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The involvement of people living within or nearby heritage locality, *local residents*, in exercising influence over conservation policy formulation, implementation and monitoring of conservation interventions of heritage, that is *participation in decision making*, is today the state of the art in heritage management (Araoz, 2011). Its implementation is crucial in heritage sites of sub-Saharan Africa that have marginalized residents as a result of colonial *top-down, fines and fences* and *monumentalism* approaches (Lwoga, 2016). Such sites have suffered problems related to neglect, looting and vandalism (Mapunda, 2013). It is argued that participation would help to counteract such problems by inducing positive attitudes towards conservation among residents (Masele, 2012; Yung and Chan, 2011). Yet research, though limited, has revealed conflicting results that participation may cause conflicts and residents’ rejection of conservation (Marzuki, 2015; Chirikure et al., 2010). This inconsistency justifies the need, hence the intention of this study, to empirically examine the directionality, strength and significance of the relationship between participation in decision making and attitudes towards conservation by using a sample of 208 residents in Kilwa Kisiwani World Heritage Site in Lindi region in Tanzania.

Kilwa Kisiwani (Figure 1) is one of the oldest towns in East Africa, with settlements dating back as far as the 9th century BC. Today, its ruins (Plate 1) such as mosques, palaces and residences evidence a famous trading Centre where Arab traders shipped ivory, slaves and other valuables from the African continent. In 1981, the ruins were declared as a World Heritage Site managed under the Antiquities Act of 1964 (amended in 1979) by the Antiquities Division of the Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism. To foster local support for conservation, in 2002, the Antiquities Division initiated community’s Ruins Committee with about twenty resident members representing concerns various segments of the community. The results from this case study can broaden our understanding of the significance of participation, and enlighten participatory strategies that heritage managers can utilise to foster local support.
Exploring opportunities for developing Sustainable Community Based Tourism in Rwanda, case study: Nyungwe National Park

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Abstract

The study focus was ‘Exploring Opportunities for Developing Sustainable Community Based Tourism in Rwanda, case study: Nyungwe National Park’. It was aiming to determine the extent to which CBTs enhance the livelihood of local communities around NNP and the way its acceleration can be replicated. The study involved the perspectives of community businesses, non-profit organizations as well as government authorities’ stakeholders' group by applying various research methods such as desk research, participative observations, focus group meeting and semi structured interview as well as a combination of SWOT-AHP method to provide with relevant information and recommendations to support them in their strategic decision-making. The results indicated that a range of factors that influence Community Based Tourism in Nyungwe National Park were identified and compared to determine priority factors which need too much considerations with regards to CBT development in that area. Lack of qualified human resources and limited funds were identified as the highest factors that need too much consideration because they can constrain the development and success of CBT in Nyungwe National Park. But success factors such as existing institutional set up, location, accessibility and security were also identified as factors which can be used to minimize these issues. The report concluded that too many issues need to be addressed for the community businesses to remain sustainable and enjoy anticipated CBT benefits.

Introduction

Since the 1950s and 1960s, Community Based Tourism (CBT) started in rural areas in developing countries aiming to reduce the aid from donors to local poor communities (Lesego, 2008), to increase the benefits of tourism and eliminate its unfavourable impacts (Pio, 2011). In 1970s, Aid agencies such as the USAID, UNDP, UNEP, World Bank and the United Nations started promoting community participation in tourism development (Lesego, 2008; Stone & Stone, 2011). In the 1980s, tourism literature has called for the involvement of local communities in tourism development for which local residents are seen as a key resource in sustaining the product (Hardy, Beeton, & Pearson, 2002 cited in Lesego, 2008). Since then, Community Based Tourism emerged and the approach was debated by many researchers in different points of view. This approach involves local people’s participation in decision-making. In 1987, Community participation gained status with the concepts of sustainability and sustainable development, put forward by the World Commission on Environment and Development report. In 1992, Rio Summit introduced Agenda 21, a blueprint for action by host communities, which calls for tourism–community interactions which are essential for sustainable tourism development strategies (Stone & Stone, 2011). Agenda 21 promotes rural community participation to maximize the rural community’s ability to control and manage its resources. In 2005, UNWTO started the step program to eliminate poverty; since then, Community Based Tourism has been encouraged in developing countries to alleviate poverty and meet the millennium development goals.

In Rwanda Community Based Tourism is one of the sectors with obvious potential to help broaden the product range and provide the visitor with a more satisfying experience while expanding their length of stay and increasing their expenditure. CBT activities have been encouraged and developed so far as an alternative economic opportunity which can replace
other activities with high impact on the natural resources and environment (Stronza & Durham, 2008, Townsend, 2006). Community Based Tourism activities in Banda village, Kitabi village as well as Cyamudongo village were developed for visitors to empower communities in achieving sustainable livelihood and resource use practices around NNP. While some progress has been made over the last few years, community participation in these villages remains relatively weak and CBT activities are not yet exploited to its full potential. In addition, there are more communities surrounding Nyungwe National Park, where this activity is not yet developed.

This paper explore opportunities for developing sustainable community based tourism in Nyungwe National Park, it determines the constraints and success factors facing Community Based Tourism initiatives in NNP and the suggestions on the way its acceleration can be replicated. The Researcher was assigned to conduct this study as part of fulfilment of its master’s studies at NHTV Breda University of Applied Sciences, Netherlands.

Methods

The study area

This research was conducted in Nyungwe National Park (NNP) located in the Albertine Rift region, the south-west of Rwanda along the Congo-Nile divide. It covers an area of 1 019 km² and is one of the largest mountainous rainforests remaining in the Albertine Rift highlands of East-Central Africa (Masozera et al., 2006). The Park extends from lush low valleys to high mountain peaks, and range in altitude from 1,600m to 2,950m with temperatures, which vary between 0°C and 30°C. In 2005, Nyungwe forest was declared by the Government of Rwanda as a National Park by the Law n° 22/2005, including Cyamudongo and Gisakura Natural Forests, giving it the highest level of protective status in the country (Nyungwe Nziza, 2013). Nyungwe ecosystem is known as a site of global importance for its rich biodiversity and endemism values. In addition, the Park provides a
very important watershed protection for the country as well as an abundance of animal and plant life, including many rare and endemic species (Rwanda Development Board, 2013).

The research was restricted to the communities neighboring key tourism areas of NNP such as Cyamudongo, Banda and Kitabi (as illustrated in figure one), to Nyungwe National Park authorities, to the local government authorities around Nyungwe National Park, to environmental organizations as well as other related relevant key stakeholders involved in Nyungwe National Park’s Community Based Tourism development.

**Data Collection**

The methodology used consisted of qualitative methods combined with quantitative methods. Participatory observation was used to be familiar with the research area and enabled the researcher to identify different CBT products developed on each village and their characteristics. In-depth semi-structured interview (open ended questions) was conducted for 14 tourists in sampled villages surrounding Nyungwe national park as well as for five tour operators (Primate Safaris, Rwanda Eco-tours, Songa Africa, Volcanoes Safaris as well as Thousand hills expeditions) because they weren’t able to attend the workshop and their insights were considered valuable towards the success of this study. During the focus groups meeting, the researcher applied strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats combined with Analytical Hierarchal process (SWOT-AHP) method (Saaty, 2008).

The meeting held in Kitabi (Head office of Nyungwe National Park), gathered different stakeholders involved in Community Based Tourism initiatives in and around the Park. The total number of 20 participants who attended the meeting included ten community members clustered under communities who own and manage the CBT activities in which three were from Cyamudongo Village, three were from Banda Village and four were from Kitabi Village; one representative from WCS, one representative from DAI/ Nyungwe Nziza, one representative from REDO, they were clustered under non-profit organizations which support CBT initiatives; including three local government officials each one is coming from each of the mentioned three village, one representative of Gisakura Guest house as well as three Nyungwe National Park Management staffs, all were clustered under Government authorities.

**Data analysis**

Primary data (workshop report) were analysed and interpreted using SWOT-AHP model. In addition, the interview conducted among tourists and tour operators were analysed using content analysis. Field notes from observations carried out were also analysed using content analysis to verify exactly the consistency of the research conducted in Nyungwe National Park.

**Results**

In a stakeholder’s focus group meeting, the participants after a long discussion identified several factors of the external and internal environment such as 5 strengths, 6 weaknesses, 7 opportunities and 3 threats. Having the list of factors, participants all together, in discussion, combined some factors which were similar and assigned priorities to them to come up with the priority SWOT factors illustrated in the table 5, column 1. To make comparisons, the author used a rating verbal scale of 1–9 scale based on the Saaty’s scale to consider the intensity priority between two factors. As illustrated in table 1, the numerical value indicates how many times one element is more important over another element with respect to the objective while the verbal statement explains the meaning of numbers assigned to factors during the comparison.
The figure 2 shows the example of simple pairwise comparison between strengths factors. Respondents in community's group of 7 individuals were asked to compare strength (S1) against strength (S2) and assign weight using 1-9 scale based on the group consensus to reflect the degree of the importance.

This procedure was repeated for all factors until all pairwise comparisons are exhausted for the entire three groups.

The table 2 illustrates the pairwise comparison matrix of strength factors for community businesses group. The diagonal elements of the matrix are always 1 and we need to fill up the upper and lower matrix. To fill up upper matrix, if the value is assigned to the factor on the left side of one (figure 2), the researcher put the actual judgment value, if the value assigned to the factor is on the right side of one then the researcher fills the reciprocal value in the table. To fill up the lower matrix, the researcher used the reciprocal values of the upper diagonal. The same procedure was applied within all SWOT factors for all stakeholders' group.

**Table 1: Pairwise comparison scale (Saaty, 2008, p.86)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verbal statement on intensity of importance</th>
<th>Numerical value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Equal Importance</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weak or slight</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderate importance</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderate plus</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strong importance</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strong plus</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very strong</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very, very strong</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extreme importance</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 2: Pairwise comparison matrix**
After obtaining a complete comparison matrix, the author normalize pairwise comparison table in order to determine the factor with high priority vector among compared strength factors. The normalization is done by totalling the number in each column (row 5 in table 2) and each entry in the column is then divided by the column sum to get its normalized score. Take example of entry (S1,S2) which has a value of 3 in table 2, and divide it with sum of (S2) which has a value of 4.5 in table 3 to obtain the normalized value of 0.667 illustrated in table 3 entry (S1,S2). Priority vector column is obtained by averaging across the rows, as illustrated in the last column of table 3. The sum up of priority vector column is one.

As any other human being, preferences can be subjective, that why the researcher was interested in calculating the consistency ratios in order to determine the consistency of participants' judgments among factors. The researcher used excels sheet calculation, but expert choice software can also calculate the ratios easily.

To calculate the consistency ratio (CR) the researcher must first determine the Principal Eigen value using table 2 and 3. Principal Eigen value is obtained from the summation of products between each element of Eigen vector (column 6 of table 3) and the sum of columns of the pairwise matrix (low 5 of Table 2).

\[
\lambda_{\text{max}}
\]

(Lambda max) is Principal Eigen Vector

\[
\lambda_{\text{max}} = 1.53*0.648+4.5*0.229+8*0.122 \rightarrow \text{Formula (1)}
\]

\[
= 3.002
\]

We can conclude here that the value is very close to the size of our comparison matrix n=3, which is good according to Saaty's rules of using this model.

We have also to calculate a consistency index value which is obtained from the following formula:

\[
CI = \frac{\lambda_{\text{max}} - n}{n - 1} \rightarrow \text{Formula (2)}
\]

Knowing the principal Eigen value as well as the size or the number of factors of our comparison matrix n=3, the value of Consistency Index is equal to:

CI= (3.002-3)/ (3-1)

= 0.001
\[
CR = \frac{CI}{RI} \quad \rightarrow \text{Formula (3)}
\]

Prof. Saaty (2008) proposed that we use this index by comparing it with the appropriate one, which is called Random Consistency Index (RI). He generated the Random consistency index (RI or RCI) for pairwise comparison matrix \( n=10 \); in the following table 4, we can conclude that on this case, the size of the matrix \( n \) is equal to three equivalents to \( RI=0.58 \).

So, \( CR=CI/RI =0.001/0.580 =0.002 \)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>( n )</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>RCI</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>1.32</td>
<td>1.41</td>
<td>1.45</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 4: Random Index for the comparison of \( n \) items or factors (Saaty, 2008)**

The rules say that if the value of Consistency Ratio is smaller or equal to 10% (\( CR \leq 0.1 \)), the inconsistency is acceptable, and then it should be maintained for the pairwise comparison matrix to be consistent (Saaty, 2008). We can conclude that the judgment made by this community businesses group is consistent and acceptable hence \( 0.002 < 0.10 \). The same procedures were carried out for weaknesses, opportunities and threats factors and for Non-profit organizations group’s judgments, and the government authorities group’s judgments.

After determining the factor with the highest priority vector representing each SWOT group, each factor was compared against another, and the procedures of comparing factors were similar to the ones we followed previously. Table 5 illustrates the identified factors with the highest priority score to represent the SWOT group and the overall priority factors. The overall priority factor was obtained by multiplying the local priorities vector by the value of the corresponding local priority factor representing the SWOT group.
Table 5: Factors with the highest priority score & overall priority SWOT factors

This table summarizes the results of the data collected. It represents quantitative information combined with qualitative one which is going to be discussed in the next section.

Discussion

The application of SWOT analysis combined with AHP model helped to weight the importance of these factors in terms of numbers and determine the factors with high priority in two ways; either negative factors which can constrain the development of Community Based Tourism in Nyungwe National Park and need to be addressed, or positive factors which contribute to the success of Community Based Tourism in Nyungwe National Park and need to be strengthened.

Success factors

**Existing Institutional set up**
This internal positive factor was identified by community businesses as well as non-profit organizations groups as a main factor outweighs other factors within SWOT group with a total score of 0.648 about 65% and 0.624 about 62% respectively, government authorities rank this factor as the second consideration with a total score of 0.320 about 32% after marketing of CBT products.

**Available tourism infrastructure and facilities**
This factor was ranked by community businesses group as the second factor with a score of 0.229 about 23% of the total strength after existing institutional set up, while non-profit organizations and government authorities ranked it as the third one among three factors representing strength factors with scores of 0.137 about 14% and 0.122 about 12% respectively.

**Marketing of community based tourism products**
This factor has been ranked by community businesses group as the last factor of less consideration, by non-profit organizations as a second factor of consideration and by government authorities as the first factor representing the strength factors with a total score of 0.122 about 12%, 0.239 about 24% and 0.557 about 56% respectively. The information gathered from tour operators confirm that community tourism activities developed in
Nyungwe National Park are not known either by tourists or by themselves. Tourists as well confirmed that they are informed about the Community Based Tourism in NNP prior to their arrival and consequently do not visit the communities because they didn’t plan it before and are running out of time.

**Cooperative are well located**
Non-profit organizations assign less importance to this opportunity factor with a score of 0.163 about 16% of total opportunity factors, government authorities assign moderate importance to this factor with a score of 0.312 about 31% while community businesses group ranks this as a priority factor to represent the group with a total score of 0.634 about 63% of strength factors.

**Good relations among stakeholders to develop and promote CBT initiatives**
Both community businesses and non-profit organizations ranked this opportunity factor as a moderate consideration with a total score of 0.260 about 26% and 0.297 about 30% respectively, while government authorities ranked this factor as a high priority factor to represent the opportunity factors with a total score of 0.490 about 49%.

**Accessibility and security**
This factor was ranked by community businesses and government authorities as a factor with less consideration among opportunity factors with a score of 0.106 about 11% and 0.198 about 20% respectively, while non-profit organizations ranked this factor as a high priority factor to represent the opportunity factors with a total score of 0.539 about 54%.

**Constraints factors**

**Lack of capacity in human and financial resources**
This internal negative factor was identified by community businesses and non-profit organizations as well as government authorities’ stakeholders’ groups as a high priority factor among weaknesses factors to represent the group with a total score of 0.539 about 54%, 0.648 about 65% and 0.549 about 55% respectively. The overall priority score reveal that this factor is considered to be the first choice for all the three stakeholders’ group among the four SWOT groups with a total score of 0.419 about 42%, 0.448 about 45% and 0.426 about 43% respectively. The meaning behind this results shows the strong consideration assigned to this factor explaining how the lack of human resources capacity is a major challenge which impede the development and implementation of CBT in Nyungwe National Park. This result is similar to the one from tour operators and Dixey (2005) for Zambian case study as well as from Tosun (2000) and Stone & Stone (2011).

**Underdeveloped tourism related infrastructure and facilities**
This factor was ranked by community businesses, non-profit organizations and government authorities as a factor of moderate consideration among weakness factors with a score of 0.163 about of 16%, 0.122 about 12% and 0.210 about 21% respectively. The CBT in Nyungwe National Park do not have a specified target market segment; they rely only on tourists visiting the park’s activities. Tour operators suggest a partnership between them and the community businesses which can help to integrate their products in the package and sell to tourists. Dixey (2005) also propose the involvement of private investors in community tourism businesses to help them to reach the target market segment and embrace this issue.
perceive this factor as a major challenge because those infrastructure and facilities are not well developed to meet the required standards.

**Lack of basic infrastructure**

Coming up, this threat factor was ranked by non-profit organizations as a moderate consideration with a total score of 0.273 about 27% among threat factors. Community businesses and government authorities ranked this factor as high priority factor with a total score of 0.590 about 59% for both of them. This means that these stakeholders’ group perceive basic infrastructure such as access to potable water, electricity and road connections as the major factors which can have a strong impact on the development of CBT in Nyungwe National Park. But non-profit organizations by assigning less importance they consider this factor as an issue which can be solved in long-term and communities do not have direct influence on it.

**Poor coordination among tourism authorities and community businesses in promoting CBT products.**

This factor was ranked by non-profit organizations and government authorities as a factor of less consideration among the threat factors with a total score of 0.086 about 9% and 0.159 about 16% respectively. The community businesses ranked this factor with moderate consideration of 0.251 about 25% of the total threat factors. The perception of community businesses towards this factor is that tourism board responsible for the promotion of tourism destination motivated the community to create cooperatives and start community tourism businesses but their products were not promoted and not known by both tour operators and tourists.

**Limited influence of communities in managing funds from donors**

This kind of factor is ranked by the community as the threat factor with less consideration at a total score of 0.159 about 16%, by the government authorities as a threat factor with moderate consideration at a score of 0.251 about 25% and by the non-profit organizations as a threat factor with high priority score of 0.680 about 68% of total threat factors. The non-profit organizations perceive this factor as big challenge in constraining the performance and development of CBT in Nyungwe Nationa Park. Apparently, lack of empowerment of local community to decide on what is going to be supported is one issue which needs to be addressed for future new CBT development.

**Conclusion**

This research revealed that community businesses in Nyungwe National Park face more constraining factors than success factors, consequently community is not yet enjoying the benefits brought by CBT, but they are paving the way towards the future success of these projects. To identify the necessary conditions required for Community Based Tourism businesses to be successful and sustainable in Nyungwe National Park; stakeholders need to take the following range of actions to increase CBT benefits to local community and community businesses members:

- Enhancing the capacity building to members, managers and owners of CBT in NNP
- Creating Community Based Tourism joint venture in NNP
- Strengthening the local participation in decision making using CBT projects
- Upgrade tourism related infrastructure and facilities
- Linking benefits to conservation

**Bibliography**


Condition for local tourism entrepreneurs in developing destinations to be attractive partners for foreign operators – theoretical perspectives, illustrations and dilemmas

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Introduction, overview and research issues

The choice of business exchange partners remains one of the basic decisions for most firms, not least within the international tourism industry. Depending on the dominant terms of trade within the industry where the business actors are operating and on the relative importance of the resources and values involved (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978), considerations by the choice of exchange partners can be of strategic, tactical, or merely operational nature. Obviously, the implications by the choice of a partner as a long-term strategic alliance differ tremendously compared with the choice of a partner for the performance of purely practical tasks, such as providing transport for a group of visitors as a part of a deal between a local tourism firm and an international tour operator. The purpose of this paper is to discuss how local conditions within a destination with a fragmented tourism industry could have an influence on the dispositions among tourism business actors, that is, local service suppliers/entrepreneurs and internationally operating tour operators, to initiate mutual trade and to establish exchange relationships. The main focus will be on the significance of the environment for the participation of local tourism entrepreneurs in business exchange activities and on how this, in turn, could influence the choice among international tour operators to engage local tourism firms/entrepreneurs as service suppliers. The theoretical basis will be theory on regional competence formation, resource-based strategic view and business partner choice within tourism supply chains. The approach for the discussion and evaluation of the local conditions will be based on comparative illustrations from selected published empirical studies of business exchange between local service suppliers and internationally operating tour operators (ref. succeeding section of the paper) with primary emphasis on an African context. Assuming that being exposed to tourism business activities within one’s domestic destination over time could influence the disposition of local entrepreneurs of getting involved, a main distinguishing selection criterion for the cases is the actual range of tourism development and visitations within the actual destinations. A main point of discussion is the actual need of an already existing visitation market at the destination as requirement for have a “favorable”, facilitating environment to ease the participation of local service provides (entrepreneurs) in business exchange relationships. Further points of discussion will the possibilities to accelerate the forming of partner-specific capacities within “unfavorable” participation environment in terms of visitation rates, including the need of support systems for local tourism entrepreneurs as well as regulations from the authorities for this purpose. The issues raised in this paper are assumed to be of great relevance for sustainable tourism business development in destinations within many African countries. The paper contributes to strengthening the basis for discussing and approaching this critical issue by the combination of different theoretical perspectives and empirical illustrations generated from published research.

Theoretical underpinnings

The studies of industrial districts (Brusco, 1989; Priore & Sabel, 1984; Sabel, 1994) demonstrate how regional agglomerations of small firms can be internationally competitive by cooperative production based on specialized functions and not at least by developing and sharing competence to create continuous product development and production improvements. Some of the earlier systematic attempts to compare tourism destinations with the model of industrial districts are Hjalager (2000) and Jackson & Murphy (2002). Hjalager (op cit) discusses the similarities and differences between industrial districts and destinations
and conclusively presents a list of features in tourism destinations that are comparable with those in successful industrial districts, such as the existence of an international market, a fragmented industry structure, a wide vertical interdependence, flexibility and mutual adjustments in the production systems and some proportion of public and semi-public political and institutional involvement. The discouraging factors in this comparison are non-supportive governance structures, the dependency on multinationals, firm’s free-riding behaviour, and the lack of stabilized collaborative structures supporting trust and mutuality (Hjalager, 2000).

A typical dilemma for many tourist destinations with a fragmented local tourism structure, such as in African countries, is that as they, on the one hand, do or could offer quite heterogeneous types of regional tourism products based on their natural, cultural and/or social resources, the lack of systematic cooperative and coordinated actions make them, on the other hand, dependent on external actors, such as tour operators, who are performing the more “intelligent” functions based on their competence, capacities and well established links to international markets (Hjalager, 2000; Jensen, 1996). A main challenge for local tourism companies is thus to create competence and capacities locally for an effective development and exploitation of local resources that can be appreciated further down in the value chain in the international tourism industry and by this also to access necessary complementary resources (Teece, 1992) to capitalize on the local resources (Jensen, 1996). Generally, local resources or assets can be both tradable and non-tradeable (J. B. Barney, Ketcheb Jr., & Wright, 2011), for example culture and the physical environment. Within a tourism context such assets have been denoted as “Destination Capitals” (Sharpley, 2009), that are understood as sets of capitals or assets that can be exploited by a destination. From a resource-based view Barney (1991) claims that “...incumbent firms with a few resources are vulnerable to entry by foreign firms that do possess the necessary resources. Joint venture and alliances with foreign partners may have a role to play in obtaining necessary resources [with reference to Hitt et al. (2000)] …” (p.634). He furthermore argues: “However, the process by which local firms can make themselves attractive to potential foreign partners is less well-understood. Thus, research that details how “hosts” can develop resources attractive to MNCs might be quite valuable” (p. 634).

An important point made within embedded business cluster models (Grannowetter, 1985; Porter, 1998) is the influence of physical distance between business partners. The possibilities of frequent face-to-face contact between actors within geographical areas offer opportunities for mutual learning and for development of trust, and the existence of social ties between persons in region form an embedding social network structure (Granovetter, 1985). Asheim (2001) points out the importance of the “...non-economic factors, such as history, culture and institutions (i.e. constituting the social capital of a society) for economic development, and of innovations as a socially embedding process...” (Asheim, 2001, pp.39).

This approach links territoriality to economics by the focus on learning as a localised process. The emphasis on non-economic factors and local learning for territorial industry development are of particular relevance for the development of many African tourism destinations where a great proportions of the attraction resources and their particular characters initially are of a non-economic nature (compare Sharpley, 2009).

The question of how local tourism firms can make themselves attractive to foreign partners (Barney, 1991), such as global tour operators, has also been discussed within the framework of tourism supply chain management (Jensen, 2015; Zhang, Song, & Huang, 2009), including within an African context (for example Cloquet, (2013) and Jensen (2009). This topic includes the criteria by which tour operators select local service suppliers, the role the service suppliers play in joint business activities and what type of relationship they develop. These conditions have an important influence on the way local tourism destinations, such as in African countries, are involved in the local tourism business development in their own regions. These questions are thus of great relevance for local tourism business development and are included as central elements in the discussions in this paper.
Research problems

Based on the problems previously described and on the theoretical perspectives presented, two basic questions can be formulated:

- How can local firms make themselves attractive to potential foreign partners?
- How can the conditions within the “hosts destination” possibly have an influence on the dispositions among international tour operators to work actively with local tourism firms/entrepreneurs?

In this paper, the approach to and the illumination of these questions rely mainly on illustrations from empirical findings within five former, published case studies adequate for African destination contexts.

The cases

The 5 main reference studies/contexts presented (with brief tourism structural characters) are:

- Madagascar (incoming tour operators and local service suppliers) (Jensen, 2010): Less developed tourism, roundtrip tourism structure, limited participation of local tourism firms in business exchange with national and international tour operators.
- Gabon (Cloquet, 2013): Less developed tourism, limited participation of local tourism firms.
- Phuket (Thailand) (Kontogeorgopoulos, 2004): Very strongly developed tourism generated by global mass tour operators and geographical tourism concentration, considerable cooperation with global tour operators (some degree of “symbiosis”).
- Gilgit (Pakistan /Norway) (Arif, 2014): Extremely poorly developed tourism, and very considerable hesitation among foreign tour operators to be involved with local tourism firms.

The cases will be described in more detail in the main paper.

Briefly, the cases demonstrate two quite different types of contextual conditions linked to the stage and level of tourism development (compare the Destination Life Cycle model, (Butler, 1980)). As the cases of Phuket and The Gambia represent a situation of an already high level of tourism development and visitation numbers, the cases of Madagascar, Gabon and Gilgit (Pakistan) represent all over a situation of a quite limited or poor tourism business development level. As there also are additional deviating conditions relative to the different cases, such as type of tourism (for example dominating resort versus roundtrip structure) and geographical (national/regional) levels of exposure, the local conditions pertaining to the tourism development level are in particular focus. This is based on the assumption that such conditions might have a potential effect on the learning environment (Åsheim, 2009) among local tourism entrepreneurs through the varying degrees of continuous exposure to actual tourism business activities and actors operating within their domestic surroundings (Granowetter, 1985).

Discussion and Conclusions

With reference to the cases presented, Phuket and The Gambia could in relative terms be characterized as “successful destinations” with regard to the range of local partner-participation as partners in activities and long-term business exchange with global tourism companies, as Madagascar and Gabon [and Gilgit Baltisan (Pakistan)] could be characterized as “less successful destinations”. One suggested effect of these two types of situations is that these might systematically have led to varying degrees of professionalism.
among local business actors (and organizations). What has been registered (ref. the five case studies) relative to the two categories of cases are that the tour operators’ willingness and actual practices with regard to involving local tourism entrepreneurs in business activities and in entering into long-term cooperative relationships differ considerably. There thus tends to be more willingness to get into exchange relationships with local business actors within destinations on a higher tourism development or exposure level than on a lower level. It nevertheless has to be stressed that this is not a representative study and obviously, a number of other factors not necessarily associated with the tourism development stage will have influence on actual cooperative exchange behavior. The comparison between these heterogeneous cases thus clearly has limitations. Taking this into account it can still be argued that the findings indicate the possibilities of: 1. Accelerating the process of increasing the capacities of local tourism entrepreneurs by appropriate support systems within “less favorable destinations”. 2. Influencing globally operating tour operators to enter into long-term business relationships with local entrepreneurs by creating appropriate incitements and improved conditions for doing that.

This paper takes up this discussion and offers some suggestions of how to deal with challenges within the less favorable destinations linked to lack of opportunities of being exposed to international tourism within one’s own destination. Finally it is assumed that more empirical studies from a larger number of contexts covering more of the supplementary conditions for business exchange between local business actors and globally operating firms are needed in order to address these questions more properly, not at least linked to African destination contexts.

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The Effective use of social media as a competitive advantage in tourism industry
“A case study of Rwanda Rural Tourism Destination Areas”.

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Abstract

This study was about "the effective use of social media as a competitive advantage in tourism industry. A case study of Rwandan Rural tourism Areas ". The study goal was to show the opportunities offered by social media and to highlight that strategy aligned with social media can help Rwandan rural tourism destinations to gain competitive advantages. The study was conducted for achieving the following four research objectives, such as: (i) to explore the use of social media platforms in Rwandan rural areas in terms of preferable platforms, content posted and basis of interaction, (ii) to identify the significance and extent of using social media marketing to drive the rural tourism activities, (iii) to determine best practices in evaluating the effectiveness of social media in Rwandan rural tourism destinations and (iv) to critically analyze, compare and contrast main practices of using social media as a competitive advantage in Rwandan rural tourism destinations. To satisfy the above objectives, both qualitative and quantitave data, primary data was obtained from the 1200 people from Akagera and Kinigi rural tourist destinations in Rwanda was obtained and 200 tourists visiting these areas from different countries. Secondary data supplemented primary data especially from reports and electronic references. The sample size basing on Krejcie and Morgan (1970) was 302 respondents. The findings revealed that the most commonly used social media were Facebook, trip advisor, youtube, and twitter although Facebook was easily applied than the rest. The study further revealed that effective use of social media plays a significant role, not only allowing different destinations a direct interaction with visitors and internet platforms, but also monitoring and evaluation of tourism services in the selected rural areas. A better presence on social media networks can provide Rwandan rural tourism entrepreneurs marketing less expensive, while attracting and involving potential visitors. Social media must be seen and used by Rwandan entrepreneurs not only as a real tourism marketing tool, but also as crucial tool to develop their competitive advantages, by empowering with new technology, in their business strategies. Visitors do not trust anymore to advertisers, they already moved in online sphere. New "active" client requires a personal, smart, creative, interactive approach, including empathy and emotions and wishes to participate in the creation of tourism products and wants to buy based on the relationship. Social media networks can help different rural destinations from Rwanda to remain competitive if adopt an interactive communication by permanently navigating in this new environment. As a result, the Rwandan rural tourism enterprises should be aware of this new power of advertisement world and use social media as a new communication and advertising tool in the most efficient way to provide best service to the guests. The study concluded that using social media is a new media business strategy that can be key to the growth of rural /community tourism which is a neglected niche in tourism industry in Rwanda and that tourism business, agencies, hotels, transportation enterprises should use social media effectively.

Introduction and study context

Tourism is among the industries that are facing huge increasing challenges in competitive environment, thus social media network plays a significant role, not only allowing different destinations a direct interaction with visitors and internet platforms, but also monitoring and evaluation of tourism services. Some of today’s tourism destinations are falling while others are rising due to the innovative nature of their leaders. It is believed that those adopting
social media as a source of marketing are reaping greater results (Alžbeta Kiráľová et al, 2015).

Therefore, social media use has a noteworthy role demand and supply of tourism by allowing tourism destinations especially rural ones to directly network with visitors as well as monitoring them. Tourism destination is a natural entity which has in terms of tourism unique conditions and properties different from other destinations. Visitors develop an image about a destination as well as a set of expectations based on previous experience, word of mouth, press reports, advertising, and common beliefs, before visiting a destination (Baloglu & Brinberg, 1997; Chon, 1992). They form a mental picture of the destination through their reasoned and emotional interpretation (Konecnik, 2004; Kavoura and Bitsani, 2013). An attractive destination reflects the visitors’ feelings and opinions about the destination’s ability to satisfy their needs and deliver individual benefits (Mayo & Jarvis, 1981). Today’s visitors have a large selection of destinations to choose from, but less time to make a buying. The internet has revolutionized the tourism destinations’ business both as a source of information and as a sales channel. Visitors’ reviews, photographs, videos, stories and recommendations, online marketing are bringing destinations closer to the potential visitors regardless of where in the world they are located.

According to Davidson & Maitland, (2000), tourism destinations are territories, geographical areas, such as a country, an island or town tourism operation is taking place through sale of products, services and experiences hence attracting customers to travel there (Leiper, 1995). Destinations are also considered as geographical region understood by visitors as a unique entity where facilities and services are designed to meet the needs of the visitors (Cooper, Fletcher, Gilbert, Shepherd & Wanhill, 1998). Buhalis, (1998) said that tourism products are purchased in advance prior to their use and away from the point of consumption. Visitors, therefore, must rely on descriptions provided by destinations through a variety of forms such as media and other marketing links. Today’s customers are complex in that they trust the family, friends, word of mouth before purchasing products thus they have a variety of service providers to choose from (Constantinides & Fountain, 2008).

As thus, Social media is another avenue rural tourism destinations can use to target these potential and willing to pay-customers (Yadav & Arora, 2012). Social media as a tool of tourism marketing can greatly enhance the destination’s reputation and more and more convince destinations’ marketers that they are an integral part of the marketing strategies. Werthner and Ricci (2004) state that tourism is an industry that is at the forefront of internet use and online transactions. Social media have taken tourism and travel booking experiences to a new level. They enable to visitors communicate with not only the destinations but also with visitors who have recently experienced the destination they are considering to visit.

The influencing power of the social media

Social media users around the world have of recent risen by 18% in 2013 (SMT, 2013) and that nearly 25 % of people in the world now use social media. Stikky Media (2014) found that in 2013 eighty-two million people have downloaded a TripAdvisor application, 2.800 new topics were posted every day to the TripAdvisor forums. TripAdvisor shows more than 150 million reviews from over 60 million members worldwide and has 1.23 billion monthly active users as of December 2013. Facebook states 945 million monthly users of mobile products and total 300 million photos uploads per day. According Nielsen’s Global Survey of Trust in Advertising (Nielsen, 2013) 68% of global respondents indicated that they trusted consumer opinions posted online. The second most-trusted advertising source in 2013 was content and messaging on brand websites with 69% of global respondents. More than half (56%) of respondents trusted consumer-consented email messages, 48% of respondents trusted ads in search engine results, online video ads and ads on social networks, 42% say they trust online banner ads. Forty-five percent of respondents in Nielsen’s survey believed display ads on mobile phones were credible, and 37 percent trusted text ads on mobile phones.
According to Nielsen, 55% of respondents said they were willing to take action at least some of the time based on social network ads, 52% based on online video ads, 50% based on online banner ads, 49% based on display ads on mobile devices, and 45% based on text ads on mobile phones. Online content drives significant business supporting tourist arrivals.

As stated by Juman, (2012), more than 75% of travellers use social networks to find shopping-related deals, while 30% specifically seek out travel-related deals. Fifty-two percent of Facebook users said their travel plans were affected by seeing pictures of trips posted by friends. Fifty-two percent of travellers who had already made travel plans changed some part of their plan after checking out what was being said on social media channels – 33% changed their hotel, 10% changed their resort, 7% changed their destinations, and 5% changed their airlines.

This means that by using social media, visitors can identify and acquire first-hand information from suppliers as well as from friends that is vital in purchase decisions. Information gathering is possible through blogging, experience sharing, story writing that can be published on personal internet site of visitors, the destination’s site, or a networked site. The content of blogs, stories, etc. is generated mainly by visitors who have experienced the destination, so that the information is based on opinion and perceived authentic experience. Recommendation platforms specializing on tourism such as gogobot.com, trippy.com, wanderfly.com, tripit.com, tripwolf.com, tripadvisor.com, and online content is one of the most important sources of information in tourism. Therefore, the advent of smartphones and introduction of 2.0 web applications, the Internet has moved from desktop to each pocket, many people are accessing social media to grow, especially teenagers and young adults who overwhelming identify with the social media profiles. In these days social media networks have been transformed from a tool to make friends in an interactive platform for business (Barnes, N., & Barnes, F. R. 2009). Member's (company's) interaction on social media could offer tremendous opportunity for entrepreneurs to develop competitive advantages in relation to other players in the market. Two or more industries offering the same products or services, and which are in proximity to each other, have become normality in today's competitive environment Acar, (2008).

The study critically looked at rural tourism destinations; social media use, visitor management in tourism and how destinations interact and market their services to far distant customers as well as nearby customers thus destination marketing and destinations remain competitive Sticky Media, (2014). The main goal of this study was to show the opportunities offered by social media and to highlight that strategy aligned with social media can help Rwandan rural tourism destinations such as Akagera and Kinigi rural tourist destinations to gain competitive advantages. More specifically, the research objectives of the study included the following: i) to explore the use of social media platforms in Rwandan rural destinations in terms of preferable platforms, content posted and basis of interaction ii) to identify the significance and extent of use of social media marketing to drive the rural tourism activities iii) to determine best practices in evaluating the effectiveness of social media in Rwandan rural tourism destinations iv) to critically analyze, compare and contrast main practices of using social media as a competitive advantage in Rwandan rural tourism.

**Methodology**

Data gathering techniques employed within this research included both primary and secondary research methods, formulation of interview and questionnaire. Based on theoretical background of competitive advantage and social media, the study collected data through both, quantitative and qualitative approach. Secondary data was collected from different dissemination tools, mainly electronic references and primary data were collected from 1200 people around Akagera and Kinigi rural tourist destinations in Rwanda and 200 tourists visiting these areas from different countries using questionnaires. There was usage of a mix of sampling techniques depending on the required data. Purposive sampling was
applied to key respondents holding specialized knowledge in the field of tourism, social media as well as the capacity and willingness to participate, while convenience sampling was applied to tourists and rural respondents. The total population thus was 1400 and the sample size basing on Krejcie and Morgan (1970) was 302 respondents.

Results and discussion

This study investigated the effective use of social media as a competitive advantage in tourism industry of Rwandan rural tourism destination areas. The most important role of social media was; destination awareness, reaching far distant customers; destination reputation strengthening as a desired destination; targeting new/specific market; increasing number of visitors; creating buzz around the destination; increasing the number of email subscribers; increasing the number of Facebook fan base; changing the position of destination in the mind of visitors; bringing back the destination as a preferred one for visitors.

More particularly, the research examined the opportunities that online users’ social interaction that can provide for business strategy in rural tourism. From the findings, the study concluded that most tourism activities take place in rural areas and is contributing a lot to national economy of Rwanda. The study further revealed that the most commonly used social media were Facebook, trip advisor, tripit.com, you tube, Google; Google Street View; Instagram; Twitter; Flickr; Tencent Weibo; Sina Weibo; Bolgs; Foursquare; Yelp; Android applications; Smartphone applications and twitter although Facebook was easily applied and commonly known than the rest. The other form of social media looks to be too hard to use for rural population and was thus found to be common in urban areas. The effective use of social media plays a significant role, not only allowing different destinations a direct interaction with visitors and internet platforms, but also monitoring and evaluation of tourism services in the selected rural areas.

Based on the results from the survey, almost 80% of Rwandan rural tourism entrepreneurs have an account on social media, which is used only for social reasons, especially on Facebook. Only 20% of them have an official account to connect with customers, partners and competitors for business purposes and consider the usage of social media as a useful tool for their business. Unfortunately, only 5 have heard about Tripadvisor. The 20% of them that have an official account spend no more than 2 hours per week to connect with customers, partners and competitors for business purposes, which means less than 20 minutes per day. The most often social media network used to connect with customers, partners and competitors is Facebook and Twitter is the second one, some of them use YouTube to post their videos. Tripadvisor is almost unknown in Rwandan rural areas and that those that use business social media accounts, primarily wants to see what others are saying. Only 4 of them post information. Only 20% of the respondents stated that sometimes they access social media to get information about services offered by the competitors.

From the findings, we can see that the respondents do not see the benefits of using social media in their business strategy, but the interest in this field is increasing. Only 6% of the investigated Rwandan rural tourism destinations and establishments have special respondent person or responsible department for communication through social media, because entrepreneurs and managers do not perceive social networking as a tool that can quickly and efficiently present the uniqueness and quality of services provided. Based on the results from the survey, one can determine that the respondents are not fully aware about the importance of social media interaction as majority of them do not understand how to gain competitive advantage through social media interaction. Unlike, in countries like Austria, Switzerland, France, Germany etc., the awareness of the potential of social media networks is somewhere close to 100%. The entrepreneurs and managers in these countries have understood that generation Y is becoming increasingly relevant for business. Travel blogs as Trip Advisor are sources of information increasingly popular in the countries listed above. Many travel blogs belong to anonymous bloggers, who does not work in the hospitality sector.
industry, but managers of tourist establishments cooperate with them to promote services for closer ties with customers and to capture that information from noise, which can become a real competitive advantage.

Some of the participants argued that they interact daily on social media platforms and uploads content to drive their key brand differentiators and brand personality through social media. They said that interaction via social media depends on seasonality, since it will be useless to overwhelm the clients with irrelevant content. To reach the local market, content posted include; tourism photos, food and beverage promotions, photos of food displays, special rates on weekend breaks, upcoming events and initiatives on Facebook, which result in a high response rate. In contrast, destination news updates, hotel renovations, local events, local produce and local talent are continuously promoted on social media platforms, mainly targeting the urban as well as international market.

**Conclusion**

Rural tourism destinations using social media in business are believed to gain more competitive success than others. A better presence on social media networks can provide Rwandan rural tourism entrepreneurs marketing less expensive, while attracting and involving potential visitors. Social media must be seen and used by Rwandan entrepreneurs not only as a real tourism marketing tool, but also as crucial tool to develop their competitive advantages, by empowering with new technology, in their business strategies. Social media networks can help different rural destinations from Rwanda to remain competitive if adopt an interactive communication by permanently navigating in this new environment. As a result, the Rwandan rural tourism enterprises should be aware of this new power of advertisement world and use social media as a new communication and advertising tool in the most efficient way to provide best service to the guests.

**References**


Air transport and its impact on the tourism industry in Rwanda: Case of Rwandair

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Introduction and background

Tourism is the movement of people between places for purposes such as exploring new places, novelty seeking, and getting to know different cultures and people as thus transport has been an integral part of the tourism industry as it links tourists with various tourist attractions. There is also a general agreement that tourism expands more when there are better transportation systems. (Hall & Hall, 1995; Osborne, Segal, & Hall, 1997). The United Nations world Tourism Organization estimates that tourism contributes more than 75 million direct jobs worldwide as well as indirect employment opportunities to communities and offers women and youth fast entry into the workforce (UNWTO, 2012). Over the last ten years, tourism in Rwanda has recorded significant growth potential, with the industry’s contribution to the country’s GDP growing at a steady rate (Meleddu, 2014). The industry’s contribution to national output (GDP) has shown a steady increase from 0.5% in 1995 to 17.2% in 2010 (Ndahimana, Musonera, & Weber, 2013). According to recently released figures, the industry today is the number one foreign exchange earner for Rwanda, overtaking agriculture, formerly the country’s leading export sector (E Nsabimana & Spencer, 2013; Varhela, 2013). The tourism industry plays a vital role in the social, economic and environmental development of many countries including Rwanda the home to a huge diverse population of fauna and flora as well as the rich history and culture (Nsabimana, 2010; Ryan, et al, 2009; Hall & Hall, 1995).

The country was identified at the World Investment Conference in Geneva (WAIPA, 2005) as one of the countries in East Africa with a significant potential for developing tourism although it is landlocked and has limited resources unlike most African countries. Upon this basis, the government of Rwanda in a way of reducing this gap, identified tourism to provide the best alternative for economic development as it can contribute to poverty reduction, create jobs as well as contributing to the national income (E Nsabimana & Spencer, 2013; Varhela, 2013). However, the tourism industry can only operate with the availability of other tourism essentials such as transportation, accommodation, entertainment, food and so on (Emmanuel Nsabimana, 2010). It is also clear that, tourism cannot be developed without a functioning transportation system as more than 74 percent of international tourists travelling to Rwanda use air transport. This shows how vital the air transportation is for Rwanda and its tourism industry. Therefore, to accommodate the increasing number of tourists while maintaining sustainable mobility at the destination, it is important to encourage a modal shift and improve the efficiency of the transport system. According to (ICAO, 2010; Simpson, 2008) several actions are required to achieve sustainable mobility including encouraging greater efficiency in the transport system as air transport brings tourist and host nation’s culture together and brings several opportunities in a responsible and strategic way as people today “care about the traveling time more than the traveling distance”.

Air transport is the fastest and the most regulated transportation system currently transporting more than 3.1 billion people and generating about 58.1 million jobs. It has become one of the best and most popular transportation for long-distance travel in the world today. With new technology and development came along fastest jet planes and aircrafts, that allowed traveling faster than ever. Air transport makes it possible to reach some of the world’s remote places and helps to grow tourism industry and economy of the developing country like Rwanda (ICAO, 2010). The expansion in air transport has resulted into uncovering many untouched and non-popular areas (such as Kinigi sector the home to the gorilla in the volcanoes) to non-Rwandans thus leading to its development when several
tourists visited and continue to visit it on addition to other touristic products in the country like Nyungwe NP, Akagera NP, among others (RDB, 2014). Now the travelers can explore new areas and long distance travel in short time especially those who want to arrive at destinations quickly (Fletcher, Fyall, Gilbert, & Wanhill, 2013). However, despite of the benefits that air transport brings to the economy, few studies have been undertaken specially on the impacts air transport has on tourism development in Rwanda. For instance the World Bank report of 2014 indicated that 626,925 people were carried in Rwanda via air transport (Shackley, 1995; world bank, 2014). Therefore, RwandAir is the flag carrier of Rwanda operating domestic and international services to East Africa and beyond, the Middle East and currently serves 18 destinations with her company slogan “Fly our dream to the heart of Africa” (RURATA, 2014). In 2015, RwandAir carried 600,000 passengers including tourists who came to visit Rwanda’s natural and cultural aspects and it was the same year it became IATA member. During the recently held tourism expo in Uganda, Rwandair was awarded the best airline in the region for the year 2016 as seen in the appendix2. Therefore, the study explored the contribution of air transport to tourism development in Rwanda using the national career as case study with the following study objectives; (i) to identify the contribution of air transport to the development of tourism industry in Rwanda; (ii) to establish the challenges facing air transport sector in Rwanda and the (iii) to propose strategic measures to improve air transport in Rwanda.

The study context

Air transport refers to a method of transport by which passengers, mail, and cargo are conveyed by air. The chief advantage of this method is the considerable amount of time saved because of the high speed of the flight (Bieber & Wittmer, 2006; ICAO, 2010). It supports the tourism industry development. RwandAir, the national airline of the Republic of Rwanda, has garnered a lot of attention in the past 3 years since 2009 (ICAO, 2010). So much that the airline has earned the proud moniker of “the Fastest Growing Airline in Africa” (Yan-jun, 2010). Since 2009, RwandAir built a reputation of being a time-keeper and offering affordable fare prices to most capital cities in eastern Africa while operating a young, state-of-the-art fleet. Passenger numbers would double each year as the airline acquired new aircraft and opened new destinations. Today the airline operates a fleet composed of four Boeing 737 NG series, two CRJ-900 NextGen and one Dash-8 and serves all major cities in the Africa and Dubai the only destination out of the continent (ICAO, 2010; Rwunguko, 2015). Air transportation system has been developing, and growing with airlines operating from many countries around the globe (Nkongoli, 2015; INFRASTRUCTURE, 2009; SITA, 1995). These kinds of provisions of the air service agreements provide over 5.2 million seats on air transportation to or from Rwanda, about 75 percent of international tourist travel to Rwanda through air transportation. This high number of traveling tourists suggests that the air transportation is one of the most important parts of Rwanda’s tourism industry (Bieber & Wittmer, 2006; Henninger, 2009; IATA, 2009; ICAO, 2010). Today, Rwanda receives tourists using air transportation from India, France, Belgium, China, USA, United Kingdom, Germany, Uganda, DRC, and other countries (ICAO, 2010; INFRASTRUCTURE, 2009). The other airlines operating in Rwanda include; Air Burundi, Brussels Airlines; Coastal Aviation; Ethiopian Airline; Kenya Airways, KLM, Qatar Airways, and the Cargo Airlines (INFRASTRUCTURE, 2009; PLC, 2015). Government of Rwanda has started a policy of providing instant arrival visa up to maximum of 30 days at the Airport after the payment. However the duration can be extended later at the tourist ministry in need. This kind of service will promote and increase the international tourist arrival and air traffic to Rwanda. Rwanda has an incredible environment that makes it huge potential for tourism development but due to the geographical difficulties, construction of road transportation and railway becomes very difficult and costly. In that situation air transportation is the only option for means of transportation (Henninger, 2009; Sitaula, 2010).

Rwanda’s tourism offers both artificial/cultural and natural attractions. However, it can only operate efficiently with the availability of other tourism essentials such as transportation, accommodation, entertainment, food and so on. It is also clear that, tourism cannot be
developed without a functioning transportation system as more than 75 percent of international tourists travelling to Rwanda choose air transportation. (IATA, 2009; ICAO, 2010; SITA, 1995). This shows how vital the air transportation is for Rwanda and its tourism industry (Filimonau et al., 2014; Higham, Cohen, & Cavaliere, 2014; Varley, 2005). For the developing country like Rwanda, transportation plays a very important role in its development as Rwanda is landlocked and therefore it needs all types of transport systems to operate efficiently and a well-developed and managed transportation system is backbone of host country for its tourism development (RURA, 2014) as well as for the prosperity of Africa as it opens up business opportunities across borders. “Africa has about 16 landlocked countries, including Rwanda, and air transport is a key element in unlocking these countries”. (Filimonau et al., 2014). Air transportation is vital for tourism as more than a half of total international tourists and around 35 per cent of goods of international trade are transported via air transportation due to its being fast, safe and reliable (IATA, 2009; ICAO, 2010). Therefore, to accommodate the increasing number of tourists while maintaining sustainable mobility at the destination, it is important to encourage a modal shift and improve the efficiency of the transport system (Filimonau, Dickinson, & Robbins, 2014; Henninger, 2009; INFRASTRUCTURE, 2009).

The methodology and data

The study used cross sectional survey to establish the contribution of air transport to tourism development in Rwanda. The study used both the qualitative and quantitative approaches to gather data for the study. The study used closed ended questionnaires, structured interview as well as document review. Purposive sampling was used on the key managers of both Rwandair and RDB. The study targeted 700 international tourists and 200 domestic tourists (conveniently selected), as well as structured interview with 30 senior officers of RwandAir and 20 senior officers of RDB, hence making the total population to be 950 respondents. The study sample size was 274 respondents determined using the Krejcie and Morgan (1970). However, after validating the returned questionnaires, only 240 questionnaires were found to be valid.

The results and discussion

The major contribution of air transport to tourism were; RwandAir carries the country’s tourists in the country, markets tourism outside Rwanda while carrying out business, air transport allows travelers to experience different natural, social and cultural aspects of Rwanda with greater value, It opens up business opportunities across borders by bringing employment opportunities in a responsible and strategic way, it provides jobs to a spectrum of people like (tourism students, guides, security, pilots, engineers, transport officers etc;) and last but not the least, RwandAir provides a convenient, quick and safe way to get into the country. However, RwandAir like any other airline player, face a lot of challenges while carrying out its operations both in and outside Rwanda. Most challenges accrue from within the country although competition and experience are others affecting operations. Therefore, such challenges were asked from respondents and they pointed out expensive jets, limited funding, skills gap in aviation sector where Rwanda has to import skills, terrorism in neighboring countries like Kenya and DRC, geographical location/landlockedness, changing oil prices, Inadequate infrastructure and to a great extent, lack of safety compliance. The above factors have affected not only RwandAir, but the tourism industry in general thus some customers are becoming selective to certain destinations to go while leaving others. The strategies to improve on air transport operations in Rwanda included; benchmarking best airlines, more funding to air transport industry by government, skills enhancement like training local pilots and engineers, Improved airport infrastructure in Rwanda e.g. at Kigali international airport and other domestic airports, oil and energy negotiations with oil producing countries, space agreements so that RwandAir can fly to other countries with ease. By implementing the above strategies and many others, the air transport will propel to greater heights thus increasing its contribution to the tourism industry in Rwanda.
Conclusions

At the end of this study, the researchers concluded that air transport plays an important role in developing tourism in Rwanda and that it should be given an upper hand by government and private players so that it continues to bring more benefits to the tourism and hospitality sector in Rwanda. The findings of the present research, after being analyzed and interpreted, pressed the researchers to formulate the following recommendations: Opening up new domestic air ports in the country as well as maintaining the existing ones to suit international standards, forming pattern ships between government and private sector in developing air transport in Rwanda, reducing air ticket prices for incoming tourists to the country, increased funding from government to RwandAir, more oil and energy negotiations to reduce on the variable and fixed costs of the airline, improved airport infrastructure especially at Kigali international airport, skills enhancement like training local pilots and space agreements so that Rwanda air can fly to other countries. The researchers cannot confirm that they fully studied all component of the present study, that's why it's the great opportunity of the researcher to propose the future researchers to study air transport operations and customer satisfaction in Rwanda as well as the role of road transport in tourism development in Rwanda.

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The attitude of Rwandans towards domestic travel in their country Case of Western Province

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Introduction and background

Tourism is one of the world’s fastest growing sector and largest employer earning billion dollars annually by attracting a billion of people from one destination to another. It is expected to reach to 1.56 billion by 2020, with the largest rate of increase in developing countries including Rwanda. It is expected to provide more than 251.6 million direct and indirect jobs by 2020. The International tourism receipts grew to US$1,260 billion in 2015, corresponding to an increase in real terms of 4.4% from 2014 (WTO, 2016). There were 1.186 billion international tourist arrivals worldwide, with a growth rate of 5% as compared to 1.133 billion in 2014 (UNWTO, 2016). The Americas received 193 million international in 2015, an increase of 6.0% over 2014 while Asia and the Pacific received 279 million international tourists in 2015 an increase of 6.0% over 2014. In 2015, there were over 608 million international tourist arrivals to Europe, an increase of 5.0% over 2014 while Africa received 53 million international tourists, a decrease of 3% from 2014. As thus, Rwanda has identified tourism as a priority sector to achieve the development goals as set out in Vision 2020. Over the last 4 years, the industry has witnessed rapid growth and performance thus making it the highest foreign exchange earner. This is due to reforms by government such as targeting a high-end traveller and tourists through its MICE tourism marketing strategy (RDB, 2013). However, what is worrying is that much of Rwanda's tourism revenue is mainly from international travellers yet it is known that countries with a weak domestic tourism sector are less able to withstand the impact of international breakdown.

Many developed economies have made domestic travel a priority to the extent that policies are geared at promoting domestic travel as their nationals bring more tourism earnings than visitors from outside. For example 1.2 billion Americans travelled within their country in 2014 than outside America (Department of Commerce, 2016); also approximately 705 million domestic tourists visited different states of India in 2010 than outside India, while 84.5 million tourists visited France in 2015 than outside (UNWTO, 2015). However, when it came to Africa, only 56 million tourists were received in 2015 which is generally low compared to other continents. In Rwanda where the study was carried out, only 23% of the Rwandan population was involved in domestic tourism while 77% were foreigners which is a big gap as far as tourism development is concerned (RDB, 2015). Therefore, Rwanda, which is targeting $860 million in tourism revenue, should put more efforts in promoting domestic tourism given its many advantages like developing remote regions, supporting commercial accommodation; contributing to regional economies, environmental sustainability, supporting seasonality and business success; thus having initiatives that encourage Rwandans to visit and enjoy the various tourist attractions across the country is the way to go for Rwanda (Joseph Oindo, The New Times, April 27, 2016). However, the several interviews held with local populace and leaders attributed the low level of domestic tourists in Rwanda to “attitude held by of most citizens” such as; tourism is a luxury activity, it is for the rich, it is for bazungus (white people), tourism is for the educated, others have money but not motivated. In line with this, the industry regulator (RDB) tried to focus its efforts of promoting domestic travel in 2011, but despite the above efforts, on addition to Rwanda being an ideal tourism destination with different amazing tourism attractions, there is still low number of local tourists visiting various destinations and hence the beauty of the country is left to foreigners to tell the best story of the country. For instance Domestic travel spending generated 18.9% of direct Travel & Tourism GDP in 2014 compared with 81.1% for visitor exports (ie foreign visitor spending or international tourism receipts). Domestic travel spending grew by 10.8%
in 2015 to RWF64.9bn, and is expected to rise by 9.0% pa to RWF153.3bn in 2025. Domestic tourism brought in 64.9rwf bn than 267.6 Rw bn by foreign visitors (WTTC, 2015 p.16). It was against this background that the interest to study the attitude of Rwandans towards domestic tourism was developed.

The context

Domestic tourism

Domestic tourist is defined as any person or resident of a country visiting his own country or traveling to a place within his country other than his usual residence for a period of not less than 24 hours or one night but less than one year for the purposes of recreation, leisure, holidays, sport, business, meetings, conventions, study, visiting friends or relatives, health, mission work or religion (Chadwick, 1994). However, few studies have been conducted to analyse domestic tourism performance (Bigano et al., 2007b). According to Rogerson and Zoleka (2005), the lack of research is partly a result of the emphasis accorded by national governments and policy makers to the foreign exchange earnings derived from international tourism flows (Scheyvens, 2002) hence giving less attention to domestic tourism as it is often regarded a second class domain yet domestic tourism is a very big business according to Pearce (1995). The World Tourism Organization, (UNWTO, 2013) supports Pearce when they estimate domestic tourism to be ten times greater in volume than international tourism for instance in USA, most US tourists never leave their country and their numbers are far bigger than international tourists (Department of Commerce, 2015). The number of domestic tourists within China exceeds that of international tourists (WTTC 2006a, National Bureau of Statistics of China 2007).

Benchmarks for domestic tourism development

China

The Chinese domestic tourism has dramatically developed in recent years according to Zhang Wen (1997:565) when the state leadership embarked on overrole national development (by revising the economic and physical conditions). Policy evolution has followed general economic and political trends. The policy changes, incentives, product development (for example budget hotels and transport facilities, especially railways), specific markets (families, young travellers), and specific products (rural, cultural event, frontier tourism) have all been oriented in the context of the global financial crisis and its consequent effect on the Chinese economy (UNWTO, 2015). China decided on a path of stimulating domestic consumption and domestic tourism has been given top priority among all the tourism markets since 2008 (Gormsen, 1996, Qiao, 1996, Zhang, 1997, Cai and Knutson, 1998, Wu et al.; 2000). According to the China domestic tourism sample survey as cited in Zhang Wen, (1997), the number of tourists taking part in package tours was 8.2 million in 1993; while 2 years later in 1995, the number jumped to 34.65 million, representing an annual average increase of 105.56 per cent and the number of domestic tourists reached 1.2 billion in 2015 (China National Tourism Administration, 2016). Such figures indicate three important developments; First, China’s tourist market is developing in a healthy direction, second, the three major sectors of the travel industry, namely, transportation, accommodation and travel agency service, have entered a stage of coordinated development, and third, there is a great potential market for domestic organized tourism (China National Tourism Administration, 2016). In early 1990s, the Chinese government started a nationwide holiday system stipulating that each employee would be granted a 7-15 annual leave. In 1994, 5 day work week was gradually implemented throughout the country. These stipulations enabled the Chinese citizens to have more time for travel and weekend outings which is used for domestic travel in china (Wen, 1997). The result is that many Chinese tourists visit destinations which are closer to their homes. According to Wu et al. (2000), China’s fast growth of domestic tourism is mainly attributed to the growth of income per capita of Chinese citizens, a great marketing potential, innovations and creativity, strong
state macro control, the solid foundation of a fast growing economy and social stability, the increase of leisure time, and the structural adjustment of China's national economy (ibid, p.570).

Kenya

The Kenya Government in recognition of the importance of domestic tourism led to the formation of the Domestic Tourism Council (DTC) in 1984. The DTC is charged with the responsibility of promoting domestic tourism in Kenya. The membership of the council is drawn from both government and the private sector. This is to create public awareness about tourism and to encourage greater travel within the country (Kenya 1993:174). Other promotional activities include using the mass media, and providing information to young people through schools, colleges, and even religious organization. Domestic tourism is also encouraged through reduction of hotel rates for local people. The present policy of accommodation establishments such as hotel and tented camps is to offer concessionary rates for Kenyans during the so-called low season (April-June). Kenyan residents could get concessions 40-50 per cent below normal rates that even budget hotels reduced rates throughout the year (Sinclair 1990:24 as cited in Sindiga, 1996, p. 22). The result is increased domestic tourism with holiday visits made by some Kenyans to parks, reserves and the coast as well as elsewhere to visit friends and relatives (UNWTO, 2012). Several tours are organised for schools and youth organization to take advantages of group tours. The Wildlife Clubs of Kenya (WCK) membership comprise of student clubs with and adult associate. The student members come from all over the country and attend secondary schools, colleges, and universities (Sindiga, 1996, p.24). The students travel a great deal, especial to national parks and reserves where they combine such activities as field natural history studies, bird walks, nature trails, and animal field identifications (Nguli, 1986). The WCK has established centers at Langata in Nairobi, Nakuru. Nanyuki, and each with hostels where members can sleep or pitch their tents at subsidized price. They can then visit neighboring national parks where they enter free of charge on account of their membership in the WCK. In this way, the youth are able to participate in domestic tourism at relatively low cost. It is expected that the tourism and conservation ethic inculcated in such young people will carry forth into their adult years, and this would foster domestic tourism (Kenya 1994:193).

Methodology and data

The study was based on data collected in Kinigi sector of Musanze district in Western province of Rwanda from June 2016 to December 2016. The research design was cross sectional employing both quantitative and qualitative design. The study population comprised of total households of Kinigi sector in Western province of Rwanda. According to NISR (2012) housing census report, Kinigi sector has approximately 2,779 households. We conducted guided interview with VNP Chief Park Warden, Manager-VNP, RDB staff, Musanze caves leaders, hotel managers, tour operators, community leaders, district administrative officers, park employees, Tourists at VNP while the questionnaire was used to randomly selected respondents. The sample of 338 was selected using the Krejcie and Morgan,(1970) as attached in appendices 2. While paying special attention to the possible low literacy rate in the study area, questionnaires for this study were written in English, but were translated and asked in Kinyarwanda. Data was analysed by use of descriptive statistics.

Results and discussion

The factors leading to low volume of domestic tourism in Rwanda were; attitude, poverty, expensive tourism products, lack of awareness about the importance of domestic tourism, and low motivation to travel among others. The impact of domestic tourism were; an alternative to reduced international tourism; ability to develop regions and their economies, multiplier effect at the destination, supports growth of physical investments, transport
systems, local businesses, commercial accommodation, and development of protected areas, help in discovering and launching new destinations, and lastly domestic tourism supports seasonality and business success during off season. The strategies that can be undertaken to motivate and encourage domestic tourism in Rwanda are; reduced tourism prices; improving marketing and introducing DTC in Rwanda; carrying out an inventory on lesser known attractions, introducing tourism education, provision of incentive packages to local tour operators by RDB, sensitizing host communities, and involvement of local communities.

Conclusion

The study focused on attitude of Rwandans towards domestic tourism. It was discovered by the study that majority of Rwandans have a low willingness to travel due to their attitudes. This has resulted to low volume of domestic tourists in Rwanda yet DT is the back born of many developed economies.

Recommendations

Rwanda should benchmark successful destinations mentioned above as regards domestic tourism promotion; revision of entrance fees to enable local tourists visit; establish Domestic Tourism Programmes in the country. These may take the form of; setting up of school travel clubs, develop signage at major highways, preparation of an inventory on lesser known attractions in all the Provinces, compilation of information on religious and cultural events in Rwanda, publication of an accommodation guide, for the benefit of domestic tourists and preparation of a tourist guide map for domestic tourists, training of youth as site guides at major tourist sites to assist the domestic tourists, publication of tourist handbooks for the benefit of domestic tourists.

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Appendix: Kinigi sector location Map-The Location of the Study Area
Elements of choice-making for outdoor event venues in Eldoret, Kenya

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Abstract
The choice of an event venue, if not well thought out, can greatly affect the outcome of the event. Undoubtedly, events of different types are important in life and venue selection is a crucial point of the entire occasion. The aim of this study was to assess elements that influence the choice of outdoor event venues in Eldoret, Kenya. Specifically, to establish how location, facilities and typography elements influence choice of venues. Descriptive research design was adopted and seven event venues purposively selected. The sample size comprised committees planning events and event planners of 116 events executed. Data was collected using questionnaires which was analysed using descriptive statistics. Findings showed that despite different event specifications that would dictate the venue, such as type, size and nature of event, all elements were important in venue choice.

Introduction
Event planners who are experienced know the right venue can make or break a successful event, but site selection is often the most challenging part of planning an event. The smallest oversight during the site selection process can snowball into a catastrophe, causing major disruptions on the day of the event. Consequently the choice of a venue if not well thought of, can greatly affect the outcome of the event hence factors such as number of guests, venue capacity, budget, time of event, facilities, accessibility, environment, surrounding and others need to be put into consideration. An estimation of the number of guests is the first step in determining the suitability of the venue. If the venue capacity is less than the number of guests, it is not possible to compress them to fit in the room as it can be embarrassing if guests are not able to fit. Facilities are also very crucial such as parking, security arrangement, restrictions, utilities and sanitation provisions. Safety and security issues such as fire extinguishers, fire alarms, and emergency escape routes, security personnel, security cameras, first aid kits and power backups like generators are very necessary in an event venue.

Venue restrictions like photography, videography, alcohol, music, dress code, decoration related restrictions like inability to install a structure and lights for decorations or paste or paint anything on the venue wall need to be addressed and considered carefully. Advertising restrictions such as not being allowed to put a banner on the main gate of the venue and restricted cooking in the venue need to be addressed. History of a venue is necessary when choosing an event.

Methods
The study was conducted in seven purposely selected event venues in Eldoret-Kenya, that are ideal for various events. The venues were Sports club, Tiara gardens, Sirikwa Pentecostal, Poa place, Noble, Emmanuel complex and Kenmosa. The research design was descriptive survey design. The sample comprised 116 event planning committee members and event planners identified using snowball sampling technique. Structured questionnaires were used to collect data which was analysed using descriptive statistics and presented using bar charts.
Findings and arguments

Figure 1 shows location factors that influence event venue choice. Accessibility in terms of nearness to town, public transport and within footing distance was ranked highest in choice of venue. Security and safety of the location are crucial in making guests feel safe, secure and free from danger. Capacity was viewed as important especially for large groups of attendees. History of venues influence choice as it gives information on the success or failure of the event hence is a good guide.

Figure 1: Location elements in venue choice
Figure 2 shows facilities factors that influence choice of event venue. From the findings, availability water which symbolizes life was the most important facility in venue choice. Electricity which controls many equipment and gadgets ranging from food preparation to entertainment was as important as kitchen facilities that are used for food preparation were both viewed in equal measure in venue choice. Spacious parking which could provide a feeling of safety followed by communication network were also considered in making venue choice. Notable is the fact that toilet facilities was ranked as the least important facility as compared to the others in this study. This finding could imply the low interest in sanitation.
Figure 3 shows topography measured in terms of the venue ground flatness, clearness, with trees that provide shade, cleanliness and dryness. Cleanliness of the ground in terms of free from loose papers, broken items and general dirt was ranked highest. A clean venue enhances the background of events and enhances mood and appetite of guests. Both flatness and clearness of the ground are important aspects in venue choice. When a ground is flat and clear, tents, chairs, tables and other furniture can easily be arranged unlike in a ground that is uneven which could make balancing of equipment difficult.

Figure 3: Topography of ground

![Bar chart showing agreement levels for topography factors]

Cleanliness of the ground free from weeds, hard grass, stones and other debries that cause accidents and affect enjoyment of an event was viewed as important in venue choice. Dryness of a wedding venue is important for the comfort of guests as a wet venue that hold water creates discomfort especially if there is a lot of mud. Nearness to shades was rated as least important as compared to other factors despite the fact that shades provide extra place for guests incase of inadequate chairs. For example, Kenmosa venue has trees that provide shade where many guests take their lunch seated under trees which means that the shades provided extra space for guests. Shades also provide a place for people to rest and take a break if the function is taking too long.

**Choice of venue**

Kenmosa was the most preferred venue especially for weddings because its secluded and private. Sirikwa Pentecostal was second in choice because of a river that exists in the venue. Poa-place was also ranked highly because of space, manicured gardens and cool environment with all facilities. Noble was favorite for social and corporate events. Sports club was preferred for very large events due to its size and proximity to the highway. Tiara-gardens is preferred for very small events like private weddings. Emmanuel complex could have been ranked last owing to the fact that the venue is small, its in an open place and within a school compound.
Figure 4 shows the aftermath of a good venue choice. Once an event is over, the choice of venue can be evaluated on the basis of the appreciation on the venue in terms of making it easier to achieve set objectives. Complements and making referrals to others about the venue are also factors that imply expectations and satisfaction were achieved of a good choice. In addition no complaints and little or no demands made after the event from the host could all imply a good venue choice.

Figure 4: Evaluation of Venue Choice

Conclusion

Location elements influence choice of event venue as majority of the respondents pointed on the importance of safety, accessibility, history, security and capacity of the venue as being crucial when choosing a venue. Facilities such as water, toilets, parking space, availability of kitchen, electricity and availability of communication network in event venues was vital in choice making. Topography of the ground was also important when choosing an event venue. Elements such as flatness, dryness, clearness, cleanliness as well as the nearness to shades is necessary in choosing a venue. Finally, when evaluating the choice made, elements such as no demands made after accepting the venue, complements received, referrals made and no complaints received could imply good venue choice.
The potential use of ICT in enhancing tourism product in Rwanda

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Abstract

Tourism product development is the process by which the resources of a destination are shaped to meet the requirements of international and domestic customers. This covers everything from man-made facilities or attractions, to activities requiring varying levels of physical input, and organized events such as festivals and conferences. Tourism products are the basis for a destination’s tourism sector operation: unless the tourism product meets the needs and expectations of tourists, the destination cannot realize its full potential. However, only few destinations focus their attention on the development and delivery of the various attractions and activities that make up the tourism product. Rwanda is a destination with a long tourism tradition that is faced with different improvement needs that will help it to increase the attraction power and improve its competitiveness within the sector and its development. The purpose of this study therefore, is to explore how the application of ICT can enhance tourism product in Rwanda. In order to explore how the application of ICT can enhance tourism product, a quantitative approach is adopted. The first step of this study is to carry out a review of extensive literature on the topic of tourism product development, the application of ICT in tourism and potential use in Rwanda. In the travel and tourism industry, a whole system of interrelated computer and communication technologies is being employed. The functionality of computerized reservations systems, teleconferencing, videotex, videos, video brochures, management information systems, airline electronic information systems, electronic funds transfer systems, digital telephone networks, smart cards, satellite printers, mobile communications, e-mail, Internet, etc and the activities performed with these devices will be examined. Based on the results of the literature review, a survey will be employed in order to evaluate and measure the level of product development enabled by these ICT components. After that a focus group interview will also be applied in order to validate the findings. Prior to administering a mass survey, a pilot test will be carried out to test the validity and reliability of measurement instrument. In order to avoid selection bias some screening questions will be adopted to ensure the eligibility of the respondents.

Introduction

The process of globalization and the advent of innovation and communication technologies are changing the business environment of the tourism industry. The global interconnectedness has opened a world of opportunities, but has also brought many challenges to the industry’s actors. There are two most important opportunities for tourism operators: the rapid increase of the demand in the international market (Papatheodorou, 1999; Divisekera, 2003; Song et al., 2000 & 2003; Lim et al., 2002; Seetaram, 2010) and the "reduced distance" with potential customers. Although distances between service providers and their customers have been shorten due to the new technological advances; consumers nowadays have become more sophisticated and demanding (Kotler, 2002; Gabaix & Laibson, 2006; Mills & Law, 2004; Cova & Pace 2006; Compete, 2006; Cooper, 2008; Pantano, 2010). Consumers have access to more choice; implementing more meticulous research concerning destinations and by seeking more guarantees from suppliers (Bolton & Drew, 1991; Murray, 1991; Haub & Trifts, 2000; Teas & Agarwal, 2000; Detior et al, 2003; Chang & Burke, 2007; Chen & Xie, 2008; Wang, 2008; Arussy, 2009)

Competition in the tourism industry has become more complex, influencing the strategic decision making process of tourism operators. The incorporation of IT tools represent opportunities for distribution to overcome traditional network limitations, but also a challenge
for operators (Marcuseen, 2001; Biella & Biella, 2004; Chen & Xie, 2008; Wang, 2008). Enduring competitiveness in this business environment for tourism operators goes beyond the implementation of effective communication with customers. The potential uses of ICT on consumer choice have become increasingly more important to study as technology has provided consumers with a constant stream of information. Information comes from an unlimited number of sources while narrowing the competitive advantage gap between corporations of varying sizes and their brands (Duncan, 2002; Kitchen, 2005; Arussy, 2009). In a market where the internet has become an important platform, tourism products or services must be presented in their full gamut (Scott & Laws, 2006). Uses of ICT play a vital role in the implementation of an integrated policy in the processes of tourism products development.

The Potential use of ICT is also an important element in international positioning of tourism product and has been widely recognized as a source of competitive advantage in the tourism industry (Laws, 2000). Identifying new determinant factors influencing potential use of ICT in the tourism industry is key to the design of strategic destination and product.

**Potential use of ICT**

Effective and high-speed ICT infrastructure and software applications in the tourism and hospitality industry are crucial for tourism development. ICTs allow customer - management relations and supply chain management to be combined into a single source that facilitates a variety of operations - product selection, ordering, fulfillment, tracking, payment and reporting to be performed with one easy-to-use tool. ICTs ultimately cut costs by enabling the provider to be in direct contact with the consumer and also impact employment through the need for required maintenance of ICT equipment. Management within tourism companies use ICTs to undertake a range of tasks that enhance the efficiency of employees in the workplace, notably online reservations.

The development of ICTs has also led to changes in demand and supply. A higher demand for flexible, individualized options and quality of information has personalized leisure and tourism behavior, a consequence of increased ICT use. Through new technology and social and economic ratings (e.g., social media platforms like Facebook, Twitter, blogs) customers have the ability to share information and research ratings on destination, quality of service in hotels and restaurants and environmental and social conditions. Number of hotels (e.g., Marriot Hotels and Serena Hotel, and Resorts) have strengthened their brand image and communicate directly with their customers by posting links to a press release or promoting new package through Twitter, Facebook, Instagram etc.

**E-Tour Operators**

Tour operators need constantly to interact with all their partners, including accommodation and transportation principals, ICTs are also critical for the distribution of tour operators' packages. The introduction of the Internet, Intranets and Extranets as strategic tools has as strategic tool has a number of benefits for tour operators. The co-ordination and exchange of timely information is important because it allows tour operators to co-ordinate activities, to resolve potential problems and to ensure that customer requirements are communicated to all principals delivering the tourism product. Strategically, ICTs play a critical role for tour operators (Buhalís & Costa, 2006).

For example, In Rwanda, Gorilla Tour and Travel allows consumers to alter their tourism package online and to build their own itinerary by making it possible to extend the trip, change accommodation, meal plans and add value – added services such as car rentals, scuba-driving lessons etc.

However, it is quite evident that tour operators will need to shift their focus from the information provision and the reservation mechanism to a strategic role of adding value to
the product and the process. Tour operators will therefore need to re-assess their core values and identify specific market segments that they can satisfy in the future.

E-Travel agencies

ICTs have introduced major improvements in the internal organization of travel agencies. By integrating their back-office (e.g., accounting, commission monitoring, and personnel) and front Office (customers’ history, itinerary development, ticketing and communication with suppliers) functions, travel agencies have achieved significant synergies, efficiencies and cost savings. As transactions made in branch offices can automatically be reported back to the head office, tighter financial control can be achieved (Buhalis & Costa, 2006).

In addition, transactions provide invaluable marketing research data, which can almost instantly report market movements and aid tactical decisions. At the individual level, CRM systems support agencies in tracking the activity of their efficiency, control and competitiveness. Storing information in data warehouse can also help them to develop proactive marketing tools in order to target individual customers with specialized products, thereby increasing the value added services offered to each customer, and to defend themselves against disintermediation. Hence, agencies need to utilize updated ICT on par with the suppliers and customers usage (Buhalis & Costa, 2006).

E-Destinations

Destination management System (DMS) have been used to integrate the entire tourism supply at the destination. Their contribution to strategic management and marketing is demonstrated by their ability to integrate all stakeholders at destinations and to reach global market. DMS offering innovative information and sometimes facilitating reservations. Destination Integrated Computerized Information Reservation Management Systems (DICIRMS) address entire range of needs and services required by both tourism enterprise and consumers for specific destinations. DICRIMS provide the infostructure for communications and business processes between all stake holders, including consumers, principals, distributors and destination marketing organizations (Buhalis & Costa, 2006).

The use of web in enhancing tourism product

The Internet represents an embedded high-quality system capable of influencing prices, consumer preferences, behavior and brands (Singer, 2002). Technology plays a significant role in the tourism industry, both as a facilitator of growth, and as an enabling factor to increase and ensure positive experiences for the tourist (Stipanuk, 2001). If we focus on technologies for ICT, this relationship becomes even more pronounced; in fact the diffusion of ICT in tourism has affected both communication and distribution (Martini, 2000). The Internet and computer network have been added to the business model as a support, communication and sales tools of tourism products (Franch, 1999). A complex product such as tourism can be represented on a website where its multi-media and hyper-textual potential can be fully exploited. Tourists who have visited a website to obtain information or to make reservations online can also be put on an e-mail list, and subsequently, be sent additional offers or information by means of more traditional media. This process enables the creating of a lasting relationship with the customer (Go, 1992). At the same time, the advent and development of automated reservation systems, such as CRS (Computer Reservation System), and later, GDS (Global Distribution System) have rendered the supply of tourism services global (Sheldon, 1997; Furini, 2001; Benjamin & Wigand, 1995); thus, completely changing the structure of distribution channel (Werthner & Klein, 2007). Considering the above, technologies provide an incentive to generate relationships between businesses, allowing the creation of expanded network which can pool information about the market; this also enables supply and demand needs to overlap (Fesenmaier, 1999; Boardman, 2005). Consequently, it cannot be ignored that effective strategy for using the Internet are key element in achieving competitive advantage (Detlor et al., 2003). Steady growth that
characterizes the digital segment of travel, one of the most significant on the Web, is in constant growth. Tourists effectuate the purchase prior to the experience itself, so the information search is a critical factor in the purchasing process (Steinfield et al., 2001; Hoffman, 1996). In the light of these considerations, it is evident that the potential success of e-commerce for tourism products is linked to the ability to manage information exchange processes and to particular forms of interactive communication (Camisani Calzolari, 2008). However, the Internet is not just a new communication tool on which to transfer contents previously conveyed by other media, but demands new, appropriate communication and customer relation strategies, because of its contextual product distribution function (see Figure 1).

**Figure 1: Communication and distribution: the internet role**

![Diagram showing communication and distribution roles](image)

Source: Singer et al., (2010).

In today's business environment the Internet is a point of synergy between communication and distribution; planning and developing strategies need to consider the role of the Internet. As we observe in Figure 1, teleshopping and promotional TV/radio messages have a purely communicative role, while, sales assistance and automatic distributors have a purely distribution function; the Internet performs both tasks. Through the different tools, predominance in the objectives is pursued; e.g. the main objective of teleshopping is to provide the customer with terms and information of the product, sales becomes a secondary objective. Clearly, the sale process will be perfected later through telephone contact with the potential customer. Conversely, an employee is mainly focused on product selling but everything he does or says affects the purchase decision, as does the idea that the actual or potential customer has about the "seller" - as representative of company - but also about the product, brand etc. The development and refinement of new technologies and elements to support and protect the potential and current supply market make the internet perfectly able to represent an instrument of communication and distribution. The main difference between the Internet and other "tool" is that communication and distribution are integrated (see Figure 1). Other valuable features the Internet offers to consumers are: easy access and a platform for dialogue at any given time. The Internet is an important tool in the demand and supply dynamics (Atkinson & Coffrey, 2002; Pantano, 2010), while Web 2.0 has become an important component of modern marketing.

The Internet is also a tool for comparing competitors in real time: this is the case of "theme" search engines such as www.prontohotel.it, www.booking.com. The advantage of new technologies is to achieve an integration of key marketing levers in the face of greater flexibility and lower costs which translate into increased efficiency and effectiveness for the company. Undoubtedly, the opportunity for integration is not the only advantage given by the Internet which also contributes to reaching higher levels of integration. The map in Figure 2, illustrates ways and means that enable the integration between distribution and
communication processes. Figure 2 also shows the scale of integration defined from the first rectangle representing the area of "no integration" where traditional media are placed to the area of "total integration" referring to portals for e-commerce. In that light, we can suggest that the Internet as a point of synergy, enabling firms to move into a field of higher effectiveness and efficiency, the new technologies create a process of integration with the benefit of more efficient and effective policies that tend to raise the perceived value of tourism product offering and accordingly, to create new sources of competitive advantage.

**Figure 2: Map of vehicles-means of distribution and communication**

![Diagram](source)

Source: Singer et al., (2010).

The role of the Internet as point of synergy is illustrated in the Figure 3, where four areas have been identified. The first is the "interaction/sharing" area. In this area, we find tools that enable the interaction and sharing only of operational policies. For instance, trade fairs enable different tools to share space and costs to advertise your products, but their primary aim is not to implement actual integration. The second area, which of "no synergy", is characterized by the lack of interaction and sharing of two levers – an example is advertising in newspapers. The third area of "integration" refers to any tool which, while allowing for integration between communication and distribution, does not guarantee operational interaction and sharing. This is a complex situation, because integration does not obviate operational interaction and sharing. The last area is defined as "full synergy", the internet serves as point of synergy between the two operational policies: operational sharing and operational policies integration. In this area, the Internet is the "perfect" amalgamation between distribution and communication. The tools (e-mail, chat, wiki) represent a mode used by different firms in the tourism chain.
Figure 3: Internet as Point of synergy

Source: Singer et al., (2010).

Need for the study

The tourism industry in Rwanda is in growth stage and has a high potentiality to grow and equipped with the number of tourist destinations to attract domestic and international tourists. After emergence of low cost aircraft services, Rwanda has more growth potential. However, the satisfaction level of the tourist is not high in terms of ICT in Rwanda.

According to Rwanda Tourism Policy (2009), Tourism has been identified as a priority sector to achieve Rwanda’s development goals as set out in Vision 2020. With the application of previous tourism policies, the country has been able to make significant progress in developing and managing its tourism sector in recent years. In 2008, the number of foreign visitors to Rwanda reached just under one million from about 826,000 in 2007, an increase of 30 per cent. Estimates indicate that tourism revenues significantly increased between 2007 and 2008, from $138 million to $209 million. However, this notable and very fast pace of development of the sector has necessitated a review of the existing tourism policy as well as the creation of an aligned sustainable tourism master plan. Together these documents aim to bring order to the industry with new legislations and improved coordination, as well as to stimulate investment in ICT sector involvement. Specifically, they aim to address a number of constraints and issues that face the tourism industry:

- Over reliance on a single tourism product
- International awareness and perceptions of Rwanda not widely based on tourism
- Low capacity and under-skilled human resources
- Expensive and difficult to access from key tourism source markets as a destination

Hence, there is a need to study the potential use of ICT in enhancing tourism product in Rwanda.
Objectives

i. To identify the potential use of ICT in tourism product development;
ii. To find the gaps in level of usage of ICT in tourism product development;
iii. To analyze the opinion of industry top executives towards ICTs in tourism product development; and
iv. To suggest measures to improve the tourist by implementing ICTs in Tourism.

Research respondents

The research study will contain information collected from respondents of Rwanda Development Board (RDB), Rwanda Convention Bureau (RCB), tourism organizations, travel agents, resorts, and professionals in tourism and travel industry across Rwanda.

Limitation of the study

The respondents are from the industrial employees only;
The respondents are from Rwanda only; and
The study is limited to travel and tourism excluding hospitality industry.

Methodology

To achieve the objectives of the study, the research has been focused on scenario of international tourism trends and role of ICT in tourism by referring UNWTO, OECD, ILO reports, as well as globally reputed standard textbooks and journals.

To identify the gaps in the levels of usage of ICTs in tourism and to analyze the opinion of the managers and to suggest the measures, a five point scale questionnaire will be prepared by understanding the industry literature, observing, understanding and consulting industry experts and professors across Rwanda and the responses will be recorded online and offline using a questionnaire and repeat interviews. Fieldwork in the tourism sector in Rwanda will take place over two principal periods, March 2017 to April 2017 and May 2017. The second period of fieldwork will be important in that it will used to clarify and update tentative results through questionnaires and repeat interviews with firms and policy interviews in order to verify the conclusions of the initial work. These interviews will be looked to explore potential use of ICT in enhancing Tourism product. The responses will be represented in the form of horizontal bar diagrams and pie charts.

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Socio-Demographics and Customer Loyalty in Three, Four and Five Star-Rated Hotels in Nairobi, Kenya

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Abstract

The growth of the hotel industry not only rests on the visiting of new guests but also on the likelihood of the revisit by the same guests. Increased customer loyalty in hotels is one of the most common outcomes expected from relationship marketing efforts. In the current competitive and difficult business environment, loyal customers are vital for the success and continuity of companies. Managers in today’s most successful hotels are aware that internal changes must go along with the understanding of the customers’ characteristics and personal information. Therefore there is need to understand the component of hotel guests to enable management make informed decisions about their guests for purposes of increasing their market share. Tourism and hospitality has been one of the leading industries in Kenya as well as a major contributor toward its economy. The hospitality industry was traditionally more focused on the physical product, but a new customer class is rising, demanding consistent delivery of the brand promise and the experiential dimension. The emerging trend asserts that evaluating customer loyalty should not just be a matter of balance sheet and financial matter but also through understanding the attributes of your customers. Hotels can be described as places where customers stop being travelers and become guests. Understanding customer demographics enables hotel marketers to focus on their marketing strategies for higher profitable results. Therefore hotel managers must learn to listen and learn to provide hospitality to their customers and use this aspect to become highly profitable. The main purpose of this paper was to explore the distinctiveness of hotel guests in three to five star-rated hotels in Nairobi City, Kenya in relation to their loyalty. The demographic characteristics considered in this paper are nationality, age, gender and marital status, level of education, religious affiliation, occupation and monthly income. In measuring the objectives in this paper, the following hypotheses were formulated and tested; that there is no significant relationship between guests’ loyalty to hotels and their gender; that there is no significant relationship between guests’ loyalty to hotels and their level of education; that there is no significant relationship between guests’ loyalty to hotels and their occupation; that there is no significant relationship between guests’ loyalty to hotels and their age and that there is no significant relationship between guests’ loyalty to hotels and their nationality; that there is no significant relationship between guests’ loyalty and income; that there is no significant relationship between guests’ loyalty to hotels and their religious affiliation. The study was undertaken in eighteen selected hotels in Nairobi City Kenya enlisted as most popular. For the purpose of this study, a guest is defined as any individual who is a temporary visitor of either Kenyan or international origin, stays for at least one night in the hotel and spends money for services rendered. The target population of the study was 2622 with a sample size of 384, which comprised of guests aged 18 years and above, male or female who stayed in selected three, four and five star-rated hotels in Nairobi for at least one night. Data were collected mainly through the survey method, with the use of a questionnaire. Primary data on customer loyalty in hotels and on socio-demographic characteristics were obtained from guests of the sampled hotels. Chi-square test of independence was used to explore the relationship between loyalty and guests’ background characteristics and to investigate the relationship between guests’ overall perception of service quality and their background characteristics. This study employed a combination of stratified and systematic sampling techniques to select a sample size for the study. Thus, only checked in guests at the time of visits to the hotels during the period of the fieldwork were sampled. Questionnaires were therefore administered to guests who fell within this category in the selected hotels using their room numbers as study attributes. The
questionnaire was pretested and the appropriate reliability and validity tests were conducted to validate the results empirically. The pre-testing of the instrument enabled the establishment of the internal consistency and reliability of the instrument. A reliability coefficient of 0.977 was achieved. This study employed quantitative methods of analysis, using SPSS for windows version 21.0. Descriptive statistics such as frequencies, percentages and means were calculated for all the variables and used in describing and summarizing the data and other characteristics of the subject matter. Frequencies and percentages were specifically used to explore the socio-demographic characteristics of guests. Chi-square test of independence was used to explore the relationship between loyalty and guests’ background characteristics and to investigate the relationship between guests’ overall perception of service quality and their background characteristics. From the results, majority of customer (68.4%) were professionals and majority two thirds (70%) of the respondents were Kenyans. Over half of the respondents (57.3%) were within the 18-39 age brackets. The study comprised of more males (81%) than females (19%). With regard to religious affiliation, the majority of the respondents (82%) were Christians. Close to 68 per cent of the respondents were married while 28 per cent were never married. Generally, the respondents covered in this study were mostly males between the ages 18 and 39 years, Christians, married, and with university/college education. They were mostly professionals who earned more than Kshs. 50,000 per month. Hypothesis results showed that gender (p=0.054), level of education (p=0.050), religious affiliation (p=0.018), occupation (p=0.000), income (p=0.011) had significant relationships with loyalty of customers and therefore their hypotheses were rejected. However Nationality (p=0.0980) and age (p=0.282) had no significant relationships with loyalty and therefore the hypotheses were accepted. The results of the study can be pertinent in defining an appropriate mix of marketing plan on the part of hotel management. The paper recommends that hotel managers understand and use demographic data of hotel guests in identifying areas that need improvement regarding aspects that influence guests’ loyalty.
Segmenting inbound tourist using destination image: Evidence from Tanzania

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Abstract

Destination image and destination competitiveness are intricately intertwined with the former enhancing the latter. Logically, a good and positive destination image leads into higher destination competitiveness; and destination image is primarily influenced by the information that the tourist obtains from myriad sources. Albeit destination image and tourist information search behavior to have been related, studies that segment the tourist market using the two variables are scant especially in the context of emerging African countries that aim in improving their destination competitiveness. To fill in the knowledge gap, this paper presents a study undertaken to segment inbound tourists to Tanzania using destination image. Destination image in this study is dimensionalized into cognitive and affective images that are commonly employed in destination image analysis.

A self-administered structured questionnaire was conveniently distributed to inbound tourist to Tanzania in two major international airports in Tanzania. The questionnaire captured destination image using a five point Likert type scale while the demographics, sources of travel information, and travel behavior were captured using dichotomy or multiple choice questions. A total of 625 dully filled questionnaires were used for data analyses. A factor-cluster analysis was used in analyzing the data with factor analysis serving in reducing the study items into few dimensions that were subsequently subjected to stepwise cluster analysis. A hierarchical cluster analysis was used to explore the possible numbers of clusters followed by hierarchical cluster analysis (k-means) that confirmed the appropriate number of clusters. A follow up one way ANOVA, t-tests, and Chi-square were used to explore statistical significances between the clusters using travel motives, sources of travel information, demographics and travel behavior.

A three cluster solution was obtained that indicate the presence of statistical significance differences among the clusters with respect to destination image, sources of travel information, travel motivations, demographic and travel behavior variables (Table 1). The three clusters can be arranged on a continuum with cognitive and affective image being the anchors. The first cluster (34.2%) is labeled as ambivalent as it is composed of travelers with neither strong cognitive nor strong affective destination image. The second cluster (9.5%) due to their high affective destination image and average cognitive image is named affective-cognitive travelers compared to the third cluster (56.2%) who are high in cognitive and thus labeled as cognitive travelers. The cognitive cluster (cluster 3) is likely to be females who are motivated to for nature and culture of the destination and traveling as fully package traveler and preferring to use information centres as a source of travel information. The cluster with high affective image (cluster 2) is likely to be older, males and to search for travel information using hotels/restaurants and travel exhibitions and traveling as fully independent traveler. Compared to other clusters, the high cognitive cluster is more likely to start planning and searching for travel information much longer than the other clusters.
Table 1. Cluster analysis results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Overall mean</th>
<th>Stdev.</th>
<th>Cluster 1 (34.2%)</th>
<th>Cluster 2 (9.5%)</th>
<th>Cluster 3 (56.2%)</th>
<th>F value (t value or χ²)</th>
<th>P value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>cognitive DI</td>
<td>4.3952</td>
<td>.69724</td>
<td>3.8842b</td>
<td>3.8616c</td>
<td>4.7970b</td>
<td>205.901</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>affective DI</td>
<td>1.7153</td>
<td>.92641</td>
<td>1.7579c</td>
<td>3.9560b</td>
<td>1.3088c</td>
<td>557.401</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>motivation nature</td>
<td>3.9840</td>
<td>1.15974</td>
<td>3.7690a</td>
<td>3.6533a</td>
<td>4.1727b</td>
<td>9.588</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>motivation culture</td>
<td>3.8154</td>
<td>.92397</td>
<td>3.6275a</td>
<td>3.5449a</td>
<td>3.9751b</td>
<td>11.094</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Used internet</td>
<td>3.9309</td>
<td>1.17764</td>
<td>3.9521a</td>
<td>3.5660b</td>
<td>3.9806a</td>
<td>2.869</td>
<td>.058</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friends and relatives</td>
<td>2.9049</td>
<td>1.38083</td>
<td>3.0054a</td>
<td>3.2075b</td>
<td>2.7935a</td>
<td>2.787</td>
<td>.062</td>
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<tr>
<td>Books and magazines</td>
<td>2.7938</td>
<td>1.37734</td>
<td>2.5615</td>
<td>2.7925</td>
<td>2.9351</td>
<td>4.332</td>
<td>.014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hotels and restaurants</td>
<td>1.9222</td>
<td>1.09200</td>
<td>1.9081a</td>
<td>2.3846b</td>
<td>1.8515a</td>
<td>5.400</td>
<td>.005</td>
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<tr>
<td>Information centres</td>
<td>2.0718</td>
<td>1.28013</td>
<td>1.8370a</td>
<td>2.0962a</td>
<td>2.2085b</td>
<td>4.926</td>
<td>.008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advertisements</td>
<td>1.8619</td>
<td>1.08889</td>
<td>1.7826a</td>
<td>2.2075b</td>
<td>1.8497a</td>
<td>3.203</td>
<td>.041</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fairs and exhibitions</td>
<td>1.6370</td>
<td>.97735</td>
<td>1.6066a</td>
<td>2.0600b</td>
<td>1.5863a</td>
<td>5.267</td>
<td>.005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other sources</td>
<td>1.9795</td>
<td>1.40091</td>
<td>2.0444</td>
<td>2.4167</td>
<td>1.8538</td>
<td>1.800</td>
<td>.168</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>35.57</td>
<td>12.353</td>
<td>34.372</td>
<td>41.42b</td>
<td>35.31a</td>
<td>7.054</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender (Males)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>58.4%</td>
<td>64.2%</td>
<td>41.9%</td>
<td>(17.684)</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fully package</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>30.8%</td>
<td>29.4%</td>
<td>37.2%</td>
<td>(11.612)</td>
<td>.020</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Partially package</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>37.8%</td>
<td>25.5%</td>
<td>24.6%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fully independent traveler</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>31.4%</td>
<td>45.1%</td>
<td>38.2%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planning horizon</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within 1 month</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(22.642)</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 to 3 months</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>128</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>More than 3 months</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>172</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results affirm the utility of destination image in segmenting travel markets, with the resulting segments indicating statistical significance among the cluster on travel motives, sources of travel information, demographic, and planning horizon. Furthermore, the results offer theoretical support on cognitive and affective destination image dimensions. Practically, the results provide insights to destination managers on the use of destination image in relation to travel information search, demographics and travel behavior in improving the destination competitiveness. Specifically, destination marketers upon appraising which segments among the three that were identified in the current study can opt to target one or more segments using different marketing strategies. For instance, marketer can try to provide travel information well in advance for the high in cognitive destination image cluster who have high planning horizon in women related communication channels as the group is likely to female. The high in affective destination image can be approached by targeting males who are likely to travel as fully independent travelers through communication channels that are likely to be used by the group like fairs/exhibitions and hotels and restaurants.
An Investigation of the Effects of Existing Resources Potential for Peace Tourism Development in Laikipia County

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Abstract

Kenya’s tourism is an important economic sector. It contributes to approximately 10% of the country’s GDP. However, Kenya’s tourism performance has been overtaken by various issues such as competition for new contenders especially in beach tourism, and security concerns in the recent past. Tourism Act (2012) shows that tourism performance in Kenya has grown steadily from 1960’s and 1980’s. Kenyan tourism relies on wildlife, cultural and agricultural products. However, the growth of tourism has been curtailed by various form of insecurity such as terrorism and rivalry resulting to low tourist traffic in the destinations leading to challenges in this industry. This study sought to look into the effect of existing resources potential for peace tourism development in Laikipia County. Recently in Laikipia County, we have experienced crisis led by pastoralists due to drought, they have trespassed into private and government ranches and reserves for the search of pasture leading to instability and lack of peace & cohesion in the tourism industry. Scruple for the natural resource is likely to contribute to a big challenge to the growth of this industry. The researcher used exploratory research based on the survey design. Questionnaires were used to assess the peace tourism potential. The researcher used a sample size of 100, at a ratio of 1:1264, using the stratified random sampling technique and purposefully selected the strata of the population and analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics. One way ANOVA test was used to investigate the relationship between the existing resources for peace tourism and the resources potential for peace tourism development. From the analysis, resources viable for peace tourism development in Laikipia County varied among respondents. The community will seek for activities that meet their social, economic welfare, the tourists will seek for satisfaction, and the tourism developers will seek for increased profits. National celebrations, peace symposiums, and thematic institutional exhibitions are resources potential for peace tourism development in Laikipia County. Laikipia County harbors various events such as shows and marathons organized by different institutions that bring people collectively from various origins to undertake the events either directly or indirectly. Also, this study indicates that peace tourism development will be successful if it is developed in a community-based approach putting radical events to involve local communities. Peace tourism development may fail due to lack of involvement of all the tourism stakeholders who include the host community, the government (public sector), the private sector and the tourists. The research findings indicated that the latter three had been previously involved in the business while the former had not. This resulted to jeopardy in tourism development as the local community looted valuables from the tourists thereby causing insecurity in travel. It is recommendable that all the peace tourism stakeholders should provide a platform for efficient integration of their events to promote social harmony. The community should be given an opportunity to develop fundable development proposal to effectively compete for donor funds. The government should develop and implement policies and plans on peace tourism role and benefit sharing plan to fully involve the local community in peace tourism development.

Introduction

Tourism is an important industry, particularly in the developing countries. It is a major source of employment, foreign exchange and main contributor to the country’s GDP. Kenya is a good example of developing countries which has embraced tourism as an important strategy for social, economic development, (Akama, 1999).
Kenya’s tourism is an important economic sector which, contributes to approximately 10% of the country’s Gross Domestic Product while creating direct and indirect employment to the citizens. However, Kenya’s tourism performance position has been overtaken by various issues such as competition for new contenders especially in beach tourism, and security concerns in the recent past. (Final Tourism Policy Draft, 2006). Again, the final draft of Tourism Act (2012) indicates that the tourism performance in Kenya has grown steadily from 1960’s and 1980’s and irregularly in the 1990s due to security issues and issuance of travel advisories against Kenya by some countries. This has led to low tourists receipts which consequently results in loss of jobs to the citizens and low GDP. This calls for developing forms of tourism which focus on the need to contain social, cultural and political diversities within or between tourist generating countries and destination countries. Peace tourism is therefore defined as traveling to experience the places and activities that authentically represent peace stories and peacemakers of past and present. (Peace tourism, www.peacepartnersintl.net/tourism).

Previous studies on peace tourism have reported issues such as the evolution of peace tourism (Susan, 2010; Michael, 2013), peace tourism product development (Alisson, 1999; Peter, 2003), promotion of peace tourism (Anderson, 2009) and impacts of peace tourism (Dedan 2010). The above studies focused on theoretical dimensions of developing peace tourism while ignoring the practical application of peace tourism in the existing social-economic structures of developing countries. This research extended the above studies by addressing the need for peace tourism development in Laikipia County. Laikipia comprises of diverse communities, economic activities and recurring internal clashes which provide suitability for peace tourism development. Peace tourism development will aid in ensuring continued and sustainable economic growth in through product diversification and enhanced social cohesion. World travel is a fundamental expression of international co-operation, D’Amore (2007). Peace-tourism sees every traveler as an ambassador to peace. Socially and environmentally responsible tourism will help to foster stability, economic equity, and, ultimately, a more peaceful society.

Research Objective

To determine the effects of existing resources potential for peace tourism development in Laikipia County.

Research Hypothesis

H₁: There is a significant positive relationship between existing resources and peace tourism development.

H₀: There is no significant positive relationship between existing resources and peace tourism development.

Literature Review

Although tourism in Kenya is considered one of the GDP contributors, it has been curtailed by a number of both internal and external factors such as terrorism, insecurity, rising competition and poor infrastructure among other factors. (The Economic Recovery Strategy (ERS), 2003) causing the country’s tourism to experience unprecedented slump. This was until the implementation of the Tourism Recovery Programme which started in 2003 resulting in tremendous recovery with international arrivals rising by an average of 12.5% annually from about 1,001,280 in 2002 to about 1,600,000 in 2006 and earnings increasing from Kshs. 21.7 billion in 2002 to Kshs 56.2 billion in 2006. The domestic tourism also registered a remarkable growth rising from 656,100 bed nights in 2002 to 1,374,800 bed nights in 2006. Table 1.1 gives a summary of the performances regarding the indicators mentioned above. This was until 2007 when political instabilities raised in Kenya, thereby back-pulling the industry from its rejuvenated performance.
Travel in Kenya has been chambered with an endless chain of insecurity. Terrorism had been rampant over the last three decades. For example, the bombing of the US embassy in Nairobi in 1998 which killed about two hundred and twenty-five people and over five thousand sustaining injuries, by the Al Qaeda. Another bomb was also launched at a hotel in Kikambala near Mombasa in 2002. There are increasing attempts to shoot down an Israeli Charter plane departing Mombasa with no fruits borne. This has created fear to the tourists in their protection of their little necks thus barring travel promotion. The 2007 post-election violence caused deaths to over 2000 people and internal displacements to over 30,000 people. This also caused disruptions in public transportation especially to major tourist destinations that led to a dramatic decrease in tourist arrivals in the year 2008.

There has been a security alert issued by the Kenyan government in May 2003 that resulted in the suspension of British Airways, flights to Nairobi and Numerous Chartered flights to Mombasa causing a decline in tourism arrivals (Ministry of Tourism 2012). A car bomb followed this in an Israeliite owned hotel in Mombasa in 2003 where about ten Kenyans and three Israelites were killed, and simultaneous rockets attack an Israel airline which failed. Other terrorists’ acts include kidnapping, attacks or local rivals and suicide operations among others. For example, in July 2009, three Non-Governmental Organisation workers were kidnapped by Somali terrorist group.

Results and Discussions

One way ANOVA test was used to investigate the relationship between the existing resources for peace tourism and the resources potential for peace tourism development. The results varied significantly. The results varied significantly. National celebrations and peace symposiums contributed to a high significant score (SS = 41.143, f = 8.914, p = 0.005 and SS = 47.6, f = 5.991, p = 0.02) respectively. The other factors did not contribute to significant observable scores. Joint institutional exhibitions contributed to (SS = 42.971, f = 1.467, p = 0.234, peace races and walks contributed to (SS = 57.543, f = 0.503, p = 0.483), thematic institutional festivals contributed to (SS = 68.171, f = 1.936, p = 0.173) while peace monuments contributed to (SS = 48.971, f = 0.174, p = 0.679).

The results analysis indicated that the resources viable for peace tourism development in Laikipia County varied among respondents. This is attributed to the various perceptions of the three categories of individuals who have different needs. The host community will seek for activities that meet their social, economic welfare, the tourists will seek for satisfaction, and the tourism developers, on the other hand, will seek for increased profits hence the variations. National celebrations, peace symposiums, and thematic institutional exhibitions are resources potential for peace tourism development in Laikipia County. Laikipia County harbors various events such as shows and marathons organized by different institutions that bring people collectively from various origins to undertake the events either directly or indirectly.

The local community partakes in vending their local products and entertaining the show attendants which earns them a few coins into their pockets and contribute to the relaxation of psychological stresses especially those that arise from economic constraints. The tourism developers get an opportunity to bazaar their products to the show goers and other events attendants while the tourists get a wider appeal of their experience especially when they participate in the entertainment performances by the local people. Moreover, Laikipia is visited by some both domestic and international tourists in the various tourist attractions and holiday sites including the caves, Mt. Kenya hiking, Ol Pejeta among other attractions hence makes it practicable for peace tourism development. This is because as people from different cultures and races travel and interact, a mutual sense of understanding and belonging is widened thus adding to minimization of conflicts/contradictions. These in return contribute to social cohesion and integration which are essential elements in peace building; an issue addressed in the Kenyan Vision 2030 flagship. Currently, the tourism market has
changed, involving individuals of all ages. They have become more educated and are seeking for knowledge, secure and non-violent destinations as well as the diversity of attractions. The contemporary tourism developers, therefore, face the challenge of focusing on already developed destinations rather than exploiting the underdeveloped to meet the demands of the tourists which would earn them a competitive advantage. Other factors; peace races and peace walks, as well as peace monuments, were considered not viable for peace tourism development.

**Conclusion and Recommendations**

The research has shown that Laikipia County is rich in peace tourism resources that can be developed to diversify the tourism products in the area as well as promote national cohesion and integration. It also forms a good hub for internationals due to the existing tourism facilities such as the Nanyuki airbase, the upcoming Isiolo Airport as well as accommodation and site seeing attractions such as the caves, the wildlife, and events like the annual Lewa Conservancy Marathon. Peace tourism development may fail due to lack of involvement of all the tourism stakeholders who include the host community, the government (public sector), the industry and the tourists. The research findings indicated that the latter three had been previously involved in the business while the former had not. This resulted to jeopardy in tourism development as the local community looted valuables from the tourists thereby causing insecurity in travel.

Peace is the basic requirement for any party or individual to run well. Therefore, this paper recommends that all the peace tourism stakeholders should provide a platform for efficient integration of their events to promote social harmony. The local community should be given an opportunity to develop fundable development proposal (especially through formal training) to effectively compete for donor funds, which the researcher believes that no donor would be hardly willing to support peace initiatives. The government should develop and implement policies and plans on peace tourism role and benefit sharing plan to fully involve the local community in peace tourism development. The tourists should also observe the travelers code of ethics to (or “intend to”) ensure that they do not provoke the calmness of the hosts which would trigger conflicts.

**References**


Employees' Participation in Decision Making and Performance of Tour and Travel Firms in Rwanda

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Introduction and background Employee’s participation is an opportunity to participate in company’s decision making regardless of their position occupied in the companies. The more employees have the right to speak, the more influence they can have on decisions. Employee’s participation can also take the form of sharing powers between top management and lower level employees (Saiyadain, 2005). Participation is the mental and emotional involvement of people in group situations that encourage them to contribute to group goals and share responsibility for them. It improves motivation by helping employees understand their paths towards goals, encourages people acceptance of responsibility and staffs become self-involved in a company. Employee participation is a very important component of operating for the future companies, it helps management to decide in selecting courses of action and it gives employees an opportunity to express their viewpoint about action, goal setting, and that employees can play a vital role in achieving business target as well as selecting their work schedules which ensure workforce diversity in companies (Kerth, 2008).

The majority of companies are establishing policies help meet overall business goals. Despite constant pressure to attract and retain talent, only in recent years have companies begun to empirically demonstrate its impact on business outcomes. Within any type of organization, there are exist two types of participation direct participation and indirect participation. Direct participation refers of those forms of participation in which individual employees, albeit often in a very limited way, are involved in decision making processes that affect their everyday work routines. Indirect participation refers to those forms of participation in which representatives or delegates of the main body of employee’s participation in decision making process (Gerg, 2002). By introducing Employees Participation (EP) schemes: Employers hope that participative mechanisms will create a greater coincidence of interest between employers and employees, thereby increasing trust, reducing the potential for conflict, and increasing the potential for an effective mutual influence process. Many popular management concepts such as knowledge management, all rely at heart on the ideas that employees know best what they are doing. Employees are willing and able to be involved in companies programs which allow them to contribute opinions towards company’s performance. The success of western tour and travel companies is of great benefit to all Rwandans and this cannot be achieved if the employees in the company are not effective at performing their respective jobs; this call for the necessity of employees in these companies to participate in the decision making. It is therefore important for the management of the company to make employees feel part of the company. The study context There is a popular behavior which has been adopted by some tour and travel companies in Rwanda whereby the top managers just take decisions and communicate it to employees without their participation in the decision making process such as to involve employees in strategic plan where they should learn the mission and vision and be ready for the achievement. Thus, employees find that their work do not provide them with the opportunity to realize their potentials, and finally tend to engage in negative behavior like absenteeism, apathy, low commitment, etc. hence, poor performance which is normally indicated by high rate of turnover and low productivity (MIFOTRA, 2016). One approach to enhance the performance of travel and tour companies is to involve employees in decision making and ensure that their potential role is tapped and maintained through active participation in the industry (Beeton, 2006). It is imperative to note that involvement and participation of employees is central to the sustainable performance of the industry not only because tourism has had a close connection with the employees but particularly as hosts and guides (Scheyvens, 2002). According to Akama (1999) as cited in Manyara and Jones (2007), “employees are hardly involved in the decision making process” and they are usually without a voice in the decision.
making process (Havel, 2014). This situation according to Havel (2005) is contrary to the principles of sustainable travel and tour companies’ performance which, among other things, emphasize the participation of employees. However, despite such importance of employees’ participation to the sustainable performance of tour and travel companies, little is known about employees’ participation in decision making process to improve the company performance. Decision making has four levels such as structured decision, strategic decision, tactical decision, and operational decision. Strategic decisions are mainly concerned with external rather than internal problems of the companies; operational decision is to maximize efficient of the organization resource use and profitability of current operations; tactical decisions are concerned with structuring resources to create maximum performance potential; and structured decision is one for well defined decision making procedure exist.

The methodology and data Any scientific work must follow a certain methodology. Methodology refers to the theory of how research should be undertaken, including the theoretical and philosophical assumption upon which research is based and implication of these for the methods adopted. The research design was a descriptive and correlation. The study adopted 84 employees of tour and travel companies in western province of Rwanda and purposive sampling was applied to select all 64 respondents as a sample size. Data collection instruments were questionnaire, documentation and observations. In this research, employees participation in decision making is independent variable, Employees Performance is dependent variable. The data collected from respondents were analyzed using SPSS version 16.0 and the results from analysis, interpretation, and presentation of data were displayed in the tables. The results and discussion This section presents statistical analysis and interpretations of research questions which are: what are the perceptions of respondents on employees’ participation in decision making? What are the perceptions of the respondents on employees’ performance in tour and travel companies in western province of Rwanda? And lastly to know if there is a significance relationship between employee participation in decision making and employees Performance in Tour and Travel companies in western province of Rwanda? This section presents the perceptions of respondents on employees’ participation in decision making and the following items were considered: Freedom, Commitment, and Experience. According to the perception of respondents on their freedom, the different items like to know whether the freedom can enhance employees to participate in decision making, if employees feel free to participate in decision making at work, if there is a relationship between employee’s participation in decision making and freedom were assessed. The overall mean is 2.8671; this means that respondents agreed that tour and travel companies in western province provide freedom to their employees. The perceptions of respondents on their commitment, a number of items were assessed like: to know if employees are willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this Companies to be successful, suggestions, and opinions; to know if It would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to leave this companies; the perceptions of respondents on whether they talk up this company to their friends as a great company to work for. The results from all elements of commitment showed the aggregate strong mean of 3.3590 meaning that respondents agreed that employees of tour and travel companies in western province are committed to their daily activities. And commitment is an indicator to the companies to reach their goals. Lastly, the researcher intended to know the perceptions of respondents on experience. In general, six items assessed to find out if the employees are experienced and the results showed an overall strong mean of 2.9663. This means that respondents agreed that employees are experienced. This section presents the perception of respondents on employees’ performance and items like Efficiency and Productivity were assessed. According to the perceptions of respondents on efficiency, four items were assessed including: if performance evaluation help them to meet the assignment and stay on their job, to know if the appraisal time used during their activities help them to perform their job efficiently, to find out if the good organizational chart in selected companies receive enabled them to perform well their work efficiently, and lastly to know whether the training they receive helped them to meet companies’ objective efficiently. The results from all four elements of effectiveness showed the aggregate strong mean of 3.1406 and this shows that respondents of tour and travel companies in western province are effective. According to productivity, item like to know whether in those tour and travel companies’
employees’ productivity have been increased the result was evidenced by a strong mean of 3.0937. Another item like if intensity in training helps them to get the production needed, the results show a strong mean 3.4062. Last item assessed was to find out if the appraisal evaluation used by those companies help them to make improvement and increase productivity, the findings from respondents’ perceptions agreed it with a strong mean of 2.8250. The results from all four elements Productivity showed the aggregate strong mean of 2.8 and this shows the appreciation of productivity by respondents. This section focuses on relationship between employee participation in decision making and employees’ performance. Taking reference from the findings above, the researchers had null hypotheses. That hypothesis (H0) stating that there is no significant relationship between employee’s participation in decision making and performance of travel and tour companies in western province of Rwanda, the hypothesis evidences the findings after test. The findings show that independent variable employee’s participation in decision making is correlated to dependent variable Employees performance. The correlation is equal to 0.921 which falls in intervals between 0.90 and 1 which means that there is a positive strong correlation and defiantly explains the research hypothesis. Therefore the null hypothesis is rejected. Conclusion The aim of this research was to find out if there is a significant relationship between employee’s participation in decision making and employee performance in Tour and Travel companies in western province of Rwanda. Basing on the study findings, the researcher has found that Tour and Travel companies in western province of Rwanda stimulate freedom, commitment and experience. Moreover, researcher concluded that Tour and Travel companies in western province of Rwanda play the big role to enhance the performance of their employees. This is simply because it leads to the efficiency and productivity. Furthermore, after hypotheses verification, the researcher concluded that there is a significant relationship between the employee’s participation in decision making and employee performance. However, researcher in his observations has found out weaknesses. Some of them are the following: Employees are not feeling free in their works. There are not enough means to improve experience. It means there are not enough training organized for workers and working space is too small, workers are squeezed in a small office; the respondents also doubted about experience being obtained.

References


Role of eco tourism to development of inhabitants of Gishwati area case study of Gishwati Forest

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Ecotourism development started way back in 1983. However people organisation have been reluctant to adopt it, but many scholars came up with different definitions that however, did not separate it from other forms of nature tourism among the many definitions of ecotourism includes that of the international union conservation of nature based in Switzerland. This body defines it as an environmentally responsible travel and visitation to relatively undisturbed natural areas in order to enjoy and appreciate nature that promotes conservation and has low visitors impacts and provides for beneficial active social and economic investment of the local people. The aim of developing Ecotourism for natural resource management in Gishwati Forest was to set up mechanisms for long term Forest conservation by involving local communities who leave besides the Forest with the aim of promoting their contributions. Therefore the study focused on Gishwati Forest which is located in Rwanda and covers three district of the country.

There are numerous grassy clearings and glades. The Forest's huge variety of birds, reptiles and insects make it a specialist eco-tourism attraction for bird-watchers and wildlife photographers. There is no major tourism, and the Forest is not a safari destination. Large mammals are rare. Parts of the forest also contain unique and rich highland ecosystems, but generally the fauna and flora of the forest have not been comprehensively studied by science. Despite having protected status the forest has continued to be damaged and degraded. The Forest is an island of relatively 'natural' habitat in a sea of human-dominated landscape. Some people, mainly farmers on small family farms, live on its edges. High rainfall supports intensive agriculture, just as it supports the forest habitat. The forest has been a resource for local people for generations, as a source of fuel wood, building poles, household items (like vines-ropes) and food (honey, bush meat). Many of these traditional uses are now outlawed, but they continue, at least partly because people have no easy alternatives, because law enforcement is haphazard and incomplete, and because many people do not understand how their actions and choices can influence the future of their community and families. With their unique flora and fauna, forests are important resource reserve for genetic banks, the medicine industry, nutrient recycling and CO2 sequestration. The loss of such systems would therefore be a great loss to humanity. With this in mind we have put concerted efforts towards preservation of this unique ecosystem. It is our hope that apart from its aesthetic value, its life supporting values will be understood and highly appreciated now and in the future.

Natural resource development involves human intervention and manipulation of the environment to achieve the desired goals. One of the basic principles of sustainable tourism development is the recognition of the fact that the environment and tourism are not mutually exclusive but complementary and interdependent. Since its establishment, Forest reserve as ecotourism site has played greater role in developing the tourism industry and neighbouring Districts given its potentialities. Yet communities around the forest reserve have remained uninformed of the benefits of Forest as ecotourism site, information have not been known and documented to them and entire country of Rwanda. Despite having protected status the forest has continued to be damaged and degraded. The Rwanda Development Board Service work to protect the forest. Environmental degradation in that both the local and the public in general have interest in the forest. (RDB Report 2011)

Local communities hunts the few wildlife for instance antelopes, hare, birds while the public in general burn charcoal in the forest these have degraded the forest by destroying the
ecosystem of the ecotourism in the economy due to lack of awareness among the local on role of ecotourism to inhabitants like the host communities around the Forest. This study therefore aimed at examining the role of ecotourism to development of inhabitants in Gishwati Area. A case study of Gishwati forest.

The methodology and data

The study used cross sectional survey to establish the contribution of Eco tourism development to local communities. The study used both the qualitative and quantitative approaches to gather data for the study. The study used closed ended questionnaires, structured interview as well as document review. Simple random sampling was used on the local communities staying around the swamp. The study population was 200 respondents ranging from 100 inhabitants from the forest, 40 staff of Rwanda development Board, and 60 tourists who among some tourists who visit the Forest for nature walk, birding and other tourism related activities. The study sample size was 132 respondents determined using the Krejcie and Morgan (1970).

The results and discussion

To analyse how the local communities benefits from the Forest as an Ecotourism in the area and among the benefits to local communities were employment/jobs, some locals get jobs from what they do, infrastructure development, roads, water supply and electricity due to the forest, source of income generation from activities, diversification development and promotion of economic growth. Showing hindering factors of developing Gishwati forest as an ecotourism in the area were found to be ignorance among local communities, poor financial and moral support, limited professional staff (personnel trained), and poor marketing opportunity, corruption by management of the forest, deforestation, poaching and encroachments. Strategies for the challenges faced by the forest were found to be putting more rules and regulations (Policies), training labor for conservation and management, infrastructure development etc.

Conclusions

The ecotourism site has played an important role towards local communities (Gishwati). Education, employment, infrastructure development and promotion of economic development of local communities surrounding Gishwati Forest as well as the country at large. Findings The findings established problems hindering the development of Gishwati Forest as ecotourism site in neighboring districts among which included; poor marketing opportunity by the project, deforestations, poaching and encroachments, ignorance, poor financial and moral support to the project, lack of enough professional staff and among local communities. From the findings and discussion, the following recommendations were made; The issue of environmental concern should be addressed by the ministry of environment in the context of poverty and biodiversity concern. The government of Rwanda should provide financial and technical assistance and support to the forest managers of Gishwati forest reserve. The government should try to set aside funds to educate its citizens through the medias that can be accessed by the people in the area for example Radio on the importance of conservation and ecotourism development areas like Gishwati Forest reserve an encourage local tourism which even the local people around the forest advocated for. Local guides should be trained to guide tourists in the forest since majority of tourists who come in the area for the first time are ignorant about the geography of the forest and area. Stakeholders should help in fighting deforestation, encroachment and poaching, which negatively affect the ecotourism development attractions in Gishwati forest. Through community education on family planning among the local people to curb population pressure on natural resources such forests. Government should encourage a forestation and re-a forestation programmes.
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Introduction and Background

The East African Community (EAC) is a regional intergovernmental organisation of 6 Partner States: the Republics of Burundi, Kenya, Rwanda, South Sudan, the United Republic of Tanzania, and the Republic of Uganda, with its headquarters in Arusha, Tanzania. The EAC is home to 150 million citizens, of which 22% is urban population. With a land area of 1.82 million square kilometres and a combined Gross Domestic Product of US$ 146 billion (EAC Statistics for 2016), its realisation bears great strategic and geopolitical significance and prospects for the renewed and reinvigorated EAC.

East African Community member states (Kenya, Tanzania, Uganda, Rwanda, Burundi and South Sudan) view tourism development not only as a key pillar for national development, but most importantly as a mechanism to alleviate poverty, generate foreign revenue for the government, and contribute to wildlife conservation. With exception of Kenya and Tanzania, which also have a well-developed coastal tourism segment, the remaining East African Community countries are landlocked, with nature and wildlife remaining as the only core tourism assets. Yet, their Economic Road Map and Visions foresee tourism as a key contributor to transforming their economies in the years to come. While this sounds like a honourable aspiration, most tourism revenues have been generated through narrow tourism products, such as wildlife and national parks, based on a few species (i.e. the big five and the mountain gorillas). Other challenges affecting the potential for tourism to flourish include political stability and governance, infrastructure development, service standards, and human capacity just to name a few. In this paper, drawing upon literature and previous research experiences of the authors, an overview on the state of tourism in the East African Community is presented with the aim to assess the main challenges, opportunities, and offer some reflections on possible ways forward for tourism development in the region. As one of the fastest growing regional economic blocs in the world, the EAC is widening and deepening co-operation among the Partner States in various key spheres for their mutual benefit. These spheres include political, economic and social but with major attention being put on tourism as the most foreign exchanger earners for member states.

East African Countries have been always been convinced by global economic forces to ignore their protective barriers and liberalize their economies and so as to build a sustainable and integrated economy, basically to mobilize trade opportunity possibilities of the World Market. Global market offers a greater chance for people to tap more and large market by promoting efficiency through competition and specialization that allows economies to focus on what they do best. Nevertheless, Rwanda's membership in the EAC can generate a package of numerous benefits to her economy. Such may include, creating a sustainable and an integrated economy, Tourism benefits, a stable and friendly neighbourhood with other states, share and exchange of technologies, free movement of goods and services and removal of general trade and commerce barriers. This however, does not mean that regional groupings are free from blame and such is a major cause for one to seek to know whether the Rwanda's joining the East African Community (EAC) might not be linked to adverse impact something that has prompted the researcher to investigate the feasibility of the integration in relation to Tourism Development and thus Rwanda being a land locked country that is to say; it has no access to the sea, besides, Rwanda, experiences poor endowment of resources compared to other East African countries like Kenya, Uganda and Tanzania and thus most of the tourism benefits go to these countries and the country is likely to be out
competed. It is in this context therefore that the researcher wants to find the role of the East African Community to Tourism Development on Rwanda.

The Study Context

The Republic of Rwanda joined EAC through the Accession Treaty on July 1, 2007 as envisaged in its Sixth Pillar of Vision 2020, with focus on Regional and Economic Integration to promote open, liberal trade regime, foreign direct investment and competitive enterprises in which tourism is core. Seven years down the road, the Republic of Rwanda has registered commendable achievements and has success stories to tell in the process of implementation of the first two stages of EAC Integration, the Customs Union and the Common Market Protocols. Rwanda started implementation of the Customs Union on July 1, 2009 two years after its entry into the Community. The Common Market Protoco-l was concluded in November 2009 came into force on July 1, 2010. Therefore, this supplement articulates the key achievements registered to date in the implementation of these two stages of Integration. Mainstreaming regional integration into District Development Plans will benefit the Rwandan citizens from integration through cross-border trade and free movement of goods and services especially districts neighbouring with EAC Partner States. In terms of tourism and East African community, the country has moved a step to spear head the issuance of East Africa Single Tourist Visa in Kenya, Rwanda and Uganda, since 1st January 2014, the Republic of Rwanda has started issuing the Single Tourist Visa to Foreigners willing to visit Rwanda, Uganda and Kenya. Now tourists have opportunities to apply their Single Tourist Visa in either Rwanda or in Missions abroad which has seen a number of tourists increase. It’s on this ground that the country hosted the first ever EAC Arts and Culture Festival under the theme “Fostering EAC Integration through the cultural industries”. The Festival was named Jumuiya ya Afrika Mashariki Utamadun Festival (JAMAFEST). The festival brought together East African cultural practitioners and administrators to celebrate the rich and diverse cultural heritage of East Africans and provided a platform to showcase culture as a primary driver of regional integration and sustainable development.

Methodology and data

The study was based on data collected in Kigali City tourism and hospitality businesses from March 2016 to July 2017. The research design was cross sectional employing both quantitative and qualitative design. The study used closed ended questionnaires, structured interview as well as document review. Purposive sampling was used on the key managers of tour and travel companies, hospitality establishments, recreational and entertainment, national parks and some staff from RDB and some employees of these businesses. The study targeted 40 owners and managers of these tourism and hospitality businesses, 60 employees working for these tourism and hospitality businesses, and 20 RDB officials in charge of tourism chamber selected, hence making the total population to be 120 respondents. The study sample size was 86 respondents determined using the Krejcie and Morgan (1970). Data was analysed by use of descriptive statistics.

Results and discussion

The benefits of Rwanda joining the East African community were found to be increased visitor numbers especially due to the simplest in attaining a visa, improved infrastructure development especially transport infrastructures like roads and rail networks, technology, marketing since the region is marketed as a single destination, new product development in order to diversify on the existing ones to better stand the competition and social networks resulting from tourism trade alliances with other business partners around the region. The challenges Rwanda still faces as partner state in the East African community were found to be high competition in the region with cut throat prices especially for shared attractions, land locked country and therefore no access to the sea, Language barrier especially since English tends to be a tourism language with the region, Low market for tourism products due to high levels of unemployment and poverty levels and poor infrastructure. The strategies and
policies sufficient to harness the challenges that Rwanda faces as partner state were to be found to product diversification, add on the existing tourism products to reduce dependency on gorillas, encourage domestic tourism so that tourism is both intra and inbound, more infrastructure development especially hospitality accommodations, reduction of prices to compete favorably among many others.

Conclusions

At the end of this study, the researchers concluded that the East African Community plays an important role in developing tourism in Rwanda and that it should be given an upper hand by government and tourism players so that it continues it's Several benefits which found out to be increased visitor numbers which has eventually led to the consumption of more tourists products and services thus increased incomes in the tourism industry. Technology, the world has gone global and with E-commerce, Marketing of the tourism products and services has also increased across the region with its advantages, introduction of new tourism products to stand the competition and lastly a wide base of social networks amongst countries of the world. The researcher also found it polite to suggest a couple of things which must be worked on so that Rwanda may excel well with its neighbors and these included product diversification, more trainings to raise the level of skills and knowledge and therefore competencies in the area of tourism and hospitality to catch up other countries like Kenya and Uganda.

References


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Competitiveness of tourism destination in Tanzania - MTO WA MBU Cultural Tourism Enterprise

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Abstract

This paper intends to inform and create awareness to the participants the well done job of Mto wa Mbu cultural tourism that was undertaken in Tanzania.

Mto wa Mbu Cultural Tourism Enterprise was established in 1997 in order to give local people the chance to work with tourists, alleviate poverty, and improving the life standard of the local people. Mto wa Mbu is situated on the way to the National Parks in the Northern Tanzania, just at the foot of the Rift Valley. It's a resting place for most safari travelers when they are on the way to Ngorongoro crater and Serengeti National Parks. It is near Manyara National Park, which is famous for its unique trees climbing lion. Mto wa Mbu is a popular area for red banana, Makonde wood carving curio shops, Masai culture and hospitable people.

The study was designed to use a combination of exploratory and descriptive approaches. 152 respondents were selected randomly where two methods applied: An interview was addressed to 37 NGO leaders and Government officials while questionnaires were administered to 115 Business operators; Tour guides and Households respondents.

* Table 1. Respondents by Status

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups status</th>
<th>MALE</th>
<th>FEMALE</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Leaders</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business Operators</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tour guide</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Households</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td>93</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>152</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field data; May, 2016

The Cultural Tourism activities in Tanzania were introduced in 1996 by the Government of Tanzania through the Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism in collaboration with the SNV – The Netherlands Development Organization and the communities around, to produce direct economic benefits in a decent way to the local people. The pilot areas were Usambara Mountains, Longido Village, Ngiresi and Mto wa Mbu local town. Today there are 42 local areas in Tanzania which have established and practiced the programme for the benefit of the local communities.

This study has identified Mto wa Mbu Cultural Tourism Enterprise from the other developed enterprises in Tanzania as it has clearly used recommended guiding principles for development and promotion of the cultural tourism in Tanzania. It has focused on promoting the country’s cultural and national identity; has protected and enhance natural and cultural attractions of its place; thereby encouraging visitors to behave appropriately. It has also ensured tourism activities benefit the host community; and the visitors’ experience is worthwhile, satisfying and enjoyable and members of the host community benefit in an equitable and affordable manner.
In the growing literature on this matter, cultural tourism has been defined as an income-generating activity. It is based on the mobilization of locally available resources through participation of the community. It is one of the tourism businesses implemented and property managed by the people who live within the area. It has the potential to create employment to generate income and to change the attitude of community members towards conservation issues. Thus, cultural tourism tends to change local standards of living, attitudes and behaviors, such as reducing overexploitation and creating untouchable zones for development (Wunder, 1999b).

Peid (1999), UN and WTO (2001) and SNV Tz (2002) have defined cultural tourism as the use of a community’s resources both cultural and natural, for tourism activities in order to (i) promote socio-economic development and provide local people with income resources; (ii) to encourage community commitment to conservation of bio-diversity and sustainable management of the natural resources base; (iii) Involve people in the process of their own development and give them more opportunities to participate effectively in development activities; and (iv) include the community’s participation in the design and decision making process in the management and administration of tourism and the related activities and operations. It ensures a degree of ownership by the community in the development process and operations.

Based on the definition of Cultural Tourism, the population of Mto wa Mbu area is an ethnic puzzle of social and linguistic groups with a variety of lifestyles, but sharing the same politeness, hospitable, respect and modesty, all highly valued attributes in Tanzania’s traditional society.

There are 712 households who are participating in cultural tourism activities in Mto wa Mbu. They own small Information office adjacent to bus stop where tourists visit for bookings of their organized trip. At the office there are 11 Tour guides that are decent and well trained on how to take care of different types of tourists. All direct payments for cultural tourism activities are settled at the information office prior commencing of the trip except money for accommodation and transports.

The Bantu-Speaking people Centered East Africa from the west and south west brought with them cultivation practices. There are 120 ethnic groups at the area Maasai being the dominate one. (Kajabukama, 2004)

Mto wa Mbu has a number of investments in the area, including Hotels and restaurants that offer services to the tourists who are passing through the area. As tourists go to these hotels they get the chance to visit local communities and learn about their culture, their daily life activities at the destination.

Research findings and analysis have proved that Cultural Tourism since its establishment in 1996 in Tanzania has demonstrated the potentiality of directly contribution to poverty reduction through creation of employment opportunities for local people and markets for products made locally in rural areas. It had contributed immensely in improving the general welfare of the local people through increased provision of schools and health facilities. It is also confirmed that, the attitudes and behavior of the communities on environmental conservation have improved through their participation in the tourism activities.

The table bellow gives out the overview benefit of cultural tourism activities in Mto wa Mbu.
Table 2: Sources of Income

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of income</th>
<th>Types of Income</th>
<th>MALE</th>
<th>FEMALE</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Formal Income</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Informal Income</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field data; May, 2016

Table 3: Number of Tourists visit MTO WA MBU and income generated for consecutive 4 years

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEAR</th>
<th>2015</th>
<th>2014</th>
<th>2013</th>
<th>2012</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total No of Tourists</td>
<td>4,754</td>
<td>6,320</td>
<td>8,318</td>
<td>7,803</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Direct Income Generated</td>
<td>154,498,400</td>
<td>201,238,000</td>
<td>285,187,000</td>
<td>289,276,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exchange Rate I USD - Tshs</td>
<td>2039 Tshs</td>
<td>1663 Tshs</td>
<td>1616Tshs</td>
<td>1585Tshs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field data; May, 2016

Cultural Tourism Enterprise has no employment programmes, as it is self employed entity most of Households are employed directly and indirectly in the project itself as it expands for instance; food venders, curio shops in Hotels and restaurants. The vivid example is on the table below.

Table 4: Employment Creation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Employment Trends</th>
<th>No of Respondents</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>How easy it is to find temporary wage employment?</td>
<td>N = 152</td>
<td>80.9 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How easy it is to find temporary wage employment now compared to the period prior to CTP</td>
<td>N = 152</td>
<td>62.5 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How successful has CTP been in creating employment</td>
<td>N = 152</td>
<td>90.8 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How big is the number of people not originally from the area come to work / settle</td>
<td>N = 152</td>
<td>70.39 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To what extent is this migration related to tourism activities</td>
<td>N = 152</td>
<td>78.9 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field data; May, 2016

Table 5 Financial Benefits

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Financial Questionnaires</th>
<th>Percentage of respondents scoring greater or slight extent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Income changed over the last 10 years (N = 151)</td>
<td>90.73 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extent of Income changes associated with Tourism (N = 151)</td>
<td>68.9 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extent of distribution of Income from Tourism activities across community (N = 152)</td>
<td>78.29 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field data; May, 2016
*Table 6. Improvements in Attitudes and Behaviour Toward Environmental Conservation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questionnaire</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Extent of change in attitude and behavior towards environmental conservation</td>
<td>132 (86.8%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extent to which the change is related to the tourism programme</td>
<td>131 (86.2%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field data, 2016

The Cultural Tourism programme has been of great success as it has undertaken different programmes for the development of the communities including Development issues, Road maintenance and opening of the Village Bank Account for development activities. The vivid example is on the table below.

*Table 7. Performance Analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Area</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To open bank account C.D.G and other village development activities</td>
<td>Migombani village</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Road maintenance</td>
<td>Kirurumo village</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching college fee Development issues School fees</td>
<td>Barabarani &amp; Migombani Losirwa ward</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Makuyuni Secondary school for Rashid Mussa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Building of the teachers house</td>
<td>Jangwani primary school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Migombani village office renovation, construction of rift valley secondary school</td>
<td>Migombani Village</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary school fees for orphans</td>
<td>Kirurumo village</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Conclusion**

The focus is to create awareness among the participants and provide the way in which other countries in Africa can emulate the cultural tourism programme concept in their areas. To this end, this form of tourism can become a viable alternative economic activity for poor people in rural areas; increase employment opportunities in the area as visitors participate and appreciate local culture; leads to a better overall infrastructure and living environment not only for tourists but also for the host community, as well as the activities encompasses the whole territory of the destination It can also be one of the key instruments in developing a positive image of the country internationally.

**References**


SNV Tz , (2002) Cultural Tourism Programme- Yearly reports: Arusha Tanzania
