF engages in capacity building on aspects such as training of leaders on new land laws, financial management, increasing human capacity through scouts training and indirect capacity building through education support' and also 'supports regular community meetings to ensure that committees are active and that there is frequent and active participation'.

**Introducing the Conservancies**

***a) Satao Elerai Conservancy***

The Satao Elerai Conservancy is located in Kajiado County near Amboseli National Park, Kenya. Within the conservancy, there is the Satao Elerai Eco-lodge (see Figure 4). The conservancy is part of the important wildlife migratory corridor between Amboseli, Mount Kilimanjaro, Chyulu Hills and Tsavo West national parks. The conservancy came into being through a negotiation of AWF and eight offspring families of a major land owner. The total land of the families is 6,000 ha. AWF conducted land use planning for the land and divided the land into three zones of approximately 2,000 ha each: a conservation area, a settlement and cultivation area and a grazing area. In the conservation area, which we refer in this article as the conservancy, we have the Satao Elerai Eco-lodge. The lodge was constructed about USD 500,000 donor funds from the United States Agency for International Development (USAID), The Royal Netherlands Embassy in Nairobi, the Ford foundation and an individual donor. The lodge opened for business in 2007 and is operated by the Southern Cross Safaris, a tour operator company.

The institutional arrangement for the management of the conservancy is the Satao Elerai Community Wildlife Trust (Figure 2). The trust comprises of seven representatives: three from the eight families, three from the private investor and one from AWF. There is also a sixteen member family committee comprising of two representatives from each family. Eight members of the family committee form the management committee while the other eight together (with others) sit in the different sub-committees such as water, education, settlement, conservation and cultural village.

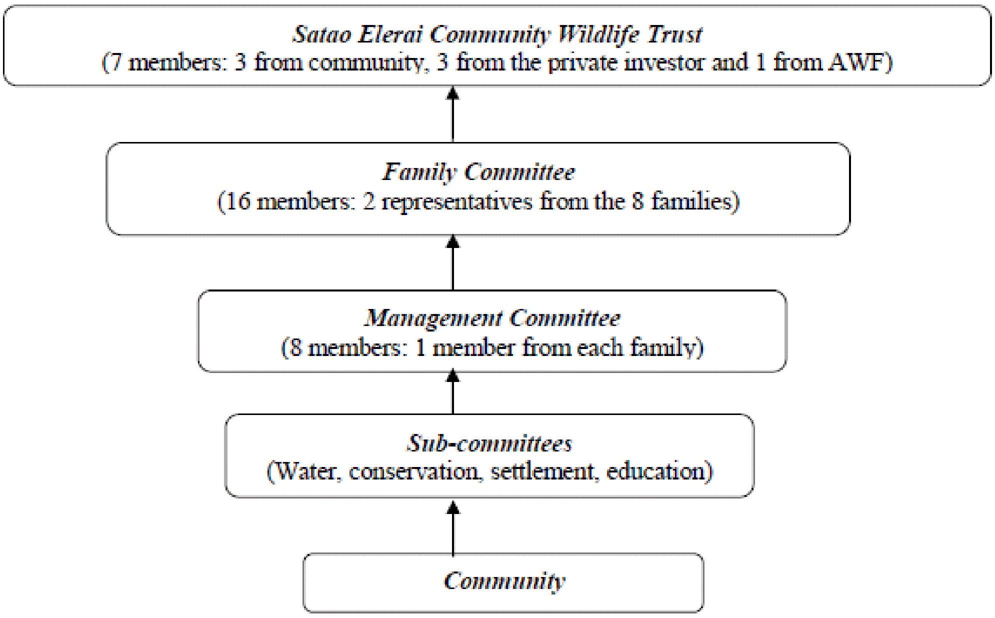


**Figure 2:** The organization structure of the Satao Elerai Conservancy

### *b) Kilitome Conservancy*

The Kilitome Conservancy is part of the former Kimana group ranch formed after the group ranch sub-divided land and awarded to individuals who were members of Kimana group ranch, near Amboseli National Park, Kenya (see Figure 4). The conservancy is located in Kajiado County and is also part of the important wildlife migratory corridor between Amboseli, Mount Kilimanjaro, Chyulu Hills and Tsavo West national parks. Kimana group ranch sub-divided its land among the members into individual 60 acres parcels of land. Kilitome Conservancy came into being when AWF entered into a lease agreement with 100 individual land owners to set aside their land for conservation for a certain amount per year. The lease agreement was to prevent habitat loss and to secure land for wildlife movement while providing income for the community. AWF also entered into a similar arrangement with other smaller conservancies in the area including: Oltiyani, Osopuko, Nailepu, Ole Polos, Kitenden and Nalarami. Together, the total land under conservation is 3,200 ha. Prior to the set up of the Kilitome Conservation, one individual land owner had already entered into an agreement with an investor to construct a lodge- the Tawi Lodge and pay the individual land owner lease for the parcel of land. The lodge opened for business in 2010.

The main institutional arrangement for the management of the Kilitome Conservancy is the Tawi Conservancy Ltd comprising of nine members: three from the community, three from the private investor and one from AWF (Figure 3). There is also the conservancy committee comprising of eleven members including a chairman, a secretary and a treasurer. The conservancy, together with the other conservancies in the area has also created an umbrella body called the Amboseli Land Owners Association which has three members from each conservancy.

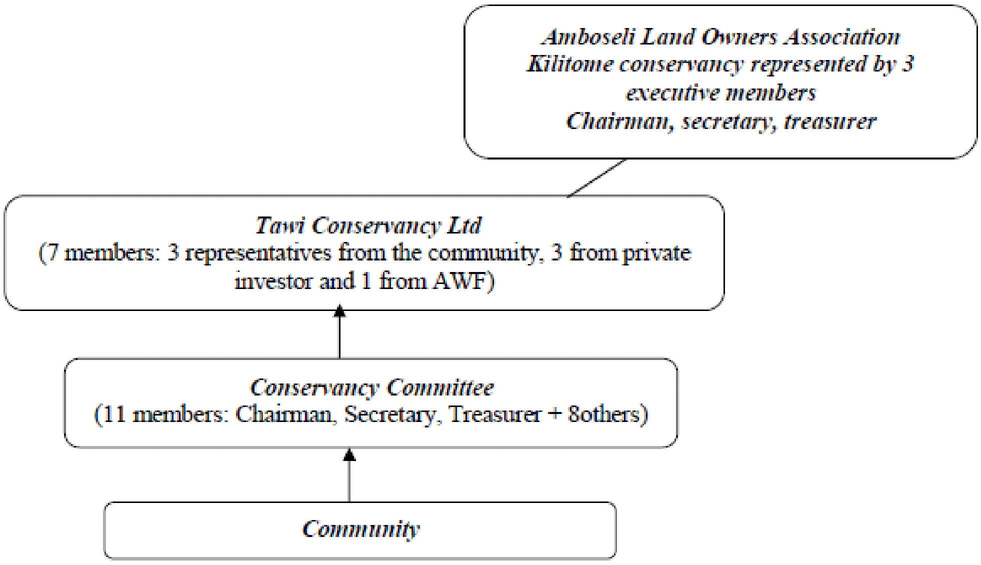


**Figure 3:** The organization structure of the Kilitome Conservancy

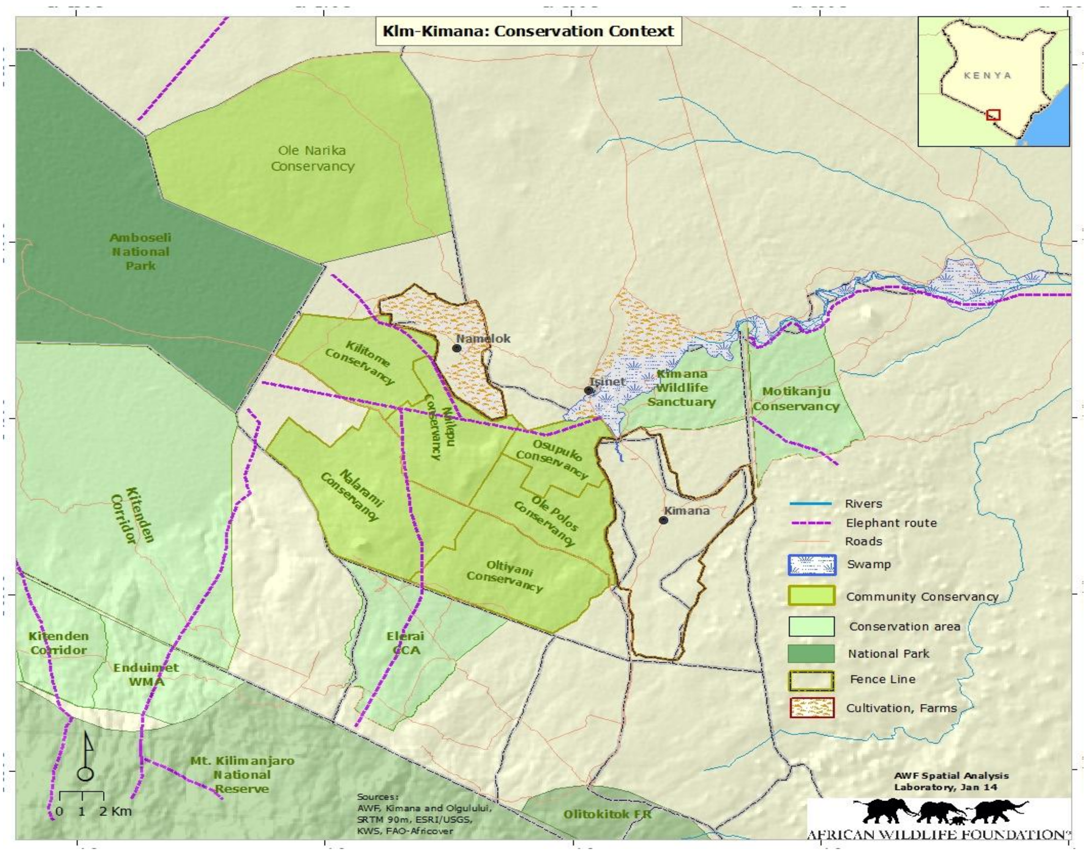


**Figure 4:** Map showing the location of the study areas

## Results

### Comparative analysis of the conservancies

A comparison between the two conservancies shows variations in terms of the size of ownership, hectares, lease period, land tenure location, governance as well as stakeholders' role (Table 2).

**Table 2:** Structural characteristics of each of the two Conservancies

| Aspect | Kilitome Conservancy | Satao Elerai Conservancy |
|---|---|---|
| Community involved | 100 individual land owners | 8 families |
| Total land under conservation | 3,200 ha. | 2,000 ha. |
| Location of tourism enterprise | Inside the conservancy on land owned by a non-member | Within the conservancy, owned by the community |
| Governance structure | Committees<br>Group ranch management interference | Committees<br>All families represented<br>No group ranch interference |
| Stakeholder roles | Community: provides land<br>AWF : Neutral partner and mediator<br>Private investor: Lease<br>Where the investor gets the lease funds through bed-night, conservancy fee and aircrafts landing fee | Community: provides land<br>AWF : Neutral partner and mediator<br>Private investor: Lease+ bed night + conservation fee |

## Capacity Building Outcomes

### a) Systems' Thinking

Interactions between units of both conservancies exist, though in a minimal way. There are institutions and organization structures for both conservancies (see figures 2 and 3). Meetings are the main avenues for interactions within the various committees as well as between committee members and the general communities. However, meetings are rare and usually in most cases unplanned for as noted by one respondent that at the time of the field work, the Kilitome has had no meeting with the Tawi lodge investor for one and a half years. Moreover, according to one respondent…. 'community meetings are usually held every six months, sometimes sooner or later as need arises'. In both conservancies, leaders especially at the top leadership are the major decision-makers, while the sub-committees and the community members are mainly observers. Women and the youth are the most segregated groups of the communities and even attend meetings just to listen. This minimal interaction and participation can be partly attributed to the culture that insubordinates women, power relations between the leaders and community members and lack of knowledge of the rights and responsibilities amongst the community members.

Results from both conservancies revealed some interactions of the conservancies with external networks, though at a limited level. Interactions include but not limited to NGOs, the Kenya Wildlife Service (KWS) and the private investors in the respective conservancies. The interactions are limited due to lack of financial resources, limited information on the options for responding to external forces. Especially for Kilitome conservancy, the Kimana group ranch leadership interference has made the interaction of the conservancy with other stakeholders difficult.

AWF has also on several occasions taken the leaders of each of the conservancies for visits or familiarization tours to different areas with similar CBT interventions to learn and interact. Both conservancy leaders viewed the familiarization tours in a positive way and argued that they had exposed them. Also observed were some interventions stated by the community. The interventions were however not sustainable due to lack of funds and the dependency culture, where they want AWF to always support them. The interaction of the conservancies with the umbrella body for conservancies in Kenya (Kenya Wildlife Conservancies Association) is still minimal since the communities are used to NGOs spearheading initiatives in the area.

To enable coordination of the activities, each conservancy has prepared a conservancy management plan in line with the provisions of the Amboseli Ecosystem Management Plan spearheaded by the Amboseli Ecosystem Trust (AET). However, the implementation of the plans are hindered by among others local politics, illiteracy which makes it difficult for some members to 'understand and support decisions' as well as conflicts with group ranch officials who do not recognize the conservancy officials.

**b) Personal Mastery**

For both conservancies, apart from the benefits from the conservation and bed-night fees, there are limited avenues to share rewards and learning. In addition, both conservancies mainly depend on AWF and other NGOs for training and other aspects that are geared towards personal skills development such as on livestock husbandry, beekeeping, scouts training, smart agriculture, livestock management and marketing through the establishment of the Amboseli Livestock Marketing Association (ALMA) and of MACs (Market Access Committees). The interventions are however faced with diverse challenges. For example, the Kilitome MAC was affected by lack of transparency as argued by one community leader, '…..no member of the Kilitome conservancy knew what was happening…the concerned leaders did not involve the community'.

The only avenues for improving individual and communal capabilities have been started by AWF and the communities have not been able to sustain them for example the livestock marketing project at Kilitome conservancy. This lack of continuity or sustainability of projects can be attributed to the dependency culture and mismanagement. The community also seems to have limited understanding of their roles in most capacity building interventions. For example the irrigation project at Kilitome faced challenges since community members were supposed to dig a water hole, pump water and buy fuel, which they initially thought were to be financed. One member argued that '……the project has impoverished us more'.
According to AWF (2014), AWF trained leaders, women groups on livestock business and enhanced clean energy technologies. However, majority of the trainings mainly target the leaders who in most cases only share with members the knowledge and issues that they feel will not compromise their positions which limit the trickle-down effect of the training to the members. In addition, the acquisition of new knowledge and skills in both conservancies mainly depend on AWF and other NGOs. In addition, the community members wait for bursaries for secondary school, college and university students and a limited number of members are willing to sell their livestock to take children to school.

The community leaders also have come up with new ideas such as developing game viewing within conservancies. They however noted that developing and managing tourism in the conservancies cannot be implemented by the communities without assistance. One respondent pointed out to AWF that '….do not think that we do not have ideas, but please help us to follow up and implement'. Additional challenges confronting communities include: financial constraints, un-cooperative members, 'challenge of working with projects which have time-lines' 'managing high community expectations' and the issue of projects being 'prone to technical hitches'.

**c) Mental Models**

In both Satao Elerai and Kilitome conservancies, there are indications despite the capacity building interventions on better animal husbandry and natural resources management and/or biodiversity conservation, majority of the community members still hold on to practices that are not favorable for conservation. These include holding onto large livestock herds as a sign of wealth and use of income to purchase more livestock as opposed to other assets. Moreover, women are not viewed as major stakeholders or decision-makers in both conservancies which limits their participation and involvement.

**d) Shared Vision**

In both conservancies, the members have pooled land together for conservation, a clear indication of a shared vision or goal. In addition, both conservancies also have set by-laws which define the conduct of members and the 'Dos and Don'ts'. There are however instances of some conservancy members grazing in the conservancy land which has a de-motivating effect on the members who share the vision. During meetings, it was observed that the leaders speak most and give their opinions or decision, this clearly indicate that majority of the members endorse the leaders' decisions.

**e) Team Learning**

The flow of information within the conservancies is mainly top-down, that is, from the leaders to the members and teamwork is not clearly visible. In addition, the feedback mechanisms for both conservancies are in form of meetings as the main avenues for sharing information. As noted earlier, leaders speak most and majority of the members attend to listen. There is also poor coordination within the conservancies in the absence of AWF. Conservancy members, especially at Kilitome also shift positions when they get conflicting opinions from others especially if the opinion provides an opportunity to benefit as individuals.

**Discussions and Conclusions**

In this article, we discuss the outcomes of AWF's capacity building interventions on two community conservancies in Kenya. The study was based on the Learning Organization Model focusing on the five dimensions of the model: systems thinking, personal mastery, mental models, shared vision and team learning. As argued by various scholars, the concept of capacity building for communities engaged in community-based conservation interventions is important in order to enable communities organize themselves, make decisions and takes actions that strengthen their participation. AWF's interventions for capacity building in communities therefore reflect a response to a critical necessity for community-based conservation initiatives. However, as the findings suggest, majority of community-based interventions have had varied outcomes for inclusive growth.

In terms of the Learning Organization Model dimensions, the findings reveal limited internal and external interactions their systems thinking. Moreover, the limited external and internal interactions means that they limited in exposure to new ideas, new ways of doings things which in turn inhibits/limits systems thinking within the conservancies i.e. they are unable to see the link between units due to these limitations. As argued by Morgan, (2005) 'Systems thinking is a different mental model that has the potential to open up some space for thinking about issues such as capacity development.' The results further indicate that the interaction of the communities with the outside actors is mainly NGO or private investors initiated with minimal community initiatives. Community initiatives are mainly hindered by aspects related to community challenges such as local politics; limited funds and the dependency culture of communities towards outside assistance (see Kiss 2004; Southgate 2006; Sitati *et al*. 2008; Ahebwa *et al*. 2012; Nthiga 2014).

The findings further indicate that the acquisition of new knowledge and the continuity of projects are hindered by governance challenges related to transparency and accountability. This scenario reflects governance challenges in similar community-based conservation-development initiatives (see Nthiga 2014; Lamers *et al*. 2015; Nthiga *et al*. 2015). Moreover, the community culture relating to women's position in society and the value attached to livestock contributes to beliefs and assumptions that hinder inclusivity and outcomes of the capacity building interventions. Although the pooling of land together by members to form the conservancies is an indication of shared vision, power relations as a result of the hierarchy created by the leadership structure reveal that the goals of the leaders take precedence over other community members. Finally, teamwork among the community members is hindered by local politics and power relations between the different actors within the conservancies.

This article reveals that the capacity building interventions in the conservation-development interventions in community-based initiatives offer a great opportunity for inclusive growth for communities. However, for capacity building interventions to contribute to inclusive growth aspects related to power relations, politics and community set-up should be reviewed and addressed. These challenges will also affect the national initiatives of community inclusion such as the newly formed conservancies body; the Kenya Wildlife Conservancies Association (KWCA). Therefore, studies focusing on the modalities and components of capacity building interventions for communities are both timely and relevant. This is because such studies will guide NGOs and other bodies engaged with communities on the best way for handling community capacity building interventions.

In conclusion, based on our findings and in view of the importance of community capacity-building for inclusive growth in community-based conservation initiatives, we argue that the approach by AWF is capable of delivering tangible outcomes. However, for the outcomes to be meaningful for inclusive growth, issues related to politics, power relations, funding and cultural beliefs and practices and the projects' nature of the interventions should be put in perspective during the planning and implementation.

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# What is ATLAS

March 2017

The Association for Tourism and Leisure Education and Research (ATLAS) was established in 1991 to develop transnational educational initiatives in tourism and leisure.

ATLAS provides a forum to promote staff and student exchange, transnational research and to facilitate curriculum and professional development. It currently has 202 members in 62 countries worldwide.

**What are the objectives of ATLAS?**

- To promote the teaching of tourism, leisure and related subjects.
- To encourage academic exchange between member institutions.
- To promote links between professional bodies in tourism, leisure and associated subjects and to liaise on educational issues, curriculum development and professional recognition of courses.
- To promote transnational research which helps to underpin the development of appropriate curricula for transnational education.

**What does ATLAS do?**

ATLAS promotes links between member institutions through regular meetings, publications and information exchange. The main activities of ATLAS currently are:

- Organising conferences on issues in tourism and leisure education and research. International conferences have been held in London, United Kingdom (September 2012) and in Malta (November 2013), Budapest, Hungary (October 2014), Lisbon (October 2015). The annual conference in 2016 will be organised in Canterbury, UK. Regional conferences are also held in Africa, South America and the Asia-Pacific region.
- Information services and publications, including the ATLAS website and members' portal, the annual ATLAS Reflections, Facebook and LinkedIn.
- Running international courses, such as the ATLAS Winter University in Europe and the Summer Course in Asia.
- Organisation of and participation in transnational research projects, for example on cultural tourism, sustainable tourism, and information technology.
- Research publications and reports.

**What are the benefits of the ATLAS membership?**

- Regular mailings of information, updates on ATLAS conferences, meetings, projects, publications and other activities.
- Access to the members' portal on Internet with exclusive access code.
- Participation in the ATLAS information lists for everyone within ATLAS member institutions, as well as for the different Special Interest Groups.
- The annual ATLAS international conference, which provides an opportunity to network with other members.

- Conferences organised by regional sections.
- ATLAS members can participate in a wide range of projects run by ATLAS in the areas of tourism and leisure education and research.
- Members have access to research information gathered through ATLAS
- International projects.
- ATLAS members are listed on the ATLAS website, giving teachers and students easy access to information about member institutions via Internet.
- Distribution of information about member events, programmes, projects and products via the ATLAS mailing list and ATLAS website.
- ATLAS members are entitled to substantial discounts on ATLAS conference fees and selected ATLAS publications.
- Contacts and lobbying through ATLAS links with other international organisations.
- Opportunity for students to take part in an established academic and research network.

**ATLAS Special Interest Groups**
Members of ATLAS can form and join Special Interest Groups related to specific education and research topics or for specific geographical areas. Special Interest Groups run research programmes and can organise special events and publications related to their area of interest. The current Special Interest Groups are:

- Cultural Tourism Research Group
- Gastronomy and Tourism Research Group
- Business Tourism Research Group
- Capital City Tourism Research Group
- Volunteer Tourism Research Group
- Events Research Group

**ATLAS Regional Sections**
ATLAS is also represented at regional and local level by sections such as ATLAS Europe, ATLAS Asia-Pacific, ATLAS Africa and ATLAS Latin Americas. The regional sections of ATLAS have developed their own programme of activities and publications to respond more closely to the specific needs of members located in these regions and those with related research interests. Membership of ATLAS regional sections and Special Interest Groups of ATLAS is open to all ATLAS members at no extra costs.

**The ATLAS publication series**
As a networking organisation, one of the main tasks of ATLAS is to disseminate information on developments in tourism and leisure as widely as possible. The ATLAS publication series contains volumes of selected papers from ATLAS conferences and reports from ATLAS research projects. All publications can be found and ordered in the online ATLAS bookshop at: shop.atlas-euro.org.

**Join ATLAS**

ATLAS membership is open to bona-fide educational institutions and professional bodies with educational, research or professional interests in tourism, leisure and related areas. If your institution is interested, complete the application form on the ATLAS homepage at www.atlas-euro.org.

**How much does the ATLAS membership cost?**

Since 2016 the annual institutional membership fee for ATLAS is € 325. For organisations located in countries in Central and Eastern Europe, Africa, Asia and South America the fee is € 200 per year.

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# ATLAS Publication list

Richards G. (ed) (1995) *European Tourism and Leisure Education: Trends and Prospects* Arnhem: ATLAS, 293 pp. ISBN 90-75775-08-3.

Bramwell B., I. Henry, G. Jackson, A. Prat, G. Richards and J. van der Straaten (1998) *Sustainable Tourism Management: Principles and practice.* Tilburg: Tilburg University Press, 260 pp. ISBN 90-361-9549-7.

Richards G. and L. Onderwater (ed) (1998) *Towards a European body of knowledge for tourism. Perspectives and proposals.* Tilburg: ATLAS, 84 pp. ISBN 90-75775-05-9.

Swarbrooke J. (ed) (1998) *Heritage, culture and community: Four international case studies.* Tilburg: ATLAS, 67 pp. ISBN 90-75775-04-0.

Richards G. (ed) (1998) *Developments in the European tourism curriculum.* Tilburg: ATLAS, 60 pp. ISBN 90-75775-03-2.

Richards G. (ed) (1999) *Developing and Marketing Crafts Tourism.* Tilburg: ATLAS, 120 pp. ISBN 90-75775-06-7.

Butcher J. (ed) (2001) *Innovations in Cultural Tourism.* Tilburg, ATLAS, 100 pp. ISBN: 90-75775-07-5.

Toivonen T. and Honkanen A. (ed) (2001) *North-South: contrasts and connections in global tourism*. Savonlinna: FUNTS, University of Joensuu, 398 pp. ISBN 951-708-983-x / ISSN 1457-1366.

Richards G., Hitters E. and Fernandes C. (2002) *Rotterdam and Porto, cultural capitals 2001: visitor research*. Arnhem: ATLAS, 67 pp. ISBN 90-75775-11-3

Richards G. and Onderwater L. (ed) (2002) *Visions of sustainability: ATLAS Reflections 2002*. Arnhem: ATLAS, 76 pp. ISBN 90-75775-13-x.

Swarbrooke J., Smith M. and Onderwater L. (ed) (2003) *Quality of life: ATLAS Reflections 2003.* Arnhem: ATLAS, 112 pp. ISBN 90-75775-14-8.

Morrison A. and Thomas R. (ed) (2004) *SMEs in tourism: an international review* Arnhem: ATLAS, 80 pp. ISBN 90-75775-17-2

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Petrillo C.S. and Swarbrooke J. (ed) (2005) *Networking and partnership in destinations and development management*. Naples: IRAT, 2 issues, total of 775 pp. ISBN 88-89677-03-1.

Swarbrooke J., Smith M. and Onderwater L. (ed) (2005) *Tourism, creativity and development. ATLAS Reflections 2005.* Arnhem: ATLAS, 94 pp. ISBN 90-75775-21-0

Richards G. and Richards B. TRAM (2006) *Medical tourism: A global analysis.* Arnhem: ATLAS. 98 pp. ISBN: 90-75775-22-9

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Hall D., Marciszewska B. and Smith M. (eds) (2006) *Tourism in the New Europe: The Challenges and Opportunities of EU Enlargement.* Oxfordshire: CABI, 352 pp. ISBN-13: 978-1-84593-117-9, ISBN-11: 1-84593-117-3.

Smith M. and Onderwater L. (eds) (2007) *Destinations revisited. Perspectives on developing and managing tourist areas. Reflections 2007*. Arnhem: ATLAS, 91 pp. ISBN 90-75775-27-3.

Richards G. and Wilson J. (eds) (2008) *From cultural tourism to creative tourism.* Arnhem: ATLAS
Part 1: *The changing context of cultural tourism* (56 pp.)
Part 2: *Changing structures of collaboration* (88 pp.)
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Wishitemi B., Spenceley A. and Wels H. (eds) (2007) *Cultures and Communities. Tourism Studies in Eastern and Southern Africa.* Amsterdam: Rozenberg Publishers 177 pp. ISBN: 978-90-5170-851-6.

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Volume 9: *Sustainable tourism and environmental education: A natural link* (2015) (158 pp.) ISBN: 978-90-75775-75-4.

Palmer R. and Richards G. *European Cultural Capital Report.* Arnhem: ATLAS.
Part 1: 2007 (70 pp.)
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Part 4: 2012 (106 pp.)
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Richards G. and Rotariu I. (eds)

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2. *The impacts of the 2007 European Capital of Culture in Sibiu*. (2010) Sibiu: 84 pp. ISBN: 978-973-739-954-0.
3. *Ten years of Cultural Development in Sibiu: The European Cultural Capital and Beyond. (2011)* Sibiu: 86 pp. ISBN: 978-606-12-0104-2.
4. *Long term effects of the European Capital of Culture.* (2016) Sibiu: 74 pp. ISBN: 978-90-75775-89-1.

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Duim R. van der, Onderwater L. and Veldman J. (2013) *Environments of Exchange: Leisure and Tourism. ATLAS Reflections 2013.* Arnhem: ATLAS, 58 pp. ISBN: ISBN 978-90-75775-68-6 .

Richards G., Russo A.P. (eds) (2014) *Alternative and Creative Tourism (In PDF)*. Arnhem: ATLAS, 125 pp. ISBN: 978-90-75775-69-3.

Richards G.(ed) (2014) *Guimarães and Maribor. European Capitals of Culture 2012 (In PDF).* Arnhem: ATLAS, 80 pp. ISBN: 978-90-75775-73-0.

Duim R. van der, Onderwater L. and Veldman J. (2014) *Tourism, Travel and Leisure - Sources of Wellbeing, Happiness and Quality of Life. ATLAS Reflections 2014 (In PDF).* Arnhem: ATLAS, 58 pp. ISBN: ISBN 978-90-75775-72-3.

Richards G. (ed) (2015) *ATLAS Cultural Tourism Research Project. Research Report 2008-2013 (In PDF).* Arnhem, 70 pp. ISBN: 978-90-75775-77-8.

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Duim R. van der, Onderwater L. and Veldman J. (2016) *Tourism, Lifestyles and Locations. ATLAS Reflections 2016 (In PDF).* Arnhem: ATLAS, 79 pp. ISBN: ISBN 978-90-75775-90-7

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ATLAS Review Volume 2016 – 2
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ATLAS Review Volume 2016 – 3
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Well-Being and Quality of Life in Tourism

ATLAS Review Volume 2017 – 2
ATLAS Africa, conference proceedings 2015

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Tourism and Creativity: New Opportunities for Developing Latin America
Recife, Brasil
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ATLAS Africa Conference 2017
Africa's Tourism and Travel Competitiveness: Opportunities and challenges
Eldoret, Kenya
7-9 June, 2017

ATLAS Annual Conference 2017
Destinations past, present and future
Viana do Castelo, Portugal
12-16 September, 2017

ATLAS SIG Space, Place, Mobilities in Tourism
Mobilities and body at play
Tarragona, Spain
17-18 October, 2017

ATLAS Annual Conference 2018
Destination Dynamics
Copenhagen, Denmark
25-28 September, 2018

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