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Foreword

ATLAS Africa, conference proceedings 2019

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This ATLAS Review samples a collection of papers from the 2019 ATLAS Africa conference on *Tourism and Innovation* in Kampala, Uganda.

The growth and development of the travel and tourism industry has been characterised by countless innovations, which cut across the entire travel and tourism value chain. Conceptually, innovations can be sustaining, incremental, revolutionary, radical or transformational. Whereas sustaining or incremental innovations tend to strengthen and reinforce the existing structure and way of doing things in the industry, revolutionary or radical innovations seek for new ways of doing business. They can even be 'disruptive' in nature by for example creating new markets, networks, and a whole new range of tourism practices that, not only call for feelers to detect and if possible attune to these innovations, but also new modes of doing research and tourism business. More radical innovations should be well understood and require new skills and tools for adapting or knowing how to deal with the 'new tourist/client/consumer', as well as being sensitive to the enormous possibilities and opportunities that these innovations open up.

While innovation has become a buzzword in tourism practice, it is in many cases used without deeper reflection for anything that is moderately novel. In addition, scholarly work on innovation has been focusing on manufacturing industries and frequently has neglected the service sectors. Generally, the study of innovation in services and tourism in particular is still in its infancy and pioneering studies only appeared in the late 1990s. Given that many countries rely on tourism for their (economic) development, there is an urgent need to improve our understanding of innovativeness in this sector, not the least because innovative capability is a critical factor for industry evolution and survival in light of tight competition, rapid market change and the "contest for the tourist dollar". The ability to develop new products (goods or services), new organizational methods in business practices, workplace organization or external relations, and identifying new markets, through aligning strategic innovative orientation with innovative behaviours and processes may create competitive advantage for new destinations.

The ATLAS Africa conference therefore aimed at sharing knowledge, ideas and experiences among academicians, policy makers, entrepreneurs, governments, private sector organisations and general community interested in travel and tourism. This Volume brings together eleven papers presented during this conference. They deal with hospitality, technology, cultural, rural and urban tourism.

The first four papers in this Volume deal with the hospitality industry. The purpose of the first study is to explore the level of Hotel Service Standardization and Internationalization in small tourism hotels in Kampala. This study followed a qualitative research design where informants were interviewed to give their perception of Service Internationalization of SMEs. Data was collected from 11 Tourism Small Business Enterprises, who were selected purposively given their vibrant involvement in the tourism sector. The results show that the owners/directors appeared to be sceptical towards internationalization on the grounds of costs involved. Besides that, the small hotel business owners indicated that some stakeholders were only keen on collecting taxes and business operating licenses. Besides the scepticism of internationalization costs, regulatory requirements, such as taxes and licenses, bring a vital dimension in the small business internationalization process that need not be underestimated when looking at the transaction cost theory in the spheres of developing economies.

The second paper seeks to determine the perceived contributions of core competencies on graduate's employability in the hospitality industry by identifying the considered and expected competencies in employability of hospitality graduates and finding out the Industry's interpretation of employability. A descriptive survey was used to generate required data. The target group was stratified random sampled from the three star ranked town hotels in Nairobi. The human resource managers and heads of hospitality departments made up the sample of this study. The results show that the considered competencies for hospitality graduates are industry knowledge, meeting standards, critical analysis, problem management and quality orientation. Expected competencies, on the other hand, include result orientation, practical knowledge, technical expertise, flexibility, pro-active thinking and creativity. The study recommends that training institutions need to develop relevant training programmes to ensure graduates in the hospitality sector acquire proper and adequate training to improve their chances of employment in the hospitality industry. Training institutions should also liaise with the hospitality industry, especially hotel managers, to ensure that hospitality graduates meet expectations required by industry players and professionals in the hospitality sector.

The third paper argues that staff empowerment is a very vital component of managing employees in service industry, especially in hospitality. If well handled, empowerment improves the quality of service and generates more income. However, based on a study of the Rwanda Development Board (RDB), the authors conclude that lack of empowerment will bring down business and may affect the future of the business. Empowerment has its own negatives and managers have to be keen to note of the weakness and instead work on factors that influence positively the empowerment process as well as implement the measures to strengthen empowerment especially among the frontline staff. The authors therefore recommend that RDB comes up with strategies that can be used to ensure staff empowerment in the hospitality industry is properly implemented and that all stakeholders in the hospitality industry appreciate and embrace staff empowerment as the cheapest way to improve service and grow business.

The fourth study was also executed in Rwanda, focussing on product innovations in the Marriot hotel. The authors argue that hospitality product innovations are very important because they enable business organizations to make profits, have a cutting edge over competitors through pricing, offering quality products, better packaging and branding. Marriot hotel has developed different new hospitality products such as use of the mobile phone for check in, self -check in and out, open kitchen and live cooking among others. These have greatly impacted on their marketing strategies such as advertising, promotion events and word of mouth to reach out to the potential and existing market. However there are still some challenges which limit the hotel to fully innovate the hospitality products. These include majorly customer preferences, competition, insufficient marketing and innovation funds and negative local customer perceptions among others. Based on their analysis, the authors recommend continuous training and exposure of staff, acquiring and updating new technology, continuous marketing and creating awareness and following closely the market trends and partnering with other companies to be competitive.

In the fifth paper we move to Uganda. This chapter gives insights on how to boost the tourism industry in Uganda through the use of ICT, top leadership and management support. The research took a narrative approach and examined personal life stories to capture core themes. According to the author, the tourism industry in Uganda should invest more in ICTs through technological innovations than using curvy women via top leadership and management support. The government should encourage and solicit national /domestic effort to promote tourism together with its beautiful welcoming culture which has won Uganda a name of being the pearl of Africa.

Innovations in tourism should also be backed up by knowledge and research. Therefore it is important to find out what the contribution of PhD studies is to this knowledge base and which challenges PhDs face towards completion. Past scholars have averred that for a PhD student to finish her or his PhD program in time depends on factors like inadequate money to meet the tuition fees, travel expenses, social issues, health issues and lack of commitment. However, there is scant literature on trends addressing the issue of ICT usage during the panellist sessions hence the need for research on the use of ICT like video cameras during presentations to curb mismatches of comments and other related snags. Therefore, this sixth paper examines ICT usage in panellist sessions to enhance completion of PhD studies in public universities in Uganda and Tanzania. Quantitative data was analysed using descriptive statistics and PLS-SEM. Results show a significant relationship between ICT usage in panellist sessions and success in completion of PhD studies in Tanzania and Uganda. The outcome of this study can assist universities to improve panellist sessions during PhD presentations.

The seventh paper also addresses the role of technology. Although technologies such as 'selfies' have been developed and are used widely by travellers and tourists, there is inadequate literature on selfies in relation to tourism. Guided by the diffusion theory and quantitative methods, this study was motivated to examine technology usage in tourism with a specific objective of analysing the relationship

between selfie usage and marketing of domestic tourism by comparing Tanzania and USA. The findings revealed that there was a significant relationship between selfie usage and marketing of domestic tourism ($p=0.000$) for both Tanzania and USA. Further findings revealed that there are similarities and differences in the predicting indicators of selfie usage in relation to marketing of domestic tourism for the two countries. The outcome of this study provides comparative insights on selfie usage and marketing of domestic tourism that can assist tourism stakeholders in marketing and promotion of domestic tourism.

Innovations can also refer to cultural and heritage sites. In Kenya these are managed by the National Museums of Kenya (NMK). These sites represent local cultural practices while enhancing nationhood through tourism promotion. Ironically, the majority of these sites - some of which are inscribed as World Heritage Sites (WHS) as in the case of the coastal Kaya forests – have not been effectively developed and promoted as tourism attractions. For instance, even though the Kaya forests are in close proximity to the beach area, they have minimal visitation, visibility and appeal to the travel intermediaries. Through interviews with industry stakeholders, this eighth paper recommends the creation of a coastal tourism offer beyond the beach. It focuses on destination appeal with specific emphasis on the role of heritage in the coastal tourism system. This is with the view of extending the tourism product beyond the narrow beach tourism product.

The ninth paper analysed the involvement of the local community in adventure tourism development in Rwanda, a case of Congo-Nile trail. The study objectives were to identify the adventure tourism attractions along the Congo Nile Trail and to describe how the local communities are involved in adventure tourism along the Congo Nile trail, to determine the challenges to local community involvement in adventure tourism along the Congo Nile Trail and to suggest ways of solving those challenges that local community face. The research design was descriptive and the population were the community that live along the Congo-Nile trail in Bwishyura sector and RDB staff from whom 99 were selected as the sample. The key findings were that the adventure tourism activities which are done on the Congo-Nile trail in Bwishyura sector are mountain climbing, sport fishing, kayaking, canoeing, hiking, swimming in Lake Kivu and bicycle riding. The natural attractions found along the trails are Lake Kivu, Karongi hill, flora and fauna in Mukura forest and Mugonero River. The community involvement in adventure tourism is carrying adventure tourists in boats (boating), facilitating adventure tourists to do sport fishing, guiding and portage (carrying adventure tourist's luggage), operating businesses that give service to adventure tourists like accommodation, food and beverages and repairing tourists bicycles, boat engines plus selling hiking sticks to the tourists. The key challenges limiting local community involvement in adventure tourism were financial incapability of the local people to invest in adventure tourism related businesses and lack of knowledge of adventure tourism activities. The key solutions to challenges faced by community involvement in adventure tourism along the Congo-Nile trail included community sensitization to participate in adventure along the Congo-Nile trail and facilitating the community to acquire financial capital. The study also concluded that community involvement in adventure tourism is still limited and recommended that there should be community sensitization to invest in tourism related businesses along the trail.

In the next paper we move from the rural to the urban. Urban tourism in Kigali city (Rwanda) has come a long way but is steadily improving, although the tour experience is still centered on the major historical sites/museums like that of Genocide Memorial. In this paper the authors suggest to develop products which have and continue to be done around the city like the city bus tour experience, convention center, hiking on the Mount Kigali and the Zip line activity, community tours around Nyamirambo and to the markets and some night life experiences. There are however still many challenges to improving the tour experience many of which are financial and others due to lack of innovation ideas despite the available potential. The authors also recommend the government to encourage the private sector to invest in more tourism products after identifying the investment opportunities for example more cinemas/theatres and casinos, more recreational centers, the development of leisure/theme parks, a big shopping mall-tourists, an animal sanctuary and more historical sites with tourism potential around Kigali.

The final paper focuses mainly on strategies of transforming township tourism resources and identifying economic capabilities these resources can bring to the townships community in South Africa. A mixed method approach was used for this study with the hope of getting precise direction on how the current tourism businesses can be transformed and be of benefit to owners, community and the tourists. Business people, tour operators, tourists, community members, have been directly interviewed (in-depth) for this paper. Based on their research, the authors conclude that township tourism possesses the ability to contribute to positive human exchanges through interaction between residents and tourists. There is positive sharing of cultural exchanges; stronger relationships are built between the tourists and residents, which may provide for the long term sustainability of township tourism. The positive personal transformational effect on residents through their interaction with tourists is contributing to residents' socio-economic well-being in varying degrees. Consequently, township tourism is able to quantitatively and qualitatively manage the alleviation of poverty in townships. Understanding, mutual respect and peoples mind-set change is critical; hence township tourism does just that.

The papers in this review reflect some of the complexities and possibilities of innovation in tourism in an African context. They also show however, how events such as the ATLAS Africa conferences offer good occasions to share ideas and research output. We aim to organize a next conference in 2021 and you are invited to look at the ATLAS website for more information.

Standardization and Internationalization of Tourism Small Businesses – A case of Kampala based Hotels

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Introduction

The world, since the middle of the twentieth century, has witnessed a rapid internationalization of markets, industries, and firms (Olejnik and Swoboda 2012). Modern firms often seek for growth, which has become one of the firm's main objectives (Grant 2010), in foreign markets.

While Johanson & Wiedersheim (1975), define internationalization as the outward movement of a firm's international operations, Javalgi, Griffith and white (2003) refer to it as the sequential and orderly processes in which firms gradually increase their international involvement and the associated changes in organizational forms.

Investigating internationalization opportunities for a Small and Medium Sized Enterprise (SME) in the hotel industry is relevant from an academic point of view because currently the topic has mainly been approached in terms of international business activities conducted by large Multinational Enterprises (MNEs) (Kauppinen and Juho 2012). In Uganda particularly, SMEs contribute over 70% of the GDP creating jobs in the private sector and contributing to over 50% of the overall value-added created by Ugandan businesses (Uganda National Development Plan 2015), it is important to discuss internationalization also in the context of SMEs. Further still, Johnson C and Veneti M (2005) suggest that research that has been conducted on internationalization of firms in the hotel industry focuses mainly on major, multinational hotel chains and airlines. These firms often grow through tools, such as mergers and acquisitions, franchising, or management contracts (Martorell-Cunill et al. 2014), which may be out of reach for SMEs.

Tourism SMEs desire to grow in future (Wright et al. 2001) to increase the revenues of the company, and to strengthen the brand, despite the social, economic and political situation. Strengthening the brand of the small tourism businesses and increasing international visibility, reaching new customer segments, and reducing dependency on a particular location through geographical diversification. Sanoner (2015) noted that Internationalization of Tourism SMEs would also contribute to the growth of tourism businesses as they would be able to enter international markets and benefit from synergies like common marketing plans, standardized controlling and standardized accounting procedures.

Klaus (2015) suggests that it would be possible to benefit from better economic, political, and institutional conditions in foreign countries, such as lower tax rates, a

better labor law, or more political stability. Finally, the small business owners in the Ugandan tourism industry believe that operating internationally fosters the creation of new business connections, and promotes access to new suppliers and distribution channels like travel agencies and tour operators.

Javalgi and Martin (2007) have suggested that the literature about internationalization in the service sector is a relatively new area and they continued to argue that this is especially in terms of building and testing theories. Tourism SME's have however been found to be internationalizing more quickly than before, but they often do this by relying on studies in the manufacturing sector (Axinn and Mathyysens, 2001; Javalgi and Martin, 2007). This, however, brings about a contradiction as we see that many SMEs in the tourism sector are getting more and more international by using various channels like intermediaries or infinite possibilities of the internet. Quer, Claver and Andreu (2007), noted that the tourism industry is international by definition based on the tourist activity and the hotel services offered.

However, internationalization is also a complex and precarious process (Sanoner 2015), and Small Hotel owners in the Ugandan tourism industry are not sure if their companies are ready and capable to enter the international arena and, if yes, how to manage this process. This paper seeks to address this challenge of Standardization and Internationalization of Hotel services in Uganda. The purpose of this study was therefore to explore the level of hotel service Standardization and internationalization in Uganda.

Other researchers will benefit from the findings on the internationalization of Tourism Small Businesses. This paper will add to the knowledge of standardization of services of Tourism Small businesses in Uganda. Business owners and managers of Tourism SMEs will gain new insights into the area internationalization of their Tourism Businesses. This study will fill the knowledge gap on internationalization of Tourism SMEs

Literature Review

Definition of Key Concepts

Standardization

Standardization is referred to as transferability across markets (Nordin et al., 2011). Other scholars have phrased standardization as productivity, inside-out and commodity (Kotler and Armstrong, 2010; Johnston, Clarke and Shulver, 2012). Gyuracz-Nemeth (2018) mentioned that standards are not the same and have different style, different content, so standards can be grouped into distinct categories.

Internationalization

Internationalization is improving performance and companies move rapidly to global expansion (Oviatt and McDougall, 1994; Knight & Cavusgil, 1996; Rialp et

al., 2005; Carvalho, 2012). Madsen and Servais (1997), and Nummela, Saarenketo and Puumalainen (2004) argued that the environment of the firm could be seen as source of resources and thus internationalization is a process of utilizing these resources.

The Transaction Cost Theory

The foundation for the transactional cost theory, was made by Coase (1937), and it stipulates that a firm will tend to expand until the cost of organizing an extra transaction within the firm will become equal to the cost of carrying out the same transaction using exchange on the open market.

Coase (1937), suggests that this theory predicts that a firm will perform internally those activities it can undertake at lower cost through establishing an internal management control and implementation system while relying on the market for activities in which independent outsiders (such as export intermediaries, agents or distributors) have a cost advantage

Williamson (1985) often explained this friction as opportunistic behavior between the buyer and the seller. Williamson calls it a self-interest seeking with guile, which includes methods of misleading, distortion, disguise, and confusion. In order to protect themselves against hazards of opportunism, the two parties may employ a variety of control mechanisms that will help to bring about the perception of fairness or equity among transactors. The purpose of these governance structures is to provide, at a minimum cost, the control and trust that is necessary for the transactors to believe that engaging in the exchange will make them better off. The best form of control measure is a legal contract which specifies the obligations of each party

“Transaction Cost Theory” (COARSE 1937, Williamson 1985) highlights that firms that are involved in service internationalization tend to benefit through increased profitability and high firm growth. Buckley (2002) highlights that internationalization comes with costs which might affect firm profitability. Besides that, small entities that operate in the developing economies are faced with formal institutional voids that may largely affect the procedures and regulations involved in firm internationalization. Webb et al. (2015), suggest that these controversies within the empirical works limit our understanding on SME service internationalization especially in the developing economies like Uganda more so with the scarce empirical studies on the internationalization of SMEs. Also, empirical works have amplified that firm internationalization tends to attract more customers including retaining customers (Kleinert 2004). It is from this background that we pursue the current study.

Standardization and Internationalization of Services

With the ever-changing demands of Tourists globally, the need for service internationalization cannot be downplayed, especially in Tourism Small businesses in Uganda (Nesta 2008). Chetty and Campbell-(2003) posit that due to rapid globalization of the world economy there has been an increase in the chances for

marketing services abroad in the recent decades leading to services becoming a driving force and being cited as the fastest growing sector in international trade. (Javalgi 2007; Ballet al., 2008) These conclusions have attracted researchers to follow closely the changes taking place in the tourism industry

Although, tourism firms and especially SMEs started attracting significant attention only since the late 1990s, Hall and Coles (2008) suggest that the tourism industry is international by nature of its characteristics based on the tourist activities, and the hotel service offerings. Given the fact that most tourists access the wider international market filled with world-class accommodation, protected sites for wildlife safaris, sophisticated cruises, international cuisine, and customer service among others, it is worth recognizing that the competition on the international market may affect the SME growth in Uganda if ignored (Amin and Cohendet 2004).

Although earlier research pointed out the importance of the service industry, and it was noted that several SMEs are largely involved in the tourism sector, it has not been clear on whether their services are standardized; Some scholars advance the thought that Small firms in the tourism industry neglect service internationalization (Holt and MacPherson 2006).

Even though Scholars like Ripolles et al (2010) posit that, the service industry is becoming more and more important in today's world, Olejnik & Swoboda (2012) noted that, the service industry is being left out as most of the research being conducted in the context of SME's focuses on; traditional manufacturing enterprises which are characterized by incremental internationalization processes and on born global companies and their rapid internationalization. Moreover, yet, Lloyd and Mghan (2002) further noted that the Internationalization models of MNE's are not easy to transfer to SME's because SME's are oftentimes characterised by different managerial orientations and Jang 2010 noted that they are also most times affected by lower liquidity.

Hätönen (2009) suggests that the internationalization processes of MNEs are more path-dependent, since they retain a great amount of knowledge about foreign markets and often possess already established, international relations and resources to obtain information, and therefore this clearly points out the need to investigate the internationalization pattern of SME's to better highlight the influence of certain firm, location, and situation-specific factors.

Knowles et al. (2001) deduce that SME's and family-owned hotels often reluctantly enter foreign markets unlike Hotels chains, and when they finally decide to enter into foreign markets, it is often done in an incremental step by step process. Knowles suggests that this is because of limited growth objectives and limited managerial capabilities. Kontinen and Ojala (2011) suggest that constrained financial resource, low liquidity, and the tendency to avoid risks are responsible for the low internationalization rate in family owned businesses, he further argues that innovative orientation, flexible structures, and entrepreneurship characterize SMEs and family-owned businesses.

However, Lloyd –Reason and Mughan (2002) suggest that informal internal relations, poor accounting procedures, inadequate administrative routines, and unsystematic decision making create central challenges and can turn the qualities of SMEs into weaknesses once they go international. Mungall and Johnson (2004) argue that SME's need an efficient management at corporate, business and functional level in order to overcome their weaknesses and exploit their strengths in foreign market, and therefore they argue that SME's and family-owned businesses need to approach internationalization decisions in a holistic way to avoid the firm's weaknesses from outweighing its strength and to ensure that the necessary resources and capabilities to enter a foreign market are present.

This study followed a qualitative research design where informants were interviewed to give their perception of Standardization and Internationalization of Tourism Small Businesses within Uganda; Data was collected from 11 Tourism Small Business Enterprises, who were selected purposively given their vibrant involvement in the tourism sector. Data were analyzed using thematic analysis; the social demographic characteristics were also collected. Eleven cases were interviewed, 11 Hotel owners were interviewed, under two focus groups, questions related to Service Standardization and Internationalization

Findings

Level one: External stakeholder's sensitivity

At this level, we discuss finding including information flow from the stakeholders, and standards set by the stakeholders.

Figure 1a: Hotel Standards Inspection



From Figure one, we observe that most of the respondents indicated that the key stakeholders in the process of Standardization never come to inspect. Besides that, informants indicated that they were more interested in collecting the taxes

Figure 1b: External Factors affecting Hotel service Internationalization

In Figure 1b, we observe that the respondents reveal the fact the taxes as the biggest contributor to the challenges faced in the internationalization of services, they also talked about competition as a contributor in this cause

Level two: Firm’s Orientation to standards

In this section, we discuss the findings from data collected on the Internal Factors, and People preferred at work in the small tourism businesses

Figure 2a: People preferred at work.

From figure 2a, we observe that most of the respondents indicated that work, clients, goodness, passion, friendliness, hotel industry, hotel clients, among others manifested as frequent preferences of workers in the small hotel businesses. Although these manifestations indirectly connect to internationalization, they are not at the forefront of the concepts of Internationalization and standardization

Figure 2b: The Internal factors affecting the Hotel service Internationalization

From Figure 2b, we observe that: hotel staff, directors, season, guests, training were cited among the factors perceived to affect the Hotels service internationalization. What vividly stood out during the data collection process is that the staff indicated that the owner/directors had different perspectives towards hotel service international based on the costs related to Internationalization.

Level three: Individual

At this individual level, we discuss findings relating to what motivates the individual to take on work in the Hotel industry, how work is done in teams, the experiences gained from roles undertaken, the daily activities, the service standards expectation from the individuals, their reason for choosing the Hospitality Industry.

Figure 3a: Undertaken Hospitality courses



From figure 3a, we observe that although the majority of the respondents have not done some hotel training courses, they enjoyed working in the industry. Most of the respondents have done some management course, and others admired caterers because they were rich, others did customer care training.

Figure 3b: Roles /daily activities



From the Figure 3b, it was observed that the respondents said that roles undertaken in the hotel industry include managerial roles, operational roles, and kitchen roles and most of the respondents submitted that since the establishments were small, they had one person who could act as a manager, receptionist, and accountant.

Figure 3c: knowledge about Standards expected

From Figure 3c, we observe that when the respondents were asked about whether they were aware of the standards they were expected to adhere to they had little or no knowledge about this and were citing things like they have knowledge in marketing and that they know how to look after visitors.

Figure 3d: Choice of Hospitality Industry

In Figure 3d, we observe that the respondents said they chose the hospitality industry because they liked catering and admired caterers, liked attending international conferences, others studied hospitality, others were told by parents to study hospitality.

Conclusions and Recommendations

Level one: Sensitivity of external stakeholders

In this section, we observed from the respondent's information given that internal factors affecting hotels service standardization and Internationalization. Most of the respondents indicated that the key stakeholders in the process of Standardization never come to inspect. Besides that, informants indicated that they were more interested in collecting the taxes; they also revealed the fact that the taxes are the biggest contributor to the challenges faced in the internationalization of services, they also talked about competition. We recommend therefore that the external stakeholders take more steps to ensure that the small tourism businesses are helped in standardizing and internationalizing by reviewing the taxes levied on them and also by ensuring constant checkups.

Level two: Firm's Orientation to Standards

In this section, looked at the Internal Factors affecting internationalization and how the people preferred at work also affect internationalization. We observe that most of the respondents indicated that work, clients, goodness, passion, friendliness, hotel industry, hotel clients, among others manifested as frequent preferences of workers in the small hotel businesses. Although these manifestations indirectly connect to internationalization, they are not at the forefront of the concepts of Internationalization and standardization. Also, hotel staff, directors, season, guests, training were cited among the factors perceived to affect the Hotels service internationalization. What vividly stood out during the data collection process is that the staff indicated that the owner/directors had different perspectives towards hotel service international based on the costs related to Internationalization (Web et al. 2015) The tourism small business owners should, therefore, pay more attention to the quality of services their employees render by carrying our capacity building for all their staff

Level three: Individual Factors

In this section we looked at data pertaining; Hospitality Courses Undertaken, Roles and Daily activities, Reason for choosing Hospitality industry, and Knowledge on the standards expected

We, therefore, observed that although majority of the respondents have not done some hotel training courses, they enjoyed working in the industry. Roles undertaken in the hotel industry include managerial roles, operational roles, and kitchen roles and most of the respondents submitted that since the establishments were small, they had one person who could act as a manager, receptionist, and accountant.

The respondents were also largely unaware of the standards they were expected to adhere to since they had little or no knowledge about standardization of services in the tourism industry to meet international standards and were citing things as they know about marketing, and that they know how to look after visitors.

The choice to work in the hospitality industry is observed to be because some like catering and admired caterers, liked attending international conferences, others studied hospitality, others were told by parents to study hospitality. There is the need for the tourism stakeholders to sensitize the tourism small business owners to involve their staff in various training that is relevant for their various positions as most of the employees are working without sufficient knowledge of the tourism Industry.

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Perceived contributions of core competencies on graduates employability in the hospitality industry

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Abstract

Hospitality industry development was due to the evolvement of transport industry (King and Craig, 2005) which led to the demand for trained personnel. Tourism education and training as a professional area of training is some recent phenomena of the 60's (Airey, 1988). However due to limited capacity in training and the growing demand of trained personnel there was proliferation of many public and private middle level colleges (Koech,1997). Although the main focus has been to train professionals for the industry there has been no feedback from employers to the training providers and the specific needs of the industry remains uncharted. Notably the industry perception of this employee competence amidst diversified training background has not been clearly documented. This paper seeks to determine the perceived contributions of core competencies on graduate's employability in the hospitality industry by identifying the considered and expected competencies in employability of hospitality graduates and finding out the Industry's interpretation of employability. A descriptive survey was used to generate required data. Closed ended questionnaires were used in collecting the data. The population was all 3star hotels within Nairobi. The target group was stratified random sampled from the three star ranked town hotels. The human resource managers and heads of hospitality departments made up the sample of this study. Descriptive statistics was done using measures of central tendency. Data was presented in graphs and percentages.

Data was analysed by content, theme and concept from which generalisation were formulated. Reliability was enhanced through split half reliability technique. Validity was enhanced by use of experts in content validity method. Pilot test was also conducted to enhance reliability and validity. Findings of this study benefits the policy makers, hospitality graduates and the hospitality industry. Study results indicated the considered competencies for hospitality graduates to be industry knowledge, meeting standards, Critical analysis, Problem management and quality orientation and expected competencies to be result orientation, practical knowledge, technical expertise, flexibility, pro-active thinking and creativity. The study recommends that training institutions need to develop relevant training programmes and also liaise with the hospitality industry to ensure that hospitality graduates meets expectations required by industry players and professionals in the hospitality sector.

Introduction

Hospitality industry dates back 2000 years ago. Its development has been due to the evolvement of transport industry (King and Craig, 2005) which led to the demand for trained personnel. Tourism education and training as a professional area of training is a recent phenomenon of the 60's (Airey, 1988). Jasper (1987) points out that it developed in an unplanned manner in most countries though majority are now harmonising it. Due to immaturity of tourism education and training, an argument on it being highly vocational, curriculum relevance and skills development has been raised (Airey and Tribe, 2005; Baum, 2002). Other debates by Airey and Tribe are on standards in tourism education, industrial involvement in curriculum development, accreditation of courses and employability of graduates after the training.

Tourism education and training was initiated by the government of Kenya at Kenya Polytechnic in 1969 and later in 1975 at Kenya Utalii College (KUC) which Mayaka (2005) reports had a limited capacity. To supply the growing demand for training there was proliferation of private and public colleges which had varied curriculum. According to Mwaisaka (2004) and Sio (2000) these colleges have no linkages, networking and lack a regulatory and harmonising body. There is an ongoing task by Kenya Institute of Education (KIE) to harmonise training in Kenya as a result of Sessional paper no. 1 of 2005(Mayo,2008) which saw Technical Industrial Vocational Entrepreneurship Training (TIVET) not being responsive to labour market needs. Harmonizing training will be successful if employers give a feedback on employee competence and employability. Previous related studies by Atchorena, 2001, Mayaka, 2002, observed a mismatch of learnt skills and those needed in the industry.

Employer opinion may play an important role in this. Hospitality employers have indicated that hospitality graduate students are often not prepared for the workplace and call on universities to produce more employable graduates (Barrie, 2006; Kember& Leung, 2005) by providing transferable skills that can be taken into the workplace (Smith, Clegg, Lawrence & Todd, 2007). Students' subject matter knowledge is usually satisfactory (Crebert, Bates, Bell, Patrick &Cragolini, 2004; Hind, Moss &McKellan, 2007) but by improving and developing their competencies value will be added to their intellectual capabilities making them more employable (Hind *et al.*, 2007; Maher & Graves, 2007).

Hospitality employers are expecting graduates to be work-ready and demanding a range of competencies and qualities of them (Yorke& Harvey, 2005).

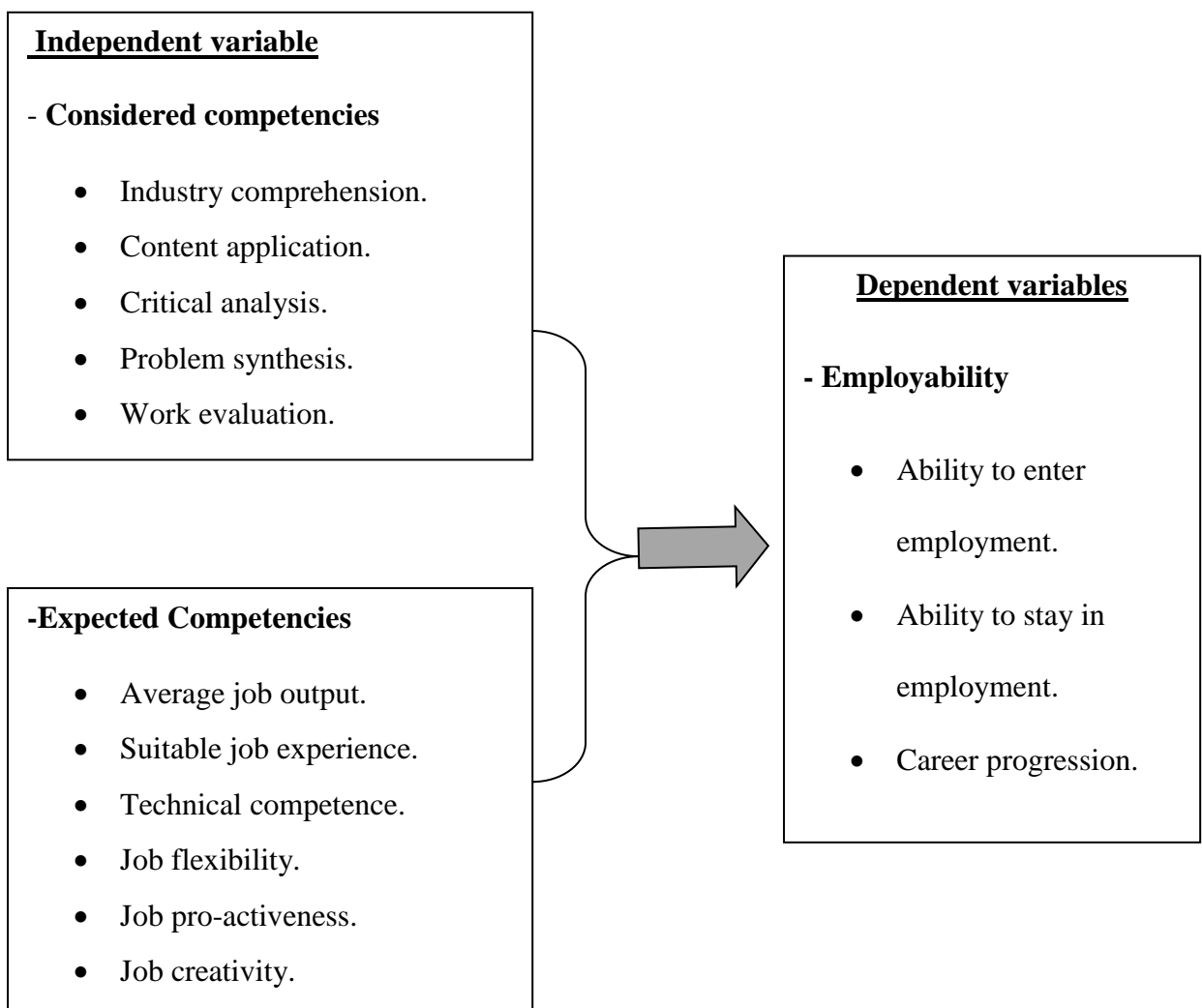
Educational institutions should be critical of their programme offerings and question if they are nurturing the appropriate competencies and consider how best to ensure these are developed (Kember& Leung, 2005). Hospitality graduates have to flexibly adapt to a job market that places increasing expectation and demands on them. They need to continually maintain their employability.

Research objectives

1. Identify the considered competencies in employability of hospitality graduates in selected 3 star Hotels within Nairobi.
2. Determine the expected competencies considered in the employability of hospitality graduates in selected 3 star Hotels within Nairobi.
3. Find out the Industry's interpretation of employability in selected 3 star Hotels within Nairobi.

Conceptual Framework

Figure 1: Conceptual framework illustrating the Perceived contributions of core competencies on graduate's employability in the hospitality industry.



Source: Researchers (2017)

The dependent variable of the study was employability. The independent variables were considered competencies and expected Competencies. The study aimed at determining the perceived contributions of core competencies on graduate's employability in the hospitality industry by analysing both the dependent and independent variables.

Research Methodology

The study utilized descriptive and explanatory research designs to generate required quantitative data. The target population was all the three star rated hotels within Nairobi. The target group was stratified random sampled from the three star ranked town hotels. The unit of observation was purposively selected from nine hotels. The human resource managers and heads of hospitality departments made up the sample of this study. Six senior employees were sampled in each of the nine Hotels. This generated a sample size of 54 respondents for the study. The main instrument for data collection was structured questionnaires that allowed for uniformity of response to the questions. The raw data was systematically organised and assigned numerical codes. Descriptive statistics was done using measures of central tendency. Standards deviations were used to measure variability. Data was also presented in graphs and percentages. Data was analysed by content, theme and concept from which generalisation were formulated. Reliability was enhanced through split half reliability technique. Validity was enhanced by use of experts in content validity method. Pilot test was also conducted to enhance reliability and validity. The research study was expected to assist in determining the perceived contributions of core competencies on graduate's employability in the hospitality industry.

Results and Discussion.

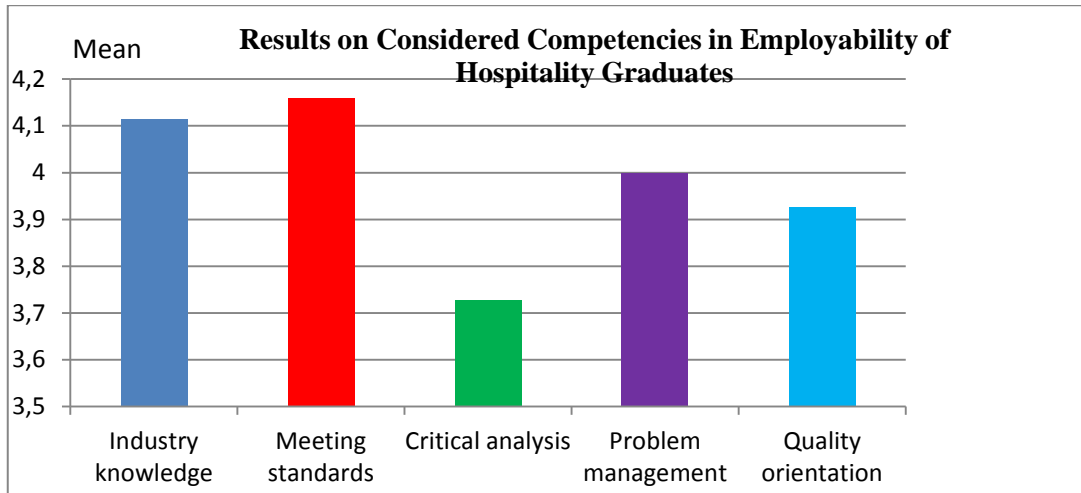
Results on the Respondents Demographic Information

Data was received from 44 respondents out of 54 questionnaires but 10 questionnaires were incomplete and therefore not valid which represents a response rate of 81%. This response rate is considered adequate for drawing conclusion. According to Sekeran (2003) a response rate of 70% and above is acceptable for surveys.

The study elements were human resource managers and heads of hospitality departments in the selected hotels. From the findings more than 85% respondents had college and university level of education and therefore reinforce the reliability of the information gathered from data collection. More than 11% of the respondents had more than 5 years of experience working in their respective institutions and More than 80% of the respondents had more than one year of experience in their respective work stations. There was also a balance between the various heads of departments. 41% of the respondents always participated in the recruitment process and 34% participated often in the recruitment process.

Results on considered Competencies in Employability of Hospitality Graduates

Figure 2: Results on considered Competencies in Employability of Hospitality Graduates

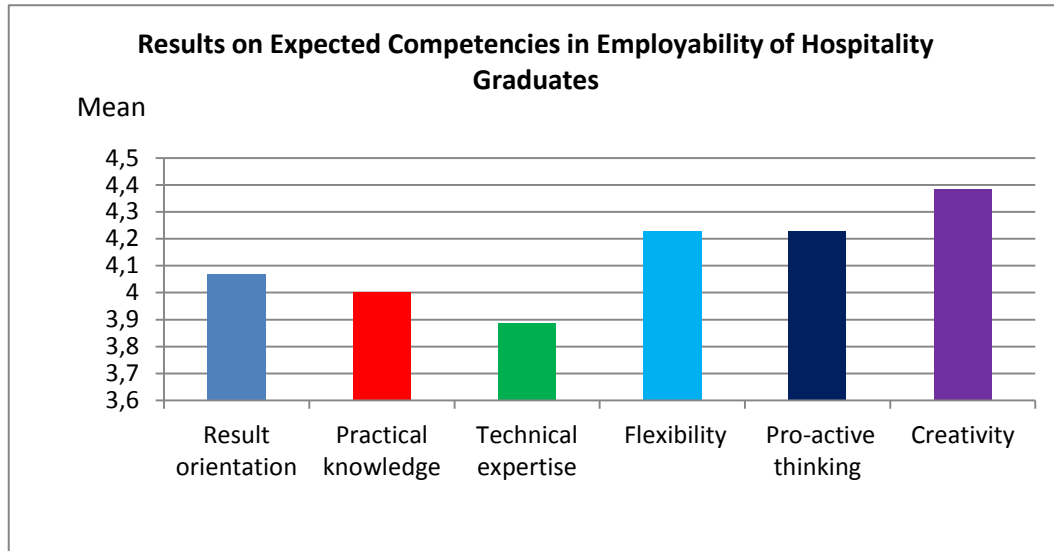


Source: (Researchers findings, 2017)

It is evident that meeting standards was regarded as the highest factor influencing employability of hospitality graduates as indicated by the mean of 4.159. Industry knowledge was also found to be very important as indicated by the mean of 4.114. Quality orientation and problem management were found to be average factors influencing employability of hospitality graduates as indicated by the means of 3.926 and 4.000 respectively. The level of hospitality graduates ability to engage in critical analysis was found to be the least important factor influencing employability of hospitality graduates as indicated by the mean of 3.727.

Results on Expected Competencies in the Employability of Hospitality Graduates

Figure 3: Results on Expected Competencies in the Employability of Hospitality Graduates



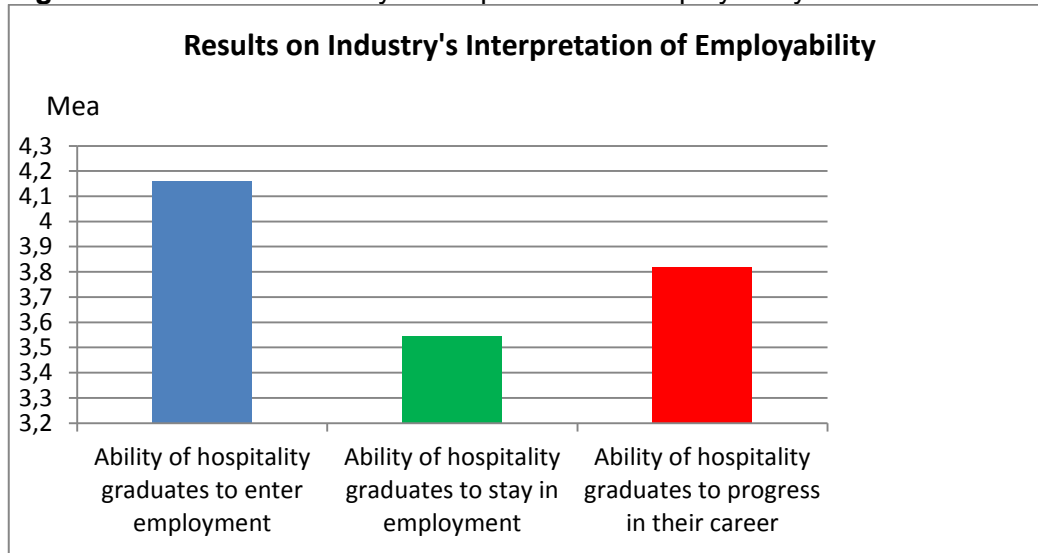
Source: (Research findings, 2017)

From the findings practical knowledge, result orientation and the ability to demonstrate technical expertise influenced significantly the employability of graduates as shown by means of 4.000, 4.068 and 3.886 respectively.

The ability to demonstrate flexibility and pro-active thinking in the job was also found to be an important factor as shown by a mean of 4.227 and 4.386 respectively. Finally, creativity in job performance was established to highly influence the employability of hospitality graduates as shown by a mean of 4.386.

Results on Industry's Interpretation of Employability

Figure 4: Results on Industry's Interpretation of Employability



Source: (Research findings, 2017)

The respondents indicated that the industry interpreted employability as the ability of hospitality graduates to enter employment as shown by a mean of 4.159. On the statement that employability is the ability of hospitality graduates to stay in employment; respondents indicated this as the least interpretation by a mean of 3.545. Finally, employability was also interpreted as the ability of hospitality graduates to progress in their career as indicated by a mean of 3.818.

Conclusion

The Considered competencies for hospitality graduates are industry knowledge, meeting standards, Critical analysis, Problem management and quality orientation. Expected competencies on the other hand, include result orientation, practical knowledge, technical expertise, flexibility, pro-active thinking and creativity.

The study recommends that training institutions need to develop relevant training programmes to ensure graduates in the hospitality sector acquire proper and adequate training to improve their chances of employment in the hospitality industry. Training institutions should also liaise with the hospitality industry especially hotel managers to ensure that hospitality graduates meet expectations required by industry players and professionals in the hospitality sector.

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Human resource empowerment as a strategy to achieve quality service delivery in tourism in Rwanda – A case of Rwanda Development Board (RDB)

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Empowerment is a management philosophy that allows work people to take on responsibilities that were once the prerogative of management. (Boella, 2000). Similarly Baum (2006), suggested that “Empowerment is a concept that originally comes from the notion that the individual can take charge of decisions within his or her own life, has, arguably, been hijacked by those more interested in its application as an organizational tool”. Also Manor (2004) and Pigg, (2002) argued that empowerment is a participating mechanism that provides persons, groups, families and societies to have power and control on their own destiny and increase their level of control(Prati and Zani, 2013), and contributes particularly to individuals for the following issues (Kirst-Ashman, 2008). A positive perception for self confidence and competence; Ability to control his/her own life; Skill in working with others and emotions that make them think he/she is effective in social life and finally as an approach to affect decision making mechanisms in social life.

Rwanda and the Government of Rwanda has created a pristine and gorgeous image of the country and the tourists are flocking. But until services as basic as the food industry improve, and as long as employees in any company sit or stand around idle while people seek their services. There is nothing unique about the underlying cause of poor service delivery in Rwanda. As elsewhere the root causes of poor service delivery and customer care are, organisations: policies practices and procedures are not clearly aligned with the main output. Good service delivery is essential in all economies and even more critical in service-led economies. Rwanda has an ambition to become a service-led economy, Due to associated benefits, the Government of Rwanda has emphasized quality service delivery as a strategy to satisfy the high end tourists targeted, yet research demonstrates that service delivery in Rwanda is generally poor Also tourism resources , services and assets have encountered serious challenges in service delivery and management. The challenge are attributed to lack of timely service delivery, lack of expertise, unprofessionalism and skills, raising potential concerns for tourism growth. Thus, poor service delivery in Rwanda endangers the realization of Vision 2020 and this also makes service delivery in Rwanda to be the poorest in the East African region. Not only that, attempts to address poor service delivery in Rwanda have focused on the symptoms not the underlying root causes. Many organisations in Rwanda, in both the public and the private sectors, are not focused on their number one priority which is service delivery. In the same way policies, practices and procedures are not aligned with consumer satisfaction and yet Rwanda’s Vision of

Customer Service Delivery is to offer world class service through Rwandan Customer Service Implementation Plan (Abbott and Lwakabamba, 2010).

In addition, Abbott and Lwakabamba, (2010) further suggested that poor service delivery in Rwanda endangers the realisation of Vision 2020. Rwanda aims to become a service economy but there is little evidence that organizations are focused on delivering good service to customers. Customer service delivery is generally poor and seen as the poorest in the region. However, the degree of poor service delivery is greater than elsewhere and there are contextual challenges. The situation is exacerbated by a lack of competition, a lack of qualified and experienced employees at all levels in organisations, general dissatisfaction amongst employees, lack of 'ownership' of responsibility for service delivery, and a lack of awareness amongst consumers of the quality of service delivery they are entitled to. There is little evidence that service sector organisations understand what they need to do to improve customer service delivery, although there is some recognition that they need to do so. Service providers do not have policies, practices and procedures in place clearly aligned to ensuring that they deliver excellent service, and there is a tendency for employees not to take responsibility for delivering a good service. Managers 'blame' front-line-staff and front-line-staff 'blame' poor and inattentive delivery on the attitude of customers towards them. The objectives of this study were; To investigate the mechanisms used by RDB to improve quality service delivery in tourism in Rwanda; To identify the factors that influence quality service delivery in tourism in Rwanda; To investigate the factors that limit the implementation of quality service delivery in tourism in Rwanda and solutions to the limitations.

Benefits of empowering

Front-line employees can be seen as the most important employees in the hospitality industry since they are the ones who actually encounter customers. This is the main reason why service-oriented lodging enterprises should encourage employee empowerment. Studies of Lashley (1999) and Jha & Nair (2008) showed that especially the front-line employees play a crucial role in terms of employee empowerment in the hospitality industry since these employees are generally accepted to deal with customer problems and requests in a courteous manner. Bowen & Lawyer (1992) claimed that empowering front-line employees can attribute guest satisfaction by creating self-esteem for employees and Klidas et al. (2007) emphasized that empowerment would result in meeting or exceeding guests' expectations during the service. Lashley (1996) noted that empowering front-line staff would also enable them to do good work and to take responsibility for their own performance. In this respect, for the hotel industry, employee empowerment should be accepted as the process of decentralizing decision making by giving necessary autonomy to front-line employees. In other words front-line employees' immediate decisions to serve customers are the main basis for empowerment in hotel industry. In this manner, front-line employees will feel that they are happier with their jobs and fulfill the job requirements willingly, have high self-esteem -which is generally low in the industry, meet higher standards of service with prompt response and more autonomy. These will in the end create

high job performance levels of front-line employees which is a necessity in service-oriented organizations (Klidas et al., 2007).

Koçel (2011) evaluates staff empowerment concept as the process of participation to decisions, and extension of delegation and motivation. As an important concept of management area, he defines empowerment as the process to increase decision powers of employees and develop them through helping each other, sharing, education and team work. It is stated that since it has a broader meaning, it differs from motivation, accession period and delegation concepts. Staff empowerment is used in providing power, authority and energy for the staff, and considered as an obligatory term imposed to organization executives by global competition (Çavuş, 2008). Staff empowerment is deemed as a process which allows people to develop their current status and increase their personal, interpersonal and political powers (Kirst-Ashman, 2008).

Employee engagement in management assists in increasing the quality, efficiency and organizational competitiveness (Durai 2010: 421). Brown and Harvey (2006) define employee empowerment as a process of giving staffs or employees the authority or power to make decisions about their own job. According to Gill (2011), employee empowerment refers to the meaningful job of employees, their feelings of competence, autonomy, and contribution to the decision making or applications of leadership. The employee empowerment concept actually certifies the employees with necessary power to employ plan and judgment in their work, participate in their work related decision-making, and authorizes them to respond quickly to the needs and concerns of the customers (Durai 2010: 432). Blanchard *et al.* argues (in Ongori 2009) that empowerment refers not only to have power or authority to make decision and act, but also to have higher level of responsibility and accountability. Demirci and Erbas (2010) calls employee empowerment a unique style of management where managers confer about various work related issues and activities with the employees of the organization. Randolph (1995) perhaps offers the simplest definition of employee empowerment, and views employee empowerment as a process of transferring power from the employer to the employees. This transformation of power benefits organizations in many forms. According to Gronroos (2001: 347–348), employee empowerment ensures more direct and quicker response to customer requirements, assists in service recovery and makes the employees satisfied. Researchers explain employee empowerment from different viewpoint.

Employee satisfaction, also known as job satisfaction, is a positive emotional state that demonstrates the perceived relationship between the expectation of an employee from his job and his perceived offerings of the job (Locke 1976). Service is an act or representation that one party ushered to another, basically intangible and does not result in the ownership of anything, and its production may or may not be related to a physical product (Kotler and Keller 2012). Service quality refers to the result from customer judgments between their desired service and their perceptions about the service (Oliver 1977). In another word, service quality is the perceived quality as a mode of attitude in which Tangibles refer to the appearances of physical facilities, personnel, equipment and communication materials (Kotler, Keller 2012). Reliability indicates the ability of employees to perform consistently

and accurately (Zeithaml *et al.* 2006). Responsiveness is the willingness to assist customers and offer quick service (Kotler, Keller 2012). Assurance is the realization and courtesy of workers and their capability to express confidence and trust (Kotler, Keller 2012). Empathy refers to caring and individualized attention to customers (Kotler, Keller 2012: 374). Saif and Saleh (2013) view employee empowerment as one of the foremost rudiments for continuous improvement of the quality of products and services. The study of Timothy and Abubaker (2013) endorse affirmative and significant impact of employee empowerment on service quality (Tsaor *et al.* 2004), and reveals employee empowerment improves service quality. Large enterprises like Federal Express and U.S. Air empowered their employees to satisfy customers by further their service quality (Zemke, Schaaf 1989). Numerous studies found significant relationship between employee empowerment and service quality.

Baum (2006), argues that empowerment as a key tool of any management makes employees confident in decision making. For instance, customer's complaints need immediate positive solutions. Therefore if employees can decide wisely before running to managers it is more important and potential to the company. In hospitality industry, especially front-line employees spend most of their time directly with customers and their attitudes can easily influence customer satisfaction and their perception of services (Hartline & Ferrell, 1996; Hurley, 1998). Keeping this information in mind, finding out what may possibly lead these employees to increased job performance turns out to be a central issue for the hospitality industry as job performance will also lead to high levels of customer satisfaction.

Strategies for empowering

Responding to the constant changing trend of global business atmosphere is perhaps the most substantial concern for both the people and the organizations. In order to react to the changes and diverse requirements of customers and stakeholders, employees are to face numerous challenges in steering their performance. Employees frequently struggle to seize and restrain their managerial authority (Checkland 2004) to encounter those challenges. One of the core challenges for enterprises in this epoch of globalization is to provide prompt responses to the customers to make them satisfied, and to increase productivity. Nonetheless, poor organizational arrangements like Lack of authority to make work-related decisions, limited access of information, lack of control on job, vague and meaningless responsibility, and improper reward system often make the jobs difficult for the employees and reduce the quality of service, which ultimately lead to customer dissatisfaction. So as to make the customers satisfied and enhance organizational performance, organizations need to give employees enough authority and support. The tenacious movement of the human relations steered the experts to integrate various strategies that can deliver the greatest performance in their human resources (Sharma, Kaur 2011).

Karakoc and Yilmaz (2009) specified that these strategies involve a set of diverse forms e.g. industrial democracy, employee participation and managerial compliance. Internal settings like organizational structure and employee participation are the key determinants of an organization, which affects employee

performance. Endless debates have emerged in how the performance of an organization, and the satisfaction level of its employees and customers can be improved. Brown and Harvey (2006) state employee empowerment, comparatively a new technique, which makes the employees proactive and self-sufficient helps in mounting the performance of employees and organizations. Employee empowerment is very crucial for the survival and success of an organization, and it gives employees a sense of feelings that they are the core assets to the organizational success, creates commitment and a sense of belonging, builds trust, promotes effective communication, and increases organizational effectiveness and employee wellbeing (Ongori 2009). Experts upturn huge controversy in their studies and opinions whether employee empowerment supports or injures an organization. Karakoc and Yilmaz (2009) views employee empowerment as one of the most effective means of allowing employees at every level to utilize their creative thinking and abilities to improve the quality of their work and the performance of the organization. The study of Ugboro and Obeng (2000) endorses significant correlation between employee empowerment and customer satisfaction or employee job satisfaction. Opponent suggests (Locke *et al.* 1986) employee empowerment essentially in many cases downsizes productivity and lowers employee satisfaction. Mills and Ungson (2003) move a step further and advocate employee empowerment produces an agency problem and may cause complete disaster for the organizations.

According to Fitzsimmons & Fitzsimmons, (2006), organizations use different strategies' in empowering their staffs depending on the nature of the works. For example, in hospitality and tourism industries, many senior managers believe that, people want to do good work and they can do so if given opportunity and to get the opportunity is to be empowered. For instance Service master, Marriott and Dayton Hudson, are one of the companies the Senior managers believe this and they have all decided to empower their staff through committing themselves to do the following;

Invest in training people as a main resource than on machines. This is very true because managers have to understand that, although technology is developing and changing everyday to the extent that human being works are replaced by machines still the human resource is the main resource to depend on. Therefore, in order to improve the quality of service delivered people need to have skills on the machines and they must be up to date according to how the technology changes. For instance currently in many hospitality and tourism industry there is use of OPERA system mostly in the front office. And as the technology change always in case there is another system which can be more useful than OPERA the company can still invest in training its employees. Trained staff can be given authority in different daily business operations. Use of technology to support contact personnel rather than to monitor or replace them, consider the recruitment and training of contact personnel as critical to the firm's success and to link compensation to performance for employees at all levels.

Factors that limit empowerment of frontline staff

Researchers and scholars though have different views and opinions in empowering employees and its consequences, enterprises start realizing that employee empowerment can make difference between their success and failure in the long run (Brown, Harvey 2006). Many organizations consider that empowering their employees will eventually direct to higher profitability and greater customer satisfaction (Sternberg 1992). Organizations can be more effective in the contemporary competitive market by improving service quality (Zeithaml *et al.* 2006). However, employees cannot act properly and make the customers delighted if they lack sufficient information and clear role clarification to deliver superior service (Melhem 2004). Employees in various organizations perceive insufficient autonomy and authority to make decision so as to respond quickly to customers, and thus organizations fail to retain customers as a consequence. Lack of information, authority and autonomy in the one hand not only interrupt prompt services but also lower employee satisfaction. Employee empowerment on the other hand leads to higher job satisfaction and fosters quick delivery of service to the customers (Fulford, Enz 1995). Empowerment delegates authority to an organization's lowest level in order to make competent decisions (Conger, Kanungo 1988; Thomas, Velthouse 1990), and increases intrinsic motivation of the employees and upturn individual performance (Spreitzer 1995). Employee empowerment involves the necessary background of providing tools, and training, encouraging and motivating the employees of an organization for ensuring sustainable performance. It facilitates the construction of a complete quality setting that benefits an organization to produce quality products and services (Kahreh *et al.* 2011).

Although empowerment gives the employees authority and makes them confident to deliver their best and thus service quality increases, employees in different organizations seldom enjoy autonomy and power necessary to perform certain tasks, which cause severe consequences for the enterprises (Coulthard 2014; Wojcik 1999). Employees desiderate sense of belongingness and attachment to the organizations due to lack of empowerment including insignificant authority, noninvolvement in organizational decision making, meaningless job, poor salary structure and low status (Ahmed 2013; Dawson 1989), which greatly influence overall satisfaction of the employees and their offered services. Empowerment does not mean power itself; it is simply a process by which power is only imparted for a drive or to an end. The key to empowerment is the delegation of authority in lower levels and engaging all employees in decision-making, which leads to improve the sense of pride, self-esteem and responsibility of the employees (Brown and Harvey 2006).

Ghosh (2013) argues employee empowerment emerges from four different perspectives: social, psychological, growth and organizational. Kahreh *et al.* (2011) describes employee empowerment from psychological and employment climate perspectives. Bekker and Crous (1998) state three perspectives of employee empowerment namely organizational, individual, and training and development. According to Lee and Koh (2001), and Zeglat *et al.* (2014), psychological and structural/ relational empowerments are the most common forms of employee

empowerment. Thomas and Velthouse (1990), and Spreitzer (1995) pay much attention on the psychological empowerment. Psychological empowerment refers to a set of motivational consciousness constituted by work setting, and reflects the active orientation of an employee to his or her job role (Spreitzer 1995). Psychological empowerment is the extended motivation of intrinsic task constructed on the basis of four perceptions: meaning, competence, self-determination and impact that reflect the orientation of an individual to his work activities (Thomas, Velthouse 1990). Impact indicates the extent of influence of an employee on end results in the organizational work mechanism (Vacharakiat 2008).

Materials and methods

The study research design was descriptive and used both qualitative which involved respondents' opinions and quantitative that involved statistical data obtained from field. The study also used primary data which comprised of data that was obtained directly from respondents and secondary data that involved getting data from the already existing literature such as books, documents or reports from RDB offices to get clear understanding of the findings. The study area was Rwanda Development Board near parliament building in Gasabo district half-hours drive from Kigali city. The target population was 60 RDB staff that included marketing staff, tourism staff and conservation staff. A sample is a portion or part of the total population that one gets data from and represents the total population. The sample was obtained through purposive sampling particularly workers from the departments mentioned using Slovin's formula; $n = N/(1+Ne^2)$. Where N is the target population (60), n refers to the sample and e is the estimated error which was 5% or 0.05. The study used the self administered questionnaire with closed and open ended questions to obtain data from the respondents. The pre-testing of the questionnaire was done early in time to verify the validity of the questionnaire to avoid errors in the data that was to be collected. Analysis of data involved deriving meaning from the findings by editing, coding, processing and in this study the used statistical methods as well as the computer packages such as excel to obtain frequencies, graphs and percentages.

Results

The results indicated that in order to empower staff in the hospitality industry Rwanda Development Board RDB) uses different strategies to achieve that objective. The findings revealed that the majority of the participants (22%) agreed that RDB monitors the activities of the companies to ensure that they implement the empowering aspect in their staff in order to offer better service to the customers. In addition the second biggest number of participants (19%) suggested that the RDB carries out trainings on skills required for the staff to perform better in service delivery. While professionalization which was ranked by 17% of the participants was pointed out as another strategy used to empower the staff in the industry whereas 15% of participants agreed that policies have been formulated and implemented in order for the managers and hotel owners to empower staff in order to provide better service to the customers. Finally some of the participants said RDB also classifies hotels (11%) in order to different those with better service

through empowerment and licenses institutions with empowerment programmes to train in hospitality programmes. This is indicated in Figure 1 below.

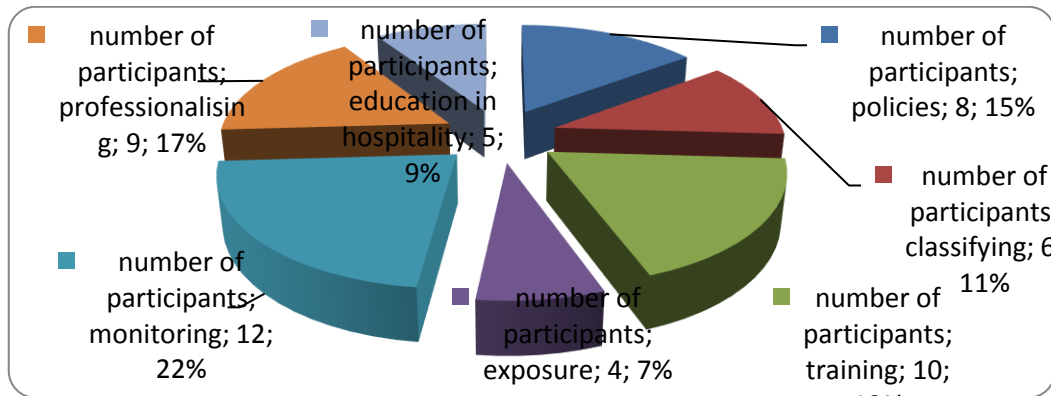


Figure1: Respondents rated Key strategies used to empower the staff

Benefits of empowering customers

The findings suggested that empowerment brings about benefits both to the company and the staff. The biggest percentage of participants 15% agreed that empowerment of staff leads to increased income generation because staff enjoy to make business while 13% agreed that it motivated staff to perform better and satisfy customers and thus leading to increase in number of customers. Further some participants suggested that empowerment improves the image of the company as rated by 11% and the smallest percentage 8% argued that it brought about accountability on the part of the staff to ensure things work smoothly as indicated in Figure 2 below.

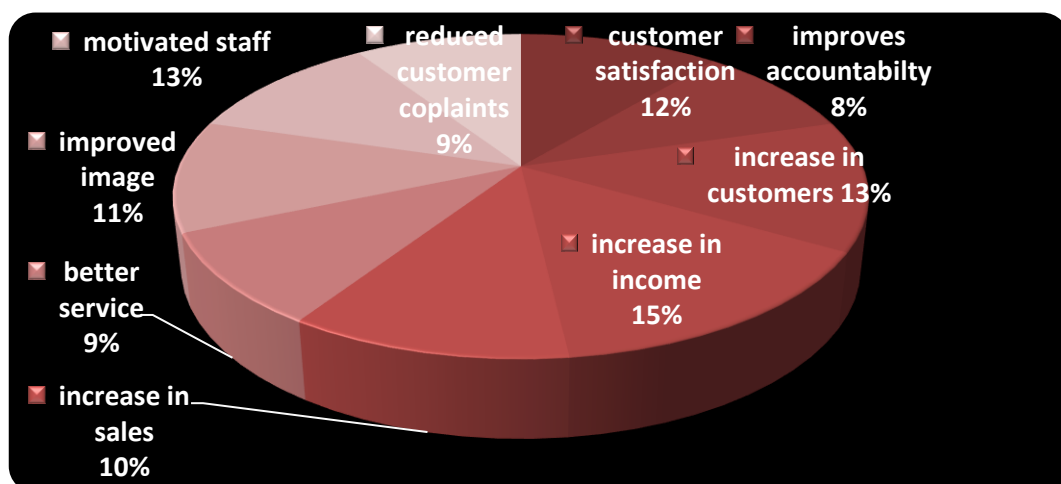


Figure 2: Benefits of empowering staffing the hospitality industry

Respondents views ranked limitations to quality service delivery

Apart from the benefits mentioned by the participants above, the findings also revealed that there were limitations to the quality of service delivered. The results showed that majority of participants 13% argued that quality service delivery was affected by the unprofessional staff who affect the service offered. The second highest number 11% pointed out that the problem stems from the uneducated owners of businesses who do not see the benefit of qualified and skilled staff and so end up employing the cheap un qualified staff. Not only that also the poor monitoring methods of RDB as mentioned by 11% of participants also plays an influential role in quality of service delivered to customers. While poor technology and unmotivated staff each rated at 9% percent as the other factors that influence quality of service and the smallest number of participants 7% agreed that time taken to deliver the service is also important and affects quality if it takes long to deliver the service as indicated in Figure 3 below.

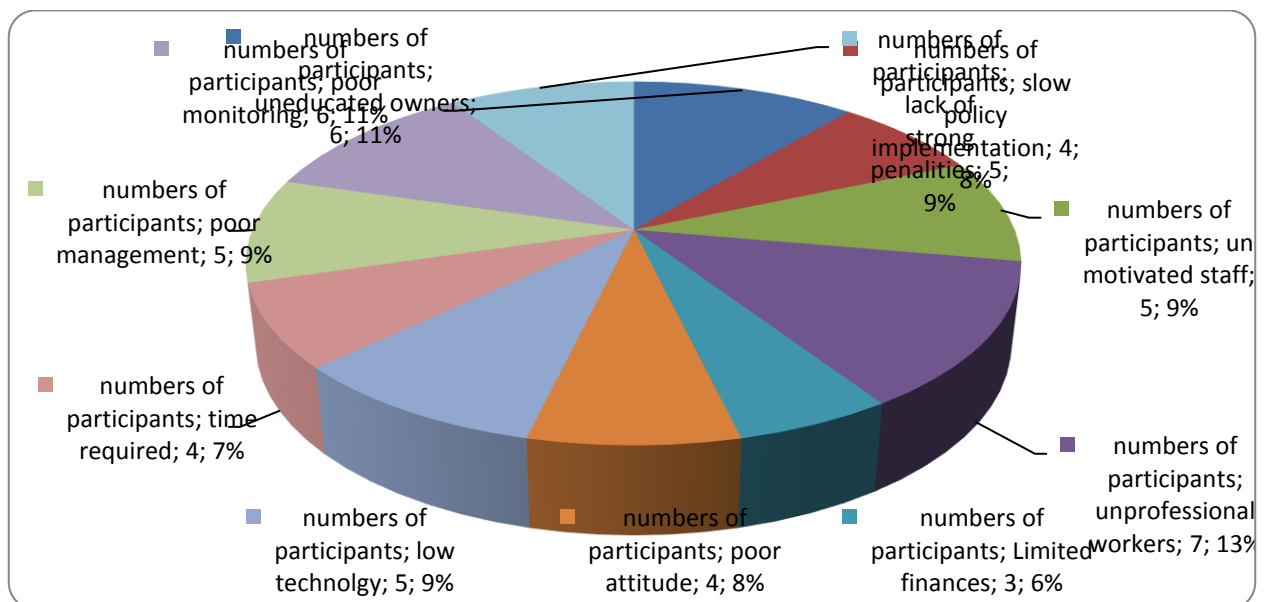


Figure 3: The factors influencing the quality of service delivered.

Suggested Solutions as ranked by participants

In connection to the above challenges the participants were asked to suggest their opinions on the solutions that can be used to reduce on the limiting factors and the biggest number 17% suggested that motivating staff was one way of reducing on the poor quality service. Also 17% of the participants suggested that eliminating unprofessionalism among staff in the hospitality industry also plays a key role on quality of service offered to customers. Another solution mentioned was for RDB to strengthen the policies so that implantation of these policies is done well to improve service delivery. In addition to that staff training,, acquiring suitable

equipment and work supervision all suggested by 11% of participants as the factors that can improve on the service delivered to customers. Finally the smallest number that was 9% argued that on job training and new technology can be used to improve the service delivered as shown in Figure 4 below.

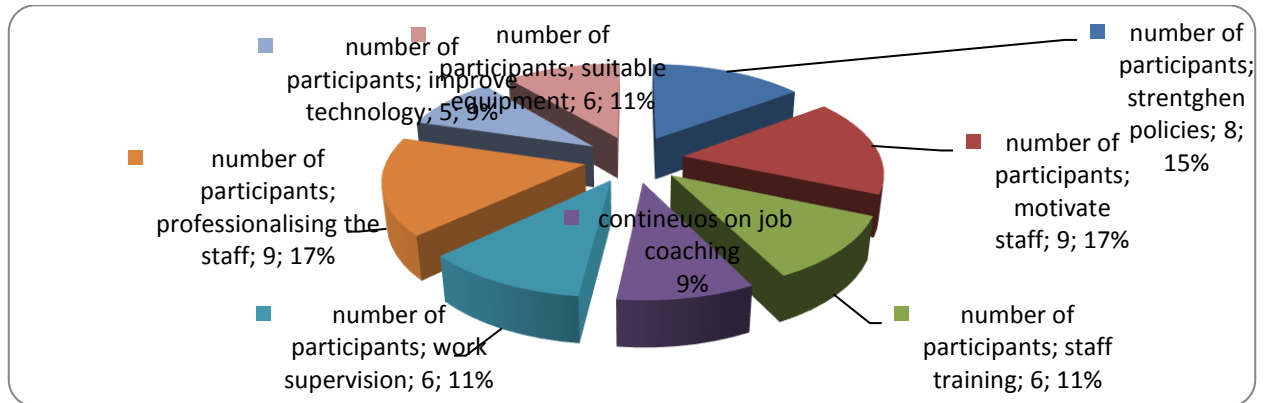


Figure 4: Suggested measures to the challenges faced in hospitality industry

Conclusion

It can be concluded that staff empowerment is a very vital component of managing employees in service industry especially in hospitality. Empowerment has its benefits as revealed by the findings and if well handled improves the quality of service and generates more income. However, it is concluded that lack of empowerment will bring down business and may affect the future of the business. Empowerment has its own negatives and managers have to be keen to note of the weakness instead work on factors that influence positively the empowerment process as well as implement the measures to strengthen empowerment especially among the frontline staff.

Recommendations

- It can therefore be recommended that RDB comes up with strategies that can be used to ensure staff empowerment in hospitality industry is properly implemented.
- It is recommended that all stake holders in the hospitality industry appreciate and embrace staff empowerment as the cheapest way to improve service and grow business
- It can also be recommended that managers in the hospitality industry implement and monitor the empowered staff to ensure they are practicing it in an appropriate way

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Impact of Product Innovations to the marketing strategies of the hotel industry of Rwanda – The case of Marriot hotel

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Introduction and Background

Since the early nineteenth Century, the hotel industry has expanded the scope across geographical areas, across the value chain and across products. Expansion of hotels across different product markets is the most prominent source of competitive growth as high performance of hotels all over the world. (Grant, 2005) Product innovations are very important to the sustainable development of any business including those in the tourism and hospitality industry particularly in developing countries. There are many benefits of product innovations which include attracting new market segments, increase of business revenue and satisfaction of the customers.

Nowadays, no one needs to be convinced of the importance of innovation in a dynamic world of intense global competition, along with fast changing markets and technologies; the cry 'Create, innovate or die!' is a common slogan of today's managers (Politis, 2005). Hence, the quest for increased organizational creativity and innovation in products, services, systems, and work processes is recognized as a key factor to long-term organizational survival and success (Mathiesen and Einarsen, 2004). Under the conditions of turbulence, companies have to be successful not only in competing under price and quality pressures but they also are in a tremendous need of flexibility and innovation of the way they do things.

Product, process, organizational or management and market innovations are the main categories of innovations. Distribution and institutional innovations are attempts to define specific innovations in tourism Product and service innovations indicate changes that are observed directly by customers and they are considered to be new, respective to a specific enterprise. From the perspective of the customer, these factors influence their buying behavior. Some studies have focused on how the hotel industry distinguishes innovation from the perspective of individual services for example innovations in food and beverage (So Yin You et.al, 2015)

It results that innovation in the hospitality industry is based significantly on people, not only in their capacity of innovators, but also in their capacity of providers of hospitality services. Hotels have the same kinds of tangible facilities (bars, restaurants) that differ only in class, style, and design, depending on category and age. If the only way to innovation success is represented by tangible facilities, it would be easy to achieve, as an example, a refurbishment; but "what cannot easily

be purchased is staff members who are cooperating harmoniously and who consistently and effectively express the hospitality firm's philosophy and brand" (Ottenbacher and Gnoth, 2005). The creative and innovative behaviors at work seem to be promoted by a combination of both personal qualities and work environment factors.

All destinations try to innovate products however product innovations in developing countries such as Rwanda especially for hotel establishments are difficult to achieve due to several challenges. This is the major motivation for carrying out this study to establish the impact product innovations have on the marketing strategies of the hospitality industry. This is because product innovations done within the hotel can influence marketing activities exogenously in relation to the product packaging, pricing strategies, promotion strategies, and the people who are involved in the service delivery, the place or distribution strategies as well as the target market. In the hospitality industry, contemporary organizations are facing increased social and economic changes, in customer needs, increased competition among hotels, and technological innovations that are occurring very rapidly. Dealing with these challenges requires looking for ways of cutting costs, improving quality and reputation, gaining flexibility, and becoming more innovative. Innovation is the companies' pro-active response to a changing business environment, and continuous renewal and adaptation is required to stay in business. (So Yin You et.al, 2015)

Amabile et al, (1996) point out that innovations are the result of a complex process involving the generation of creative ideas or insights *and* putting them into action. It results that the starting point of the process is creativity (i.e. generation of ideas) and innovation further implies the successful implementation of the creative ideas within the organization (The creative ideas and their implementations may be entirely new to the market, or they may involve the application of existing ideas that are new only to the innovating organization (or often a combination of both). So, innovations may be incremental, as a succession of individually modest improvements to products or services over their life cycle, or dramatic and new ones.

McDougall and Round (2002) note that product diversification has become an important aspect of business strategy with reasons for this increased focus being increased profitability, reduction in risk, increasing competition, higher growth and more efficient resource allocation. Richards (2012) also observes that product diversification plays an important role in hotel performance in a number of ways, being used to develop new products and experiences, to renew existing products, to provide higher value to cultural and creative assets, to enhance the hotel experience through diversification techniques and to provide a unique atmosphere. The objectives of this research were to identify the products which have been innovated by hotels in Kigali city, describe the impact of these innovations to the marketing activities of these hotels, and discuss the challenges faced by these hotels in innovation of products and to suggest ways in which they can overcome these challenges to product innovations. It is against this background that this study was carried out to describe the impact of the product innovations in the hospitality industry to the marketing strategies.

Problem Statement

All destinations try to innovate products so as to achieve these objectives. However, product innovation in developing countries such as Rwanda, especially for local communities, is difficult to achieve due to several hindrances. This is the major motivation for carrying out this study to establish the impact product innovations have on marketing strategies of the hotel and tourism industry. This is because product innovations can influence marketing activities. In 2016, Marriott Hotels stormed Kigali city as one of the few five-star hotels with unique products and services on the market. After entry into the market, it discovered that due to the competition, it needs to innovate more products and services. However, its innovation limitations are attributed to the characteristics of services comprising intangibility, inseparability, perishability, heterogeneity, and lack of ownership (Kotler et al., 2004). The challenge also in Marriott is attributed to changing market dynamics and the perception of the local market about the innovated products on sale and price.

Methodology

The study used a descriptive research design which involved the use of both qualitative and quantitative approaches. It also used the primary and secondary data in relation to product innovations. The total target population was 50 people and included staff from different departments like front office, kitchen, housekeeping, and banqueting. The sample was obtained by use of Slovic's formula $N/(1+Ne^2)$. The sample was 42 respondents from the departments mentioned above. Stratified sampling was also used by dividing the respondent into strata for better data collection. Purposive sampling was used for the top-level managers and simple random sampling for the other staff because the selection of respondents was based on the premise that they were knowledgeable and with experience about the hotel. Data analysis was by the use of SPSS and in relation to the specific objectives.

Results

This section presents the results generated from the respondents to the study. The findings in relation to the innovated products from the Marriott hotel kitchen show that the open kitchen and live cooking (19%) was rated highest among the product innovations in the kitchen and this is because the clients participate in the product process and feel motivated to be a part of it. The digital micros and red coat and health and diet (17%) were the second highly rated product innovation from the kitchen because the red coat facilitates guests to make their orders from any location around the hotel without making contact with the waiting staff. In the case of the health and diet product, many guests are very sensitive to diet-related illnesses and are therefore selective when it comes to the types of foodstuffs. The involvement of customers in the cooking process and the theme nights related to the type of food prepared (14%) are the other product innovations. The theme nights are appreciated by the guests because they give them an opportunity to taste their home food just like their involvement in the cooking process.

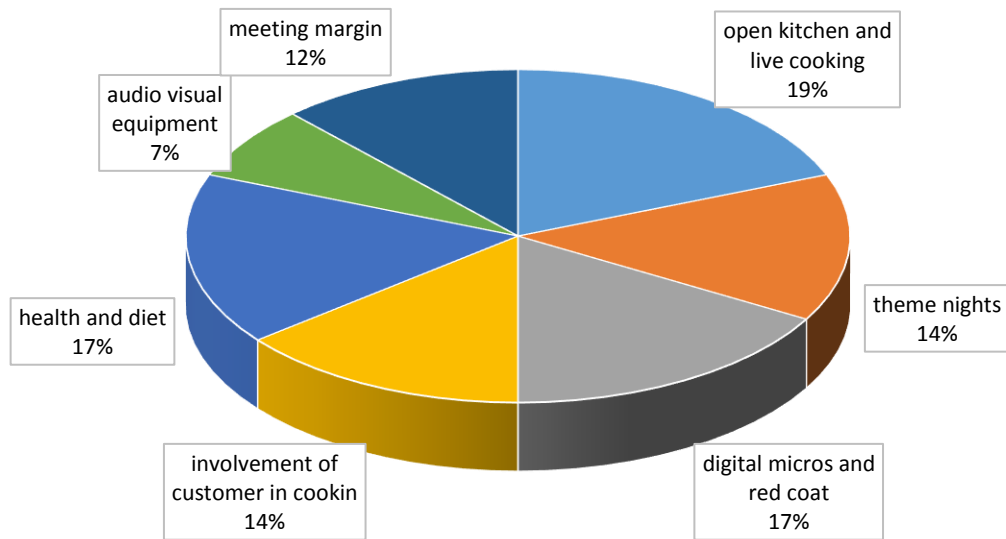


Figure 1: Innovated products in the Kitchen department

The innovated hospitality products in the front office department of Marriot hotels are many and include the self-check in and out system (24%) which facilitates fast check in on arrival by the guest and departure which saves time and limits customer complaints about delay. The use of the mobile phone as a key, order and remote (21%) is another innovation in the front office of Marriot hotel. This enables the guest to have access to services and facilities without any involvement of the service staff. It helps the guest to use it as a key to the room, remote control for the television, air condition and refrigerator in the room. The other attractive innovation in the front office is that of the mobile check in (17%) where the guest can use his mobile phone from any location or even during travel to the destination to check in before arrival at the hotel. In addition Marriot hotel has other innovations in their front office department as shown in figure 2 below.

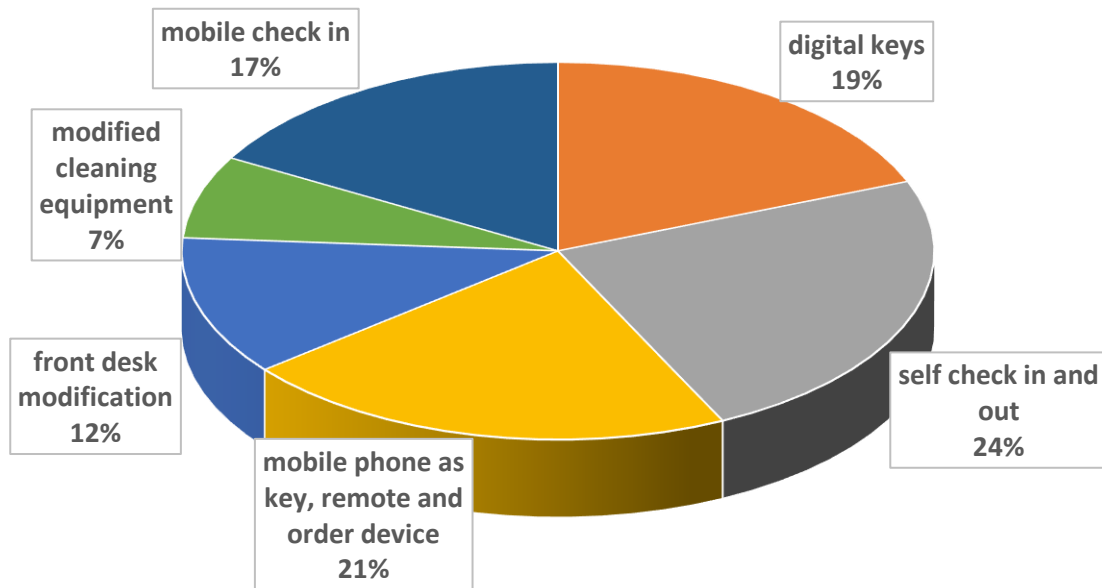


Figure 2: Innovated products in the Front Office department

The hospitality product innovations pointed out above have impacted positively to the marketing strategies of the Kigali Marriot hotel as shown in figure 3 below. There are frequent promotions (21%) by the hotel which have resulted from the product innovations to attract the potential guests and also create awareness about the innovated products. The product innovations have also helped a lot to diversify the marketing channels for the hotel business for example through events, online channels such as social media and television adverts which are all used to market the innovated products. Word of mouth and brand promotion respectively of Marriot hotel (14%) are the other impacts to the marketing strategies. These influence the demand for the products and services offered as the guests who have consumed them inform others and the product innovations become a part of the Marriot hotel brand. The innovation process of some of the products creates an opportunity for some of the service staff to engage in personal selling (14%) as a marketing strategy.

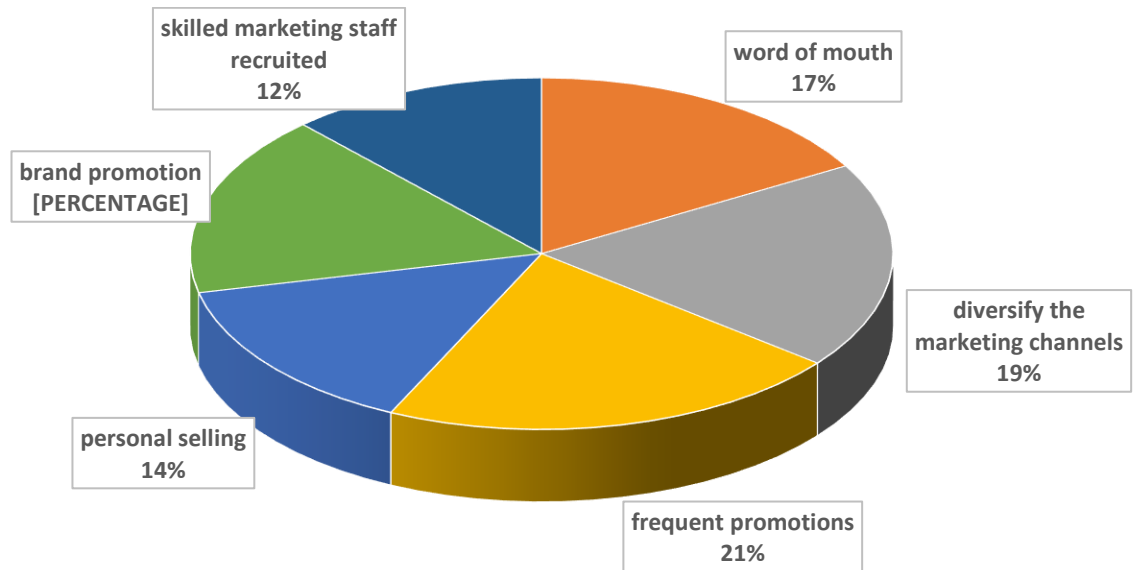


Figure 3: impact to the Marriot hotel marketing strategies

The results of the study indicate that there are some challenges faced by Marriot hotel Kigali in their product innovations as shown in figure 4. The customer preferences (21%) was rated highest among the challenges. The respondents pointed out that the guest needs and preferences keep changing all the time and this makes it difficult to anticipate which product to innovate. There is also a challenge of competition (19%) especially from the other International hotel chains such as One and Only Nyungwe house, Radisson Blu hotel and Serena hotel which have come to Kigali with their own innovations. The perishability of the hotel products and marketing and insufficient innovation funds (17%) were mentioned among the challenges to the innovation process. The lack of skilled staff for the innovations (14%) was also pointed out as one of the challenges because Marriot hotel Kigali employs some locals some of whom have not yet acquired the necessary skills needed to contribute to the innovations. The local customer perceptions (12%) is still a challenge because the locals consider the hotel products to be expensive and therefore cannot afford to consume them. This limits the hotel capacity to penetrate the domestic market segment effectively.

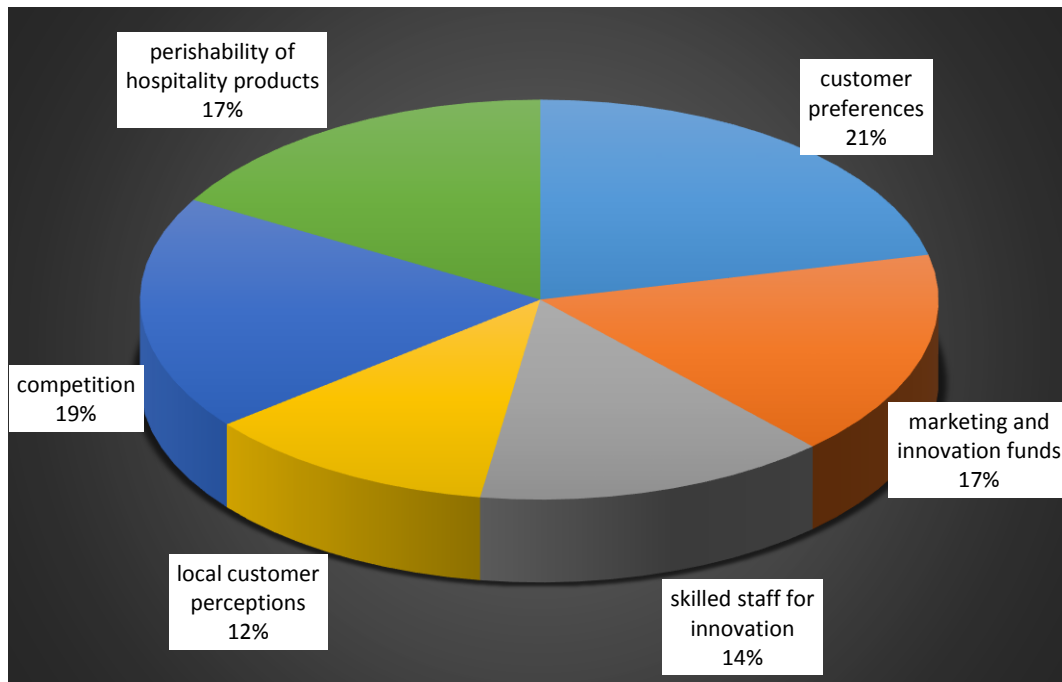


Figure 4: Challenges to the hospitality product innovations

Conclusion

In conclusion, hospitality product innovations are very important because they enable business organizations to make profits, have a cutting edge over competitors through pricing, offering quality products, better packaging and branding. Marriot hotel has innovated different hospitality products such as use of the mobile phone for check in, self -check in and out, open kitchen and live cooking among others. These have greatly impacted on their marketing strategies such as advertising, promotion events and word of mouth to reach out to the potential and existing market. However there are still some challenges which limit the hotel to fully innovate the hospitality products. These include majorly customer preferences, competition, insufficient marketing and innovation funds and negative local customer perceptions among others.

Recommendations

Basing on the results in relation to the challenges pointed out by the respondents to this study, the following recommendations are made;

- Continuous training and exposure of staff. It was suggested by the respondents that the staff of Marriot hotel need training and continuous exposure in relation to different innovations which are carried out in different departments.
- Acquiring and updating new technology to continuously improve the quality of service and to contribute to the innovation process of the hospitality products as well as to minimize the problem of perishability of products

- Continuous marketing and creating awareness will help to change the perceptions of the local market in relation to the innovated products as well as attract new customers
- Following closely the market trends and partnering with other companies to be competitive such as airlines can help to counteract the competitors and this can reduce the financial constraints to the innovation

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Tourism Innovations in Developing Economies. Is It Top Leadership and Management Support or embracing ICTs to Boost the Tourism Industry in Uganda? Role Model, Personal Perspective

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Introduction

Uganda is viewed as a charity destination and a place for volunteers wanting to give back in terms of corporate social responsibility. This is all great, but it is not the tourism image Africa should seek for. Steinmetz reported that Africa (Uganda inclusive) has often been overlooked in global tourism planning and recognition. "Compare numbers in Africa with Europe or other destinations. There is a long way to go for African countries to be on the same level as the rest of the tourism world. It is imperative to note that embracing Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs) in tourism of late has materialized beyond measurable doubt into new necessary changes in the tourism industry globally and the world has become a mere global village via Internet . For instance, ICT has reformed the whole process of tourism service development, management and marketing, as well as the entire tourism industry according to the author's perspective via lived experiences as a tourist. Therefore, to boost the tourism industry with its associated benefits like high increased; domestic growth and development, employment opportunities, promotion of cultural growth, improved local infrastructural development, among others, it is high time for the all developing countries like Uganda through her top leadership and management support to wake up and embrace fully and invest more in ICTs to reap all the benefits than promoting curvy women as a new innovation. The curvy women thing has been perceived with mixed feelings and in my perception, although I am curved too, this concept coined by Hon Kiwanda Godfrey Ssuubi (Minister of State in The Ugandan Ministry of Tourism, Wildlife and Antiquities) has the following demerits. Tarnishes the image of the curved women (prostitutes), most international tourists move with their wives/ fiancées, who may be threatened by the curved women. It also violation of human dignity, it may traumatize those ladies and young girls who are not endowed with curvy bodies to feel small and discriminated among others. This may force them to seek alternative means of getting curves like FACO and other traditional herbal companies. This could cause them to get side effects like cancer or deformed (buckled), among others. This study therefore aimed at developing a deep understanding of the best approach to boost tourism innovations in developing economies like Uganda using narrative approach from the author's personal life reflections in form of stories. The study have practical implications to the Ugandan policy makers, tourism industry, current and future leaders and managers, women and girls in Africa and future academicians in the subject matter.

Study objective

This study aimed at giving insights on how to boost the tourism industry in Uganda through use of ICTs and top leadership and management support.

Significance of the study

To the knowledge of the researcher, no study has been conducted about ways of boosting tourism in Uganda using the narrative approach from personal perspective using the variables under study. The study findings will add empirical literature for qualitative studies which aim at using narrative approach hence reducing on the knowledge gap. Policy makers in the government and the tourism industry management board will make use of the recommendations provided to boost tourism in Uganda and other developing countries. To the Ugandan women and girls; they will use the findings to think twice before lining up as tourist attractions under the umbrella of curvy women (innovative product for Uganda).

Motivation of the study

Curiosity for finding out the best alternative approach to boost tourism industry in Uganda other than using curvy women from personal life reflections and perspective via narrative story. More so, in this 21 century of dot com, ICT usage is the current world fastest, accurate, efficient and effective means and growing communication medium. It is estimated that world Internet users all over the world are approximately 1.8 billion and this shows that it is currently the driving competitive factor worth investing in by any country so as to reap its benefits and achieve economic growth and development in all sectors, and tourism sector is not exceptional. With proper ICT usage, potential tourist connected to the internet, may use it to get all related tourism information regarding their destination before they make final decision and on the other hand the Ugandan tourism industry and other private businesses, through their websites may use ICTS to promote Ugandan touristic endpoints by availing potential tourists with all the necessary information and knowledge regarding tourists products (various products' prices and approvals of institutions and businesses).

Lastly, the author was motivated by Vygotsky argument on how individuals are always in isolation. He attempted to back up his developmental or genetic approach, by critiquing approaches that endeavor to explore psychological phenomena and sideline the aspects of development without regard for their place in development (Vygotsky,1978) and his study also motivated the current study to use narrative approach and in agreement with his views basing on this quotation below:

“Human learning and development occur in socially and culturally shaped contexts. How people become what they are thus depends on what they have experienced in the social contexts in which they have participated “

Literature Review

Key terms

ICT (Information and Communication Technology)

ICT is an acronym for information and communication technology. In this study, ICT refers to the use of internet and computer based applications to gather, create, process, manipulate, store and disseminate all related information tourists and the tourist companies need at anytime from anywhere and within the shortest time possible.

The tourism industry world over has transmuted by the aid of ICTs in the recent years. This in turn has made a world a global village where the tourists via their mobile smart phones and other ICT gadgets, can be able to access the necessary information in line with where, when, what, how and why they need to tour a certain country over another. In a bid to achieve competitive advantage over others, countries are working day and night trying to invest much in ICT innovative products and applications which could easily available all related tourist information before they make any tour to the final destination (Visa information, tourist products, tourist sites, cultural aspects. ICTs have transmuted the touristic sector globally and offered a variety of new opportunities for its development during the last ten years.

Top leadership and management support

In this study this refers to the government support by the president of the country and other top management stakeholder in the tourism sector.

Curvy women

In this study, curvy women are those with extra behind, figure eight which is equivalent to the hour glass. Some parts of the country in Uganda are having such women; however, some are just getting such figures due to this tourism campaign using artificial products from companies like FACO and some herbal doctors who advertises themselves over televisions, internet and radios. Some of which may bring in side effects to the clients according to the author's perspective.

Uganda

Uganda as a land locked country is one of the beautiful countries in Africa with green environment, good weather, welcoming, cordial and entrepreneur people hence regarded as the "Pearl of Africa".

Narrative approach

A narrative story is a story that tells a sequence of events that is significant for the narrator or her or his audience (Heikkinen, 2002). According to this study, this approach involved utterance of major themes in a story form to the audience in the chronological order. An utterance in this social gathering was only spoken by voice

to some people (addressees/ conference participants). This is supported by the study conducted by Bakhtin (1986) who contended that to create a meaning story and understanding, then voices must interact with each other in a dialogue, hence implying that voice cannot be uttered in isolation but through narrations. In this study, the author concluded that developing countries like Uganda should boost their tourism industry by investing more in ICT product innovations with the support from top leaders and managers than using curvy women innovations. This may be achieved by developing apps with all relevant information needed by the tourists in time.

Literature Review

It is worth noting that Narrative research started to be utilized by anthropologists and sociologists in their life stories in their work during the 20th century (Plummer, 2005; Denzin, 1970; Bertaux, 1981 & Becker, 1996).

Narrative approach denotes a set of knowledge which links with the affections, emotions and subjective facets (Conle, 2003). The author argues that using narrative approach as a research method is vital in that it is good when advancing progress in line with establishing believe that narrative research is a suitable method for making progress of *the comprehension of identity and new education trends regarding invisible learning*. Hopkins L (2009) asserts that the narrative approach stretches life to a story and stories to a life and gives perfect elucidations in regard to how an individual's voice being heard.

According to Rivas et al. (2010) also adds that narrative approach is worth as it states the value of the subjects' lives in their exact context seen in the public eyes via biographies. Chase (2015) considers narrative research being part of qualitative research full of interdisciplinary blended analytical approaches, assorted punitive perceptions and procedures where by experienced individuals utter their biographic or autobiography stories in an innovative and traditional way and can be reported in the same manner by others.

Conversely, Dotta and Lopes (2013) advise researchers using this approach to deter from belittling narrative approach as something complementary, but instead regard it as a unique technique and a method meant used for report research, subjects plus individual stories conveyed. A study by Ogechi and Olaniyi about OICT and infrastructure have a positive, statistically significant relationship with tourism development; as ICT and infrastructure increase, the level of tourist arrivals also increases (Ogechi & Olaniyi, 2018).

To sum up, in this study, the predominant understating of narrative approach as a concept is used by the author as a qualitative approach that entails the transition of what she knows, believes, through her personal lived experience to the public in form of story with the aim of boosting tourism industry in developing countries like Uganda to meet the demand and supply side.

Uganda tourism industry

This has raised Uganda's profile as a preferred destination and has promoted investment opportunities in Uganda's tourism, sector. Of recent, tourists have been attracted to travel into Uganda and there is an improved number since 2006 (600,000 tourists) to 2014(1.3million) records from tourism records. It should be noted that Uganda increase in tourism growth is due to various factors such as National parks like the eminent Murchison falls, queen Elizabeth, Bwindi impenetrable forest and Mgahinga National parks etc, mountains like mountain gorillas, River Nile, owen falls dam, lake Edward, lake katwe, sanctuaries (Ziwa rhino, Bigodi for birds, Ngamba island with a lot of Chimpanzees), Cultural heritage with Ugandan unique songs, dances and dramas) among others.

Methodology

The study used narrative approach in form of stories while capturing core themes from the author's personal life reflections, perspective, lived experiences with the aim of suggesting ways of boosting tourism innovation in Developing countries in general and particularly in Uganda via the following questions: Is It Top Leadership and Management Support or embracing ICTs to Boost the Tourism Industry in Uganda? The unit of analysis is Uganda, and the unit of inquiry was the researcher. This implied that the researcher immersed herself into the research subject and there is no separation of the two. The philosophical orientation employed, were interpretivism and inductive in nature, were the researcher told and interpreted her stories of how the methods the Ugandan Tourism industry and other developing countries with similar characteristics, should embark on in order to boost the tourism industry, hence increased economic growth and development. Narrative analysis was utilized throughout the study in a chronological order while ensuring reliability and validity throughout the entire paper.

Tourism Attractions in Uganda

There are quite a higher number of institutions of learning in Uganda(public and private), such as Makerere University(MAK), Makerere Univeristy Business School(MUBS), Kyambogo University, Busitema, Mbarara university of science and technology and Mukono Christaian University, Islamic university in Uganda ,and others. All of them have the departments and faculties annually producing ICT innovations, developing soft wares. For instance by software engineering students and other younger programmers. In the researcher's own views, these can as well design and develop applications which are customized according to the tourist individual needs and expectations hence increasing economic growth and development in Uganda. Austria, Russia South Korea, Malaysia, USA, Singapore, China, Japan, South Africa, Morocco among other countries, are heavily benefiting from ICT usage in their tourism industries and Uganda could borrow a leaf.

Challenges of tourism industry in developing counties like Uganda

Lack of internet connectivity in some remote places due to lack of electricity. This affects online air ticket booking, hotel reservations, restaurants, and other related services which require internet connectivity.

Lack of ICT skills, illiteracy and poverty levels among some Ugandans who may wish to book online via cheap flights than going through agents who over charge them in most cases, hinders them from travelling and touring. For example, I recently used 265 dollars for a return ticket from Julius Nyerere Airport to Entebbe airport and vice versa using online booking for the cheapest one (e-dreams) by comparing a variety after comparing a variety of them simply because I have the ICT skills and I am a literate woman above the poverty line.

Copy cut by top leaders / management of tourism industry, copy and paste without editing yet countries are at different levels of economic development, in terms of ICT Infrastructures, physical Infrastructures, with different culture, natural endowments and political differences.

Culture degeneration impacting heavily on the majority youths. The culture of Uganda has been changed where some youths who are the majority due to exposure via social media has heavily impacted on them hence affecting cultural tourism since they may not sustain their culture in the near future.

Lack of operating adequate Ugandan own Airways as these can advertise and promote tourism in the country, whenever they go in different countries.

Poor service quality and poor delivery mechanisms especially at some hotels and restaurants. Some hotel rooms are too small serve tourists with their families who resort to ordering for more rooms and this has cost implications.

Reduction in customer care services to the domestic tourists in some tourist destinations (whose names are reserved for ethical considerations) which results to a decline in domestic tourists.

Inadequate sustainability of the tourist companies which affect their life span as they become short lived. Some may register as quasi partnership and this become a weakness in

Poor regulatory bodies to govern properly monitor and evaluate the tourist operating companies.

High costs for the air tickets and visas, hotels, restaurants, especially to the youths who may not be working and are just on holidays and the poor people who may wish t travel and tour.

Little of awareness by the top leaders and managers about the available ICT innovations developed by students at Universities and private companies / individuals like the Tourism management information systems.

Way forward

To be sincere, it is a leader of the government major role to take number one lead in boosting the tourism industry of his or her country and Uganda is not exceptional in this case to offer massive campaign via social media and other ICT related applications.

Uganda software developers should be recognized, awarded, supported for their innovation, so as to achieve high quality production and cost efficiency in their ICT innovative ideas which can be tailored toward promoting tourism. This will increase on the number of tourists in the country hence high economic growth and development. In relation to this, the government should devise means through fiscal policy (income tax) where by the software developers who create Apps/software programs to promote tourism industry can claim back a certain percentage say 200% for research and development. This will act as a motivator for the young programmers and upcoming ones, and reduce unemployment.

The tourism Ministry via its board should promote and boost tourism via social media (Instagram, skype, Ministry blogs, tweet, whatsapp etc).

There is need to repackage the concept of Curve women as a new innovation product in Uganda such that it not misperceived by the majority of the people in different sectors. The author of this paper if given chance may do it together with other key stakeholders in the tourism board or Ministry. In my own views, the curvy women concept was poorly packaged, poorly planned without proper awareness of the citizens of Uganda hence the misconception about it by the majority masses including church leaders, human right activists, and individuals Ugandan stakeholders as a citizen, female, educationist, a jingoists like the author.

The tourism ministry should use enticing websites with all relevant and up to date information for tourists (for all information service for the potential tourist). For example via Facebook Messenger in the app they use for the related information in line with the travel/journey and no need to ask the tourist guide/resorting to G-maps.

The top management government should continue to support the tourism industry via providing security within and across borders, build durable and high quality wide roads to connect them from one tourist site to another.

The government through its current leadership should purchase small aircrafts to domestic usage to ferry tourists from one tourist destination to another. This will solve the problem of the poor impenetrate feeder roads in the remote places.

The government of Uganda should dedicate adequate financial resources as a budget to private touristic businesses which are trying to establish and advertise the country as a tourist destination.

A call center in Uganda, find a way to interact with travelers and the trade through email and social, media and establish a 'friends of the media' campaign.

Top Leadership should encourage and make massive awareness to the domestic (Digital radio, television, and digital cameras) and international tourist using ICTs and decrease taxes on these smart targets, provide free Wireless Internet, and smartphone applications,

The top leaders and top managers should promote regional cooperation to benefit from marketing and economic development purposes.

The top leaders should tighten security in the country and across borders such that potential domestic and international tourist are attracted to travel and tour in all places of their choice in Uganda.

The tourism industry should aim at diversification of tourism products by partnering with private sector to buy the developed new tourist applications to guide the tourists on all the necessary information they seek before they make their final decisions without using the guides on arrival date.

Top leaders and managers should support and boost the tourism industry via Infrastructure development (roads/hospitals/banks) and encourage tourists who may wish to offer a hand any kind of infrastructure development without strings attached, to do so.

The government through its leadership should ensure and promote EAC market tourism campaign for the countries hence promoting regional cooperation and widening the tourism market with its unlimited benefits.

The government through its leadership should ensure that all potential tourists get easy access to one VISA card for all East African Countries to boost and hence increase on the number of tourists in the country.

The government through its leadership should harmonize the fiscal policy (negotiate wiz hotel owners within/near tourist sites) and subsidize on the prices for domestic tourists. The prices for the hotels should be affordable ones and able to sustainable for the hotels to be able to carry out their operations.

The government through its leadership should embark on industrialization with power stability

The government through its leadership should invest in airline –local jets for tourist from local tourist destinations sites 2 another at affordable prices.

The government through its leadership should Moderate on government expenditure and instead add on the budget for the tourism sector.

The government should invest in its airline and charge relative fee, Provide free WIFI on the flight as a strategy to attract more tourist in Uganda.

The government through its leadership should encourage, promote and entice the Ugandans to love their culture (Charity begins at home) whole heartedly. Some

cultures people are ashamed to associate with their cultures, perhaps due to lack of morale which is wrong because it is easy for a country to grow in all spheres of life if it embraces its culture norms and practices. Examples such countries are Southern Korea, China, Japan and others. How do you expect to be loved when you do not love yourself? Or how do you tell others to love or embrace your culture, when you do not embrace it or How do you embrace cultural tourism when your local people are not doing so? This is all a role of a leader of a country through his awareness campaigns and attaching value to it.

Local food and hotels around the tourist sites should be of high quality and of good size to meet the tourists' standards. There is need to build big rooms worth the cost of the price charged and this helps to keep family and friends together as they traveled.

Study Implications

In the several studies on Tourism development, less has been studied in developing countries like Uganda using narrative approach from personal perspective by a female patriotic Ugandan to the best of her knowledge. These views will add on the literature to reduce the knowledge gap, future researchers will refer to the narrations and extended on the literature using mixed methods, or quantitative approach, Ugandan policy makers and those from developing countries with similar characteristics, tourism industry, current and future leaders and managers, women and girls (future mothers) in Africa, will benefit from the recommendations given to boost their tourism industries.

Conclusion

In the nutshell, the objective of the study is to develop a deep understanding of the best approach to boost tourism innovations in Developing Economies like Uganda. If properly used and supported by top leaders and managers, ICT innovations can help the travel industry to reach more people than it ever has before. It fixes most snags associated with travel and tour, such as flight delays and cancellations, hotel reservations, to name it, at affordable and sustainable rates hence boosting the tourism industry in Uganda. The answer to the questions raised above is that, it should invest more in ICTs through technological innovations than using curvy women via top leadership and management support. The government should encourage and solicit national /domestic effort to promote tourism together with its beautiful welcoming culture which has won Uganda a name of being the pearl of Africa. As a female patriotic Ugandan, I believe, my personal views above if implemented by the top stakeholders, will boost its tourism industry and achieve economic growth and development.

Limitation and future research

This study was limited to a narrative approach using the author's personal views, others future studies should use mixed methods, or quantitative methods, her findings may not be generalised to other countries with different political, economic, social, cultural, and ICT infrastructure settings. Being a female Ugandan, her views

may be different from the males views especially on the curvy women issues, so future male researchers may also try other variables were not considered in this study which may be vital in boosting tourism innovations in developing countries with similar characteristics like Uganda.

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ICT Usage in Panelist Sessions to Enhance Completion of PhD Studies in Public Universities – Study of Uganda and Tanzania

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Introduction

In the course of pursuing Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) Studies in Universities, PhD students are faced with financial and economical challenges during their academic journey (Manyika & Szanton, 2001). Other challenges noted in recent studies include ergonomics and ICT (Hamilton-Ekeke & Mbachu, 2015; Global Digital Report, 2018; Masele & Kagoya, 2018). The article by Masele and Kagoya (2018) concluded that policy makers and legislators should consider ergonomics in policies related to higher education. Other scholars in adding literature on higher institutions of learning indicated that for higher institutions of learning, the ranking of high performing research quality of any university is based on excellent usage of ICT facilities based on its quality of ICT infrastructure and use of ICT in teaching and research (Mutula, 2009, World University Ranking, 2018).

Although past literature highlighted challenges in PhD studies including drop out and through-put rates (Manyika & Szanton, 2001; Badat, 2008; Mutula, 2009; Hamilton-Ekeke & Mbachu, 2015; Global Digital Report, 2018; Masele & Kagoya, 2018), very few have mentioned about panelist sessions. For instance, Mkwizu (2018) examined PhD programs with the conclusion that mismanagement by panelists during the panelist sessions contribute to delay in completing PhD programs and that in combating the situation, PhD students need to be shifted to other departments within the University which are competent in handling panelist sessions hence building as well as enhancing a culture of competency in managing panel sessions by panelists. Limited literature on ICT in relation to PhD studies and the continued challenges related to PhD studies motivates this paper to examine ICT usage in panelist sessions to enhance completion of PhD studies in public Universities.

Literature review

Definition of key terms

ICT Usage

ICT Usage in this study refers to panelist members' ability to use recorders, videos cameras, excellent projectors, comments tracking and records information management systems during PhD students' presentations for

systematically controlling the creation, distribution, use, maintenance, and disposition of recorded comments maintained as evidence of university activities in the digital era to enable students complete their PhD studies in time.

Panelist sessions

For purposes of this paper, panelist sessions are termed as sessions where PhD students present their work at Proposal stage, work in progress stage and viva voce to panelists comprising of some selected professors, doctors, examiners, and a secretary who acts as panel members (panelist).

PhD Studies

Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) is defined as an award which is generally considered to be one of the highest academic qualifications available (Johnson, 2001, Bourner *et al.*, 2010). PhD is also considered as higher degree research training and signals the beginning of a research career (Baldwin, 2014).

PhD Students

This paper defines PhD Students as those students pursuing PhD programs in public universities for a period of 3 to 4 years in order to graduate with a PhD.

Public Universities

In this paper, public universities are referred to as Makerere University Business School and University of Dar es Salaam Business School.

Theoretical Literature Review

The theory of Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology (UTAUT) was developed in 2003 by Venkatesh, Morris, Davis and Davis. It basically assumes that individual's behavioral intention to use technology is influenced by performance expectancy, effort expectancy, social influence, and facilitating conditions. The application of UTAUT theory is evident in subsequent studies such as; AlAwadhi and Morris (2008), Abdelghaffar and Magdy (2012), Venkatesh, Thong and Xu (2012, 2016). For example, Abdelghaffar and Magdy (2012) applied UTAUT to examine the adoption of mobile government services in developing countries and found that for the case of Egypt, factors of perceived usefulness, compatibility, awareness, social influence and face-to-face interactions significantly contributed in predicting intentions to use mobile government. This paper selected UTAUT due to its emphasis on individual's use of technology. Hence UTAUT application in this paper guides in the analysis of the relationship of information technology and enhancing completion of PhD studies. This paper hypothesizes that there is a positive relationship between ICT usage in panelist sessions and completion of PhD studies.

Empirical Literature Review

ICT usage in education has received the attention of several scholars recently such as Bello and Aderbigbe (2014), Obahiagbon and Osahon (2014), Hamilton-Ekeke and Mbachu (2015), Nkoyo and Nsata (2016), Jumare, Tahir and Hamid (2017), Thomas and Oladejo (2017), Tella, Orim, Ibrahim and Memudu (2017), Falode, Shittu, Gambari and Falode (2018), Iroaganachi and Izuagbe (2018), and Agboola et al (2018). The study by Hamilton-Ekeke and Mbachu (2015) conducted in Nigeria examined the place of ICT in teaching and learning using regression analysis and found that there were inadequate ICT facilities in Universities. Nkoyo and Nsata (2016) added to the literature of ICT in education by exploring availability and utilization of electronic resources by postgraduate student. By applying descriptive survey design, Nkoyo and Nsata (2016) found that there was inadequate availability and utilization of electronic resources by postgraduates and this is attributed by lack of training and inadequate supply of electricity.

A comparative study of two universities in Hong Kong and the UK used descriptive statistics and Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) found that for both universities, there was a high behavioural intention to use new technologies but this dimension had no effect on the staff who worked at these universities to use new technologies (Skoumpopoulou *et al.*, 2018).

In Nigeria, Tella et al. (2017) investigated electronic resources by academics staff by applying one way ANOVA and regression analysis with findings showing that there was perception (3.5%) on electronic resources which received less attention among academic staff. Similarly Thomas and Olegajo (2017) conducted a study in Nigeria on perception of ICT using regression analysis and found that among the teacher-trainees, there was less attention to ICT attributed to attitude (3.5%), perception (3.5%), self-efficacy (2.4%) and satisfaction (1.2%). Masele and Kagoya (2018) examined higher education in Tanzania and Uganda. For instance, Masele and Kagoya (2018) carried out a quantitative study both in Uganda and Tanzania with a focus on the relationship between ICT usage and health related snags by PhD students and grandaunts. Their findings indicated that ICT usage by PhD students during for long hours resulted into a number of health related hazards like eye defects, backache, headache, and others and needed attention to be paid to ergonomic factors by University top managers, policy makers and students themselves. In adding literature to ICT and education, this study focuses on ICT usage in panellist sessions in relation to completion of PhD studies.

The reviewed literature on ICTs in education (Bello & Aderbigbe, 2014; Hamilton-Ekeke & Mbachu, 2015; Nkoyo & Nsata, 2016; Jumare et al., 2017; Tella et al., 2017; Falode et al., 2018; Agboola et al., 2018) show that most studies in Africa were conducted in Nigeria and focused on ICTs in education among undergraduates as opposed to PhD students. There are even fewer studies in Tanzania and Uganda (Masele & Kagoya, 2018; Mkwizu, 2018). In bridging the knowledge gap, this study compares Uganda and Tanzania by examining ICT usage in panelist sessions to enhance completion of PhD studies in public Universities.

Methodology

The study locations for this paper are in Uganda and Tanzania. The public Universities selected for this study are Makerere University Business School in Kampala, Uganda and University of Dar es salaam Business School in Dar es Salaam, Tanzania. Cross-sectional design was adopted in order to collect quantitative data from the respondents. Convenience sampling was used and semi-structured questionnaires were handed to respondents. Data was collected during the month of March in 2019. The measurement for 7 items on information technology was adapted from a study by Mwai (2013) while the 6 items measuring successful completion of PhD studies were adapted from Akbulut, Kesim and Odabasi (2007) and UNESCO Institute for Statistics (2006). Collected data from 73 PhD students and panelists from Makerere University Business School in Kampala, Uganda and 49 PhD students and panelists from University of Dar es salaam Business School in Dar es Salaam, Tanzania were subjected to descriptive statistics assisted by SPSS version 20 while Partial Least Square Structural Equation Modelling (PLS- SEM) assisted by SmartPLS 3 was used to predict the influence of the tested variables. PLS-SEM can be used for predictions as per Hair, Hult, Ringle and Sarstedt (2014) and Ringle, Wende and Becker (2015). Composite Reliability for the variable of ICT usage in panelist sessions is 0.80 while completion of PhD studies is 0.78 for the Uganda collected data. On the other hand, composite reliability for the variable of ICT usage in panelist sessions is 0.74 while completion of PhD studies is 0.79 for the Tanzania collected data.

Findings and discussion

Findings from the sampled respondents revealed that majority of the respondents from Uganda were males (61.6%), between 26 to 35 years old (69.3%), and have university education (100%) while those respondents from Tanzania were mostly females (53.1%), between 36 to 45 years old (51%) and have university education (100%). This suggests that the majority of respondents in Tanzania were educated females between 36 to 45 years old compared to Uganda where the majority were educated males of middle age group.

The findings for the variable of ICT usage in panelist sessions showed that majority of respondents in Uganda as well as in Tanzania agreed with the statements that; the panelist should use recorders to capture comments during student presentation (Uganda – 65.8%; Tanzania- 93.7%); ICT encompasses wide variety of devices and applications that serve to ease and enhance efficiency during the panelist session (Uganda – 94.5%; Tanzania- 95.9%); ICT encompasses wide variety of devices and applications that serve to ease and enhance effectiveness during the panelist session (Uganda – 90.4%; Tanzania- 95.9%); It is important to use videos and recorders during student presentation (Uganda – 93.1%; Tanzania- 100%); ICT usage enables capturing, gathering, processing, storing, access and communication of information in different forms among the panelist and other stakeholders (Uganda – 99.6%; Tanzania- 100%); and ICT usage builds trust and fairness during presentations (Uganda – 86.3%; Tanzania- 93.8%). Further findings show that the opinions of majority of the respondents in Tanzania and

Uganda indicated that the panel members do not use video cameras during student presentation (Uganda – 87.9%; Tanzania- 95.9%).

The findings of this study suggest that video cameras during PhD presentations are not used by panel members in the panelist sessions for both universities in Tanzania and Uganda. The findings also imply that respondents from Uganda and Tanzania support that panelists should use recorders and other ICT devices to enhance efficiency and effectiveness during the panelist sessions hence the ability to capture, gather, process, store, access and communicate information in different forms among the panelist and other stakeholders. These results vary from Iroaganachi and Izuagbe (2018). The variation is due to the methodological approach whereby Iroaganachi and Izuagbe (2018) sampled only staff views and not PhD students.

Most of the respondents from Tanzania and Uganda who were asked about success in completion of PhD studies agreed that they will complete PhD studies in time if the panelists use ICTs (Uganda – 86.7%; Tanzania- 81.7%); lack of video cameras and ICT recorder in presentations affects PhD progress and the quality of PhD work (Uganda – 87.7%; Tanzania- 90.4%); Not using ICT recorder in presentations affects the quality of my PhD work (Uganda – 96.7%; Tanzania- 97.9%). Presence of videos and ICT recorders in the presentation room eases the work of secretary in recording comments from panelists and improves student time management (Uganda – 100%; Tanzania- 100%); and Presence and usage of ICTs reduces PhD student financial costs (Uganda – 97.3%; Tanzania- 95.9%). The results imply that most of the respondents agreed that the presence of videos and ICT recorders can ease and improve both the quality of PhD work and students time management. These results are not in line with Nkoyo and Nsata (2016) because this study reveals results which focused on ICT usage during panelist sessions as opposed to general usage of electronic resources by postgraduates.

Bootstrapping in PLS-SEM was the technique used for the analysis of predicting the relationship between ICT usage in panelist sessions and completion of PhD studies is shown in Figure 1 and Figure 2 for Uganda. The results for Uganda in Figure 1, show that the T-value (7.46) is above 1.96 and therefore, ICT usage in panelist sessions is a significant indicator as a predictor of success in completion of PhD studies and that in Figure 2, the p value ($p=0.00$) further shows that the relationship between ICT usage in panelist session and completion of PhD studies is significant. This suggests that ICT7 and ICT8 are the indicators of ICT usage in panelist sessions that predict success in completion of PhD studies in terms of CPS 13 and CP16. Other items were dropped due to low loadings.

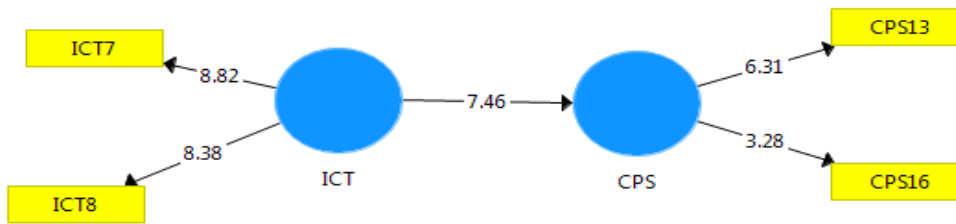


Figure 1: T values- ICT usage in panelist sessions and Success in Completion of PhD Studies (CPS) for Uganda

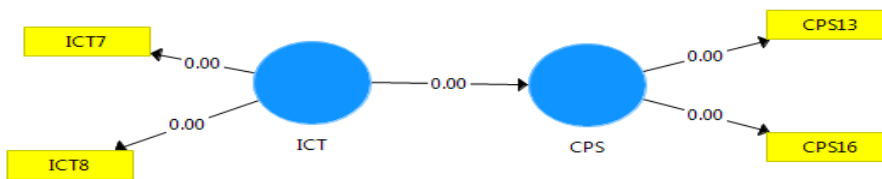


Figure 2: P values- ICT usage in panelist sessions and success in Completion of PhD Studies (CPS) for Uganda

Bootstrapping in PLS-SEM was the technique used to analyze the prediction the relationship between ICT usage in panelist sessions and completion of PhD studies and the findings for Tanzania in Figure 3 show that the T-value (8.01) is above 1.96 and therefore, ICT usage in panelist sessions is a significant indicator as a predictor of success in completion of PhD studies. In Figure 4, the p value ($p=0.00$) further shows that the relationship between ICT usage in panelist session and completion of PhD studies is significant. This suggests that ICT7, ICT8 and ICT11 are the indicators in ICT usage in panelist sessions that predict success in completion of PhD studies in terms of CPS 13 and CP16. Other items were dropped due to low outer loadings.



Figure 3: T values- ICT usage in panelist sessions on success in Completion of PhD Studies (CPS) for Tanzania.

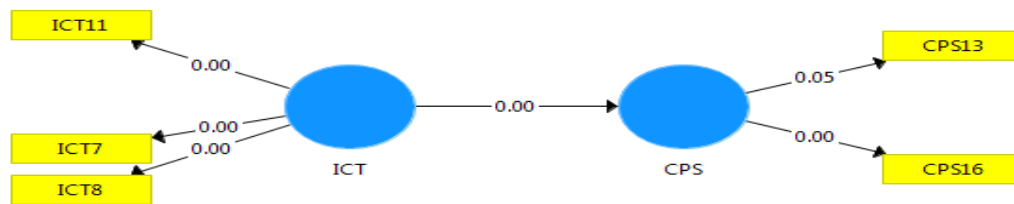


Figure 4: P values- ICT usage in panelist sessions on success in Completion of PhD Studies (CPS) for Tanzania

The significant results of ICT usage in panelist sessions on success in completion of PhD studies for both Tanzania and Uganda support the UTAUT theory and therefore, ICT usage in panelist sessions predicts success in completion of PhD studies. These results are contrary to the study by Thomas and Olegajo (2017) in that the sampled respondents had low opinions on ICT whereas this study reveals that the respondents view on ICT usage in panelist sessions had high percentages and there is a significant relationship between ICT usage in panelist sessions and success in completion of PhD studies.

Conclusion and limitations

This paper examined ICT usage in panelist sessions to enhance completion of PhD studies. This paper can conclude that there is a significant relationship between ICT usage in panelist sessions and success in completion of PhD studies for both Tanzania (University of Dar es Salaam Business School-UDBS) and Uganda (Makerere University Business School-MUBS). The choice of the two schools is because they are all business schools with some similarities and convenient for the researchers to collect data. The results showed that in Tanzania, the predictors of ICT usage in panelist sessions that influence success in completion of PhD studies are ICT encompasses wide variety of devices and applications that serve to ease and enhance efficiency during the panelist session; ICT encompasses wide variety of devices and applications that serve to ease and enhance effectiveness during the panelist session; and ICT usage builds trust and fairness during presentations in relation to lack of video cameras in presentations affects PhD progress and presence of videos in the presentation room improves on student time management. And for Uganda, the predictors of ICT usage in panelist sessions that influence success in completion of PhD studies are ICT encompasses wide variety of devices and applications that serve to ease and enhance efficiency during the panelist session; ICT encompasses wide variety of devices and applications that serve to ease and enhance effectiveness during the panelist session in relation to lack of video cameras in presentations affects PhD progress and presence of video cameras in the presentation room improves on student time management. The differences in the predictors might have been caused by the differences in the contexts whose students and panelists (respondents) in the two schools in from two countries (MUBS-Uganda and UDBS-Tanzania) have different perceptions as regards ICT usage during the panelist session. Also the differences in ICT infrastructure settings, social and economic

settings among others might have caused the predictors to differ in the two countries.

The significant results of this study support UTAUT theory and this implies that UTAUT theory can be used to examine the relationship between ICT usage in panelist sessions and success in completion of PhD studies in the context of comparing Tanzania and Uganda public Universities.

Implications and recommendations of the study

Policy makers in the education sector and all stakeholders in the PhD studies should consider the predictors of ICT usage in panelist sessions for purposes of enhancing completion of PhD studies successfully in public Universities. Other researchers can apply a qualitative approach or mixed method to conduct a similar study in other Universities. The study also recommends that future researchers should also consider examining the moderating effects of either Head of Department, Chairperson of the panel session or panelist mood in this similar study and add other theories like stakeholders theory to explain the role roles played by the above mentioned stakeholders in PhD study completion, among others.

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Analysis of Technology Usage in Tourism – Study of Tanzania and USA

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Introduction

In 2018, the report from United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) indicated tremendous growth in tourism globally with international tourist arrivals reaching 1.4 billion (UNWTO, 2019a). Past records show that the tourist numbers for Tanzania reached 1.2 million in 2016 (National Bureau of Statistics, 2016), while the USA had 76.9 million international tourist arrivals in 2017 (UNWTO, 2018). Furthermore, the tourism growth in 2018 was mostly driven by factors such as strong outbound demand from major source markets and favourable economic environment (UNWTO, 2019b). The World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) indicated that in 2018, travel and tourism is one of the largest economic sectors in the world which contributed USD 8.8 trillion (10.4%) of global Gross Domestic Product (GDP), and provided 319 million jobs which is equivalent to 10% of total employment (WTTC, 2019). In addition, the global direct contribution of travel and tourism to GDP is expected to grow from USD 2,750.7 billion (3.2%) in 2018 to USD 2,849.2 billion (3.6%) in 2019 (WTTC, 2019), and this is an indication that the tourism sector still plays a major role in the world economy.

On the other hand, domestic tourists are relatively low compared to international tourist arrivals in Tanzania. The breakdown of tourist statistics in 2016 shows that in 2015, there were 481, 399 Foreigners compared to 448,806 Tanzanians who visited national parks in Tanzania Mainland while statistics for 2016 reflect a rise of 551, 083 Foreigners compared to a decline of 440,510 Tanzanians who visited national parks in Tanzania Mainland (National Bureau of Statistics, 2016). This indicates that in general, domestic tourists declined from 2015 to 2016 due to challenges of domestic tourism which include promotion and marketing. However, for the USA, the domestic travel increased 1.9 % from 2017 to a total of 2.3 billion person-trips in 2018, and leisure travel accounted for 80% of all domestic travel in 2018 (U.S. Travel and Tourism Overview, 2018). The rise in domestic travel for the U.S is attributed to spending on travel goods and services particularly food services and lodging (U.S. Travel and Tourism Overview, 2018).

Despite the growth in tourism, past scholars have highlighted that there is less attention to research for domestic tourism within and outside Africa, and only recently that researchers have started to concentrate on the phenomenon of domestic tourism and its economic impact (Jerenashvili, 2014; Stone & Nyaupane,

2017; Mkwizu, 2017, 2018; Basera, 2018). In addition, domestic tourism faces challenges such as marketing and promotion of tourist attractions like national parks, museums and historical sites. Although technologies such as selfie has been developed and is used widely by travellers, there is inadequate literature on this innovation in relation to tourism particularly marketing of domestic tourism. Selfie is a photograph that one has taken of oneself using a digital camera or phone camera (Safna, 2017), and thus a technological innovation. Diffusion theory is a theory that is concerned with the spread of ideas and innovations (Surry, 1997). Therefore, guided by the diffusion theory, this study is motivated to examine technology usage in tourism with a specific objective of analyzing the relationship between selfie usage and marketing of domestic tourism by comparing Tanzania and USA.

Literature review

Concepts Definition

Domestic Tourism

Domestic tourism is defined by UNWTO as activities of a resident visitor within the country of reference, either as part of a domestic tourism trip or part of an outbound tourism trip (UNWTO, 2008). The study by Morupisi and Mokgalo (2017) noted that marketing is one of the challenges for domestic tourism. Hence, this study defines marketing of domestic tourism as promotion of travel within the country by residents visiting tourist attractions through information sharing such as social media.

Selfie

Selfie is a concept which is defined as a photograph that one has taken of oneself or self-portrait photography taken using a digital camera or phone camera held in the hand or supported by a selfie stick and sometimes shared with social media platforms like Facebook or Twitter (Safna, 2017). This study defines selfie as a photograph taken of oneself in tourist attractions using a digital camera or phone camera.

Theoretical Framework

The diffusion theory originated by Ryan and Gross in 1943 who began early diffusion research and assumes that there is an existence on the spread of ideas and actions within social systems in relation to innovations (Rogers, 1995; Surry, 1997; Valente & Rogers, 1995). Diffusion is defined as the process by which an innovation is adopted and gains acceptance by individuals or members of a community (Couros, 2003). Further developments of the diffusion theory into diffusion of innovations by Rogers in 1995 provided another definition of diffusion. Rogers defined diffusion as the process by which innovation is communicated through certain channels over time among the members of a social system (Rogers, 1995, p.5).

In 2014, Green and others mentioned that the occurrence of diffusion of ideas or rather innovation is characterized by repetition, opposition and adaption (Green et al., 2014). Past studies have shown that selfie as a technological innovation has undergone stages of repetition, opposition in the sense that the impact of selfies is both negative and positive and thus individuals will adapt the selfie innovation depending on various situations or personality traits (Paris & Pietschnig, 2015; Kadir & Zulfakho, 2017; Safna (2017).

Other scholars like Dabphet, Scott and Ruhanen (2012), and Bell and Ruhanen (2016) have used the diffusion theory in tourism research. Dabphet et al. (2012) found that factors like interpersonal and media communication played a key role in the diffusion of sustainability tourism. Based on the application of diffusion theory by other scholars in tourism research like Dabphet et al. (2012), this study followed a similar theoretical approach by applying the diffusion theory to examine technology usage in tourism. Examples of technologies that individuals can use to see themselves are selfies (Rettberg, 2014). In connecting the concepts of technology usage and tourism, this study adopts the diffusion theory to guide the analysis of selfie usage in relation to marketing of domestic tourism. Selfie as a trendy technology is spreading in various parts of the world. This study hypothesizes that there is a statistically significant relationship between selfie usage and marketing of domestic tourism.

Empirical Framework

Studies on selfie in tourism vary with research interest and scope. For example, the study by Paris and Pietschnig (2015) focused on personal traits related to travel selfie. The study used principal component analysis and multiple regression analysis with findings that indicated behaviour and attitudes were not related to self esteem. Other researchers that also examined selfie and personality are Carder et al. (2018) and they were mostly interested on selfie tourism and species in particular the sloths. The study was carried out in Brazil and Peru in Latin America using descriptive statistics. The findings showed that sloths being used for selfies are subjected to heads and limbs manipulation.

Other studies have extended literature on selfie in tourism by looking at motivations for selfie (Biolcati & Passini, 2018). Biolcati and Passini argued on the mediation effect of motives linked to personal traits. Using path analysis model, the results showed that self-esteem and narcissism are positively correlated but have different selfie posting motives such as communicating and archiving. Previous studies (Kim et al., 2016; Sung et al., 2016) have also found that motivations of posting selfies on social network sites are related to attention seeking, communication, archiving and entertainment. In Korea, Lyu (2016) studied personality traits that affect selfies and results indicated that it is mostly young women who are more susceptible to self-presentation and self-impression as they edit and manipulate the image for social media purposes. Similarly, the study by Lee and Sung (2016) conducted in Korea argued that individuals level of narcissism relates to involvement with other people's feedback but findings of the study revealed that the level of narcissism does not moderate the relationship between observers and providing comments or likes.

While previous studies (Kim et al., 2016; Sorokowska et al., 2016; Sung et al., 2016) focused on selfie posting by measuring clicks, this study did not measure selfie in terms of clicks, because each image represents the individual's absolute best at the place, time, and mood that he or she feels like sharing with the world. However, the individual will most likely use the "filters" feature to enhance some of the images taken. Each image represents a story that the individual desires to share with the public using a social network platform. Hence, the best image will be posted to the desired social network site.

Further research on selfie is associated with selfie stick, image, tourist photographs, selfie taking, consumer identity and behaviour (Chua & Chang, 2016; Dinhol & Grezel, 2016; Kedzior, Allen, & Schroeder, 2016; Kim et al., 2016; Lyu, 2016; Sorokowska et al., 2015, 2016; Ashcraft, 2015; Tiidenberg & Gomez Cruz, 2015; Weiser, 2015; Belk & Hsiu-yen Yeh, 2011). However, Paris and Pietschnig (2015) noted that academic literature on selfie is limited particularly for travel selfie as a phenomenon. Other scholars have contributed in the study of selfie but they have also concentrated on narcissism and self-esteem (Barry et al., 2017; Lee, & Sung, 2016; Halpern, Valenzuela & Katz, 2016).

Despite the existing literature on selfie in tourism, there is still limited literature on selfies in relation to marketing of domestic tourism. Subsequently, with inadequate research on domestic tourism and various challenges facing domestic tourism, this paper fills the knowledge gap in terms of examining technology usage in tourism with a specific objective of analyzing the relationship between selfie usage and marketing of domestic tourism by comparing Tanzania and USA.

Conceptual Framework

Figure 1 show the conceptual framework of this study which emanates from the diffusion theory and empirical literature review. Technology usage as the independent variable is measured using selfie usage while tourism as the dependent variable is measured using marketing of domestic tourism. This study hypothesized that there is a significant relationship between selfie usage and marketing of domestic tourism. Hence, H_1 tests the relationship between selfie usage and marketing of domestic tourism.

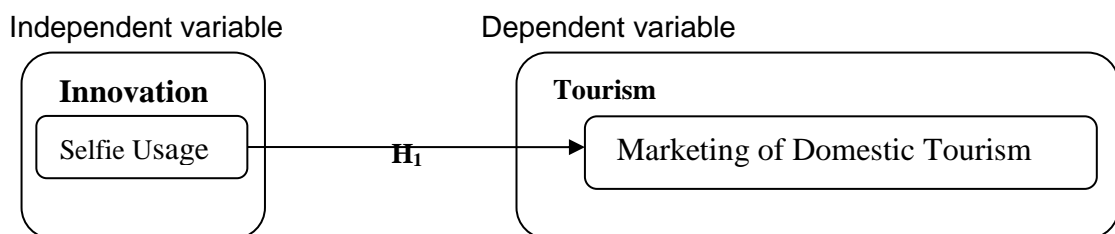


Figure 1: Conceptual Framework

Source: Compiled from literature

Methodology

The research design adopted in this study is cross-sectional and quantitative in nature so as to test the hypothesized relationship between selfie usage and marketing of domestic tourism by comparing Tanzania and USA. Hence, the study areas for this paper were Dar es Salaam in Tanzania, and Minnesota in USA. Convenience sampling and snowballing sampling were used as sampling techniques since the number of selfie users is not known. The unit of analysis was university students. The semi-structured questionnaires were sent to the respondents using online survey. Data was collected from a total sample size of 95 participants whereby 35 respondents were from Tanzania and 60 respondents were from the USA. The items in the questionnaire that measured selfie usage were adopted and customized from previous studies by Pearse and Moscardo (2015), and Kwon and Kwon (2015). The items in the questionnaire for marketing of domestic tourism were adopted and customized from Al-Debi (2014), and Signh and Bhowal (2011).

Table 1 and Table 2 show the statements for the independent variable (selfie usage) and the dependent variable (marketing of domestic tourism). A five-point Likert scale of strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5) was applied as the scale of measurement. Table 3 shows the construct reliability and validity in terms of composite reliability values for selfie usage and marketing of domestic tourism variables.

Data collected from the respondents was analysed using descriptive statistics with the help of SPSS Version 20, and Partial Least Square Structural Equation Modelling (PLS-SEM) assisted with SmartPLS Version 3 was used for testing the relationship between selfie usage and marketing of domestic tourism. Before testing for the significant relationship using bootstrapping in SmartPLS 3, other necessary tests are conducted and shown in Tables which are outer model loadings, discriminant validity (using the Fornell-Larcker Criterion), and collinearity statistics.

Table 1: Study Variable and Measures for Selfie Usage

Variable	Item description and variable code
Selfie Usage	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - I use selfie to seek a particular photographic image of tourist attractions (SU0). - I use selfie as a motivation to connect the tourist attractions I have visited (SU1). - I use selfie to learn about tourist attractions I have visited (SU2). - I use selfie to build self awareness of tourist attractions I have visited (SU3). - I use selfie to share photographic images of tourist attractions with family and friends (SU4). - I use selfie as a motivation to connect with friends and families on the tourist attractions (SU5). - I use selfie to take photographs alone in the visited tourist attractions (SU6). - I take selfies as a group in the visited tourist attractions (SU7). - I use selfie to share with friends and family on tourist attractions I have visited (SU8). - I use selfie to share my photographs on social media platforms such as Facebook, Instagram, WhatsApp and Twitter on tourist attractions I have visited (SU9). - I have visited tourist attractions and taken selfies (SU10).

Table 2: Study Variable and Measures for Marketing of Domestic Tourism

Variable	Item description and variable code
Marketing of Domestic Tourism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Uses of effective means of promotion and advertising (MDT1). - Focuses on personal selling as an effective means of promotion (MDT2). - There is adequate allocation of budget for promotional activities (MDT3). - Rich information and data about domestic tourism from the internet (MDT4). - Experiences from others that they enjoy sharing information on domestic tourism (MDT5). - Promotion prices from tourism authorities or entities in tourist attractions that I visit (MDT6).

Table 3: Construct Reliability and Validity

Constructs	Composite Reliability (Tanzania)	Composite Reliability (USA)
Selfie Usage	0.919	0.944
Marketing of Domestic Tourism	0.849	0.907

Findings and discussion

The characteristics of the sampled respondents in Tanzania and USA are shown in Table 4. The findings revealed that majority of the respondents for Tanzania were of the age between 26 to 35 years (51.4%), male (60%), and university graduates (100%) while for USA they were of the age between 36 to 45 years (41.7%), female (55%), and university graduates (75%). The results suggest that in comparing the findings for characteristics of the sampled respondents between Tanzania and USA, it is clear there is a similarity in terms of respondents as most were university graduates whereas the differences are noted in age and gender whereby for Tanzania, the majority were young men while for USA they were middle aged women. The results differ from a study carried out in Korea by Lyu (2016) in which young women were the majority of the respondents. The variations in results are due to location whereby the sampled respondents for the studies are not from similar settings and thus posit differences in a geographical context.

Table 4: Characteristics of Respondents for Tanzania Vs USA

Variable	Tanzania (%)	USA (%)
Age:		
18-26	0.00	8.3
26-35	51.4	28.3
36-45	37.1	41.7
46-55	11.4	21.7
Gender:		
Male	60	45
Female	40	55
Highest Education:		
Secondary		1.7
College		23.3
University	100	75

Source: Field data (2018, 2019)

The inferential statistics involved analysis of outer loadings, discriminant validity and collinearity test before bootstrapping for significant analysis using SmartPLS 3. The items with low outer loadings below the value of 0.70 were dropped while items with acceptable outer loadings of 0.70 and above were retained as shown in Table 5 for Tanzania respondents and for USA respondents. The outer loading value 0.70 and above is considered as acceptable thus indicating item reliability (Hair et al., 2010).

Table 5: Outer loadings of SU and MDT for Tanzania and USA

	Tanzania	
	SU	MDT
SU4	0.848	
SU8	0.940	
SU10	0.879	
MDT2		0.879
MDT5		0.839
	USA	
	SU	MDT
SU1	0.830	
SU3	0.790	
SU4	0.768	
SU5	0.774	
SU6	0.881	
SU8	0.872	
SU9	0.870	
SU10	0.796	
MDT1		0.893
MDT2		0.917
MDT5		0.726
MDT6		0.825

The discriminant validity using Fornell-Larcker Criterion indicates that the values are acceptable due to all values of the square root of each construct's average variance extracted is greater than the correlations with other latent constructs as per Table 6. The Fornell-Larcker Criterion is used for assessing discriminant validity in research involving latent variables to prevent multicollinearity issues and therefore the square root of each construct's Average Variance Extracted (AVE) should be greater than the correlations with other latent constructs (Hamid et al., 2017; Hair et al., 2014; Fornell and Cha, 1994).

Table 6: Discriminant Validity values of SU and MDT for Tanzania and USA

	Tanzania	
	SU	MDT
SU	0.890	
MDT	0.537	0.859
	USA	
	SU	MDT
SU	0.824	
MDT	0.625	0.844

Table 7 shows the collinearity test for the retained Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) values for Tanzania and USA samples and the values are acceptable. The items with VIF values above 5 were dropped and not subjected for further analysis. Hair et al. (2010) and Ringle et al. (2015) stated that $(VIF) < 4$ or $(VIF) < 5$ is acceptable.

Table 7: Collinearity (VIF) values of SU and MDT for Tanzania and USA

	Tanzania
	VIF
SU4	2.380
SU8	2.393
SU10	2.381
MDT2	1.296
MDT5	1.296
	USA
SU1	2.758
SU3	3.964
SU4	3.776
SU5	2.328
SU6	4.278
SU8	3.398
SU9	3.863
SU10	2.653
MDT5	1.266
MDT6	1.266

The PLS-SEM analysis using bootstrapping test in Table 8 showed that, the path coefficient findings for the relationship between selfie usage and marketing of domestic tourism for Tanzania is significant ($p=0.000$) with T- value of 4.588. Similarly, the path coefficient findings for the relationship between selfie usage and marketing of domestic tourism for USA is significant ($p=0.000$) with T- value of 7.684. The significant p values indicate that selfie usage influences marketing of domestic tourism for both Tanzania and USA. The significant results for Tanzania are explained by selfie usage (SU4, SU8 and SU10) on marketing of domestic tourism in terms of MDT2 and MDT5. On the other hand, the significant results for USA are explained by selfie usage (SU1, SU3, SU4, SU5, SU6, SU8, SU9 and SU10) on marketing of domestic tourism in terms of MDT5 and MDT6.

Table 8: Path Coefficients for significance of SU and MDT

		Original Sample	Sample Mean	Standard Deviation	T Value	P Value
Tanzania	SU ->MDT	0.537	0.569	0.117	4.588	0.000
USA	SU ->MDT	0.607	0.620	0.079	7.684	0.000

Although there are similarities in significant p values for Tanzania and USA on the relationship between selfie usage and marketing of domestic tourism, there are differences in the predicting indicators of the relationship between selfie usage and

marketing of domestic tourism. This implies that the relationship between selfie usage has predicting indicators of (SU4, SU8 and SU10) on marketing of domestic tourism in terms of MDT2 and MDT5 for Tanzania compared to selfie usage (SU1, SU3, SU4, SU5, SU6, SU8, SU9 and SU10) on marketing of domestic tourism in terms of MDT5 and MDT6 for USA.

The results of this study differ from previous studies which connected selfie with personal traits such as of Biolcati and Passini (2018), Barry et al. (2017) and Sorokowska et al. (2016) while this study connected selfie with marketing of domestic tourism. The significant results of this study support the diffusion theory by showing that selfie as a technology being used both in Tanzania and USA is related to marketing of domestic tourism.

Conclusion, implication and recommendations

In examining technology usage in tourism by comparing Tanzania and USA, this study found that the relationship between selfie usage and marketing of domestic tourism is significant for both countries. For Tanzania with majority of respondents being young men who are university graduates, the significant results of the relationship between selfie usage and marketing of domestic tourism showed that the predictors of selfie usage were (SU4, SU8 and SU10) on marketing of domestic tourism. These predictors are; using selfie to share photographic images of tourist attractions with family and friends; using selfie to share with friends and family on tourist attractions I have visited; and visited tourist attractions and taken selfies.

For the USA which was mostly characterized by respondents who were middle aged women with university education, the significant results of the relationship between selfie usage and marketing of domestic tourism revealed that the predicting indicators of selfie usage were (SU1, SU3, SU4, SU5, SU6, SU8, SU9 and SU10) on marketing of domestic tourism. These predicting indicators are: using selfie as a motivation to connect the tourist attractions I have visited; using selfie to build self awareness of tourist attractions I have visited; using selfie to share photographic images of tourist attractions with family and friends; using selfie as a motivation to connect with friends and families on the tourist attractions; using selfie to take photographs alone in the visited tourist attractions; using selfie to share with friends and family on tourist attractions I have visited; using selfie to share my photographs on social media platforms such as Facebook, Instagram, WhatsApp and Twitter on tourist attractions I have visited; visited tourist attractions and taken selfies .

However, there are similarities and differences from the results. The similarities in results between Tanzania and USA lies in the predictors of selfie usage which are “using selfie to share photographic images of tourist attractions with family and friends”; “using selfie to share with friends and family on tourist attractions I have visited”; and “visited tourist attractions and taken selfies” in relation to marketing of domestic tourism in terms of experiences from others that they enjoy sharing information on domestic tourism.

On the other hand, the differences in the relationship between selfie usage and marketing of domestic tourism for USA are further noted in the predicting indicators of selfie usage which are; “using selfie as a motivation to connect to the tourist attractions I have visited”; “using selfie to build self awareness of tourist attractions I have visited”; “using selfie as a motivation to connect with friends and families on the tourist attractions”; “using selfie to take photographs alone in the visited tourist attractions”; “using selfie to share with friends and family on tourist attractions I have visited”; “using selfie to share my photographs on social media platforms such as Facebook, Instagram, WhatsApp and Twitter on tourist attractions I have visited” in relation to marketing of domestic tourism in terms of promotion prices from tourism authorities or entities in tourist attractions that I visit.

There are practical and theoretical implications from the outcome of this study. The theoretical implication is that the significant results of the relationship between selfie usage and marketing of domestic tourism for both countries support the use of the diffusion theory in that selfie usage as a trendy technology does relate to marketing of domestic tourism in the context of the sampled respondents in Tanzania and USA. From a practical point of view, stakeholders such as tourism authorities and marketing destination managers should consider that selfie usage is related to marketing of domestic tourism due to predictors like selfie usage as a motivation to connect to the tourist attractions as well as share photographic images of tourist attractions with family and friends.

This study recommends that tourism stakeholders should embrace technology usage in tourism particularly selfie usage for marketing of domestic tourism. Furthermore, other stakeholders such as users/consumers and owners of social media platforms can also benefit from the results of this study. The results from this research will give these owners more information to strategize on how best to improve their services for their users/consumers. For most users, the benefit of presenting the image they want, and getting the validation of said image is important. In addition, based on research findings of this study, the stakeholders such as hotels, resorts, sports arenas, and other famous and historical places as well as national parks will benefit from free advertising from the selfie takers in return will increase revenue and be profitable for the stakeholders. Examples of other famous and historical places in USA including national parks are the World Trade Center Site, and Lady Liberty in New York City-USA, Sports Arena, *The Boston Garden*, Boston Massachusetts, and *the Staples Center*, Los Angeles California –USA are two of the most iconic Basketball Arenas in the world; while for Tanzania, the examples are Kitulo National Park, Ngorongoro Crater, Serengeti National Park, Burigi Chato National Park, Kaole Ruins, Lake Victoria, Islands (Mafia, Pemba and Zanzibar), Gombe National Park, Mikumi National Park, Ruaha National Park, and Mt. Kilimanjaro as the highest mountain in Africa but also the highest free-standing mountain in the world.

There are limitations of this study and these are in terms of sample size, research design being cross-sectional, and quantitative method. Future studies can apply bigger sample size, longitudinal design, and qualitative approach to expand the understanding of technology usage in tourism particularly the selfie phenomenon for domestic tourism purposes.

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Innovating the Kenyan coastal destination through heritage

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Introduction

According to UNESCO (United Nations Education, Scientific and Cultural Organization), “heritage is our legacy from the past, what we live with today, and what we will pass onto future generations” (whc.unesco.org). In other words, it is that which is inherited from the past and used in the present day. It corresponds to a “metaphorical journey through time and space... [representing] an authorized, institutionalized interpretation of history; a public acknowledgement of loss, suffering and achievement” (Marschall, 2004, p.95). According to Rouhi (2017), the word “Heritage” refers to a property, something that is inherited from past, and transferred from previous generations. Therefore, heritage offers an opportunity to portray the past in the present (Nuryanti, 1996) through numerous possibilities of interpretation (Sarmiento, 2010). Heritage implies a shared bond, our belonging to a community, and they give us a better knowledge about who we are and where we come from, as well as our history and our identity, our bond to the past, the present, and the future (Rouhi, 2017). Simply stated, history is the past, whereas heritage is today’s use of the past for tourism and other purposes (e.g. education and community development).

Heritage can either be natural, the case of national parks, biosphere reserves... or cultural – the past created by humankind and its diverse manifestations. The cultural heritage includes both tangible and intangible elements in form of material objects such as buildings, rural landscapes and villages, cities, art collections, artefacts in museums, historic gardens, handicrafts and antiques. It also encompasses non material elements (living culture), including music, dance, beliefs, ceremonies, rituals and folklore. All these are important components of heritage that are used for tourism and other purposes (Timothy, 2011).

This paper offers a critique on the place of heritage in destination presentation with special reference to the Kenyan coast. Secondly, it enumerates various efforts to link heritage sites with the mainstream coastal tourism industry. It combines desktop research, observations and interviews with heritage managers to put into perspective the general coastal tourism model. This is with the view of answering a research question: “in what ways can coastal tourism product be extended through heritage?” The significance of this paper is to contribute to academic reflections and debates on the state of coastal space as a leisure and tourism destination.

The overriding theme in this paper is to consider places as commodities to be produced and sold (Hall, 1997) hence the need to create a holistic destination image through linkages and product extension. This is anchored on the need for an effective destination selling proposition that is sustainable, believable, and relevant (Blain, Levy and Ritchie, 2005) as well as having destinations that have identifiable appealing character (Kihima, 2014).

The problem statement

More often than not, the tourism industry “has tended to offer a selection of certain types of products to their clients, assuming that these were the choices these particular clients would prefer” (Boniface, 2001, p.91). A look at the visitation patterns in Kenya suggest that the idea of what is beautiful and worthy of admiration has not fundamentally changed over the past five decades (Kihima, 2014). The major preoccupation of the tourism industry has been to attract the masses, to accommodate them and to offer them predetermined excursions while less effort is invested in renewing the existing tourism offer. For instance, Akama and Kieti (2007, p.746) observe that “although Mombasa and its surroundings have diverse cultural and nature-based attractions, only a *limited image* of Mombasa is presented, concentrating on the grand hotels and facilities that are owned by foreign investors”. This could be so because cultural heritage was, from the beginning, treated with curiosity as an indicator of primitive development of human culture or lack of it (Tribble, 2015). Furthermore, the tourism products and services offered by Kenya exhibit varying degrees of productivity and success; on the one hand, two traditional and well developed products exist for example wildlife safari and beach and marine activities tourism while on the other hand much less developed, under-resourced, and under-marketed, yet with great potential are the Cultural and Heritage Tourism.

Moreover, while it is evident that “monuments and heritage sites are meant to be visited” (Marschall, 2004, p.96), the challenge presented for such sites has been twofold: one is the pull factor ability of the heritage sites and secondly is the inability of the NMK and the local communities to promote such sites albeit fossils and artifacts spanning over 27 million years have been discovered and conserved by the National Museums of Kenya (Irandu and Shah, 2016). Consequently, such sites fail to compete on a global scale due to lack of coordination and failure to produce a united image and product within the destination (Murphy and Murphy, 2006). This could be attributed by the fact that Kenya does have a formal cultural heritage policy as decisions on cultural heritage affairs are informed, in large measure, by the National Museums and Heritage Act (CAP 216) of 2006, which extends authority for the management of Kenya’s cultural patrimony to the National Museums of Kenya (Irandu and Shah, 2016).

Additionally, this lack of coordination can be attributed to heritage site manager’s personal distaste or lack of acknowledgment on the part of service providers concerning the potential that these places have (Boniface, 2001). Such potential is anchored in identifying old attractions or products and bringing them into the fold of the present day tourism industry. For instance, it is noted that “the tourist industry must provide more than a simple increase in existing products. Fresh and different

items are required for dynamic tourists. They want more opportunity to experience the full range of what the world has to offer, not simply a selection of tourism products, fashioned expressly for tourism and chosen for them by the industry” (Boniface, 2001, p.109).

The Kenyan destination

Kenya is an East African country located between 4°40' north and 4°20' south; and between 34°0' west and 42°0' east. It covers a surface area of 582,648 Km² and is situated astride the equator. Kenya, whose population stands at 39 million inhabitants (Government of Kenya, 2014), is well-known for nature-based tourism, otherwise known as safaris (World Resource Institute, et al., 2007). It has a littoral frontage of 530 Km stretching from Somalia to the Tanzanian border.

Kenya is well endowed with the national park system occupying 44,562 Km² or 8% of its territory as well as numerous sites of cultural, historical and natural importance (Fig. 1). Such sites, both natural as well as man-made, range from regional museums, site museums, historical sites, archaeological sites, ruins as well as World Heritage Sites (WHS) and are distributed throughout the country. About 70% of visitors come to Kenya to enjoy the country’s natural beauty and engage in nature based activities (World Resource Institute, et al., 2007). The country is described as the *mzee*, or elder statesman, of nature tourism and ecotourism in Africa (Honey, 2008); the jewel of East Africa (World Resource Institute, et al, 2007) as well as a land of cultural diversity (Sobania, 2003). Destination Kenya is endowed with a great cultural and natural heritage with over 100 cultural nationalities, a natural landscape of diverse environments, rich natural resources and a dedicated and enterprising citizenry, countless languages and dialects and one of the most richly diverse social tapestries citizenry on earth (Rotich, 2012).

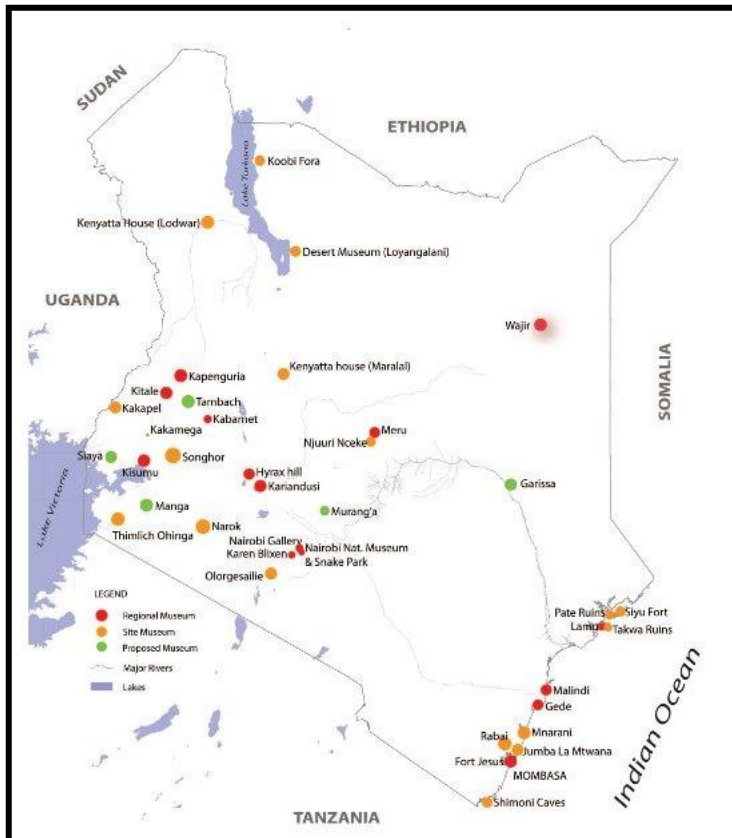


Figure 1: Museums, sites and monuments across Kenya
 Source: www.museums.or.ke

In 2017, Kenya received 1.4 million international arrivals of which 68.4% were for the purpose of holiday and staying an average of 13.0 days (Government of Kenya, 2018). Moreover, 80% of inbound tourists to Kenya buy packaged tours (Odunga, 2005) an arrangement whereby they pay overseas Tour Operators for a complete travel package. Consequently, Ikiara and Okech cited in World Resource Institute et al., (2007 p.82) observed that “most overseas tourists spend a night in Nairobi on arrival, embark on a two-day or so safari to view wildlife, and devote the rest of their holiday to a longer stay on the coastal beaches”. This makes the beach and coastal hinterland to continuously account for a large share of tourism earnings, including more than half of all bed-nights spend by tourists in hotel accommodation in 2005 (World Resource Institute et al., 2007). In 2017, most visitors preferred to stay at the coastal region which accounted for 42.6 % of the total bed-nights occupancy while Nairobi accounted for 23.3% (Government of Kenya, 2018).

This paper is a culmination of field observations, experiences and encounters as researchers and scholars. It combines secondary data as well as views from site managers during field visits between 2011 and 2017. This included discussions on a range of issues including lack of visibility of the heritage sites and erratic tourism numbers experienced in various sites. Sites visited for this study were: the Kaya forests in south coast, Fort Jesus monument on Mombasa Island, Mnarani and

Jumba la Mtwana monuments in North Coast as well as Gede Ruins and Vasco Da Gama Pillar in Malindi. The study adopted an *etic* approach where the researchers as observers and outsiders describe a certain phenomenon (Pearce, 2005), which in this case is heritage and cultural tourism in the Kenyan context. The paper therefore has limitations in the sense that the researcher did not obtain an *emic* perspective of the cultural and heritage tourists as well as the local communities in a structured manner.

The concept of heritage

Cultural heritage refers to the attributes of a group or society that are inherited from past generations, maintained in the present and bestowed for the benefit of future generations (Singh, 2011). Heritage encompasses protection and conservation of natural sites and cultural properties. The National Museums of Kenya (NMK) role is to “collect, preserve, study, document and present Kenya’s past and present cultural and natural heritage” (www.museums.or.ke). Propelled by the growth of mass tourism, culture and heritage came to be considered as an economic asset for income-generation and sustainable development. Thus, the NMK has the purpose of “enhancing knowledge, appreciation, respect and sustainable utilisation of these resources [cultural and heritage] for the benefit of Kenya and the World, for now and posterity” (www.museums.or.ke). Nevertheless, even though such resources are naturally and culturally valuable, they have not been adequately integrated into the mainstream tourism industry in Kenya.

More often than not, heritage sites are viewed as fragile places that need to be preserved. A number of publications on culture and heritage focus on the concepts of commoditization, commodification, commercialization and acculturation (Akama, 2002, Akama, 2007). Still, the focus has also been on the impacts and more so on how the local people are victims of cultural tourism development (Kibicho, 2002). Others look at cultural tourism as a form of empowering the local community (Oketch, 2007). Therefore, with the dominant image of the sun, sand and sea at the Kenyan coast, the heritage component has not been uncovered and presented fully as part of the coastal tourism product. In fact, destination Kenya with 8 UNESCO World Heritage Sites, 42 cultures and countless other heritage tourism products poses significant potential for further growth, yet it is heavily under-marketed.

Findings and discussions

Incomplete presentation of the tourism product

Throughout the world, commercialization of heritage and culture as part of the process of tourism destination development is a recurrent theme. Cultural heritage, which traditionally was associated with monuments and collections of objects, now covers in its wider understanding the traditions and living expressions inherited from ancestors and passed on to descendants (Okumu, 2016). Indeed, heritage tourism has grown due to people’s curiosity about places, nature and the past (Boniface and Cooper, 2009). This curiosity has not fully extended to majority of heritage sites in Kenya. A case in point is the shores of Lake Turkana in northern

Kenya considered as the epicentre of the cradle of humanity, an important area for archaeological and paleontological interests. Close to the lake is Sibiloi National Park having *Homo Habilis* and *Homo Erectus* sites yet less than 1,000 tourists frequent the park in a year. Thus, Akama (2002, p.14) rightfully contend that “even in those African countries, especially in eastern and southern Africa, which are considered a ‘success story’, the development of tourism is currently narrowly focused on a limited tourism product based on wildlife safari and beach tourism” (Fig. 2). Thus, between 2009 and 2013, there were 3.6 times more visitors going to the national parks as compared to those frequenting sites managed by the National Museums of Kenya (Fig. 2).

Kenyan coast boasts rich and diverse heritage in particular the Mijikenda (‘the Nine Tribes’), these nine Bantu ethnic groups inhabit the coast of Kenya, between the Sabaki and the Uмба rivers, in an area stretching from the border with Tanzania in the south to near the border Somalia in the north (Irandu and Shah, 2016). The many Kaya forests (protected by the local Mijikenda communities) along the Kenyan coast hardly receive any visitors despite their international recognition and status as World Heritage Sites (WHS) (Kihima and Kimaru, 2013). In 2008 UNESCO (whc.unesco.org) conferred upon 8 Kayas the WHS status in addition to other existing sites in Kenya. Currently, Kenya has successfully nominated for inscription seven (8) World Heritage properties. Four of the Properties are under cultural heritage criteria and four are under natural heritage. The inscribed cultural Properties are; Lamu Old Town (2001), Sacred Mijikenda Kaya Forests (2008), Fort Jesus, Mombasa (2011) and Thimlich Ohinga (2018). Inscribed natural Properties include; Lake Turkana National Parks (1997) and Mount Kenya National Park/Natural Forest (1997), Kenya Lake System in the Great Rift Valley (2011). With this UNESCO propelled these local and ‘unknown’ resources to the global arena due to their cultural and spiritual value. However, those Kayas continue to receive very few visitors (Kihima and Kimaru, 2013) mainly researchers and students. For example, Kaya Kinondo at the Kenya’s south coast was started as an ecotourism project in 2001. In 2011, this cultural tourist site, situated within the vicinity of many beach hotels, received only 1,266 tourists (table 1).

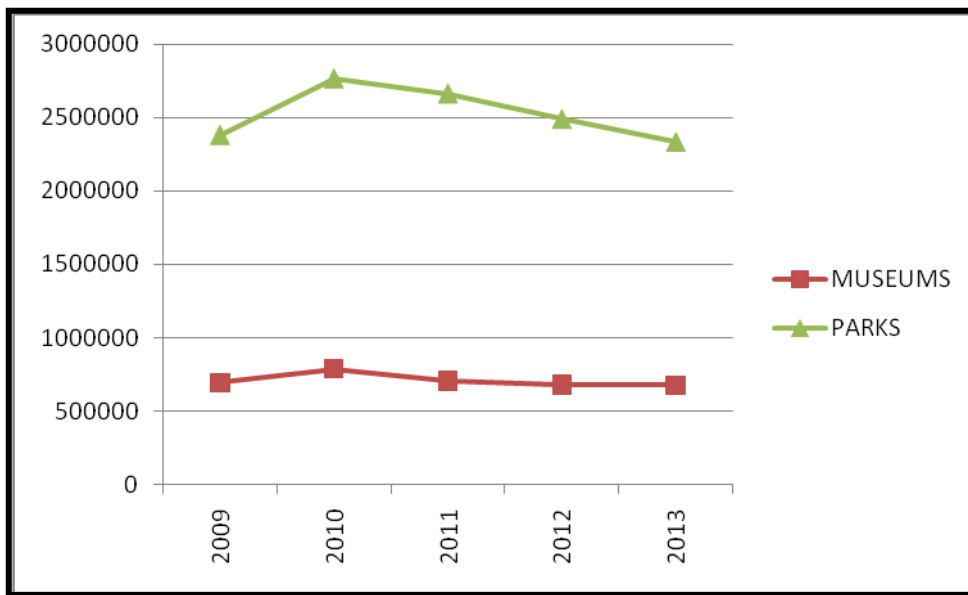


Figure 2: Total number of visitors to national parks and heritage sites in Kenya
 Source: Government of Kenya, 2014

Table 1: Tourist flow to Kaya Kinondo (2009-2011)

Year	Students	Kenyan citizens	International tourists	Total per year
2009	359	67	454	881
2010	628	128	610	1,366
2011	344	71	850	1,266

Source: Kihima and Kimaru (2013)

On a national scale, the number of visitors to Museums and other historical sites in 2017 was 782,000 compared to 2.35 million that visited National parks and reserves (Government of Kenya, 2018). Coastal monuments and historical sites like *Jumba la Mtwana* and *Mnarani* despite their rich history and location received a mere 7,300 and 1,900 (table 2) visitors in 2017 respectively (Government of Kenya, 2018). On the contrary, the World Bank Group (2010, p.7) notes that, “discerning tourists are now looking for expedient life-enriching experiences that revolve around in-depth exposure to culture and local heritage”. This means that current tourists would like to see a holistic and contextualized approach to destination presentation than is superficially presented at the moment.

Table 2: Number of visitors to selected monuments and heritage sites at the Kenyan coast

Name of museum	2016	2017
Fort Jesus	150,500	130,500
Gede	55,600	62,600
Jumba la Mtwana	7,300	7,300
Lamu Museum	2,700	2,900
Kilifi Mnarani	800	1,900

Source: Government of Kenya 2018

Product extension towards culture and heritage

Even though it has been acknowledged that heritage and tourism are mutually dependent (Fyall and Rakic, 2006), the tourists in the resort hotels seem to be largely motivated by the *sun, sand, sea, surf* and *safari* with little contact with the local culture. For instance, according to a study done by Akama (2007) in Mombasa, only 5% of Mombasa residents listed culture as a factor that attracted tourists to the coastal town. Moreover, only 2% of the residents interact with the tourists in the residential places (Akama, 2007). In Tunisia for instance, Hazbun (2008) observes that beach tours included brief organised trips to traditional markets and staged cultural shows and/or purchase of indigenous cultural crafts. Similarly, Zammit (2013) concurs by noting that only a small minority of tourists are actually interested in the real culture that a place has to offer.

To reverse such scenario, destination managers should entice the tourists to be fascinated by the cultural aspect (if provided by the local people) and that the local people should seize the opportunity to benefit from such visits. However, Lepp (2008, p.1210) observes that in Bigondi village in Uganda, despite the tourists' *interest* in dining with the local people, "not a single resident has made an effort to capitalize on the apparent market for roasted goat and dinners with locals. Instead, the residents wait passively for their name to be called by a passing tourist". This according to Lepp (2008, p.1210) implied that "many residents simply wait for a chance of good fortune to land on them rather than actively pursue it". This may be attributed to the lack of awareness on the local people on the value of their culture (Akama, 2007), both tangible and intangible. The willingness on the part of the community and heritage managers to expose the various sites, culture and traditions would without doubt be the starting point towards extending the coastal tourism product.

In the absence of the aforementioned link, it is therefore apparent that apart from excursions towards national parks, the majority of coastal tourists remain in the hotels interested only in passive leisure and other nautical activities, not ready to neither meet the others (the locals) nor participate in cultural activities outside the hotels. Hardly can one meet a group of tourists strolling in the streets of Mombasa despite the fact that Mombasa is the gateway for the coastal tourism destination. For instance, the number of visitor arrivals at Moi International Airport, the main gateway to Kenyan coast, stood at 484,500 in 2017 (Government of Kenya, 2018). This Akama (2007, p.73) observes that "a trip to Mombasa for most international

tourists is usually a routine and predictable affair. It mainly involves spending most of the time on the beach adjacent to the tourist hotel and may include organized brief excursions to Fort Jesus, Old Mombasa Town, Haller Park (lasting a few hours), before leaving Mombasa for more extensive wildlife safari excursions in the inland wildlife parks and reserves.”

Integrating heritage and culture in the larger tourism industry

The preceding sections present a picture of a destination that is not fully exploited. Thus, various discussions held with different heritage managers and guides noted that heritage sites would create new experiences to the coastal tourists through ‘recreating a sense of place’ (Hall, 1997). For instance, the real meaning of Mombasa, Malindi and other coastal towns must be re-defined beyond the ‘*white, sandy and idyllic beaches*’, magnificent resort hotels and the Marine parks. Though this image has driven the country to become one of Africa’s top tourist destinations, this singular aspect of the destination has tended to leave out other aspects key to the destination. Currently, it is not unusual to notice heritage sites not far from the beach areas with no tourism activities while other conventional attractions are relatively well visited (table 3). For instance, all the marine parks receive approximately 30,000 visitors while the heritage sites apart from Fort Jesus and Gede ruins could hardly get 10,000 visitors. An example of neglect is exemplified in *Kengeleni* in Mombasa where there stands a significant feature that goes unnoticed though secured by the NMK. This ‘bell’ evokes the memories of slave trade in Mombasa yet few know the history behind the name and even pay attention to it.

In addition, the Shimoni slave caves in the south remains a stark reminder of the scandalous trade in natives sourced from the Kenyan coast and Ukambani, yet very little is mentioned about this in the coastal tourism presentation. It should be noted generally that memory tourism, slave routes and history are still unexplored in the Kenyan tourism sector. As it stands now, the beach environment still overwhelms the whole of the coastal tourism image in Kenya. There is a discrepancy between wider recognition of culture and its role in tourism development as well as its actual integration into the tourism space (Eastman, 1995). Mombasa has been for long time a leading tourist destination in East Africa (Akama & Kieti, 2007) with key attractions including the traditional Sun, Sand and Sea remain a top priority worth visiting while rich heritage sites exhibit minimal visitation.

Table 3: number of visitors to marine and terrestrial parks at the Kenyan Coast, 2016 and 2017

Park	2016	2017
Kisite Marine Park/Reserve	34,400	38,400
Mombasa Marine Park/ Reserve	29,500	32,200
Malindi Marine Park/Reserve	31,500	31,600
Watamu Marine Park/Reserve	33,900	43,500
Shimba Hills National Park	21,200	24,000

Source: Government of Kenya, 2018

Therefore, extension of the tourism product implies adding places or items previously ignored by the tourism sector such as the Kaya Forests, National Monuments, archaeological sites and other historical sites to the existing product offer – the beach. Hall and Page (2006, p.314) conclude that “the coastal environment has a great deal of potential for the cultural and social geographer to explore the value and role of tourism recreation in these leisure places”. Such potential is yet to be explored with the tourism industry still disinterested by focusing only on a narrow product offering. Even where tribal and community areas have been opened up for tourism – the case of Kaya forests and Rabai Museum – the visitation levels are still insignificant. Setting up new products poses the problem of relations between cultural and coastal tourism as most of the other tourism products are way developed while cultural and heritage tourism is an emerging tourism activity this has posed challenges in the marketing of cultural tourism as a tourist product (Ondimu, 2002).

Without culture and heritage, conventional coastal mass tourism will rarely develop a sustainable differentiation. The usual product semantics of ‘*idyllic, white sandy beaches*’ only leads to destination homogenization making potential vacationers have an illusion they have already experienced such a product elsewhere. Such semantics obscures the essence of destination identity (Robinson and Smith, 2006) and does represent minimal variation of a highly standardised product (Hazbun, 2008). Therefore, as in the case for city tourism presented by Kieker (2012), there is need for new attractions to be constantly developed beyond the mainstream. For instance, communication on marine parks such as Kisite Mpunguti Marine Park should go beyond mentioning only the nuclear attraction of Dolphins and the coconut crabs but also include Shimoni slave caves and the Wasini Island. Culture can therefore contribute to the attractiveness of a tourist destination, enhance its tourists’ experience and act as a differential tool for destinations. More importantly, cultural and heritage tourism strategies and plans must be linked with a broader set of initiatives and community or economic development plans (Rotich, 2012).

Such experiences include “*Mombasa by night dhow cruise*” hosted by some hotels every Monday, Wednesday and Thursday. The basic concept is to try and recreate the experience in Fort Jesus (World Heritage Site) to what it was like during the Portuguese period – a classic example of a hotel and a Museum breaking away from the confines of itself. In this particular case, guests are usually taken to the Fort by ancient Arabian dhows as they enjoy the beautiful sunset. These dhows are fine examples of the traditional cargo carrying boats that used to ply the Indian Ocean trade routes. This starts at 5.30 pm by picking guests from their hotel to Jahazi Marine Jetty on Tudor Creek. Guests arrive at the old port of Mombasa as ‘merchants’, ‘explorers’ and ‘missionaries’, after which a brief guided walk through the old town exposes them to spectacular Swahili architecture and atmosphere for which the Swahili coast is famous. These guided walks end up in Fort Jesus. In recreating the guest experience, there is the use of torches instead of electricity and sounds that depict the military environment at that time. Similarly the waiters who serve visitors are also dressed in Portuguese soldiers’ uniforms as they welcome the guests to witness an amazing ‘sound and light show’ at 7.00 pm

followed by a delicious dinner that is served outside in the inner courtyard of Fort Jesus.

This is one way in which heritage sites can be promoted and branded hence giving visual identity to places not initially on tourist's itineraries and raising the level of attendances at attractions (Hall and Boyne, 2007). Nevertheless, the reality is that many heritage sites are faced by several challenges related to business competitiveness and sustainability in terms of product development, quality and relevance to tourism demands, and marketing (Boniface, 2001). It should be acknowledged that what fuels tourism activity are differences, contrasts, otherness, novelty and fresh experiences. In such established destinations like the coastal part of Kenya, repeat clients may get an opportunity to explore 'new' items otherwise previously ignored. Heritage may fall in the realm of this new presentation and as noted by Boniface (2001, p.127) "old products may have a current life in exactly their old role. In essence, Dynamic tourism expects a future that calls for constant re-evaluation with attention paid to keeping existing items in the arena as tourism products".

For tourism to be sustainable it must be viable; to remain viable it must change as circumstances change. It is incorporating the new and the old to the best advantage of the destination. Thus, according to Hall (1997), there is a need to insert multiplicity of localities into the overall picture. In other words, while contextualizing tourism places, care should be taken not to delimit communication basing on narrow locality. The more opportunities encompassed in a single destination, the greater the potential it would have in attracting tourists. One such example of more opportunities presented by the County Government of Mombasa was the launch of the Mombasa International Cultural Festival in 2014 dubbed *tukutane Mombasa* (let's meet in Mombasa). The festival which attracted people in their thousands included many activities for individuals and families at Fort Jesus, Swahili Centre and Mama Ngina drive gardens. It showcased cultural dances, henna painting, swimming competition and other coastal cultural product exhibitions. Boniface (2001, p.90) sums it all by noting that "dynamic tourism caters for travellers whose interests are wide and deep, who are motivated to see a broad range of sights". In addition, the tourism industry "has no choice but to relate to its customers, both present and potential. If the industry grows apart from its customer base and their tastes, it will be marginalized" (Boniface, 2001, p.152).

Such marginalisation can be avoided if culture and heritage tourism may be used to revitalize and refresh the otherwise 'tired' coastal tourism product. In Malta for instance, the local authorities are using culture as a marketing tool to regenerate historical cores (Zammit, 2013). However, Robinson and Smith (2006 p.5) observe that majority of tourists are 'culture-proof': "they are not seeking the exotic culture or heritage, but relaxation, warm weather and various forms of hedonistic activity". Hazbun (2008, p.18) on Tunisian coastal tourism notes that: "Tourists on package tours to the Mediterranean were generally *not looking* to experience indigenous culture and heritage". Moreover, the majority of visitors do not make decisions about visiting cultural attractions until they arrive at their destination (McDonnell and Burton, 2005). While such sentiments may prove difficult to change the conventional tourism model due to strong market orientation, it is not however

impossible to 'extend the tourism offer' beyond the beach as exemplified by the 'Mombasa by night dhow cruise'. This calls for an 'altered experience' that entails 'openness towards new trends' where the unheard-of, the hidden, is brought to the surface (Kieker, 2012).

Destination renewal through clustering and collaborations

While it is true that tourists may be attracted to the coastal destination for other reasons other than culture, there is need to be creative in use of heritage resources for destination renewal. One such way is through clustering, cooperation and collaboration (Schianetza, Kavanagh and Lockington, 2007). As noted by (Boniface, 2001), on their own the historical sites may be perceived as boring, out of taste, place or fashion. Even Butler (2004) refers to such attractions as 'old soldiers' and 'academics' since in some cases they refuse to go away and remain increasingly unattractive. Such 'fixation' and 'refusal' to change makes such sites unappealing to the tourism industry. This implies that such sites lack the necessary magnetic power and appeal (at least for repeat visits), hence the call for proper product development, packaging and promotion. Such may include "a supple systematic organized service chain" (Kieker, 2012) that can be realized through clustering.

Coastal tourism renewal would therefore entail conceptualization of heritage in a broader destination context through collaborations. This entails coordination with national and international tourism marketing campaigns and programs of private sector tour operators (Hazbun, 2008). Unlike in conservation areas where the wildlife viewing is a stunning spectacle: flamingoes in Lake Nakuru, Elephants in Amboseli, Wildebeests in Masai Mara..., natural heritage like the Kaya forests as well as built heritage like *Gede ruins* can be 'boring' if adequate interpretational aspects are not put into place. Kieker (2012), for instance poses "who would visit Versailles a second time apart from hardcore historians?" This question is also valid in as far as the coastal heritage sites in Kenya are concerned. In such places, the element of seeing is greatly reduced where the reflection of the visitor becomes significant. This is to say, spatial or geographical perspective of the various sites is needed in order to develop a strong and competitive destination since no heritage site can exist in an isolated way more so for smaller sites like *Jumba la Mtwana*. In isolation, such sites may hardly give a satisfying visitor experience. In reality, a vast majority of tourists are looking for something that is combined with relaxation and helps to foster the holiday mood (Zammit, 2013). Through a clustering, a group of sites may reinforce each others' image for optimal visitor experience. This can be achieved through the recognition of the fact that "the local should be seen as a fluid and relational space, constituted only in and through its relation to the global" (Hall, 1997, p.76).

Collaboration may therefore involve joint ticketing between attractions; family nights that incorporate family friendly foods at the various heritage sites; local hotels to stock brochures describing the heritage attractions and packages; and promotional messages emphasizing that by visiting these heritage sites, visitors will be entertained and be informed of the local peoples' way of life (McDonnell and Burton, 2005). It is such programs and activities that "will assist in moving tourists

away from concentrated beach resorts and a few tourism sites to other underutilized tourist attractions, particularly the rich and diverse local cultures” (Akama, 2007, p.74). However, in the Kenyan context, such cooperation and networking between heritage sites and the beach areas is conspicuously missing. The creation of thematic, practical and workable tourism circuits and itineraries linking the natural areas, the beach and the heritage sites would help in unlocking this potential.

Elsewhere, the use of themed trails has been lauded as a means of organizing and managing the visitor experience (Fyall and Rakic, 2006) and as a means of knitting together linearly distributed attractions – the case of European Union’s King’s road (Hall and Boyne, 2007). According to Du Cros (2007), typical tourism development strategies can include *bundling together attractions* and the creation of linear routes or itineraries – the case of Silk Road in China packaged successfully as a linear tourism product. Also, Van der Duim, Peters and Akama (2006, p.108) observe that “most of the cultural Manyattas in Kenya and the CTPs (Community Tourism Projects) in Tanzania have, in essence, tended to link up with and/or are connected to existing nature-based/Wildlife tourism activities”. The potential motive for collaboration include: filling gaps in the present product line (said to be tired), broadening present product line (seen to be too narrow) and to differentiating or adding value to the product (currently too banal) (Fyall and Garrod, 2005).

Re-defining destinations using culture and heritage

More appreciation of heritage sites can be enhanced through linkages with protected areas and eventual creation of a regional package (Murphy, 1985). Cultural heritage has been known to give life to natural/nature based attractions. In Amboseli area in Kenya, 64% of tourists who came to the area visited cultural bomas, and a majority (73%) of those who did not visit cultural bomas would visit *if they were told* of cultural attractions exhibited there (Wishitemi and Okello, 2003). Akama (2007) also notes that 75% of the local residents in Mombasa say that international tourists are *appreciative* of the local people’s lifestyle including music, dance, indigenous cuisines etc. In this regard therefore, Oketch (2007) proposes the need to conceptualize destinations as cultural landscapes that have meaning and powerful identities. Consequently, Timothy (2011) argues that today, heritage properties and living cultures are among the most popular attractions everywhere. Few countries have tourism industries devoid of cultural heritage products. As Pattullo (2005), Potter *et al.* (2004) and Strachan (2002) have observed, many developing countries, including Kenya, have not developed their tourism industry much beyond the three Ss (sun, sand and sea) for example, Kenya has done little to attract cultural heritage tourists (Shah and Irandu, 2016). However, even the most ardent sun, sand and sea destinations also offer elements of cultural heritage for tourist consumption.

It is this combination of heritage and landscape that would appeal to potential visitors looking for novelty and fresh experiences. This according to Boniface (2001) calls for the industry to relate to clients through proper communication. For instance the description of Kenyan parks and reserves by the KWS (major attraction sites in Kenya) reveals that parks are presented oblivious of the

surrounding cultural and heritage context (Kihima, 2014). On the KWS Web site (www.kws.org) for example, the description of the *Malindi and Watamu Marine National Parks and Reserves* does not mention in any way *Gede* ruins neither does *Mombasa Marine* description bring to the fore the icon of Mombasa city – *Fort Jesus* or the *Swahili culture*. Indeed, there is still a gap in the way Kenya's tourism attraction sites are presented and conceptualized.

Therefore, the development of cultural heritage tourism in Kenya can be rationalized on the grounds that it: increases diversity of tourist experiences; improves sustainability for cultural heritage sites through higher public profile and educational awareness; allows more Kenyans and tourists to share the rewarding and enormously varied opportunities for exploring the individual stories, communities, places and ideas that have shaped the country's social and physical environment (Shah and Irandu, 2016). The need for innovative ways in presenting destinations is of essence. For instance, Boniface (2001) refers to 'Zen' gardens in Japan which attract many tourists, not because they are beautiful, but because they have been bestowed with cultural and spiritual significance – an interpretation – arousing an important interest in the tourists. Also, it is not the landscape of Bordeaux in France which attracts tourists *per se*, but rather the wine and the cultural life (Boniface, 2001). In the case of the heritage sites at the Kenyan coast, "care should be taken not to delimit communication basing on narrow locality but recreate the sense of a place in the larger context of beach and cultural tourism" (Kihima and Kimaru, 2013, p.18). This may just be the starting point in extending the coastal tourism product further.

Conclusion

Due to the complexity and multiplicity of views needed to answer the research question at hand, this paper drew from personal observations, experiences and interactions with key actors as opposed to the conventional structured analysis. The subject matter is by no means exhaustive, more reflections and analysis are required to find out the degree to which the beach tourism product can actually be extended to incorporate heritage elements. This may therefore call for more *emic* perspective that involves the cultural and heritage tourists, the local communities as well as destination managers in a structured manner. However, this paper went beyond looking at heritage as a stand-alone tourism product by contextualising it in the larger destination presentation. Indeed, the publication by the World Bank Group (2010) on the state of Kenya's tourism brought to the fore the fact that Kenya has an important "jewel" that needs to be polished. One of the key findings from the World Bank Report was that "Kenya's beach tourism is a 'tired' and less competitive product in today's marketplace; but could rebound if the necessary rehabilitation is achieved". A holistic presentation of coastal destinations is proposed through seeking external alliances and building a critical mass of attractions and activities, to make them more appealing and complete – extending the coastal tourism product. A deliberate effort should be made by all stakeholders to make tourist experiences as exciting, engaging and interactive as possible as this is particularly so given that today's cultural heritage tourist is more sophisticated and expects a high level of quality and an authentic experience (Shah and Irandu, 2016). This paper therefore opens up the debate on destination

presentation, management and conceptualization especially with regard to coastal tourism product and heritage.

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Adventure tourism development and the local community development in Rwanda – A case

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Introduction and Literature review

Adventure tourism involves the connection of tourists with a sometimes constructed, often mythical, past by promoting 'a vicarious experience that depends on using objects or locations as means of entering into or living in the past' (Swabrooke et.al, 2003) They (ibid) also point out that adventure tourism includes natural adventure areas such as gardens, wilderness areas of scenic beauty, and valued cultural landscapes. Regardless of the adventure attraction, Brohman (2006) argues that adventure tourism is about searching for something that links the past and present.

The local community has started to recognize adventure tourism, the experience of travel to engage in or view related activities, as an important tourism activity. In order to compete in the growing adventure tourism market, it is crucial for communities to develop a profound understanding of the benefits and impacts of adventure tourism (Namara, 2015) Community participation in tourism activities including those of adventure nature has become a common element in many development initiatives, such as community-based programs, which assume participatory methods and has been promoted by development organizations, notably the World Bank, to address the inefficiency of highly centralized development approaches particularly in the developing world (Baral and Heinen, 2007).

Hall (2007) assert that involving the local communities in adventure tourism development on water bodies is mainly done through engaging them in boating and sport fishing in Singapore. Local communities in Ghana act as guides during primates viewing and birding. They have been trained in birds and primates behavior by the tourism board since the last 30 years. Community participation in adventure tourism in Ghana supports and upholds their knowledge and skill different adventure tourism activities and create pride in the community (Li, 2005).

At different campsites in Brazil, the community collect fire wood, make fire and construct tents and grass thatched houses for tourists' accommodation (Beeton, 2006). In Cameroon, the associations of local communities have been contracted in different national parks management to supply them with hiking sticks that are used by tourists during mountain climbing and hiking activities. In South Africa, the community participation in adventure tourism is mainly in form of repairing adventure tourism water vessels like boats and kayaks and taking tourists in boats or teaching them how it use them (Kristen and Rogerson, 2002). On the Himalaya

Mountains in India, the local community carry the climbers on their back (Porters) when they tied or carry their luggage along while mountaineering and hiking (Lee and Chang, 2008).

Hall (2007), while focusing on spontaneous community participation, which is the highest level of community participation identified a number of barriers that make active local community participation hard to achieve in the tourism industry. Lack of ownership, capital, skills, knowledge and resources all constrain the ability of communities to fully control their participation in tourism development. Rwanda's tourism policy (2009) reveals that the Local communities will also have a responsibility to become actively involved in the tourism industry, to practice sustainable development and to ensure the safety and security of the visitors. Effectively, a pro-poor approach will be taken, to ensure that tourism results in increased net benefits for poor people. It against this background that this study analyzed the involvement of the local community in adventure tourism development along the Congo-Nile trail.

Problem of the Statement

Adventure tourism is one of the major types of tourism in many countries, including Rwanda, with the highest growth potential. It is the world's largest employer and one among the major sources of substantial foreign exchange earnings (Mwandosya, 2007). It is through this observation that many people believe that adventure tourism is well placed as one of the major means through which development of local communities can be achieved (Beeton, 2006). One approach to enhance this development through adventure tourism is to involve local communities and ensure that their potential role is tapped and maintained through active participation in the adventure tourism activities (Beeton, 2006). It is imperative to note that involvement and participation of these communities is central to the sustainable development of adventure tourism not only because it has had a close connection with the local communities, particularly as hosts and guides (Bin and Nel 2002), but also because "the destinations of tourists are communities and it is in the community that adventure tourism happens" (Hamm, 2010).

In Rwanda, there has been a continuous appeal by government for the community to get involved in tourism activities. (Booth and Briggs, 2004). Particularly, it has been acknowledged that active involvement of local communities is considered to be a central action in the success of tourism development, as it is the local community who are most affected by the development of tourism in their space and its subsequent negative impact effects on their way of life and therefore their involvement is vitally important. It is in this perspective that this study sought to analyse the involvement of local community in adventure tourism development in Rwanda using of Congo Nile Trail as case study because it's one of the adventure tourism destinations.

Research objectives

1. To identify and describe the local community involvement in adventure tourism along the Congo Nile trail.
2. To determine the challenges to local community involvement in adventure tourism along the Congo Nile Trail.
3. To suggest ways of solving those challenges that local community face in involving in adventure tourism.

Methodology

The type of this study was descriptive. In this regard, it described the community involvement in adventure tourism along the Congo-Nile trail and the challenges which they are faced with.

Study area

The study area is Congo Nile Trail part in Karongi District. Karongi district was chosen because it has more attractions that are viewed by Congo-Nile trail users than other districts. Some of the attractions are part of Gishwati-Mukura forest national park, Lake Kivu, Karongi hill, Gisovu tea plantations, and coffee gardens.



Study population and Sampling

The study was carried out on people living along the Congo-Nile trail in Bwishyura sector in Karongi district and RDB staff of the department of Tourism and conservation. The total number of people who live along the trail in Bwishyura

sector is 16,720 people (National Institute of Statistics of Rwanda (NISR), 2013). To determine the ideal sample size from our population, we followed the Slovin' formula and selected 99 respondents. In order to choose 99 respondents, the researcher used convenience sampling.

Data collection tools

The researcher used different techniques in order to collect data, such as documentary technique, questionnaire and interview. Through questionnaire technique, the researcher submitted the questionnaire of both closed-ended and open-ended questions to the selected locals along the Congo Nile Trail. In relation to the analysis, through quantitative methods, in this study, the data is presented in tables with frequencies and percentages.

Findings of the Study

Based on the specific objectives of the study. The findings from the field indicated that the tourists and the local community are involved in different tourism activities which include some of these shown in table 1.

Table 1: Adventure tourism activities on Congo-Nile Trail

Adventure tourism activity	Frequency	Percentage
Mountain climbing	13	13
Sport fishing	7	7
Kayaking	11	11
Canoeing	21	22
Hiking	17	17
Birding	16	16
Bicycle riding	14	14
Total	99	100

In table 1, the majority of the respondents representing 22% of the respondents indicated that the adventure tourism activity they know is canoeing. The interviewed RDB staff that canoes are commonly used by locals on Lake Kivu and on River Mugonero to transport adventure tourists to some islands in Lake Kivu. The other respondents representing 17% indicated that hiking was the adventure tourism activity done on Congo-Nile trail. Furthermore, 16% indicated that birding is the adventure tourism activity done along the Congo-Nile trail. Bicycle riding was pointed out by 14% of the respondents as the adventure tourism activity that done along the trail .11% of the respondents pointed out kayaking 7% indicated that sport fishing was the adventure tourism activity that is done along the Congo-Nile trail.

Tourists Cycling along Trail



Hiking with the Local Guides



Local community involvement in adventure tourism along the Congo Nile trail

Table 2: Community involvement in adventure tourism

Local community activities along the Congo Nile Trail	Frequency	Percentage
Local community associations	79	79.8
Individual service providers	20	20.2
Total	99	100

As shown in table 2, the local community involvement in adventure tourism is in associations and at individual level. However, the majority of the people representing 79.8% were involved in adventure tourism were in associations and 20.2% were involved as individuals. According to the officials from RDB, there are associations that have been formed, namely Kivu yacu, Ubumwe and Imbarage. Kivu yacu carries adventure in boats (boating), Ubumwe facilitates adventure tourists to do sport fishing while Imbaraga does guiding and portage (carrying adventure tourist’s luggage). Another co-operative known as Nkora fishing co-operative sells the night fishing experience to tourists while Kimbiri co-operative sells tea and coffee tours.

Individuals who are involved in adventure tourism are those that are operating businesses that give service to adventure tourists like accommodation in form of home stays and guest houses, food and beverages and repairing tourist’s bicycles, boat engines plus selling hiking sticks.

The challenges of local community involvement in adventure tourism along the Congo Nile Trail.

Table 3: Challenges of local community involvement in adventure tourism

Challenge	Frequency	Percentage
Lack of knowledge about adventure tourism activities by the local people	34	34.3
Financial incapability of the local people	40	40.4
Negative perceptions of local people on adventure tourism	15	15.6
Lack of relevant skills in adventure tourism	10	10.4
Total	99	100

40.4% revealed that financial incapability of the local people was the challenge faced. This finding indicates that the community lack financial resources which they could to invest in business that provide services and goods to adventure tourists who use the Congo-Nile trail in Bwishyura sector.

In addition, 34.3% of the respondents indicated that lack of knowledge about adventure tourism activities by the local people was a challenge. 15.6 % of the respondents indicated that the negative perceptions of local people on adventure tourism was a challenge that prevents local people from getting involved in adventure tourism. Lastly, 10.4% indicated that lack of relevant skills in adventure tourism.

The solution for challenges of local community involvement in adventure tourism along the Congo-Nile trail.

Table 4: Solutions to challenges of local community involvement in adventure tourism

Solutions	Frequency	Percentage
Increase the community awareness of the adventure tourism attractions	59	60
Facilitate the community to access finances for tourism	21	21
Develop more adventure tourism products along trail	14	14
Sensitise the community to change perceptions	15	15
Total	99	100

As regards to the solution to challenges faced by community involvement in adventure tourism along the Congo-Nile trail, the majority of the respondents representing 60% indicated that community awareness of the potential adventure tourism attractions along the Congo-Nile trail was a viable solution. This solution would address the challenges of lack of knowledge about adventure tourism activities by the local people and negative perceptions of local people.

The other solution to the challenges was facilitating the community to access finances so as to start tourism projects along the Congo-Nile trail. 14% of the respondents suggested initiating more adventure tourism products along the Congo-Nile trail. This solution would increase the business opportunities for the local community. 5% suggested sensitizing the community to develop positive perceptions of adventure tourism.

Conclusion

The adventure tourism activities that are done along the Congo-Nile trail in bwishyura sector are many and different. The members of the community have different understanding of the adventure tourism activities that are done along this trail. The reason could be that community members only know the adventure activities that are done only on the specific sites which are near their homes.

The local community in bwishyura sector are involved in adventure tourism as individuals or in associations. However, the majority have formed associations which perform different activities which give different services to adventure tourists. The involvement of the community in adventure tourism along the Congo-Nile has been hampered by a number of challenges but the most outstanding one is lack of financial resources so as to invest in business that provide services and goods to adventure tourists who use the Congo-Nile trail in Bwishyura sector.

The challenges limiting the community involvement in adventure tourism are many but the most viable ones are community awareness of the potential adventure tourism attractions along the Congo-Nile trail and facilitating the community to acquire financial resources so as to start tourism based businesses.

Recommendations

To Rwanda Development Board (RDB)

- The RDB should consider introducing revenue sharing scheme to enable the community living along the Congo-Nile trail to acquire funds so as to invest in businesses that provide services and goods to adventure tourists who use the Congo-Nile trail
- The RDB also sensitize the community living along the Congo-Nile trail to get involved in adventure tourism because many of them are not fully aware of the businesses potential of adventure tourism taking place along the trail so that they start businesses that serve the interests of adventure tourists.
- The RDB should sensitize the community to develop a positive attitude towards adventure tourism because the study showed local people view adventure

tourism as activity that does not concern them or is something for foreigners and Rwandans of a different social class.

- The RDB also should sensitize the private sector to invest in businesses that facilitate adventure tourism along the Congo-Nile trail

To the community of Bwishyura sector

- The community should realize adventure taking place in Bwishyura sector is an opportunity for doing business that is based on tourism.
- The community also should start saving money or approach financial institutions so as to acquire money that they can use to start businesses that are based on tourism

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Product Innovations for a diversified urban tour experience in Rwanda – The case of Kigali city

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Introduction and Background

An urban tour involves tourist visitation to different attraction sites and facilities around the city and many major cities in the world offer tourism attractions and activities to their visitors. Such attractions may include natural features and man-made such as museums, cultural centers, amusement parks, historical sites and monuments and several others. The enjoyment of a diversified urban tour is very important for achieving tourist satisfaction in any destination country and it promotes longevity of tourist stay. The world's cities are also some of the world's greatest tourism destinations. Tourists are drawn, in growing numbers, to the vibrancy, excitement and diversity on offer in cities worldwide. (UNWTO.2012)

Urban Tourism has, in one form or other, been with us since Mesopotamia and Sumeria were spawning the phenomenon of urbanization. People with the means and inclination to do so have been drawn to towns and cities just to visit and experience a multiplicity of things to see and do... These (towns and cities) were the melting pots of national culture, art, music, literature and of course magnificent architecture and urban design. It was the concentration, variety and quality of these activities and attributes... that created their attraction and put certain towns and cities on the tourism map..." (Karski 1990,) Tourism Product Development is a key factor in the overall experience demanded by tourists visiting cities or other types of destinations. Understanding marketplace trends through market analysis will help create a strategy that will match tourists' needs and demands.

Tourism Product destination is made up of three factors: Experiential-shopping, dining and entertainment, festivals, activities; Emotional-cultural and historic resources, hospitality and Physical-infrastructure, natural resources, restaurants, accommodation (UNWTO 2011) Carlsen and Butler (2011) emphasize that diversification involves developing new tourism products and attracting new markets. They further suggest that tourism growth can be maintained by diversification of the tourism product base, and also by producing markets with the aim of positioning the destination upmarket. Farmaki (2012) asserts that diversification requires the use of existing resources which are already under strain as well as previously unexploited resources. Furthermore, diversification has been associated with advantages of profit maximization through the development of new products that complement cost reduction due to the transfer of assets to other markets and extension of seasonality by offering products that can be enjoyed off season (Farmaki, 2012).

In addition, Agarwal and Shaw (2007) assert that tourism product diversification relieves pressure on congested resorts, provides income for older urban districts and promotes an appreciation of heritage. This also leads to an increase in quality of a country's image and the local economy becomes more diversified as jobs and shared infrastructure are created in tourism and tourism related businesses (Sharpley & Telfer, 2002). Furthermore, this can improve the residents' quality of life because the infrastructure developed does not benefit the tourists only but the hosts as well (Road, Biwal and Joshi, 2009). Although the attraction of other businesses and services to support the facilities for tourism development may increase prices in basic needs items to earn profit, hence life may become costly for the community (Malviya, 2005).

Tourism product development is always faced with a lot of challenges for example the COMCEC Member Countries face a series of challenges to the growth of their tourism sectors. Many of the difficulties stem from a lack of government support for new tourism product development. Many countries have limited technical know-how to plan, manage and operate their tourism sectors, with the result that tourism strategies and plans can be inconsistent. They are hampered by shortages of funds for tourism-related infrastructures, product investment and marketing and promotional campaigns. The prevailing western consumer perceptions that travel to a number of countries in the COMCEC region are negative because of border formalities and unsafe also represent impediments. (COMCEC, 2013) Some of these challenges are similar to what may be inhibiting the tourism product innovations around Kigali city.

Over the years, there has been a dependency on the gorilla product as a major source of tourism revenue in Rwanda and over 90 per cent of the industry's earnings are driven by gorilla tours. Whilst recognizing the importance of this iconic product, much effort is needed on diversifying the industry to include a wide range of other products. This diversification may consider strengthening Meetings, Incentives, Conferences and Exhibitions (MICE) tourism, birding, culture, agro-tourism, adventure products and others, in relation to the market demand and the resource base of Rwanda. (Tourism Policy of Rwanda 2009). Nairobi is one of the cities in east Africa which offers a range of some of these products from being a destination for meetings and conferences to having some outstanding cultural attractions like the Boma village, museums and wildlife sanctuaries like the Giraffe center as well as the only city with a National park which offers the wildlife products. It is against this background that this study was carried out to identify the existing tourism products and the innovations which have been done in Kigali city, to identify the challenges faced in diversifying the tourism products in Kigali city and to discuss the existing plans to improve the urban tour experience in Kigali city.

Problem statement

The problem is that some cities around the world and in the east African region do not have many tourist attractions and activities to offer to tourists to enable them to have a diversified tour experience and Kigali which is the major city of Rwanda seems to be facing the same challenge. It has a few historical sites and museums to offer to tourists who are interested in a tour around the city. However some

product innovations are being undertaken by some of the tourism stake holders like the tour operators and the government which also has plans to improve the tourist experience of Kigali city, although there are still a lot of product gaps which need to be innovated. This research attempted to identify the existing tourism attractions and the product innovations which have been undertaken, the challenges to the tourism product innovations in Kigali city and what can be done by the stake holders to diversify the urban tour a little more.

Methodology

The research design was descriptive in order to describe the tourism product innovations which have been done around Kigali and the target population were the government tourism organization known as Rwanda Development Board, specifically the Tourism and Conservation department which is also responsible for tourism product innovations and marketing as well as a sample of tour operators and tour guides from Kigali who are also involved in selling city tours around Kigali city. A sample of 10 tour managers and tour guides/driver guides who are also involved in selling city tours around Kigali city were selected randomly from the tour companies in Kigali (Table 1 below) Purposive sampling was used for the tourism product development officers and the tour managers. The tour guides were selected by use of simple random sampling. Interview guides were used to collect data from these respondents. The data has been presented and analyzed by use of tables and figures such as pie charts to describe the tourism product innovations which have been carried out in Kigali.

Table 1: Respondents to the study

RESPONDENT	NUMBER	PERCENTAGE
Tourism product development officers (RDB)	3	13
Tour managers	10	43.5
Kigali city tour guides	10	43.5
Total	23	100

Results

The results of the study have identified the old and new tourism products in Kigali city as well as the challenges faced in developing tourism products in Kigali. There are also suggestions on what can be done to address these challenges.

The results in figure 1 show the old tourism products in Kigali that have been around since the period before 2010. The Kigali genocide memorial is the one most

visited (30%) because many visitors want to see and learn about Rwanda's genocide history. This is followed by the Nyamirambo women's center (22%) which has got many cultural and art-craft products that attract many visitors. However the least visited tourism products or attractions in Kigali are the Richard Kandt museum and the Belgian memorial, both scoring a percentage of (9%) This indicates that there is still some demand by tourists for the old products especially the dark tourism at the Kigali memorial center and other old historical sites like the Richard Kandt museum and the Belgian memorial site which is also related to the genocide history.

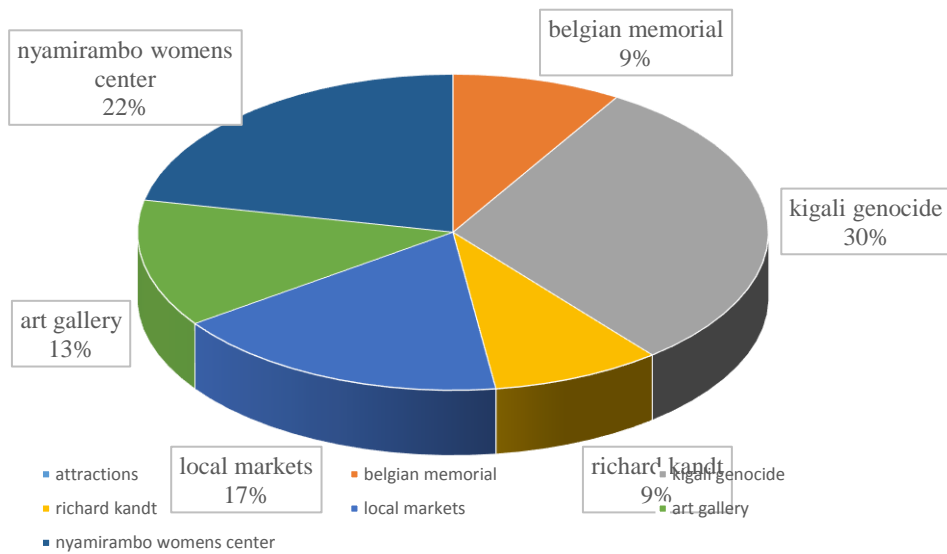


Figure 1: Old tourism products in Kigali city

The results in figure 2 below, show that some new tourism products have been developed around Kigali city since 2010 with an objective to create a diversified tourism experience for visitors. 35% of the respondents pointed out that mount Kigali is the most popular among the new tourism products around Kigali city. It offers a hiking, horse riding and zip line experience for the visitors. The other exciting new tourism product is the Kigali city tour bus (26%) which gives an opportunity for the visitors to appreciate the landscape and other scenic beauty around Kigali. There is also a new museum at the parliamentary building which showcases the history about the campaign against genocide in Rwanda and how the genocide was stopped.

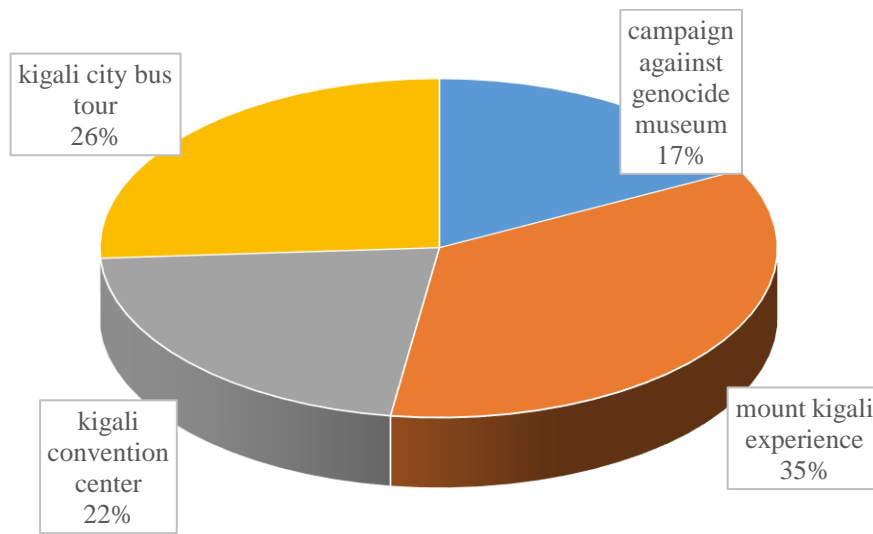
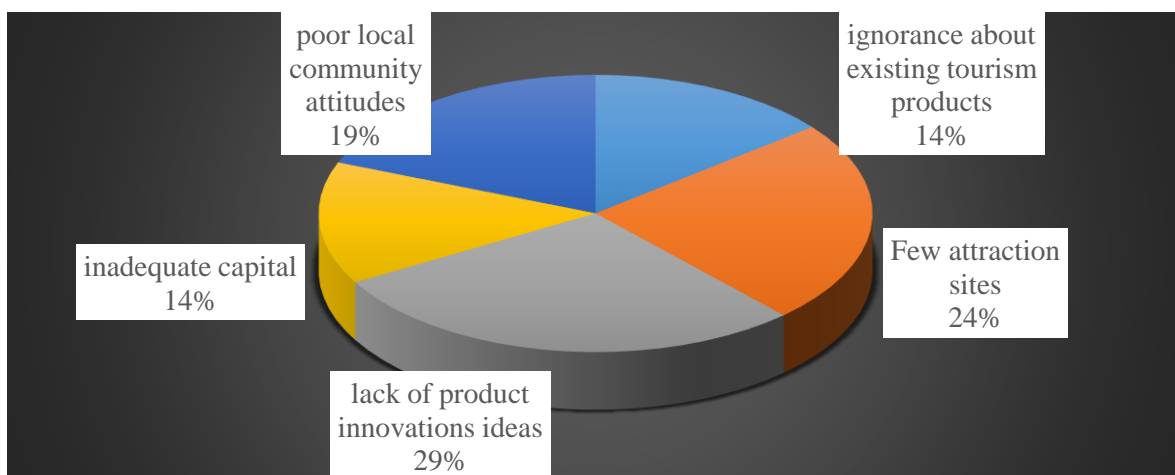


Figure 2: New tourism products in Kigali city



The results also show that there have been and there are still some challenges to the development of tourism products in Kigali city as shown in figure 3 below. The lack of product innovation ideas was pointed out as the major challenge to tourism product development in Kigali city. This is attributed to lack of ideas particularly in relation to which tourism products to develop and how to develop them as revealed by 29% of the respondents. This is closely related to the other challenge of ignorance about the existing tourism products in Kigali. It was revealed by 14% of the respondents that Kigali city has got some potential tourism products which many people including the visitors are ignorant about. There is also the challenge of poor local community attitudes (19%) which is manifested through their poor response or support to tour operators and guides who take visitors for some tourism product experiences which involve the local community participation. In addition many of the local community stakeholders also do not mind about participation in the development of new tourism products and they believe that it is not their responsibility to do so.



Products under development in Kigali

According to one of the key informants working with the tourism product development department in the Rwandan government, there are many plans for tourism development which have been documented in the Kigali Master Plan (2019-2050). The Kigali cultural village is 97% complete and will be launched before the end of 2019. A sports arena was already under construction with a capacity of 10000. This will improve sports tourism and other events tourism. This facility has now been launched and it is already under use. There are also plans to make 20% of Kigali an Eco-city (green). There will be artificial water fronts-lakes and afforestation of some wetlands to create ecotourism sites Theme parks will be developed in different locations of the city and a cable car system from Mt Kigali to Rebero.

Conclusion

The urban tourism in Kigali city has come a long way but is steadily improving. Although the tour experience is still centered on the major historical sites/museums like that of genocide memorial. In conclusion, there are product innovations which have and continue to be done around the city like the city bus tour experience, convention center, hiking on the Mount Kigali and the Zip line activity, community tours around Nyamirambo and to the markets and some night life experiences. There are however still many challenges to improving the tour experience many of which are financial and others due to lack of innovation ideas despite the available potential.

Recommendations

- Government should encourage the private sector to invest in more tourism products after identifying the investment opportunities for example more Cinemas/theatres and casinos and more recreational centers.
- Government may also invest in the development of Leisure/theme parks as these are still lacking in Kigali city.
- Construct a big shopping mall-tourists need a good shopping experience as pointed out by some Nigerian visitors to a tour operator.
- Animal sanctuary –zoo or snake park can be developed for a wildlife experience around Kigali. There is none available at the moment.
- More historical sites with tourism potential around Kigali can be identified and promoted for tourism.

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Transforming Tourism resources and identifying capabilities in King Cetshwayo District townships

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Introduction

Townships in South Africa are characterized by historically leading personalities, with either liberation struggle' credentials, a rich architectural heritage, or black enterprise that was 'throttled' by the system of apartheid and spatial locations far removed from city centers (Anyumba, 2017). It is of great concern that when tourists arrive at the study area, they are accommodated in hotels and B&Bs in town and they would be seen transported by busses to attractions like game reserves and they would come back at the end of the day to accommodations in towns having not seen the beauty of our township, and experience the rich culture of the people in townships or in rural areas where these game reserves are situated. Visitors hardly get out of the coaches and they have limited contacts with local residents Booyens (2010). It is for this reason that the researchers have decided to bring the question of township tourism to the picture so as to identify resources with tourism potential in townships so that local communities can benefit from tourism and also for tourists to experience local culture of the people in the destination they have visited.

King Cetshwayo District Municipality is one of the eleven district municipalities of KwaZulu-Natal province in South Africa. The seat of the district is Richards Bay which is the heartbeat of the district because of major industries that boost the local economy, a harbour, an airport, state of the art shopping malls, a beach, magnificent hotels, B&BS, evergreen vegetation, and vibrant townships. The majority of the people speak Zulu. King Cetshwayo District municipality, previously known as uThungulu, has five local municipalities. Those local municipalities are: Mbonambi (uMfolozi), uMhlathuze, Mlalazi, eMthonjaneni and Nkandla. King Cetshwayo District municipality was named after King Cetshwayo, king of the Zulu kingdom from 1872-1879, who led his nation to victory against the British in the battle of Isandlwana in 1879 (Khoza, 2016). Although, King Cetshwayo District Municipality has got five local municipalities under its jurisdiction, and eight townships in these local municipalities, the focus of the researcher will be on one local municipality which is uMhlathuze local municipality. UMhlathuze local municipality has got five townships, Vulindlela, eNseleni, Esikhaleni, Ngwelezane, UMhlathuze village, out of which three were the focus of the researchers. The study will be based in the following townships: Esikhaleni eNseleni and Vulindlela.

The idea of township tourism may sound vague but it is in line with one of the six principles that were put forward towards the development of responsible tourism

in post-apartheid South Africa that emphasises that tourism will be used as a development tool for the empowerment of previously neglected communities and should particularly focus on the empowerment of women in such communities. These principles are outlined in the White paper (1996) on the Development and Promotion of Tourism.

- Locals should have the opportunity to take part in decision making, be employed, trained and empowered to become owners of tourism products.
- Local goods and services should be procured.
- Local entrepreneurship and small business development should be promoted.
- Local cultures should be respected and protected.
- Natural, cultural and heritage resources should be preserved and
- Development should be sensitive to environment

Review of literature

The word "township" is defined by the Oxford Dictionary as a small town in South Africa, a residential area occupied by Black people and formerly (under apartheid) set aside for them. Townships during apartheid were battlefields of different political parties and were also faced with brutalities from White regime, therefore townships are seen as custodians of history and heritage as Booyens (2010) points out that using heritage resource to develop tourism attractions in townships will help conserve these resources, not only for tourism but also for education and reconciliation. Township tourism was previously classified as a component of "heritage tourism", "ethno- tourism", "justice tourism", "thano tourism", "atrocities tourism" and "dark tourism" (Booyens, 2010:277). Township tourism has also been described further as slumming, poorism and philanthropic tourism (Kieti & Magio, 2013:38).

The township tourism phenomenon is currently being considered as a component of slum tourism (Koens & Thomas, 2016:2), where the motives for tourists are to see where impoverished people live (Mekawy, 2012:2092). Other authors refer to township tourism as poverty tourism, whereby poverty is used as a tourist attraction (Jänis, 2011:118).

Townships have produced very prominent figures that people look up to but not having vast knowledge of where they come from. It is for this reason again that township tourism should be encouraged since it will set the multiplier effect in motion. Booyens (2010:79) classifies tourism resources into endowed and created resources. Endowed resources refer to cultural, natural and human resources which is about demographics, socio economic characteristics, skills and education level. Created resources refer to tourism infrastructure, events, product diversity and packaging and support services. The researchers identified these endowed and created resources as mentioned by the above writer. An example of a created resource is found in one of the study areas township, at Esikhaleni Township, it is a political monument, with history of selfless struggle.



Figure 1: ANC Monument: Captured by the researchers, June, 2018

Capabilities represents 'the alternative combinations of functioning's that are feasible to achieve. Capabilities reflect the real opportunities or positive possible life-styles (Keyser, 2009). Capability refers to the power or ability of something. Such resources have the capability to transform and bring innovation to township tourism.

The transforming and mind-set change of the community to appreciate what they have can lead to community development, According to (Koens, 2010) Community development is about people participating in their own development and deciding their preferred future.

Development is change which improves the lives of community members, disadvantages no-one and is sustained and managed by the community. Community development occurs best when the people of the community are involved throughout the development from deciding what they need and how they want to achieve it.

When one looks at development impacts one should always look at the three P's of sustainable development. Socially, how will these tourism resources affect the people in the townships. Tourism resources will positively affect the township by the following: people's lives will change because of jobs that will be created, the multiplier effect will be set in motion hence tourism activity will benefit the entire community, infrastructure development, meaningful interaction between tourists and locals will guarantee a greater degree of cultural understanding, funding for community projects like the ANC monument. There are two sides of the coin though, while celebrating jobs that will be created, one may also think of low level jobs like cleaners and waitresses that may cause frustration and anger to local people, cultural pollution whereby locals may end up abandoning their own culture,

high rate of crime and commodification of culture whereby local culture may be turned into a commodity that can be sold and bought.

The conceptual framework

The researchers have adopted the conceptual framework that seeks to clarify the impacts of tourism resources.

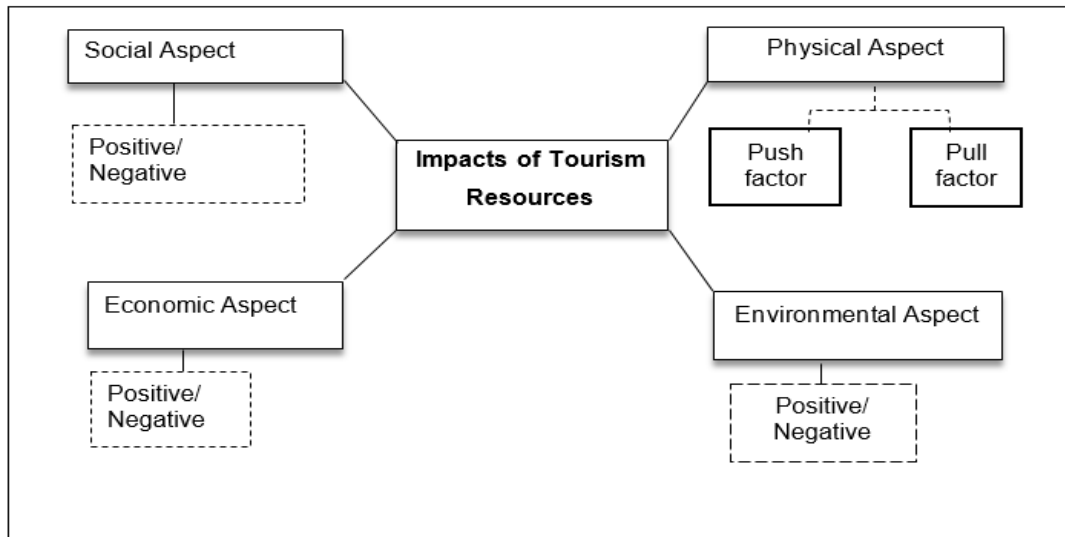


Figure 2

Source: Fernando, 2012

Should tourism resources be effectively utilised they may yield positive economic impacts like establishment of businesses by local people with hundred percent ownership by local people, procurement of local goods and services, employment of local people, partnerships between big business owners and locals will be forged. On the other hand, goods and services may become too expensive for township people to afford hence be sold to tourist.

By physical aspects, the researcher refers to buildings in a form of B&B's, taverns, restaurants, transport and heritage resources. These resources may have positive impacts should they be made available for tourist consumption. The researcher also has included capabilities on the conceptual framework with an aim of highlighting the level of capabilities on the township people to optimise these resources. Lastly, the researcher has made mention of policies that will be formulated to regulate how township tourism is taking place.



Figure 3: Township Bread & Breakfast

Source: Captured by researcher, June, 2019

The objective of the study

There are a number of theoretical and empirical studies on township tourism and innovations in the tourism industry that have surfaced in literature. The main focus of this paper is focusing on mind-set change and perception towards transforming townships as a tourist destination

Methodology

The researchers conducted a survey, using the mixed method. The researchers used non-probability sampling; purposive sampling will be used for selecting the respondents. The sample size of 100 was considered sufficient for this study. The researchers conduct a survey distributing questionnaires and conducted semi-structured interviews on the following participants:

- 20 tourism business owners.
- 10 municipality officials, LED.
- 05 tour operators.
- 13 high school educators offering tourism
- 20 tourists
- 32 local participants of the neighbouring study areas were randomly selected.

Collection and analysis of data

A survey was conducted using questionnaires and interviews. Section A of the questionnaire consisted of filter questions, this was analysed to obtain percentage and frequency using IBM, SPSS. Sections B of the questionnaire is the Likert scale, this type of questioning measures the level of agreement, analysis will be mainly descriptive, showing frequency, percentage and standard deviation.

Results and Discussions

When the respondents answered to the question ‘whether township tourism can benefit the community? This is how they responded in the below graph

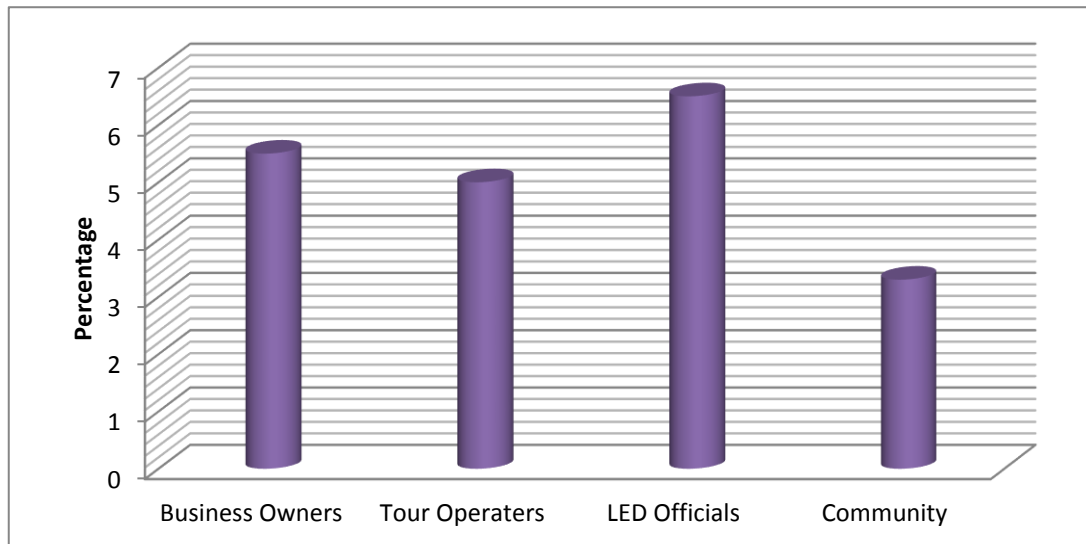


Figure 4: Township tourism as a benefit to the local community

Townships throughout South Africa are in many ways similar in terms of their historical, geographical and socio-economic arrangement. Having originally been established as dark tourism as a means of enforcing segregation, townships in South Africa are perceived as being inhabited by poor and crime-ridden communities in which high levels of political strife. Consequently, there has been a deep-rooted perception among many South Africans and foreigners that townships are not a place to visit because of the threat they pose to personal safety hence the above graph indicates a low number from the community, perception stating, unsafety “no go” areas for tourist. It is accepted that tourists hope to experience more than one activity in any destination therefore the perception and motive to travel to townships should be transformed. Tourists travel and consume because they supposedly generate pleasurable experiences which are different from those typically encountered in their everyday life.

According to the tour operators interviewed, in short the response was “When people travel they look at the environment with interest and curiosity. Township life should speak to them in way that they will appreciate”. Researchers therefore visited one of the famous restaurant in the Esikhaleni Township, Nembulas’ Restaurant, this is what the tourist had to say. Using the Likert scale questions as a measurement, the following results we found

Table 1
Reasons for visiting at Esikhaleni Township

Reason for visiting	N = percentage	Mean	Std. Deviation
I wanted to get a good meal here	98	3.36	1.03
I wanted to interact with township residents	97	3.14	1.01
I wanted to get more insight as to how things have changed since the apartheid era	95	4.03	0.98
I wanted to personally experience nightlife in a township	96	2.92	1.27
Township life seemed more unspoiled to modern city life	94	3.18	1.07

Reasons for visiting for tourist at ENseleni/Richards Bay

I wanted to see the local art and craft	96	3.70	1.00
I wanted to visit museums	98	3.79	1.03
I wanted to see the beauty of South Africa	98	3.96	1.01
I was curious to see a different way of life	96	3.93	0.90
I wanted to see a different kind of township.	96	3.27	1.24
I wanted to see the scenery of a township	97	3.22	1.19
I was curious with the social life	94	3.22	1.16
I wanted to see both the rich and poor sides of South Africa	96	3.82	1.19

A variable in the Likert scale question was created to validated authenticity in the question, a descriptive analysis was done, and the table below gives information.

Descriptive analysis

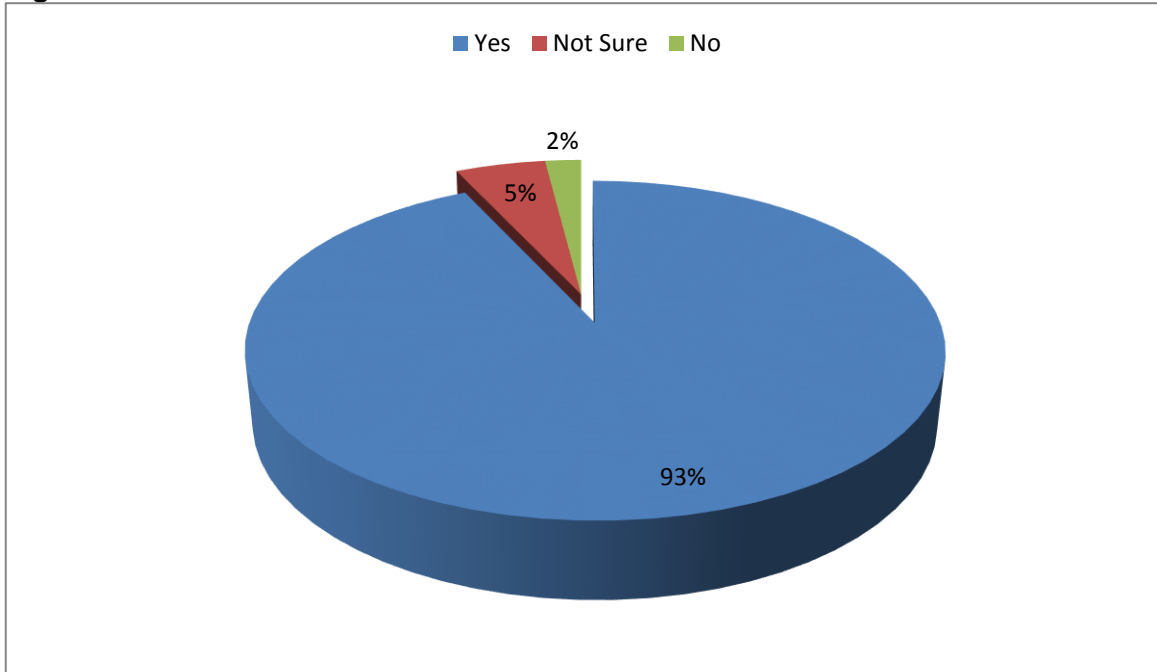
Table 2

Would you feel happy with having / accommodating foreign tourist in the township?		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Yes	Authenticity score	52	3.29	0.51
No	Authenticity score	45	3.57	0.65

This question was mainly asked to the township business people and the local community, though there is still a concern with safety and crime however the business people responded positively to this question and the answers given were of economic benefit directed, the local community responded positively on a social economic basis.

The tourists were asked whether they will visit the Esikhaleni Township again

Figure 4



A 93% of the respondents were excited to be at the townships and would do it again, they enjoyed the social life and for some, the culture experience was a take home for them. 5% were not sure whether they will come back again though they stated having a good time, and only 2 % said they will not come back again and preferred to go see somewhere else.

Table 3: Travel experiences of township tours

Number of times visited a township before											
Number of times visited a Township before	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Total
One	8	4	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	15
Two	4	2	3	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	10
Three	5	4	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	13
Four	4	2	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	09
Five	1	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	04
Six	2	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	04
Seven	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	00
Eight	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	00
Nine	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	00
Ten	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	00
	24	15	13	03	00	00	00	00	00	00	55

Table 3 indicates the numbers of tourists who have visited townships before, the townships that have been frequently visited are Soweto, Khayelisha and Umlazi. The experience of township life is more social and culture experiences to these respondents, amazingly they enjoyed their tours

Conclusion

Township tourism possesses the ability to contribute to positive human exchanges through interaction between residents and tourists. There is positive sharing of cultural exchanges; stronger relationships are built between the tourists and residents, which may provide for the long term sustainability of township tourism. The positive personal transformational effect on residents through their interaction with tourists is contributing to residents' socio-economic well-being in varying degrees. Consequently, township tourism is able to quantitatively and qualitatively manage the alleviation of poverty in townships (Frenzel & Koens, 2012:202). Understanding, mutual respect and peoples mind-set change is critical; hence township tourism does just that.

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What is ATLAS



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 161 members in 56 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 Canterbury, UK (September 2016) and in Viana do Castelo, Portugal (2017). The annual conference in 2018 will be organised in Copenhagen, Denmark. Regional conferences are also held in Africa, Latin 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. ATLAS is participating in two major European projects. The Next Tourism Generation Alliance (NTG) for implementing a new strategic blueprint approach to sectoral cooperation on skills and the INCOME Tourism project to develop soft skills into higher education curricula and to strongly cooperate with businesses.
- 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.
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- ATLAS members can participate in a wide range of projects run by ATLAS in the areas of tourism and leisure education and research.
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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:

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- Gastronomy and Tourism Research Group
- Business Tourism Research Group
- Cities and National Capital Tourism Research Group
- Volunteer Tourism Research Group
- Events Research Group
- Dark Tourism Research Group
- Heritage Tourism and Education Research Group
- Space, place, mobilities in Tourism Research Group

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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.

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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. The ATLAS Tourism and Leisure Review gives ATLAS members and participants of the ATLAS conferences and meetings a platform to publish the papers they have presented. The editing will be carried out by an editorial board / field editors. All publications can be found and ordered in the online ATLAS bookshop at: shop.atlas-euro.org.

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

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