

THE DEVELOPMENT OF TOURISM IN KENYA AND  
THE GAMBIA - A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS

Volume 2

BY

PETER U.C. DIEKE

Submitted in fulfilment of the requirements  
for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy  
at the University of Strathclyde.

The Scottish Hotel School  
University of Strathclyde  
Glasgow  
United Kingdom

August 1988

PART 4

POLICY ISSUES IN TOURISM  
DEVELOPMENT IN KENYA AND THE GAMBIA

Chapter 5 : Tourism Investment Incentives

Chapter 6 : The Role of the Accommodation Sub-Sector

Chapter 7 : Manpower PLanning and the Provision  
of Training

Chapter 8 : Land Use Policy

CHAPTER 5  
TOURISM INVESTMENT INCENTIVES

5.1 Introduction

Investment incentives,<sup>1</sup> initially directed towards promoting industrialisation in both the developed and developing countries, have today become a feature of tourism development programmes, particularly of most young economies. The incentives refer to a variety of compensating measures to promote investment in tourism development efforts, in order to ensure that the special needs of the tourism enterprise are more effectively met.

In very broad terms, the concessions act to "reduce capital costs and operating costs and to improve investment security" (Wanhill, 1986:2-7). Further, Wanhill seems to infer that most tourism incentives are unnecessary. As he puts it: "the primary instrument should be the capital grant, or its equivalent in the provision of facilities." From a developing country point of view, however, since tourism often requires a special "package", incentives are used as an instrument of the national programme. As such, the present author suggests that the incentives should be carefully evaluated and used very selectively. This is because they signal the Government's interest in, and desire for, a stable environment for developers. Secondly, many of the incentives spell out guarantees to investors in areas such as repatriation of profits, thus enhancing

investor confidence. This is because, for most of the period, domestic funds in developing countries are negative, given also that tourism investors from the advanced countries have a wide choice of locations in the periphery zones to choose from. In order to influence this choice, governments of these countries package the incentives, for example, in investment codes or laws, among other avenues, specifying (as noted) the nature and extent of such a system, including, of course, the administrative processes involved.

This chapter, in general, discusses the kind and degree of tourism incentives available in Kenya and The Gambia. Specifically, it (a) reviews the objectives of investment incentive systems of these countries relating to tourism; (b) analyses their various strategies adopted; (c) looks at the administration of incentives; (d) considers the evidence on the impact on the national economies and on investors as well, of such systems; (e) comparatively draws some lessons from the experience of these two countries with tourism incentives; and (f) suggests some general principles for incentive packages to promote tourism projects.

## 5.2 KENYA

### 5.2.1 Objectives of Incentive Policies

The main objectives of Kenya's investment incentive



policies relate to national development aspirations such as improving the general investment climate for enterprise or creating employment across the country at a rate exceeding 4% per annum, or sectoral objectives such as providing investment stimuli at a specific economic sector, for example, tourism. Measures designed to create or maintain employment often fall under the preceding policy objectives.

Incentives directed at promoting sectors considered of particular importance (the second strategic goal), in this instance, tourism, reflect a variety of objectives: Kenyanisation of the tourism industry both in terms of ownership and management control of the activities therein; Government intervention to ensure a balanced resource utilisation, and so on. The incentive measures, with a very few exceptions, are not specifically designed to attract foreign investment in the sector. They generally do not discriminate between foreign and local participants in the enterprise. This is also true for preconditions or performance requirements. While the concessions are given with a view to increasing the level of investment, they are more often set in terms of specific objectives related to national or sectoral policies.

The general outlines of these policy objectives have emerged clearly over the past eight years, in the Development Plans (1984-1988;1979-1983), in various policy documents - Sessional Papers (1986,no.1;1982,1981 and

1980,no.4, respectively), and in the past several Budget Speeches.The result is the emergence of the "market-based incentive structure" doctrine. The crucial feature of this incentive system is that private investors in tourism - large or small, domestic or foreign - can earn attractive profits while directly contributing to the broad-based development of Kenya. The 1986 Sessional Paper, in particular, extends this aim, spelling out in detail these policies that have already established such an economic incentive environment, and indicating ways in which implementation needs will be improved to make existing policies more effective than hitherto.

Government acknowledges that investment in tourism is a risky venture for the individual entrepreneur or firm. To make it worthwhile for tourism developers to bear such risks, they must have the potential to earn substantial profits and a return on capital, at least as great as in other economic sectors in the country. At the same time, the social justification to encourage private investments in tourism is its direct contribution to widespread income growth, employment generation, and so on. Thus, the aim is to reconcile the private and social motivations for private investment in tourism.

Although a supportive incentive structure is crucial to attract new tourism investment, it is equally important to developers that the incentive structure be stable over a

long period. It takes several years for an investment to yield its profits (realising the gestation period of tourism projects, that is, that the investments have to be initiated well in advance of the demands they are intended to serve) and investors must be able to rely on a stable set of market-based and other incentives over time. The basic aims of the incentive policies discussed here reflect Government's recognition of the importance of keeping the system in place for many years. In other words, Government has, over the periods under review, relied less on instruments of direct control and increasingly on competitive elements in the economy.

## 5.2.2 Instruments of Incentive Policies

### 5.2.2.1 Measures to Win Investor Confidence

As noted, Kenya's basic approach to encouraging both domestic and foreign tourism developers is to use broad fiscal, monetary and pricing policies to establish a hospitable climate for investment in the sector. These developments have been helped fundamentally by a range of internal conditions which, taken together, contribute to making Kenya an attractive country for tourism investment ventures. Such factors are the existence of a relatively stable economy and political environment; (2) a long-standing and well-recognised record of fair treatment, especially of foreign-owned tourism companies under clear guidelines, in regard to profit remittance and capital repatriation; (3) massive tourism resources and expanding

markets of the country. (4) Tourism enterprises owned by foreign investors are permitted to borrow from local financial institutions up to the amounts required to pay duty on imported capital equipment, or to borrow amounts (from same local sources) proportional to the share of equity owned by Kenyan citizens. (5) Generally, foreign investment in Kenya is safeguarded by law, under the Foreign Investment Act. And, of course, Section 75 of the Constitution of Kenya establishes that no property shall be compulsorily acquired by the Government except in accordance with the proposals contained therein. In the acquisition in public interests, the Government makes payment of full and prompt compensation. The presence of such factors reduces the risk and uncertainty associated with investing in tourism in a foreign country, reducing the rate of return required by the developers.

#### **5.2.2.2 Investment Guide** <sup>2</sup>

Given the satisfaction of these basic conditions, Government has issued a guide for potential investors in the tourist industry - detailing the various laws impinging on investment in the sector (including tax laws, labour laws, building codes, various acts under which licensing is required, the terms on which finance is available from Kenya Tourist Development Corporation (K.T.D.C.) and other financial institutions for tourism

development. These general points have also been covered in Kenya - the Gateway to Africa : Guidelines to Investors(1981). Aspects of these are reviewed below.

#### **5.2.2.3 Certificate of Approved Enterprise**

The Government of Kenya welcomes investment in the tourism industry. By and large, the laws governing foreign investment in tourism are similar to those governing other types of investment. The flow of foreign investment is encouraged and welcome by the Government, which provides adequate measures to safeguard such investment. The major instrument of protection for a foreign investor in Kenya is the Foreign Investment Protection Act. Under the Act, the Minister of Finance issues a potential developer with a Certificate of Approved Enterprise to foreign nationals who invest in foreign currency or reinvest their profits in Kenya, if the Minister is satisfied that the investment will be of "economic benefit to the country."<sup>3</sup>

Incentives, in general, are embodied in taxation laws, exchange control regulations and legislation on foreign investments, as follows: (1) Investment allowances of up to 20% of fixed capital investment; (2) Capital allowances over and above normal depreciation allowances, on industrial buildings, plant and machinery of different types; (3) 10% payment of the Free on Board (F.O.B.) value of gazetted export goods plus 25% payment for increase in exports from year to year by any one firm under the Local

Manufacturers (Export Compensation) Act; (4) Training grants under the Apprenticeship and Indenture Scheme; (5) Repatriation of profits, principal and interest on loans, under the Foreign Investment Protection Act; (6) Protection against dumping under the Customs Tariffs (Dumping and Subsidies) Act; (7) Customs Duty remission or refund on materials used in the production of goods for export; (8) Preferential trade arrangements with the European Economic Community (E.E.C.) for some goods, under the African-Caribbean-Pacific (A.C.P.)/E.E.C. Lome Convention; (9) Double Taxation Avoidance Agreements with the U.K., U.S.A., India, West Germany (more agreements are being negotiated with other countries).

Other incentives which are offered as covered by same Government source relating to tourism include principal operating costs such as labour cost. In line with Government's objectives of promoting employment and improving the welfare of all Kenyans, firms are expected to give priority to the employment of Kenyan citizens. Where suitable Kenyans are not available, Government may issue work permits to qualified expatriates for a period of one to five years. Another aspect of incentive under operating costs relates to allocation of land for business development. One notices a wide gap between the costs Government charges for such land provision versus what the private sector imposes on applicants for lands for potential utilisation, as illustrated below:

**Cost of Industrial Land**  
**(Kenya shs. per acre)**

	<u>Nairobi</u>	<u>Mombasa</u>	<u>Nakuru</u>	<u>Nanyuki</u>
Govt. Land	150,000	100,000	50,000	40,000
Private Land	500,000	250,000	100,000	60,000

What emerges from the above analysis suggests that while it is true to say that Government cost for land is concessional, and encourages potential investors, that of the private individual discourages developers because it is considered exploitative. Government sources indicate that although capital gains tax is expected to be abolished soon, in the past such tax was helpful in attracting investors, as the tax rate was reduced from 50% to 25% of the gains which were taxable. There is another provision by which enterprises which suffer losses can carry forward such losses to be set off against subsequent profit for tax purposes. Losses may be carried forward indefinitely.

**5.2.2.4 Market Incentive Measures**

Only recently, Government added some new dimensions to the incentive systems, while withdrawing others. Today, for example, Government, in line with the market-based incentive policy, discussed above, does not grant tax holidays, special depreciation rules, customs duty and sales tax remissions, and other special tax treatment, to promote tourism. These devices, according to Government

sources, can be costly to the Treasury; they are of uncertain benefit in attracting investment in the industry, and in any case, are often nullified for foreign investors by the tax laws of their home countries. If used extensively, goes the argument, tax incentives tend to establish a confusing and often contradictory array of signals to investors in the sector. To this end, Government has commissioned a tax reform study which will seek ways to adjust existing tax rules to remove significant disincentives to tourism - such as the 15% withholding tax on foreign interest payment - and ensure that the tax system is compatible with Government's underlying strategy to promote private sector involvement in tourism.

The major exception to this policy is locational incentives. Government's aim now is to locate tourism activities in rural areas in order to achieve a rural-urban balance. To give an additional boost to rural tourism investment, the 1985/86 Finance Act raised the investment deduction from 20% to 50%: facilities locating outside Nairobi and Mombasa are now able to take a once-and-for-all deduction equal to 50% of the cost of hotel construction, thus reducing income taxes in the early years of a project.

Meanwhile, Government has taken actions in two main areas - the tariff system and the exchange rate - to remove existing constraints that may inhibit some operators from abroad, and these are summarised below. Since the early '80's the Government has pursued a flexible exchange rate



policy that maintains overtime sufficient rewards for participating in tourism. Second, Government has adjusted tariff regime to favour the costs of imported tourism inputs. This has induced tourism developers to improve their efficiency and ability to compete in world holiday markets through offering value-for-money "products". Government has also carefully scrutinised the industry to ensure that resource allocation is not distorted by actions of some unscrupulous investors. The Government believes that a vigorous private sector, responding to the incentive signals established by this strategy will earn profits while contributing to accelerated growth and employment creation in the national economy.

#### 5.2.2.5 Services

Government continues to support the tourist industry by providing basic infrastructural, financial, and training services to both foreign and Kenyan firms alike through a number of development institutions. Besides investment in hotels, there have been substantial complementary investments in infrastructure, both at the Coast, and in the wildlife areas in the form of roads and development of new and existing attractions (primarily game parks). Given, as argued elsewhere, that many of the investments (hotels, roads) have long gestation periods, Government thinks that it must play an important role in the expansion of tourism. It must provide most of the infrastructural involvement which comprises about one-third of the investment necessary

to provide for tourist expansion. As well, it should participate in the financing of direct tourist activities for several reasons (Mitchell,1968): (1) Government can help reduce the effects of imperfections in the private market for capital by entering the market as a lender and by guaranteeing loans (perhaps for a few) from private financial institutions; (2) many investors, as noted above, will wish to attempt to "insure" their investment against adverse official actions and administrative obstruction by seeking Government participation. This factor is very likely to be most acute in the case of Game Lodges in areas under the control of County Councils. At the same time, it is important that prospective entrepreneurs be assured of a continuous supply of capable labour required for management of the tourist hotels. This underscores the importance of the Kenya Utalii College.

It is possible to fit these various incentives discussed thus far into Wanhill's (1986:2-7) summary of the three categorisation of investment incentives granted to tourism developers, as indicated by Jenkins (1982b) and Bodlender (1982:77-84).

1. Reduction of capital costs - these include capital grants or loans at preferential rates, interest rate, relief, a moratorium on loan repayments for, say, X years, provision of infrastructure, provision of land on concessional terms, tariff exemption on construction

materials and equity participation.

2. Reduction of operating costs - to improve operating viability governments may grant tax "holidays" (five to ten years), give a labour or training subsidy, offer tariff exemption on imported materials and suppliers, provide special depreciation allowances and ensure that there is double taxable or unlimited relief.

3. Investment security - the object here is to win investors' confidence in an industry which is very sensitive to the political environment. Action here would include guarantees against nationalisation, free availability of foreign exchange, repatriation of invested capital, profits, dividends and interest, loan guarantees, provision of work permits for "key" personnel and the availability of technical advice.

### 5.2.3 Administration of Tourism Incentives

Tourism incentive programmes are administered at a national level, and involves four Government Ministries. These are the Ministries of Tourism and Wildlife, Commerce and Industry, Finance, and Economic Planning and National Development. Although the actual administration is shared between Kenya Tourist Development Corporation of the Ministry of Tourism and Wildlife, and the Promotion and Development Department of the Ministry of Commerce and Industry, with input from Finance, in reality, however, many more departments are involved in regulating and/or

conferring benefits on tourism plant operators. An example here is the Exchange Control Department of the Central Bank of Kenya. A brief review of the functions of some of these agencies is necessary in order to determine how their individual roles impinge on incentive structure.

#### 5.2.3.1 Ministry of Finance

This Ministry issues investors with the "Certificate of Approved Enterprise". Before the minister issues the certificate, the investor must prove that the foreign investment assets have actually been brought into the country and that the investor has the requisite approval from the Exchange Control Department of the Central Bank of Kenya. The certificate itself states the name of the holder, a description of the enterprise, the total investment in the enterprise (comprising either loan or equity) and the percentage of the total investment that is made up of foreign investment.

#### 5.2.3.2 Central Bank of Kenya

The Exchange Control Department of the Bank operates under the Exchange Act, the purpose of which is to regulate the outflow of capital while permitting current account transactions to operate smoothly.

The administration of Exchange Control in Kenya is the responsibility of the Central Bank of Kenya by virtue of power delegated to it by the Minister of Finance. The

commercial banks perform the day-to-day administration of the controls as authorised agents of the Central Bank. There is no restriction on the import of foreign capital for investment. The Exchange Control Act however requires that before a Kenyan Company may issue shares to a non-resident, it must obtain permission from the Minister of Finance through the Central Bank. The Bank may also consider "approved status" for a certain range of equity investments, such as an owner-occupier house. In such a case, repatriation of the original principal is protected, but any gains on the sale of the asset would be blocked. Central Bank's permission is required for any loan or overdraft facility to be made available to a non-resident. Banks are permitted however, to grant overdrafts up to 20% of the non-resident investment in the business of the borrower, whether the investment is in loan or equity. Such investments may consist of cash remittances by way of share capital or may be in the form of plant, machinery and equipment, or in the form of goods supplied by overseas principal, associates or parent company.

#### **5.2.3.3 Kenya Tourist Development Corporation(K.T.D.C.)**

As described before, the K.T.D.C. is a parastatal organisation created under an Act of Parliament in 1965, and became operational in 1966. The K.T.D.C. aims at promoting and developing tourism in Kenya and is the channel for Government financial participation in the tourist industry. Broadly, the main functions of the

Corporation include investigation, formulation, implementation and follow-up relating to tourist development; investment and hotel management.

#### 5.2.3.4 Ministry of Commerce and Industry

This Ministry is made up of two departments - Promotion and Development. The Promotion Department is charged with identification, preparation, planning and promotion and implementation of development projects. Its "New Projects Committee" evaluates each project to ensure that there is justification for its establishment in the country. This approval is required before Finance can issue the "Certificate of Approved Enterprise" to the investor.

The above situation whereby many different agencies are involved in incentive often brings about conflicts at the most important levels of policy and decision making. For example, in most cases, more than one Department in each ministry is responsible to some extent for various aspects of the incentives. The challenging problem, therefore, is one of achieving the diverse objectives of these institutions in a way that does not minimise but enhances the positive impact of the incentives.

Another set of problems relates to the time it takes to secure approval for tourism incentives, and the processes one has to go through, probably rising exponentially with the number of parties involved in the decision procedures.

In other words, investment approval procedures are cumbersome and time-consuming. But in order to reduce the discouraging impact of these steps on investors, the Minister of Commerce and Industry announced in July, 1985 that investments of over K.sh.5 million no longer required approval of the ministry. However, investors do require as many as thirty specific approval, for anything from the purchase of land to work permits for expatriates. Many of these are perhaps necessary, but the delays in obtaining them are not. The process of gaining Government approval for any investment can take as long as three years, itself a strong deterrent to investors.

Government is determined to simplify, co-ordinate and shorten the process of investor approval. In late 1986, Government appointed an inter-ministerial committee under the chairmanship of the Ministry of Finance to recommend a set of simplified procedures for investment approval and consolidating those that will remain into a streamlined process. This has resulted in the recently established Investment Facilitating Committee of the Investment Promotion Centre (I.P.C.) in Nairobi. Writing on this new body, Ikiara (1987) has this to say:

'To reduce bureaucracy and delays encountered in obtaining various approvals required to start an investment project, the I.P.C. is to act as a "one-stop" office, where all the necessary information and assistance required by investors will be provided. This administrative re-organization is aimed at reducing the period required to obtain all necessary approvals to a maximum of two months.'

### 5.3 THE GAMBIA

#### 5.3.1 Policy Objectives of Tourism Incentives

Gambia's offer of tourism incentives is in large part intended to attract foreign investment in the tourism sector. This policy, which has been in force since the early 1970's, is rooted in the country's relatively new-comer position in the tourism industry in which it faces stiff competitions from other similar destinations equally considered lagging behind in this economic sector. Implicit in this is a realisation that tourism, as an export-oriented activity, is profitable - has some attraction, as it contributes to development, creating employment and income-earning possibilities. Since The Gambia is a one-crop agricultural economy, incentive programme is seen as a way to encourage people to invest in the enterprise, to ward off potential competitors, in order to diversify the country's economic base. The objectives are also consistent with the country's national development priority which, among other considerations, is to enhance the efficient use of the country's capital resources. And so the development of the tourism incentive programme is seen not only as a demonstration of Government's commitment to improving the status of the tourism sector but also to ensure that scarce resources are channelled to eligible entrepreneurs. Thus, the 1973 Development Act was enacted with these objectives in mind - in short, to promote an accelerated pace of



tourism development climate of The Gambia.

Critics may argue that if tourism is a profitable enterprise, then investors need no incentives; if not, then it should not be undertaken, given that scarce capital earns high returns, which alone should suffice to attract capital. However, this again comes back to the argument advanced above that the tourism investment market is already distorted by various actions of competitors. It is not always easy to deal with such distortions, particularly in the short run, but compensating measures in the form of incentives may be justified, since other developing countries have offered them, albeit with successful results. The Gambia's case for use of them is no exception.

The spillover benefits from tourism investment, as remarked, justify Gambia's use of incentives, especially as these benefits underline the country's development policy to Gambianise many aspects of its economic life, including tourism. For example, many tourism developers, in relation to the hotel sub-sector, provide in-house and overseas training programmes for workers in the industry. The resultant creation of such a skilled labour force may benefit the country as a whole beyond the profits to the firms providing the training, so society should bear some of the costs. The need for significant learning period in the emerging tourism sector which becomes profitable only in the long run, but which would not be undertaken at all

in the short run unless Government offers such concessions, makes the case for incentives. For all of the above reasons, the Government has intervened in tourism to offer incentives. In support of such objectives, the Government launched (in the 1973 Development Act) a policy of hotel investment which consisted of: 1) total guarantee to domestic foreign entrepreneurs in the hotel sub-sector of land in the Tourism Development Area (T.D.A.) 2) the issuance to prospective tourism investors of development certificates, detailing the benefits offered, the eligibility criteria and the obligations of the Government and investors.

### 5.3.2 Types of Incentives

Government sources in The Gambia indicate that a wide range of incentive instruments have been utilised in support of investments in tourism - some direct, others indirect. The strategies cover a whole gamut of issues relating to investment codes/development certificates, infrastructure and services, and employment incentives. Basically, these are of a fiscal and financial nature, and perhaps more, and apply mainly to hotel investments. The first set of strategies relating to measures to enhance investor confidence:

Political stability in The Gambia, and the Government's sensible macro-economic policies towards tourism, have been the most influential factors in the location decision by

foreign investors in the tourism industry in the country. As noted elsewhere, the involvement of the Government in the sector began in 1972 with the initiation of the U.N.D.P.- assisted, I.D.A.-financed "Tourism and Infrastructure Project" (T.I.P.). Simultaneously, the Government pursued a policy to support hotel investment structures. The Government, through the Ministry of Economic Planning and Industrial Development (M.E.P.I.D.), issues prospective investors in tourism, development certificates that allowed a number of fiscal and financial incentives; and recently, with the introduction of the Economic Recovery Programme (E.R.P.), it liberalised exchange control regulations. Now the domestic currency is freely floated, permitting the importation and exportation of foreign currency. Thus, the removal of controls in general, and indeed, non-interference by Government in these exchange rates, are achieved. By these measures, the Government believes it has created the necessary environment for business to invest in the tourism sector. These various measures are now discussed below.

#### **5.3.2.1 Investment Codes/Development**

Under the Development Act (1973),<sup>4</sup> an investor in any development activity, including tourism, in The Gambia, may be considered for a Development Certificate, permitting a number of concessions, as follows:

1. An investment guarantee relating to such matters as fiscal stability, repatriation

of capital and the transfer of dividends and profits.

2. A reduction or elimination of excise or export duty for the development product for a prescribed period.

3. A reduction or elimination of duty on imported raw materials or semi-processed material for a maximum period of eight years.

4. Relief from the payment of purchase tax on materials obtained from local sources and a refund of up to 90% of the duty element on materials purchased locally.

5. Duty-relief on plant machinery and all construction materials utilised in a factory.

6. An Income Tax holiday up to a maximum of eight years.

(An Investor's Guide to The Gambia, 1977:14).

The holder of a Development Certificate may, after the expiry of his tax holiday period, carry forward and set off any net loss incurred during his tax holiday period, against chargeable income in respect of six succeeding years of assessment. In addition to the above, an expatriate quota (on alien workers) is always assured, if this is essential to the successful implementation of a project. The Act empowers the Minister administering the Act to satisfy himself that the applicant is adequately financed, and has access to adequate trained personnel and requisite raw materials and possesses or will possess the necessary place for his business. The development products or activities which qualify for assistance under the Development Act are fully discussed in An Investor's Guide to The Gambia cited above. Some aspects of these incentives also apply to the tourism sector, and could be broadly classified under three categories:--

1) fiscal assistance; 2) financial assistance; and 3) other assistance. It is to be emphasised that, in the context of tourism, the incentives falling under these three categories, are given to encourage more hotels to be built or more capital investment in tourism projects to be executed.

**5.3.2.2 Fiscal assistance** can be direct or indirect. Direct fiscal assistance is in the form of tax-holidays on incomes or profit obtained by the management of hotels and other touristic businesses in general. The exemption period is based on the size of the hotel investment, and varies from two to eight years. The concession enables the investors to recover their capital more quickly and maintain greater liquidity in the early years, thus reducing the risk factor usually associated with tourism.

As to indirect forms of taxation, investors in tourism in The Gambia have been given tariff concessions or customs duty waivers on capital items required for tourism projects, especially in the hotel, transportation and recreation spheres. These refer to duty-free imports of all materials and accessories (from construction materials to furnishings and technical and technological components) necessary to realise tourism investments. Such waivers apply only to goods not available domestically. Other development incentives are well covered in the "Incentives Under the Income Tax Act" and this section has referred to them only insofar as they form part of the incentive

packages offered to tourism investors. Under the double tax agreement of The Gambia with some other countries, like the United Kingdom, Sweden, Norway, Denmark, Nigeria, Sierra Leone, Ghana, and the United States of America, among others, profit arising from the operation of ships and aircrafts (as components of tourism) by these countries, are not at present taxable in The Gambia. Similarly, dividends earned or accrued in The Gambia, to the residents of these countries are not at present taxable in The Gambia under the above agreements, even if the company paying dividend is resident in The Gambia.

#### **5.3.2.3 Financial Assistance**

Government has also sought to encourage private investment in the tourism industry in the form of providing internal bank loan guarantee under the 1973 Development Act. According to official Government sources, the loans in which the Government is only a guarantor are twelve, amounting to a total of D80 million; they (the loans) were granted between 1979 and 1982. The purpose of these loans was to finance hotel construction, notably Senegambia, Kombo Beach and Atlantic hotels. Long-term debt financing of the financial institutions, for example, African Development Bank, was around 10% per annum and the maturity period, on average, of about fifteen years, with a grace period of two to three years. More will be said of this assistance under "Infrastructure and Services" section below.

#### **5.3.2.4 Other Forms of Assistance**

Apart from the fiscal and financial help, there are also other incentives which the Government has offered to encourage entrepreneurs to invest in the sector. Under the 1973 Development Act, foreign investors in tourism ventures in The Gambia are permitted to export or repatriate their capital/dividends, through the opening of external accounts. The current thinking in The Gambia today is that this incentive is now obsolete, especially with the introduction of the new exchange rate which allows one to bring in one's money into, and also to take it out of, the country.

#### **5.3.2.5 Infrastructure and Services**

Government's provision of infrastructure and various forms of services in favour of tourism can be seen as incentives to boost investors' morale. Reference has been made to the creation of the Tourism Development Area(T.D.A.) where investors, interested in building hotel structures, are provided with the land, at a fairly reasonable cost. They do not pay for the land, rather it is leased out to them, although they are required to pay some token fees for surveys, and make an annual rent of D100. The land is developed by Government - with complete infrastructure - from utilities to roads.

In using tourism as a strategy to bring development to the

remotest parts of the country, the Government is at present offering incentives to investors to locate their tourism businesses outside of the Greater Banjul Area(G.B.A.); partly also to improve the distribution of income, and partly also to slow down the rate of rural-urban migration, and thus avert the negative externalities associated with large urban agglomerations.

Another service the Government has provided for investors in tourism is assistance in identifying, financing, implementing, and managing tourist projects. The Government has carried out pre-investment studies, such as the Tourism and Infrastructure Project(T.I.P.), to provide information on markets and supply of infrastructure to interested investors. Funds have been provided for the T.I.P., through international lending, as seen, with Government as the guarantor. The Government has participated in the development of Yundum Airport, designated to be the main airport handling charter air traffic; the objective is to increase the airport's capacity to handle larger charter aircrafts.

Once the tourism enterprise is in place, the Government has provided assistance with training of the labour the hotels would need, hence the establishment of the Gambia Hotel School. With the setting up of the Expatriate Quota Board, the Government has empowered the Board to bring in requisite foreign managerial and technical personnel. As will be examined in the next chapter, as a further



incentive, The Gambia has accepted three types of hotel management of franchise agreement, in order to make the hotel sub-sector more efficiently run than hitherto.

#### 5.3.2.6 Employment Incentives

Employment generation is one policy objective of Gambia's tourism programmes. The instruments used to accomplish this goal are diverse, ranging from general incentives for increased investment to subsidies specifically aimed at the use of labour. As seen, many of the incentives seek to attract capital, which is scarce, in order to employ more labour. The Gambian Government recognises that tourism development can be carried out using a range of activities or facilities supporting tourist infrastructure and services. To this end, the Tourist Industry Licensing Act(No.16,1974) registers enterprises in the country as providing complementary services connected with tourism. The component list<sup>5</sup> is very long, and concentrates in the private-informal sector, and includes such trades as ground tour operators, ground transport enterprises, artisans, and other forms of accommodations outside of the tourist hotels. Although these have a local base, their mere mention in the Act illustrates their employment-creation<sup>6</sup> potential as well as points to Government's measures to encourage the existence of foreign-indigenous private tourism investment initiatives; and underscores the very many services which are located outside and operated independently of the hotels, representing the main items or

services used or purchased by the tourists, as sources of major tourist out-of-pocket expenditures. The expenditure sources are outside the scope of this research, and are, therefore, not discussed further.

### 5.3.3 Administration of Incentives

The administration of tourism incentives is the joint responsibility of many different government agencies, namely: the National Investment Board (N.I.B.), the Ministries of Economic Planning and Industrial Development (M.E.P.I.D.), of Finance and Trade, and of Information and Tourism. To the extent that these agencies are, directly or indirectly, involved in the development of tourism in The Gambia, there is no doubt that they relate to one another, and their impact is of great importance in regulating or conferring benefits on investors. An examination of the functions of these bodies reveals the extent of their inter-relatedness regarding incentive administration. First, the National Investment Board (N.I.B.).

#### 5.3.3.1 National Investment Board (N.I.B.)

In relation to tourism incentives per se, the NIB plays a dominant role as it handles the Government's interests in the hotel investment enterprise. Established by an Act of Parliament in 1977, the Board performs two main functions - advisory and control. The advisory functions concern managerial and financial policies, particularly

concerning organisational structure, capital allocation and new investments in which Government has interests. No public corporation may undertake any major investment negotiation without inputs from the N.I.B. The Act further states that the N.I.B. shall, in consultation with the M.E.P.I.D. and the commercial banks, encourage and assist in the setting up of new commercial and industrial activities.

As the controlling organisation for government investments, the Board is empowered by the Act to conduct regular audits of government corporations, and special investigations, for which external professional assistance may be commissioned. The Board is required to prepare an annual report on the performance and profitability of all relevant companies. In the context of tourism, one Government source has this to say: "The NIB is responsible to ensure that the hotels keep their books very clearly and regularly. The Act empowers it to look into the financial records of the hotels. The Board is our watch-dog".<sup>7</sup> As far as Government guarantees and incentives are concerned, the N.I.B. provides the Ministry of Finance and Trade (M.F.T.) with the basic guidelines necessary to deal with these matters. It also advises the M.I.T. ( Ministry of Information and Tourism ) about costs and management of the hotels in which Government is a shareholder.

#### 5.3.3.2 M.E.P.I.D.

The M.E.P.I.D. (Ministry of Economic Planning and Industrial Development) promotes and encourages incentives, as well as issues hotel development certificates. The Minister in charge of this Ministry makes incentive policies, in consultation with the N.I.B., M.F.T., and M.I.T.; but the day-to-day administration of policy is carried out jointly by the N.I.B. and M.I.T.

The administrative requirements and procedures for obtaining tourism investment incentives in The Gambia are typical of what Jenkins (1982b:96-97) has noted in respect of one Caribbean country where, " 'to dummy run' an application for permission to develop a tourism project through the administrative processes of the host country", can be very complicated. In essence, it is further argued, the procedures involve the following:

- \*Initial enquiry and tourist proposal to National Tourist Organization.
- \*Outline planning permission to Ministry of Planning.
- \*Capital structure and finance to be agreed with Central Bank.
- \*Application for incentive assistance to National Tourist Organization and to specific committee.
- \*Permission to employ key expatriate staff - Ministry of Labour.
- \* For very large projects, approval by Prime Minister's Office.

The situation to be reviewed in chapter 8 on land use policy, relating to the award of contract for hotel development in the Tourism Development Area (T.D.A.) is similar to this one here described by Jenkins. Implicitly, these processes indicate that these stringent, cumbersome

and lengthy procedures can reduce or even cancel out the positive impact of the incentives. They can introduce uncertainty, and possibly, discouraging potential investors, and, depending on how the benefits are awarded and cut off, they can enhance or reduce the competitiveness of the tourism activities concerned.

The Gambian Government is aware of problems with incentives, in the aspect of policy monitoring, to ensure that developers do not abuse the privileges. Of course, steps are usually taken to pre-empt such possible abuses. For instance, the author's field research in The Gambia reveals that tourism planners have pinned the investors down:

'The investors will submit a list of items they intend to bring in or import, stating the goals for which they (the materials) are meant. Then there is a co-ordination among the various Government agencies concerned with policy matters - the Ministries of Planning, Finance, Information and Tourism, Construction, and others. These bodies do ensure that the operators utilise what they have brought in for the hotel investment projects.'<sup>2</sup>

From the foregoing, it is clear that since many bodies are involved in incentive decisions, consequently it takes a very long time to reach a concensus (six months, or possibly less or more), especially in this particular instance where the decision must be made by more than one minister. The investment code does not mention the number of copies of an application to be filled out for investment

privileges required, but one may hazard a guess, and that is, that a lot of paper work is not ruled out. It then stands to reason that the more bodies involved in the decision process, the greater the chance of contradictory or confusion signals and rules there are bound to be. There are no maximum statutory periods for a decision, but these are not always observed in practice.

The degree to which the decision on conferring benefits is discretionary is very important. In The Gambia, the Development Certificate lists a number of industries, including tourism, approved for incentive aid. For tourism, the certificate specifies clearly that this award is based on the size of investment, although there have been occasions when this has not been observed, and the implementing agencies, the N.I.B., and the M.I.T., have used their discretion. While the discretionary approach allows The Gambia to limit the number, and thus the cost of the concessions awarded, its success depends much on the quality and integrity of the people (in this case, the N.I.B. and the M.I.T.). It is costly in terms of trained staff, often a relatively scarce commodity. This situation creates problems for the potential investor who may not know what criteria will be applied to his application. On the other hand, automatic qualification of all tourism developers meeting clearly-specified requirements is much easier to administer, but may be more, in terms of revenue foregone, since the number of such qualifying developers is

likely to be high.

Another close look at the Development Act (1973), the Development Certificate, and the "Conditions for the Award of an Option for Hotel Project at the T.D.A." shows that, put together, these lists contain information required for investors applying for tourism benefits. The requested information is voluminous and sometimes, is not related in any way to the awarding of benefits. Such a key variable, as the economic profitability of the potential investor or the information required to calculate it, is omitted. In The Gambia, for example, investors are asked to submit their projected costs and profitability. This is perhaps a step in the right direction, since it demonstrates the extent to which the potential tourism entrepreneur could be profitable without the concessions. However, it does not reveal the profitability of the project to the economy, since the prices used still reflect distortions caused by the general policy environment (for example, tariffs). Furthermore, neither this nor either requested information, like the investor's training programme, appears to be used as a criterion for granting concessions, although it is possible the Gambianisation programme of the country, imbibed by the tourism firm, may be crucial in a final selection decision.

#### **5.4 Impact of Incentive Policies**

The decision to offer incentives to encourage tourism

development in Kenya and The Gambia has costly side effects, and conversely - on both the investors and the local economies. Although the author is not aware of any existing studies that have evaluated such incentive impact, the present section discusses the perceived impacts, based on the evidence from other developing countries, and a content analysis of government papers of the two countries.

As seen, incentives are a common feature of the tourism systems of these two countries under investigation. The incentive measures describe the privileges of the entrepreneurs, the eligibility criteria and the obligations of the Governments and the investors. They are of a tariff and fiscal nature, requiring certain conditions, often related to size of investment. Although they usually apply equally to domestic and foreign investors, they are aimed primarily at the latter.

#### **5.4.1 Impact on the Host Economies**

The evidence is of three types: analysis of the investment codes, infrastructure and services, and employment incentives.

##### **5.4.1.1 Investment Codes**

By tariff concessions, Governments lose some revenue which means also that there are distortions in the allocation of resources. Exemptions in duties on tourism inputs (or capital equipment) favours the use of capital over labour,



since labour not only is usually taxed, but is also often subject to a minimum wage greater than its opportunity cost. In the case of The Gambia, for example, there is a payroll tax of D5,000 per person per annum levied on any hotel for employing an expatriate worker. The result is that the exemption will tend at the margin to increase the capital input to tourism venture over what might have been the case without intervention. In relation to Kenya, the tariff structure is such that high duties are placed on imports that compete with domestic inputs, while duties on non-competitive inputs are kept at lower levels. Under these conditions, it has been possible for some tourism firms to earn large profits even though they save very little foreign exchange, employ few workers and use their capital inefficiently.

Tax concession has been used to create a favourable climate for investment. Although tax holidays, in the case of The Gambia, allow investors to recover their capital more quickly and maintain greater liquidity in their early years, thus reducing risks, they have limitations. As with tariff exemptions, the most obvious cost of a tax holiday is the revenue foregone by the Government, although this is not a cost if the investment would not have been undertaken without the tax incentives.

Another possible cost is through the impact on resource allocation. The existing tax system in The Gambia,

for instance, allows up to 50% of the profits on capital gains to be imposed. Again, tax holiday is for eight years and is related to the size of the tourism investment. Based on these, the tax incentive privileges have implications for The Gambian economy. Both factors - the profit tax and tax holiday - could influence the capital intensity of investment and, indeed have encouraged some plant developers to embark on short-run investment, designed to earn profits quickly, closing at the end of the holiday period. The extent to which this phenomenon is common in The Gambia, could not be verified during field research.

No doubt, a lengthy period of exemption (eight years) from taxes can be very costly to the treasury, while it is likely to be less important to the course of tourism, in terms of a return on investment. Aware of the short-term horizon over which the private hotel investor will seek profits, his discount rate (the rate of interest at which he discounts future earnings) is likely to be high compared to that of the Government. The benefits offered and profits expected in the early years of a hotel project are likely to have the greatest impact, and the greater their cost will be to the Governments relative to their value to the tourism firm.

#### **5.4.1.2 Infrastructure and Services**

Inadequate infrastructure can prevent the development of tourism. Roads, airports, and ports are necessary both for

attaining inputs and for selling tourism inputs. The intervention by the Governments of the two countries to provide these saves the investors from the trouble of undertaking to do these themselves, and thus to avoid the cost associated with their provision. Inadequate telecommunication systems, for example, can slow work, also reducing returns to investment. Whilst government's provision of infrastructure favours tourism development, by implication, this measure also opens up other parts of the countries, especially the remotest zones, to development benefits. On the other hand, public funds have been channelled increasingly into direct investment in tourism, many of which have become a steady drain on the budgets.

#### 5.4.1.3 Employment Incentives

The establishment of hotel-tourism training schools - for The Gambia (Gambia Hotel School) and Kenya (Kenya Utalii College) - are regarded as incentives to benefit the economy as a whole by helping to create the trained labour force for the tourism sector. Several reasons have been offered for targeting the incentives directly at tourism labour use. Given that hotel workers are free to change jobs, the hotel/tourism firms that bear the cost of their training may not capture all of the benefits, and training subsidies would be appropriate.

From a social viewpoint, another reason sometimes offered

for employment promotion in the industry is that employment creation is necessary to improve income distribution, raise incomes and reduce urban unemployment. While income distribution might initially be improved by employment incentives, the promotion of labour use in the sector beyond its economically efficient level could well reduce the growth rate of income, thereby worsening conditions in the longer run. Furthermore, creation of more tourism jobs in the Greater Banjul Area or in Nairobi or Mombasa might increase the rate of rural-urban migration and lead to even higher unemployment.

Apparently, the most direct way to promote the use of tourism labour is through employment subsidies. But the difficulties in subsidising employment in the industry for these countries lies in the fact that, unlike tax concessions, subsidies (especially allowing students of the hotel/ tourism training schools free training costs, for instance) must be explicitly accounted for, and financed in, the budget. Tax measures adopted to finance such training costs might have offsetting effects on unemployment. The observation by Lent (1967: 159-160) supports this, and this is true for The Gambia and Kenya, that the combined burden of payroll taxes on wages, apprenticeship can be as high as one-quarter of the payroll. For The Gambia, as noted earlier, it is 50% in the case of an expatriate worker. The effect of these taxes on the allocation of capital and labour depends on their incidence. If the tax can be shifted to the employees it

will not affect the demand for labour (it may, however, affect the supply of labour, as well as the distribution of income). The use of general tax revenues would eliminate this problem, but might be politically unpopular.

#### 5.4.2 Impact on Investors

The impact on investors of tourism incentives of these two countries is controversial, particularly as the differences between Governments and investors as to which factors are believed to be important, are striking. In the absence of any known existing studies, published either in Kenya or in The Gambia, or elsewhere, that have looked at this matter, or any data, independently collated, the author's information derives from interviews held with some government tourism officials and a few tour operators in The Gambia, and, to a limited extent, with similar counterparts in Kenya.

In a reply to the question, "How do you rank important incentives?", one interviewee sums up Government position clearly, thus:

'I will tell you right away that hoteliers would obviously give a high ranking to the duty concessions, because the first five years of theirs, the hotels do not pay any corporate tax anyway. The only thing that the tax holidays save them from is wrangling with the Commissioner of Income Tax. But what is also in for them really is duty concessions on capital goods. It is their capital outlay from the word go.'

It is possible to suggest that both governments have a high rating for the incentives they offer. The crucial ones are equality of treatment with locals, progressive domestic climate, government-sponsored stabilisation programmes, and favourable terms for transfer of profits and repatriation of capital.

Investors, on their part, agree that equality of treatment and transfer of profits and repatriation of capital are important. They also consider the other three most important Government policies to be establishment of, and firm adherence to, a national development programme (as a measure of the Government dedication to economic development), non-discrimination against ownership and control and freedom from detailed or burdensome regulations on organisation, ownership and management (this applies to The Gambia). The investors believe also that the Economic Recovery Programmes (E.R.P.) embarked upon by the Governments of the two countries have good intentions, at least they enable the investors to have a freer access to foreign exchange dealings than before their introduction, but that, of course, the measures are at a cost. The devaluation of the local currencies of these countries as a result of the E.R.P. hurts the foreign investors as this means that currency exportation will not yield much dividend. The factors most often mentioned with respect to both states are not Government policy, but political stability, followed by a favourable government attitude towards private enterprise and the profit motive and

economic and financial stability.

In the circumstance, again the observation by Lent (1967:310, 315) might very well be used to conclude:

'typically play a role subordinate to In general, developing countries need not be concerned about matching the tax benefits of other countries in order to attract foreign capital for new industries. Tax considerations more basic economic factors in the location of industry. Comparative bidding among countries by the offer of more and more generous tax concessions tends to reduce revenue from foreign investment without increasing the total flow of capital....'

## 5.5 Conclusions

A number of conclusions relevant to the objectives of tourism development programmes of Kenya and The Gambia on incentives emerge from the present chapter. In particular, it (the chapter) examines the wide variety of incentive measures available in both countries to stimulate investment in tourism and the preconditions or performance requirements related to such incentives. In addition, it demonstrates that such compensatory programmes are needed to increase the rate of foreign involvement in the sector, without which the industry might not have attained its present level of development. Policy objectives for incentives may be similar, and pursued through often similar instruments, but generally the packages offered and the ways in which they are granted or administered are sometimes different.

The award of tourism incentives for these countries falls under four criteria. The broadest method is to grant concessions to all new developers - a practice which The Gambia has widely utilised to establish its niche on the tourism market. In regard to Kenya, however, this approach is today unpopular with the Government and so is not being used. But the evidence indicates that, in the past, Kenya had favoured its use as a viable strategy, indeed a "foot in the door device," as marketers would describe it, to gain an entry into the industry to attract potential foreign investors into the countries. The difference between the two countries in this respect is due perhaps to their stages of tourism development. There is no doubt that Kenya is more advanced than The Gambia.

As noted previously, the drawback to incentive availability is its high cost to the Government, unless taxes raised from the induced investment after the concessions end make up the difference. Secondly, both countries identify tourism as crucial to their economies, with some potential worth developing, and so they are prepared to promote the sector actively. Support for the industry, of course, is at some cost - such as the relative discouragement of other economic sectors. The third criterion is based on the notion that the award of incentives is consistent with the national development plan. This method might be least expensive in terms of lost revenue, in that it might be able to restrict concessions to those aspects of tourism



investment that would not be made otherwise. The final consideration for award of incentives is to screen projects by certain characteristics, often related to size, job creation potential, increased domestic value added, or improvement in the balance of payments. In using size criterion, for example, The Gambia assumes that the scale of tourism investment will have the greatest positive impact on the economy, but this will not be the case if resources are not efficiently used, although both countries recognise the need for prudent management of scarce resources.

One important theme that comes out quite clearly from the chapter is the extent to which the Governments of both countries and indeed the private sectors operating within their national boundaries interpret the value of incentives. The Governments use the economic rate of return as the main criterion for selecting tourism projects that are to receive special incentives. In other words, the Governments are more interested in the projects impact on the economy. Entrepreneurs base their investment decisions on the financial rate of return to their investment. It is important to underline the fact that although both rates might differ markedly from each other, incentives could be used to bring the signals to investors more closely in line with the interests of the countries - that is, to reduce the disparity between the financial and economic rates of return.

Aspects of cost-benefit of incentive packages have been looked at in the above discussion. It seems reasonable to emphasise that in the absence of concrete proof, as may be embodied in independent studies corroborating the evidence, the assessment of the relative importance of incentive programmes is purely conceptual, at a national level, for a number of reasons: there are problems involved to reach standardised estimates of the importance of programmes required for such an assessment. Such issues relate, for instance to the fact that value of such concessions sometimes depends on the incentive profit stream over a long period of time - or to the problems involved in comparing widely different programmes such as cash grants on one side, and infrastructural-related incentives, on the other. Questions ought to be asked again about awards which are based on the implementing agency's discretion. Given that the Governments of Kenya and The Gambia are still interested in encouraging investment in tourism, it needs to be emphasised that this can best be done through the investment codes reviewed earlier, but by broad fiscal, monetary and exchange rate policies that will improve the climate for savings and investment.

From an administrative point of view, it is suggested that incentive systems of these nations should be as simple as possible. For although most codes, as seen, allow some discretion, both in the approval of application and in the size of the benefits awarded, the lack of automaticity

implies a good deal of time spent in decision-making and may cause confusion, rather than interest, among investors. It is therefore hoped that the I.P.C.(for Kenya) will offer a rescue package in this regard. In addition, a substantial amount of monitoring would be needed to ensure that enterprises fulfil the conditions imposed on them. In the next chapter, attention will be focused on how the hotel sub-sector has been grappling with challenges posed by tourism development efforts of Kenya and The Gambia.

#### NOTES

1 Extensive illustrations of these relating to tourism are provided by the E.S.C.A.P.(1980) papers, as well as the work by Jenkins(1982b).

2 Details of the guide in regard to tourism are to be found in the Laws of Kenya. The reader is referred to sections on tourism.

3 Generally, "economic benefit to the country" has been interpreted to mean that a project will (1) lead either to an earning or saving of foreign exchange; (2) result in a gain of technical knowledge; (3) result in an increase in the economic wealth and employment in the country; (4) utilise local resources, and (5) promote the diversification of the economy.

4 During field research in The Gambia, the author learnt that a new Development Act (1987) was before Parliament for debate. If eventually passed into law, some of the principles of the 1973 Development Act could be slightly changed.

5 According to the Tourist Licensing Act (1974), the following enterprises are registered as connected with the tourism industry: (a) drivers and proprietors of vehicles used by tourists; (b) tour operators; (c) dyers; (d) wood carvers; (e) enterprises offering tour transport facilities; (f) tended camps for tourists; (g) airlines other than international flights accepting tourists as aircraft passengers; (h) guides and couriers; (i) persons hiring out vessels; (j) interpreters; (k) shopkeepers, stallholders, and any other person offering goods for sale to tourists; (l) proprietors of enterprises offering camps and camping equipment for hire.

6 Surveys by the World Bank (1986:69-70) give the number of tourist services available in The Gambia, as follows: Restaurants 22(230 workers), Airline companies and Travel Agencies 3, Local representational officers of tour operators 10, Car rental services 4, Tourist taxis 272, Credit card facilities(American Express, Diners'Club, Visa, Access, Carte Blanche 5, Discotheques 2, Museums 1, National Parks 1 (12 workers), Grand tour operators (for excursions) 8, Equipment hire facilities 12, and Craft markets 5 (500 markets).

7 Personal communication - Mr. Sampo-Ceesay (July, 1987)

8 Personal communication - Mr. Abdul Janha (July,1987)

9 Janha (op. cit.)

### REFERENCES

Bodlender, J.A. (1982), 'The financing of tourism projects,' *Tourism Management*, 3(4):77-84.

- Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (E.S.C.A.P.) (1980), Proceedings of the E.S.C.A.P./W.T.O. Seminar-Cum-Workshop on Investment and Financing of Tourism Development Projects and Related Infrastructures. Phuket, Thailand, 19-25, February, 1980.
- Gambia, Government of The (1977), An Investors' Guide to The Gambia. Banjul: Ministry of Commerce and Industry.
- Ikiara, G.K. (1987), 'Foreign investment - a major strategy,' Time Magazine (European Edition).
- Jenkins, C.L. (1982B), 'The use of investment incentives for tourism projects in developing countries,' Tourism Management, 3(2):91-97.
- Kenya, Government of (1979), Development Planning 1979-1983. Nairobi: Government Printer.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1981), Kenya - the Gateway to Africa: Guidelines to Investors. Nairobi: Ministry of Industry.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1981), National Food Policy. Sessional Paper No. 4, Nairobi: Government Printer.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1982) Development Prospects and Policies. Sessional Paper No, 4 Nairobi: Government Printer.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1980), Economic Prospects and Policies. Sessional Paper No. 4, Nairobi: Government Printer.
- Kenya Tourist Development Corporation (K.T.D.C.) (1976), Kenya: Agents' Sales Manual 1976. Nairobi: Ministry of Tourism and Wildlife.
- Lent, George H. (1967), 'Tax incentives for investment in developing countries,' I.M.F. Staff Papers, 14:247-321, July.
- Mitchell, Frank (1968), Costs and Benefits of Kenya's Tourism. Nairobi: Kenya Tourist Development Corporation.

## CHAPTER 6

### THE ROLE OF THE ACCOMMODATION SUB-SECTOR IN TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN KENYA AND THE GAMBIA

#### 6.0 Introduction

This chapter examines the contributions of the hotel industry to the development of tourism in Kenya and The Gambia. The emphasis is to determine the extent to which the supply of hotel accommodation is related to the demand for it, and to assess the probable impact of the interface on tourism to the countries.

Clearly, the 1970's have witnessed a remarkable increase in tourist arrivals in Kenya and The Gambia. In response to this situation, the Governments and, in the case of Kenya in particular, the private sector also, have played dominant roles in expanding lodging capacities to cope with accelerated demands for holidays. Although this policy to increase capacity is undoubtedly correct, it does raise a number of fundamental questions for policy makers.

Jenkins (1986:19-20) has suggested broad areas of concern, some of which include: 1. the effect a tourism growth target has on the existing accommodation sub-sector; 2. whether increased demand will raise existing accommodation occupancy level - or whether it will divert the market; 3. the time lag for bringing new units on stream; and 4. the impact on the host societies of a policy to move up-market

to attract higher income tourists. But, as suggested previously, one more possibility may be whether the expansion of hotel capacity will influence quality of facilities and services offered - or whether there will be an upsurge in quality?

There is, therefore, no doubt that different tourists demand a wide variety of hotel accommodation and attractions in terms of location and in terms of standards of services. This phenomenon may tend to illustrate that tour operators are significant. For after all, there is a concensus that tourism in the developing countries is a luxury activity, tailored to Western audience. Apparently, the response of most Governments in the developing economies has been to give Western European, and American, tourists more choice. How then have the Governments of Kenya and The Gambia responded to cater for all tastes in their planning for accommodation? What implications does this action have for their tourism? These are some of the main issues considered here.

Previous chapters have concentrated on general tourism development trends in these two countries. Aspects of such investigations which relate to the present chapter are in the areas of hotel capacity, demand for lodging, and occupancy rate. Essential parts of these are briefly reviewed here as well, to set the stage. Among the key policy issues analysed in the chapter here are: 1. Pricing; 2. Tour Operators' Performance; 3. Marketing; 4. Ownership



Structure; 5. Types of Management, and 6. Appraisal of the hotel sub-sector.

It is essential to point out that the author's information derives from various sources, notably 1. U.K. Tour Operators' Questionnaires; and 2. Field research notes (including interviews) in the countries being studied. Technical matters such as those on assets and investment costs of the hotel industry, or financial structure and indebtedness of the industry, are not looked at here for one simple reason: the information is believed to be sensitive, especially as these countries, indeed the private sector interests in these countries, were, therefore, not prepared to divulge it to the writer during field research.

#### **6.1 Kenya's Recent Experiences with Hotel Accommodation**

Since the beginning of the 1970's, tourism in Kenya has been in the throes of a tremendous expansion. While the most buoyant increases have been among air charter tourists, the evidence is that the overall charter arrival volume, including independent arrivals, has been spectacular. Given the need to accommodate all of the tourists coming to Kenya at prevailing prices, the Kenya Tourist Development Corporation (K.T.D.C.), the tourism investment arm of the Government, owns shares in over 4,000 hotel rooms across the country, to boost the provision of accommodation and thus contain the general shortage of

capacity.

There are three main types of hotel, classified according to the regions to which these types relate, with each region having differing characteristics, to provide lodging for tourists: 1. Nairobi and environs hotels - these are essentially of a high class, with highly developed amenities, services and facilities; 2. beach or coastal hotels - located in the Kenya coast north and south of Mombasa, with facilities for resort and recreational tourism; 3. Up-Country or Game/Safari Lodges are tented camps. This kind of accommodation caters for tourists on tour (road and air) adventure.

Rather than describe these hotels, as Falconer (1986:83-103) has done, the author chooses, for the purpose of the research, to analyse the general trends, particularly the fundamental reasons for these patterns. Therefore, aspects of the issues covered in Falconer's work relating to hotels have been arranged as follows: 1. Accommodation Capacity or Supply; 2. Demand for Accommodation; and 3. Bed-night Occupancy, plus many more general matters. But first, supply of accommodation.

#### 6.1.1 Accommodation Capacity or Supply

The evolution of hotel beds in these three hotel categories, in 1976-1985, is traced in Table 6.1 below:

**Table 6.1 : Evolution of Hotel  
Bed Capacity, 1976-1985 ('000)**

	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985
Nairobi	2898	2847	2739	2815	2888	2948	2999	3033	3012	2820
Coastal	2982	3043	3330	3782	3794	3899	4344	4439	4391	4391
Lodge	1103	1138	1289	1478	1651	1829	1674	1735	1801	1814
Total	6983	7028	7353	8075	8325	8526	9011	9207	9204	9025

Source: Central Bureau of Statistics (1986), Statistical Abstracts. p. 27.

The above, as with the evidence to be presented below, indicated that capacity in Nairobi hotels and Game Lodges has expanded much more slowly than demands for beds in the coastal hotels where capacity has undergone rapid expansion. Understandably, such differences have implications for National Product, in terms of tourist expenditure on travel and tourism. All the same, the reasons for the differences are clear.

Prior to the tourist 'boom', the coastal region, as a pace-setter in Kenya tourism development, has witnessed the building of many hotels. Possibly, this phenomenon might have enabled capacity expansion to be effected very cheaply by adding rooms and making improvements in existing facilities, perhaps out of retained earnings. The second reason is administrative, and relates to (as will be discussed) the numerous agencies involved in the administration of land for tourism development purposes. To build a hotel at the Coast requires dealing with a large

and confusing variety of public agencies, but it has been possible for developers to deal with them, if at a cost. Game Lodge development is not hampered by a lack of finance, rather by difficulties in negotiating terms on which they should be built and run with National Parks and County Councils. In the case of Nairobi hotels, capacity expansion is hindered by cost - cost of land and of hotel construction. On many occasions, considerable time is lost in negotiating financing through a number of investment bodies; this retards the beginning of construction. In the circumstances, most small-scale developers prefer to use their scarce resources to improving the existing capacity of non-international standard Nairobi hotels.

#### 6.1.2 Demand for Accommodation

The three classifications underline the tourist product of Kenya, the profile of the tourists themselves, as well as what attracts these tourists to vacation in that country (in terms of what Kenya has to offer). For example, Nairobi, as a centre for many incoming tours, attracts a large number of visitor bednights - precisely because, as noted elsewhere, game viewing tours originate and terminate in the city. In addition, as both a commercial centre and a capital city of the country, Nairobi attracts many visiting businessmen who spend their stay in the city, as was discussed in chapter 4. Also, with good conference facilities, the city hosts many international conferences. The recent Economic Survey (1987:165) reports that

conference tourism has become an established facet of Kenya's tourism. For instance, the activities at Kenyatta International Conference Centre were high in 1982 (18,050 delegates, or 59%) but declined sharply in 1984 (5,768 or 44%). The activities have since grown such that both 1985 and 1986 were good conference years - 28,844 (54%) in 1985 and 14,609 (57%) in 1986. Table 6.2 illustrates this trend.

**Table 6.2 : Conferences Held at Kenyatta International Conference Centre, 1982-1986**

	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986*
Number of Conferences	29	36	40	35	29
No. of Conference Days	218	176	160	197	210
Number of Delegates	18,050	13,970	5,768	28,844	14,609
Percentage of Occupancy	59.0	48.2	44.0	54.0	57.5

Source: Economic Survey (1987:166)

\* Provisional

In 1986 alone, the Centre catered for 29 international conferences which were attended by 14,409 delegates. The number of conference days increased from 197 in 1985 to 210 in 1986 - resulting in a rise in the occupancy rate (as will be seen below) at the Centre, from 54% in 1985 to nearly 58% in 1986.

The Kenya Coast at present appeals almost exclusively to the western European market - West Germans, Scandinavians, although the British predominate. The appeal is multi-faceted: tropical climate and warm waters, unspoiled uncrowded (so far) beaches, game-viewing areas. The game

parks are the main attractions to American tourists who combine game park safaris in Kenya, with visits to Tanzania and other countries in Africa.

### 6.1.3 Bed Occupancy Rate

The demand for different types of holiday is reflected in the visitor bednights for each zone, as shown below:

Table 6.3 : Hotel Bed-nights Occupied  
by Zone, 1982-86 ('000)

	1982	1983	1984	1985
Nairobi	1,400.7	1,324.3	1,397.4	1,486.9
Coast	2,540.9	2,443.1	2,533.5	2,565.6
Up-Country	686.0	704.7	753.4	765.9
Total Occupied	4,628.5	4,472.1	4,684.3	4,818.4
Total Available	9,011.0	9,207.5	9,203.8	9,024.8

Sources: 1. Economic Survey, 1987  
2. Tourism Market Report, 1983

Although it is true that bednights are preferred to arrivals because the former give a better picture of total demand in a particular region, in this case, Kenya, the table above will be treated with caution because it does not tell us anything about number available in each accommodation category, rather it gives an aggregate figure for all types.

However, the trend implicit in the figures presented above points towards greater popularity of coastal holidays, and

that bednights at the coast exceed those for all other parts of Kenya. While there has been a steady increase of hotel beds across the board, distribution of this growth has remained much the same between each of the three regions. As a consequence, bed occupancy levels have risen in coastal hotels at the expense of Nairobi hotels as is demonstrated in table 6.4 below:

**Table 6.4 : Average Hotel Bed  
Occupancy Rates(%), 1977-1985**

	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985
Nairobi	49.5	51.5	53.0	52.0	49.5	46.5	43.5	46.2	52.5
Coast	53.7	53.0	52.0	57.3	55.3	50.7	48.3	46.3	51.0
Up-Country	39.8	36.4	35.8	38.4	37.4	35.6	35.2	36.2	37.6

Source: Statistical Abstract (1986)

Available beds in up-country hotels and lodges have not increased at the same rate as the other two areas. This situation may be due to the restriction of further game lodge development to maintain game park environment.

With the exception of April to June when low occupancy levels occur, bednight spread throughout most tourism seasons in Kenya is somewhat even. The highest occupancy levels are recorded in the dry season of December through March. However, the recent report by the Economist Intelligence Unit (1986:32), quoting Kenya Association of Hotelkeepers and Caterers' survey of 40 coastal hotels, shows that this seasonality is levelling out as many tour

operators now sell Kenya as a year-round resort rather than a seasonal one. The figures below show that this trend became evident in 1985 when total tourist arrivals for the four quarters were as follows:

**Table 6.5 : 1985 Total  
Visitors by Season**

First Quarter	148.2	27%
Second Quarter	104.2	19%
Third Quarter	134.7	25%
Fourth Quarter	153.5	28%

#### 6.1.4 Pricing

Two separate studies (E.C.A., 1978; World Bank, 1986:33) give clues to the competitive pricing policy of Kenya relative to other destinations. The E.C.A.'s study, in reiterating some popular concern expressed about Kenya, to the effect that the country 'might be pricing herself out of the market,' goes further to indicate that there is, as yet, little evidence of this. It is argued that statistics and comments of tour operators bear this out, citing comparative airfare prices from three different centres representing the main tourist generating countries, thus:

	Frankfurt (DM)	London (£)	New York (\$US)
Abidjan	2,504	541	1,318
Banjul	2,250	482	1,190
Nairobi	2,860	612	1,604
Bangkok	3,420	751	1,840
Montego Bay	3,130	605	-----
Seychelles	3,278	702	1,672

Source: E.C.A., 1978: 7



But this author's content analysis of the current brochure of British Hayes and Jarvis' tour operator regarding the inclusive tour prices, makes the following revelations: 2 weeks beach holidays, including dinner, bed and breakfast:

Egypt	£452-632
The Gambia	£559-698
Kenya	£869-1,297
Seychelles	£729-1,490

The central message here is that a holiday in Kenya, on a comparative basis, is most expensive of the four countries profiled here, hence is not price competitive.

Support for this position has also come from the 1986 World Bank's report on The Gambia, on the other hand, and seems to contradict the E.C.A.'s findings. This report gives a comparison of prices between The Gambia and its main competitors in respect of one week's sojourn, with half board and including travel, as well as the cost of a supplementary week's stay, and the option of full board, as follows:

From the table, it can be seen that often the terms offered by Kenya, on average, are less favourable than those of other countries competing for tourism. For example, in comparing Kenya and The Gambia, based on prices for 'travel and half board', it can be seen that the tourist 'package' costs in Kenya are 59% more than in The Gambia; but that the cost of food in Kenya is 39% lower than in The Gambia.

Analogically, in countries with the furthest distance from Europe such as Cote d'Ivoire, that is, former Ivory Coast, and Togo, implying higher travel costs, the prices of a supplementary week's stay are, respectively, 38% and 29% lower than for Kenya. The main causes underlying this situation are assumed to be: 1. higher costs of running the hotel network and other tourist-related infrastructure; 2. difficulties concerning food supplies, major contributory factor being that Kenya and The Gambia rely heavily on food imports.

Table 6.6 : Travel and Boarding Costs

Country	Travel Cost and 1 Week's Stay & Half Board	Supplementary Weeks Stay (%)	Option of Full Board
Tunisia	54	81	22
Morocco	76	88	101
Canary Islands	77	---	---
Madeira	81	---	---
Egypt	99	84	85
Gambia	100	100	100
Senegal	150	158	109
Kenya	159	125	61
Seychelles	204	164	109
Ivory Coast	125	87	118
Togo	131	96	129

Source: World Bank (1986)

This author, however, believes that much of what the World Bank has said above may be difficult to substantiate, for a number of reasons. Generally, the table is misleading because the information to arrive at the conclusions is not there. For example, an index (that is, base year) is

needed and this is lacking. Base year is what? 100? Again, information about origin of travel (base country) upon which travel cost and one week's stay and half board calculations are based, is equally not given. Clearly, there is no indication of food cost in the table.

In order to ensure that the hotels stay in business, and thus sustain Government's finances, a number of taxes and levies are imposed on the hotels, although these are charged to hotel guests. There is, for example, a Government hotel tax on hotel turnover. There are two rates: 1. 10% on all bed only or bed and breakfast sales; 2. 7.5% on a full board tariff sales and extra meals. Second, there is the hotel training levy. As mentioned before, this is a 2% training levy payable on all accommodation, food and beverage income. Like the hotel tax, this levy is also usually recovered from the guest and is used to fund Government sponsorship of hotel staff training schemes at the Utalii College.

In terms of the three hotel classifications discussed above, one thing is however clear, and that is, that the broad pricing outline can be generalised as follows: 1. Nairobi hotels are more expensive per room than the others; 2. Up-Country or lodges are cheaper than the average; 3. Coast accommodation falls between each category.

### 6.1.5 Tour Operators Performance

Approximately forty tour operators are at present working with Kenya including many foreign and a handful of local operators. Also, as in the case of The Gambia, and as noted elsewhere, the British market is providing a sizeable amount of tourists. In addition, one of the major British tour operators, United Touring International, is currently considering launching a self-catering holiday in Kenya, which kind of venture requires a sound organisation of good food supply and facilities. Among the famous operators for the 1986/87 season were Kuoni, Thomson, United Touring International, Abercrombie and Kent, and Rank Travel, whose businesses were on 'package' orientation. One of these companies, is the largest operator in East and Central Africa and which plans to expand into West Africa - confided to the author that, for the period under review, it sold over 10,000 holidays to Kenya alone. Although its annual turnover world-wide was over £23 million, says the unidentified source, the Kenya operation alone yielded £2 million - an indication of how crucial this Kenya sector is to the company.

Although no statistics have been disclosed about how the various operators did allot hotel rooms and how many rooms were actually involved, what did emerge clearly though was that the allotments did cover the three main tourist destination areas - Nairobi, coast, and up-country/lodge accommodations; operators filled their hotel allotment on

that basis.

Most operators agree that Kenya is generally an all-year-round destination, at least this is the British view, even though the tour operators' policy (across the board) may differ widely as regards destination profile, pricing and hotel lodging. Therefore, hotel allotment policy in Kenya has been formulated based on the different profile of tourists likely to be coming from the prime market countries - notably, West Germany, the United Kingdom, Italy, and France, and to a lesser degree, the USA.

Thus, West German operators send 'high class' tourists mainly to costly Nairobi hotels - Nairobi Hilton or Nairobi Inter-continental - usually regarded as 'up market' hotels of 4-5 star status. The English-speaking market does not consider such hotels as within the easy reach of its clients. Therefore, the UK tour operators, by tradition, known for accommodating various price ranges of tourists, send, in most cases, tourists to economy standard hotels, either in Nairobi city, or on the Coast. Hotels, like Ambassador, Boulevard, and other similar ones, are the most favoured. Still cheaper accommodations are found for clients, in apartment hotels, like Heron Court or Kimani Court.

The French practice in The Gambia is also replicated here in Kenya. As an incentive, French tour operators offer a free third week to holiday-maker for high season edges

(May/early October), but if the accommodation is chosen during the low season, tourists are obliged to actually take three weeks paid holiday and one week free owing to the fortnightly frequency of the charter flights operated by Minerva Aircraft. Generally speaking, there is a consensus among numerous tour operators that Kenya is a 'value for money destination.'

#### 6.1.6 Marketing

Kenya has a high tourist rating because of her unique offering of coastal resort facilities combined with easy access to well-stocked game parks. "The land Out of Africa" (E.I.U., 1986:37) slogan, coined from the world-wide publicity that the Oscar winning film, "Out of Africa", forms the basis of its tourism marketing campaign. In addition, the country utilises another national theme under the slogan "Kenya - all of Africa in one country" (New African, 1987:32) to promote Kenya tourist product. The aim of the publicity is to attract as many tourists as possible, and by the turn of the century (1990, to be precise) Kenya expects tourist arrivals to top 1 million mark - an increase of 30.6% from the 1986 total of just over 600,000.

The Ministry of Tourism and Wildlife formulates promotional campaigns for tourism, but actual execution of such programmes is with the Marketing unit of the Department of Tourism. Previous chapters have looked at the operations of

the Ministry, its relationships with other government institutions whose functions all impinge on tourism promotion. No attempt is, therefore, made here to replicate the discussion. It is nonetheless important to note that the tasks confronting the Ministry of Tourism and Wildlife in regard to fulfilling its marketing role appear extremely difficult for the lone reason - the limited funds at the Ministry's disposal. Although no figures are available, the report by the E.I.U. is extremely interesting, suggesting that:

'...expenses from the ministry's operations are mostly consumed in paying the overheads of its nine overseas tourist branches....'<sup>4</sup> The promotional budget for the Kenyatta International Conference Centre, which hosted over 28,000 visitors in 1985, was fixed at a tiny KSh500,000 (\$31,500). This can be compared with the sum of \$1mn allocated to the Manila conference centre in the Philippines. Despite the adoption of a more integrated, national approach in recent trade fairs, the private sector has been requested to increase its contribution to joint promotion from 40 to 60 per cent of the total.' (E.I.U.,1986:37)

Since 1982, the idea of a National Tourism Marketing Board was proposed to co-ordinate the promotional activities of the private sector and thus make Kenya more widely known abroad than at present. Although this proposal called for a private sector committed response to fund much of the set-up, this proposal, unfortunately, till date, remains an illusion. Reasons for private sector non-involvement are not clear. But one suggestion is that the private sector believes that it has made an appropriate and reasonable

contribution to promotional ventures. On the other hand, it is possible that the private sector considers that it has not been consulted enough by the Government in other matters for which collective decisions may be required to foster the cause of tourism in Kenya. At any rate, the Ministry's attention has now shifted to promoting domestic tourism - a consideration which is outside the scope of this research and is therefore not pursued further. Research by Nkari (1985) and Getambu (1982) have discussed very extensively how Kenya has promoted itself, both at home and abroad - the reader is referred to these sources for further knowledge in these general areas.

#### 6.1.7 Ownership and Management Structure of Hotels

The ownership structure of hotels in Kenya includes hotels with foreign capital invested in them and those in which government has an equity interest. Foreign involvement in the hotel industry in Kenya follows from the investment policy of the country which, as was reviewed earlier, recognises the important role of private sector participation in tourism activity as a major strategy for national economic development. References are usually made to "an easy-going policy on repatriation of foreign capital, profits and dividends, enabling investors who wished to remit funds to do so without hardship" (Ikiara, 1987). Thus, data recorded in a recent E.I.U. Report (1986) show that gross outflows of investment income from Kenya have always exceeded net private long-term capital inflow.



The reasons are obvious.

Dunning and McQueen (1981:20-21) have assessed the relative importance of international hotel chains' operations in 1978 in a number of developed and developing countries, by estimating the share of rooms in these hotels in total hotel rooms in each country. They have also indicated that foreign participation ratio varies from 6% (for the USA) to 61% (Seychelles), averaging at 3.3%. A high ratio points to a high foreign ownership ratio. The percentage given for Kenya is 13.1% - about 10% in excess of average - thus indicating that foreign-associated hotels in that country are more than the indigenously-owned ones. Here again, the reasons are clear:

'The foreign-participation is likely to be higher in countries in which hotels are concentrated in central cities than in those in which transnational corporations are more likely to be involved in hotels that service business rather than those that cater for holiday tourism' (Dunning and McQueen, 1981:20)

This explains why most of the Nairobi hotels - Hilton, Inter-continental, and others, for example, are foreign-owned, controlled and managed, and are usually in the three-star<sup>2</sup> category or above.

On forms of involvement, these authors have identified four levels or types, namely: ownership (or part-ownerships), leasing arrangements, management contract, and franchising (Dunning and McQueen, 1982: 78-82). These various issues

raised here are discussed in some great length in a Commonwealth Secretariat's (no date) study - Tourism in Developing Countries - especially in relation to hotel agreements with multinationals, and the direct financial benefits which should arise from tourism.

The Government of Kenya participates in tourism ventures, particularly in hotels, through the Kenya Tourist Development Corporation (K.T.D.C.). It has shares in all the major hotel groups in the country (although statistics are not available to the author on this) and operates very sizeable domestic chains. There are basically seven<sup>3</sup> hotel chains based in Kenya, among the largest are African Tours and Hotels Limited. These are state-owned or government-financed chains and in some cases were set-up to counterbalance the presence of foreign-based transnational corporation hotels in the local economy.

#### 6.1.8 Personnel

The recent research findings of the I.L.O. (1987) referred to in earlier chapters reveal three interesting issues. First, it is shown that the total employment in the hotel industry in Kenya is estimated at 35,500 employees. By the end of 1988, this figure is forecast to increase to 37,000, based on the current yearly rate of growth of hotel beds in the country. Second, the 1986 Economic Survey published the following information:

	<u>Male (%)</u>	<u>Female (%)</u>
Hotel Employment	92	8
Non Agricultural Sector	80	20
1985 Enrolment in Primary Schools	52	48
1985 Enrolment in Secondary Schools	64	36
Utalii College (1986) Students	70	30

It can be seen from the data that the male and female employment in the hotel business shows discrepancies; there is scope for improvement in female employment in the sub-sector. At least, today special attention is being given to creating job opportunities in areas (example, in fitness clubs) which would potentially attract women. Guides, dance groups, dance teachers, masseurs are typically female jobs.

In the third place, the non-citizen employees in the hotel network represent 0.6% of the total employment spread by skill level and occupation, as follows:

<u>SKILL LEVEL</u>	<u>Non Citizen (%)</u>
Managers	10
Department Heads	4.4
Supervisors	1.1
Skilled Workers (Basic Level)	0.3
Unskilled and Trainees	0.1
<u>OCCUPATION</u>	
Administration and Accounting	2.4
Front Office	--
Housekeeping and Laundry	0.1
Restaurant and Bar	0.3
Kitchen	0.6
Purchasing and Stores	0.3
Others	0.5

It is to be noted that the importance of the 'Managers' in number is due to the multitudes of titles, such as 'Assistant Manager', 'Acting Manager', 'Managing Director'.

The native Kenya-expatriate hotel employee imbalance, especially for key positions, is nothing new. What the present I.L.O. findings have done is to bring to focus once again the same problems to which previous studies on Kenya did address. Beginning with the Ministry of Tourism and Wildlife source in 1968, it was indicated that most of the assistant managers and other administrators were expatriates. As can be seen from the data presented in Tables 6.7 and 6.8, by 1972 and 1979, the preponderance of foreign employees over Kenya nationals in the hotel trade still remained problematic. Such wide gaps have been discussed in great detail in the Tourist Consult Working Paper (1979).

However, there are hopeful signs that with the Kenyanisation programme, which is perhaps slow in coming, nevertheless, is having some positive result. The Kenya Utalii College is beginning to make some impact on the hotel industry employment scene through the provision of sizeable workforce for the industry, as the Tourist Consult Report (1979:23) again notes:

Today, Kenya Utalii graduates represent:

- 17.5% of all hotel and restaurant managers
- 31.1% of all Kenyan managers
- 46.7% of all Afro-Kenyan managers
- 30.8% of all hotel and restaurant assistant managers
- 35.2% of Kenyan hotel and restaurant assistant managers
- 37.6% of all Afro-Kenyan hotel and restaurant assistant managers
- 9.7% of all heads of department
- 10.0% of all Kenyan heads of departments
- 10.8% of all Afro-Kenyan heads of departments

**Table 6.7 : Employment in the Hotel Industry  
by Occupation and Race in 1972**

Occupation	Total	Non African	Citizens	Afro- Kenyans	Afro- Kenyan %
General/Asst. Managers	284	192	(118)	92	32
Front Desk	534	41	(5)	493	92
Accountants, Clerical Staff	286	46	(9)	240	84
Restaurant, Bar, Room Service	2,597	36	(23)	2,561	99
Kitchen	1,613	36	(16)	1,577	98
Others	3,592	62	(12)	3,530	98
<b>Total</b>	<b>8,906</b>	<b>413</b>	<b>(183)</b>	<b>8,493</b>	<b>95</b>

Source: Migot-Adholla, et. al. (1982), quoting W. Elkan's 1972 Survey adapted from Tourist Consult Working Paper 1979:14 :64

Table 6.8 : Total Employment and Expatriates in  
68 Hotels & Catering Establishments, June '79

Type of Es- tablishment	No. of Esta- blishments	Total Employees	Expa- triates	Expatriates as % of all Employment
Town Hotels	22	3,912	36	0.9
Beach Hotels	23	3,545	32	0.9
Lodges	11	1,221	5	0.4
Other Lodging Establishments	5	398	4	1.0
Restaurants	5	213	1	0.5
Other Catering	2	217	-	0.0
Total	68	9,506	78	0.8

Source: Migot-Adholla, *et. al.* (1982:65), quoting Tourist Consult June Survey Working Paper, p. 8.

#### 6.1.9. Impact of Hotel Network

The studies by Peake (1984) and Migot-Adholla, *et. al.* (1982) seem to be the most comprehensive, in-depth but relatively recent investigations to articulate, from a broad perspective, the economic and non-economic impacts of tourism development in Kenya. Migot-Adholla, *et. al.* have reviewed the attitudes of host populations towards tourism in general, and, in particular, towards the tourist hotels. Peake, on the other hand, has considered tourism as the articulator of social relations among the coastal Malindi town. Although both researches have utilised anthropological approaches (for example, observation) to arrive at their conclusions, Migot-Adholla, *et. al.* have, in addition, relied on the structured questionnaire and quantitative methods to give some credence to the findings.

Since this chapter is interested in those aspects of the impacts attributable to the hotel industry, only relevant parts of the hotel-related results are synthesised here. It is important to emphasise that the two studies have examined the impacts relating to tourism on the coast - where most of the hotels are situated - and, of course, the coastal area is reckoned to have a leading role in the overall tourism market in Kenya, in terms of earnings and volume. First, the research findings.

An examination of the employment structure in some of six coastal hotels surveyed, has suggested that 60% of all workers were in the South Coast, 40% in the North Coast. Three major observations<sup>4</sup> can be made: 1. two-thirds of the employees come from the Coast Province - thus supporting a widely held belief that the industry creates job opportunities for the local people. 2. It is further observed that North Coast hotels employ more people from the Coast Province than South Coastal hotels. 3. Finally, it is noted that South Coast hotels employ more expatriates than North Coast hotels. This may be a reflection of the predominance of foreign capital in their ownership.

Socio-economically speaking, the impact of employment in the hotels can be seen by the fact that since the majority of these workers do not originate from the areas in which tourist hotels are located, their first immediate impact would be the demand for shelter for themselves and their families. This has led to house renting by the indigenous

people since many of the hotels do not generally provide accommodation except to a limited number of essential workers.<sup>5</sup> In addition, there is a visible boom in construction of dwelling houses in a number of settlements along the tourist belt; and this boom would probably not have arisen if it had not been for the immigrants. The influx of hotel workers to this area (who have to be housed) is dramatically demonstrated by the rapid growth, between 1969 and 1979, of Watamu village - a former fishing community, now transformed into a booming tourist area since the building of Watamu Beach Hotel.

Socio-cultural impact can also be seen - indeed, the list of negative effects is endless -and includes the increasing number of young school dropouts and the ubiquitous 'beach-boys' of Erik Cohen's characterisation. Also, the fact that "some women come to make business, some come to enjoy people, and some are just crazy" (Peake, 1984:45) phenomenon remains unchallenged, but is symptomatic of moral decadence in Kenya.

'The beach boys form a major threat to the hotel workers' model of reality. Faced with comparable problems of how to exploit Malindi's new economic resources, the beach boys have formulated radically different strategies and life-styles. With tourism becoming the over-arching and predominant factor in Malindi, the beachboys conceive an illogicality in trying to separate one's tourist life from the fields of life.'

(Peake, 1984:172)

Two fundamental questions that indicate the attitude of the



local people towards the tourist hotels - whether at the coast or in the hinterland - are investigated: 1. how much do the local people utilise tourist hotels? 2. whether the local people prefer to work in these hotels.

On the first question, over 60% of the 552 respondents to Migot-Adholla's questions are sceptical about the role of the tourist hotels - to say that they have not utilised the facilities or any other tourist attractions. For those who have visited the hotels, 18% have not been there less than three times; while another 18.8% have visited more than four times. The main reasons for visiting tourist hotels are entertainment (48.5%) and business (33.6%). Only 5% of all those who visit go there for a meal.

All this clearly demonstrates that most Kenyans do not utilise tourist hotels and other facilities. The reasons are apparent - the hotels are expensive. But most people believe that the hotel atmosphere is too artificial, basically because most of the hotels are owned by international hotel chains which have been noted to create a system that replicates the environment of the countries where the tourists come from - 'environmental bubble' of Cohen's description.

Answers to the second question are diverse and varied. Many Kenyans believe that increased tourist traffic is good for the country because of the potential employment opportunities it has, hence these individuals do want to

work in the sector. Others who decline hotel jobs say their reason is based on old age, fear of exploitation because of their low educational attainment.

## 6.2 THE GAMBIA - GENERAL TRENDS IN THE HOTEL INDUSTRY

Since the 1970's, there has been a tremendous boom in foreign tourist arrivals, on either organised packages or independent holidays, to The Gambia. This has resulted in an upward surge in hotel bed capacity. Today there are around 4,000 hotel beds to accommodate visitors.

### 6.2.1 Hotel Bed Capacity

Hotels in The Gambia are classified into two types: the small or medium-sized hotels owned by local or foreign private entrepreneurs. In the early beginning of tourism in The Gambia, and indeed in the mid-70's, it was predominantly the private hotels that had to contend with the growing influx of tourists. The second type is the large-scale hotels under large consortia, with Government equity interests. These hotels are managed by international hotel companies. Construction of this class of hotel has been made possible by Government efforts - through loan procurements and loan guarantees, for example.

Tables 6.9 and 6.10 show the evolution of hotel bed capacity as well as reveal two interesting features. The first is the increasing number of beds each year, and in particular, the dominance of private hotels over those in

which the Government participates. As remarked above, the private hotels have, since the embryonic days of Gambia's tourism to date, played a significant role in the tourism market: from 1,587 in 1975/76 to 2,242 beds in 1985/86 (Table 6.9). These compare with the second category of hotels of 410 (1975/76) to 1,964 (1985/86) beds.

Table 6.9. : Evolution of Hotel  
Bed Capacity (1975-1986)

Years	75/76	76/77	80/81	81/82	84/85	85/86
<u>No. of Beds</u>						
Private Hotels	1,587	1,737	2,542	1,972	1,901	2,242
Hotels with Govt. Participation	410	410	818	1,448	1,964	1,964
Total Beds	1,997	2,147	3,360	3,420	3,865	4,206
<u>Ratio</u>						
Private Hotels	100	109	160	124	120	141
Hotels with Govt. Participation	100	100	200	353	479	479
Total (75/76=100)	100	108	168	171	194	210

Source: World Bank (1986), The Gambia Tourism Impact Study

Table 6.10 : Accommodation Supply  
Evolution, 1969/70-1984/85

Year	Banjul		Kombo St. Mary		Total	
	Hotels	Beds	Hotels	Beds	Hotels	Beds
69/70	5	354	0	0	5	354
70/71	6	404	0	0	6	404
76/77	7	703	7	1,448	14	2,128
77/78	7	680	6	1,499	13	2,291
83/84	7	1,159	9	2,768	16	3,927
84/85	7	1,097	9	2,768	16	3,865

Source: Central Department of Statistics (1985),  
Tourism Statistics

The second feature is the spatial distribution of the hotels, as Table 6.8 above has shown. It is not surprising that most of the hotels are concentrated in the Greater Banjul Area (G.B.A.), between Banjul centre and the Kombo area. This concentration follows the overall Tourism Development Area (T.D.A.) plan. According to Government sources, the current distribution of hotel beds is further broken down as given below. But the structural characteristics of all the hotels, except those situated in the centre of Banjul, are those for a holiday, comprising a group of bungalows wherein are located the rooms, and a central block housing the various services.

**Table 6.11 : Distribution of Hotel Beds**

<b>Greater Banjul</b>	<b>No. of Hotels</b>	<b>No. of Beds</b>
Banjul Centre, excluding resort area	4	4 346
Banjul centre- resort	1	408
Banjul Outskirts	2	636
<b>Kombo Area</b>		
Cape St. Mary	1	410
Bakau/Fajara	3	836
Kotu Strand (T.D.A.)	4	940
Kotu Beach (T.D.A.)	1	630
<b>Total</b>	<b>16</b>	<b>4,206</b>

Source: The Gambia : Tourist Information and Guide Map  
(1987)

### 6.2.2 Demand for Accommodation

Tourist inflows and their hotel accommodation in The Gambia depend largely on the activities of the tour operators. Although both the influx of, and demand for, lodging fluctuates, Government statistics point to increased growth (See Tables 6.12 and 6.13).

Table 6.12 : Charter Visitors to The Gambia 1969-1985

Year	Total Arrivals of Charters By Mode			Total
	By Air	By Sea	By Land	
1969/70	1,207	4,094	0	5,301
1975/76	21,116	1,770	2,401	25,287
1981/82	13,331	1,721	2,100	17,152
1984/85	45,861	955	2,512	49,328

Source : Tourism Statistics (1985).

Table 6.13 : Visitor Arrivals in The Gambia  
By Mode and Travel Arrangements, 1980-1985

	1980/81	1982/83	1984/85
<b>Air</b>			
Charter	19,209	26,745	45,861
Non Charter	10,629	14,355	18,504
Sub Total	29,838	41,100	64,365
<b>Sea</b>			
Charter	1,558	758	955
Non Charter	209	261	279
Sub Total	1,767	1,019	1,234
<b>Land</b>			

Charter	1,624	2,443	2,512
Non Charter	<u>4,041</u>	<u>5,079</u>	<u>5,742</u>
Sub Total	<u>5,665</u>	<u>7,522</u>	<u>8,254</u>
<b>All</b>			
Charter	22,391	29,946	49,328
Non Charter	<u>24,879</u>	<u>19,675</u>	<u>24,525</u>
Grand Total	<u>37,270</u>	<u>49,641</u>	<u>73,853</u>

Source: Tourism Statistics (1985)

For instance, in 1975/76 season, charter flight arrivals were 25,287, in 1981/82 these fell to 17,152, but in 1984/85 they rose to 49,328. In terms of bed nights, these stood at 295, 227, (1981/82) and 599 (1984/85). One reason for the varying pattern of the influx of visitors may be due to the changing types of visitors. As mentioned before, the Scandinavians who had initially dominated by 90% the Gambian tourist arrivals, have today fallen to about 20% of the total arrivals; the British are now becoming more important than the Scandinavians. Another reason may be the result of the marketing policies of the various tour operators, although the Swedes regard The Gambia as their traditional holiday destination, and so many of the Swedish tourists to The Gambia are repeat visitors.

The Gambia is regarded as a seasonal resort (November-April). Now, according to the World Bank study (1986: 31), a change is slowly taking place to make the country an all-year-round holiday location, as Table 6.14 below illustrates.

The indication here is that with the recent introduction of

an off-season charter flight from Paris, the number of arrivals between the months of May and October (usually regarded as the off-peak months) may now begin to increase gradually.

Table 6.14 : Charter Arrivals By Season, 1981-1985

	1981/82		1982/83		1983/84		1984/85	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
<b>AIR CHARTER</b>								
High Season	13,285	99.7	24,739	92.5	31,826	80.6	36,826	80.3
Low Season	46	0.3	2,006	7.5	7,665	19.4	9,035	19.7
Total	<u>13,331</u>	<u>100</u>	<u>26,745</u>	<u>100</u>	<u>39,491</u>	<u>100</u>	<u>45,861</u>	<u>100</u>
<b>SEA EXCURSIONIST</b>								
High Season	1,646	95.6	616	81.3	719	90.3	669	70.0
Low Season	75	4.4	142	19.7	77	9.7	286	30.0
Total	<u>1,721</u>	<u>100</u>	<u>758</u>	<u>100</u>	<u>796</u>	<u>100</u>	<u>955</u>	<u>100</u>
<b>OVERLAND CHARTER</b>								
High Season	2,031	96.7	2,103	86.1	2,188	74.0	1,444	57.5
Low Season	69	3.3	340	13.9	769	26.0	1,068	42.5
Total	<u>2,100</u>	<u>100</u>	<u>2,443</u>	<u>100</u>	<u>2,957</u>	<u>100</u>	<u>2,512</u>	<u>100</u>
<b>TOTAL CHARTER</b>								
High Season	16,962	98.9	27,458	91.7	34,733	80.3	38,939	78.9
Low Season	190	1.1	2,488	8.3	8,511	19.7	10,389	21.1
Total	<u>17,152</u>	<u>100</u>	<u>29,946</u>	<u>100</u>	<u>43,244</u>	<u>100</u>	<u>49,328</u>	<u>100</u>

Source: World Bank (1986:55)

This situation is affected by a number of other factors

such as climate; there are, for example, variations in rainfall levels from month to month. In 1983, for instance, on average, between June and October, nearly 90mm of rain fell - a contrast with the zero record in the dry season, which is in fact the peak tourism season. Secondly, it may also be due to the type of tourist organisation and the sort of clientele The Gambia is catering for. For one thing, Gambia's tourism is sustained on organised package tours/flights which, in themselves, are a function of the availability of air carriers. For another, the latter become progressively more expensive as the demand increases for direct flights to the Mediterranean countries during the period, May-October, particularly in the peak months of June, July, and August. It goes without saying, therefore, that the type of clientele seeking sun and sea would not by choice visit The Gambia during the rainy season.

The consequence of both lack of demand and low availability of flights during the off-peak period is almost total paralysis of the market. The introduction of certain charter flights operating semi-independently of the hotel reservation framework may help to increase low season demand.

### 6.2.3 Occupancy Rate

Information on the number of bednights and the rate of occupancy of the hotel network has come from two main sources - 1. figures released by the Central Statistics



Department on volume of arrivals and the length of stay; and 2. the World Bank Mission survey on the number of hotels, rooms, and beds available in various years, and the period of time the individual hotels remain open each year.

The World Bank Hotel Survey indicates that the average length of stay of the air charter tourists is relatively high, that is, 12.6 days in 1984/85, while the average stay of total visitors is around 8 days. The rate of bed occupancy for all visitors is estimated at 56.1%, of which 47.9% represents air charter tourists. However, as would be expected, bed occupancy across hotels would differ, low in some, high in others. Hotels which operate only in high tourist season record high occupancy rates - usually a 75-90% range. Those others which open all year and function as both a business and tourist hotel register the highest occupancy level (around 67%). Table 6.15 gives us rates associated with most tourist hotels:

Table 6.15 : Hotel Bed Nights and Occupancy Rate

Hotels	Rooms	Beds	Bednights Total		Occupancy % 84/85	
			Days Open	Provided Bed Capacity		
Atlantic	204	408	365	100,521	148,920	67.5
Senegambia	315	630	365	103,237	229,950	44.9
Sunwing (a)	205	410	170	61,917	69,700	88.8
Kombo Beach	258	516	365	108,860	188,340	57.8
Fajara	275	540	121	41,000	114,480	35.8
Bungalow	114	224	365	1,357	81,760	66.5
Palm Grove	150	300	365	66,800	109,500	61.0
Bakotu	60	110	170	14,000	18,700	74.9
African Village	78	156	170	23,600	26,520	89.0
Kotu Strand	45	90	365	18,000	32,850	54.8
<b>Total</b>	<b>1,704</b>	<b>3,384</b>	<b>2,821</b>	<b>592,292</b>	<b>1,020,720</b>	<b>57.6</b>

(a) In 1984/85 Sunwing had 165 days of opening

Sources: 1. World Bank Survey (1986)  
2. The Gambia - Tourist Information and Guide Map  
(1987)

These bednight occupancy rates give us a better picture of total demand for problems of multiple counting arise with arrival figures, as each guest is counted anew each time he checks into another hotel.

#### 6.2.4 Pricing

The Gambia offers less favourable holiday terms than those of other competitors. This assertion relates to one week's sojourn, with half board and including travel. Another is the cost of a supplementary week's stay, and the option of full board. A 'content analysis' of various holiday brochures attests to this, a view supported by tour operators, in the author's survey of the U.K.-based Tour Operators reported earlier on in this study. The operators consider the internal prices for hotel accommodation (room and food and beverages) too inflexible, although they would prefer to have a wider bargaining margin on the flight price. In fairness to The Gambia, it could be broadly said, however, that its pricing policy relating especially to travel costs appears to strike a reasonable balance, when compared with the country's competitors'.

The calculation derived from the World Bank report attempts to clear the confusion, and thus shed more light on the price debate, as the quotation below seems to

indicate:

'The average tour cost comprises a flight cost of around 51.3%, and a hotel cost of about 30.9%. Flight costs are negotiated through direct contracts with charter companies, and these costs tend to be highly dependent on seasonal demand for aircraft. British tour operators work on the basis of US\$300/350 per person, while Scandinavians cannot improve upon US\$400, and the French and Germans work on the basis of a deviation from their normal routes that automatically raises the fare.'  
(World Bank, 1986:34)

Other cost components will be dealt with below.

#### 6.2.5 Tour Operators Performance

Several tour operators - British, Scandinavian, German, Austrian, Swiss, and other nationalities - sell The Gambia. As stated earlier, the British have the most number of tourists for all possible price levels. Major performers in the 1985/86 season were (the U.K.) Rank Travel (comprising Wings, Ellerman and Blue Sky), Thomson (U.K.), Vingressor (Sweden), and Spies (Holland), all operating with charter flights.

During the period under review, tour operators' hotel room-bed allotments were between the major tourist hotels and private rest houses, with the former taking the larger share than the latter - 1,472 out of 1,600 rooms available. This is also true with regard to the operators' pricing and

hotel accommodation policies which are at variance. For example, the British send various levels of tourists to The Gambia, at different tourist prices; other operators (the Germans, Swiss and Australians) send mainly high per capita spending tourists; the Danish consider The Gambia a winter resort for middle-class holiday-makers, while the Swedes return faithfully on repeat holidays without too many demands for innovation. It is believed that, because Vingressor has hotel interests in The Gambia, the company sells the country almost for the sole purpose of carrying on its hotel.

Hotel allotment policy in The Gambia has been formulated in line with tour operators' orientations, especially the kinds of tourists likely to be visiting The Gambia from the various European countries. Hence, for example, the more expensive companies such as Select and Wings (both British) are known to have rooms allotted in the more prestigious hotels - like the Kombo Beach, Sunwing, Senegambia and Atlantic. These hotels are currently classified as three-four star hotels. Similarly, Blue Sky, Kuoni U.K., Enterprise allot, in the above hotels and in Fajara Palm Grove and African Village, rooms to middle-class clientele. Such practices filter through down the line - from more affluent, 'repeater' to lower-middle type of tourists.

The pricing policy of the tour operators varies widely. Based on the World Bank analysis, reported above, the

formulation of a price at which to 'sell' The Gambia to tourists, is constituted as follows (two-week holiday, half-board, plus travel): 50.3% Cost for air travel; 30.9% Hotel cost; 8.1% Agency fee; 7.7% Margin; 1.7% Marketing; and 0.3% Destination costs.

#### 6.2.6 Marketing

The tour operators sum up the essential assets of Gambia's tourism in that The Gambia offers really good beach holidays with the possibility of colourful shopping and not too arduous trips. In addition, the operators contend that the kind of clientele presently interested in The Gambia does not wish for a diversification of the present product. All the same, it may be reasonable to say that the seasonal constraint that this narrow product portfolio imposes thus limits any prospects of extending such holidays beyond the high season, for a number of reasons:

The first is that hoteliers and tour operators conceive The Gambia as a winter beach resort; second, there is a lack of infrastructure to cope with the expanding tourism boom; and thirdly, the country needs a good advertising campaign to make itself more widely known to tourists than hitherto.

The results of such an exclusively sun-beach-oriented tourism are not only heavy for The Gambia hinterland (or up-country) areas that remain scarcely known, but also for further connections between The Gambia and its neighbours,

notably Senegal and Mali, to make multi-centre, multi-destination tours possible. This consideration is based on the fact that excursions and trips appeal to many tourists, even those who are attracted to The Gambia primarily for its beaches, eagerly avail of what there is to offer.

#### 6.2.7 Ownership Structure(See Table 6.16)

In The Gambia, three types of hotel management prevail: 1. direct management generally applied to the hotels with private capital investment, whether Gambian or foreign-owned, which often entrusts the running of the hotel to an expatriate. Hotels in this category are given in Table 6.16 below. The second type is hired management system adopted by the African Village when it rented (or leased) the hotel to the international chain, Sunwing, accommodating also a management fee (ü100,000). Thirdly, there is a management contract arrangement entrusting to the large international hotel chain the management of a hotel. This method is sometimes a burden for the hotel proprietors, however, especially for those with little experience in the sector, with the result that often the operators are forced to absorb considerable losses. A few of the hotel and contracting companies that fall under this description include Atlantic (Copthorne), Kombo Beach (Sodenas CH-F), Senegambia (Lloyd, U.K.)

Table 6.16 : Ownership of Tourist Hotels

<u>Hotel</u>	<u>Beds</u>	<u>Owner/ Company</u>	<u>% Gambian Govt.</u>	<u>% Private Gambian</u>	
Atlantic	408	Atlantic Hotel	100	--	100SC
Bungalow Beach	224	Bungalow Hotel	--	--	--
Kotu Strand Village	90	Private Gambian	--	100	--
Bakotu	120	Private Swedish	--	--	100S
Fajara	540	Private Gambian	--	100	--
Palm Grove	136	" "	--	100	--
Novotel Kombo Beach	516	Kombo Beach	20	29	34S, 17W
Sunwing African	410	African Village	34	--	33S, 33U
Senegambia Beach	630	Gammar	60	--	40N
Wadner Beach	336	African Village	--	100	--
African Village	156	" "	--	--	100 UK

KEY: S=Sweden; U=UK; SC=Scandinavia; N=Norway; W= Switzerland.

Source: The Gambia - Tourist Information and Guide Map

Generally, contract management of hotels in The Gambia carries with it a number of conditions like franchising and payment of a management fee, both systems implying direct management by the proprietor, for example, Atlantic Hotel, which pays a fee to a management company, in this case, Copthorne. The latter runs the Atlantic under particular standards of service, and, above all, guaranteeing a certain clientele. In addition, in the 'management fee' contract, the chain, again Copthorne, also provides the management of the hotel, receiving from the proprietor,

Atlantic, a percentage of the turnover. As shown in Table 6.17 below, the 'management fee' is calculated as a percentage of revenue or Gross Operating Profit (G.O.P.), the former ranging between 1% and 3%, and the latter usually at 10%. The minimum rate is the formula chosen by the African Village Hotel and the Sunwing, since the management company pays the proprietor a fixed amount, which is eventually augmented by other benefits calculated on the turnover.

**Table 6. 17 : Types of Management of Tourist Hotels**

<u>Direct Lease Contract Co. Mgt. Conditions</u>			
Atlantic		Copthorne	3% revenue+10%GOP
Bakotu	X		1% on revenue
Bungalow	X		
Fajara	X		
Kombo Beach		Sodenas	2% revenue+10%GOP
Kotu Strand	X		
Sunwing		ü100,000 Sunwing	3% on revenue
Senegambia		Lloyd	2% on revenue
Palm Grove	X		
African Village	X		
Wadner Beach			

### 6.2.8 Personnel and Training

Figures published by the Central Statistics Department and the recent survey by the World Bank, of the major tourist hotels in The Gambia, have concluded that the hotel industry employs around 1,800 local workers and some 64 expatriate personnel (See Table 6.18 below).<sup>7</sup>

It can be seen from the statistics presented in the table



that the average hotel occupancy ratio in The Gambia is 0.4 employee per bed - a figure which the author believes is reasonable given 1. the relatively recent experience the country has had with tourism development; 2. especially when compared with a few of the more prestigious and well-established resorts in Africa, the Seychelles and Kenya, are a few examples, which register higher ratios of around 0.8 employee per bed. The hotel occupancy ratio of The Gambia represents 5.3% of the modern national sector.<sup>2</sup>

Table 6.18 : Hotel Employees

EMPLOYMENT

	<u>Rooms</u>	<u>Beds</u>	<u>Employees</u>	<u>Expatriate</u>	<u>Empl/Rm.</u>
Atlantic	204	408	280	9	1.37
Senegambia	315	630	260	10	0.83
Sunwing	205	410	260	25	1.27
Kombo Beach	258	516	258	8	1.00
Fajara	275	540	260	9	0.95
Bungalow	114	224	110	0	0.96
Palm Grove	150	300	120	1	0.80
Bakotu	60	110	26	0	0.43
African Village	78	156	55	0	0.71
Kotu Strand	45	90	37	2	0.82
Total (a)	1,704	3,384	1,666	64	0.98
Other Hotels (b)	411	822	134	0	0.33
Grand Total	2,115	4,206	1,800	64	0.85

(a) Direct Survey  
 (b) Estimates

Sources: 1. World Bank Mission Survey (1986)

2. Quarterly Survey of Employment and Earnings  
 (1983), Central Statistics Dept., Banjul.

It has been observed elsewhere that most of the key positions - notably General Manager, Food and Beverage Manager, Head Chef, Chief Engineer - in the hotels, particularly those hotels which are run by the international hotel chains, for example, the Atlantic Hotel, are occupied by expatriate staff. Although the Expatriate Quota Board, as noted earlier, enforces expatriate employment policy of The Gambia, strict enforcement of this policy relating to the hotel sub-sector is apparently governed or influenced by the hotel managers' belief, as well as the Board's, that a larger number of expatriates can raise the standard of service. Whether this assertion is right or wrong is not crucial. Rather the truth is that today while some hotels in The Gambia employ expatriates - Sunwing (25), Senegambia (10), Atlantic (9) - some small, self-managed hotels often have no expatriates apart from the foreign owner or managers; Bakotu, African Village, Bungalow Beach hotels come under this classification. The main staffing problems of most hotels are usually connected with engineering and services management, and these jobs are generally covered by expatriates.

#### 6.2.9 Impact of Hotel Development and Operations on the Economy

It would be recalled that under the Bafuloto Project a series of hotel building projects, complete with starting dates and construction periods, was set out and completed -

resulting in a big major boost to Gambian tourism development. In very broad terms, tourism in The Gambia, as discussed, has both positive and negative effects, on the national economy, as several writers, in the 5-volume socio-economic impact study cited before, suggest. (Tourism and Infrastructure Project, 1975). Briefly put, though broadly, the positive effects of tourism on the country's society are: 1. foreign exchange earnings and effects on the balance of payments; 2. increased quality of goods and services provided for tourists, to the general advantage of the country; 3. employment - direct or indirect; and 4. fiscal receipts deriving from tourism. On the negative side, there are the following effects: 1. increased imports in hard currency of goods required for tourists; 2. payments of debts in foreign currency for contracts made in respect of implementing infrastructure for tourism; and 3. socio-cultural changes and variation of the traditional habits of the population. Relevant aspects of these broad effects are now isolated and evaluated with a view to determining the extent to which they or some of them can be ascribed to the development of the hotel industry in The Gambia. Among the five critical issues considered here are the following: 1. foreign exchange earnings and expenditures relating to the hotel sub-sector; 2. impact on internal demand (of various sectors of the economy); 3. supply of national inputs to the sub-sector; 4. employment; and 5. fiscal measures to increase Government revenue.

## Foreign Exchange

The World Bank study also gives a detailed breakdown of the Gambian tourism components and the foreign exchange performance of each part for the 1984/85 season. The total gross foreign exchange earnings of the tourism industry were around D99.5 million (or US\$24.7 million), of which D65.8 million (or US\$16.4 million) - that is, 67%, derived from the hotel industry. Outgoing expenditures in foreign currency of D21.8 million went to intermediate food imports of the hotel. Essentially, these food inputs constitute alcoholic beverages and dairy products. At the same time, the salaries of expatriate personnel total around D3.8 million per annum, equivalent to about ü35,000. There are estimated 80 expatriates, of which 64% are employed in the tourist hotels. Again, costs incurred by these hotels in respect of management fees have been put at D1.0 million.

The important message emerging from all this is that the ratio of foreign exchange between net and gross revenue was 56.5% in 1984/85, which was in line with historic data (54% in 1983/84 and 55% in 1982/83), and even showed a slight improvement. It may, therefore, be correct to attribute this improvement mainly to the greater use of locally produced food products by the management of restaurants and private hotels (that is, meat, fish, vegetables and fruit) - understandably with 67% of foreign currency contribution, as seen, coming from the hotel area alone.

However, there is a trade-off. With 64 expatriates operating services to the tourists in the hotels, restaurants, and given the liberal incentive policy of The Gambia allowing foreign workers to repatriate money, these expatriate hotel workers maintain external bank accounts into which their salaries are paid, albeit in foreign currency.<sup>10 & 11</sup>

### Impact of Tourism on Internal Demand

The term 'internal demand', as used here, pertains to what the Gambian society - be it a private individual or enterprise, or a public institution (for example, government) - expects of tourism to achieve in order to justify an involvement or investment in the activity. To illustrate, the individual sees an employment creation as a worthwhile achievement; even for touristic enterprises, a return on investment; even for the government, it may be its ability to generate taxes for the sector.

Thus, Table 6.19 below covers four operators - family, suppliers of productive inputs, touristic enterprises, and public administration - as the sectors being impacted upon by Gambian tourism development.

One notices the crucial place of the accommodation sub-sector. As an example, there is no doubt that tourism in The Gambia provides direct jobs in the tourist hotels where, as indicated previously, there are 1,800 locals

working in the hotel industry. A minimum monthly wage across the board in the country is D350.00 per person. Translating this figure in 1,800 hotel employees terms yields D7.5 million per month. In addition, the Government imposes a range of taxes on hotels and services. For the 1984/85 period under review, a total sum of about D2 million entered Government coffers, highlights of which are briefly examined below.

Table 6.19 : Impact of Tourism on Internal Demand

	Value		
<u>Operators</u>	%	(D'000)	Total
<u>Family (Wages &amp; Salaries)</u>			
Hotels (1,800 employees x D350/month)		7,583	
Services (950 employees x D574/month)	23.4	6,369	13,952
<u>Suppliers of Productive Inputs</u>			
Hotels (Costs less Imports and Imports Depreciation)		16,500	
Services (Costs less Imports & Imports Depreciation)		6,476	
Duties	28.2	(2,684)	20,292
<u>Touristic Enterprises</u>			
Hotels (Net Profit & Depreciation)		1,551	
Services (Net Profit & Depreciation)	17.5	8,903	10,454
<u>Public Administrative</u>			
Taxation on Hotels & Services		1,996	
Customs (Customs Duties & Airport Tax)	20.1	3,884	5,850
Financial Enterprises(1)	9.3		4,799
Wholesale imported(1)	1.5		870

Total	100	56,217
-------	-----	--------

(1) Estimated values not deducted directly from the assumed economic accounts of the hotel and services sectors.

Source: World Bank (1986:96)

### Fiscal Measures

Hotel contribution to Government revenue generation derives from a number of fiscal measures included in the annual account of the tourist hotels. The main tax accruing from hotel operations is the 'bed tax', that is, D3.00 per bednight. Two other sources of revenue are hotel and touristic licences (around D170.00 per annum, based on a number of beds/seats, and so on - total revenue for 1984/85 was D1 million per annum on average), and the expatriate payroll tax (D5,000.00 per person annually). Details of these hotel taxes and other tourism-related taxes such as air traffic, airport, are published in Government Budget, covering the 1980/81 period to 1985/86.

## NOTES

1. The nine tourist offices outside Kenya include: New York, London, Frankfurt, Beverley Hills, Tokyo, Zurich, Stockholm, and Hong Kong.

2. See the Hotel Classification Standards for Africa (W.T.O., 1984).

3. The main Kenyan hotel management groups and the hotels for which they are responsible are as follows:

a. African Tours and Hotels: Tradewinds Mountain Lodge, Hunter's Lodge, and Mombasa Beach.

b. African Safari Lodges: Bahari Beach, Coral Beach, Dolphin Kenya Beach, Silver Beach, Watamu Beach.

c. Alliance Group: African Sea Lodge, Brunners Castle, Jardini.

d. Associated Hotel Management Services: Blue Marlin, Lawfords, Petleys.

e. Black Hotels: Norfolk, Outspan, Treetops, Samburu, Nyali Beach, Lake Barigo Club, Lake Naivasha.

f. Serena: Nairobi Serena, Serena Beach, Amboseli Serena, and Mara Serena.

g. Sarova: New Stanley, Sarova Mara Camp, Ambassadeur, Simbad Hotel, Whitesands Hotel, Lion Camp.

Source: Falconer (1986:56)

4. Possible explanation for these variations lies within the different types of culture found in these two parts of the coast, and how they responded to western education. The South Coast hotels have more employees coming from the immediate surrounding area than the North Coast hotels. This is possibly due to different land ownership patterns in the two areas. Generally, conditions prevailing in the south coast and particularly in the area around the selected hotels allow population settlement right up to the seafront. South Coast hotels are thus located in relatively densely populated areas than their counterparts in the north.

5. Although the authors did not collect any data on this aspect, it is reasonable to assume that rents collected by the local landlords must have contributed to a significant improvement in their income level and consequently their standards of living.

6. The hotels are marketed through tour operators. The



marketing strategy for the hotel development focuses on the market segment already attracted to The Gambia: middle-income, sun-seeking visitors during the winter season. The package prices for the hotels include one-, two-, and three-week vacations.

Related to the above is the fact that the Government expects tourism to increase its revenues. And so, as previously mentioned, the Government's fiscal policy is implemented through a series of taxes and duties, some of which are specifically directed at the tourist sector. From the perspective of the accommodation sub-sector, the three taxes below are the ones which are imposed to achieve the policy: 1. bed tax of D3 per bed/night; 2. hotels, restaurants and touristic licence: around D170 per annum based on number of beds/seats, etc.; 3. entertainment tax of 20% of value of ticket.

7. Previous studies by Farver (1982), Holm-Petersen (1978), Peil (1977), Esh and Rosenblum (1975) and I.L.O./Wheeler (1974) have each examined various aspects of employment in the hotel industry in The Gambia.

8. Gambia's experience in this respect seems to be typical of that in other developing countries, where 1-2 extra beds create one new job (Erbes, 1973:54).

9. Some parts of this aspect are based on the World Bank Mission report.

10. Based on the World Bank Mission's investigations, the following is an estimate of foreign currency exported by expatriate workers; in 1984/85:

Activity	Total Earnings (D'000)	% of Foreign Earnings	Net Earnings of Expatriates D000
Private Hotels	683	35	239
Restaurants	923	45	419
Tour Agencies	3,343	38	1,270
Transportation	1,498	2	30
Total	6,447	30	1,955
Craftsmen	1,142	5	57

11. Data are based on an analysis of available balance sheets (equal to 40% of total beds in private hotels), in which, however, appear a series of costs which should probably be included in net earnings for the proprietor (consultants, etc.).

## REFERENCES

- Commonwealth Secretariat (n.d.), Tourism In Developing Countries. A Study of: Hotel Agreements with Multinationals: The Direct Financial Benefits Which Should Arise from Tourism. London: Commonwealth Secretariat.
- Dunning, John and Matthew McQueen (1981), Transnational Corporations in International Tourism. New York: United Nations Centre on Transnational Corporations.
- Economic Commission for Africa (1978), 'Social Costs and Benefits of Tourism in Kenya,' Paper presented at a Joint E.C.A./W.T.O. First African Regional Conference on 'Tourism and Economic Development.' Banjul, The Gambia: 16-19 October, 1978.
- Economist Intelligence Unit (1986), 'Kenya National Report,' International Tourism Report, 122:19-38.
- Falconer, J.A. (1986), The Development of the Kenya Tourist Trade. Unpublished B.A. in Catering Management, Oxford Polytechnic.
- Gambia: The Gambia Tourist Information and Guide Map (1987). Updated for the Ministry of Information and Tourism by Dembadou Enterprises International Ltd.
- Geofrey (1986), Kenya to 1990 - Prospects for Growth. Special Report No. 1052, London: Economist Intelligence Unit.
- Getambu, Anthony S.N. (1982), Marketing of Tourism In Kenya. M.B.A. Dissertation, University of Bradford.
- Ikiara, G. K. (1987), 'Foreign investment - a major strategy,' Time Magazine (European Edition).
- International Labour Organisation (1987), Kenya: Employment Generation in the Hotel, Catering and Tourism Sector. Nairobi: I.L.O.
- Jenkins, C. L. (1986), 'Tourism policy and planning objectives,' Unpublished paper presented to a Joint U.N.D.P./W.T.O. Regional Seminar/Workshop on 'Tourism Training' held in the Republic of the Maldives, September, 1986.
- Kenya, Republic of (1987), Economic Survey. Nairobi: Government Printer.

- New African (1987), 'Tourism casting a wider net,' New African, 243:32.
- Nkari, Isaac Micheni (1985), The Marketing of Kenya's Tourist Attractions. M.B.A. Dissertation, University of Nairobi.
- Peake, Robert Edmund (1984), Tourism and Alternative Worlds: The Social Construction of Reality in Malindi Town, Kenya. Unpublished Ph.D. Thesis, School of Oriental and African Studies, University of London.
- Rajotte, F. (1983), 'The role of tourism in African development: the case of Kenya,' Indian Geographical Studies Research Bulletin, 15:1-12.
- World Bank/S.O.M.E.A. (1986), The Gambia: Tourism Impact Study. Washington, D.C.: The World Bank.

CHAPTER 7  
MANPOWER PLANNING IN TOURISM  
AND THE PROVISION OF TRAINING

7.0      Introduction

'Manpower planning' may be described as a development strategy for the formulation of an appropriate training scheme to fill the gap caused by a shortage of skilled labour force. It involves obtaining information on skills required to satisfy objectives of the development plan, and particularly, in identifying ways in which training programmes can provide these. Equally essential in any manpower programme is the issue of proper placement and utilisation of the trained output.

The need for training is a function of the existing and future stock (demand) and, on the supply side, planners identify institutions or firms providing which skill types and levels. As Wiese (1975:2) has rightly pointed out: "it is when we bring the figures on demand and supply together that we reveal areas of surplus or deficit in the skills required for the planning period, thus indicating where adjustments in the form and/or magnitude of the training output are necessary."

Thus, manpower planning implies present and future considerations of the number and quality of labour force needed. From a policy planning angle, it recognises the

existence of imbalances, but attempts to determine the degree to which such imbalances exist and the reasons for the disproportions. The overall aim, indeed, is to reduce these imbalances through the provision of training as well as the retention of the trainees in their various jobs. For our purpose, 'training' means training in tourism-oriented 'employable skills' instead of general 'education' which develops broad cognitive abilities which are fundamental to actual job-determined training, although education is basic to training programmes. Manpower planning can be done at national, company/organisation, or sectoral level.

For a sector, such as tourism, manpower planning is important for various reasons, as Jenkins (1987) has argued: 1. it permits options to be considered and policies to be formulated, and to avoid the continuous situation of having to take emergency actions; 2. to balance demand and supply profiles; 3. to secure efficiency and effectiveness; and 4. from a developing country point of view—long-term development of tourism, to indigenise labour in the tourism industry.

This chapter proposes to examine the approaches to manpower planning in tourism taken by Kenya and The Gambia. Here, attention is focused on formulation of their training programmes. Therefore, in analysing training issues, we address the following questions: How does training provision relate to needs (that is, supply and demand)? 2. What are the bottlenecks, and what improvements are

therefore needed now? Finally, an attempt is made to rank or evaluate their training schemes.

### 7.1 Manpower Planning in Kenya - General Background

Since Kenya's attainment of political independence in 1963, manpower planning in the country, according to one private source, has been nominal, unsystematic, involving essentially a lot of activities by each government department, with little or no input from the private sector. For example, whereas in the public sector, the Directorate of Personnel Management has been planning and co-ordinating manpower matters, in the private sector, on the other hand, there has been a lack of such planning, let alone co-ordination among the various elements concerned. Activities here have been ineffective.

This seems to confirm a similar view expressed in 1974, when, in an internal paper, the Ministry of Labour had this to say: "So far...training in Kenya has been directed by intuition and in response to pressure from the industrial parties rather than by systematic analysis of requirements...." (M.O.L./E.P.D., 1974)

However, the Wanjigi (1983) report marked one major concerted concern by the Government of Kenya to streamline manpower issues. On a wider front, the report made wide-ranging proposals that touched on many aspects of Kenya's economy and society. Following the recommendations outlined

in the report, the Government of Kenya appointed a National Manpower Development Committee - a tripartite organisation of employers, employees, and government organisations, including individuals from the universities. The body was given the responsibility to 1) Investigate manpower resources that were available to the country and to establish future requirements; 2) Recommend which manpower programmes needed to be urgently carried out in Kenya, including appropriate institutional arrangements to oversee the implementation of policies and programmes.

Although this committee conducts manpower surveys on a fairly constant basis, policies and programmes have also been revisited accordingly, modified where necessary and new ones promulgated. But on a broad basis, the major policies for manpower development and programmes have remained those covered in the 1983 report referred to above. It is within this national planning framework that manpower planning for tourism in Kenya is carried out.

## 7.2 The Need for Training

The crux of the matter in the whole issue of manpower planning process, whether for a country, organisation, or a sector, involves the identification of training needs, specification of training objectives, and ultimately carrying out the training function to achieve the specified objectives. Let us now examine how Kenya has gone about this exercise for the tourism sector.

### 7.2.1 General

The indication has been given that there was a considerable gap between the requirements of the economy and the existing number of qualified manpower needed to run different organisations and institutions when Kenya gained political independence in 1963. The tourism sector was no exception, as this excerpt from Kenya Utalii College confirms:

'Soon after independence, Kenya government realised that tourism could play a significant role in the country's balance of payments. Hence, it started putting a lot of emphasis on the development of tourism infrastructure and superstructure. Of significance, however, was the lack of trained personnel to service this increasingly important sector of the economy...' (Kenya Utalii College, General Information, December, 1986).

Such was the background to the establishment of formal hotel and tourism training in Kenya in the late 1960's, with assistance from the Swiss Government. So, in setting up the school, the Government's goal was to achieve essentially full self-sufficiency in manpower at all skill levels in the tourism industry. As if this was not enough, the Government also charged the Wanjigi Committee, mentioned above, to identify 1. employment opportunities in the tourism sector; 2. the available manpower, as well as the quality of such manpower in the industry; 3. also shortages and surpluses, so that the Government might re-orientate its training programmes in tourism to fill the



gaps.

All through the period of tourism development in Kenya, the manpower policy has also been to indigenise labour - the much talked about 'Kenyanisation' concept. Cognizant of this, the Committee made the following recommendations: 1. that discussion be initiated within the hotel industry to facilitate not only the absorption of these Utalii College graduates but also to ensure that Kenyans gain greater management control of the industry than hitherto; 2. that the Government should encourage the formulation of short-term courses in hotel-keeping suitable for medium-scale budget hotels management; 3. the development of training and extension services for people with talents and basic skill and who are already participating in the industry, with a view to upgrading their skill and services.

Emerging out of the above recommendations are a number of manpower policy directions for tourism: 1. better utilisation of the existing manpower by providing them with relevant jobs in the tourist industry, adequate equipment, supporting staff, and a better working environment; 2. better practical orientation of the Kenya Utalii College graduates in the vocational and professional fields of the hotel and tourism industries; 3. greater co-ordination between Kenya Utalii College and industry to ensure full utilisation of relevant expertise; and finally 4. a re-examination of vacancies to rationalise them with the real

needs of tourism jobs in order to reduce dependence on expatriates. So, what is being done is an attempt to lay down a sequence through which human resources would be developed to meet the development needs of tourism.

Since the creation of the National Manpower Development Committee, referred to earlier, the policy to achieve the above goals (in the case of tourism) is dictated by estimates, done at a national level, of the targets of manpower needs which are drawn every five years and revised annually. Therefore, one approach used to determine the need for training in the tourism sector in Kenya is to divide manpower estimates into two main categories:

**Category 1: Professional or Managerial.** This is subdivided into Diploma and Associate Diploma programmes. These programmes are meant for managers who are to direct hotel-tourism operations.

**Category 2: Vocational Training,** ranging from Advanced Certificate to Certificate courses. The training here is for jobs requiring either a high degree of skill but do not need more intensive educational base, or a job for standard performance of the full array of duties included in tourism, and tourism-related occupations. Included here are, for example, Park guides who can speak the language of tourist and know the names of birds, wildlife, and the trees. These two categories have been clearly spelt out in Appendix 7A.

This particular kind of dividing manpower in tourism into four categories, as seen above, helps to translate the estimated manpower targets into training needs which are then supplied to the training institution - the Kenya Utalii College. On their part, the College authorities have to plan their activities as regards intake planning in such a way as to meet the target (See Tables 7.1-7.4). For example, in the case of admission to professional courses (discussed below), the Ministry of Tourism and Wildlife (or precisely Catering Levy Trustees Board), and the National Manpower Development Committee jointly propose annual inputs and where the Kenya Utalii College does not have the capacity to absorb all the suggested inputs (this is rare), a recommendation is made to the Ministry of Education to look for the extra inputs outside the country in the form of scholarships.

Another way that Kenya establishes training need is to divide manpower estimates according to the projected growth of the tourism industry. It has been proposed that tourist arrivals by 1990 will hit 1 million mark, and that the industry will grow at the rate of 3-4% per annum (E.I.U., 1986). Tourism is governed by the Ministry of Tourism and Wildlife and has a manpower section or a training wing watch-dog in the Catering Training Levy Trustee Board mentioned above.

As far as the quantitative aspects are concerned, the education plans are prepared, keeping in view the targets already defined. As stated, the Kenya Utalii College has to plan intakes depending on its internal efficiency, the output from levels of education and their capacities. The planning of training facilities, content, and methodology of instruction is left with the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Tourism and Wildlife as the overall co-ordinators and the training institution itself.

The graduates of Utalii College are distributed to different employment organisations by the Ministry of Establishment in line with the priorities of the tourism sector. To make sure that the trainees remain in the jobs which they were allocated, there is a system of bonding whereby the incumbents sign an agreement to serve an employer to whom they were allocated for not less than five years. In this way, labour mobility is apparently checked.

For those posts, especially at managerial level, for which no qualified Kenyan national cannot immediately be found, recruitment of expatriates is allowed on contract terms. Whereas the Government is exempted, private and parastatal companies have to pay a training levy to the Treasury for each expatriate they employ, although the exact sum involved is not precise. Besides, each non-citizen employee has to be assigned a local person to understudy him so that by the time his contract expires, he should have disseminated the skill essentials of the job to the

citizen. This is a form of on-the-job training which is encouraged in all skill categories, including those tourism jobs occupied by Kenya nationals.

With all these measures, Kenya Utalii College total student enrolment in 1987 stood at 589 - distributed respectively, as follows: 333, 197, 28, and 34 in years 1, 2, 3, and 4, as Table 7.1 below shows:

**Table 7.1 : Courses and Capacity at  
the Kenya Utalii College, 1987**

Courses	Year				Total
	1	2	3	4	
Hotel Management	34	36	28	34	132
Food Production	32	30	--	--	62
Housekeeping & Laundry	37	33	--	--	70
Front Office	42	38	--	--	80
Travel Operations	33	30	--	--	63
Tour Guide	29	27	--	--	56
Advanced Service	30	--	--	--	30
Basic Service	96	--	--	--	96
<b>Total</b>	<b>333</b>	<b>197</b>	<b>28</b>	<b>34</b>	<b>589</b>

Source: Utalii College

As can be seen from the above, most courses are for four years, including one year industrial work training. Training facilities include 26 classrooms, with each seating 25 students at any one time. There is the Utalii Hotel - a 5-star hotel complex, with 43 rooms, 7 suites, and a conference room. Apart from providing the travelling

public with room accommodation and adequate services, this also is a practice workshop where students of the College complement their theoretical training programme by work experience.

### 7.2.2 Organisation and Financing of Training

At first when a hotel management course was established in Kenya, students were sponsored by their employers and guaranteed jobs on satisfactory completion of their courses. But as the levels of training increased, however, individual hotels ceased to sponsor students. Instead, a catering levy tax of 2% tax on all hotel clients' bills on accommodation, food and beverages, was established to fund the training cost for Kenya students. The levy applies to all hotel and catering establishments in Kenya within a given minimum annual turnover. The levy fund was administered by a Board - the Catering Levy Trustees.

Set up under the Hotels and Restaurants Act of 1971, under Chapter 494, Laws of Kenya, from which it derives its authority and terms of reference, the Board is under the auspices of the Ministry of Tourism and Wildlife. It comprises six members of whom the Chairman is appointed by the President, and the other members are appointed by the Minister for Tourism and Wildlife. The members of the Board come from different backgrounds and interests - the Hotel Industry, Travel and Tourism Operation, Education, and the Government, among others. The Board members serve for a

minimum of 3 years, although they could be re-appointed.

The Act establishing the Board stipulates that its (Board's) major functions are: 1. to set the overall policies and goals for the hotel and tourism training and curriculum in Kenya; 2. to advise the Ministry of Tourism and Wildlife and consequently the Government on matters relating and pertinent to hotel and tourism training in Kenya; 3. to administer the catering Levy Fund in accordance with the provisions of the Act, with a view to establishing, equipping and facilitating hotel and tourism training in Kenya; 4. the Board ensures that the funds due and rightfully accruing to the Catering Levy Fund are effectively collected and expended and accounted for; 5. to set the objectives, direct, and guide the activities of Kenya Utalii College which constitutes the training wing of the Board. The levy collecting operations cover approximately 900 establishments spread through the country and absorb the major activity of the Board.

### 7.2.3 Personnel

Most of the actual teachers today are Utalii graduates - 76% against 24% of general backgrounds, thus:

<u>Courses</u>	<u>Number of Teachers</u>
Business Administration (Sports, accounting, law correspondence engineering)	13
Front Office	9
Service	15
Kitchen	6
Housekeeping & Laundry	10
Social Studies	3
Tourism	4
Language	10

To illustrate, tourism classes are covered by teachers coming from the National Museum of Kenya and the University of Nairobi, especially from Social Anthropology.

#### 7.2.4 Student Recruitment

In admitting students to the various programmes, the College is guided by the principle of equal opportunities to all Kenyans who satisfy the minimum entry qualifications. This policy, nonetheless, is based on a quota system of provincial distribution, guided by the following indices: (a) the population in each province; (b) the number of 'O' and 'A' level school leavers in each province, ; (c) the number of hotel beds in each province. Table 7.2 below depicts the provincial distribution of intake for each course (for Kenya candidates only).

In cases where suitable applicants have not been received from a given province, the quarter of that particular province is distributed to other provinces. The College is admitting students from other countries (in Africa in



particular), as Table 7.3 below shows.

**Table 7.2 Provincial Distribution of  
Student intake for Each Course**

<u>Province</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>HM</u>	<u>FO</u>	<u>FP</u>	<u>SB</u>	<u>HL</u>	<u>TO</u>	<u>TG<sup>2</sup></u>
Nairobi	12	2	4	3	5	3	3	3
Central	17	3	6	5	8	5	5	4
Coast	13	3	4	4	6	3	3	3
Eastern	14	3	5	4	6	4	4	3
North Eastern	3	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Nyanza	15	3	6	4	7	4	4	4
Rift Valley	16	3	6	5	7	4	4	4
Western	10	2	4	3	5	3	3	2
Sub-Total (Kenyan)	<u>100</u>	<u>20</u>	<u>36</u>	<u>29</u>	<u>45</u>	<u>27</u>	<u>27</u>	<u>24</u>
Foreigners		<u>12</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>(30)</u>
Total		<u>32</u>	<u>40</u>	<u>32</u>	<u>50</u>	<u>30</u>	<u>30</u>	<u>24</u>

Source: Utalii College

**Key:** HM=Hotel Management; FO=Front Office Operation;  
FP=Food Production; SB=Basic Service; TG=Tour Guide;  
HL=Housekeeping & Laundry; TO=Tour/Travel Operations

Table 7.3 Summary of International Students  
by Course and Nationality, 1979-1986

Country	HM	FO	FP	SA	SB	HL	TO	Total
Namibia	--	2	--	--	--	--	--	2
Botswana	2	1	1	--	--	--	--	4
Germany	--	1	--	--	--	--	--	1
Burundi	3	3	3	1	1	1	1	13
Britain	1	--	--	--	--	--	--	1
Cyprus	--	--	1	--	--	--	--	1
Comorus	2	--	--	--	--	--	--	2
Ethiopia	14	6	5	3	7	4	10	49
Gambia	1	4	2	2	1	4	--	14
Ghana	4	3	3	--	2	--	3	15
Indonesia	1	--	--	--	--	--	1	2
Burma	--	--	1	--	1	--	--	2
Cote d'Ivoire	1	--	--	--	--	--	--	1
Lesotho	2	--	2	--	3	4	2	12
Liberia	2	1	--	--	--	--	1	4
Korea	--	--	3	--	--	--	--	2
Mauritius	6	--	1	--	--	--	1	8
Malawi	9	1	1	1	1	2	--	14
Malagasy	2	1	1	--	--	--	--	4
Nigeria	2	3	3	--	--	1	1	10
Rwanda	4	4	--	--	2	3	2	15
Seychelles	4	--	--	--	1	--	--	5
Sudan	1	1	1	--	1	1	1	6
Sierra Leone	3	--	2	--	--	--	--	5
Sweden	--	1	--	--	--	--	--	1
Canada	1	--	--	--	--	--	--	1
Swaziland	--	2	--	--	--	--	--	2
Tanzania	16	6	7	2	5	10	2	48
Uganda	13	5	7	1	--	4	12	42
Zaire	6	4	1	--	--	--	1	12
Zambia	3	1	3	--	6	3	7	25
Zimbabwe	5	5	3	--	--	--	3	16
India	--	1	--	--	1	--	--	2
Grenada	1	--	--	--	--	--	--	1
Somelia	1	--	--	--	--	--	--	1
<b>Total</b>	<b>110</b>	<b>56</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>32</b>	<b>37</b>	<b>47</b>	

Source: Kenya Utali College

Key: HM=Hotel Management; FO=Front Office Operations;  
FP=Food Production; SA=Service Advanced;  
SB=Service Basic; HL=Housekeeping & Laundry;  
TO=Travel/Tour Operations

Again, College source gives, as indicated in Table 7.4 below, a summary of Kenya Utalii College graduates, from July 1973 to October 1986.

**Table 7.4 Recapitulation of Kenya Utalii College Graduates, July 1973 - October 1986**

<u>Year</u>	<u>MC</u>	<u>FP</u>	<u>BS</u>	<u>HL</u>	<u>FO</u>	<u>TO</u>	<u>TG</u>	<u>KO</u>	<u>SA</u>	<u>HLB</u>	<u>RC</u>	<u>Total</u>
1973	12	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	12
1974	21	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	21
1975	21	--	--	--	--	--	--	8	7	6	72	114
1976	19	50	65	42	23	--	--	6	6	--	138	349
1977	22	52	67	41	27	53	--	15	15	16	94	402
1978	27	52	64	60	28	29	--	8	7	--	105	380
1979	15	--	64	38	39	25	--	15	--	13	191	400
1980	26	22	84	20	--	16	--	16	12	12	396	604
1981	28	28	87	--	36	38	--	--	28	16	160	411
1982	21	7	78	28	37	30	--	--	32	20	294	547
1983	31	47	89	25	39	35	--	--	33	--	349	646
1984	30	27	90	30	37	37	--	--	30	--	259	540
1985	28	32	95	32	38	29	--	--	28	--	363	645
1986	25	29	119	28	40	24	25	--	28	--	461	779
<b>Total</b>	<b>326</b>	<b>346</b>	<b>902</b>	<b>344</b>	<b>344</b>	<b>316</b>	<b>25</b>	<b>68</b>	<b>216</b>	<b>83</b>	<b>2,880</b>	<b>5,850</b>

Source: Kenya Utalii College

**Key:** MC=Management Course; FP=Food Production; BS=Basic Service; HL=Housekeeping & Laundry; FO=Front Office Operations; TO=Travel/Tour Operations; TG=Travel/Tour Guide; KO=Kitchen Operations (Basic); SA=Service Advanced; HLB=Housekeeping & Laundry Basic; RC=Refresher Course

Despite the expansion in student enrolment and the rising number of Kenya Utalii College graduates every year, including other steps taken to increase stock of manpower available to the tourism industry, such as in-house training schemes of different tourism organisations, the 1987 I.L.O. study, referred to above, contends that the

rate of Kenyanisation of the industry is still low. Although this study has not given any numbers to support its assertion, it argues that there is still a significant number of non-citizens who occupy management level jobs in the industry, pointing out also that the gap between established posts and actual employment has widened. The reasons for this situation are certain, as argued below.

#### 7.2.5 Manpower Drawbacks

One problem with the present manpower planning for tourism arises from the fact that the development plans which the manpower plans are a part, may not be implemented within the specified period for unforeseen reasons which render them of no use. Even if they are implemented as scheduled, the nature of tourism activities, especially the exogenous characteristics of demand, create difficulty in the accurate estimation of manpower requirements, and therefore, the training needs for the sector.

Second, the identification of the right kind of training for any type of job is difficult because the performance of a particular job may not be related to the academic performance. Tourism jobs are not homogeneous even if they happen to bear the same title, especially when it is realised, as always, that the industry is an amalgam of many different activities, involving airlines, tour operations, the hotels, and so on. So, in the absence of any criterion available, resort is taken to academic

performance as a tool for recruitment.

Thirdly, the rural-urban imbalance is ignored in this approach. Most socio-economic facilities, including Kenya Utalii College, are found in urban centres. The ultimate effect is that people migrate into the urban areas to try to get a share of those benefits, resulting in the creation of unemployment in towns. Coupled with this, but not given due importance in the technique, is the occupational mobility of qualified manpower which is difficult to access.

Finally, the time period between the manpower forecasts and the ultimate output may witness a change in the economic situation. This invalidates the forecasts. As stated earlier, at independence, Kenya inherited an economy which was largely dominated by the private sector. When the manpower requirements were estimated, they covered chiefly the civil service, for example, the Ministry of Tourism and Wildlife, as the main tourism controlling body for tourism matters.

#### 7.2.6 Improvements Needed Now

What has been said above notwithstanding, it is important to stress that the manpower requirement approach gives a framework of approaching a planning problem. It facilitates the examination of relationships between the different components of the tourism system and establishes a general order of things. After all, it facilitates the allocation

of human resources ex ante. It is wrong, therefore, to make it be seen as a definitive statement of numerical expansion which will cause economic growth.

A major lesson drawn from the period is that tourism planners in Kenya should be able to solve tourism manpower problems and undertake new programmes, taking into account the ability of the economy. In future, the main objective of tourism training will be to prepare people to confront their environment (in an ecological sense) in a more effective way than hitherto. Whereas the categorisation of manpower estimates has been accepted, still stress will be put on training young enthusiasts in the tourism industry so as to make them effectively contribute to tourism activities when they complete their basic training. Broad tourism training will be expanded and strengthened but stress will continue to be put on producing trainees biased towards management-orientation - an area where the industry experiences shortages.

Furthermore, in the next decade or so, it is the current thinking of the Government that Kenya Utalii College will be upgraded to a university-degree awarding status. Within the programme, the Government will set up another hotel-tourism school to cater to coastal regions, another similar institution established for the Western zone.

Besides establishing the training institutions, tourism

planners will strengthen the workers' education by setting up first, on-the-job training at places of employment; and two, higher education outside institutions of higher learning, to encourage workers to learn while at work, through correspondence, for example.

#### 7.2.7 Conclusion

What has been argued here is that training for the tourism sector in Kenya will be geared towards meeting the manpower requirements of the industry. It has to be undertaken as part of the implementation programme of the national socio-economic plan and not as an isolated exercise brought about by social demand. Knowing that a planning strategy for tourism will be adopted, emphasis for education and training will focus on producing the scarce human resources which are indispensable for the smooth-running of the strategy. Nevertheless, the path for the development of future manpower requirements has been cleared but still, given the country's economic conditions, remains an arduous one to follow.

### 7.3 Manpower Planning in The Gambia - A Background

In order to bring to a clear picture of what has been the history of manpower development in The Gambia, it is necessary to examine those early policies and programmes, see how they evolved to the present moment; how the policies were biased towards tourism, and reflect on what may be a logical perception of policies for the tourism industry that one could wish to propose for the future.

The Gambia had formulated its manpower policy objectives very early, namely in the first 5-Year Development Plan. Until now, The Gambian national manpower policies and programmes are focusing on two major objectives. These objectives are (1) to increase the skills and efficiency of individual workers; (2) to ensure productive utilisation of the workforce (Development Plan, 1982-1986).

The setting of these objectives has been seen as a result of the poor educational base the country inherited from the colonial government. Therefore, emphasis was and still is on overcoming the shortfall of qualified manpower for socio-economic development of the country. But in tackling this problem, The Gambia had to face two problems: the lack of sufficient resources and the relatively long gestation period of producing high level manpower. Thus the formulation of the manpower objectives had to be geared towards the available means.



Manpower policy and especially manpower planning became very soon after independence part of the development strategies. Firstly, under the first objective of increasing the skills and efficiency of the workforce, priority was given to a gradual replacement of non-citizen employees in order to become independent of foreign manpower. This was the beginning of the later-on so-called 'Gambianisation policy'. That really meant drawing up a demand/supply model for qualified manpower in all skill areas that would ensure that before long the nation would have, for all reasonable purposes, only citizens to perform much of the required jobs in the economy. Education and training programmes were strategies through which to achieve the policy objectives.

While on one hand, it was required to estimate manpower requirements for various levels of manpower which would incorporate an element of replacement of non-citizens thus influencing educational and training programmes of the country, it is also true that the performance of the economy was influenced by the level of trained or skilled manpower available during that period.

Putting the two processes together in a causal relationship one could easily understand the present manpower situation in the tourism sector. This is where the second objective of proper placement and utilisation of the trained manpower has direct bearing. But, first let us look at the processes which The Gambia uses or has used to identify manpower

needs and of trying to influence supply to meet these needs in the tourism industry. This, of course, requires an examination of demand-supply components - that is, a review of the factors which affect them. First, demand.

### 7.3.1 Demand

In The Gambia, three factors affect the need or demand for manpower in tourism. The first is tourism project at hand or to be undertaken for the sector. An example of this is the Bafuloto Project discussed earlier. The second component of demand is replacement or withdrawal. This has three variants. Under the Gambianisation programme, as seen, the first involves replacement of non-citizen tourism workers. Here, the Expatriate Quota Board, mentioned above, plays a key role. Another aspect of withdrawal is occasioned by death or retirement. Finally, there is the replacement necessitated by occasional mobility. The last contributing component affecting demand relates to the issue of vacancies. Each of the above three factors is discussed below.

#### 7.3.1.1 Project

As was mentioned earlier, the expansion of tourism in The Gambia has ended, first with the complete utilisation of the most suitable hotel sites in the Banjul and Kombo St. Mary areas - as parts of the Tourism Development Areas (T.D.A.); and second, by the implementation of the far-

reaching schemes for infrastructural investment within the context of the Bafuloto Project. This project, as recalled, was a whole series of hotel building projects which had been set out, complete with starting dates and construction period, and externally financed. Table 7.5 below sets out what the project schedule looked like.

Table 7.5 : New Hotel Building and Employment Creation

Site	Starting Date	Construction Time (Months)	Finishing Date	Beds	Staff Reqd.
Next to Bungalow Beach Hotel	Started	?	Dec 74?	225	135
German-financed project at Kotu	1.7.74?	?	1.1.76?	340	204
Kotu Point	1.11.74	14	1.1.76	500	300
Kotu Beach	1.7.75	16	1.11.76	300	180
Kotu Point	1.7.75	15	1.10.76	250	150
Kotu Beach	1.4.76	12	1.4.77	200	120
Kotu Beach	1.7.76	15	1.10.77	300	180
Kotu Point	1.1.77	15	1.4.78	250	150
Kotu Beach	1.7.77	13	1.8.78	200	120
Kotu Point	1.10.77	15	1.1.79	250	150
Brufut A	1.4.78	15	1.7.79	300	180
Kotu Point	1.7.78	15	1.10.79	250	130
Brufut A	1.6.79	12	1.6.80	200	120
Brufut A	1.7.79	16	1.11.80	300	180
Kotu Beach	1.10.79	15	1.1.81	250	150
Brufut A	1.9.80	13	1.10.81	200	120
Kotu Beach	1.10.80	15	1.1.82	250	150
Brufut B	1.1.81	15	1.4.82	300	180

Source: A.C.R. Wheeler assisted by M P van Dijk (1974), The Impact of the Development of Tourism on Employment in Gambia. Dakar: I.L.O., p. 30.

Wheeler and van Dijk have used this project to demonstrate how The Gambia had established a forecast of the tourism manpower requirements on the basis of assumptions as to starting date and length of construction of hotel projects,

a coefficient of extra employment per additional bed, and wastage from hotel employment due to occupational change, death, retirement, and so on. From this it was then possible for the authors to work out future hotel staff training needs, given assumptions about the occupational structure of hotel employment, and the rate of wastage during training.

In the above table, it was assumed that each additional bed required 0.6 additional workers, or alternatively that each additional worker would permit the operation of 1.6 additional beds. This is in line with the authors' findings as to the worker/bed ratio in the existing tourist hotels. As we noted earlier, citing Erbes (1973:54), Gambia's experience in this respect seems to be typical of that in other developing countries, where 1-2 extra beds create one new job.

Also from the same table, it can be seen that there would be 2,919 new jobs to be filled in hotel employment between 1974 and 1982. Since the ratio of jobs to beds on which this calculation was based, itself an approximation, it might therefore be said as a general guide that some 3,000 additional jobs could be created in hotel employment in the period 1974-82, always on the condition that new hotel building projects do go ahead more or less according to the schedule used in Table 7.5.

However, the authors went on to argue that the tempo of new

job creation would not be even throughout the period, as the different hotel projects were of different size and had varying gestation periods. Table 7.6 below shows the numbers of new jobs to be created in each tourist season, if the above schedule of construction was followed.

**Table 7.6: New Hotel Jobs to be Created Each Tourist Season**

<u>Season</u>	<u>New Jobs</u>	<u>Suggested</u>	<u>Starting</u>	<u>Dates</u>
1974/75	135		1.1.75	
1975/76	504		1.1.76	
1976/77	450	1.10.76-150,	1.11.76-180,	1.4.77-120
1977/78	330	1.10.77-180,	1.4.78 -150	
1978/79	270	1.10.78-120,	1.1.79 -150	
1979/80	330	1.10.79		
1980/81	450	1.10.80-120,	1.11.80-180,	1.1.81-150
1981/82	450	1.10.81-120,	1.1.82-150,	1.4.82-180

Source: Wheeler and van Dijk, p. 37.

The creation of new hotel jobs on the scale shown in the foregoing tables implies the need for a considerable training efforts. In order to determine the dimensions of this effort, the authors took a number of factors into account. First, it is argued that not all of those who will be employed in the new hotels will require any special training, since some will be working in unskilled jobs, for example, cleaners, gardeners, watchmen, kitchen labourers. Similarly, if Gambians are to immediately take over the management and supervisory positions in the new hotels, they can before receive some training and experience abroad beforehand. In the short run, it does not stick.

The training facilities to be provided in The Gambia will thus be for the various types of skilled workers, for example, waiters and stewards, room boys and chambermaids, barmen, junior cooks, receptionists, laundry staff. It is further argued that this category of skilled workers may be expected to represent some 50% of those employed in a hotel of the type operating in The Gambia.

The authors' estimate is based on the structure of employment in the existing Gambia tourist hotels, and also on the fact that some 40% of those employed in the Tunisian hotel industry in 1971 fell into this skilled category (Erbes, 1973:21). Since the Tunisian industry has been in existence somewhat longer, it may be expected to be able to operate with a slightly lower ratio of skilled workers to total employed, based on the assumption of greater experience among those employed.

The authors also believe, however, that the number of training places to be provided will be more than 50% of the new jobs to be filled, because allowance must also be made for wastage of those who fail to complete their training successfully, or drop out of the way through training. In addition, an increasing allowance must be made for wastage among the existing stock of these bodies already employed in skilled jobs in hotels, who leave either to seek different types of work, or because of natural wastage due

to sickness, age, or death, or as a result of promotion to supervisory positions in the hotels. Making allowances for all of the three factors mentioned in the foregoing paragraphs, it was possible for these authors to arrive at estimates of the number of training places that must be provided for hotel training in successive years. This information is set out in Table 7.7 below.

Table 7.7 : Training in the Gambian  
Hotel Industry, 1974-1982

	1	2	3	4	5	6
Sea- son (1)	New Jobs	50% of skilled jobs nee- ding trai- ning	5% wast- age among trainees	10% was- tage among existing employees in jobs requiring training <sup>2</sup>	New Trai- ing places to be provided (2+3+4)	Total emplo yment
74/5	135	68	3	55 <sup>3</sup>	126	1,235
75/6	504	252	13	62	327	1,739
76/7	450	225	11	87	323	2,189
77/8	330	165	9	110	284	2,519
78/9	270	135	7	126	268	2,789
79/0	330	165	9	140	314	3,119
80/1	450	225	11	156	392	3,569
81/2	450	225	11	179	415	4,019

Source: Wheeler and van Dijk, p. 39

(1) Assuming that training periods of 3 to 6 months before beginning work are desirable, the actual starting dates of training courses each season can be related to the scheduled opening dates of new hotels when these are finalised. No attempt has been made at this stage to subdivide the training places provided among different courses, e.g. restaurant, bar, front office, etc. Detailed planning at this level can best be carried out in close co-operation with the industry as the characteristics of each project are known.

2 i.e. 10% of the 50% of hotel workers assumed to be in skilled jobs requiring training, or in other words 5% of the cumulative total of hotel employment in successive seasons.

3 i.e. 5% of the approximately 1100 employees in hotels during the 1973/74 tourist season.

Here again, it must be cautioned that these estimates are calculated in relation to a schedule of hotel building as shown in Table 7.5 above. Thus, the timing of training may have to be changed but the principles on which the calculations are made not altered, so that the relevant adjustments should not be difficult to make.

In preparing this type of forecast of training requirements, the authors made an implicit assumption that an initial period of formal training is a desirable prerequisite for future workers in those types of hotel work designated as skilled. But the graduate of such a training course is not immediately a fully qualified worker able to function independently. It can be assumed that he still requires one or even two seasons working under close supervision to become fully experienced.

A quantitatively less significant training effort, but one which is vital for the successful development of new hotels in The Gambia, is necessary for the supervisory and managerial levels of hotel employment. At these levels the current supply of qualified Gambians is very limited, and in order to be fully efficient a much greater element of experience is involved so that it must necessarily take some time to expand the supply from local sources. It may be assumed that some 10% of the employment in a tourist hotel is in the supervisory and managerial categories (This is the situation in the existing Gambian tourist hotels,



and data for other countries are similar), with some tendency for the percentage to be reduced slightly in smaller hotels, due to less sub-division of tasks, the smaller numbers of staff to be supervised, and the lesser weight of administration.

Applying this 10% ratio to the employment created by new hotel developments and taking into account existing hotel employment, Table 7.8 below gives estimates of the requirements for new supervisory and managerial staff in successive seasons, together with the cumulative total of employment in these categories.

**Table 7.8 : Employment of Managerial  
and Supervisory Staff in Gambian Hotels**

Seasons	New Requirements	Total Employment
1973/74	--	110
1974/75	13	123
1975/76	50	173
1976/77	45	218
1977/78	33	251
1978/79	27	278
1979/80	33	311
1980/81	45	356
1981/82	45	401

Source: Wheeler and Dijk, p. 41.

According to the Tourist Office, there were in December 1973 64 expatriates working in Gambian hotels, but only 7 Gambians training abroad. It seems clear that, if the necessarily high standards required for supervisory and

managerial staff are to be maintained, and at the same time the employment of Gambians in these capacities is to be increased, there must be both continuing reliance on expatriates to fill a significant proportion of the new posts, at least initially, and also a greatly increased training programme for Gambians at these levels. These questions are discussed further in subsection 2 of this chapter below, under 'supply'.

In concluding this discussion of future employment to be generated by new hotels, it can be said that some 3,000 new jobs may be created up to 1982, requiring a substantial training programme for skilled hotel workers, and a much increased emphasis on managerial and supervisory level training for Gambians. Again, all this pre-supposes that the proposed schedule of new hotel-building is adhered to. If it is not, but is nevertheless implemented eventually, the scene of the above proposals will remain unchanged, but their suggested timing will have to be altered.

#### 7.3.1.2 Replacement

In the second place, manpower needs for the tourism sector are determined by the rate of replacement for outgoing manpower. In view of existence of large number of foreign employees (64) working within the tourism economy in The Gambia and the need to replace them this forms a large portion of replaced manpower. One aspect of replacement is that of non-citizens who are to be replaced. But it is the

availability of qualified persons that would effectively decide how many non-citizen workers are to be replaced. Another category of replacement manpower is that which withdraws from work through retirement or death. Given the relatively new position of The Gambia in international tourism, experience shows that most of those in the middle and lower manpower are quite young hence their rate of withdrawal either for retirement or for death is very marginal. Nevertheless, now more than 20 years after the introduction of tourism to the country, planners should begin to see quite a substantial size of middle and lower level manpower reaching retirement age; they should now begin to worry about their replacement. The last component of manpower withdrawal affecting demands is that of occupational mobility. Typical of this is when professional and technically-trained employees in the tourism industry leaves the sector, probably out of frustration for other jobs - either in politics or administration; perhaps for not getting an immediate benefit, as the Labour Commissioner, Mr. Jow (1987), has described the situation, thus:

'Most of those who have been trained abroad come back after about two years training thinking that they should assume top-level positions. If they fail to secure such positions they usually leave because of frustration of their own day.'

Such incidence creates gaps which have to be filled and it is important to account for their replacement.

### 7.3.1.3 Vacancies

A third component making manpower demands is that of vacancies. According to Wheeler and Dijk, none of the hotels they visited reported any significant number of vacancies so that it seems true to say that there is no absolute shortage of hotel workers below the managerial and supervisory level. The difficulties lie rather in the scarcity of Gambians to replace expatriates in senior positions, and the comparatively limited experience of many of the workers of the skilled level, that is, the deficiencies of the present hotel labour force are qualitative rather than quantitative. Although so much care must be taken when accounting for vacancies in tourism jobs because it is possible to include very many superfluous vacancies, in a situation where manpower shortages are the biggest bottleneck there is no other way that this can manifest itself than in form of vacancies.

### 7.3.2 Supply

As we saw before, demands for manpower in tourism, identified through a summation of those three contributing components discussed above, determine programmes intended to supply the required manpower. These needs are translated into educational and training needs at various levels and in various fields, for example, tourism. Seen from a national perspective, what exactly happens is that it is programmed such that many people attend education up to a

certain level and after that only so many can continue with higher education and that so many go to this kind of training and type of training for each job as well as the level of education required before training takes place. Taking this assumption to be true it is decided what numbers are required to go to secondary, and post-secondary schools, and what numbers should be trained in one field or the other. This kind of exercise, to a large extent, determines educational and training programmes in The Gambia. The broad outlines of these issues have been covered in the Quarterly Survey of Employment and Earnings (1984) and Education Statistics, 1984/85 (1985). In addition, studies by Omar N'Jie (1981) and Makaireh N'Jie (1979) are other works that have looked into vocational and technical education and training in The Gambia. Through implementation of these policy guidelines that have been in existence for the past 20 years, The Gambia now finds at this level of manpower development for the tourism sector, which is worth looking at more closely.

#### 7.3.2.1 Tourism Training

Gambia's concept of manpower supply for tourism is built on its overall national manpower policy which, as previously outlined, seeks to increase both the efficiency of the work force (manpower development) and its productive utilisation (employment). We shall first discuss manpower development.

Manpower development for the tourism sector is done through

training. Training here includes three aspects: (a) on-the-job training in The Gambian hotels; (b) experience in hotels abroad; and (c) formal training courses at home. Some elements of all these terms of training are desirable.

(A) On-the-Job Training

This is a desirable first stage of training as it permits the management or supervisory trainee to familiarise himself with his future working milieu, and also gives him knowledge of the work of his future subordinates, the practice of which must form part of such training.

The training of the skilled categories of hotel staff has hitherto been mainly an internal affair for each hotel, under the guidance of its management, essentially through on-the-job training with the more experienced staff guiding the less-experienced, and the gradual evolution of supervisory personnel. Since 1972 the hotel staff training project, under I.L.O. auspices, has in part assisted the hotels in their in-service training, and also has organised a number of courses in such fields as housekeeping, restaurant and bar duties, office work, and kitchen work. As far as is known, almost all of the graduates of these courses have subsequently entered hotel work.

(B) Work Experience in Hotels Abroad

Another aspect of training has been the sending abroad a few Gambians recruited by the hotels, to gain training and

experience to enable them to subsequently replace the expatriates in senior positions. This type of training is most easily provided by those hotels which are part of an international hotel chain. This training combines on-the-job training with the gaining of experience. Already some of the hotel companies operating in The Gambia make use of the fact that Gambia's tourist season does not overlap that of the Mediterranean area to rotate some of their top staff between their hotels in the two areas, thus providing continuity of employment and variety of experience. Government should encourage all hotel operators to follow this practice in training their Gambian managers and supervisors wherever possible. (Prospects for such training need to be examined). Another useful procedure would be to send such Gambians for short periods of experience in hotels in the countries from which most of the tourists coming to The Gambia originate. This can facilitate their understanding of the needs of their future clientele, and where no direct commercial links between hotels in the two countries exist it might be arranged under government auspices.

(C) Formal Training at The Gambia Hotel School

The final stage is training locally to provide the theoretical background and knowledge for the trainee's future work. Against the argument that The Gambia should not attempt to establish its own training facilities because: (1) the potential demand is too small to permit

their economic operation, and (2) the undoubted advantages of international experience would thereby be lost (Wheeler and Dijk, 1974). The Gambia did in fact establish a hotel training school to provide the much needed manpower requirement of the tourism sector. The profile of the School, as well as the training programme, is discussed below.

### The Gambia Hotel School, Kanifing-Banjul

The Gambia Hotel School was set up in 1971 with the help of the United Nations under the U.N.D.P./I.L.O. hotel-training scheme, by which, apart from providing training for hotel staff, it also enabled training to be carried out abroad for instructors. In 1974 this project terminated, and because the Government believed that there was potential in the School, it sought and obtained assistance from German Agency for Technical Corporation (G.T.Z.) in Eschborn. In 1975, the first German team came to The Gambia. Like their U.N. predecessors, the Germans also provided the services of some instructors in the School. This co-operation arrangement ended in December, 1985.

Initially, the Hotel School was under the Ministry of State for Information, Broadcasting and Tourism which had been established in 1970 in the President's Office. Later in 1974, an independent Ministry of Information and Tourism was created. Ever since then, this autonomous Ministry has been overseeing the activities of the School.



(1) Capacity

The School has an optimum capacity of 100. In 1985, a total of 93 students were enrolled in four different courses, as shown in Table 7.9 below:

Table 7.9 : Enrolment of Students in The Gambia Hotel School Classified by Subject, Year of Study and Sex

Course	Year 1		Year 2		Year 3		Total	
	Both Sexes	Fe-male	Both Sexes	Fe-male	Both Sexes	Fe-male	Both Sexes	Female
Cookery/ Pastry	16	11	17	10	--	--	33	21
Restaurant/ Bar	18	6	15	4	--	--	33	10
Housekeeping/ Laundry	14	1	--	--	--	--	14	1
Front Office	13	4	--	--	--	--	13	4
<b>Total</b>	<b>61</b>	<b>22</b>	<b>32</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>--</b>	<b>--</b>	<b>93</b>	<b>36</b>

Source: Central Statistics Dept. (1985), Education Statistics. p. 34.

(2) Courses

In addition to the above four courses, the School also undertakes refresher and upgrading courses. Two full-time courses for managerial and supervisory staff are also undertaken jointly by the School and the Management Development Institute. In-service training is an integral part of the School's curriculum and most hotels participate. Basic training in foreign languages (such as French and

German) is also given to students. Details of the various study programmes, duration of course, admission requirements, and award at the end of training are provided in Appendix 7B.

In general, the training consists of: (1) Theory classes and practical training demonstrations; (2) Language courses (English, German, French); (3) General education (Mathematics, Social Studies); (4) Practical work in hotels. Training facilities include: (1) Training kitchen; (2) Model bed room, laundry and ironing room; (3) Training restaurants and bar. Teaching aids used are training films, slides, folios, cassettes, books, etc.

With regard to tests and examinations, these are held throughout the training period to assess the students knowledge and practical skill. Examinations are held at the end of the first year training. Final examinations comprising theory papers on all subjects taught during the course, as well as practical examinations are held at the end of the course.

Award of a certificate is subject to (1) regular attendance at classes (minimum 80%); (2) successful passing of the final examination; (3) good records obtained during the in-service training.

All Gambia students registered at the School receive some living allowances. There are no fee requirements for

Gambian nationals, who, in addition, receive professional clothing, hand-outs and study material.

(3) Staff

The School is now entirely run by Gambia personnel; there are no expatriate staff, whether teaching or non-teaching. There are altogether 10 teaching members of staff, and 4 demonstrators/technicians. These academic staff members have been trained abroad - mainly in Great Britain and West Germany. There is a staff/visitor/student exchange programme between the School and the Kenya Utalii College.

(4) Student Recruitment

Admission to the School is on a proportional representation of the 8 Local Government Areas of Banjul, Kombo St. Mary, Brikama, Mansakonko, Kerewan, Kuntaur, Georgetown and Basse.

Admission of students to Restaurant/Bar and Cookery/Pastry programmes is done every year. But for Housekeeping/Laundry and Reception, students are accepted every other year.

There are a total of 245 graduates of the Hotel School. Although training opportunities are at the present time restricted to nationals, there was, however, a case of a Ghanaian, the only foreigner so far to have passed through the School; he graduated there in 1986. In an answer to a

question as to the possibility of the School to train non-Gambians, Mr. Samateh (1987), one-time Permanent Secretary, Ministry of Information and Tourism, had this to say:

'We have all along been trying to evolve a policy to attract our neighbours, especially the E.C.O.W.A.S. countries. We know the interest is there, but of course, we have to make some provisions in terms of hotel and catering facilities. As soon as funds are available, the Ministry of Information and Tourism will be in a better position to make a policy statement on this aspect.'

The Principal of the Hotel School, Miss Martha Gomez, affirms this and says that questions such as fees, insurance, medical examinations regarding foreign students would have to be decided upon by the controlling Ministry to pave the way for intake of foreigners.

'We would need at least 10% of non-Gambians in the student population. Prior to end of training, a comprehensive list is sent to the Department of Labour (which also monitors employment pattern throughout the country) for our student placement. Usually, the Labour Department gives priority attention to our trainees' (Miss Gomez, 1987).

The School's sources outline possible employment positions immediately after training, as shown below:

Department	Employment
Reception/Hall	Receptionist, Cashier, Hall Porter,
Reservation	Clerk, Telex/Telephone
Operator	
Housekeeping/ Laundry	Floor Supervisor, Room Attendants, Linen Room Attendant, Laundry Supervisor

Restaurant/Bar	Waiter in either: Restaurant, Grill Room, Room Service, Pool, etc.;
Barmen, Hostess Cookery/Pastry	Cook: Sauce, Vegetables, Fish, Meat, Larder Cook, Pastry Cook, Staff Cook and Grill Cook.
Other Areas	Cashier, Food and Beverage Control Clerk, Goods Receiving Clerk, Assistant Storekeeper

Source: Gambia Hotel School, 'Training in the Hotel and Catering Trade - General Information.'

(5) Finance

As with other educational institutions in the country, the Hotel School's sources of financing the expenditure have come mainly from two sources: Government, and Others (which may include extension services to hotels, through in-service course for staff of hotels). The Principal has indicated that an Act of Parliament has just been passed for a training levy to be imposed, presumably on hotels, to support hotel and catering training in The Gambia, along Kenyan lines. At the time of field-work, information on the new Act was sketchy, as with when the Act would be effective.

(6) Relationship between the Hotel School and the Industry

The School maintains links with the industry in various ways. It organises annual refresher courses for hotel staff to help them to upgrade their skills. It maintains contact with past students of the School; indeed, it monitors these students in actual job situation. The hotels on their part accept students for industrial attachment, to give them

relevant practical experience they need. The private sector, mainly the Hotel Association, is represented in the Joint Trade Council, of which the School holds membership.

There is scope for improvement in the linkage between the School which is supposed to put on the market a 'finished product' directly employable and the industry which should prepare its structure to integrate the School's graduates. There are no immediate plans to diversify training into areas outside of the hotel trade, although there are rooms for expansion. Therefore, training for tourist guides, etc., for example, is not precluded. The official view of the Minister for Information and Tourism is that the Hotel School would need to start training for tourist guides, while the Director of Tourism thinks that the School training programmes would need to be upgraded to incorporate managerial levels of training; to train more people in the art of disseminating information about the tourism industry - for people to know more about what tourism is all about and how involved it is. This would require joint efforts from all concerned - private and public.

### 7.3.3 Manpower Problems

In order to meet the manpower requirements of tourism, it is firstly necessary to train a sufficient number of individuals in the academic knowledge and secondly to supply the sector with personnel experienced by practice.

The first problem is a question of the educational and training systems, and the second one a question of job performance and of the necessary time period, in which people can obtain their work experience. These issues are explored below.

One problem relates to the mechanism for formulating manpower development programmes. The most important here is the process of forecasting manpower needs and drawing programmes to supply enough trained people to meet these needs. It is perhaps fair enough to say that if these were properly done and well articulated, The Gambia would not be having expatriate managers and supervisors currently working in the hotels, or among the tourist guides employed by the tour operators. But here again, there are two problems. One is that even if the demands are correctly computed, training programmes would not necessarily match the demands, because whatever programme is needed, one still needs enough financial resources. these. Any constraint on financial resources limits training programmes, hence limiting the supply of qualified persons. The second reason is that there is a long gestation period for somebody to train and qualify for high level position, leave alone the time one requires to gain the necessary work experience. As the Labour Commissioner has again observed: "Managers are not made overnight. Management positions come with good education, training, and job experience. A manager might attend a university or a very high-class training course and then be on the job for a

very long time." For these reasons, supply has in most cases been inadequate, or inappropriate, in some cases.

Secondly, the necessity of both training and job experience for an appointment to such posts implies that recruits for those positions must be identified several years before hand. The stock of Gambians with the necessary education is small. During the 1973/74 academic year there were some 40 6th-Formers and 428 in the upper and lower 5th-Forms (Education Statistics, 1973/74). Figures are not significantly different for subsequent years (see Education Statistics, 1984/85). From this pool must be satisfied the high-level manpower needs of the public service, education, and the private sector generally.

Taking into consideration the desirability of education to at least General Certificate of Education (G.C.E.) standard as a prerequisite for high-level hotel work, and the generally rather poor examination results of recent years (Education Statistics, 1984/85), it must be borne in mind that hotel work may appear a less attractive alternative to the better-educated school-leavers than a public service career or teaching, because, for example, of the seasonal nature of the work, and its relative novelty in The Gambia. The implication is that there will be significant continuing requirement for expatriate managerial and supervisory staff, even if there is a substantially increased and successful effort at recruiting more Gambians.



#### 7.3.4 Conclusion

As seen, a number of expatriates are working in the tourist industry in The Gambia, and also in some of the activities dependent on tourism. They are found primarily in management and supervisory positions in the hotels, managing tour and travel agencies and working as tourist guides, and to a limited extent, operating places of entertainment. It has been suggested (World Bank, 1986) (although not identified in the manpower plan) that some two-thirds of the managerial and supervisory staff in hotels are foreigners. Given these factors, what are the expectations that Gambianisation at these levels can be extended significantly in future years? A first point to consider is that the tourist industry is international, both in the nature of its business, and in its structure. Many of the hotels in The Gambia are foreign-owned, as is the case in most other countries, too. Also it is common all over the world for posts such as those of hotel manager and head chef to be filled by foreigners, in particular nationals of these European cities which have a long tradition as tourist destinations, or from which there is a good tourist outflow.

These people have the advantage of long experience of tourism, as indispensable quality for senior hotel staff, and also are likely to be more familiar with the countries from which the tourists come, and hence the nature of their expectation. Thus, it is suggested that it is not

necessarily the best policy for The Gambia to aim at total indigenisation of top-level hotel staff. A far greater degree of indigenisation than at present is certainly desirable, and it is necessary to see how much progress in this direction can reasonably be expected.

The same argument is advanced for the high concentration of expatriate employment among the tourist guides employed by the tour operators. The operators defend this position by arguing that only nationals of the countries from which the tourists come have an adequate command of the tourists' mother tongues and hence can be satisfactory guides! It is true that tourists require a guide who speaks their language fluently, and that few if any Gambians are yet in this position with regard to the Scandinavian languages for which the current demand is highest, though many Gambians have by now picked up a limited knowledge of Swedish. But for the tour operators there is another advantage in using Scandinavian guides, since during the Gambian slack season they can use these guides at some of the other tourist destinations to which they operate, for example, in the Mediterranean.

But there seems no reason why, with sufficient training, Gambians should not become proficient in a variety of European language, and hence be able to work effectively as tourist guides. The necessity is for a thorough grounding in one of the languages used by tourists, preferably in the

country where it is spoken, together with voice and speech training, and study of the country where language is being learnt. On return to The Gambia it is also desirable that trainee guides should further develop their own knowledge of their country and its customs and culture. The prerequisite for such training will again be at least successful completion of secondary education, another call on the limited pool of educated Gambians. To replace the existing expatriates and cater to the needs of an expanding number of tourists drawn from a wider variety of countries as set out above, up to about 100 Gambian tourist guides are likely to be necessary by 1982, according to Wheeler and Dijk. In the light of estimates of the number of tourists expected to come from different sources in the future, the Gambian authorities may attempt to arrange for scholarships for language studies by Gambians to be granted in each of these countries to the extent necessary.

Extensive reference to training for skilled hotel workers has been made above. The problem is not one of replacing expatriates but of creating a sufficient number of skilled Gambian workers to meet the demands of an expanding tourist industry.

As was suggested above, nearly 2,500 new training places would be provided in the 1981/82 if the anticipated staffing needs of new hotels and replacement needs in existing hotels were to be fully met with regard to skilled workers. The types of staff included in this context were

waiters, bar men, receptionists, junior cooks, and room boys and chambermaids. The length and content of the training to be given could best be decided in consultation between the authorities and representatives of the tourist industry. They should also decide the numbers to be trained in each occupation. There would probably be a concentration of training during the May-September period, that is, outside the tourist season, when there is the possibility that trainees could do some of their practical training in unused hotels. Given the likely scale of the training effort needed, an interesting possibility would be the establishment of a demonstration hotel attached to the Hotel School.

The proposed scale of development of the tourist industry, and the consequent training need justifies the establishment of a permanent training facility for skilled workers, thus underlying the crucial place of the Gambia Hotel School. Given the scarcity of suitably qualified Gambians, and competing demands for their services, it is likely that initially at least the majority staff would be non-Gambians.

Considering the relatively low educational qualifications, probably at best an incomplete secondary education, with which Gambian entrants to skilled hotel work may be expected to be equipped, the provision of at least basic training before starting work will be desirable. Beyond

this a combination of work under close supervision, essentially a form of on-the-job training, and some further formal training, will probably be considered necessary for the production of a skilled worker able to work without constant close supervision. During field research in The Gambia, the author was unable to ascertain whether there were ongoing training plans (for the future), or which international agencies, if any, would be involved in it, or even multinational corporation which might be introduced in helping out.

## REFERENCES

- Erbes, Robert (1973), International Tourism and the Economy of Developing Countries. Paris: O.E.C.D.
- Gambia, Government of The (1985), Education Statistics 1984/85. Banjul: Central Statistics Department.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1984), Quarterly Survey of Employment and Earnings. Banjul: Central Statistics Department.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1983), Five-Year Plan for Economic and Social Development 1981/82 - 1985/86. Banjul: Government Printer.
- International Labour Organisation (1987), Employment Generation in the Hotel, Catering and Tourism Sector - Kenya. Geneva: I.L.O.
- Jenkins, C.L. (1987), 'Manpower planning in tourism,' Unpublished lecture given to W.T.O./U.N.D.P. 'Tourism Planning Course' in Colombo, Sri Lanka, September
- Kenya, Republic of (1983), Report of the Presidential Committee on Unemployment 1982/83 (Wanjigi Commission). Nairobi: Government Printed.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1971), 'Hotels and Restaurants Act of 1971,' in Laws of Kenya. Chapter 494. Nairobi: Government Printer.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1983), Development Plan 1984-1988. Nairobi: Government Printer.
- Kenya Utalii College (Dec. 1986), General Information. Nairobi: Government Printer.
- Ministry of Labour/Employment Productivity (Kenya) (1974), 'Towards a long-term plan for industrial training,' (Internal Memo.)
- Mitchell, Frank (1968), Costs and Benefits for Kenyan's Tourism. Nairobi: Kenya Tourist Development Corporation.
- N'Jie, Makaireh Alieu (1979), Vocational and Technical Education in The Gambia: The Road Ahead - A Comparative Study. Unpublished M.Ed. of the University of Sheffield.
- N'Jie, Omar N.C. (1981), Technical and Vocational Training Needs Survey - Part 1. Banjul: The Directorate of National Vocational Training.

- Tourist Consult (1979), 'Evaluation of training provided by Kenya Utalii College, Nairobi,' Working Paper, August.
- Wiese, Roy F. (1975), 'Manpower planning and the provision of training,' Working Paper, No. 222, Nairobi: Institute for Development Studies, University of Nairobi.
- Wheeler, A.C.R. and M.P. von Dijk (1974), The Impact of the Development of Tourism on Employment in Gambia. Dakar: I.L.O.
- World Bank/SOMEA (1986), The Gambia Tourism Impact Study. Washington, D.C.: The World Bank.

## CHAPTER 8

### LAND USE PLANNING FOR TOURISM IN KENYA AND THE GAMBIA

#### 8.0 Introduction

In both Kenya and The Gambia, as in most developing countries, the land question has always been and remains crucial to the politics of development. For instance, one Kenyan Government source acknowledges this, to say that despite many years of political independence, "many land questions remain unresolved and new ones have arisen..." (Development Plan 1979-1983: 282). One writer (Okoth-Ogendo, 1981: 329) sums up the problems as ranging from "an extremely skewed pattern of land distribution, land speculation, landlessness, absentee landlordism" to "inefficient systems of land use and resource allocation." In this chapter the concern is with the problems of land use and resource allocation in Kenya and The Gambia.

By 'land use and resource allocation' we mean how a community organises its available land resources and makes management decisions about allocating these to different competing demands. The aim here, in a touristic sense, obviously is to harmonise the needs of the tourism sector with the conflicting activities of other sectors of the economy on land matters. In more specific terms, the chapter will describe and analyse how the development of tourism in the two countries under investigation has



resulted in significant changes in the allocation of productive land resources among major competing uses; government planning responses to land use patterns; and the effect which this tourism-land use dispensation or interface has had on the political economy of these societies. It may, therefore, be necessary to examine who owns land - whether state or the private sector?, and how ownership patterns influence Government policies. An historical analysis of the traditional land use system may be needed, for example, in the case of Kenya. In doing this, we need to illustrate how tourism developments have complemented land use (or used the resource). Conversely, we will demonstrate how tourism activities have cut across these communities by encouraging conflicts with other potential land use competitors in the economy.

## 8.1 Land Use Systems in Kenya<sup>1</sup>

### 8.1.1 Traditional Perspectives

In the past, in pre-tourism times, land in Kenya had three principal uses - pastoralism (or herding), wildlife, and agriculture. What existed among these three uses was not competition as such, rather it was a symbiotic relationship with one another whereby these various activities were complementary. This was clearly seen especially in the case of the pastoral peoples in their relationship with the herbivorous wild animals.

Traditionally, Kenya has been the home of a variety of

pastoral peoples and of abundant wildlife. The Masai, among other pastoral peoples, such as the Pokot, Samburu, and others, occupied vast areas in northern and eastern Kenya and in the Rift Valley, while wildlife occupied similar areas with no effort being made to control either their movements or their numbers. The pastoralists accepted wildlife as part of their environment and hence there was little sense of competition between livestock and wildlife. The reasons were obvious.

Western (1976: 1-2) talks of a positive use of wildlife by the Masai and other pastoralists, who have regarded these wild ungulates as their 'second cattle,' and which provided them with the main form of subsistence during extreme droughts and diseases that depleted livestock (such as cattle), as was recorded in the late 1890's.

Even for agriculture, because of the erratic nature of local weather conditions, in terms of unequal rainfall distribution, both in space and time, and its seasonal varieties in availability of pasture, the traditional system allowed the cultivators to expand into other areas during wetter periods. The cultivators pulled back to more favourable growing regions during dry seasons, leaving the area to the pastoralists. Again, Western (1976:1) has described this as "a wet season dispersal phase and a dry season gravitation to the vicinity of permanent water and good late season forage." But such season migration

patterns and foraging strategies of Masai livestock and wildlife species were helpful. The manuring of the region during its occupancy by the livestock restored soil fertility and permitted the cultivators to obtain better crop yields during their next temporary occupation. In other words, the livestock moved in after crop harvest to feed upon the crop residue (for example, stubble) moving off again later to leave the land free from further cultivation when next suitable. This historical interaction situation among the various activities, as would be seen below, was changed with the advent of colonial era, and reinforced indeed, with the introduction of wildlife-based tourism to Kenya, in the dawn of this century.

#### 8.1.2 The Colonial Impact

As an example, these developments not only waned the pastoralists' fortunes - their way of life and values in Kenya - but the processes resulted in a major transformation in the access to, and control over, the land resources. Consequently, the Masai have come increasingly into conflict with expanding agriculturalists over land control in contiguous areas. In addition, such land-use related issues like population pressures, urbanisation, and most importantly, tourism, each of which has made competing demands on land resources, are beginning to gain attention, as this trend has led to new emphasis on other aspects of land use structure.<sup>2</sup> Thus, in the words of some writers, "the tail had wagged the dog!" (Collier and Lal, 1986:27)

### 8.1.3 Land Use Planning - An Historical Consideration

Land and resource planning in Kenya have, in both colonial and post-colonial periods, received varying degrees of attention by the Governments - from the "relative neglect" of the early era when Kenya was a colony, to the "more vigorous approach which is currently being formulated" (Ngutter, 1981:25). In the past, Government efforts to promote productive utilisation of resources were sectorally based, and were pursued to favour the humid and more arid areas of the country, rather than incorporating within the planning scheme the full productive potential of semi-arid areas as well.

The first major landmark in land use planning in Kenya was the Land Commission Report (1933). Popularly labelled the 'Carter Commission', the report was to "consider the needs of the native population, present and prospective, with respect to land" (Report of the Kenya Land Commission, 1933), as well as to deal with various other matters of dispossessed land in Kenya. As a result of the report, land in Kenya was classified into four broad categories and was further evaluated for its ability to support production and people. The final report included recommendations for alternative land use practices to ensure the conservation of land resources.

At the end of World War 11 in 1945, the country was faced

with a number of serious land use problems, such as soil conservation, water supplies, afforestation, restoration of land infested with tsetse fly, overcrowding by men and beast, the resting and reconditioning of eroded and worn-out areas and the need to improve farming methods. These concerns were outlined in the Sessional Paper, Land Utilisation and Settlement (1945) and the key note in the paper was the need for more efficient use of land in order to establish more prosperous and vigorous farming communities. In particular, the paper paid attention to the first need in the African areas to ascertain the true carrying capacity of the land with regard to man and his livestock.

Although the Swynnerton Plan (1955) also emphasised on land use patterns, and on the need for a rapid increase in small farm production for cash and the improvement of African farming standards, unfortunately this plan did not really come to grips with the fundamentals of land use planning, and so was short-lived.

Whereas the Swynnerton Plan concerned itself with the small African farm and increasing overall production in that sector, the Troup Report (1953) focused attention on the capacities with a view of increasing farm production based on sound farm management. The report is significant, from a land-use point of view, because it was intended to direct Government policy regarding land use in the highland areas at that time in Kenya's development.

The African Land Development Board, A.L.D.E.V., for short, established in 1945, at the time when the Kenya 10-Year Development Plan (1946-1955) was being prepared, also made some advances. A.L.D.E.V. argued that the most serious problem was not over-population but mismanagement of land resource.

Another significant step in land use planning was made when, in 1965, the sessional paper, 'African Socialism and its Application to Planning in Kenya', was published. The paper emphasised the need for planning both the use and the conservation of local natural resources. This paper recognised the importance of planning and proper land management in a newly-independent country.

Kenya's economic development is presently being guided by the Fifth National Development Plan, 1984-1988. Essentially, the Plan is a continuation of the very basic objectives outlined in the 1965 sessional paper just mentioned. The earlier (Fourth) National Development Plan, 1979-1983 provided the framework within which planning could be carried out effectively at the regional and local level; the current plan enunciates this. However, in a country where economic development heavily relies on the determination of how the land resource is to be used, National Development Plan should be related to the limitations of land base. Unfortunately, none of the two

latter plans, 1979-1983 and 1984-1988, have addressed themselves thoroughly to the land base.

Since political independence, no major review of land policy has been undertaken, and the Government recognises this, particularly the two mis-uses of land.<sup>3</sup> The existing situation combines colonial land tenure laws with recent practice in a complex pattern that makes it difficult to operate a land policy. Government, in recognising the sensitivity of land uses, especially that the economic future of the country would continue to be bleak unless twin problems are faced and solved, in 1986, appointed a commission to examine critically land issues, with a view to recommending measures geared to proper planning and management. The Sessional Paper No. 1 (1986:90)<sup>4</sup> presents the terms of reference of the Commission's work relating to land policy. But at the time of field research in Kenya, the Commission's report was understood to have been ready. Since the Government was believed to be studying its contents, with a view to issuing a Government White Paper on it, the report was still a guarded secret, and as such, was yet to be made public.

#### 8.1.4 Current Land Use Structure

In most developing countries, land use is identified with agriculture. In Kenya, for instance, in addition to farming, present land use pattern concerns other activities, including several government programmes, like

the generation of water power, transportation and settlement schemes, which have significant influences on land structure. Other activities like mining, urban-based activities and fishing, although important, do not require extensive areas of land. In both instances, their importance, in a development sense, lies in their contribution to revenue and employment. These various land use activities have been concisely reviewed by John Ambrose (1980:101-107).

Yeager and Miller (1986:77), in Table 8.1 below have summarised Kenya's geographical land use distribution:

Table 8.1 : Land Use in Modern Kenya

<u>Land Use Category</u>	<u>Sq. Km.</u>	<u>Sq. Ml.</u>	<u>Area %</u>
Naturally Arable	99,050	39,620	18
Agriculturally Peripheral, Settlement Permitted	425,621	170,248	75
National Parks and Game Reserves Settlement Prohibited	39,491	15,797	7
Total Areas <sup>2</sup>	<u>564,162</u>	<u>225,665</u>	<u>100</u>

<sup>2</sup> Excluding lakes.

The information here indicates that of the total 564,162 sq.km. (225,665 sq.ml.) of land in Kenya (excluding lakes), 39,491 sq. km (15,797 sq. ml.), 7% are devoted to conservation of game in parks and reserves; 425,621 sq. km. (170,248 sq. ml) 75% go for agriculture; and 99,050 sq.km. (39,620 sq.km.), 18% are devoted to natural arable



ventures. (More will be said of this below).

In the rest of this chapter attention will be paid to examining one important economic sector, tourism, which also has a strong influence on land use patterns in Kenya. In the sense in which it is used here, tourism in Kenya, from land use perspective, as already seen, involves two major attractions - activities in the beach areas of the country and also another relating to wildlife matters. Essentially, the latter encompass the development of National Parks and National Reserves.

Attention is also paid to analysing main features of Kenyan Government policy objectives and strategies in regard to land use; in particular, the consequences - socio-cultural dimensions, with reference to the native populations, of these policies; and to determine the extent to which these developments are due to the introduction of tourism to Kenya.

## 8.2 Tourism and Land Use - The Policy Environment

As observed, tourism is third only to coffee and tea as Kenya's leading foreign exchange earner. The tourist attractions of the country, wildlife and beach life, make Kenya an important vacationland. Since wildlife in particular is the backbone of Kenya's tourism today, any wonder then that about 7% (see Table 8.1 above) of the country's land resource has been incorporated in 13

national parks and 24 national reserves. The total area under protection is 4,361,512 hectares including 2,553,969 hectares in parks and 1,807,543 hectares in reserves. Game Animals/Products, Parks and Reserves generate considerable revenue to the Government. In 1961, for instance, the country realised a total sum of ü248,000 from exports of game animals or products (World Bank, 1963:173). In 1984 1,037,175 visits to the National Parks and National Reserves were recorded. Tourism at the Coast accounted for about 50% of all tourist visits to Kenya in 1986, and has now become of formidable importance. It is based upon the coastline resources, covering about 400 miles of shoreline. The land base required to support the tourism industry is therefore quite substantial.

#### 8.2.1 Why a Land Use Policy for Kenyan Tourism?

Kenya's total economy is closely tied to game in a number of ways. As seen above, one excellent example is game's contribution to the development of tourism. Wildlife tourism, upon which much of tourism in Kenya depends, is based on photography and viewing animals.

An allocation of such large areas of land to sustain game tourism, obviously, is bound to create some problems, which may be resolved by carefully planned national land use policies. These policies should aim at the most efficient and appropriate sustained land use patterns, which implies, among other things, rational use of all renewable natural

resources. One of the best examples of the need for careful land use planning involves the Masai pastoralists who, as suggested, have suffered land alienation with the introduction of wildlife tourism. For this reason alone, the place of wildlife in any land use policy in Kenya must be carefully reviewed.

It is therefore not surprising that Norman Miller (1982) and Yeager and Miller (1986:68-114), in their studies, have emphasised two basic truths which underline Kenya land use and wildlife tourism. It is argued that both land use and wildlife are highly politicised: first, because land in Kenya, as noted historically, is a sensitive issue, and wildlife tourism has economic potential; second, both issues have become the objects of conflicting local, national, and international goals.

A second reality is that a rapid population explosion in Kenya has caused changes in land use patterns in their relations to humans and wild animals, and raise a number of fundamental questions. One such question is, 'Who - man or animal - should take precedence in land resource allocation? Both areas of concern clearly lead to political dissent. In the prevailing circumstances - of clashes between wildlife and human population - over land base resources - further need for policy direction begins to be seen: to balance land use needs and wildlife protection without denying either. In other words, there is the need

to: 1. maintain the animals as a managed resource under co-ordinated land use; 2. give the land owners benefits from this resource as an incentive; 3. continue to support the tourist attractions in parks and reserves. These are important issues in view of the opinion expressed by Rogalsky (1980) who argues that the "game must pay its way", to mean that the expanding local communities will have disposal income by keeping the game. At the same time, Government gets some revenue through licences, taxes, and tourist earnings, providing the raison d'etre for officially supporting wildlife protection. This problem will only be solved by decisions taking into account sociological as well as economic and ecological factors. Any policies formulated should use this broad tripartite approach. It is in this context that we examine Kenyan Government's policies and strategies in these general areas.

### 8.2.2 The Policies

Following from the arguments just advanced, in the post-independence period, Government policy has been to encourage greater economic return from the lands through encouraging Kenyans to become more commercial and by stimulation of the tourist industry via the national parks. Thus, pastoralism, national parks, and agriculture, have been established as appropriate forms of utilisation and so included in land use plans. In more specific terms, since wildlife management is fundamental to Kenya's tourism,

three land use policies relating to it can be discerned. These are 1. protective or preservation; 2. conservation and utilisation; 3. benefit-distribution policies. Each of these is briefly described below:

#### **8.2.2.1 Protective/Preservation**

This policy pertains to creations of National Parks for the exclusive use of wildlife, and national reserves within which wildlife are protected and other land uses carefully controlled by the Councils. The overall aim of this policy is to foster the development of wildlife tourism by also making provision for construction of lodges to accommodate tourists in these sanctuaries. The policy sets out the principles to be followed for protection; there are also clear guidelines regarding legal and organisational framework to ensure compliance.

#### **8.2.2.2 Conservation and Utilisation**

Complementing the above is the conservation and utilisation policy which advances reasons why the Government thinks that land and indeed wildlife should be conserved and how conservation and development may best be progressed. The reasons given in most cases include the problem of conflicting and competing priorities, policy objectives and management techniques, adopted by various institutions for the conservation and utilisation of land resources.

### 8.2.2.3 Benefit -Distribution

This policy seeks to secure equitable sharing among the various interest groups - councils, landowners, and the Government - in the flow of benefits arising from land resource utilisation. For example, control of national reserves remains vested in the county councils, enabling them to decide on spending directions of revenues from game activities; to benefit also populations adjacent to the reserves. In the case of National Parks, the policy has been to encourage lodges, campsites, etc. centres outside the park boundaries. The aim here is to increase Parks visitor capacity and revenue potential, thus allowing the resident population much of the benefits accruing therefrom, as some writers have observed: "A benefit-distribution policy...is fully compatible with the needs of tourists and scientists as well as the citizens who, on a day to day basis, must bear the brunt of the costs in maintaining the resource." (Croze and Mbuvi, 1981:186)

### 8.2.3 Strategies

The Government realises that if these policies are to be implemented, it is necessary to introduce necessary measures to attain the objectives. So, the strategies adopted fall under two categories: the first is legislative provision, and the second is administrative machinery to enforce relevant laws and manage the enterprise. Discussions of these action programmes follow below.

### 8.2.3.1 Legislative Measures

Legal protection has been given to the policies, and this has been by area, and by general restriction on methods of exploitation. A guiding principle for such legislation exists in the Wildlife Conservation and Management Service, established by an Act of Parliament. It focuses on the inter-relationship between wildlife and habitat and conservation and management rather than single preservation.

'Protecting by area' means that land areas in the form of national parks, reserves and equivalent zones with varying degrees of legal restrictions on exploitation, have been set aside. For example, we noted that hunting is prohibited in Game Reserves, and in the case of National Parks, all activities in conflict with wildlife preservation are prohibited. This aspect of conservation is, in fact, fairly well advanced in Kenya, dating back to 1947 when the first National Park - Nairobi - was gazetted. National parks and game reserves, as earlier observed, average about 7% of the surface area. This figure may mean little, of course, since many reserves are inefficiently guarded and some are completely without guards. But they represent a legal basis for future progress.

### 8.2.3.2 Administration

The management and maintenance of the lands for wildlife tourism purposes are highly compartmentalised, and so are

the policies formulated by the various departments for such management and maintenance. This compartmentalisation brings about conflicts at the most important levels of policy and decision-making. For example, no less than five Ministries are involved in national parks in Kenya - namely, Aberdare, Mount Kenya, and Mount Elgon. These are the Ministries of Agriculture, Lands Settlement, Natural Resources, Tourism and Wildlife, and Water Development. In addition, in most cases, more than one department in each Ministry is responsible to some extent for various aspects of use, management and conservation of the diverse resources contained within these management units.

The challenging problem, therefore, is one of achieving the diverse objectives of these institutions in a way that does not minimise but enhances the productivity of the ecologically related and complementary natural resources within these ecosystems.

A co-ordinated land use plan, and interpretation and enforcement of complex legislation, require close liaison between these departments. One way Kenya has ensured such co-ordination is by the creation of Wildlife Conservation and Management Department (W.C.M.D.), which, as stated before, has a wide advisory mandate. The W.C.M.D. acts through advisory committee which enable representatives of different interests to a round government and non-government table.



By implication, it means that although the actual administration and management of the area is shared among the W.C.M.D., Lands Settlement and Natural Resources, in reality, however, many more departments are involved in the management of the entire resource zone and its immediate environs.

One of the most important functions the W.C.M.D. performs in relation to park administration is to provide guards to control fires and tourists, and discourage poaching. Poaching is a major problem in many parks and, with the aid of bicycles and, in some cases, motorcycle, the mobility of poachers has been greatly increased. The Department has organised fairly regular patrols, much of which has been motorised.

Given suitable wildlife populations in parks and reserves, their exploitation by photographic tourism has meant provision of amenities such as lodges, roads and viewing points.

#### **8.2.4 Socio-Cultural Dimensions of Policy**

Croze and Mbuvi (1981:186-200) have described four levels - individual, local community, national/regional, and international - on which wildlife utilisation, as a form of land use, has some impact. The individual level involves groups such as the Masai pastoralists, and farmers. The

local community relates to county council or district. At the national level is the Government, whilst international refers to global bodies. The impact can be positive or negative, or both, and essentially relates to the benefits/costs incurred at a specific level where wildlife-tourism activities impinge upon other land uses. Although current land use policy in Kenya attends to all four levels, however, it is at the grassroots - the individual - where controversies and conflicts surrounding wildlife are most apparent and intense. For this reason, much of the discussion here is at this level.

#### 8.2.4.1 Individual Level

##### (a) Adverse Impact - Land Alienation

It has been suggested (Campbell, 1981) that Government land use policies have attempted to rationalise the economies of the Masai pastoralists, and farmers, by 1. controlling, for example, seasonal movements of the pastoralists; 2. expanding farmers' cultivation in selected localities within the pastoral domain, and by so doing, subjecting the farmers to adverse effects particularly in times of drought, as antelopes, giraffe, and so on, cause considerable crop damage for which farmers are seldom compensated. In consequence such social and economic changes that followed have influenced some aspects of their social behaviour. Campbell sums up the situation, thus:

'The ability of the pastoralists to control access to dry-season resources was lost with the enforcement of colonial rule and they have been unable to prevent the depletion of their grazing resources. This depletion is a consequence of government action in the creation of national parks and more fundamentally, of the continuing legacy of colonial land alienation which forces farmers to seek cultivable land in less productive areas which are nevertheless, vital to the pastoral land-use system.' (1981:49)

This observation is critical when it is considered that the majority of these parks and reserves are located in the semi-arid, rangeland areas also used by pastoralists. As was discussed previously, whereas the latter had traditionally lived side by side with wildlife they now faced a situation whereby they were still expected to live amicably alongside wildlife in the wet season, when the animals were dispersed over the rangelands, while in the dry-season, areas of concentration formerly used by both wildlife and domestic herds were often reserved solely for wildlife. Therefore, the reservation of such dry season concentration areas for wildlife imposes restrictions on the adjacent pastoralists' alternatives during the dry periods and causes some to alter their grazing patterns, thereby increasing the process of domestic stock at their locations offering such resources.

Western (1978) illustrates these developments by citing development of one national park, Amboseli, and argues: "Where once the ecosystem was a primary food source for people of the area, new demands have emerged which have

different cultural and economic expectations. The Masai still look to Amboseli as their primary resource base."

What one gathers from all this is that the conversion of Amboseli, or indeed any other similar set up, into a national park, moves its use from the local to the national level. This phenomenon has been interpreted by Masai as changing the status of wildlife, their 'second cattle', to that of 'Government cattle' which can withdraw when grazing is short into the confines of Government land - the national park. As a response to the restriction on their use of both animals and park land they see the only alternative as excluding wildlife from their own lands surrounding the park. This blocks the migration routes, and restricts grazing to their own livestock.

Masai sources suggest that alienation of their lands was one logical outcome of this new dispensation. Kituyi (1985), whose recent researches in this whole area, has described alienation as having three variants - confinement, infiltration, and alienation for game development.

According to Kituyi, confinement describes the process by which Masai pastoralists lost significant parts of their land to European settlers and had their rights to land defined by rigid and ever narrowing geographical boundaries. This generally dates between 1900 and the World War 1. Infiltration refers to the steady influx of peasants

into the more fertile and wet pocket of Masai lands after loss of land in their own home areas. This phase, starting after World War 1, has continued to the present day. Alienation for game development (which is the concern of this aspect of the chapter) started after the World War 11 and has generally been accepted and enhanced by the Governments of independent Kenya. The outburst by a worried Masai is evident:

'It is we Masai who have preserved this priceless heritage...long before the animal of those who use game only as a means of getting money. So, please do not tell us that we must be pushed out of our land for the financial convenience of commercial hunter and hotelkeepers.' (Quoted in Jacobs, 1980)

In practice, that was what happened, the Masai were pushed out of their lands, out of the game sanctuaries, to make space for wildlife tourism.

This systematic loss of land by the Masai pastoralists has far-reaching implications for other economies, also for both the Masai, and the peasant farmers in the areas surrounding the Masai homelands. First, it raises a question of relevance to pastoral productivity viability. In this regard, Kituyi (1985) makes a distinction between the way agricultural and pastoral communities relate to land in their production regimes. It is argued that, for the peasant farmer, land is a quantified form of capital which can be exploited uniformly from year to year depending on the kind of crop husbandry exercised. Among

such producers there cannot be any disguise of land alienation because it immediately restricts the amount of production that can be undertaken in the given year. This is partly the reason why the problem of land alienation is so easily dramatised among the Kikuyu.

Among the pastoralists, on the other hand, there is no such direct quantitative relationship to land (Galanty, 1981). Since number of animals and not number of acres under grass is the crucial capital of pastoralism, it is possible to distinguish land alienation. This is particularly so if for a number of years there is adequate rainfall and pasture and therefore the size of the herds appears to be sustained or even increased. This may be seen to partly explain the relatively long time it takes before any amputation of the pastures gets reflected in the size of herds and their health. Because of this lapse of time between cause and effect, many will tend to misplace the blame for subsequent problems of pastoralism onto such things as particularly dry years, or declining discipline in stocking by pastoralism.

In the second place, the loss of land had the uniform effect of increasing the vulnerability of the pastoralists to drought and other perennial challenges, but also formed the basis of an artificial overstocking in the remaining pastoral rangeland. We must understand the cultural humiliation of being driven away from Kinangop, the Masai

cultural headquarters, where members of different sectors traditionally united in septennial celebrations.

In terms of ecological consequences, the loss of dry season pastures to immigrant peasants is not limited to the fact of the more intensive resource exploitation under agriculture and the fast increase in human population. Most of the incoming peasants had developed their farming technology in high rainfall areas. This was inappropriate for the hill slopes they now occupied and soon erosion was following them into Masai country (Odegi-Awuondo, 1982).

The tradespeople, including tourism entrepreneurs, arriving in the districts were also denuding the rangeland in another way. Not only were trees being felled in clearing gardens for farming and in construction of residential houses and game lodges, increasingly timber was being extracted for burning charcoal for urban area residents, and to be exported to timber markets. Timber export, the severe scarcity notwithstanding, continued growing especially in Narok district where, by 1954, it constituted the second largest trade item after livestock (Annual Report, 1954).

The most immediate and obvious consequence of the alienation of Masai territory especially the wetter stretches utilised in the dry season, was an increase in human and livestock population on the remaining more marginal pastures. This phenomenon could be interpreted as

leading to two different inferences depending on where one stands. Increased confinement can be seen as necessitating destocking as a mechanism for retaining the exploitation of the range within the carrying capacity of the land. From such a perspective then rational government policy would be to create the incentives and facilities for increased offtake from the herds of the pastoralists. This line of argument only justifies the policies of livestock commercialisation that have been the pillar of successive Kenyan governments, but also abstracts the population pressure question from its immediate causes and makes it sound like an unfortunate tendency of pastoral production to accumulate animals in total disregard for environmental consequences.

On the other hand, if one sees the essence of pastoralism as a subsistence economy based on ruminant conversion of range resources into humanly consumable energy, then the alienation of prime pasture land from the pastoralists and their confinement in more marginal areas leads to a very different conclusion. It has been shown that ruminants as converters of range resources for secondary consumers increase their ability with maturity (Dyson-Hudson, R & N, 1982); and that where pastures are scarce and spread out, resources extraction through browsing is most efficiently done by sustaining a high number of hardy animals as opposed to capital-intensive ranching of exotic animals in fewer numbers (Stanley-Price, 1981). The conclusion from



these premises would support herd expansion as a response to confinement in a drier zone. For the Masai pastoralist an additional set of premises lead to the same decision. The increased precariousness of their new environment, limitation of alternative escapes from calamities of nature and a colonially created inflation of domestic demands on the herd called for methods of husbandry that increased the herd size as much as possible.

The above contradiction in perception of the pastoral rationality is important as a basis for any debate of the ensuring commercialisation of Masai livestock. The land question highlights two opposing tendencies: the pastoralist striving to expand his herd, while the state and other capitalist (under the cloak of tourism) justifying destocking. The two are not mutually incompatible; subordination has basically meant that the one tendency has fed the insatiable appetite of the other.

(b) Positive Impact

Despite the adverse effects of the policies at the individual level, it can be argued that there are some benefits, direct and indirect, both for the individual and community. A national park or reserve although offers a variety of habitats and has enclosed areas which provide permanent sources of dry season, it also provides a pleasing spectacle for tourists and allows wildlife species to be protected. In addition, it can be said that the existence of wildlife in a particular region in Kenya,

presents the people of that region with two possibilities for entrepreneurship. One has to do with utilisation of the wildlife themselves, in a legitimate sense, of tourists who pass through the land seeking wildlife.

Indirectly, the wildlife-based tourist industry affords opportunities to rural populations for profitable exploitation of the tourist. The opportunities range widely from providing accommodation of international standard to posing for pictures, in Nageda's words, 'to woo tourists', at the roadside, which is one step up from upright begging. Between these two extremes lie a series of activities, which fall into categories of service employment, performing, providing services and selling. It is important to stress the employment potential through the multiplier effect which wildlife can provide for an imaginatively directed rural population, and which can rank very high as a local cash service when compared with other agricultural activities.

It is equally important to mention one activity in the field of selling, which has been successfully tested. Although one usually conceives of selling as being confined to curio kiosks, it may also include selling the rights for a particular type of activity on privately-owned land. It is reported that, Group Ranch Committees in Kajiado District in 1974/76 sold Hunting Concession rights to private firms of hunter-guides which cater to an exclusive

market of 'big game' hunters (Croze and Mbuvi, 1981). The fee paid was a composite figure calculated by adding rates for animals shot to an annual fee. The money was used for a variety of community activities - from parties to school buildings. One group range, for example, was averaging a receipt of K25,000 shillings per quarter when the hunting ban was introduced in July 1976. In the opinion of the Group Ranch Committee, one of the few, perhaps the only material benefit from wildlife, was eradicated at a blow, and with it, the only reason for conservation of the wildlife resource.

#### **8.2.4.2 Benefits to the Community**

Land use policy favouring wildlife tourism also benefits the community. A major recommendation of the U.N.D.P./F.A.O. Wildlife Management in Kenya Project (1978) was that large portions of wildlife-generated revenues must return to the regions which generated them. As a result, Government policy now reflects such recommendation. In June 1977, just under K2 million Shs. was paid by the Minister for Tourism and Wildlife to the District Commissioner of Kajiado District. This money was earned from hunting fees in the District, and was pledged at the ceremony to be directed into community projects by the District Development Committee. It would be an instructive exercise today to trace the pathway of that money through the community.

Nor was the June 1977 payment an isolated event. Rents paid by lodges and tented camps to the County Council in Kenya's most famous wildlife viewing areas - Mara, Amboseli, and Samburu - have increased over the past five years until today they average around K500,000 Shs. per annum. In one area, Masai Mara, when the bednight occupancy fees and camp site fees are added to the basic rent, it is estimated that the community earnings in 1981, for example, came to well over K1 million Shs.

Whether or not local entrepreneurs are responsible for management of industries related to wildlife, the multiplier effect on employment generated by the activity can be considerable to the populace. The operations which cater to wildlife-based tourism, such as lodges, garages, curio production, all generate employment. It has been estimated, for example, that 20% of the labour force around Amboseli National Park and 45% around Masai Mara are provided employment by the local wildlife viewing enterprises (Campbell, 1981).

#### 8.2.5 Conclusion

On balance, it is perhaps fair to say that, measured against traditional forms of land use, active utilisation of wildlife, whether consumptive or non-consumptive, or tourism, can be at least of economic benefit to landowner. Even compared with cattle ranching at full development, a landowner could realise several times the revenues if he

had the wildlife on his land to support a hunting concession, and something ten times as much if the diversity of both habitat and fauna were rich enough to accommodate viewing tourists (Hampson, 1974).

In this regard, policy-makers in the Wildlife Conservation and Management Service Department feel that they have evolved a fairly enlightened approach to conserving their wildlife charges, one which materially contributes to national development activities and which requires the co-operation of other agencies, particularly the Ministries of Agriculture and Land. In a nutshell, as previously remarked, the policy entails: (a) a broad-based approach to decision-making., one which actively seeks a workable multiple-use land tenure (and hence resource ownership) system; (b) an extension programme based on the unique characteristics of wildlife as a resource; and (c) an imaginative, fair and prompt scheme for the distribution of wildlife benefits to the landowner, either directly or through community channels.

Considering however the adverse impact on the pastoral societies of these policies, vis-a-vis the societies' resilience in the face of these attempts at imposed change, it remains to be seen whether the pastoralists would be able to control the pace of social and economic changes in response to such external factors. This is not only doubtful but is highly improbable. Population increase in pastoral societies, migration of farmers into dry season

grazing areas and the alienation of land for national parks, is rapidly altering the balance between the requirements of pastoral societies and the capacity of the environment to meet them. This, inevitably, is the fact of life of present-day Kenya Masai peoples, unfortunately.

### 8.3 The Gambia and Land Use

#### 8.3.1 Why a Land Use Policy?

As stated earlier, The Gambia is virtually a one-crop economy, with groundnut production dominating both agricultural activity and national economics. Its land resources are limited and there are no known exploitable minerals. Although the fisheries sector is beginning to gain some prominence, tourism at present offers the only major alternative to agriculture as a source of foreign exchange and employment. The major issue of Government land policy in The Gambia therefore has been to utilise the scarce land in the most productive way. Government sources indicate that the development of tourism in the country is one such way to realise this.

Such policy, as noted, takes into consideration the other activities competing for land base. Studies by the (British) Ministry of Overseas Development (1976) and the Gambia-German Planning Team (1986) on land use have identified current land use patterns in The Gambia. These sources give probably the best available information on the subject. Table 8.2. below illustrates the structure.

Highlights of the pattern are briefly reviewed.

There is considerable utilisation of land for agriculture (about 33%), one aspect of which is the extensive use of land for groundnut. Again, industry uses only a minor share of the land (0.6%) and is essentially limited to a few factories situated along the port, mainly processing fish products. 14.7% of all land is taken up by residential and mixed use, whereas commercial activity and the transport and communications sector each, respectively, uses 0.6% and 1.8%, of the land. A relatively insignificant proportion of land (.53%) is devoted to the development of tourism. A number of points need to be made here.

**Table 8.2 : G.B.A. Proposed Future Land Use  
Types and Areas (Sequence as per Physical  
Planning Act, 1984, Second Schedule)**

<u>Land Use Type</u>	<u>Hectares</u>	<u>%</u>
Agricultural Use	11,129	33.2
Forest Areas	5,652	17.0
Beaches	126	0.4
Quarries	15	0.04
Industrial Use	190	0.6
Urban Residential Areas	3,288	9.8
Mixed Use Areas	256	0.7
Semi-Urban Residential Areas	1,396	4.2
Villages	852	2.5
Hotels	45	0.13
Parks and Recreational Use	603	1.8
Cemeteries	63	0.18
Public Administration	301	1.0
Military Bases	63	0.18
Business and Commercial Use	25	0.06
Transport and Communication	617	1.8
Dumping Sites	16	0.05
Shrub Savanna	2,859	8.5
Water and Swamps	5,952	17.8
State House and Independence Stadium	21	0.06
Total	33,469	100

It is clear from the above analysis that there is considerable imbalance in land use percentage among many sectors, especially when this is related to financial returns per acre/hectare taken by each economic sector. There is thus the contradiction that the best lands in the country are put to less income-yielding opportunity than say, tourism, whose foreign currency earning potential, is great, in absolute terms. That apart, although tourism is used as a way to open up the remotest parts of the country, and thus to bring development to these unprivileged parts which had before the introduction of tourism, been uninhabited, the resort lands have been both small in size and considered unsuitable for any other useful exploitation outside of tourism. While it may be 'economic' to allocate land resources to alternative uses, it may not be economic for the country to allow a significantly disproportionate land utilisation to favour any one sector, given the fact that action programmes are in place for such land allocation or utilisation. In both instances, the interest of one sector goes against the short-term and long-term interests of the country, making this a classic case for government policy intervention. One of the longer-term imperatives of land use in The Gambia, therefore, would be to bring about more balanced land use needs through careful land use planning. This, in turn, may require the competition and analysis of all relevant information relating to land - such as physical aspects - interfaced through interactive analysis with demographic, social and



economic aspects relating to land. The policy instruments which the Gambian tourism planners have taken to bring about this result are the focus of the discussion below. First, some essential background information is needed, as the policy actions are of both a structural as well as of a technical nature.

### 8.3.2 Land Use Planning Approaches

At a general level, The Gambia adopts two main approaches to land use planning, namely: physical development planning, and development control. These have been respectively described as positive and negative aspects (Sagnia, 1987:14). The positive/physical planning

'encourages, enhances, and aids development by identifying, allocating and determining the present and future land requirements for the individual, the community, the government departments, the parastatals and the private enterprises.'

The main purpose of this approach is to co-ordinate and maintain a consistent and a continuous use to which land is put.

The main function of 'development control' aspect is to

'control certain improper and non-conforming use of land and ensure that the right development is put in the right place and at the right time thereby safeguarding public safety, privacy, convenience, economy and aesthetics' (Sagnia, op. cit.:16).

In the pursuit of 'development control', developers, whether private or public, need a planning permission whenever they wish to undertake any land development activities.

The Physical Planning Act of 1984 gives these two planning functions of land issues the legal framework to operate. In addition, the Act sets up an overall planning agency (variously called Board, Authority, or Committee) to be responsible for land allocation and development - in line with the current six administrative divisions of the country.

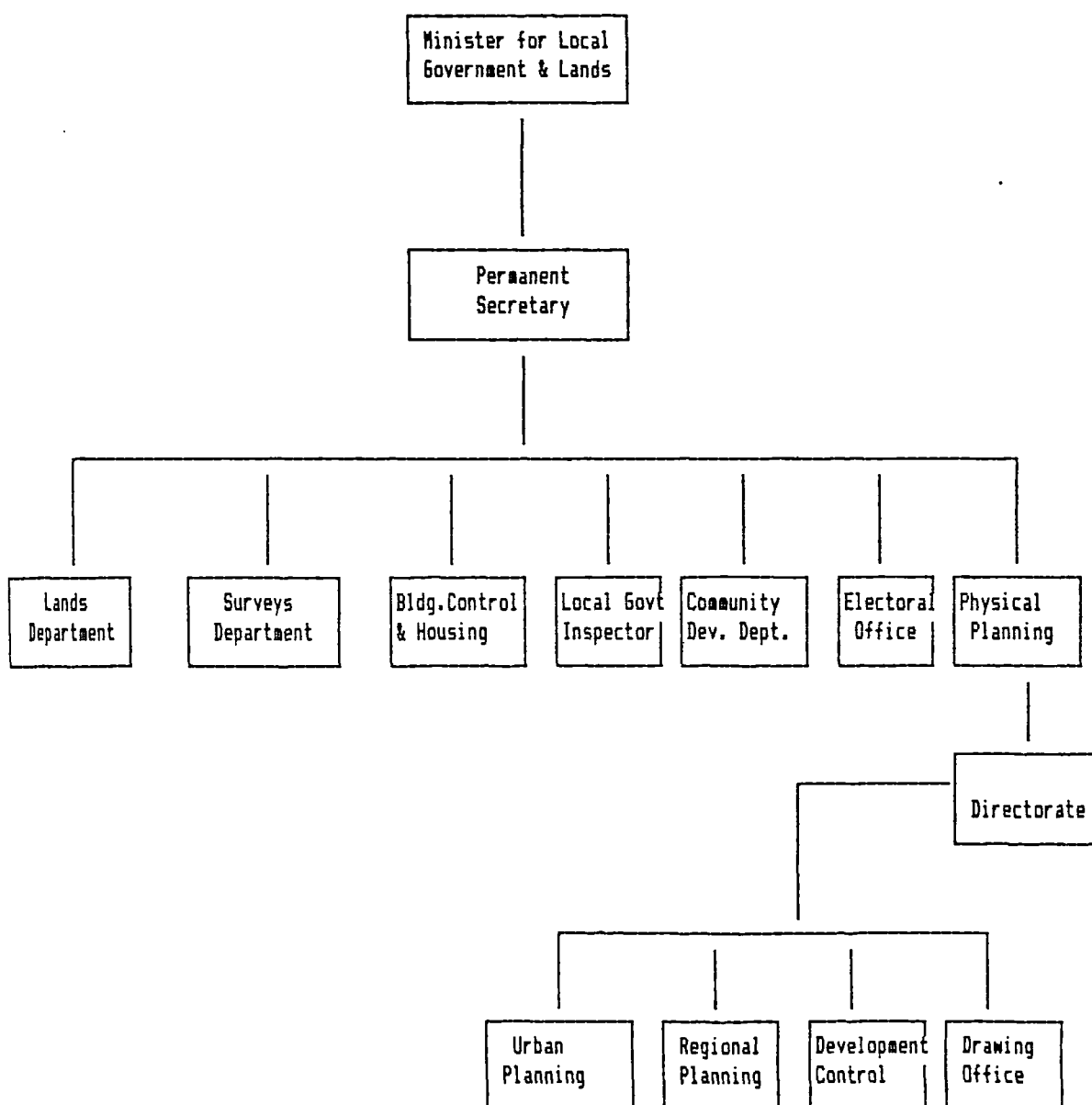
### 8.3.3 Organisational Structure

Given this arrangement, it is essential to mention that the Ministry of Local Government and Lands, headed by a Minister who is assisted by a Permanent Secretary, is responsible for all land matters. The Ministry is further divided into seven departments - Lands, Surveys, Building Control and Housing, Local Government Inspectorate, Community Development, Electoral Office, and Physical Planning.

The government department responsible for land use is Physical Planning. A Director heads it, and is assisted by thirty staff. As illustrated in Figure 8.1 below, the organisation of the Ministry shows the relationships with the Physical Planning department. For functional purposes,

the Department is provisionally divided into five sections, as follows: the Directorate of Planning, Urban Planning (Settlement Planning), Regional (growth centres and village planning sections), Development Control, and Drafting or Drawing Office to back up all the above sections.

**Fig. 8.1 : Organisational Structure of the Ministry for Local Government and the Physical Planning Dept.**



## 8.4 Land Use and Tourism - Policies and Strategies

### 8.4.1 The Policies

Four separate, though related, policies govern exploitation of land for tourism development in The Gambia. First is land zoning. Second is land reservation or preservation. Third, there is the complementarity aspect. And finally, we have up-country tourism development policy. These are discussed in turn.

#### 8.4.1.1 Land Zoning

This land policy envisages the progressive development of lands in the Tourism Development Areas (T.D.A.) in phases. It is based on useful groundwork which has been carried out under the Bafuloto study for tourism development possibilities, identification and allocation of suitable land, construction of hotel structures, and a host of development projects, specifically infrastructural - access roads, water supply facilities, electricity, telecommunications, sewage system, and others. The Tourism Liaison Board (T.L.B.) has developed and completed some of these programmes in full, and some of them are yet to take off.

#### 8.4.1.2 Land Reservation or Preservation

Unlike the hotel development area itself, this policy applies to potential tourism land which, though has been identified, mapped, surveyed and designated as tourism

land, has not yet been developed as envisaged. Of course, the area is still reserved for the purpose. Since the T.L.B. is the Government's watch-dog over tourism land matters, this agency resists pressures which tend to deviate from policy. For example, the author gathered during field-work in The Gambia that the Ministry of Local Government and Lands, itself a member of the T.L.B. though, would like to build a number of residential bungalows on a 16-hectare site in the Kotu Point (in the T.D.A.). For the time being, the Ministry of Information and Tourism, also a member of the T.L.B., is fiercely opposing this type of exploitation of tourist areas. The reserved land in question is the 'Tourism Service Area' which is adjacent to the hotel development site. The reservation measure is basic to Government's overall programme to preserve, in the interest of good environment, land in the country, under the 'Environment Protection Areas' scheme, covering 1. gardening and rice growing areas; 2. forests; 3. green belts; 4. mineral and water resources; 5. specific landscape features; 6. historic and religious sites; 7. villages and settlements to be contained or preserved.

#### **8.4.1.3 Complementarity Policy**

This policy, otherwise described as 'chicken-and-egg' situation, relates to land ownership and powers of acquisition for tourism purposes. Although the State owns all the lands in The Gambia, in areas outside Banjul and Kombo St. Mary, however, land is entrusted to the local

authorities. When the State wants to make use of lands for any purposes, including tourism, it normally approaches the local authority - this indeed is only symbolic - and makes a requisition to acquire the land. Since the State is actually the custodian of land, such request is automatically given. It is therefore not surprising that since the land in the southern part of the tourism land area belongs to the Local (District) Authority which administers it on behalf of the local population, this part has been leased by the local authority for 99 years to the Central Government which, in turn, has leased it to third parties for hotel development, although the Central Government needs the consent of the local authority to re-lease the land. The land in the northern part of the tourism area is owned by the State and leased by the Ministry of Local Government and Lands to hotel developers. The leases for hotel sites are generally for 30 years, while leases for condominium and urban sites are for 40 and 50 years, respectively.

#### **8.4.1.4 Up-Country Tourism Development**

Finally, in envisaging the long-term patterns of land use in The Gambia, the Government is pursuing a policy of 'up-country tourism development'. In terms of land use per se, the Government wants to exploit potential lands in the interior of the country, that is, lands in the provinces, for tourism purposes. Such sites should have both historical and heritage significance, like Juffre, Wasu and

Georgetown, to qualify for consideration. But there is no doubt that this policy is perhaps linked to the strategy aimed at easing urbanisation<sup>25</sup> process problems which the present policy to concentrate tourism development within the Greater Banjul Area (G.B.A.), is causing. The Gambian-German team recognised this fast-growing urbanisation process and the attendant problems:

'This development took place without any major guidance and control by the competent authorities causing more and more haphazard land allocation, scattered urban sprawl into valuable agricultural land, depletion of forests, overloading of the water resource and a deterioration of those urban areas now struggling with problems of overcrowding.'

Despite these problems, in terms of land use policy for tourism proper, this policy option to develop the provincial land is limited by the lack of road, river and other infrastructure, services, and consequently there is little in the way of tourist accommodation. In addition, difficulties of finance, because of Government Economic Recovery Programme (E.R.P.) would require such an expansion programme be pursued within government budget feasibilities, although the result is not likely to prove effective enough to change existing patterns of land use utilisation in the urban areas. If only this policy is to be utilised, it would perhaps be better to restrict the limited finances and develop a number of alternative activities for tourists wishing for something more than the beach-and-sun holiday, precisely like exploiting the land

to construct more handicraft centres, in some of the more accessible villages. The result is likely to be a worthwhile venture.

Given the need to secure more balanced land use for the tourist enterprise, large landlords in the provinces should be encouraged to move their capital and entrepreneurial skills into the tourism sector, thus enabling the joining of the private sector which has hitherto not played a major role in tourism land development. Two measures may be adopted. One would be a programme of land distribution and a second would be for more gradualistic measures to be taken over a longer period, so as to achieve the desired utilisation.

In examining the various strategies which the Government of The Gambia has adopted to implement the policies, it may be fair to say that the pursuance has indeed been a reflection of current trends in global tourism. As far as The Gambia is concerned, over the past two decades, the country has been a popular holiday resort for many Europeans seeking holidays in the sun during their winter season. This has resulted in significant increases in tourism traffic to The Gambia, both in volume and in value terms.

#### 8.4.2 Strategies

##### 8.4.2.1 Administrative Control

This is one line of action used to respond to the growing



demands. This option is exercised in The Gambia through the application of the Town and Country Planning Act of 1972 which created the Tourism Liaison Board (T.L.B.), which, as noted previously, is the sole adjudicator over land use issues relating to tourism. Under this Act, the Board is empowered to control all applications for land acquisitions, building permits, particularly in respect of land allocation and development in the Tourism Development Area (T.D.A.). The Act further authorises the Board to ensure that Government's tourism development programmes affecting land are implemented and to prevent any possible abuse of land use policy.

The Board is constituted by government institutions which have been delegated the various responsibilities for authorising development in this particular area. Among them, the Board authorises aspects of land development. No person shall carry out development except with the consent of the authority of the T.L.B. empowered to grant consent. In other words, the T.L.B. is a controlling authority.

The T.L.B. is composed of the following: 1. Department of Physical Planning; 2. Department of Lands; 3. Department of Surveys - all three in the Ministry of Local Government and Lands; 4. Ministry of Local Government and Lands; 5. Ministry of Information and Tourism; and 6. The National Investment Board. These are all the institutions which are concerned with abuses as such. As said before, fortunately

they are the authorising and controlling agencies in their capacity as members of the T.L.B. The Chairman of this Board is the Permanent Secretary, Ministry of Information and Tourism. The Secretary of the Board is the Director of Tourism.

According to the Act, it is also the responsibility of the Board to require the allottee of tourism land to submit a plan for its development and subsequently to implement the plan. In case of failure with such an order, the Board is empowered to compulsorily re-acquire such land. These policy options have been clearly spelt out in the 'Conditions for Award of an Option for Hotel Project at the Tourism Development Area (See Appendix 8A), issued by the Gambian National Tourist Office. Essentially, the document indicates Government thoughts on land use for the T.D.A. - pertaining to the extent of ownership and powers of acquisition.

In regard to accomplishments, it can be said that the Board has achieved what such an administrative or bureaucratic form of control could achieve - namely, no more than the extent of political will and extent of funding (for land purchase) would allow. The Board foresight has led to an establishment of the 'Centralised Services Area' (C.S.A.) and set up policy guidelines for land allocation conditions for the area. Alongside the guidelines, the Board has set out, in another document, 'Standard of Services at the Centralised Services of the T.D.A.'

However, a recent study by the World Bank (1986:9) suggests that while the Board is an operating entity, it lacks an enforcing structure and thus its powers or decisions are often ignored. For instance, although the Ministry of Local Government and Lands is widely represented - four of the six membership positions in the T.L.B. go to this Ministry - some cases have occurred in which Municipalities have widened plot dimensions without a previous permit from the T.L.B., thus creating great confusion with the sector, as the Bank remark below underlines:

'Despite T.L.B.'s effort to be very strict issuing approvals, the average rate of which is around 1%, the follow-up on its decisions rests with other bodies, that do not always comply with T.L.B.'s indications.'

Another remark by the Bank's study, to the effect that the Board appears to be barely functioning, lacking a proper structure and its tasks ill-defined, the result is that major decisions regarding administration and tourism in the T.D.A. do not follow a clear and well-defined administrative path. These, no doubt, call for the author's comments.

It is suggested that attempts should be made for the Board to enforce the provisions of the Act more vigorously. The Board would gain by asserting its authority if the existing provision or a more effective provision (by amendment) would be utilised. By this means, any land that is idle or

underutilised, could after due notice under the Act, be given out on lease to other prospective developers - without the costs and delays of acquisition, which have hitherto made the Act inefficient. More regular and vigorous reporting and supervision of the lands would also be necessary. Since this would require more staff, one alternative would be for the Board to utilise the staff of the Ministries of Local Government and Lands, and Information and Tourism, and other departments to supervise and serve the notices under this Act, the desire and ability to utilise it would depend on political will and financial availability.

#### **8.4.2.2 Fiscal Measures**

A second policy instrument to make more productive use of tourism land is through fiscal means, such as land taxation or duty. Here, two fiscal measures - land premium and land rent - are utilised. For the hotel project at the T.D.A., both payments are made in advance of the Board's grant of land to any prospective developer, and, of course, are not refundable. Such a requirement may dissuade less-serious-minded investors not to risk loss of their money. In the case of the C.S.A. of the T.D.A., these two instruments also apply, although the fees are significantly higher than those of hotel project area, they are nevertheless, paid only once. Such tax systems would normally require a survey and a registration of land, including valuation of every piece of land - each of which requires various sums of

money to be paid to the Board for the services. Furthermore, the Board requires the hotel project operator before the project becomes operation to obtain an 'Operational Licence and a Manager's Licence' under the 'Hotels, Restaurants and Night Club Licensing Regulation, 1982'; again, when the hotel opens for business, to collect and pay to the Government hotel bed tax per bednight and ad valorem tax on all bills.

#### 8.4.2.3 Technical and Economic Measures

Another policy option to ensure proper utilisation of tourism land is through technical and economic measures - mainly by zoning. The Board has given details of the planning and building regulations for the T.D.A., as well as the level of environmental preservation required. In turn, the Board expects the land developer to comply with these requirements, and to submit detailed plans and drawings prepared by professional and authorised architects and engineers for the proposed project. In addition, the hotel entrepreneur is required to provide a feasibility study of the project, showing among other things, detailed and satisfactory economic analysis of the project, with projected annual cashflows and rate of return. Given the limited nature of land area already identified, surveyed and designated for immediate tourism development, under the Bafuloto Study, and the capital and foreign exchange involved, the types of individuals to be encouraged to participate in the development of tourism land are those

who would potentially maximise returns in respect of the above. This is accompanied by incentives to investors to adopt the land-saving building specifications recommended for the T.D.A.

#### 8.4.3 Socio-Economic Dimensions of Policy

Another major issue of land use in The Gambia today relates to the impacts the above policies and strategies have on the country, particularly the extent to which and the rate at which, these issues are due to the introduction of tourism to The Gambia.

Tourism in The Gambia has suddenly confronted the village population in the tourism area with foreigners of different cultural, social, and economic backgrounds. Although any modern development - agricultural or industrial - would affect the traditional pattern of life, the tourism industry with its impact on human element is likely to have a particular impact that is both beneficial and detrimental. These effects have been studied in great details in the 5-Volume report undertaken for the Tourism Liaison Board by three consultants - Carter, Wagner, and Fish. For the purpose of this present study, however, the emphasis will be on the impact of the land resource utilisation policies only.

There is a concensus among several writers (Holm-Petersen, 1978:22; Esh and Rosenblum, 1975; World Bank, 1975:29;

Carter,1978; Fish, 1978; and Wagner, 1981,1978) that tourism to The Gambia does not have disruptive effects on land - whether on its ownership or rights, or use, or both. As noted above, the resort sites are uninhabited and are not used for intensive agriculture or fishing - indeed, the lands have relatively few alternative means of utilisation. The areas devoted to agricultural production to cover the needs of the tourism industry are only of very limited dimensions. It may also be conceded that fishing activities have been carried out in the tourism land areas. One official Government source, Permanent Secretary Samateh, believes that these activities have not been affected adversely. The fishermen have shifted from one site to another in fishing expeditions - a strategy which has paid them good dividend. He notes: "The fishermen supply fishes to the hotels. Some of these fishermen have become big suppliers to the hotels and have not been displaced. If anything, they have become relatively more prosperous; their fish markets have increased." Since the land is common property there is no feeling that traditionally-held property or rights are being encroached; or that tourism has led to land speculation.

However, it is inevitable that given the small size of The Gambia, relative to allocation for tourism, and particularly given also future plans for development of new tourism areas in the hinterlands, prime land would be taken out of other uses and directed to tourism development. In

these circumstances, it is inevitable that these policies may lead to a pressure on the land resource, and possibly, land price hikes, and other unfavourable effects, a situation which is real.

As the World Bank's report (1986:7) notes that already the setting up of the infrastructure has involved an extensive demand for building land in the Kotu area which, in turn, has led to an increase in land prices. Urbanisation process in the Greater Banjul Area bordering the T.D.A. has been blamed on tourism - a phenomenon that has a potential adverse effect on the environment. The report summarises these negative influences, although an earlier study by the government's planning group have noted some of them:

'possible degradation of the urban environment due to uncontrolled expansion of private building speculation on the border of the T.D.A.

'inadequate control over the development of private building within the T.D.A. itself.

'the consequent haphazard development of the environment in general.

'the negative socio-economic effect that an urban environment would have were it to spread to areas being developed for tourism, such as the T.D.A.'

What is perhaps worse is that serious challenges to tourism activity may be posed by population explosion which the areas bordering the T.D.A. are currently experiencing. One such area, Kombo St. Mary, where, according to the recent government-sponsored study team's report, its population, in a decade or so, is forecast at 200,000. There is,



however, no indication of what current level is.

There is lastly the possibility that this fast-growing urban expansion has superseded the functions and geographical delimitations of the two Land Acts. The Acts, as reviewed in various parts of this chapter, govern land tenure system in The Gambia. First, there is the Lands (Provinces) Act by which land tenureship is confined to the traditional or customary system. The Lands (Banjul and Kombo St. Mary) Act is more government-controlled, in the sense that the Government can intervene and control land allocation. Despite these stipulations, both systems co-exist. However, conflicts and confusion often arise owing to the application of both systems within the same area.

#### 8.4.4 Conclusion

In conclusion, it is clear that while the long-term development of tourism in The Gambia requires a balance between these two Land Acts, the immediate impact on The Gambian society, of their application to tourism, would depend on what structural or institutional safeguards are introduced. It may be a sound policy initiative to extend tourism to the provinces in order to ameliorate the detrimental effects of population pressures on the Greater Banjul Area (G.B.A.), both aesthetically and socially, if only this measure would eventually succeed in this regard. In the hope that this approach would improve land use system, it may be pertinent to point out that its

realisation would require complementary inputs from all relevant agencies. But, it is also rationale to insist that much of Gambia's land resources should not be retained only for tourism. Although this may be a common cry in The Gambia today, the evidence, however, suggests that this is difficult to verify.. However, it is also clear that much of this gradual diversion to the hinterland may lead to land speculation, followed by subdivision and sale. Apparently, this raises one critical question: if, as observed, land is in common-ownership, how then can such lands be sold?

But Government presence is also needed, especially over land use control issue and also over that of building development for tourism. A more efficient land administrative system than hitherto is needed. A direct attack could be made by amending the Town and Country Planning Act, to give the T.L.B. (which has had difficulties getting its wishes obeyed) wide powers to take appropriate steps to reduce this trend. Although the Physical Planning Department of the Ministry of Local Government and Lands has prepared land use plans on an area basis (for example, the Greater Banjul Area), similar activities would need to be carried out by other agencies to cover the new land areas into which tourism is spreading. It might be worthwhile to consider the possibility of the Tourism Liaison Board co-ordinating these plans prepared by the various agencies responsible

for land in general. Zoning within the context of such plans, would imply, that lands in certain zones set out for tourism development could only be used for purposes specified. Owing to the number of agencies involved, the Tourism Liaison Board would seem to be in the best position to provide the required co-ordination.

## NOTES

1. For a detailed review of land use issues in Kenya, see the following references: (a) David Campbell and S.E. Migot-Adholla eds. (1981), **The Development of Kenya's Semi-Arid Lands**. IDS Occasional Papers, No. 36. Nairobi University. (b) J. Heyer, et. al. eds. (1976), **Agricultural Development in Kenya: An Economic Assessment**. Nairobi: Oxford University Press. (c) R.M.A. van Zwanenberg and A. King (1975), **An Economic History of Kenya and Uganda**. Kenya: East African Literature Bureau.

2. An in-depth history of this issue is treated in Larry G.K. Nutter's article (1981).

3. First, despite growing population pressure on the land, there must be limits to the subdivision of small farms. Subdivision should be prevented beyond the point where total returns to land begin to diminish. Second, Kenya cannot feed itself and produce sufficient exports if land is allocated to lie idle or underutilised in large landholdings. Steps must be taken to induce landowners to put underutilised land to more productive use.

4. The Commission's terms of reference include consideration of the following elements of a land policy:

(a) taxation and other measures that provide an incentive to land use more productively;

(b) regulations limiting the extent of subdivision to ensure that farmland can produce adequate income for a family unit, including potential criteria governing subdivision, which must vary by agro-ecological zone;

(c) laws that could encourage and protect holders of large tracts who lease their land to those able to farm it more intensively;

(d) means by which authorities in urban centres of all sizes can obtain land expeditiously for needed expansion, especially to accommodate small manufacturing and services;

(e) the appropriate infrastructure to utilise land allocated for public facilities to promote rural-urban balance.

5. A common feature of areas undergoing urbanisation is that they show higher densities and growth rates than the neighbouring rural areas.

6. In the context of this research, water is considered to be a land resource.

## REFERENCES

- Ambrose, John (1980), 'Land use and land management problems in Kenya,' in Development Planning in Kenya: Essays on the Planning Process and Policy Issues. eds. Tom Pinfold and Glen Norcliff, Geographical Monographs, No. 9, Toronto: York University : 101-117.
- Campbell, David J. (1981), 'Land-use competition at the margins of the rangelands: an issue in development strategies for semi-arid areas,' in Glen Norcliffe and Tom Pinfold eds. Planning African Development. London: Croom-Helm: 39-61.
- \_\_\_\_\_ and S.E. Migot-Adholla eds. (1981), The Development of Kenya's Semi-Arid Lands. I.D.S. Occasional Papers, 36. Nairobi: I.D.S., University of Nairobi.
- Carter, J. (1978), Socio-Economic Impact of Tourism in The Gambia Vols. 1-3. Banjul: Tourism Liaison Board.
- Collier, Paul and Deepak Lal (1986), Labour and Poverty in Kenya, 1900-1980. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
- Croze, Harvey and D.M. Mbuvi (1981), 'Wildlife in the development of dry land,' in David Campbell and S.E. Migot-Adholla eds., The Development of Kenya's Semi-Arid Lands. I.D.S. Occasional Papers, 36. Nairobi: I.D.S., University of Nairobi.
- Dyson-Hudson, and R. Dyson-Hudson (1982), 'The structure of East African herds and the future of East African herders,' Development and Change, 13(2).
- Esh, Tina and Illith Rosenblum (1975), Tourism in Developing Countries - Trick or Treat? A Report from The Gambia. Research Report 31. Uppsala, Sweden: Scandinavian Institute of African Studies.
- Fish, Mary (1978), Socio-Economic Impact of Tourism in The Gambia - Final Report Vol 5. Banjul: Tourism Liaison Board.
- Galaty, John (1981), 'Land and livestock among Kenyan Maasai,' in Change and Development in Nomadic and Pastoral Societies.
- Gambia, Ministry of Local Government and Deutsche Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit (G.T.Z.) (1986), Physical Development Plan for Greater Banjul Area. Banjul: Dept. of Physical

Planning.

- Heyer, J., J.K. Maitha and W.M. Senga eds. (1976), Agricultural Development in Kenya: An Economic Assessment. Nairobi: Oxford University Press.
- Holm-Petersen, Erik (1978), Consequences of Mass Tourism in Developing Countries: Case Studies of The Seychelles and The Gambia. Copenhagen: Hoff and Overguard.
- Jacobs, A (1980), 'Pastoral Maasai and tropical rural development,' in R.H. Bates and M. Loch ed., Agricultural Development in Africa. New York: Praeger.
- Kenya, Republic of (1979), Development Plan 1979-1983. Nairobi, Government Printer.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1983), Development Plan, 1984-1988. Nairobi, Government Printer.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1983), Kenya Official Handbook. Nairobi, Government Printer.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1965), African Socialism and its Application to Planning in Kenya. Sessional Paper 10. Nairobi, Government Printer.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1933), Report of the Kenya Land Commission (Carter Commission). Nairobi, Government Printer.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1945), Land Utilisation and Settlement. Sessional Paper 8. Nairobi, Government Printer.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1986), Economic Management for Renewed Growth. Sessional Paper 1. Nairobi, Government Printer.
- Miller, Norman N. (1982), 'Wildlife - wild death: Kenya's man-animal equation,' in Universities Field Staff International 1. Hanova, New Hampshire.
- Ngutter, Larry G.K. (1981), 'Kenya Government policy in semi arid areas,' in David Campbell and S.E. Migot-Adholla eds. The Development of Kenya's Semi Arid Lands. I.D.S. Occasional Paper 36. Nairobi: I.D.S., University of Nairobi: 25-39.
- Odegi-Awuondo, C. (1982), 'Wildlife conservation and decline of pastoralism in Kenya,' African Journal of Sociology, 2(2):74-83.
- Okoth-Ogendo, H.W.O. (1981), 'land ownership and land distribution in Kenya's larg-farm areas,' in Papers on the Kenyan Economy. London, Heinemann: 329-338.

- Rogalsky, D.R (1980), 'Wildlife Paying Its Own Way: Tourism as a Justification for Wildlife Conservation,' 6th African Wildlife Conference Proceedings.
- Sagnia, Sutay Kali (1987), 'Land use and physical planning in The Gambia: concepts, scope, technique/methodology and application,' Paper presented to Peoples Progressive Party Youth Leadership Training Workshop. Banjul: 18-28 April.
- Stanley-Price, M (1981), 'Pastoralism and Ranching,' in David Campbell and S.E. Migot-Adholla eds., The Development of Kenya's Semi Arid Lands. I.D.S. Occasional Papers Nairobi: University of Nairobi: 36:150-175.
- Wagner, Ulla (1978), Socio-Economic Impact of Tourism in The Gambia Vol. 4. Banjul: Tourism Liaison Board.
- Western, David (1976), 'A new approach to Amboseli,' Parks, 1(2): 1-4.
- World Bank (1975), The Gambia Appraisal of an Infrastructure and Tourism Project Report 844-GM. Washington, D.C.: The World Bank
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1963), The Economic Development of Kenyan Economy. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press.
- \_\_\_\_\_/Societe per la Matematica e l'Economia Applicate (S.O.M.E.A.) (1986), The Gambia: Tourism Impact Study. Washington, D.C.: The World Bank.
- Yeager, Rodger and Norman N. Miller (1986), Wildlife, Wild Death: Land Use and Survival in Eastern Africa. Albany, New York: State University of New York Press.
- va Zwannanberg, R.M.A. and A. King (1975), An Economic History of Kenya and Uganda. Kenya: East African Literature Bureau.



PART 5

SYNTHESES, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Chapter 9 : Syntheses

Chapter 10 : Conclusions

## CHAPTER 9 - SYNTHESSES

### 9.0 Introduction

This chapter will bring together the main points which have emerged from the various chapters in the course of this study. It will examine tourism development activities that Kenya and The Gambia have done differently and/or similarly and why different/similar approaches have been taken. The chapter will argue also that how well or not each country has done, and attempt to explain variations in performances and approaches.

In specific terms, within this framework, the chapter will proceed to make more detailed analyses of one policy area to illustrate these issues. In synthesising this aspect of policy, attention will be focused on policy objectives, strategies, and the impact the measures may have on both the countries and tourism.

Lessons learnt from the experiences and examples of Kenya and The Gambia could form the bases for the identification of the principal elements which could be considered relevant to the formulation of hypotheses for the planning and development of tourism in developing countries. Of course, these will be compared with reference to the main objectives outlined at the beginning of the study. Some more general comparisons will now be made prior to these

more detailed analyses. We end the chapter by analysing tour operators' survey, particularly what the tour operators see as the main problems confronting Kenya and The Gambia in developing their tourism potential.

## 9.1 General Comparisons

Adapted from the U.N.C.T.A.D. (1973:32) study, we begin by reviewing the principal aspects of the development of tourism, their main features and associated policies in Kenya and The Gambia with respect to the supply of, and the demand for, tourist services. The demand aspect covers the following: growth of arrivals, origin of visitors, mode of arrival, length of stay, average tourist expenditure, and tourist season. The supply treats such matters as tourist resources, accommodation, amenities, infrastructure, labour supply, and regional distribution.

### 9.1.1 Demand

#### 9.1.1.1 Growth of Arrivals

As noted in chapter 6, since the 1970's, there has been a considerable rise in the number of tourist arrivals in Kenya and The Gambia. Several factors account for the upsurge. Basically, the first relates to the policies followed by both countries with respect to tourist traffic. The major objective of their tourism policies, in this context, is to make, as much as possible, their countries widely known to the outside world. They hope by this to

attract as many tourists as possible, and thus expand their earning potential.

Although it may seem most ambitious, Kenya envisages tourist arrivals to increase to 1 million by 1990 - an increase of about 30.6% from the 1986 figure of just over 600,000 arrivals. The Gambia, on the other hand, has not identified a specific target figure, but it is clear from the strategies it utilises to achieve the policy objectives that its aims are similar to those of Kenya, but not on so large a scale, believing in a modest increase in arrivals. Both countries resort to publicity abroad through participation in international travel exhibitions. Examples include the annual Travel Trade Market in London and Switzerland. In addition, each country maintains tourist offices in a number of European, including American, capitals. A comparative analysis of such publicity indicates some dissimilarities. Given the small size of The Gambia, and its economic possibilities, limited funds allocated for such campaigns. Kenya has a bigger budget for such activity.

However, each country has made a mark on the international tourism arena. Although impetus for such wide publicity may have come from the outside, initial awareness efforts have proved successful. For The Gambia, Alex Hailey's novel, 'Roots', has been helpful. Kenya on its part, has been much helped by the television documentary, 'Out of Africa' and through its latest promotional slogan, 'Kenya - all of

Africa in one country', in gaining wider audience interested in exploiting the tourism potential of the country.

Developments in tourism generating countries, such as rising incomes, and the quest for foreign vacations, have helped to boost tourist arrivals, and to shape tourism policies in Kenya and The Gambia. There has consequently been a policy to ease frontier requirements to facilitate movement of tourists. Kenya has sought to normalise relations with Tanzania, leading to the reopening of their frontier borders, and thus increasing tourist traffic and holiday scope. Similarly, The Gambia has signed with Senegal the Senegambia Confederation. Clearly, although these policy actions may not have had tourism in mind as a priority, they do nonetheless have implications for the tourism sector, such as providing a friendly atmosphere for good neighbourliness. As will be seen below, the positive improvements in real incomes of the citizens of the industrialised West, leading to a number of the citizens in the West wanting to go on holidays abroad, have resulted in both Kenya and The Gambia adopting a shrewd policy to capitalise on market opportunities thus provided, through their provision of facilities and services.

#### 9.1.1.2 Origin of Visitors

A feature of this aspect is the pattern of tourists' nationality serving both countries. There are varying

degrees of tourism source markets for Kenya and the Gambia, although most tourists come exclusively from the West European markets. In the case of The Gambia, one notices the fluctuating fortunes of the Scandinavian markets which initially had a controlling voice in Gambia's tourism, in terms of arrivals. It later lost this to the British. Other nationalities - France, Denmark, West Germany - are equally competing for Gambian tourism opportunities.

Similarly, such diverse nationalities are a feature of Kenya's tourism. Major source markets in 1986, as noted, included West Germany, the United Kingdom, Switzerland, and the United States; these accounted for over 50% of all hotel bednights in the prime areas of Nairobi, the coast, and wildlife parks.

One explanation which comes out quite clearly from this varied nationality trend is the policy leanings of Kenya and The Gambia to diversify their tourism source markets. This policy seems to be a realisation of the need to avert possible danger associated with over-dependence on one source market for the generation of tourism, such danger which may cripple the tourism industry of these countries. In addition, both see tourism as a fickle business. This policy of diversification is done through publicity campaigns discussed earlier.

The policy is conditioned by two other related

considerations. The first is a reflection of vacation interests of tourists, that is, tourist profile. Related to that is the tourist product each country can offer. Let us discuss these two factors briefly below.

Kenya and The Gambia offer beach holiday which attracts certain groups - notably West Germans, Swiss, and to a limited extent, the British. Over 80% of their bednights are at Kenyan and The Gambian coasts. Specific to Kenya, there is high dependence on the North American market. To the Americans, beach holidays are of a peripheral interest. The game parks are the main attractions to American tourists who combine game park safaris in Kenya, with visits to Tanzania and other countries in Africa. The Abuko Game Reserve in The Gambia is not in the same quality as those in Kenya.

#### **9.1.1.3 Mode of Arrivals**

Of the three modes - air, sea, and land - of tourist arrivals, air has the largest share. Most tourists who arrive in Kenya and The Gambia come on an air charter inclusive basis, although there are others who come on non-charter arrangements.

The popularity of air transport - charter and non-charter - for long haul destinations is due to improvements in transportation system, and for air charter in particular, to market opportunities offered by cheap package tours. Both Kenya and The Gambia have been quick to respond to

such market forces in various ways. Hence, given the peculiar position of The Gambia, with no operational national carrier, the country has consistently maintained an 'open skies' policy, by allowing scheduled and non-scheduled-foreign air operations to transport tourists into the country. According to the General Manager of Gambia Airways, Mr S. Jallow (1987), The Gambia has maintained a special link with British Caledonian Airways which allows the latter an exclusive monopoly of British air charter tourists coming from Great Britain. Meanwhile, it is proposed that by 1989, The Gambia would have its own airline. At that time, our guess is that this may perhaps require some change in its 'open skies' policy, though not on the scale similar to that of Kenya, as discussed briefly below.

In the case of Kenya, official policy suggests something close to a 'dog-in-the-manger' situation, whereby there is ambivalent attitude towards charter and non-charter flights. The sole aim here is to protect its national airline, Kenya Airways. Obviously, such an airline policy is bound to give Kenya a larger share of the market.

#### **9.1.1.4 Length of Stay**

On average, most tourists spend about two weeks, although Kenya and The Gambia have taken some measures to encourage tourists to stay longer. Examples include, for Kenya, the reopening of the border with Tanzania which now makes



it possible for tourists to have multi-country safari holiday - something that appeals mostly to Americans. Related to this measure is the strategy whereby Kenya has organised wildlife reserves in such a way that they are close to the beaches, thus enabling tourists to combine beach and safari holidays.

The Gambia, on the other hand, argues that the River Gambia offers an alternative to sea and sun. It thus exploits the river to provide opportunities not only for shorter boat trips but also fishing expeditions - to farming and fishing villages, markets, distant beaches. Such measures are meant not only to diversify attractions but also to expand tourist circuits and by so doing get tourists to stay more days and hopefully spend more money. The evidence suggests that the measures are working well.

As noted elsewhere, French tour operators offer a free third week to holiday-makers for high season edges (May/early October), but if the accommodation is chosen during the low season, tourists are obliged to actually take three weeks paid holiday and one week free owing to the fortnightly frequency of the charter flights operated by Minerva Aircraft. This incentive applies to Kenya and The Gambia.

#### 9.1.1.5 Average Tourist Expenditure

The evidence from previous analyses suggests that average

tourist expenditure is comparatively high in Kenya, low in The Gambia. The case was made earlier that a holiday in Kenya, relative to the Gambia, is expensive. Again, it was argued that the terms offered by Kenya, on average, are less favourable than those of The Gambia. The World Bank study corroborates this, pointing out that the tourist 'package' costs in Kenya are 59% more than in The Gambia, although cost of food in Kenya is 39% lower than in The Gambia. The case was presented also that the causes underlying this situation are assumed to be (1) higher costs of running the hotel network and other tourist-related infrastructures; (2) difficulties concerning food supplies, a major contributory factor being that Kenya and The Gambia rely heavily on food imports. But in the context of this aspect of our investigation on tourist expenditure, there are more fundamental issues, as will be seen below.

This expenditure level is as a result of two main factors. The first is tourist nationality. The second is spending opportunities outside hotels and restaurants in the host countries visited. Alongside this remark is also the observation that, in both countries, there is clear absence of specific government policies relating to this subject area. It is believed, right or wrong, that this domain belongs exclusively to the private sector, mainly the tour operator whose various policies impinge on tourist expenditures. Both the policies and expenditures are jointly analysed further below.

As noted, two policies are basic to tour operators' activities in Kenya and The Gambia. These are inclusive tour (holiday) price policy, and the other is accommodation (allotment) policy. First, package holiday pricing policy.

As reported earlier, the prices at which Kenya and The Gambia are sold to tourists are respectively put at £869-1,297 and £559-698. Sufficient to state once again that the quotations are for 2-week holiday, half board, and including travel. Components of the pricing policy are, in descending order of share, (1) Cost of air travel; (2) Hotel cost; (3) Agency fee; (4) Margin; (5) Marketing; and (6) Destination costs.

In the case of hotel allotment policy, this is based on the different profile of tourists likely to be coming from prime European market countries. Quality of accommodation is matched to tourist means, recognising the orientations of particular tour operation companies. For example, expensive companies such as Select and Wings (in the case of The Gambia) are known to have room allotted in the more prestigious hotels. This trend is repeated in Kenya where German operators send 'high class' tourists mainly to costly Nairobi hotels. So, the allocation follows this pattern - from the most expensive to the least expensive, based on the means of each tourist group.

On spending opportunities outside hotels and restaurants,

opinions vary. In The Gambia the craft market system is so well organised that tourists whose interests are in crafts, can spend extensively, and, spending opportunities are better relative to Kenya. But in terms of high value from the developed countries, Kenya has an edge over The Gambia, as there are many more sales outlets in Kenya. The fact that The Gambia is a predominantly moslem country puts a ceiling on where tourists can go, how to mingle with the inhabitants, thus indirectly stricting avenues for spending outside of the craft markets. For example, every Friday, by noon, shops are closed for prayers, and they remain closed for the rest of the day. This presents a contrast to Kenya where shops remain open till late at night. This religious leaning also accounts for further restrictions on tourists' wishes and desires to eat or drink freely outside of their hotels and restaurants; there are not many decent eating houses in The Gambia. Again alcoholic beverages are prohibited at outlets outwith tourist hotels.

As mentioned, the Governments of Kenya and The Gambia have no specific policies on tourist expenditure. In addition, they neither require tourists to purchase minimum amounts of local currency at unfavourable exchange rate, nor charge them higher prices for hotel rooms than local tourists. Similarly, tourists are not required to pay for everything they buy in foreign currency (an exception here will be duty-free shop goods at the airports in Nairobi or Mombasa; this does not apply to The Gambia, as there are no such shops in the country), but tourists are required to ensure

that any unused domestic currency be returned and exchanged for foreign money at the going/prevailing rate. It is mandatory for foreign tourists to pay airport tax/levy in foreign exchange - a practice which is common to the two countries.

#### 9.1.1.6 Tourist Season

One feature of Gambian charter tourism is its seasonality. Tourism starts at a low activity level in October, increases quickly in November, and peaks from Christmas to March. From April, actual decline in numbers sets in. Hotels record occupancy rates of about 85% during peak season, and about 45%, or even much lower, during the remainder of the season.

Kenya, on the other hand, is generally an all-year-round destination, and the hotels seem to maintain a fairly constant occupancy level, although during the West European winter season, there is increased tourist traffic. Even outside the winter months, room occupancy figure never falls below 50%.

So, on a comparative basis, in respect of the tourism season, there is a strong peak in The Gambia, moderate peak in Kenya, although in the latter case, the season is extended. Again, the type of visitor is similar, with more leisure visitors coming during the winter months. Attempts by the Minerva Aircraft to promote incentive travel to

Kenya and The Gambia can be seen as positive steps to attract off-season foreign clientele from the French market; this measure is bound to have more relevance to the Gambia than it is to Kenya because of the seasonality factor.

### 9.1.2 Supply

#### 9.1.2.1 Tourist Resources

Tourist resources of Kenya and The Gambia are considerable, similar in some respects, although Kenya has more to offer in terms of variety. First, both countries offer mainly warm climate and seaside resorts, and also historical and cultural (sightseeing) resources. The resorts have long sandy, palm-fringed beaches (the Atlantic Ocean for The Gambia, and the Indian Ocean, for Kenya).

In the area of wildlife, Kenya is very strong. Its wildlife resources upon which much of tourism to the country depends, are extensive. They are distributed in well over 40 locations, in National Parks and National Reserves. As noted, although the Gambia has the Abuko Game Reserve, this is not of comparative significance to those of Kenya, touristically. As argued elsewhere, one competitive advantage Kenya has over The Gambia, or indeed, over other rivals in the developing countries, is the closeness of its beaches to areas of wildlife reserves, thus enabling tourists to combine beach with safari vacation - a factor

that is perhaps responsible for the continued upward trend in hotel bed capacity. The Gambia is deficient in this respect.

The tourism resources of both countries have continued to flourish on account of stable, democratic governments they have enjoyed, and have continued to enjoy since political independence. This is an important ingredient for a successful tourism development programme. However, there were periods of internal turmoil, which nearly ushered in military regimes into their body-politic. Thanks to a prompt intervention by Senegal (for The Gambia) and both good sense and vigilance of the Kenya military authorities, such upheavals were short-lived, thus ensuring a return to status quo positions of relative peace.

Governments of both countries have been most supportive of the cause of tourism by encouraging private sector initiative to open new resort areas. An example here would be the new 'up-country' tourism being currently implemented. Comparatively, Kenya has a tradition of private sector participation in tourism ventures, whereas The Gambia is only beginning to explore its possibilities.

#### 9.1.2.2 Accommodation

Kenya and The Gambia share two common patterns of development with respect to accommodation. The first relates to a considerable increase in, or expansion of,

hotel capacity at the coasts to meet rapid influx of tourists. Even so, there was still a supply-demand imbalance as supply did not keep pace with demand. The second characteristic was the move by both countries to cater for all markets, by providing a wide variety of hotel accommodation, in terms of locations and standards of services. Kenya, for example, developed three types of hotels in (1) Nairobi, essentially high class, with highly developed amenities and services; (2) South and North of Mombasa, with facilities for resorts and recreational tourism; and (3) Safari Lodges of tented camps for tourists on roads, visiting the Parks and Reserves. A feature which is specific to Kenya involves the move at improving and expanding the accommodation facilities of three of its big reserves - Amboseli, Maasai Mara, and Samburu/Buffalo Springs.

Policies for the accommodation sector were mainly related to hotel constructions. For Kenya, there was a considerable input from the private sector. Government's role was minimal - only providing a favourable 'climate' for tourism business to thrive. In the case of The Gambia, the government was both an entrepreneur and a developer, as the private sector was initially non-existent. Both Governments have offered incentives to private investors. This policy action was more widely used in The Gambia than in Kenya, although lately Kenya has relied more on market-based incentive measures, devoid of fiscal and financial programmes, which were popular in The Gambia. The lack of



an innovative private sector, ready to commit funds to hotel development schemes, meant that The Gambia had to rely on external funding agencies, notably the World Bank and African Development Bank, to secure credit for its hotel development programmes. This was a contrast to the situation in Kenya where, as noted, the private sector was dynamic, and very willing to 'pull the bull by the horn'.

#### 9.1.2.3 Amenities (Restaurants, Sports, Entertainment, etc.)

The Gambia does not compare well with Kenya in this respect. It has a limited range and qualities of supporting facilities and services, for example, sporting and excursion. This is related to 'stage of development' argument presented in chapter 10. There is the absence of quality up-country tourism facilities, for example, hotels and lodges. Kenya, on the other hand, presents an opposite picture. Here, these facilities are not only sufficiently developed but are in addition diversified for modern tourism. The contrasts can be explained by the level of national development attained by each country. This, in itself, is dependent on the socio-economic resources of each country. This condition, inevitably impacts on their stages of tourism development. In this regard, it goes without saying that, comparatively speaking, tourism in Kenya is both so well-developed, so well-organised and run that one can safely equate level of its tourism sophistication or present stage of development to that of any other most developed resorts in West European tourist

destinations. However, it is only fair to say that given the socio-economic circumstances of the Gambian nation, the present scale of its tourism is both modest and realistic. The country understands its strengths and limitations, and adjusts them to suit its development priorities. Above all, it is most receptive to new ideas which hopefully will advance the course of its development tomorrow. Hence, although there would appear to be no general policies, these are being formulated as and when the need arises, and equally reviewed as necessary. For after all, big is not always beautiful!

#### 9.1.2.4 Infrastructure

Tourism is very dependent upon infrastructure provided in a country. If it is insufficient it can be seen as a drawback and be an effective constraint on tourism, although it does depend on how wealthy a country might be. The Gambia does not provide well in this respect. It suffers from inadequate general infrastructure which has handicapped tourism. In Kenya, again, tourist infrastructure is generally behind demand.

But policy measures have been taken to improve general infrastructure in both countries. Improvements more specifically related to tourism include, for Kenya, the expansion of Nairobi airport, and the building of a new one in Mombasa; and the widening of Nairobi-Mombasa highways, although there are still visitor congestions in some parks

and reserves. In the case of the Gambia, the Yundum/Banjul international airport has been expanded to take in large aircrafts of DC 10 class. Lack of airport capacity could prove to be a constraint but these two countries are sufficient on these for the present, although this will be crucial for The Gambia in the very near future. Failure to provide extra capacity to The Gambia could be a most effective constraint since it would lesson the growth potential of tourism and the consequent need for extra facilities. Feeder roads are being constructed to link resorts together, especially in the Tourism Development Areas (T.D.A.). More specifically, both countries are keen to promote and develop business and conference traffic. For Kenya, the conference trade is basic to its survival, given the huge sums of money sunk to build the Kenyatta Conference Centre, and considering also the Centre's contribution to strengthening the economic life of Kenya.

#### 9.1.2.5 Labour Supply

There is a general shortage of skilled labour and executive staff. Given the need to have qualified personnel for the industry, both countries have, in addition to encouraging on-the-job training schemes, established special training institutions. Each received external assistance from the same source - the Swiss Government - to found, for Kenya, the Utalii College, and in the case of The Gambia, the Gambia Hotel School. The policy to set up the training schools is in line with the countries'

indigenisation programmes - the so-called 'Kenyanisation or Gambianisation' policies - to indigenise all facets of their socio-economic lives. In Kenya, initially students of these schools were industry-sponsored and supported; this practice is still in vogue in The Gambia. Today, however, in Kenya, training programmes are funded through a levy imposed on hotels and collected from hotel guests. Control of this scheme rests with a Trustee Board appointed by the government. The Gambia is at present considering introducing this aspect of policy. As the curriculum of each school shows (see Appendices 7A and 7B), Kenya's is more management oriented, although there are elements of vocational leanings as well. That of The Gambia is mainly vocational, and produces only skilled personnel, who, by the training, are not well equipped to hold management positions, regardless of how long they work on the job in the years ahead.

#### 9.1.2.6 Regional Distribution

One feature of the development of tourism which Kenya and The Gambia share in common is initial concentration of tourism facilities and services in cities: in Banjul (The Gambia), and Nairobi (Kenya); or in major resort areas: in Mombasa and Malindi (Kenya) and the T.D.A. (The Gambia), are examples. But the current trend in both countries is towards greater dispersal. This is the beginning of the concept of 'up-country' tourism mentioned earlier; that is, using tourism to bring development to the remotest parts of

their countries, and by so doing ease population pressures in the urban areas. In this connection, new sites for tourist development have been earmarked in these countries. But their governments have similar thoughts on how this can be done without involving public funds. This is because, it is argued, tourism has been well established to a point where it can be handed over to whosoever is capable of managing it better - the much-talked 'withdrawal policy'.

## 9.2 Approaches to Development

No doubt, Kenya and The Gambia are at different stages of development. Although they both once shared common colonial government experiences, they now have a variety of social and economic structures. Also, they have varying levels of receptivity to international tourism. Similarly, the problems of tourism development that arise in individual countries are very different from each other, as Green (1979) has observed:

'Even with identical goals, two appropriate tourism sector strategies might well diverge because of different constraints and potentials. This is most dramatically true with mini-states such as Gambia. The degree to which their national economies can be integrated is limited; so is their natural resource base.'

This is also true of the differences in preference shown by certain nationalities for The Gambia rather than Kenya and vice versa.

The evidence suggests that quite a large number of national development plans have been drawn up in these countries, with each plan containing a section on tourism. In the case of national tourism development plans, policy objectives and strategies pursued are usually influenced by internal and external circumstances in which each country finds itself. An example of this would be the type of tourism planning and tourism development project it wishes to push through.

This explains the failure of the late call by Fish (1982) for a joint planning arrangement to market tourism potential of the African countries, as witnessed in the collapse of the East African Economic Community. A similar situation is replicated in West Africa where, even within the Economic Community of West African States (E.C.O.W.A.S.) there is no collective planning for tourism. Rather African countries have instead chosen to plan and develop their tourism policies and projects single-handedly. These range from the development of seaside resorts (a feature common in Kenya and The Gambia) to national parks and natural reserves (exclusive to Kenya). Among the projects which have been carried out or at present being carried or implemented include Tourism and Infrastructure Project (T.I.P.) and Tourism Development Area (T.D.A.) - both in The Gambia. An example for Kenya is the Diani seaside resort.

It is true that both Kenya and The Gambia include in their

tourism plans the objective of establishing a degree of local control of the industry. In Kenya, according to Green (1979), 'local control relates to state and private capitalists and enterprises in the content of closer - but less order'. In The Gambia decision-makers perceive local control primarily as a means of meeting the economic and social well-being of the citizens. All the same, it may be said that even the purely economic aspects of tourism development must be placed in the context of national ideologies and strategies if applicable results are to emerge.

### 9.3 Models Adopted

It is certain that these tourism projects discussed above are unquestionably important for Kenya and The Gambia because they generate relevant information to assist in better planning and development of tourism. In particular, the funds may prove a handicap for the development of the sector (The Gambia's situation is exemplary), the investigations have rationalised the need for international agencies' support, and have in fact attracted funding for them.

Broadly speaking, the experiences of Kenya and The Gambia bear similarities to models created in most regions of the developed world where there has been an age-long tradition of tourism. This claim is amply demonstrated in earlier analysis of the five characteristics of tourism in the

developing countries, discussed in chapter 2. But again the numerous criticisms which have been levelled against these Western models have been documented by Smith (1985) in his recent article. What can be suggested here though are that aspects of such projects need to be critically evaluated by each country, to decide on which of them meet the development planning objectives of particular developing countries.

In terms of methodology and concept between the approaches adopted by Kenya and The Gambia, there is a difference. (This important point is examined in chapter 10). The former favours tourism development plans which exploit the best available lands in the country for development, whereas the latter concentrates on specific projects in those areas of the territory for development which are considered not suitable for alternative development possibilities. But with the idea of 'up-country tourism', both countries seem to be converging to a common corner. Precisely, this device seeks to spread development of tourism to cover the entire country regardless of nature land, in terms of quality.

Studies by outside consultants tend, with a few exceptions, to emphasise either marketing or economic planning problems rather than physical and ecological problems and issues relating to the human, cultural, and natural environment. A similar tendency is apparent among international financing



agencies, which choose to sponsor specific tourism projects focusing on development objectives of the country concerned. Clearly, the present author is aware of no efforts in these countries to base planning considerations on how the 'trickle down' socio-economic effect will be felt at the grassroots.

Needless to say, the level of tourism developments of Kenya and The Gambia is due mainly to the role of tour operators. (Again, this issue is considered in chapter 10). The approaches these countries adopted have influenced the nature of facilities and, owing to the tacit understanding between the governments and tour operators, the latter have been able to create models, the pursuance of which have allowed tour operators much voice in tourism affairs. Nyarawatu (1984) demonstrates this in respect to Kenya.

The nature and extent of investment incentives is central to tourism policy-making. Therefore, as an illustration, we will focus on this one important policy area, to see how the arguments presented above highlight further this one issue - of comparison and contrast.

#### 9.4 Tourism Investment Incentives

This subject is structured into three areas: objectives, strategies, and institutional framework. The aspect on impact was reviewed earlier, in Chapter 5.

#### 9.4.1 Policy Objectives

Kenya and The Gambia have, over the years, given incentives in the tourism sector, apparently as a means of expanding and diversifying the economic bases of their countries. The main difference is that of emphasis. The countries see tourism as having some potential worth exploring, such as earning foreign currency, employment creation, increasing government revenue sources; these are only a few examples. Given its relatively late-starter status in international tourism, the competitive nature of tourism investment market, the limited avenues for development outside of the groundnut-dominated economy, and the need to diversify its economy, The Gambia's main objective of tourism incentive policies is to attract foreign investors to the sector. In contrast, Kenya's tourism incentives are aimed at promoting international competitiveness in the sector. The premise is that the country is well ahead of The Gambia, in terms of stage of tourism development. Therefore, it may be contended that many of the problems which are a feature of Gambia's tourism have no relevance to Kenya. However, Kenya's experience may well be relevant and valuable to The Gambia.

In this regard, the emphases put on incentives have varied in recent years. In Kenya, for instance, incentive programmes have been reduced, while in contrast, existing ones have been strengthened in recent years in The Gambia. However, it may be correct to say that these incentives

initially established were geared to the realisation of investment in the tourism sector. But, it is difficult to assess whether the incentives being fortified in The Gambia, or being withdrawn in Kenya imply that these measures are achieving the objectives for which they were set up in the first instance.

While in The Gambia no major changes have occurred in tourism incentive policies, Kenya has recently reviewed and restructured its tourism incentive programmes. In general, as noted above, more emphasis has been given to market-based incentives to stimulate competition in the industry, and less emphasis to defensive measures, such as fiscal and financial policies. However, the nature of this restructuring has varied. In Kenya, for instance, recent policies have tended to be directed at improving the general investment climate, such as reconciling the private and social motivations for private investment in the tourism industry, while in The Gambia, on the contrary, more efforts are aimed at enhancing the efficient use of the country's resources.

The Gambia did report that its incentive measures are specifically intended for foreign enterprises. Kenya never reported on such measures or mentioned the attraction of foreign investment as an explicit objective of specific tourism incentive measures. These policy measures are generally granted to domestic and foreign investors alike. In The Gambia the grant is a function of size of tourism

investment, whilst in Kenya, it depends on merit. However, the international promotional activities of these countries strongly indicate that foreign investors as well as domestic ones are targets of these tourism development programmes. In certain cases there may exist few or no domestic entrepreneurs in a position to carry out the desired investment in the sector. In this respect, The Gambia is more vulnerable than Kenya.

#### 9.4.2 Instruments of Incentive Policies

It has been found useful to classify these into fiscal incentives, financial incentives, and other non-financial incentives (or loosely called services).

##### (a) Fiscal Incentives

The Gambia operates a variety of fiscal incentives, including, tax holiday on incomes, varying from 2 to 8 years; and, tariff concessions on capital goods needed for tourism projects. These are commonly used in the field of hotel construction and less often for any other purpose. This could be explained by the fact that since The Gambia is a dependent economy, the materials required for hotel construction, for example, are not available locally and must therefore be imported. Even though some of the material are readily obtainable internally, the supply will depend on the extent to which the local construction industry is able to cope with the demand for the materials.

Although Kenya is very sceptical about the reasonableness, albeit effectiveness, of fiscal measures, it has however adjusted tariff regime to favour the costs of imported tourism inputs. By this action, it is believed that tourism developers will be induced to improve their efficiency and ability to compete in world holiday markets by offering value-for-money 'products'. Nonetheless, several factors account for this scepticism, as was argued above. The major exception is locational incentives to locate tourism in rural areas in order to achieve a rural-urban balance - the so-called 'up-country' policy aimed at minimising the adverse effect of uncontrolled tourism development in one area.

(b) Financial Incentives

Grants, loans, and loan guarantees are the main financial incentives used in these countries. Grants and loans are more widely used in Kenya than in The Gambia. But generally they are usually extended to local entrepreneurs. The Gambia is very strong in loan guarantees, especially those loans coming from external sources, because of the special needs and circumstances of the citizens. Investment incentives provided by these programmes are often designed to facilitate commencement of tourism projects; in such instances, they are of limited duration. At any rate, financial incentives can be adjusted to particular situations.

(c) Non-Financial Measures

These measures are designed to increase the profitability of tourism investment by means of non-financial contributions. Some of these instruments, such as for instance, the provision of land, or specific infrastructure at a low cost, are used in these two countries. These instruments are often administered or financed at the national level.

Other non-financial incentives include a variety of measures, for example, facilities for training and technical assistance designed to provide advice and services for tourism firms.

9.5 Tourism Planning Drawbacks

Two factors limit the effectiveness of tourism planning efforts of Kenya and The Gambia, as indeed everywhere else in the developing countries. It is one thing to plan, and quite another to realise the plan objectives. Thus, the problem here relates to the gap between plan formulation and plan implementation. As Theuns (1987:16) has remarked: 'Plan implementation implies co-ordination, encouragement and regulation.'

So from our analyses, there exists evidence of conflicts between planners and implementors of tourism policies in these two countries. This situation may be attributed to a variety of considerations. Examples include: complicated

nature of tourism and its service delivery systems; the collaborative nature of planning for the sector. This requires expert inputs from various government agencies responsible for tourism. Other factors are connected with bureaucratic feature of government-related business operations, which may result in conflict of interest. As indicated elsewhere, the situation within the Tourism Liaison Board in The Gambia over land matters bear out this view.

A second constraint is related to the first factor and concerns the roles - actual or perceived - of administrators in the tourism sector. Undoubtedly, the tourism phenomenon is dynamic, calling for new ideas for, and new approach to, the solution of planning considerations. It is thus expected that material resources would, when available, be put put to a judicious use. This means that skilled labour, of persons knowledgeable in the current practice of the tourist art, would live up to expectation. The evidence, unfortunately, particularly for The Gambia, is that these are in shortfall. Hence administrators are merely given advisory, rather than executive, roles - a situation that confirms the existence of budgetary constraints.

#### 9.6 Tour Operators' Survey

One dimension of this study is to examine the problems of tourism development in Kenya and The Gambia from two

general aspects - the problems of development as seen by the countries themselves, and also the problems and difficulties encountered by travel companies in trying to 'sell' the destinations. So far, we have emphasised host countries' perspectives. We now turn attention to evaluate, as perceived by tour operators, the competitiveness of Kenya and The Gambia, vis-a-vis other competing destinations, in an African context; to assess what tour operators see as the major problems in Kenya and The Gambia. Sufficient to mention that some views expressed here have, in one form or another, been articulated in previous sections of this study. However, it may be relevant to give a quantitative assessment of tour operators' comparative views of these different African destinations.

#### 9.6.1 Background

As seen in Appendices 1C and 1F, tour operators were asked to give their relative ranking of five African tourism destination countries; to ascertain how each one of them compared against the other, in terms of quality of tourist facilities and services provided by each country. The tour operators were asked to rank the quality of each factor on a scale of 0 to 5. A maximum attainable point from the 25 respondents for each factor was 125. With 21 factors selected for ranking, total possible attainable points were 2, 625.



### 9.6.2 Comparative Competitiveness of the Destinations

Appendix 1F shows the results of the survey - how each country stands in tour operators' perceptions. On a general level, the results clearly confirm Kenya as indeed a pacesetter in tourism ventures. Kenya is seen as offering the best overall product. It is somewhat closely followed by The Gambia, Tanzania and Cote d'Ivoire. Sierra Leone comes a poor distant third. This means that Sierra Leone's overall product is seen as the least competitive, although it is regarded as competitive when evaluated on items 1, 3, and 8.

Specific to Kenya and The Gambia, a careful analysis of the survey results points to a number of interesting issues. To recapitulate what has been said before, now confirmed by a quantitative result of the survey, are the following general remarks. The first is that in the United Kingdom market, both countries offer beach tourism of a similar quality. Second, in terms of general tourist attractions, Kenya is regarded as providing these facilities better than The Gambia. The tour operator view Kenya as an expensive destination when compared to Kenya but at the same time it is seen as slightly better value for money. In terms of popularity, Kenya is by far superior to The Gambia.

Implicitly, the above clearly illustrates U.K. tour operators' knowledge of the destinations and the depth of

the problems in promoting the areas. Obviously, the countries are good destinations of high standards of infrastructure and climatic (and for Kenya, wildlife) attractions. Also, they have enormous tourism potential.

Tour operators regard Kenya as an expensive destination relative to The Gambia. In their opinion, the only single factor responsible for this situation has to do with the issue of airfares. On this, views diverge.

This has to do with profitability, in a financial sense. Big tour operators are interested in high turnovers and thereby high profits from Kenya. These are the people who are complaining about high airfares. Small tour operators, on the other hand, who are modest about their profit margin, regard airfares to Kenya as reasonable. On balance, it can be suggested that the profitability of the packages has to do with the tour operators rather than having a direct effect on the clients' choice of destinations.

### 9.6.3 Suitable Markets

Another aspect of the survey relates to the quality of the products of the two destinations that they promote. This means that tour operators are aware of the type of product they sell - the nature and characteristics of their markets. It is reported that one characteristic feature of tour operators is to respond swiftly to a situation which reveals existence of product deficiencies. Their response

has been either to find an alternative 'new market segment which would find the offered product acceptable, or (to promote) a new destination which offered the quality of tourist product that the market was searching for.' (Nyaruwata, 1986:58).

The latter option is clearly illustrated with respect to Kenya and Zimbabwe. Here, one French tour company ceased sending tourists on safari to Kenya, but rather sent them to Zimbabwe. The decision was because of numerous complaints from clients who perceived 'that they were not getting value for money in their holidays to Kenya.'

#### 9.6.4 Problems

Another finding relates to specific problems of the different destinations, in terms of marketing the countries in the U.K. This problem is more acute in the case of The Gambia than Kenya. This problem is due to relative stages of the countries in their tourism developments, the extent to which the destinations are known to British public. Also it may be related to overall notion of Africa, as perhaps a place not worth visiting for a holiday. These considerations have been carefully examined in the research report by Nyaruwata, cited above (1986). These factors make tour operators' task to overcome these conceptions - real or imagined - in their marketing, daunting. Given that tour operators are not philanthropists, in marketing Kenya and The Gambia they have to satisfy themselves as to the

saleability of the destinations, in terms of product quality, its consistency, as well as its international competitiveness.

#### 9.6.5 Planning Implications

The challenge for policy-makers in the tourism sector in Kenya and The Gambia is to be most receptive to new ideas; to be sensitised to these adverse perceptions of tour operators, and take whatever measures are considered appropriate for the course of tourism in their individual countries. It may mean that they need to incorporate into their planning regime those aspects of policy which would aim at improving the negative impressions. It may perhaps require a closer liaison with tour operators. Possibly also, a review of product improvement ought to be considered. Along with this, extra funds need to be set aside for either correcting images which have fallen short of the countries' expectations, or for strengthening existing positive images.

#### 9.7 Conclusion

From the comparisons, it can be suggested that two lessons come out rather distinctly from the stature and example of Kenya and The Gambia. The first relates to scale of development, and the second pertains to image. Obviously, these two factors, as will be seen in chapter 10, have certain implication and which can benefit other developing countries' tourism programmes.

'Scale' controversies imply two fundamental questions - whether a developing country interested in tourism can afford a large-scale development, or whether such a country is better off opting for small and craft-scale enterprises. The choice is not an absolute one because the decision will depend on various considerations; these are examined in chapter 10.

'Image' may seem an imprecise term. In our context, it has three fundamental meanings. The first is the extent to which a tourist destination is known. The host area may have an established tradition of tourism (Kenya fits into this description), and is thus popular to tourists. Conversely, the concept may describe a newcomer vacation spot. In essence, it means that this location is struggling to gain support - a situation which aptly applies to The Gambia.

The second meaning relates to how tour operators would wish a destination to be seen, and so they use various promotional tools to get their messages across. Finally, there is the view of a receiving developing country, which wishes to present a positive case of itself to the international community. This perspective may be based on its tourism product. Perhaps the aim here is to correct falsehood and counteract stereotypes as may have been implied in the two definitions above. So, in chapter 10

below, we will be reviewing several thoughts along these lines.

## REFERENCES

- Fish, Mary (1982), 'Taxing international tourism in West Africa,' Annals of Tourism Research, 9(1):91-103.
- Green, Reginald Herbold (1979), 'Toward planning tourism in African countries,' in de Kadt, E. (1979), Tourism - Passport to Development. Oxford: O.U.P.
- Nyaruwata, Shephard (1986), 'European market for African destinations,' Tourism Management, 7(1):56-60.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1984), Tourism Marketing in Zimbabwe and Kenya - A Comparative Analysis. Unpublished M.Sc. Dissertation, Glasgow: University of Strathclyde.
- Smith, Thomas B. (1985), 'Evaluating development policies and programmes in the Third World,' Public Administration and Development, 5(2):129-144.
- Theuns, H. Leo (1987), 'Government action and tourism sector development in the Third World: a planning approach,' Tourist Review, 42(2):14-19.

## CHAPTER 10 - CONCLUSION

### 10.0 Introduction

The main objective of this study was to examine, on a comparative setting, the overall approach to the planning of tourism development in Kenya and The Gambia. Another was to consider how the examples of both countries might benefit other developing countries in their planning for the tourism sector. A subsidiary aim was to suggest issues for further research. On the basis of the analyses described, it becomes possible to arrive at a number of conclusions, and to identify hypotheses relevant to the development of tourism in developing countries.

### 10.1 Links between Policies, Planning, and Implementation

Tourism issues encompass economic and non-economic considerations. The economic concerns include the increasing significance of tourism as a source of income, employment, and foreign exchange receipts. Such economic benefits have attracted many developing countries to take to tourism. However, tourism contains heavy economic costs as well. The negative impact is seen in economic leakages, the flight of farmers from agricultural areas to the cities, and so on.

The non-economic concerns range from socio-cultural to environmental issues. Socio-cultural considerations might



include the inconvenience arising from differences in language, culture, and customs, which perhaps act as deterrents to some travellers or attractive for others. Another cultural concern might be protecting local traditions. In contrast, the potential cultural benefits from tourism, although less obvious than the economic benefits, may be equally significant.

The environmental aspect contends that the increase in tourism also has the potential of destroying or injuring our national ecosystem. But if we look ahead for a moment, we can see both beneficial and unfortunate aspects of tourism with respect to the ecological balance. In all three cases, the challenges for tourism is for policies to be formulated, plans drawn, and implementation programmes executed. The aim is to improve, rather than degrade, the environment, the socio-cultural, and economic well-being of host communities.

From the above analysis, a policy for tourism may be seen as a carefully thought-out and articulated response to tourism opportunities and problems. The opportunities lie in the benefits and the disbenefits of tourism, as noted. Planning seeks to optimise the advantages of tourism while also minimising the adverse effects. Also, planning attempts to ensure an effective and efficient allocation and use of scarce resources, perhaps on a priority basis. Clearly these exercises are linked to the need to develop objectives for tourism, and formulate policies to implement

the objectives.

Many influences cause these to happen - individuals and organisations - in both the public and private sectors, at home and abroad. At home (that is, on a national level) the government sector, with perhaps some input from the private sector, sets up a national organisation to manage and control the tourism sector. Where potential conflicts between the public and private sectors exist, it is the task of tourism planning to minimise the thorny issues. Also, planning establishes a framework within which the private sector might operate. Therefore, at government level, the main consideration is the need for establishing objectives. Within these parameters it becomes necessary to develop strategies or plans to implement the decision and evaluate the effectiveness of the decision. It is suggested that without policies, planning, and monitoring the benefits of tourism will hardly be maximised, or the disadvantages mitigated. These links are essential, but there are other factors affecting tourism, and which need to be taken into account in any tourism development activities.

## 10.2 Fundamental Issues

These factors can be categorised as either external or internal to a host destination country. The external influences may take various forms: international distribution system, foreign investment expertise,

competition, and image. Internally, issues like level of development, resources available, potential for tourism, and motivation, equally shape tourism development planning.

#### 10.2.1 Externalities and Dependencies

Essentially, these are the influences which operate in the tourism generating countries and which affect the demand for holidays in the receiving countries. Much of the debate here relates to the notion that an international tourism sector is mainly a dependent sector. As such, in the absence of a unique attraction, tourism demand is largely exogenously determined. For a developing country, the implication is that the type of tourism it develops is determined by forces outside its control. It is generally agreed that such a developing economy wanting to break into the international tourist market, or allocating resources to the sector, is advised to consider this. The reasons are obvious.

##### 10.2.1.1 International Distribution System

One area of concern for most developing nations relates to the structural nature of international tourism. First, international tourism involves a voluntary movement of people. The most obvious reason for this movement is to go on a vacation. This quest for a holiday is determined by economic and social factors prevalent in the generating countries over which a host developing country has very

little influence. However, indirectly advertising and relative prices may influence tourist demand, or the magnitude of it. In this situation it may affect the destination chosen. But indirectly, potential tourists' final choice of a destination may depend on information and guidance given by the travel agent.

Another feature - this is a growing trend in international tourism demand patterns - is that this movement is organised and packaged, both in terms of travel mode and hotel accommodation. The overall travel arrangements and the provision of amenities are tailored to satisfy tourists' expectations. Perhaps, little or no consideration is given to a host country's development priorities.

A tour wholesaler, located in a metropolitan generating country, performs a market interface function, in generating demand and packaging this demand into destinations. The tour operator ensures that the facilities and services provided in a receiving country must meet international standards. These amenities must also be familiar and acceptable to his clients. It is on that basis that future sales and possible repeat visits may be guaranteed. This notion of acceptability suggests therefore that the type of tourist facility provided by the host country is determined by external forces.

The move towards vertical integration between airlines, tour companies, and hotels have further strengthened the

hold of the foreign tour generators on the industry, vis-a-vis the host country. There is thus a tendency to standardise tourist facilities and services. The development of computerised reservation systems has increased the hold such companies have, since it means that they can ensure higher occupancy rates for any of the hotels they link to such a system. Certainly, the existing division of power between the tourist-generating economies and the receiving ones will continue, precisely because the marketing function is absolutely crucial to the survival of the tourism industry.

#### 10.2.1.2 Foreign Investment Expertise

Another important consideration for a developing country embarking on a programme of tourism development is the question of foreign operational expertise. The need for this expertise arises for various reasons. In most developing countries, the private sector is small, private investment funds are limited, and experience of tourism is negligible. Possibly, the private sector has no inclination to invest in the tourism sector. The result is that governments often have adopted the role of a developer, sometimes in response to proposed private foreign investment.

This is because one feature of international tourism is that it is an export , service-oriented industry, consumed in the host country. Precedence is given to the

satisfaction of foreign customer. It then implies that the 'product' must reach international, rather than domestic, standards. Satisfaction of this provision depends on the availability of international tourism management, at least at the initial stages of development.

Given the deficiencies and under-development of the private sector, as seen, most governments have actively sought foreign investment expertise. No doubt, in many ways, the quality of a country's tourism personnel determines the visitors' image of that country. These governments have even relied on foreign expertise to formulate plans for tourism development. To entice foreign developers to invest in the sector, governments have given them generous incentives, without which available funds and expertise might be competed away by other countries. This is more critical in the hotel sub-sector, as the evidence suggests. Here, there is much dependence on foreign expertise, as indeed the emphasis on management contracts - now an accepted feature of Third World tourism - bears witness to.

#### 10.2.1.3 Competition

Tourism planners in developing countries need to consider competition as one other external but prerequisite factor for tourism development. This is because it imposes constraints and patterns on development of the sector.

The international tourist market is highly competitive in

two respects - price and customer satisfaction. The basic understanding here is that tourists are price-conscious, rather than price-takers, and that many host countries have similar attractions of tourism merit. It implies then that holiday needs not met in one destination may mean that tourists move on to other alternative locations. Clearly, these destinations are substitutable. For example, destinations can lose business if they do not provide the right mix of attractions for tourists, for the right price.

The overall competitiveness of a destination may be due to distance from main generating countries, transport links, costs, prices, and 'image'. These are outside the control of developing countries. As an example, the cost of airfares affect tourist demand for a destination. The fares are externally determined either by the International Air Transport Association (I.A.T.A.) traffic conference or subject to bilateral agreement. But the cost of air travel is one element of a holiday package expenditure.

Another variant of price competition relates to the nature and extent of incentives, which, as seen, are central to tourism policy-making. It is only fair to say that the international competition for investment capital is so great that this has resulted in many developing countries offering investors competitive levels of incentives. The aim is to protect international standard facilities, in the interest of consumer satisfaction and 'value for money'.

#### 10.2.1.4 Image

Tourist image of a destination also affects demand. The image pertains to how tour operators would wish a host country to be seen, and so they use various promotional tools to get that message across. One such avenue is that provided by tour operators' brochures, which usually categorise image themes as follows: (1) One may focus on landscape, to say that the countryside is scenically attractive, with beautiful beaches. (2) Another describes a location in recreational terms. This is an obvious theme for it means that the destination has opportunities for sun-bathing, swimming, for example. (3) A third theme may depict a country in service forms, to suggest that the destination has provisions for comfortable hotel rooms, and inexpensive restaurants. (4) The final theme may be cultural, indicating much of local history, local craft, remains of earlier civilisations, museums, and so on.

The images may not necessarily reflect the potential motivations of tourists. Nonetheless, they do at times correspond to tourists' perceptions of the real image of the destinations they dream about. In the circumstance, tour wholesalers may be regarded as image-makers who portray the characteristics of the tourist attractions, based more on their operational requirements than by the real aspirations of tourists themselves.



## 10.2.2 Internal Factors

In many developing countries, several internal factors play a key role in the direction of tourism development. The issues involved include those which are within the control of a host government, and relate to 'supply' components of tourism. Policy-makers may be advised to consider them in their development of tourism programmes. Mention may be made here that these endogenous factors will be interwoven with a consideration of the exogenous forces, as discussed.

### 10.2.2.1 Levels of Development

Tourism in a developing country will be determined by that country's level or pattern/stage of development. 'Level of development' is not a simple concept, its determination is complicated. Gross national product per capita is only one, very imperfect, indicator of it. But development may also be measured by the extent to which wealth, skills, and education are distributed among the local population; or the strength and resilience of local cultural tradition.

The concept is relevant for our purposes, for it will determine the impact tourism may have. Just as countries are at various levels of development, so too in tourism many countries are at different stages of development. For example, in some developing countries, especially where there has been a tradition of tourism, one discovers that the stage of tourism development may be far more advanced

than in countries which are relatively novel to the industry. In such advanced tourism-developing economies, it may be that the indigenous culture and society is compatible with the values and roles needed to operate a successful tourism industry. In this instance, development of the sector has relied on domestic resources.

If we were to examine the 'development continuum' argument presented in chapter 1, it would be seen that there are variations as to the degree of impact. Some developing countries, with low level of development in, for example, production facilities, infrastructure, and so forth, are perhaps likely to experience more negative socio-cultural effects than are larger, more developed (in a tourism sense) developing host economies. Local capacity to control tourism development appears to be generally weak, especially where such development is rapid and massive.

#### 10.2.2.2 Resources Available

An extension of the above arguments relates to the resources available in a country upon which tourism development will depend. Resources can be land (physical), labour (manpower), or capital (financial). Each type is needed for a successful tourism development enterprise. So faced with a considerable variety of tourists and types of tourism, a developing country interested in tourism needs to ask whether, and to what extent, it can match its own resources with the requirement of different types of

tourists. It also needs to ask what options it faces in developing these resources. Whatever the means chosen, the success of the development scheme still depends at least in part on an assessment of the impacts it is likely to have.

#### 10.2.2.3 Potential for Tourism

Another logical consideration for a country to begin development of the tourism sector is to determine tourism's future growth and development potential. An analysis of demand (externalities) and supply parameters will indicate future directions. These development options are needed to determine what priority tourism development is to receive.

The assessment may begin by determining how tourism fits into the national development plan. This will be based on what potential exists for tourism to contribute to earning foreign exchange and for bringing about increases in national income, employment, and overall economic development, relative to other sectors. How many tourists can be attracted? What are the costs - economic and non-economic - of attracting a specific tourist level? Such considerations, no doubt, involve government intervention, to set parameters for tourism development in line with national development policy objectives. It is suggested that without active involvement of government, private sector interests may expand in the direction it wants tourism to develop contrary to government wishes. Government attempts to correct this situation may be

somewhat late. Hence, the observation by de Kadt is in order: that tourism planning in developing countries epitomises 'shutting the stable door after the horse has bolted.'

#### 10.2.2.4 Motivation

The motivations to develop tourism are wide. They vary from country to country as each country is unique in its geography, resources, stage of economic development, type of government, and so forth. Nevertheless, certain characteristics are relevant for making at least an assessment of motivations, and of the impacts of tourism. Of particular importance are the economic advantages of tourism discussed earlier. In small countries, especially islands, and other developing countries with fragile economies, the option to development is through tourism. Such countries have no other attractive development possibilities, as is the case in the Bahamas. The arguments to support the economic benefits have been presented and analysed.

In The Gambia, for example, contacts with tourists open up the possibility of foreign travel and escape from limited economic opportunities - described as a 'window on an outside world'. For others in The Gambia, it also serves as an opportunity to learn about foreign cultures. The impact can be felt. In the Caribbean, contacts between tourists and hosts can be frequent and intense, especially as

population density is high in the areas visited by tourists. Second, a large fraction of the population is employed in the tourism industry. This objective has often brought with it considerable problems of an economic, social, cultural, and environmental nature.

### 10.3 Conclusions

Three hypotheses emerge from this study to guide developing countries in tourism development: (1) It is hypothesised that the logical place for a developing country concerned with tourism to begin development of the sector is to realise the need for planning. (2) Given the demand and supply conditions and constraints in the international tourism arena, it is further hypothesised that for meaningful planning for the tourism sector, there is the need for flexibility. (3) The full scope of sectoral tourism planning covers formulation of plans, implementation, supervision, and a review of successes and failures. To achieve positive results in this regard, we finally hypothesises the need for caution. Attention is now focused on a brief defence of these propositions.

#### 10.3.1 Need for Planning

The importance of tourism in many developing countries is not in any doubt. Governments of these underdeveloped countries have shown a concern for the tourism sector by setting up Ministries, agencies or planning departments. The functions of these bodies are partially to rationalise

the use and allocation of scarce resources. The exercise is seen against expected returns from tourism vis-a-vis other sectors in the national economy. Although tourism contributes to economic development, governments of these nations wish to optimise that potential contribution.

To achieve this, objectives for the sector have to be developed, and policies formulated to implement those objectives. The success of these efforts will depend largely on government approval and support, and to a certain extent, with private sector input. Where differences between both sectors exist, national objectives always gain primacy. Thus, the need for tourism planning focuses on mitigating these potential conflicts. To eschew government sector involvement means that the tourism sector will drift, and possibly, long-term growth potential of the industry might be jeopardised. Therefore, planning is needed for several reasons: (1) to permit development options to be considered, and for policies to be formulated; (2) to avert having to make an ad hoc response to emergency situations, and to give some stability to future operations; (3) to improve efficiency and effectiveness of the tourism sector.

### 10.3.2 Need for Flexibility and Caution

There are a number of considerations for a flexible and selective development of tourism in Third World countries. As we saw in chapter 1, modern societies are becoming more

demanding than ever. Also, tourists and their decision-making processes are becoming complex. Tourists' socio-economic and behavioural attributes are not constant but are continuously changing, with corresponding changes in destination features and travel characteristics. Tourism has to respond and adapt to these dynamic forces. And by a careful monitoring and evaluation of tourism programmes many pitfalls associated with inflexible decisions may be avoided. There is, therefore, the need to match development priorities and available resources in a realistic framework. Several examples can be given.

In the area of investment incentives, clearly some guidelines are generally established as a basis for determining programmes to be approved and incentive-aided. Flexibility may be required in cases which do not meet the criteria, especially where particular advantages may seem apparent. Examples may be to use tourism to open up remotest parts of a country where local investors, may be unwilling to invest. Another may relate to where a prestigious foreign developer with established reputation and market connections is allowed to build and locate in an area not specifically designated for tourism, given the need to attract entrepreneurs with capital and expertise into the sector.

Although 'what is good for the goose is also good for the gander' may be correct, variation in the levels of

incentives offered, or to whom given, may be needed. This is important particularly in situations where priorities change over a development period. In such circumstances, certain projects might be given more importance than others. Of course, this evolutionary process will need to be monitored.

Land use is another area, and this is closely related to investment incentives. Although land use planning for tourism involves allocating zones for development probably after examining a range of competing demands, some exceptions about allocations may be necessary. An example would be a situation where government exercises value judgements, especially where tourism development in certain areas may impair culture and ecology.

Where a developing country wishes to indigenise employment in the tourism sector, this has to be done with deliberation because an over-rapid replacement of expatriates can cause considerable damage to a country's reputation for smooth, pleasant holidays.

#### 10.4 Final Remarks

To disregard the propositions advanced here could spell a disaster for the tourism industry. The assumption that this is allowed to happen, in an Igbo<sup>1</sup> context, has been questioned: 'Shall the elders standby while the goat gives birth in fetters?' Hence, policy-makers in developing



countries, and indeed students of tourism world-wide - educators and practitioners alike - have an onerous task to prevent this from happening. The implication for developing countries is that if tourism is to provide the springboard for a realisation of the 'basic needs' cry of their citizens, in terms of an improvement of opportunity and quality of life, then the tourism sector needs to be planned. There have to be slack and selective tendencies built into it. These three related factors are the main ingredients of success. For after all, this is what development is all about.

#### 10.5 Recommendations for Further Research

From this study, some insight has been gained but clearly the task is not complete. It is possible that future investigations into the tourism industry as part of international tourism study could usefully examine other relevant facets. Hopefully, these will aid our understanding of tourism dynamics, particularly policy formulation in developing countries. These points are outside the range and scope of this thesis. Details of these are given in Appendix 10A.

## NOTE

1. This term has three connotations. First, it refers to an ethnic group in Nigeria. Second, it describes the indigenous language of this group. Third, it relates to the geographical area occupied by the people. The proverb is taken from this community in Nigeria.

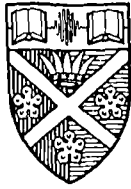
**APPENDIX 1A : U.K. TOUR OPERATORS SELLING  
EAST AND WEST AFRICAN TOURIST DESTINATIONS**

1. Abercrombie and Kent Travel, Sloan Square, Holbein Pl., London, SW1W 8NS.
2. Africa Access Ltd., Hill House, The Avenue, Lewis, East Sussex BN7 1QS.
3. Amathus Holidays, 51 Tottenham Court Road, London W1P OHS
4. Bales Tours Ltd., Bales House, Barrington Road, Dorking, Surrey, RH4 3EJ.
5. Blue Sky Holidays, Blue Sky House, London, London Road, East Grinstead, West Sussex, RN19 1HU.
6. Cresta World Travel Ltd., Six Acre House, 22 Town Sq., Sale, Cheshire M33 1XZ.
7. Cygnus Wildlife Holidays Ltd., 96 Fore St., Kingsbridge, Devon TQ7 1PY
8. Encounter Overland Ltd., 267 Old Brompton Rd., London SW5.
9. Enterprise Holidays, P.O. Box 100, Hodford House, 17/27 High St., Hounslow, Middlesex TW3 1TB.
10. Exodus Expeditions. All Saints' Passage, 100 Wandsworth High Street, London SW18 4LE.
11. Explore Worldwide Ltd., 7 High St., Aldershot, Hampshire GU11 1BH
12. Flair Holidays, 1 Wardour St., London W1V 3HE.
13. Flamingo Tours of East Africa, 12 New Burlington St., London W1X 1FF
14. Guerba Expeditions Ltd., 101 Eden Vale Road, Westbury, Wiltshire BA13 3QX
15. Hallmark International, Sandbourne House, 302 Charminster Road, Dorset BH8 9RU
16. Hays and Jarvis (Travel) Ltd., 6 Harriot ST., Knightsbridge, London SW1X 9JP
17. Holidayair Country Connections (Dalylake), 9 Turk St., Alton, Hants. GU 1AG
18. Holiday Planners Ltd., Broughton House, 6/8 Sackville St., London W1X 1DD

19. Intasun Skyworld. 52 Grosvenor Gardens, London SW1W 0AU.
20. Jetsave. Sussex House, London Road, East Grinstead RH19 1LD.
21. Keogh James Tours and Travel, 138 Hanworth Road, Hounslow, Middlesex, TW3 1UG.
22. Kuoni Travel Ltd., Kuoni House, Dorking, Surrey RH5 4AZ.
23. Lawson International Travel Services Ltd., 103/105 Clarence St., Kingston-upon-Thames.
24. Lindblad Travel Inc., 22 Petersham Mews, London SW7 5NR.
25. Mancunia Travel Ltd., Peter House, 2-14 Oxford Street, Manchester, M1 5AW
26. Martin Rook Holidays, 204 Ebury St., London SW1W 8UU.
27. Moderline Travel Ltd., Hastings Road, St. Helier, Jersey, Channel Islands.
28. M.T.S. Safaris, Prince Frederick House, 37 Maddox St., London W1R 9LD.
29. Ornitholidays, 1/3 Victoria Drive, Bognor Regis, West Sussex PO21 2PW.
30. Poundstretcher, Airlink House, Hazelwick Avenue, Three Bridges, Sussex RH10 1YS.
31. Premier Farawy Holidays, 10 Rose Crescent, Cambridge, Cambs. CB2 3LL.
32. Rank Travel Ltd., Travel House, High Road, Broxbourne, Herts EN10 7JD.
33. Regent Holidays (U.K.) Ltd., Regent House, Regent St., Shanklin, Isle of Wight.
34. Safari Centre International, Suite 333, The Linen Hall, 162/168 Regent St., London W1R 5TB.
35. Saga Holidays PLC, Enbrook House, Sandgate Road, Folkestone, Kent CT30 3SG.
36. Select Holidays, Centrion House, Bircherley St., Hertford SG14 1BH.
37. Slade Travel Ltd., Slade House, 15 Vivian Avenue, London NW4 3UT

38. Sovereign Holidays, P.O. 100, Hodford House, 17/27 High Street, Hounslow, Middlesex, TW3 1TB
39. Sunset Travel Ltd., 306 Clapham Road, Stockwell, London SW9 9AE
40. Speedbird Holidays, Alta House, 152 Kings St., London W6 0QU.
41. Supertravel Ltd., 22 Hans Place, London SW1X 0EP.
42. Swan Hellenic Art treasures Tours, Canberra House, 4 Middlesex St., London E1 7AI.
43. Tempo Travel, 337 Bowes Rd., London N11 1BA.
44. Tentrek Expeditions Ltd., 152 Maidstone Road, Ruxley Corner, Sidcup, Kent DA14 5HS.
45. Thomas Cook Travel Ltd., Thorpe Wood. P.O. Box 36, Peterborough, Cambs. PE3 6SB.
46. Thomson Holidays, Greater London House, Hampstead Road, London NW1 7SD.
47. Threshold Travel Ltd., Wrendal House, 2 Whitworth St. West, Manchester M1 5WX.
48. Tracks, Brookland, Romney Marsh, Kent TN29 9TG.
49. Tradewinds Faraway Holidays, 66/68 Brewer St., London W1E 5JZ.
50. Transac Services Ltd., 246 Kensington High Street, London W8 6EF.
51. Travel Lines Ltd., 154 Cromwell Road, Chelsea, London SW7 4EF
52. Twickers World, 22 Church St., Twickenham, TW1 3NW.
53. United Touring International, Carrington House, 130 Regent St., London W1R 6HD.
54. Wings Holidays, Ellerman, Sunflight Holidays, 57/59 High Road, Broxbourne, Herts. EN10 7JD.
55. World Tracks, 12 Abington Rd., London W8.

Source: Travel Trade Directory, 1985.



University  
of Strathclyde

Professor David Jeffries OBE BA FTS (Head of Department)

The Scottish Hotel School

Curran Building  
94 Cathedral Street, Glasgow G4 0LG  
Tel: 041-552 4400

9 June 1986

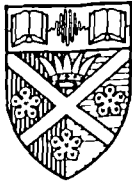
APPENDIX 1B: LETTER TO  
55 TOUR OPERATORS

Dear Sir

I will be grateful if you would send me your current holiday brochures,  
particularly those featuring East and West African destinations.

Yours faithfully

Peter U C Dieke



University  
of Strathclyde

30th October 1986

The Scottish Hotel School

Curran Building  
94 Cathedral Street, Glasgow G4 0LG  
Tel: 041-552 4400

APPENDIX IC : LETTER TO TOUR OPERATORS

Dear Sir

I am a doctoral Tourism student in this University currently carrying out a thesis project into aspects of tourism development planning in Africa. At this initial stage in the work, I would like to ascertain your opinions on the competitiveness of Kenya and The Gambia as tourist destinations, relative to other African rivals, particularly Tanzania, Sierra Leone, and Côte d'Ivoire (former Ivory Coast). I seek your views because I realise the critical place of tour operators in the entire travel trade, especially in influencing tourist destination traffic.

I will be visiting Africa later this year to carry out field-work. I would be very pleased to meet and discuss my programme with you. I am trying to examine tourism development in selected African countries from two general aspects - the problems of development as seen by the countries themselves, and also the problems and difficulties encountered by travel companies in trying to sell the destinations.

I have enclosed a short questionnaire which lists factors considered important in choosing the destinations. I will therefore be grateful if you would assist with my research work, by completing and returning the questionnaire. A stamped addressed return envelope is enclosed.

Your response will be treated in confidence, and the information you provide used only for the research project. On completion of my field-work, I would welcome an opportunity to discuss my findings with you.

Yours faithfully

Peter U. C. Dieke

Encls.

574

APPENDIX 1D: TOUR OPERATORS' QUESTIONNAIRE

CONFIDENTIAL

NO.

U.K. TOUR OPERATOR'S QUESTIONNAIRE

A. YOUR COMPANY'S PROFILE

1. What is the status of your Company? (Tick)  
Public Limited Company (PLC) \_\_\_\_\_  
Partnership \_\_\_\_\_  
Private \_\_\_\_\_  
Other \_\_\_\_\_
2. How many employees do you have as of October 1, 1986?  
a) Full time \_\_\_\_\_  
b) Part time \_\_\_\_\_
3. What is your annual turnover as of your last financial year?
4. Of which professional bodies are you a member?  
a) IATA \_\_\_\_\_  
b) ABTA \_\_\_\_\_  
c) Other \_\_\_\_\_



B. RELATIVE RANKING OF DESTINATIONS

In respect to your criteria for choosing a destination please rank in order of preference, the quality of each of the following factors offered by the countries. For example,

- 1 = first preference ; 2 = second preference ;  
 3 = third preference ; 4 = fourth preference ;  
 5 = fifth preference

Key to countries:

G = The Gambia \* CD = Côte d'Ivoire K = Kenya  
 SL = Sierra Leone T = Tanzania

\* The Ivory Coast

FACTORS	COUNTRIES				
	G	CD	K	SL	T
1. Suitable tourist accommodation, at an acceptable price					
2. Safe, clean beaches					
3. Friendliness towards visitors					
4. Sightseeing opportunities					
5. Recreational and sports opportunities					
6. Shopping facilities					
7. Wildlife viewing					
8. Climate					
9. Political stability					
10. "Value for money" destination					
11. Cleanliness					
12. Professionalism of hotel interests in dealing with tour operators					
13. Reliability of domestic transport					
14. Professionalism of N.T.O.					
15. Tourist's property and personal safety					
16. Co-operation from airlines serving destinations					
17. Co-operation with local travel trade					
18. Banking service/currency exchange facilities					
19. Entry procedure/ease of access					
20. Tourism promotion literature available in the U.K.					
21. Tourism promotion literature at destination					

C. CRITERIA FOR DESTINATION SELECTION

From the factors listed above, which five do you consider the most important when selecting a destination? (Please write)

1.

2.

3.

4.

5.

D. KENYA AND THE GAMBIA ONLY

1. With respect to Kenya and The Gambia, for how many years have you been selling them as tourist destinations?

2. How frequently do your staff visit either or both of these countries?

3. Are you currently selling these destinations in your brochures?

Yes/No

4. How many holidays have you offered for sale in the current season?

5. Do you intend to increase capacity for next season?

Yes/No

6. What proportion of your sales depends on these countries?

7. Could you please identify African countries which you do not sell but which you believe have tourism potential?

1.

2.

3.

8. If you are not selling the countries listed in "7" above, could you please give reasons why not?

9. In relation to your experience in selling African countries as tourist destinations, do you have any comments?



University  
of Strathclyde

APPENDIX 1E: FOLLOW-UP LETTER TO TOUR OPERATORS

The Scottish Hotel School

Curran Building  
94 Cathedral Street, Glasgow G4 0LG  
Tel: 041-552 4400

27th November 1986

Dear Sir

U.K. Tour Operators' Questionnaire

Further to my letter of 30th October, 1986 and the questionnaire which accompanied it, I wish to say that I have not yet received a reply from your Company.

I will be grateful if you would please complete and return the questionnaire, to enable me to incorporate your views in my research work.

In case you have misplaced the questionnaire, I am enclosing another one, to save you the inconvenience of searching for it.

Yours faithfully

Peter U C Dieke

Encl.

APPENDIX 1F - TOUR OPERATORS' SURVEY RESULTS  
RELATIVE RANKING OF DESTINATIONS

FACTORS	MAXIMUM ATTAINABLE POINTS FROM 25 RESPONDENTS	POINTS ATTAINED BY DESTINATIONS				
		G	CD	K	SL	T
1. Suitable tourist accommodation, at an acceptable price	125	110	79	80	90	80
2. Safe, clean beaches	125	90	97	116	87	92
3. Friendliness towards visitors	125	120	113	74	94	84
4. Sightseeing opportunities	125	67	80	120	70	90
5. Recreational and sports opportunities	125	52	90	102	40	96
6. Shopping facilities	125	45	70	98	36	80
7. Wildlife viewing	125	--	--	116	--	94
8. Climate	125	96	95	100	90	97
9. Political stability	125	89	94	91	90	85
10. 'Value for money' destination	125	97	99	100	53	97
11. Cleanliness	125	59	72	98	66	86
12. Professionalism of hotel interests in dealing with tour operators	125	97	90	99	77	86
13. Reliability of domestic transport	125	40	66	92	54	80
14. Professionalism of N.T.O.	125	90	89	96	75	87
15. Tourist's property and personal safety	125	97	86	66	72	70
16. Co-operation from airlines serving destinations	125	100	100	117	86	90
17. Co-operation with local travel trade	125	102	101	106	83	80
18. Banking service/currency exchange facilities	125	97	--	102	86	--
19. Entry procedure/ease of access	125	112	94	96	81	90
20. Tourism promotion literature available in the U.K.	125	105	40	120	70	100
21. Tourism promotion literature at destination	125	100	80	120	65	79
<b>TOTAL POINTS</b>	<b>2,625</b>	<b>1765</b>	<b>1637</b>	<b>2019</b>	<b>1474</b>	<b>1733</b>
<b>RANKING</b>		<b>2</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>3</b>



University  
of Strathclyde

The Scottish Hotel School

Curran Building  
94 Cathedral Street, Glasgow G4 0LG  
Tel: 041-552 4400

PD/SM

APPENDIX 1G: RESEARCH PERMIT APPLICATION

9 December 1986

Office of the High Commissioner  
The Gambia High Commission  
57 Kensington Court  
London  
W8 5DG

Attention: Director, The Gambia National Tourist Office

Dear Sir

RESEARCH PERMIT

I am a full-time registered postgraduate student in this University reading for the degree of PhD in Tourism. As part of partial fulfilment for the degree, I am required to submit a research project of such a standard and publishable quality acceptable to the University.

The subject chosen for this study takes an African perspective, and seeks to compare planning considerations and constraints affecting tourism ventures in selected countries in the continent. Two countries under investigation here are Kenya and The Gambia, because, in relation to other sub-Saharan African countries, where the tourism industry is meaningful, the status of the enterprise in both states (as pace-setters), is critical. The aim here is to know the extent to which the experiences and examples of Kenya and The Gambia can benefit other African states embarking on tourism endeavours.

Apart from seeking to establish any similarities and dissimilarities between the tourism planning systems of the study areas, the research is focusing on discovering how the authorities concerned react to the various issues involved in the planning policies they adopt.

I will be visiting Africa early in the new year to carry out field-work which will cover two main aspects. First, I would want to establish contact with your National Tourist Offices; examine published reports, government documents; visit research libraries, all with a view to obtaining background information, some basic statistics. Second, I intend to informally interview a range of the travel trade operating in The Gambia. This includes airlines, tour operators hotel companies, including key government officials, etc, connected with tourism.

I will therefore be grateful if you would assist with my research effort, by please sending my request to the appropriate Ministry/Government Department in The Gambia for consideration; to issue me with a research permit, and offer me help with introductions.

Your assistance will be held in confidence, and the information supplied to me used only for academic, not commercial, purposes.

Yours faithfully

Mr Peter U C Dieke



University  
of Strathclyde

The Scottish Hotel School

Curran Building  
94 Cathedral Street, Glasgow G4 0LG  
Tel: 041-552 4400

CLJ/SM

9 December 1986

Dear Sir

Mr Peter Dieke

I write to you in support of Mr Dieke's application for a research student's permit to enter The Gambia. I am Mr Dieke's research supervisor, and I am responsible for the direction and control of his study, which is undertaken for the purpose of his doctoral thesis, and which has no commercial connection at all.

You may be assured that any information which is given to Mr Dieke will be regarded as confidential and used only for academic purposes. I feel that a comparative study of tourism development in an African context should provide information for future tourism development planning.

I would expect Mr Dieke to be ready to begin his field work from 1st April, 1987 and I hope that you will grant him the necessary permission to enter your country.

Yours sincerely

Dr C L Jenkins  
Senior Lecturer in Tourism



APPENDIX 1H : CONTACTS IN THE GAMBIA

NAME	POSITION	ADDRESS
1. Mr. S. Jallow	General Manager	Gambia Airways Ltd., Wellington Street, Banjul.
2. Mr. B. Sidibe	Head of Oral History and Antiquities	Office of the Vice President, Banjul.
3. Mr. B.A. Ceesay	Acting Curator	Gambia Nat'l Museum, Banjul.
4. Mr. G.W. L Thomas	Secretary- Co-ordinator	Gambia Nat'l Comm. for U.N.E.S.C.O., Ministry of Education, Banjul
5. Mr. B. Sompo- Ceesay	Principal Planner	Ministry of Econ. Planning & Ind. Development, Banjul.
6. Mr. L.M. Samateh	Permanent Secretary	Ministry of Local Gov't. & Lands, Banjul.
7. Mr. B. Gai	Principal Planner	Planning, Programming, Monitoring Unit for the Agric. sector. Cameroon Street, Banjul.
8. Mr. J.G.O. Jallow	Director of Tourism	The Gambia Nat'l Tourist Office, Banjul.
9. Mr. S. Jow	Commissioner of Labour	Dept. of Labour, Banjul.
10. Miss M. Gomez	Principal	Gambia Hotel School, Kanifing, Banjul.
11. A. Janha	Chief Executive	National Investment Board, Banjul.

## APPENDIX 1I : FIELD-WORK QUESTIONS

### A. TOURISM INVESTMENT INCENTIVES

KEY : Nature and Extent of Incentives

1. What incentives have been offered?
2. Why have they been introduced?
3. How were they used?
4. How long have incentives been offered, or revived?
5. To what extent have they been revised, and under what circumstances?
6. What, in your opinion, is the value or cost of incentives?
7. How do you rank important incentives?
8. What would the situation be in the absence of incentives?
9. When incentives are offered, should some areas of investment be 'reserved' for local investors, if available?
10. Should differential incentives be given to the locals to encourage participation in tourism development?
11. How do you check possible abuses of incentive privileges?

### B. MANPOWER PLANNING

KEY: Nature and extent of present and future manpower and related training requirement of tourism

1. To what extent is manpower planning established?
2. How is it biased towards tourism?
3. To what extent is the private or the public sector involved in this activity?
4. How does the private sector view management problem?
5. What is the nature of labour supply?
6. What types and levels of training do you have?
7. What are the current and planned educational programmes used by the tourism-generated labour force?
8. What are the distributions of skills in broad areas, and what are the implications for tourism development?
9. Is Government sensitised to the shortage problem?
10. What institutions are involved in training?
11. To what extent do these schools train non citizens?
12. What role do international agencies play in training?

- What are their training requirements?
13. What are the manpower problems related to planning and implementation of the objectives concerning the utilised and potential tourism resources?
  14. What steps have been taken to tackle this manpower problem? How effective have these been?
  15. How do these problems reflect/highlight national development policies and aspirations?
  16. How does the private sector undertake its own training?

#### C. THE ACCOMMODATION SUB-SECTOR

1. What kinds of accommodation are there available?
2. What proportion is devoted towards tourists?
3. What is the share of each type?
4. What is the nature of tour pricing?
5. What problems do the hotels have with overseas visitors?
6. What is the extent of 'alternative tourism' accommodation that has been developed?
7. What is the view of hotel association on training: how is it involved in training exercises?
8. How has accommodation grown ?
9. What are the sources of food supply to hotels?
10. To what extent is there a compulsory classification of hotels? Are there any price controls ?
11. What is the nature of government ownership of the hotels, or how are the hotels dominated by foreign investors?

#### D. LAND USE POLICY

KEY : Availability, use, allocation and ownership of land.

1. To what extent is there a land use section relating to tourism development plan?
2. What is the state of land use planning and control?
3. What is the extent of government ownership of land and powers of acquisition?
4. Is there a land use policy?
5. What is the practice of it?
6. What measures are taken to prevent abuse of land policies?
7. Has government had any thoughts on how tourism has conflicted with land ownership.
8. What kind of relationships exists among the various tourism component agencies in the area of land matters?

### APPENDIX 3A : QUESTIONS ON POLICY AREAS

The areas which impinge on tourism policy-making can be divided into four:

The first relates to who should develop the tourism sector? Should it be the government sector, or the private sector?

Secondly, what level - international or domestic - should such development focus on?

Related to the second question above is the issue of scale of development. Whether a large-scale development would be preferred to a small, craft-scale, enterprise, or vice versa?

Finally, a decision has to be made as to whether an integrated, rather than enclave, tourism would be potentially advisable.

APPENDIX 7A | KENYA UTALII COLLEGE STUDY PROGRAMME

COURSE	MINIMUM REQUIREMENT	DURATION	AWARD	COURSE CONTENTS/SUBJECTS TAUGHT
Hotel Management	'A'.L., with credits in Mathematics and English at 'O'.L. In addition students will have a minimum of one Principal subject	4 Years	Diploma	Financial Management, Personnel Administration, Organisation, Decision Making and Planning, Behavioural Science, Economics, Marketing, General Accounts, Statistics, Law, Social Aspects of Tourism, Tourism, Control, Front Office Operations, Food Production and Kitchen Organisation, Food and Beverage Sales and Service, Housekeeping, Maintenance, Languages (French or German), Business Correspondence.
Front Office	'O'.L.	2 Years	Certificate	Front Office Procedures, Front Office Practicals, Guest Accounts and Cashiering, General Accounts, Behavioural Science, Food and Beverage Sales Control, Law, Business Correspondence, German or French, Social Aspects of Tourism, Business Arithmetic.
Food Production	Same	2 Years	Certificate	Individual Stove Cooking, Pastry Practicals, Mass Food Production, A la carte Food Production, Kitchen Organisation, Food Costing and Menu Planning, Hygiene and Nutrition, Business Arithmetic, French, Social Aspects of Tourism.
Housekeeping and Laundry	Same	2 Years	Certificate	Floorings and their upkeep, Basic Interior Design, Setting and Servicing Rooms, Departmental Admin, Laundry Machines and Equipment, Spotting and Drycleaning, Washing and Finishing Processes, Linen Control, Personnel Administration, Preventive Technical Maintenance, Social Aspects of Tourism, Languages

Food & Beverage Service & Sales	Same	1 Year	Certificate	Service Practical, Service Theory, Food and Menu Knowledge, Wine and Bar Knowledge, Social Aspects of Tourism, Hygiene and First Aid, Languages (French and German), Business Arithmetic.
Travel Operations	Same	2 Years	Certificate	Tourism, Touristic World Geography, Travel Agency Professional Technique Tour Operating Professional Techniques, East African Culture and Wildlife, East African Geography, Business Arithmetic, Accounting, Business Correspondence Law, Behavioural Science, Languages (French or German), Social Aspects of Tourism, Economics Law.

Source: Kenya Utalii College

## GAMBIA HOTEL SCHOOL CURRICULUM

### CONDITIONS OF ADMISSION

1. Age: minimum 16 years
2. Secondary Form Four
3. Entrance Examination (English and Mathematics)
4. Interview

### STUDY PROGRAMMES

#### 1. Reception/Hall

\*General Information and Introduction,

\*Reception Technology, Basic Aid and Records, Reservation, Selling, Visitors Accounts, Cash and Banking, Mechanised hotel-billing, Sundry guest service, Control and Statistics

\*Communications: Languages - English, German, French. Correspondence, Typewriting.

\*Practical Training in the School and in Hotels.

#### 2. Housekeeping/Laundry

\*General Information and Introduction

\*Housekeeping Technology Organization, Cleaning methods (rooms and bathrooms, public areas), Linen keeping, Sewing and mending, Ironing, Laundering, Operating Laundry Equipment.

\*Communications: Languages - English, French, German.

\*First Aid and safety precautions.

\*Practical Training in the School and in Hotels.

#### 3. Restaurant/Bar

\*General Information and Introduction

\*Restaurant Bar Technology, Receiving guests and selling Table Service, Proper use and care of equipment, Knowledge of food and menu terms, Knowledge of beverages, Checking, controlling, billing, Safety precautions.

\*Communications: Languages - English, German, French.

#### 4. Cookery/Pastry

\*General Information and Introduction

\*Cookery/Pastry Technology, Methods of cookery and pastry making, Menu planning, Culinary terms, Storing, Safety precautions, Proper use and care of equipment, Hygiene (personal, kitchen, food), Nutrition, Commodities, Preservation, Buying and Costing.

\*Communications: Languages - English, French.

\*Practical Training in the school and in Hotels.

#### DURATION OF COURSES

\* Restaurant/Bar, Cookery/Pastry, Reception: 2 years and 18 months.

\* Housekeeping: 1 year 9 months (36 weeks).

#### AWARD

Certificate according to training field.



CONDITIONS FOR THE AWARD  
OF AN OPTION FOR HOTEL PROJECT  
AT THE TOURISM DEVELOPMENT AREA:

- 1) Proof of your creditworthiness through presentation of statements of assets and properties, business records, profit and loss statements submitted for taxation purposes, bank deposits and bank guarantees or references.
- 2) Indication of sufficient experience in the management and operation of the proposed units or facilities similar to those you are applying for; or adequate proof of arrangements with a person or company with the necessary background as stipulated.
- 3) A statement on how you intend to market the proposed units or enterprise; here you should show proof of any connection existing or proposed contract you have with Tour Operators, Travel Agencies, or with any other organisation for that matter.
- 4) A statement showing how you intend to realise the different stages of the proposed project with an approximate time schedule.
- 5) Acceptance of a certain percentage of Gambian participation.
- 6) Subject to the availability (within 3 months) of these documents, you will be informed of the Board's reaction to your proposed project and assuming the reactions are favourable you will be required to submit the following documents:-
  - a) feasibility study of the proposed project, showing amongst other things, detailed and satisfactory economic analysis of the project with projected annual cash and rate of return,
  - b) financing plan, indicating:-
    - i) resources for financing the plan
    - ii) the proposed lending terms
    - iii) provision of sufficient working capital for the first six months of operation, calculated on the basis of accepted economic analysis for the proposed project,
  - c) confirmation of arrangements for adequate staff training and instruction at least six months prior to scheduled date of commencement of operation.
  - d) submission of detailed plans and drawings prepared by professional and authorised architects and engineers for the proposed project, taking into consideration the following:-
    - i) the building regulations for the Tourism Development Area (TDA)
    - ii) environmental preservation

7. If the Tourism Liaison Board decides to grant you an option, it would be made under the following terms and conditions:-

- Duration of Lease: - 31 Years (renewable)
- Land Premium: - Payable in advance. The Board wishes to know how much you are prepared to offer. But the rate must not be less than D100.00 (One hundred Dalasis) per bed payable only once.
- Land Rent: - Payable in advance at the rate of D100.00 (One hundred Dalasis) per bed per annum. Both premium and rent are subject to periodic review.
- Completion Time: - You will be required to commence construction work not later than six months following a feasibility study and after the submission of acceptable building plans.
- Development Plans: - Your plans have to be in conformity with the Planning and Building Regulations for the Dafuloto Tourism Development Area. These are available at the Physical Planning Department of the Ministry for Local Government. I am also enclosing herewith a copy of our draft Hotel Classification System for your guidance.

8. Before the project becomes operational you would be required to obtain an Operational Licence and a Manager's Licence under the Hotels, Restaurants and Night Clubs Licensing Regulations, 1982.

9. When the project becomes operational you would be required to collect the following taxes for payment to Government:-

- Hotel Bed Tax (at the rate of D3.00 (Three Dalasis) per bed-night).
- Ad Valorem Tax on all bills (at the rate of 5%).

INCENTIVES FOR INVESTORS IN THE HOTEL INDUSTRY INCLUDE,  
AMONGST OTHERS:-

- A tax-free holiday period of about 8 years
- Waiver of duty on the importation of material and equipment not available in The Gambia; this is done under a Development Certificate granted by the Ministry for Economic Planning and Industrial Development
- A quota of expatriate staff if they possess skill you require but cannot find in The Gambia.

There is a big demand for high class accommodation in The Gambia especially if you could also provide sporting facilities including water sports. For such a project there is sufficient land at the Tourism Development Area.

You may submit a written application to:

The Secretary  
The Tourism Liaison Board  
c/o National Tourist Office  
Apollo Hotel Building  
BANJUL

Enclosing a site plan of the area in which you are interested.

30TH APR 1971

STANDARD OF SERVICES AT THE CENTRALISED SERVICES  
AREA OF THE TOURISM DEVELOPMENT AREA:

CLASS "A" SERVICES:

1) Restaurant

- i) Designed on the basis of  $1m^2$ , 90 per client
- ii) Screened from direct view of the interior of the kitchen.
- iii) Good natural light
- iv) Lighting at least  $10w/m^2$
- v) Table d'hotel (or tourist) menu offering a wide choice of local dishes of quality plus "A la Carte" (grand carte) with local and continental dishes. "Specialities du Chef".
- vi) First class choice, cooking and presentation of dishes
- vii) Comprehensive wine list extending from superior quality table wines to some reasonable choice of well-known vintages.
- viii) First class service by selected staff under supervision of qualified manager.
- ix) Uniform: impeccable and original in good taste.
- x) Silver service, first<sup>class</sup> quality cutlery and tableware.
- xi) Interior design and decoration of character.
- xii) Restaurant Manager present throughout meal service.
- xiii) Good quality furniture.
- xiv) Good quality impervious flooring or wall-to-wall carpeting

2. Kitchen:

- i) Carefully designed to allow safe passage between items or equipment.
- ii) Wash wire - proofing on all windows.
- iii) Inspected electricity safety.
- iv) Well ventilated (40 changes of air per hour)
- v) Approved hygienic means of waste disposal
- vi) Adequate sinks with hot and cold water supply and proper drainage.
- vii) Smooth impervious flooring.

3. Store:

a) Foodstore:

- i) To be kept clean and well ventilated
- ii) Good impervious floor tiling

b) Cold Store:

- i) Vegetables  $1^{\circ}C - 4^{\circ}C$
- ii) Dairy products  $1^{\circ}C$  to  $4^{\circ}C$
- iii) Meat:  $1^{\circ}C$  to  $2^{\circ}C$

4 Bar:

- i) Well ventilated
- ii) Adequate glass washing system, with hot and cold water supply and proper drainage
- iii) Comprehensive range of drinks, including some expensive varieties of brands as far as spirits are concerned.
- iv) Services by experienced barmen, cosy atmosphere in good taste
- v) Decoration by professional decorator, using good quality material: good taste discreetly stressing on atmosphere of privacy.

5. Night Clubs:

- i) Designed on the basis of  $1m^2$ , 50 per client
- ii) Night Club has to be sound-proofed.
- iii) Bar has to be of Class "A" Standard

6 Other Facilities:

- i) Adequate toilet facilities for guests, separate for male and female.
- ii) Adequate toilet and "changing" facilities for staff.
- iii) Availability of at least one public telephone.
- iv) Dance floor in restaurant or in night club attached.

3/.....(Class 'B' Services)

CLASS "B" SERVICES

M 1) Restaurants:

- i) Designed on the basis of  $1m^2$ , 50 per place
- ii) Screened from direct view of the interior of the kitchen.
- iii) Good natural light

2. Kitchen:

- i) Carefully designed to allow safe passage between items of equipment.
- ii) Approved electrical/gas safety arrangements
- iii) Approved hygienic means of waste disposal.
- iv) Adequate sinks with hot and cold water supply with proper drainage.
- v) Smooth impervious flooring.

3. Stores:

a) Foodstore:

- i) General store kept clean and well ventilated

b) Cold Store:

- i) Vegetables:  $1^{\circ}C - 4^{\circ}C$
- ii) Dairy products:  $1^{\circ}C - 4^{\circ}C$
- iii) Meat:  $1^{\circ}C - 2^{\circ}C$
- iv) Freezing Store -  $12^{\circ}C$

4. Bar:

- i) Well ventilated
- ii) Adequate glass washing system, with hot and cold water supply and proper drainage.

5. Other Facilities:

- i) Adequate toilet facilities separate for male and female.
- ii) Adequate toilet and "changing" facilities for staff.

TOURISM LIAISON BOARDCONDITIONS GOVERNING AWARD OF AN OPTION AT  
THE TOURISM DEVELOPMENT AREA-CENTRALISED SERVICES AREA (CSA)

- Duration of Lease: - 31 Years
- Land Premium: - (a) D5,300.00 (payable only once for Class "A" Services)  
- (b) D5,000.00 (Payable only once for Class "B" Services)
- Land Rent: - (a) D5,000.00 (Payable annually for Class "A" Services)  
- (b) D2,500.00 (Payable annually for Class "B" Services)
- Project Capacity: - (a) Maximum seating capacity of 250 seats for Class "A" Services  
- (b) Maximum seating capacity of 100 seats for Class "B" Services
- Time of Completion: - Should be fully operational in not more than 15 months from the date the lease is granted
- Period of Option: - 3 months from the date the option is offered by the TLB.

## APPENDIX 10A : FURTHER RESEARCH - FIVE IDEAS

This study compares planning considerations and constraints affecting tourism development in Kenya and The Gambia, and argues how these can potentially assist other developing countries. Also, it points out the possibilities and limits of tourism as a development option. The lack of planning becomes obvious, as the need for integrated and comprehensive planning, as well as setting down of a tourism strategy, has been substantiated.

The analyses have also identified three hypotheses as the building blocks for formulating a tourism development strategy. It may be explained that policy formulation for the tourism sector needs government support, and specific objectives for it to be operational.

The four policy areas covered in this study are illustrative of a comprehensive view to be taken of tourism and its development. Certainly, there are other dimensions which should be explored beyond the ones presented here. Several come to mind.

1. It is generally accepted that the nature and extent of incentives is central to tourism policy-making. There is so far no indication of the magnitude of subsidies offered to incentive-aid investors - whether domestic or foreign. Therefore, future investigations into the tourism industry



as part of international tourism study could examine usefully the 'cost' to a host developing country offering incentives for tourism projects.

2. An offshoot of the above argument is the need to examine whether incentives should be made as macro, rather than micro, aspects of policy.

3. Future study may also explore the possibility for intersectoral linkages, and possibly how governments could encourage these linkages, in order to minimise the need for imports.

4. The role of tour companies in furthering dependency is very import, but a poorly researched aspect of tourism policy planning. It may be worthwhile to consider this issue, and assess the implications for planning.

5. Air transport is not central to this study, and so is not considered. However, we recognise its role in furthering dependency. Therefore, future study of tourism might be of benefit to policy planning if research concentrates on considering the contribution of air transport in tourism promotion.

## BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Adedeji, Adebayo (1976), 'Collective self-reliance in developing Africa: Scope, prospects and problems'. Paper presented at Conference on the Economic Community of West African States, Lagos, 23-27 August.
- Adejuwon, Franklin J. (1986), 'Trends of tourist demand in Africa,' Tourist Review, 41(1): 20-24.
- Ake, Claude (1981), A Political Economy of Africa. Harlow, Essex: Longman.
- Allcock, John B. (1986), 'Yugoslavia's tourist trade: pot of gold or pig in a poke?', Annals of Tourism Research, 13(4): 565-588.
- Ambrose, John (1980), 'Land use and land management problems in Kenya,' in Development Planning in Kenya: Essays on the Planning Process and Policy Issues. eds. Tom Pinfold and Glen Norcliffe, Geographical Monographs, No. 9, Toronto: York University: 101-117.
- Amir, Samir (1973), 'Croissance n'est pas developpement', Development Forum, 2.
- Andronicou, A. (1979), 'Tourism in Cyprus', in de Kadt, E, Tourism: Passport to Development? New York: Oxford University Press:237-264.
- Archer, Brian H. (1976a), 'The anatomy of a multiplier', Regional Studies, 10(1): 71-77.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1976b), Demand Forecasting in Tourism. Bangor: University of Wales Press.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1977), Tourism in the Bahamas and Bermuda. Bangor: University of Wales Press.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1982), 'The value of multipliers and their policy implications', Tourism Management, 3(4): 236-241.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1979), Tourism in the Third World: Some Economic Considerations. Guildford, Surrey: University of Surrey.
- Ascher, Francois(1985), Tourism: Transnational Corporations and Cultural Identities. Paris: U.N.E.S.C.O.

- Aspelin, P.L. 1977 , The anthropological analysis of tourism: indirect tourism and the political economy of the Mamainde of Mato Grosso, Brazil , Annals of Tourism Research 9(3): 135-160.
- Bain, Joe S. (1956). Barriers to New Competition. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press.
- Baker, Michael J. (1976). Marketing Theory and Practice. London: Macmillan.
- Baran, P.A. (1957), The Political Economy of Growth. New York: Monthly Review Press
- Bastin, R. (1984), Small island tourism: development or dependency? , Development Policy Review, 2(1): 79-90.
- Baud-Bovy, Manuel (1982), New concepts in planning for tourism and recreation', Tourism Management, 3(4): 308-313.
- Bauer, P.T. (1972), Dissent on Development Studies and Debates in Development Economics. Boston: Harvard University Press.
- Behrman, J. N. (1969), Some Patterns in the Rise of the Multinational Enterprise. Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina.
- Blanton, David (1979), 'Mapata: social studies for the East African hotel and tourist industry', Journal of Hospitality Education, 15-27.
- Bodlender, J.A. (1982), 'The financing of tourism projects', Tourism Management, 3(4): 77-84.
- Boissevain, Jeremiah (1977), Tourism and development in Malta', Development and Change, 8(4): 528-538.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1979), 'The impact of tourism on a dependent island:Gozo, Malta', Annals of Tourism Research, 6(1): 76-90.
- Bolton, Brian and David Griffiths (1985), 'Tourism', South, 55- 66.
- Boorstin, D.J. (1964), The Image: A Guide to Pseudo-Events in America. New York: Harper and Row.
- Bosselman, F.J. (1978), In the Wake of the Tourist. Washington, D.C.: The Conservation Foundation.

- Britton, Robert A. (1979), 'The image of the Third World in tourism marketing', Annals of Tourism Research, 6:318-329.
- Britton, Stephen G. (1982a), 'The political economy of tourism in the Third World', Annals of Tourism Research, 9(3): 331-358.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1982b), 'International tourism and multinational corporations in the Pacific: the case of Fiji', in The Geography of Multinationals, ed. Taylor, Michael and Nigel Thrift. London: Croom Helm: 252-274.
- Brookfield, H. (1975), Interdependent Development. London: Methuen.
- Brosky-Porges, E. (1981), 'The Grand Tour: travel, an educational device, 1600-1800', Annals of Tourism Research, 8(2): 171-186.
- Bryden, John M. (1973), Tourism and Development: A Case Study of the Commonwealth Caribbean. Cambridge: The University Press.
- \_\_\_\_\_ and Mike Faber (1971), 'Multiplying the tourist multiplier', Social and Economic Studies, 20(1): 61-82.
- Burkhart, A. J. and S. Medlik (1974), Tourism: Past, Present and Future. London: Heinemann.
- Burton, Sir Richard Francis (1860), The Lake Regions of Central Africa, a Picture of Exploration. London: Longman, Green and Roberts.
- Butler, Robert W. (1980), 'The concept of a tourist area cycle of evolution: implications for management of resources', Canadian Geographer, 24(1):5-12.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1978), 'The impact of recreation on lifestyles of rural communities', Wiener Geographische Schrifer, 51: 187-201.
- Cabral, Amilcar (1969), Revolution in Guinea: An African People's Struggle. London: Stage I.
- Campbell, B. (1975), 'Neo-colonialism, economic dependence, and political change: a case study of cotton and textile production in the Ivory Coast, 1960-1970', Review of African Political Economy, 2: 36-53.

- Campbell, David J. (1981), 'Land-use competition at the margins of the rangelands: an issue in development strategies for semi-arid areas', in Glen Norcliff and Tom Pinfeld eds. Planning African Development. London: Croom-Helm: 39-61.
- \_\_\_\_\_ and S.E. Migot-Adholla eds (1981), The Development of Kenya's Semi-Arid Lands. IDS Occasional Papers, 36. Nairobi: IDS, University of Nairobi.
- Carter, J. (1978), Socio-Economic Impact of Tourism in The Gambia Vols. 1-3. Banjul: Tourism Liaison Board.
- Cham, Momodou M.B.O.(1987), Gambia: The Gambia-Tourist Information and Guide Map. Updated for the Ministry of Information and Tourism by Dembadou Enterprises International Ltd.
- Chib, S.N. (1980), 'Financing tourism development: a recipient view', International Journal of Tourism Management, 1(4): 231-237.
- Chisholm, M. (1982), Modern World Development: A Geographical Perspective. London: Hutchinson University Library.
- Cleverdon, Robert (1979), The Economic and Social Impact of International Tourism in Developing Countries. Special Report 60. London: Economist Intelligence Unit.
- Clover, R.A. et. al.(1966), Growth without Development: An Economic Survey of Liberia. Evanston: Northwestern University Press.
- Cohen, Erik (1971), 'Arab boys and tourist girls in a mixed Jewish-Arab community', International Journal of Comparative Sociology, 12(4):217-233.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1978), 'The impact of tourism on the physical environment', Annals of Tourism Research, 5(2): 215-237.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1983a), 'The dynamics of commercialized arts: the Meo and Yao of Northern Thailand', Journal of National Research Council, 15(1): Part II:1-34.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1983b), 'Insiders and outsiders: the dynamics of development of bungalow tourism on the islands of southern Thailand', Human Organization, 27(2): 227-251.

- \_\_\_\_\_ (1984), 'The sociology of tourism: approaches, issues, and findings', Annual Review of Sociology, 10: 373-392.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1982), 'Thai girls and faring men: the edge of ambiguity', Annals of Tourism Research, 9(3): 403-428.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1979), 'A phenomenology of tourist experiences', Sociology, 13(2): 179-201.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1974), 'Who is a tourist?: a conceptual clarification', Sociological Review, 22(4): 527-555.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1972), 'Toward a sociology of international tourism', Social Research, 39(1): 164-182.
- Collier, Paul and Deepak Lal (1986), Labour and Poverty in Kenya, 1900-1980. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
- Commonwealth Secretariat (1986), Vulnerability - Small States in the Global Society. A Report of a Commonwealth Consultative Group. London: Commonwealth Secretariat.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (n.d.), Tourism in Developing Countries. A study of:- Hotel Agreements with multinationals. The direct financial benefits which should arise from tourism. London: Commonwealth Secretariat.
- Crompton, John (1979), 'Motivations for pleasure vacation', Annals of Tourism Research, 6(4): 408-424.
- Croze, Harvey and D.M. Mbuvi (1981), 'Wildlife in the development of dry land', in David Campbell and S.E. Migot-Adholla eds. The Development of Kenya's Semi-Arid Lands. IDS Occasional Paper, 36. Nairobi: IDS, University of Nairobi.
- Dann, G.M.S. (1977), 'Anomie, ego enhancement and tourism', Annals of Tourism Research, 4(4): 184-194.
- Dasman, W.G. (1965), The Economics of Development in Small Countries with Special Reference to the Caribbean. Montreal: McGill University.
- Davis, H. David (1967), 'Investing in tourism', Finance and Development, 4(1): 1-8.
- \_\_\_\_\_ and James A. Simmons (1982), 'World Bank experience with tourism projects', Tourism Management, 3(4):212-217.

- Deith, L.I. (1977), 'The impact of tourism upon the arts and crafts of the Indians in the South-western United States', in Smith, V.L. ed. Hosts and Guests: The Anthropology of Tourism. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press: 173-184.
- Diamond, J. (1977), 'Tourism role in economic development: the case re-examined', Economic Development and Cultural Change, 25: 539-553.
- Diani: A Report to the Government of Kenya for the Development of Tourism at Diani (1975), Nairobi: Kenya Coast Planners Ltd.
- Diop, Cheik Anta and Pius Okigbo (1976), 'Technical Corporation Among African Countries', DP/TCDC/RAF/11.
- Dobbie, Leoni (1977), 'Interpreters and co-ordinators of tourism demand', ITA Bulletin, 3.
- Dos Santos, Theotonio (1970), 'The Structure of Dependence', American Economic Review, 60(2): 231-236.
- Dunning, John H. and Matthew McQueen (1982), 'Multinational Corporations in the international hotel industry', Annals of Tourism Research, 9(1):69-90.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1981), Transnational Corporations in International Tourism. New York: United Nations Centre on Transnational Corporations (ST/CTC/18).
- Dyson-Hudson, N and R. Dyson-Hudson (1982), 'The structure of East African herds and the future of East Africa herders', Development and Change, 13(2).
- Easton, David (1965), A Systems Analysis of Political Life. New York: John Wiley.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1969), 'The new revolution to political sciences', American Political Science Review, 63(4): 1051-1061.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1953), The Political System. New York: Knoff.
- Economic Commission for Africa (ECA) (1978), Social Costs and Benefits of Tourism in Kenya. Joint ECA/WTO first African Regional Conference on 'Tourism and Economic Development', Banjul, The Gambia, 16-19, October, 1978.

- Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP) (1980), Proceedings of the ESCAP/WTO Seminar-Cum Workshop on Investment and Financing of Tourism Development Projects and Related Infrastructures. Phuket, Thailand, 19-25, February.
- Economist Intelligence Unit (1987), 'The Gambia', in Country Profile - Senegal, The Gambia, Guinea-Bissau, Cape Verde, 1986-1987. London: EIU, 42-62.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1979), Kenya: Study of Pricing Policy for Tourism.
- Volume 1: Annex I: 'The tourist industry in Kenya'
- Volume 2: Annex II: 'Kenya as a destination for long-haul tourism from major generating countries'
- Volume 3: Annex III: 'The role of Government'  
Annex IV: 'The economics of tourism'
- Volume 4: 'Final Report'  
London: E.I.U.
- Edgell, David L. (1987), 'The formulation of tourism policy - a managerial approach', in Travel, Tourism, and Hospitality Research - A Handbook for Managers and Researchers. eds. J.R. Brent Richie and Charles R. Goeldner. New York: John Wiley: 23-33.
- Eisenstadt, S.N. (1966), Modernization: Protest and Change. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Emmerji, Louis (1983), 'Presidential Statement: A Policy Framework for EADI during the 1980s', European Association of Development Research and Training Institutions (EADI): Programme of Work - A European Perspective on Development Studies in the 80s. The Hague, Tilburg Development Research Institute, The Netherlands.
- Erbes, Robert (1973), International Tourism and the Economy of Developing Countries. Paris: OECD.
- Esh, Tina and Illith Rosenblum (1975), Tourism in Developing Countries - Trick or Treat? A Report from The Gambia. Research Report 31. Uppsala, Sweden: Scandinavian Institute of African Studies.
- Facht, J. (1976), 'The economic effects of tourism in The Gambia'. Unpublished report.



- Falconner, J.A. (1986), The Development of the Kenya Tourist Trade. Unpublished B.A. Project in Catering, Oxford Polytechnic.
- Fanon, Frantz (1967), The Wretched of the Earth. Harmondsworth: Penguin Books.
- Fish, Mary (1978), Socio-Economic Impact of Tourism in The Gambia - Final Report Volume V. Banjul: Tourism Liaison Board.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1982), 'Taxing international tourism in West Africa', Annals of Tourism Research, 9(1):91-103.
- Forster, John (1964), 'The sociological consequences of tourism', International Journal of Comparative Sociology, 5(2): 217- 227.
- Frank, A.G.(1977), 'World crisis and underdevelopment', Contemporary Crises, 1:243-260.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1978), Dependent Accumulation and Underdevelopment. London: Macmillan.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1981), Crisis in The Third World. London: Heinemann.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1969), Capitalism and Underdevelopment in Latin America. New York: Monthly Review Press.
- Friedmann, J. (1980), 'An alternative development, and communalistic society: some principles for a possible future', in Development Strategies in the Eighties. ed. Friedmann, J, E. Wheelwright and J. Connell. Development Studies Colloquium, Monograph 1, Sydney, Australia.
- Galaty, John (1981), 'Land and livestock among Kenyan Maasai', in Change and Development in Nomadic and Pastoral Societies.
- Gambia, Republic of The (1987), Budget Speech. Sessional Paper 2 by Hon. Sheriff Saikouba-Sisay, Banjul: Ministry of Finance and Trade.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1983), Five-Year Plan for Economic and Social Development, 1981/82-1985/86. Banjul: Government Printer.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1985), Tourism Statistics 1984/85. Banjul: Central Statistics Department.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1977), An Investor's Guide to The Gambia. Banjul: Ministry of Commerce and Industry.

- \_\_\_\_\_ (1984), Quarterly Survey of Employment and Earnings. Banjul: Central Statistics Department.
- \_\_\_\_\_ : Ministry of Local Government, and Deutsche Gesellschaft furhnische Zusammenarbeit (GTZ) (1986), Physical Development Plan for Greater Banjul Area. Banjul: Department of Physical Planning.
- Gamper, J.A. (1981), 'Tourism in Austria: case study of the influence of tourism on ethnic relations', Annals of Tourism Research, 8(3): 432-446.
- Gearing, C.E., N.N. Swart, and T. Var (1976), Planning for Tourism Development. New York: Praeger.
- Gee, C.Y., D.J.L. Choy, and J.C. Makens (1984), The Travel Industry. Westport, CT.: AVI.
- Getambu, Anthony S.N. (1982), Marketing of Tourism in Kenya. Unpublished MBA Dissertation, University of Bradford.
- Getz, Donald (1983), 'Capacity to absorb tourism: concepts and implications for strategic planning', Annals of Tourism Research, 10(2): 239-263.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1982), 'A rationale and methodology for assessing capacity to absorb tourism', Ontario Geographer, 19:92-102.
- Gibson, James L. et. al. (1976), Organization: Behavior, Structure, Processes. Dallas, Texas: Business Publications, Inc.
- Godfrey, Martin (1986), Kenya to 1990: Prospects for Growth. Special Report 1052. London: EIU.
- Gormsen, Erdman (1984), 'The development of international tourism and its impact on socio-economic and cultural change in Third World countries', Paper Working Group Tourism and Development IVth General Conference European Association of Development Research and Training Institute (EADI), Madrid, 3-7 September.
- Government Working Party (1971), Proposed Tourist Resort on the Kenya Coast. Nairobi
- Graburn, N.H.H. (1976a), 'Eskimo art: the eastern Canadian Arctic', in Graburn, N.H.H. ed., Ethnic and Tourist Arts: Cultural Expressions from the Fourth World. Berkeley: University of California Press: 1-32.

- \_\_\_\_\_ (1976b), 'Introduction: arts of the fourth world', in Graburn, N.H.H. ed., Ethnic and Tourist Arts: Cultural Expressions from the Fourth World. Berkeley: University of California Press.
- Gray, H. Peter (1982), 'The economics of international tourism', Annals of Tourism Research, 9(1): 1-125 (Special Issue).
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1970), International Travel-International Trade. Lexington, Mass:Heath Lexington Books.
- Gray, C.J., J.K. Stringer and P. Williamson (1984), 'Policy change: an analytical framework', Paper presented at Policy Science Association Annual Conference, University of Newcastle, April, 1984.
- Greenwood, Davyyd J. (1972), 'Tourism as an agent of change: a Spanish Basque case', Ethnology, 11(1): 80-91.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1977), 'Culture by the pound: an anthropological perspective on tourism as cultural commoditization', in Smith, V.L. ed., Hosts and Guests: the Anthropology of Tourism. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press: 129-138.
- Guba, Egon G. (1984), 'The effects of definitions of policy on the nature and outcomes of policy analysis', Educational Leadership, 42:63-70.
- Gunn, Clare A. (1979), Tourism Planning. New York: Crane, Russak and Co., Inc.
- Hanson, Susan B. (1983), 'Public policy analysis: some recent developments and current problems', Policy Studies Review, 12(1): 14-42.
- Harrell-Bond, Barbara (1978), 'A window on an outside world: tourism as development in The Gambia', American Universities Field Staff Reports. Hanova, New Hampshire, 19: 1-23.
- Hawkes, John E.Y. (1986), 'Tourism planning and development', in Planning for Tourism in Developing Countries. Proceedings of Seminars B + F held at the University of Sussex, 14-17 July 1986. Planning and Transport Research and Computation (International) Co. Ltd.: 79-85.
- Heclo, H. (1972), 'Policy analysis', British Journal of Political Science, 2.

- Heeley, John (1981), 'Planning for tourism in Britain', Town Planning Review, 52:61-79.
- Helleiner, G.K. (1972), 'Beyond growth rates and plan volumes - planning for Africa in the 1970s', The Journal of Modern African Studies, 10.
- Hemmingway, E. (1963), Green Hills of Africa. New York: Scribner.
- Henderson, D.M. and R.L. Causins (1975), The Economic Impact of Tourism - A Case Study in Greater Tayside. Edinburgh: Tourism Recreation Research Unit.
- Heraty, Margaret J. (1986), 'Surface transport for tourism in developing countries', in Planning for Tourism in Developing Countries. Proceedings of Seminars B+F held at the Planning and Transport Researchg and Computation (International) Co. Ltd. Annual meeting, University of Sussex, 14-17 July 1986: 73-110.
- Hermanson ,Tormod (1972), 'Development poles and development centres in national and regional development', in Kuklinski, Antoni ed., Growth Poles and Growth Centres in Regional Planning. Paris: Mouton and Company: 1-68.
- Heyer, J., J.K. Maitha, and W.M. Senga eds. (1976), Agricultural Development in Kenya: An Economic Assessment. Nairobi: Oxford University Press.
- Hirschmann, Albert (1958), The Strategy of Economic Development. New Haven: Yale University Press.
- Hogwood, B.W. and L. Gunn (1984), Policy Analysis for the Real World. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Hoivik, Tord and Turid Heiberg (1980), 'Centre-periphery tourism and self-reliance', International Social Science Journal, 32(1): 69-98.
- Holm-Petersen, Erik (1978), Consequences of Mass Tourism in Developing Countires: Case Studies of The Seychelles and The Gambia. Copenhagen: Hoff and Overguard.
- van Houts, Didier (1979a), 'The non-economic impact of international tourism in developing countries: a review of recent literature', Travel Research Journal (WTO), 1(1): 81-88.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1979b), 'Some characteristics of tourism employment in developing countries', in Manpower in Tourism. Berne, Suisse: International Association of Scientific Experts in Tourism (AIEST). Report presented at the 29th Congress

- held 2-8 September 1979 in Bulgaria, Vol. 20: 114-119.
- Hughes, Anthony (1973), 'Does Africa want tourism?', Africa: An International Business, Economic and Political Quarterly, 22:28-31.
- Hunter, J.A. (1952), Hunter. New York: Harper and Row.
- Hutchful, E. (1979), 'A tale of two regimes: imperialism, the military, and class in Ghana', Review of African Political Economy, 14: 36-55.
- International Labour Organisation (1987), Kenya: Employment Generation in the Hotel, Catering and Tourism Sector. Nairobi: ILO.
- International Tourism Quarterly (1982), 'World tourism trends in 1981', International Tourism Quarterly, 1:1.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1983), 'National Report 85: The Gambia', International Tourism Quarterly, 3:17-26.
- International Union of Official Travel Organisation (IUOTO) (1972), Economic Review of World Tourism, 14: 36-55.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1975), The Impact of International Tourism on the Economic Development of Developing Countries. Geneva: IUOTO.
- Jackson, J.T. (1973), 'Problems of tourist industry development on the Kenya Coast', Geography, 58: 62-65.
- Jacobs, A. (1980), 'Pastoral Maasai and tropical rural development', in R.H. Bates and M. Loch ed., Agricultural Development in Africa. New York: Praeger.
- Jafari, Jafar (1978), 'Study of tourism within the context of the social sciences', in Planning for Tourism in the 80s. Berne, Suisse, International Association of Scientific Experts in Tourism (Aiest), 19:338-346.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1977), 'Editor's Page', Annals of Tourism Research, 5:8.
- Jameson, Kenneth P. (1982), 'A critical examination of "The Patterns of Development"', The Journal of Development Studies, 18(4): 431-446.
- Jenkins, C.L. (1982a), 'The effects of scale in tourism projects in developing countries', Annals of Tourism Research, 9(2): 229-249.

- \_\_\_\_\_ (1982b), 'The use of investment incentives for tourism projects in developing countries', Tourism Management, 3(2): 91-97.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1980a), 'Education for tourism policy makers in developing countries', International Journal of Tourism Management, 1(4): 238-242.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1980b), 'Tourism policies in developing countries: a critique', International Journal of Tourism Management, 1(1): 36-48.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1986), 'Tourism policy and planning objectives', Unpublished paper presented to a Joint UNDP/WTO Regional Seminar/Workshop on 'Tourism Training' held in the Republic of the Maldives, September, 1986.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1987), 'Manpower planning in tourism', Unpublished lecture given to WTO/UNDP 'Tourism Planning Course' in Colombo, Sri Lanka, September, 1987.
- Jenkins, C.L. and B.M. Henry (1982), 'Government involvement in tourism in developing countries', Annals of Tourism Research, 9(3): 499-521.
- Jenkins, W.I. (1978), Policy Analysis. London: Martin Roberston.
- Jomo, R.B. (1987), Indigenous Enterprise in Kenya's Tourism Industry. Geneva: Intineraires Etudes de Developpemnet, Institut Universitare d'Etudes de Developpment.
- Jursa, Paul E. and James E. Winkates (1974), 'Tourism as a mode of development. Issue: A Quarterly Journal of Africanist Opinion, 4(1): 45-49.
- de Kadat, Emanuel ed. (1979a), Tourism: Passport to Development? New York: Oxford University Press.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1979b), 'Social planning for tourism in the developing countries', Annals of Tourism Research, 7(1): 36-48.
- Kasper, C. (1978), 'Tourism planning for the eighties', in Planning for Tourism in the 80s. Berne, Suisse: International Association of Scientific Experts in Tourism (AIEST), Vol. 19: 14-17.
- Kamarck, Andrew M. (1976), 'Sub-Saharan Africa in the 1980s: an economic profile', in Africa: From Mystery to Maze. ed. Kitchen, Helen, Lexington, Massachusetts: Lexington Books: 183-184.

- Kelsh, John T. (1983), 'Government planning for tourism' in F. Rajotte. ed. The Impact of Tourism Development on the Pacific. Peterborough: Trent University: 158-179.
- Kenya, Republic of (1975), Statement on the Future of Wildlife Management Policy in Kenya. Sessional Paper 3. Nairobi: Government Printer.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1977/1985), 'The Wildlife Conservation and Management Act', Laws of Kenya. Nairobi: Government Printer.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1967), 'The Kenya Tourist Development Corporation Act', The Laws of Kenya. Nairobi: Government Printer.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1976), Appraisal of the Wildlife and Tourism Project. Report 1022-KE. Nairobi: Tourism Projects Department.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1987), Economic Survey. Nairobi: Central Bureau of Statistics, Ministry of Economic Planning and Industrial Development.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1965), African Socialism and its Application to Planning in Kenya. Sessional Paper 10. Nairobi: Government Printer.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1983), Development Plan: 1984-1988. Nairobi: Government Printer.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1986), Economic Management for Renewed Growth. Sessional Paper 1. Nairobi: Government Printer.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1986), Statistical Abstract. Nairobi: Central Bureau of Statistics, Ministry of Planning and National Development.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1983), Kenya Official Handbook. Nairobi: Government Printer.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1979), Development Plan 1979-1983. Nairobi: Government Printer.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1981), Kenya - the Gateway to Africa: Guidelines to Investors. Nairobi: Ministry of Industry.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1981), National Food Policy. Sessional Paper 4. Nairobi: Government Printer.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1982), Development Prospects and Policies. Sessional Paper 4. Nairobi: Government Printer.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1980), Economic Prospects and Policies. Sessional Paper 4. Nairobi: Government Printer.

- \_\_\_\_\_ (1983), Report of the Presidential Committee on Unemployment 1982/83 (Wanjigi Commission). Nairobi: Government Printer.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1971), 'Hotels and Restaurants Act of 1971', in Laws of Kenya. Nairobi: Government Printer.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1933), Report of the Kenya Land Commission (Carter Commission). Nairobi: Government Printer
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1945), Land Utilization and Settlement: Sessional Paper 8.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1976), Kenya: Agents' Sales Manual 1976. Nairobi: Kenya Tourist Development Corporation (KTDC), Ministry of Tourism and Wildlife.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1986), General Information. Nairobi: Kenya Utalii College.
- Khan, B. Zorina (1983), 'Overview on the sociology of tourism in developing countries', Bulletin of Eastern Caribbean Affairs, 9(2): 6-14.
- Kilby, Peter (1969), Industrialisation in an Open Economy: Nigeria 1945-1966. Cambridge: University of Cambridge.
- Koch, Alfred (1978), 'General approach of tourism planning', in Tourism Planning for the Eighties. Report presented at 28th Congress of the International Association of Scientific Experts in Tourism (AIEST) held in Egypt, 1975, 19:18-27.
- Krapf, Ludwig (1860,1968), Travels, Researches and Missionary Labours During an Eighteen Years Residence in Eastern Africa. With portraits and illustrations of scenery and costume. London: Trubner and Co. reprinted by F. Cass, 1968.
- Lanfant, Marie-Francoise (1980), 'Introduction: tourism in the process of internationalization', International Social Science Journal, 32(1): 14-43.
- Langdon, Steven (1975), 'Multinational corporations, taste transfer, and underdevelopment: a case study from Kenya', Review of African Political Economy, 2: 12-35.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1974), 'The political economy of dependence; note towards analysis of multinational corporations in Kenya', Journal of East African Research and Development, 123-159.



- Lasswell, H.D. (1958), Politics: Who Gets What, When, and How? Cleveland: Meridian.
- Leiper, Neil (1979), 'The framework of tourism: towards a definition of tourism, tourists, and the tourist industry', Annals of Tourism Research, 6(4): 390-407.
- Lent, George H. (1967), 'Tax incentives for investment in developing countries', IMF Staff Papers, 14: 247-321.
- Leontief, W. (1966), Input-Output Economics. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Levitt, Kari and Iqbal Gulati (1970), 'Income effect of tourist spending: mystification multiplied: a critical comment on the Zinder Report', Social and Economic Studies, 19(3): 326-343.
- Livingstone, David (1874), The Last Journals of David Livingstone. London: S. Murray.
- Lukes, S. (1974), Power: a Radical View. London: Macmillan.
- Mabogunje, A.L. (1980), The Development Process: A Spatial Perspective. London: Hutchinson University Library.
- MacCannell, Dean (1976), The Tourist: A New Theory of the Leisure Class. New York: Schocken.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1973), 'Staged authenticity: arrangements of social space in tourist settings', American Journal of Sociology, 79(3): 589-603.
- Machlis, Gary E. and William R. Burgh, Jr. (1983), 'Relations between strangers: cycles of structure and meaning in tourist systems', The Sociological Review, New Series, 31: 666-692.
- Majone, G. (1975), 'The feasibility of social policies', Policy Sciences, 6.
- Marfurt, Edith (1983), 'Tourism and the Third World: dream or nightmare?', Swiss Review of World Affairs, 33(4): 14-20.
- Marsh, John S. (1975), 'Tourism and development: the East African case', Alternatives, 5: 15-21.
- Martin, Bradly Esmond (1973), The History of Malindi. Nairobi: East African Literature Bureau

- Martyne, Howe (1970), 'International tourism: public attitudes and government policies', Dalhousie Review, L(50):40-54.
- Mascarenhas, Ophelia C. (1971), 'Tourism in East Africa - a bibliographical essay', Current Bibliography on African Affairs, 4(5): 315-326.
- Mathieson, Alister and Geoffrey Wall (1982), Tourism: Economic, Physical and Social Impacts. London: Longman.
- Matthews, Harry G. (1978), International Tourism - A Political and Social Impacts. Cambridge, Mass: Schenkman.
- McKee, David L. (1985), 'Tourism as a vehicle for Third World development', Foreign Trade Review, 20(3): 163-172.
- Mead, Lawrence M. (1983), 'A dialogue on economics, political science, and public policy - a meaning for public policy', Policy Studies Journal, 12(2):247-250.
- Meidan, Arthur (1984), 'The marketing of tourism', Service Industries Journal, 4:166-186.
- Meinertzhagen, Richard (1957), Kenya Diary, 1902-1906. Edinburgh: Oliver and Boyd.
- Middleton, Victor (1974), Tourism Policy in Britain. London: Economist Intelligence Unit.
- Mier, Gerald M. ed. (1964), Leading Issues in Development Economics. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Migot-Adholla, S.E. (1982), 'Toward alternative tourism in Kenya', Development and Socio-economic Progress, 6: 49-64.
- \_\_\_\_\_ and Katama G.C. Mkangi and Joseph Mbindyo (1982), Study of Tourism in Kenya: With Emphasis on the Attitudes of Residents of the Kenya Coast. IDS Consultancy Report 7. Nairobi: Institute for Development Studies, Nairobi Univ.
- Mill, Robert C. and Alastair M. Morrison (1985), The Tourism System: An Introductory Text. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc.
- Miller, Norman N. (1982), 'Wildlife - wild death: Kenya's man-animal equation', Univeristies Field Staff International 1. Hanova, New Hampshire.

- Miller, Marc L. and Robert B. Ditton (1986), 'Travel, Tourism and Marine Affairs', Coastal Zone Management Journal, 14(1/2): 1-19.
- Mitchell, Frank (1970), 'The Value of tourism in East Africa', Eastern African Economic Review, 2(1): 1-2.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1968), The Costs and Benefits of Tourism in Kenya. Report prepared for the Kenya Tourist Development Corporation. Nairobi: Institute for Development Studies, University of Nairobi.
- Ministry of Labour/Employment Productivity Department (Kenya) (1974), 'Towards a long-term plan for industrial training', Internal mimeograph.
- Ministry of Overseas Development (1979), A Guide to the Economic Appraisal of Projects in Developing Countries. London: Her Majesty's Stationary Office.
- Mooney, P.R. (1979), Seeds of the Earth: A Private or Public Resources. London: International Coalition for Development Action.
- Morawetz, David (1977), 'Twenty-five years of economic development', Finance and Development, 14: 10.
- Murphy, Peter E. (1985), Tourism: A Community Approach. London: Methuen.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1983), 'Tourism as a community industry - an ecological model of tourism development', Tourism Management, 4(3): 183-193.
- Nagenda, John (1969), 'Parading the primitive to woo tourists', African Development, 3(8): 15.
- Nash, Dennison (1977), 'Tourism as a form of imperialism', in Hosts and Guests: The Anthropology of Tourism. ed. Valene L. Smith, Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press: 33-47.
- New African (1987), 'Tourism: casting a wider net', New African, 243: 32
- Ngutter, Larry G. K. (1981), 'Kenya government policy in semi arid areas', in David Campbell and S.E. Migot Adholla eds. The Development of Kenya's Semi Arid Lands. IDS Occasional Paper 36. Nairobi: IDS, Univeristy of Nairobi.
- Nicholls, L.L. (1976), 'Tourism and crime', Annals of Tourism Research, 3: 176-182

- N'Jie, Makaireh Alien (1979), Vocational and Technical Education in The Gambia: The Road Ahead - a Comparative Study. Unpublished dissertation for the M.Ed. degree of the University of Sheffield.
- N'Jie, Omar N.C. (1981), Technical and Vocational Training Needs Survey - Part 1. Banjul: The Directorate of National Vocational Training.
- Nkari, Isaac Micheni (1985), The Marketing of Kenya's Tourist Attractions. M.B.A. Dissertation. University of Nairobi.
- Noronha, Raymond (1977), Social and Cultural Dimensions of Tourism: A Review of the Literature in English. Washington, DC: World Bank Draft Working Paper 326.
- Nurkse, Ragnar (1953), Problems of Capital Formation in Underdeveloped Countries. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Odegi-Awuondo, C. (1982), 'Wildlife conservation and decline of pastoralism in Kenya', African Journal of Sociology, 2(2): 74-83.
- OECD: Group of Experts on Environment and Tourism (1980), The Impact of Tourism on Environment. Paris: OECD.
- OECD Interfutures (1979), Capital Goods: Structural Evolution and World Prospects. Paris: Development Centre.
- O'Grady, Ron (1981), Third World Stopover: The Tourism Debate. Geneva: World Council of Churches.
- Ojany, F.F. and R.B. Ogendo, (1972/85), Kenya: A Study in Physical and Human Geography. Nairobi: Longman.
- Okoth-Ogendo, H.W.O. (1981), 'Land ownership and land distribution in Kenya's large-farm areas', in Papers on the Kenyan Economy: Performance, Problems and Policies. ed. Tony Killick. Nairobi: Heinemann: 329-338.
- Ollawa, Patrick E. (1983), 'The political economy of development: a theoretical reconsideration of some unresolved issues', African Studies Review, 26(1): 125-155.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1977), 'On a dynamic model for rural development in Africa', Journal of Modern African Studies, 15(3): 401-423.

- \_\_\_\_\_ (1979), Participatory Democracy in Zambia: The Political Economy of National Development. Ilfracombe, Devon.
- Paelinck, Jean (1965), 'La theorie du developpement regional polarise', Cahiers de l'Institute de Science Economique Appliquee, Series L(15).
- Parker, Ian S.C. (1969), 'The marketing of East African wildlife products', Animal Products Society, Kenya: 2.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1968), 'The commercial exploitation of wildlife', Animals Products Society Kenya, 1.
- Peake, Robert Edmund (1984), Tourism and Alternative Worlds: The Social Construction of Reality in Malindi Town, Kenya. Unpublished Ph.D. thesis, School of Oriental and African Studies, Univeristy of London.
- Perez, Louis A. (1973), 'Aspects of underdevelopment: tourism in West Indies', Science and Society, 37(4): 473-480.
- Peters, Michael (1969), International Tourism: the Economics and Development of the International Tourist Trade. London: Hutchinson.
- Pizam, Abraham (1978), 'Tourism's impact: the social costs to the destination community as perceived by its residents', Journal of Travel Research, 16(4): 8-12.
- \_\_\_\_\_ and Andy Milman (1984), 'The social impacts of tourism', UNDEP Industry and Environment, 7(1): 11-14.
- \_\_\_\_\_ , Y. Neumann, and A. Reiche (1978), 'Dimensions of tourism satisfaction with a destination area', Annals of Tourism Research, 3(3): 314-322.
- Poats, Rutherford M. (1985), 'Development :lessons learned', The OECD Observer, 137:3-9.
- Pressman, Jeffrey L. and Aaron Widalvsky (1979), Implementation...Berkeley: University of California.
- Rajotte, F. (1983), 'The role of tourism in African development: the case of Kenya', Indian Geographical Studies Research Bulletin, 15: 1-  
: York  
University.
- Richter, Linda K. and William L. Richard (1985), 'Policy choices in South Asian tourism development', Annals of Tourism Research, 12(2): 201-217.

- Richards, Gareth (1980), 'Planning for the future development of the tourist sector in Kenya', in Development Planning in Kenya: Essays on the Planning Process and Policy Issues. eds. Tom Pinfold and Glen Norcliffe, Geographical Monographs 9:141-156. Ontario, Canada: York University.
- Richter, Linda K. and William L. Richard (1985), 'Policy choices in South Asian tourism development', Annals of Tourism Research, 12(2): 201-217.
- Robie, David (1984), 'Focus on small states: New Zealand trouble-shooting force for ocean region', Commonwealth: 166-167.
- Roberts, B. (1978), Cities of Peasants: the Political Economy of Urbanization in the Third World. London: Edward Arnold.
- Rodenburg, E.E. (1980), 'The effects of scale in economic development: tourism in Bali', Annals of Tourism Research, 7(2): 177-196.
- Rodney, Walter (1981), 'Problems of Third World development', Ufahamu, 11(1): 115-142.
- Rogalsky, D.R. (1980), Wildlife Paying Its Way: Tourism as a Justification for Wildlife Conservation. 6th Africa Wildlife Conference Proceedings.
- Roosevelt, Theodore (1909), African Game Trails: An Account of the African Wanderings of an American Hunter-Naturalist. London: Syndicate Publishing Company.
- Rose, Richard (1985), 'The programme approach to the growth of government', British Journal of Political Science, 15(1).
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1984a), 'Comparative policy analysis: the programme approach', Studies in Public Policy, 138.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1984b), Understanding Big Government: the Programme Approach. London: Sage.
- Rosentein-Rodan, P.N. (1958), 'Problems of industrialization of Eastern and South-Eastern Europe', in The Economics of Underdevelopment. eds. A.N. Agarwala and S.P. Singh. London: Oxford University Press.
- Rostow, W.W. (1960), The Stages of Economic Growth: A Non-Communist Manifesto. Cambridge: University Press.

- Rothman, R.A. (1978), 'Residents and transients: community reaction to seasonal visitors', Journal of Travel Research, 16(3): 8-13.
- Roxborough, Ian (1976), 'Dependency theory in the sociology of development: some theoretical problems', West African Journal of Sociology and Political Science, 1(2): 116-133.
- Sadler, Peter G. and B.N. Archer (1974), 'The economic impact of tourism in developing countries', in Tourism in Africa and the Management of Related Resources. Edinburgh: Centre of African Studies, University of Edinburgh: 11-27.
- Sagnia, Sutay Kali (1987), 'Land use and physical planning in The Gambia: concepts, scope, technique/methodology and application', Paper Presented to Peoples Progressive Party Youth Leadership Training Workshop. Banjul: 18-28 April.
- Sangmeister, Hartman (1983), 'World development indicators: a cumbersome attempt to measure richness and poverty', Development and Cooperation, 1: 11-12.
- Sautter, Herman (1985), 'Underdevelopment through isolationism?: dependency theory in retrospect', Intereconomics, 20:180-187.
- Schillings, C. G. (1906), Flashlight and Rifle: a Record of Hunting Adventures... Translated from German by Frederic Whyte. London: Hutchinson and Co.
- Service World International (1974), 'How the World Bank finances hotels and tourism', Service World International, 10: 13-18.
- Sessa, Alberto (1983), Tourism Development: Research, Theory and Policy. Rome: Agnesotti.
- Sethna, R. J. and B.O. Richard (1978), 'U.S. Virgin Islands' perceptions of tourism', Journal of Travel Research, 17(1): 30-31.
- Shelp, Ronald Kent (1981), Beyond Industrialisation: Ascendancy of the Global Service Economy. New York: Praeger.
- Simon, Noel (1962), Between the Sunlight and the Thunder: the Wild Life of Kenya. London: Collins.
- Smith, V.L. ed. (1977), Hosts and Guests: The Anthropology of Tourism. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press.

- Smith, Michael and Louis Turner (1973), 'Some aspects of the sociology of tourism', Society and Leisure, 3: 55-71.
- Soldatenko, Michael (1982), 'An overview of development theories (since the 1960s)', South Asia Bulletin, 2(2): 35-47.
- Spanoudis, Christos (1982), 'Trends in tourism planning and development', Tourism Management, 3(4): 314-318.
- Speke, John Hanning (1863), Journal of the Discovery of the Source of the Nile. Edinburgh and London: W. Blackwood and Sons.
- Stanley, Sir, Henry Morton (1890), In Darkest Africa. London: S. Low and Marston, Searle, Rivington.
- Stanley, William R. (1979), 'The Gambia looks away from Sweden', in Tourism and Borders. Frankfurt: Institut für Wirtschaft - und Sozial Geographie der Univ. 31: 349-351.
- Stanley-Price, M. (1981), 'Pastoralism and ranching', in David Campbell and S.E. Migot-Adholla eds., The Development of Kenya's Semi-Arid Lands. IDS Occasional Papers 36. Nairobi University.
- Stansfield, C. (1978), 'Atlantic City and the resort cycle', Annals of Tourism Research, 5(2): 238-251.
- Stoever, William A. (1982), 'Endowments, priorities, and policies: an analytical scheme for the formulation of developing country policy towards foreign investment', Columbia Journal of World Business, 17(3): 3-15.
- Summary, Rebecca Moeller (1983), The Role of Tourism in the Economic Growth and Development of Kenya and Barbados: A Comparative Study. Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, University of Illinois, Urbana-Champaign.
- Sunkei, Oswaldo (1977), 'The development of development thinking', IDS Bulletin, 8 March.
- Swain, M.B. (1977), 'Cuna women and ethnic tourism: a way to persist and an avenue to change', in Smith, V.L. ed., Hosts and Guests: The Anthropology of Tourism. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press.
- Swara: The Magazine of the East Africa Wildlife Society (1982), 'Editorial', 5(4).



- Szentes, T. (1976), 'Socio-economic effects of two patterns of foreign capital investments with special reference to East Africa', in Gutkind, P.C.W. and I. Wallerstein eds., The Political Economy of Contemporary Africa. Beverly Hills, California: Sage: 261-290.
- Thain, Colin (1987), 'Implementing economic policy: an analytical framework', Policy and Politics, 15(2): 67-75.
- Theuns, H.L. (1984), The Emergence of Research on Third World Tourism. Research Memo. 162. Tilburg, The Netherlands: Faculty of Economics, Tilburg University.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1987), 'Government action and tourism sector development in the Third World: a planning approach', Tourist Review, 42(2):14-19.
- Tidsell, C.A. (1984), 'Seasonality in tourism and the desirability of evening out tourist demand', Economic Activity, 27(4): 13-17.
- Thusty, V. and M. Francfort (1972), 'The essential of tourism management and the manpower problem', The Tourist Review(Revue de Tourisme): 152-154.
- Torre, Jose de la (1974), 'Foreign Investment and export dependency', Economic Development and Cultural Change, 23(1): 133-150.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1972/74), 'Marketing factors in manufactured exports from developing countries', in Wells, Louis Jr.: The Product Life Cycle and International Trade. Boston: Division of Research, Graduate School of Business Administration, Harvard University, 1972/74: 227-259.
- Tourist Consult (1979), 'Evolution of training provided by Kenya Utalii College, Nairobi', Tourist Consult Working Paper, August.
- Transport and Communication Bulletin for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP), (1979), 'Guidelines for the preparation of a plan for the development of tourism within the ASEAN Region', Transport and Communication Bulletin, 53: 55-62.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1978), 'The formulation of basic concepts and guidelines for preparation of tourism', Transport and Communication Bulletin, 52: 33-40.

- Travis, Anthony S. (1985), 'The need for policy action (internationally in the field of tourism planning)', Occasional Papers, Centre for Urban and Regional Studies, University of Birmingham, 12: 95-114.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1984), 'Social and cultural aspects of tourism', Industry and Environment, 7(1): 22-25.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1982), 'Managing the environmental and cultural impacts of tourism and leisure development', Tourism Management, 3(4): 256-262.
- Turner, Louis (1976), 'The international division of leisure: tourism in the Third World', World Development, 4(3): 253-260.
- \_\_\_\_\_ and John Ash (1975), The Golden Hordes. London: Constable.
- United Nations (1975), Economic Growth and Main Streams of Production: Some Basic Problems in Hard-Core Developing Countries. (E/AC.54/L.86), New York: United Nations.
- United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (1973), Elements of Tourism Policy in Developing Countries. Geneva: UNCTAD.
- United Nations Conference on Trade and Development/International Civil Aviation Organisation(UNDP/ICAO) (1977), Studies to Determine the Contribution that Civil Aviation Can Make to the Development of the National Economies of African States. Canada: UNDP/ICAO Project RAF/74/021 Final Report, 'Tourism': 69-85.
- United Nations Economic and Social Council (UNECA) (1977), Survey of Economic and Social Conditions in Africa 1976.E/CN.14/654Parts 1 & 2, Addis Ababa: UNECA.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1986), Economic and Social Conditions in Africa, 1984- 1985. E/ECA/CM.12/5, Addis Ababa: UNECA.
- United Nations Education, Scientific, and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) (1976), 'The effects of tourism on socio-cultural values', Annals of Tourism Research, 4(2): 78-105.
- United Nations Institute for Training and Research (UNITAR) (1969), Status and Problems of Very Small States and Territories. New York: UNITAR.

- Van Meter, D.S. and C.E. Van Horn (1975), 'The policy implementation process: a conceptual framework', Administration and Society, 6(4).
- Vernon, Raymond (1966), 'International investment and international trade in the product cycle', Quarterly Journal of Economics, 80(2): 190-207.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1977), Storm Over the Multinationals. Cambridge, Mass: Harvard University Press.
- \_\_\_\_\_ and L.T. Wells (1976), Economic Environment and International Business. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Vukonic, B. et. al. (1978), 'Italy and Yugoslavia: a case of two touristically advanced countries', in Tourism Planning for the Eighties. Report presented at the 28th Congress of the International Association of Scientific Experts in Tourism (AIEST), held in Egypt, 1978, Vol. 19: 174-204.
- Wagner, Richard E. (1983), 'On economics, political science, and public policy', Policy Studies Journal, 12(2): 251-257.
- Wagner, Ulla (1977), 'Out of time and place in mass tourism and charter trips', Ethnos, 42(1/2):38-52.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1978), Socio-Economic Impact of Tourism in The Gambia. Vols. 1-2, Banjul, The Gambia: Tourism Liaison Board.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1981), 'Tourism in The Gambia: development or dependency?', Ethnos, 46(3-4): 190-206.
- Wahab, S.E.A. (1976), 'Management problems of National Tourism Organisations', in Management Problems in the Sphere of Tourism. Paper presented to the 26th Congress of International Association of Scientific Experts in Tourism (AIEST), held 5-12 September, 1976 at Athens, Vol. 17: 73-84.
- Wahnschaft, R. (1982), 'Formal and informal tourism sectors: a case study of Pattaya Thailand', Annals of Tourism Research, 9(3): 429-452.
- Wallerstein, I. (1974), 'Dependence in an interdependent world: the limited possibilities of transformation within the capitalist world economy', African Studies Review, 17(1): 1-26.
- Wanhill, Stephen R.C. (1983), 'Measuring the economic impact of tourism', Service Industries Journal, 3(1): 9-20.

- \_\_\_\_\_ (1986), 'Which investment incentives for tourism?', Tourism Management, 7(1): 2-7.
- Ward, Barbara and Lenore K. Anjou eds. (1971), The Widening Gap. New York: Columbia University Press.
- Weaver, David B. (1983), 'Tourism as a factor in Third World development with special reference to the Caribbean', Ontario Geography, 22: 47-70.
- Welch, R.V. ((1984), 'The meaning of development: traditional view and more recent ideas', New Zealand Journal of Geography, 76: 2-4.
- Wells, Louis T. (1972/74), 'International trade: the product life cycle approach', in ed. Wells, Louis T. Jr.: The Product Life Cycle and International Trade. Boston: Division of Research, Graduate School of Business Administration, Harvard University, 1972/74: 3-33.
- West Africa (1982), 'Contract explosion', West Africa, 3387: 1750-1751, July 5.
- Western, David (1976), 'A new approach to Amboseli: integration of people, land, and wildlife seeks to end the conflicts which threaten this national park', Parks, 1(2): 1-4.
- Wheeler, A.C.R. and M.P. von Dijk (1974), The Impact of the Development of Tourism on Employment in Gambia. Dakar: International Labour Organisation (ILO).
- Wiarda, Howard J. (1983), 'Toward a nonethnocentric theory of development: alternative conceptions from the Third World', The Journal of Developing Areas, 17(4): 433-452.
- Wiese, Roy F. (1975), 'Manpower planning and the provision of training', Working Paper, 22, Institute for Development Studies, University of Nairobi.
- Wilson, A.G. (1981), Geography and Environment. Chichester, Sussex: John Wiley.
- Wittrock, Bjorn and Peter de Leon (1986), 'Policy as a moving target: a call for conceptual realism', Policy Studies Review, 6(1): 44-60.
- Wood, R.E. (1981), 'The economics of tourism', South East Asia Chronicle, 79:2-9.

- \_\_\_\_\_ (1979), 'Tourism and underdevelopment in South East Asia', Journal of Contemporary Asia, 8(4): 274-287.
- World Bank/Societe per la matematics e l'economia applicate (SOMEA) (1986), The Gambia: Tourism Impact Study. Washington, DC: The World Bank.
- World Bank (1975), The Gambia Appraisal of an Infrastructure and Tourism Project Report 844-GM. Washington, DC: World Bank.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1972), World Bank Tourism Sector Working Paper. Washington DC: The World Bank.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1963), The Economic Development of Kenyan Economy. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press.
- World Tourism Organisation (WTO) (1982), Economic Review of World Tourism. Madrid, WTO.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (n.d.), WTO Operational Activities by Regions 1976- 1985. Madrid: WTO.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (n.d), Structure and Membership of the Organisation and its Bodies 1986-1987. Madrid: WTO.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1984a), 'Tourist carrying capacity', Industry and Environment, 7(1): 30-36.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (1984b), Hotel Classification Standards for Africa. Madrid: WTO.
- Yeager, Rodger and Norman N. Miller (1986), Wildlife, Wild Death: Land Use and Survival in Eastern Africa. Albany, New York: State University of New York Press.
- Young, George (1973), Tourism - Blessing of Blight? Harmondsworth: Penguin.
- Zartman, I.W. (1976), 'Europe and Africa: decolonization or dependency?', Foreign Affairs, 54(2): 325-343.
- van Zwananberg, R.M.A. and A. King (1975), An Economic History of Kenya and Uganda. Kenya: East Africa Literature Bureau.