

**STRATEGIES APPLIED TO ATTRACT TOURISTS BY
ISIOLO COUNTY IN KENYA**

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DECLARATION

This research project is my original work and has not been presented for examination in any other University.

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my mother, Naomi Adi. Your continuous prayers have been my inspiration in life.

ABSTRACT

This study was conducted to empirically analysis tourism destination competitiveness from the tourism stakeholders' perspective. The study provides the structural relationships among the following five strategic constructs through a series of analyses:-1) perceived tourism development impacts, 2) environmental attitudes, 3) place attachment, 4) development preferences about destination attractions/resources, and 5) support for destination competitive strategies. The principle guideline of this study was that the support of tourism stakeholders for tourism planning and development is a key element for the successful operation, management, and long-term sustainability of tourism destinations. Tourism stakeholder's solid knowledge and experiences in tourism management and industry, professional involvement and participation in tourism planning and development, and long-term community observation and interactions have played an important role in tourism destination management. Structured questionnaires were used to collect empirical from randomly selected tourism stakeholders in the county of Isiolo. From the results, tourism stakeholders' preferences about tourism attractions/ resources development are a function of perceived tourism development impacts as well as place attachment. The more stakeholders' preference for developing tourism attractions/resources, the more likely they were to support destination competitive strategies such as marketing efforts and activities, and destination management organizations' role. An additional finding that was not hypothesized indicated that tourism stakeholders, who have perceived benefits from tourism development, particularly in its economic and cultural aspects, are likely to support enhancement strategies for destination competitiveness. The implications of these findings can be applied to the enhancement of tourism destination competitiveness. Results also showed that a firm's competitive advantage comes from its resource capacity (superior resources, unique capabilities and solid relationships) and a mix of activities that respond to the competitive context. Stakeholder management can thus have significant influence on resources advantages as stakeholders play important roles in the process of value creation. They are the providers who supply valued resources to the firm and, as such, can act as catalysts or hindrances that either facilitate or impede the generation of valued resources. Successful stakeholder management strengthens a firm's resource profile and thus enhances its resource advantages, as stakeholders are relevant activities and drivers that determine cost and differentiation. Moreover, stakeholders, as stated above, are key players in the competitive context, who help to shape competitiveness of the firm. In a global climate of increased competition and greater visitor demands for professionalism and service, planning emerges as one of the most valuable tools that attractions can use to differentiate themselves from competitors. Planning can provide competitive advantages by allowing attractions to manage their strengths and weaknesses and to anticipate opportunities and threats in the environment..

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the study

In a global climate of increased competition and greater visitor demands for professionalism and service, attraction enhancers emerges as one of the most valuable tools that attractions can use to differentiate themselves from competitors. The adoption of tourism development strategy will not only promote the country as one destination with varied tourists attractions, but one that would adopt a bottom-up approach, primarily focusing on managing their strengths and weaknesses and to anticipate opportunities and threats in the environment. The impacts of global tourism reflect the fact that it is an activity of considerable economic importance. Tourism is not only a source of income and employment, but it also serves as a major factor in the balance of payment for many countries, and has therefore gained increasing attention on the part of governments, as well as regional and local authorities, business investors, and others with an interest in economic development.

A firm's relative position within an industry is given by its choice of competitive Generic Strategy: Types of Competitive advantage (cost leadership vs. differentiation) and its choice of competitive scope. Competitive scope distinguishes between firms targeting broad industry segments and firms focusing on a narrow segment. Generic strategies are useful because they characterize strategic positions at the simplest and broadest level. Porter, (1985) maintains that achieving competitive advantage. There are different risks inherent in each generic strategy, but being "all things to all people" is a sure recipe for mediocrity - getting "stuck in the middle".

Treacy and Wiersema (1995) offer another popular generic framework for gaining competitive advantage. In their framework, a firm typically will choose to emphasize one of three “value disciplines”: product leadership, operational excellence, and customer intimacy. The resources controlled by a firm can also affect the choice of strategy applied. Barney, (1991) in his Resource Based View (RBV), suggests that resources controlled by a firm (all assets, capabilities, organizational processes, firm attributes, information, knowledge etc) enable the firm to conceive and implement strategies that improve its efficiency and effectiveness. Resources, according to this view, can have an impact on the strategy when they are valuable, rare, imperfectly imitable and not substitutable. The view suggests that a firm’s ability to attain and keep profitable market position depends on its ability to gain and defend advantageous position in underlying resources. In Dynamic View, Ghamawat, (1999), on the other hand, attempts to integrate and generalize the resource-based view in a way that connects the evolution of a firms resource endowments or opportunity sets to the choices that they make from their respective menus of opportunities. Resource endowments, he alludes, lead to resource commitments, which lead to choices of activities. Choices about which and how to perform an activity is constrained by the resources at hand.

Attractions change over time due to physical deterioration and as a result of changing consumer needs (Gunn, 1988). Butler (1980) has suggested that the life cycle concept can be applied to the evolution of tourism products. At the most fundamental level, firms create competitive advantage by perceiving or discovering new and better ways to compete in an industry and bringing them to market, which is ultimately an act of

innovation. Innovations shift competitive advantage when rivals either fail to perceive the new way of competing or are unwilling or unable to respond.

1.1.1 The Concept of Strategy Planning, Formulation and Development

The choice of which generic strategy to pursue underpins every other decision a firm makes. Each type of strategy work/appeal to different types of people. Cost leadership requires a very detailed internal focus on processes. Differentiation, on the other hand, demands an outward facing, highly creative approach. The choice of strategy can be based on the following steps:

Step 1: For each of the generic strategy, carry out SWOT analysis of your strengths and weaknesses, and opportunities and threats you would face, if you adopted that strategy.

Step 2: Use Porter's Five Forces analysis to understand the nature of the industry you are in.

Step 3: Compare the SWOT analysis of the viable strategic options with the results of your five forces analysis. For each strategic option, ask yourself how you could use the strategy to:

Reduce or manage supplier power

Reduce or manage buyer/customer power

Come on top of the competition rivalry

Reduce or eliminate the treat of substitutes

Reduce or eliminate the threat of new entry

Select the strategy that gives you the strongest option.

Strategy Formulation

It may be helpful to think of strategy frameworks as having two components: internal and external analysis. The external analysis builds on an economics perspective of industry structure, and how a firm can make the most of competing in that structure. It emphasizes where a company should compete, and what's important when it does compete there. Porter's 5 Forces and Value Chain concepts comprise the main externally-based framework. The external view helps inform strategic investments and decisions. Internal analysis, like core competence for example, is less based on industry structure and more in specific business operations and decisions. It emphasizes how a company should compete. The internal view is more appropriate for strategic organization and goal setting for the firm.

Porter's focus on industry structure is a powerful means of analyzing competitive advantage in itself, but it has been criticized for being too static in an increasingly fast changing world. The internal analysis emphasizes building competencies, resources, and decision-making into a firm such that it continues to thrive in a changing environment. Though some of the frameworks relies more on one type of analysis than another, both are important. However, neither framework in itself is sufficient to set the strategy of a firm.

The internal and external views mostly frame and inform the problem. The actual firm strategy will have to take into account the particular challenges facing a company, and would address issues of financing, product and market, and people and organization. Some of these strategic decisions are event driven (particular projects responding to the environment and opportunity), while others are the subject of periodic strategic reviews.

Industry structure and positioning within the industry are the basis for models of competitive strategy promoted by Michael Porter. The Five Forces define the rules of competition in any industry. Competitive strategy must grow out of a sophisticated understanding of the rules of competition that determine an industry's attractiveness. Porter claims, "The ultimate aim of competitive strategy is to cope with and, ideally, to change those rules in the firm's behavior."(1985, p. 4) The five forces determine industry profitability, and some industries may be more attractive than others.

The crucial question in determining profitability is how much value firms can create for their buyers, and how much of this value will be captured or competed away. Industry structure determines who will capture the value. But a firm is not a complete prisoner of industry structure - firms can influence the five forces through their own strategies. The five-force framework highlights what is important, and directs manager's towards those aspects most important to long-term advantage.

The most typical causes of innovations that shift competitive advantage are the following:

New technologies

New or shifting buyer needs

The emergence of a new industry segment

Shifting input costs or availability

Changes in government regulations

Strategy implementation

But besides watching industry trends, what can the firm do?- Porters "Value Chain" and "Activity Mapping" concepts help us think about how activities build competitive advantage.

The value chain is a systematic way of examining all the activities a firm performs and how they interact. It scrutinizes each of the activities of the firm (e.g. development, marketing, sales, operations, etc.) as a potential source of advantage. The value chain maps a firm into its strategically relevant activities in order to understand the behavior of *costs* and the existing and potential sources of differentiation. Differentiation results, fundamentally, from the way a firm's product, associated services, and other activities affect its buyer's activities. All the activities in the value chain contribute to buyer value, and the cumulative costs in the chain will determine the difference between the buyer value and producer cost.

A firm gains competitive advantage by performing these strategically important activities more cheaply or better than its competitors. One of the reasons the value chain framework is helpful is because it emphasizes that competitive advantage can come not just from great products or services, but from anywhere along the value chain. It's also important to understand how a firm fits into the overall value system, which includes the value chains of its suppliers, channels, and buyers.

With the idea of activity mapping, Porter (1996) builds on his ideas of generic strategy and the value chain to describe strategy implementation in more detail. Competitive advantage requires that the firm's value chain be managed as a system rather than a collection of separate parts. Positioning choices determine not only which activities a company will perform and how it will configure individual activities, but also how they relate to one another. This is crucial, since the essence of implementing strategy is in the activities - choosing to perform activities differently or to perform different activities than rivals. A firm is more than the sum of its

activities. A firm's value chain is an interdependent system or network of activities, connected by linkages. Linkages occur when the way in which one activity is performed affects the cost or effectiveness of other activities. Linkages create tradeoffs requiring optimization and coordination.

Porter describes three choices of strategic position that influence the configuration of a firm's activities:

Variety-based positioning - based on producing a subset of an industry's products or services; involves choice of product or service varieties rather than customer segments. It makes economic sense when a company can produce particular products or services using distinctive sets of activities.

Needs-based positioning - similar to traditional targeting of customer segments. arises when there are groups of customers with differing needs, and when a tailored set of activities can serve those needs best. (I.e. akin to meet all the home furnishing needs of a certain segment of customers)

Access-based positioning - segmenting by customers who have the same needs, but the best configuration of activities to reach them is different. (I.e. Carmike Cinemas for theaters in small towns)

Porter's major contribution with "activity mapping" is to help explain how different strategies, or positions, can be implemented in practice. The key to successful implementation of strategy, he says, is in combining activities into a consistent fit with each other. A company's strategic position, then, is contained within a set of tailored activities designed to deliver it. The activities are tightly linked to each other, as shown by a relevance diagram of sorts. Fit locks out competitors by creating a

"chain that is as strong as its strongest link." If competitive advantage grows out of the entire system of activities, then competitors must match each activity to get the benefit of the whole system.

Porter defines three types of fit:

Simple consistency - first order fit between each activity and the overall strategy

Reinforcing - second order fit in which distinct activities reinforce each other

Optimization of effort - coordination and information exchange across activities to eliminate redundancy and wasted effort.

Porter (1990) outlines three conditions for the sustainability of competitive advantage:

Hierarchy of source (durability and limitability) - lower-order advantages such as low labor cost may be easily imitated, while higher order advantages like proprietary technology, brand reputation, or customer relationships require sustained and cumulative investment and are more difficult to imitate.

Number of distinct sources - many are harder to imitate than few.

Constant improvement and upgrading - a firm must be "running scared," creating new advantages at least as fast as competitors replicate old ones.

1.1.2 Tourism sector in Kenya

The tourism sector in Kenya has been one of the key economic drivers generating approximately 10% of the country's GDP and 9% of total formal employment. In 2010 for instance, foreign exchange earnings from the sector rose by 17.9% to shs 73.7 billion in 2010 from shs 62.5 billion in 2009. Further, due to its many linkages to other sectors (including agriculture, manufacturing, banking and finance, wildlife,

entertainment and handicrafts) tourism has shown great potential to generate employment and wealth. Such realities have seen the sector being given strategic importance in the country's socio- economic development agenda. For instance, the Economic Strategy for Wealth and Employment Creation (ERSWEC) 2003-2007 and the vision 2030 have recognized the contribution of the tourism sector to the country's economic growth, environmental sustainability and creation of job opportunities.

To realize the sectors contribution to the country's socio-economic development, several policies and strategies have been outlined including the National Tourism Master Plan; Tourism Policy; the Tourism Bill 2010, and the Vision 2030 among others. Within the Vision 2030 for instance, Kenya aims to be one of the top ten long-haul tourist destinations in the world, offering a high-end, diverse, and distinctive visitor experience,(GoK report, 2007).

1.1.3 The County of Isiolo

Isiolo marks the start of Kenyan's northeastern area with desert shrub, mountains and Lake Turkana in its midst. The town of Isiolo is small but cosmopolitan, that has outgrown its outpost days, with scenic beauty including a mix of race and cultures. Isiolo is home to the Samburu, Rendille, Boran and Turkana people. The large population of Somali people is mainly due to ex-Somali soldiers settling in Isiolo after World War 1. Isiolo is a vital stop for anyone heading north- travelers can stock up on necessities. The next stop for supplies is either Maralal or Marsabit town.

Notable attractions in the region include: Simba Samburu, Buffalo Springs and Shaba National reserve; these three reserves are located along the Ewaso Nyiro River which attracts all kinds of wildlife. Another attraction in Samburu National Reserve is the

Sarara Singing Wells. Lewa Downs, which is also in the region, is a private conservation ranch at the foot of Mount Kenya. Lewa Downs is associated with the Craig family since 1922 when the Craig grandparents came from England to raise cattle. Cattle are still farmed with the wildlife sanctuary as the main attraction. Wildlife abounds at the Lewa Downs including many endangered species such as the black and white rhinos. Other Wildlife found at Lewa Downs includes elephants, giraffes, eland, Oryx, buffalo, lion and leopards. Night drives are very popular for a chance to view all the nocturnal animals.

As per the vision 2030 blue print and road map, the government plans to transform Isiolo town into a resort city. One project which has taken shape so fast in the town is Isiolo international Airport, which is expected to be complete and ready for use by commercial flights by the end of 2013. Isiolo is flat, and almost at the centre of the country, makes it ideal for the project, to serve the hundreds of the local and foreign tourist visiting Northern Kenya.

The airport, which is 1.4 km long and 34 meters wide, has several features which will make it comparable to Jomo Kenyatta International Airport, Nairobi, Moi International Airport, Mombasa and Eldoret International Airport. Upon completion, tourists will be expected to fly directly to Isiolo to visit the tourist attractions of the town, namely Buffalo Spring, Bisan Adi and Shaba Game Reserve, among others.

Another major project set to transform the town into a major resort city is the construction of the road linking Ethiopia through Isiolo and Moyale. This is part of the LAPPSET project involving the envisaged Lamu port. The construction of this road, covering a distance of 530 km, has commenced.

The government is also constructing a modern abattoir in the outskirts of Isiolo town. The abattoir will accord the livestock rich Northern Kenya with market for their livestock. It is therefore imperative for the existing tourist attractions to prepare for these developments and the benefits accruing, if they are to remain competitive.

1.2 Research problem

Strategic planning can benefit tourist attractions by allowing operators to make better management decision based on sound knowledge of future developments (Chon and Olsen, 1990). While the success of a tourism organization clearly depends on the development of strategic competitive advantages, strategic planning, where evident, has only been applied in a partial sense (Dim mock, 1999; Faulkner, 1994). Early research by Rovelstad and Blazer (1983) indicated that tourism businesses lagged behind manufacturing firms in strategic planning and research.

The development strategies can be considered as the processes or action that can enable tourism destination to achieve a maximum correlation with tourism demand. Poon (1993) explained that linking marketing with product development, satisfying the consumer, and developing holistic approaches to travel experiences and controlling the service delivery system, are important strategies for destination competitiveness. A carefully selected and well executed program of destination management can serve to improve the tourism competitiveness of an area, and also, through certain key activities of destination management organization, destination competitiveness could be enhanced. The collected information from research can enable destination to better manage the performance of the destination's products, as

well as to adapt to changing market condition through market strategies. Effective and efficient delivery of the tourism experience to tourists can contribute to destination competitiveness. High or different levels of quality at a given cost as well as the quality of human services, facilities and equipments are also important factors for destination competitive strategy. Destination competitiveness can also be increased by resource stewardship, which involves effectively maintaining and sustaining tourism resources, including ecological, social and cultural resources. According to Richie and Crouch (2000), destination sustainability should be emphasized in its role in enhancing competitiveness.

However, despite of the country's rich endowment with a unique combination of tourist attractions spread throughout the country (comprising tropical beaches, abundant wildlife in natural habitats, scenic beauty, a geographically diverse landscape and diverse cultures from the country's 42 ethnic communities), tourism in Kenya has always been almost exclusively centered on two geographical areas: the south coast beaches and a handful of game reserves and or national parks. Noting this skewed nature of tourism development, this study is thus aimed at investigating the status of appeal of the different attractions in upper eastern region from the perspective of the domestic market with the goal of examining the efficacy of the individual destination's appeal enhancers. There is lack of general understanding about how tourist attractions plan for the future in the context of emerging trends. Our research is therefore meant to answer the question, "What are the strategies applied by the County of Isiolo to attract Tourism in Kenya"?

1.3 Research Objectives

The objective of this study was to determine the strategies applied in Isiolo County to attract tourists.

1.4 Value of the study

The research will build a base for future tourist attraction studies, and will provide an insight into which development strategy to focus on as basis of attaining one of the best long- haul tourist destinations in the world, with diverse and distinctive experience.

A concise analysis of the economic impact of tourism for a developing country is important to guide the policy intended to develop tourism and augment its benefit on the economy, (Dwyer and Forsyth, 1993). Tourism impacts an economy through tourists' expenditure on different (mostly non-traded) goods and services, (Hazari and Sgro, 1995).

The research will assist the government; specifically the policy makers in the ministry of Tourism to identify areas of excellence, as well as opportunities for improvement which will ultimately enhance the competitive future and professional capacity of attractions, and by extension, the overall tourist demand in Kenya.

CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 Introduction

Tourism is the world's largest industry and creator of jobs across national and regional economies. However, in the least developed countries where large amounts of revenue generated by tourism is transferred out of the country because of the exclusion of local businesses and products, the benefits of tourism, which include income, employment and general rise of the standard of living, are least able to be realized. Proper planning and implementing sound policies suited for different geographies and specific types of economies is important. In this regard, this chapter summarizes literature that has been reviewed and will be reviewed for the purpose of the study.

2.2 Theoretical Perspectives

Basically, strategy is about two things: deciding where you want your business to go, and deciding how to get there. A more complete definition is based on competitive advantage, the object of most corporate strategy:

“Competitive advantage grows out of value a firm is able to create for its buyers that exceeds the firm's cost of creating it. Value is what buyers are willing to pay, and superior value stems from offering lower prices than competitors for equivalent benefits or providing unique benefits that more than offset a higher price. There are two basic types of competitive advantage: cost leadership and differentiation.”

-- Michael Porter, *Competitive Advantage*, 1985, p.3

The literature below defines the choices of "generic strategy" a firm can follow:

2.2.1 Core Competence and Capabilities

Proponents of this framework emphasize the importance of a dynamic strategy in today's more dynamic business environment. They argue that a strategy based on a "war of position" in industry structure works only when markets, regions, products, and customer needs are well defined and durable. As markets fragment and proliferate, and product life cycles accelerate, "owning" any particular market segment becomes more difficult and less valuable. In such an environment, the essence of strategy is not the structure of a company's products and markets but the dynamics of its behavior. A successful company will move quickly in and out of products, markets, and sometimes even business segments. Underlying it all, though, is a set of core competencies or capabilities that are hard to imitate and distinguish the company from competition. These core competencies, and a continuous strategic investment in them, govern the long term dynamics and potential of the company.

Prahalad and Hamel (1990) speak of core competencies as the collective learning in the organization, especially how to coordinate diverse production skills and integrate multiple streams of technology. These skills underlie a company's various product lines, and explain the ease with which successful competitors are able to enter new and seemingly unrelated businesses. Three tests can be applied to identify core competencies: (1) provides potential access to wide variety of markets, (2) makes significant contribution to end user value, and (3) difficult for competitors to imitate.

Stalk, Evans, and Schulman (1992) speak of capabilities similarly, but defined more broadly to encompass the entire value chain rather than just specific technical and production expertise.

An essential lesson of this framework is that competencies are the roots of competitive advantage, and therefore businesses should be organized as a portfolio of competencies (or capabilities) rather than a portfolio of businesses. Organization of a company into autonomous strategic business units, based on markets or products, can cripple the ability to exploit and develop competencies - it unnecessarily restricts the returns to scale across the organization. Core competence is communication, involvement, and a deep commitment to working across organizational boundaries.

Product portfolios (at least in technology-based companies) should be based on core competencies, with core products being the physical embodiment of one or more core competencies. Thus, core competence allows both focus (on a few competencies) and diversification (to whichever markets firm's capabilities can add value). To sustain leadership in their chosen core competence areas, companies should seek to maximize their world manufacturing share in core products. This partly determines the pace at which competencies can be enhanced and extended (through a learning-by-doing sort of improvement).

The costs of losing a core competence can be only partly calculated in advance - since the embedded skills are built through a process of continuous improvement, it is not something that can be simply bought back or "rented in" by outsourcing.

Bowen et al. talked about the limitations to restricting product development to areas in which core competencies already exist, or core rigidities. Good companies may try to incrementally improve their competencies by bringing in one or two new core competencies with each new major development project they pursue.

2.2.2 Resource-Based View of the Firm (RBV)

The RBV framework combines the internal (core competence) and external (industry structure) perspectives on strategy. Like the frameworks of core competence and capabilities, firms have very different collections of physical and intangible assets and capabilities, which RBV calls resources? Competitive advantage is ultimately attributed to the ownership of a valuable resource. Resources are more broadly defined to be physical (e.g. property rights, capital), intangible (e.g. brand names, technological know-how), or organizational (e.g. routines or processes like lean manufacturing). No two companies have the same resources because no two companies have had the same set of experience, acquired the same assets and skills, or built the same organizational culture. And unlike the core competence and capabilities frameworks, though, the value of the broadly-defined resources is determined in the interplay with market forces. Enter Porter's 5 Forces. For a resource to be the basis of an effective strategy, it must pass a number of *external* market tests of its value.

Collins and Montgomery (1995) offer a series of five tests for a valuable resource:

Inimitability - how hard is it for competitors to copy the resource? A company can stall imitation if the resource is (1) physically unique, (2) a consequence of path dependent development activities, (3) causally ambiguous (competitors don't know what to imitate), or (4) a costly asset investment for a limited market, resulting in economic deterrence.

Durability - how quickly does the resource depreciate?

Appropriability - who captures the value that the resource creates: company, customers, distributors, suppliers, or employees?

Substitutability - can a unique resource be trumped by a different resource?

Competitive Superiority - is the resource really better relative to competitors?

Similarly, but from a more external, economics perspective, Peteraf (1993) proposes four theoretical conditions for competitive advantage to exist in an industry:

Heterogeneity of resources -A basic assumption is that resource bundles and capabilities are heterogeneous across firms. This difference is manifested in two ways. First, firms with superior resources can earn Ricardian rents (profits) in competitive markets because they produce more efficiently than others. What is key is that the superior resource remains in limited supply. Second, firms with market power can earn monopoly profits from their resources by deliberately restricting output. Heterogeneity in monopoly models may result from differentiated products, intra-industry mobility barriers, or first-mover advantages, for example.

Ex-post limits to competition -Subsequent to a firm gaining a superior position and earning rents, there must be forces that limit competition for those rents (limitability and substitutability).

Imperfect mobility -Resources are imperfectly mobile if they cannot be traded, so they cannot be bid away from their employer; competitive advantage is sustained.

Ex-ante limits to competition -Prior to the firm establishing its superior position, there must be limited competition for that position. Otherwise, the cost of getting there would offset the benefit of the resource or asset.

The strategy implies that:

Managers should build their strategies on resources that pass the above tests. In determining what valuable resources are, firms should look both at external industry

conditions and at their internal capabilities. Resources can come from anywhere in the value chain and can be physical assets, intangibles, or routines.

Continuous improvement and upgrading of the resources is essential to prospering in a constantly changing environment. Firms should consider industry structure and dynamics when deciding which resources to invest in. In corporations with a divisional structure, it's easy to make the mistake of optimizing divisional profits and letting investment in resources take a back seat.

Good strategy requires continual rethinking of the company's scope, to make sure it's making the most of its resources and not getting into markets where it does not have a resource advantage. RBV can inform about the risks and benefits of diversification strategies.

2.2.3 Game Theory

Game theory is the brainchild of John Van Neumann in 1928. Is the process of modeling the strategic interactions between two or more players in a situation containing set rules and outcomes? Game theory helps analyze dynamic and sequential decisions at the tactical level. The main value of game theory in strategy is to emphasize the importance of thinking ahead, thinking of the alternatives, and anticipating the reactions of other players in your "game." Key concepts relevant to strategy are the payoff matrix, extensive form games, and the core of a game. Application areas in strategy are: New product introduction; Licensing versus production; Pricing; R&D; Advertising and Regulation.

The Importance of Understanding "The Game" is that, successful strategy cannot just depend on one firm's position in industry, capabilities, activities, or what have you. It depends on how others react to your moves, and how others think you will react to

theirs. By fully understanding the dynamic with others, you can recognize win-win strategies that make you better off in the long term, and signaling tactics that avoid lose-lose outcomes. Moreover, if you understand the game, you can take actions to change the rules or players of the game in your favor. Brandenburger and Nalebuff (1995) give some good examples of this. One way a company can change the game and capture more value is by changing the value other players can bring to it. In summary, companies can change their game of business in their favor by changing:

Players ("Value Net") - customers, suppliers, substitutes, and complimentary (not just the competitors); Added values - the value that each player brings to the collective game; Rules - laws, customs, contracts, etc. that give a game its structure; Tactics - moves used to shape the way players perceive the game and hence how they play; and Scope - boundaries of the game.

Game theory has been a burgeoning branch of economics in recent years. It is a complex subject that spans games of static (one-time) and dynamic (repeated) nature under perfect or imperfect information. For strategy, though, it can often be a major step just to recognize certain situations as games, and thinking about how a player can set out to change the game.

2.3 The concept of strategy Management

Numerous models have been suggested by strategic planning proponents and researchers. Most of these models present the strategic management process as a flow chart (Mintzberg, 1990) or series of rational steps (Wheelen and Hunger, 1995). Some models view strategic planning as a matrix of interrelated parts, such as Patterson's (1986) model. Gilbert and Kapur (1990) present strategic planning is a dynamic, cyclical process with interactions between various stages of the cycle.

A number of conceptual frameworks from the tourism, management and social science literature have been used to assist commentators in understanding the elements that make up successful tourist attractions. McConnell (1976) provides one of the earliest appraisals of the components of a tourist attraction. According to McConnell, a phenomenon must have three components to be considered an attraction: a tourist, a sight to be viewed, and a marker which provides information about the sight. Leiper, (1990) rightly points out that most conventional models only consider the sight element when describing an attraction.

Gunn's (1988) concentric rings model represents the first attempt to present a model of an attraction in diagrammatic form. The model describes the physical resource settings that make up the spatial environment of a tourist attraction. The model consists of three concentric rings representing: The nucleus – the core resource upon which the attraction is based; the inviolate belt – the space needed to give meaning to the attraction; and the zone of closure – the collection of services and facilities which support the attraction (such as toilets, information centers, transport and so forth).

As described in the preceding analysis of definitions, Leiper, (1990) suggests a model of a tourist attraction which is based loosely on the work of Gunn (1988) and McConnell (1976). Leiper's attraction model is made up of three elements: a tourist or human element, a nucleus or central element, and a marker or informative element. Leiper (1990) emphasizes that attractions only exist when these three elements interact. The value of Leiper's contribution is that it presents tourist attractions as sub-systems of the tourism system.

Kotler (1998:348) suggests that consumers see products as “complex bundles of benefits that satisfy their needs”. Consequently, products can be conceptualized at three levels according to the benefits offered to users. A product is made up of: The core product – the problem-solving services or benefits obtained by consumers; The actual product or secondary service – the product’s parts, styling, features, brand name, packaging and other attributes that combine to deliver the core product benefits; The augmented product – the additional consumer services and benefits built around the core and actual products.

Kotler’s framework is widely applicable to tourist attractions, as demonstrated by Swarbrooke (1995). While visually comparable with Gunn’s model, Kotler’s framework places greater emphasis on the core needs and benefits obtained by visitors rather than the tangible aspects of an attraction. Consequently, the core of Kotler’s model consists of intangible attributes such as education, entertainment, relaxation or excitement.

The importance of intangible elements such as education, entertainment and visitor involvement is recognized by several authors (Stevens, 1991; Robinson, 1994). “Edutainment”, a word coined by the Disney Corporation, is a combination of education and entertainment (Richards, 1996). An extension of this idea is the concept of interpretation – the art of telling a story about the resource which forms the basis of the attraction. Stevens (1991) claims that interpretation is likely to become the most important aspect of attractions because it provides an essential bridge between the resource and the visitor. In this respect the concept of interpretation is to akin to McConnell’s concept of a ‘marker’.

Pearce, (1991) uses both an inductive and deductive method to arrive at six principles for successful tourist attractions. The inductive approach analyses a number of case

studies of successful attractions, while the deductive approach synthesizes the concepts presented in Gunn's (1988) concentric rings model and Canter's (1975) sense of place model. Canter's place model consists of a Venn diagram of three components necessary to gain a "sense of place". The three components are particularly useful when applied to tourist attractions. According to his approach, an attraction will be more successful when visitors have a clear concept of what it is about; the activities offered are clearly understood; and the *physical* attributes are distinctive and aesthetically pleasing (Pearce, 1991). The physical component of Canter's model is analogous to McConnell's (1976) 'sight' and Gunn's (1988) 'nucleus'. The concepts/meaning component is related to McConnell's (1976) notion of a 'marker'. It is through the use of markers, such as signage, brochures and interpretation, that visitors can conceptualize or derive meaning from the attraction.

The six principles of successful tourist attractions provided by Pearce (1991) provide the most comprehensive review of the elements of tourist attractions to date. Set within Leiper's (1990) framework of an attraction as a sub-system, these elements provide the most complete description of tourist attractions. It is significant to note that unlike most of attraction definitions examined above, none of the frameworks reviewed explicitly recognize the importance of managerial input. One could be forgiven for thinking that attractions exist in a self-perpetuating Utopian state devoid of external influences beyond the whims of visitors. Some frameworks obviously infer the need for management, for without management elements such as activities, services, pricing and interpretation would not exist. Management theories dealing with managerial and employee characteristics and the external environment clearly suggest that attractions, like other businesses, are influenced by a variety of internal and external factors.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

The chapter describes the research design, data collection and analysis procedure that was used to guide the study.

3.2 Research Design

The research design adopted for this study was a case study. Theoretical framework was used to guide data collection, analysis and interpretation. The study adopted information oriented sampling because it will answer questions concerning the current status of the subjects in the study. The instrument was used to capture the main themes being explored in this study including: the resource to be conserved, key constraints or issues to attaining sustainable management, status of the region's tourist attractions, and sources of travel information for the domestic tourists.

3.3 Data collection

Since the objective of this study was to investigate tourism stakeholders' perceptions, attitudes, and behavior toward tourism and its development, the population of this study was tourism stakeholders. Specifically, the target population included state and local government officials, tourism authorities, local tourism agencies, non-government organizations, tourism related associations and councils, and also visiting information centers in the county of Isiolo.

Data was collected mainly by use of a combination of questionnaire, interviews and field observation. Questionnaires and field interviews were administered in locations such as government offices and local tourism/attraction agencies. The questionnaires were administered in two sections- the first section covered general socio-demographic attributes, while the second section addressed overall issues on tourism

development such as existing tourism attractions, use of local tourism resources, forms of tourism marketing and development plans for sustainability and business growth. To capture dynamic features of the development of competitive advantage, the study used the theoretical framework inspired by Wiltbank et al., (2006), which suggests a classification of strategies for managing stakeholder relations: planning, adaptive, visionary and transformative.

3.4 Data Analysis

Theoretical descriptive statistics was used to analyze the data. According to Kilbownn, (2006), the theoretical perspective in a research study reflects the researcher's theoretical orientation, which is crucial to interpreting the data that is in qualitative study, irrespective of whether it is explicitly or implicitly stated. The descriptive statistics has an advantage to the researcher because it allows the researcher to organize information in an effective way and also allow information to be reduced to understandable form.

CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Overview of the regions attractions

Isiolo County in Northern Kenya is an arid region with scarce water resources and scanty vegetation cover. This is where one finds Buffalo Springs National Game Reserve which without doubt, is an oasis in the vast arid and semi-arid Northern Kenya. The county currently runs the following tourism attraction centers:

Buffalo Springs National Reserve:

Buffalo Springs National Reserve is a protected area in the Isiolo District the reserve was established in 1948 as part of the Samburu - Isiolo Game Reserve, and the present boundaries were established in 1985. The reserve is managed by the Isiolo County Council. Apart from wild animals which are the strength of the national game reserve, Buffalo Springs national reserve is dotted with several lodges which accommodate over 20,000 tourists annually. One of the best hospitality centers at Buffalo springs national game reserve is Samburu Simba lodge which is indeed a revelation in the tourism industry and the wildlife sanctuary.

The lodge has been expanded and modernized to cope with the increasing demands in the tourism and hospitality industry in Isiolo County. There are 70 rooms, 18 cottages, two swimming pools and four conference rooms. Ewaso Nyiro River is one of the best tourist attraction sites in Isiolo Buffalo Springs' national game reserve. The best sceneries are to be found where the river meanders and inhabited by hippopotamus and crocodiles.

Shaba National Reserve:

Is part of three small adjoining savanna national reserves that lie on either side of the northern Ewaso Nyiro river. They were established in 1948 as the Samburu Isiolo

Game Reserve. The reserve consists of a low lying, semi-arid plain on the southern bank of the northern Ewaso Nyiro River. It lies 9 km east of Buffalo Springs National Reserve, from which it is separated by the main road from Isiolo to Marsabit. The reserve was gazetted in 1974. Its northern section includes a 34 km stretch of the Ewaso Nyiro River; here and elsewhere in the reserve are numerous springs and swampy areas.

Bisanadi National Reserve:

This park acts as a wildlife dispersal area for Meru National Park. It is a part of the Meru, Kora, Mwingi and Bisanadi Conservation Area, adjacent to northeast boundary of Meru, covering an area of 606 km². Isiolo county council who own the Park has failed to utilize the Park at all, hence the fact that it is now being used as a wilderness by a park from another county.

4.2 Research Findings and Discussions

Kenya is ranked the fifth leading, international tourist destination in Africa, receiving 1,575 million international tourist arrivals in 2008 (KNBS 2010). Wildlife-based tourism currently accounts for about 70% of tourism earnings, 25% of gross domestic product and more than 10% of total formal sector employment in the country (KNBS 2010). Conservation policies and related collaborative schemes and tourism programmes play a crucial role in developing, intervention measures to protect these nationally and internationally significant resources (Bulte et al, 2008).

The sustainable development and management of these nationally vital wildlife resources and of its robust safari tourism sector are a major concern. National park and reserves wildlife populations declined over the past 30 years at rates similar to non-protected areas (Western et al. 2009). A number of reasons have been cited for

alarming trend: unsustainable development, consumptive use of resources, land degradation, unsustainable land use practices, population pressure and climate change (Okello and Kiringe 2004; Tucker and Akama 2009). Another significant issue is ongoing development and use conflict over wildlife rich lands that have been traditionally used for pastoral grazing and subsistence agriculture by indigenous and local populations. Collaborative strategies between protected areas (parks and reserves) authorities, public, private and indigenous communities are consequently perceived to be very important for effective conservation (Adams et al. 2004; Igoe and Croucher 2007).

In an increasingly saturated market, an understanding of how tourism destination competitiveness can be enhanced and sustained is a fundamental issue in successful destination management and planning. Since tourism destinations involve multifaceted components of natural/cultural tourism resources and multiplicity of man-made tourism business, a systematic analysis for destination competitiveness is required.

This study explores the structural relationships between tourism stakeholders' preferences about tourism attractions/resources development and their support for destination competitive strategies that are influenced by tourism development impacts, environmental attitudes, and place attachment. Importantly, these research findings may help tourism planners, developers and policy makers to understand what key tourism players prefer to develop in tourism attractions/resources and to plan and develop competitive strategies. It could be said from the findings of this study that destination competitive strategies may be associated with destination marketing efforts and activities, and destination management organizations' role.

4.2.1 Tourism attractions resources

The various types of tourism destinations provide an amalgam of tourism products and services. The components of tourism products and services are essential for tourism development and marketing, and are commonly referred to as tourism attractions and resources. Leiper (1995) said that destinations are places where people travel to and where they stay for awhile in order to have certain travel experiences, depending on the destinations' attractions. Hu and Ritchie (1993) also stated that a "tourism destination reflects the feelings, beliefs, and opinions that an individual has about a destinations' perceived ability to provide satisfaction in relation to his or her special vacation needs.

Thus, in general, these destination attractions/resources have been considered as tourism supply factors that represent the driving forces generating tourist demand (Uysal, 1998) and also primary sources or determinants of measuring destination attractiveness (Hu & Ritchie, 1993; Formaica, 2000). A recent study by Buhalis (2000) lists six major components of tourism attractions and resources (p.98) that most of the tourism literature

Commonly includes in assessing and evaluating the elements of tourism destinations.

These components are as follows:

1. Attractions -natural, man-made, artificial, purpose-built, heritage, special events
2. Accessibility – entire transportation system comprised of routes, terminals and vehicles
3. Amenities – accommodations, catering facilities, retailing, other tourist services
4. Available packages – prearranged packages by intermediaries and principals

5. Activities – all activities available at the destination and what consumers will do during their visit

6. Ancillary services – services used by tourists such as banks, telecommunications, newsagents, hospitals.

The empirical findings of this study supports this assertion, but finds the attractions in isiolo disadvantage as they lack the required capacity (Table 1).

Table 1: Resource components of the region

Resource Components	Current status
Attractions	Nothing special outside the normal viewing of wild animals, which are also scarce
Accessibility	Road transport covering long distances. Park roads are not well maintained either and insecurity is also an issue
Amenities	Good accommodation and catering but lack communication facilities like internet, video conferencing etc
Available package	Prearranged hence restrictive
Activities	Only wild life viewing
Ancillary services	Banks and hospitals are a distance away, and the latter is not up to the standard

Many researchers have attempted to evaluate and classify destination attractions/resources as tourism products (Ferrario, 1976; Gunn, 1988; Hu & Ritchie, 1993; MacCannell, 1976; Murphy, 1985; Murphy, Pritchard, & Smith, 2000; Smith, 1994; Yoon, Formica, & Uysal, 2001). Particularly, Ritchie and Crouch (1993, 2000) and Mihalič (2000) suggested that destination attractions/resources should be

acknowledged as important sources of comparative and competitive advantage factors in destination competitiveness. These are the essential components of the competitiveness of a tourism destination and are critical attributes for sustaining tourism destinations (Crouch & Ritchie, 1999; Hassan, 2000).

The destination attractions/resources such as natural/cultural components, heritage/historical resources, supporting facilities/services, infrastructure, hospitalities, sports/recreation activities, transportation/accessibility, and cost, should be considered as not only basic to understanding tourism planning, but also essential for successful tourism development (Gunn, 1994; Pearce, 1997). Furthermore, maintaining and developing the quality of these tourism resources is important to the competitiveness of most types of tourism destinations (Inkeep, 1991; Go & Govers, 2000).

Especially, according to the model developed by Ritchie and Crouch (1993), destination attractions/resources are considered as the destination's appeals or determinants of competitiveness. These include natural features, climate, culture & social characteristics, general infrastructure, basic services in infrastructure, superstructures, and access and transportation facilities, attitudes towards tourists, cost/price levels, economic and social ties, and uniqueness. It is suggested that these can be considered as important sources of destination comparative advantages in destination competitiveness. Additionally, Hassan (2000) proposed a conceptual model of determinants of market competitiveness in an environmentally sustainable tourism industry and suggested four critical determinants of market competitiveness: 1) comparative advantage, 2) demand orientation, 3) industry structure, and 4) environmental commitment.

Among them, the comparative advantage that is associated with factors of both the macro and micro-environments constitutes climate/location, cultural/heritage,

history/artifacts, tourist-oriented services, safety and health, access to information, and environmental quality. And also, along with these examples of market comparative advantages, the other attractions and resources are hospitality, transportation, and entertainments that can contribute through their value-added activities to the overall competitive position in the tourism market place.

According to Mihalič (2000), who studied the environmental quality of destination competitive factors, destination attractions refer to destination appeal as destination attractiveness and deterrents. Attractiveness includes eleven attractions and resources: natural features, climate, cultural and social characteristics, general infrastructures, basic services, tourism superstructures, access and transportation facilities, attitudes towards tourists, cost/price levels, economic, social, and uniqueness. These destination attractions are considered as environmental quality, which is an integral part of the quality of the natural attractions. Thus, it was argued that “maintaining a high level of overall environmental quality is important for the competitiveness of most types of tourist destinations” (Inkeep, 1991, p.347; Mihalič, 2000, p. 66).

Many tourism destinations contain natural or man-made advantages to attract visitors. In the long-term sustainability and success of tourism destinations, such tourism attractions should be identified and evaluated. Especially, each destination and tourist region could have a different advantage in its destination attractions. The assessment of destination attractions is needed to create a more competitive and quality environment in tourism planning and development.

4.2.2 Tourism development impacts

In the tourism literature, a number of studies have investigated residents' reactions to tourism development (Akis, Peristianis, & Warner, 1996; Ap, 1992; Belisle & Hoy, 1980; Chen, 1999; Getz, 1994; Hernandez, Cohen, & Garcia, 1996; Jurowski, Uysal,

& Williams, 1997; King, Pizam, & Milman, 1993; Lankford, 1994; Lankford & Howard, 1994; Lindberg & Johnson, 1996; Liu & Var, 1986; Long, Perdue, & Allen, 1990; McCool & Martin, 1994, Yoon, 1998; Yoon, Gursoy, Chen, 2000).

The results of these studies have suggested that community support for tourism development is essential for the successful operation and sustainability of tourism (Juroski, 1994; Yoon, 1998). This is because tourism relies heavily upon the goodwill of the local community and residents, and understanding local communities' reactions toward tourism development is essential in achieving the goal of favorable host community support for tourism development (Yoon, Gursoy, & Chen, 2000). Additionally, the previous tourism impact studies found that local communities' perceptions in terms of economic, environmental, social and cultural impacts have affected communities' support for community tourism development and business (Davis, Allen, & Consenza, 1988; Gee, Mackens, & Choy, 1989; Getz, 1986; Gunn, 1988; Fesenmaire, O'Leary, & Uysal, 1996; McIntosh & Goldner, 1986; Murphy, 1985; Perdue, Long, & Allen, 1990).

Most of these studies have been conducted based on social exchange theory, and have claimed that local communities are likely to participate in an exchange with tourists if they believe that they are likely to gain benefits without incurring unacceptable costs (Jurowski et al., 1997). If residents perceive the positive impacts of tourism development to be greater than the negative impacts, they are inclined to become involved in the exchange and, therefore, endorse and prefer future tourism development in their community (Allen et al., 1994; Getz, 1994).

In fact, a source of the common benefits and costs of tourism development is economic impacts. Local communities are greatly influenced by their economies (Husband, 1989; Liu, Sheldon, & Var, 1987; Milman & Pizam, 1987; Nelson, 1995;

Prentice, Terrace, & Road, 1993; Ritchie, 1988; Belisle & Hoy, 1980; Tyrrell & Spaulding, 1984; Jurowski, Uysal, & Williams, 1997; Murphy, 1983). Job creation or reduced unemployment has been discussed as the most prominent benefit of tourism development. Changing investment and spending (Akis, Peristianis, & Warner, 1996, 1996), economic gain (Getz, 1994), an increasing standard of living (Milman & Pizam, 1988), income distributions for hosts and government (Perdue, Long, & Allen, 1987), prices of goods and services (Johnson, Snepenger, & Akis, 1994); costs of land and housing (Perdue, Long, & Allen 1987), costs of living, development and maintenance of infrastructure, and resources are given as other examples of the economic impacts of tourism development.

The study found out that Kenya's' governments (local and national) have mainly promoted large scale, capital intensive tourism and hospitality projects such as beach resorts, high rise grand hotels, lodges and condominiums. Most have been initiated through foreign and multinational investments (Akama, 2006; Sinclair, 1990) and have tended to preclude local participation in tourism project design, planning and management, (Bachmann, 1988; Sindiga, 2000). Moreover the formulation of tourism policy and planning in Kenya is highly centralized, mainly involving top officials, elites and foreign consultants hired by central government.

Mbaiwa, (2005), denotes enclave tourism as a form of internal colonialism, where tourism resources mostly benefit outsiders while majority of local people derive insignificant or no benefits. Such scenario is common in Isiolo where local residents engage in marginal and informal activities such as hawking and vending souvenirs along the streets. Local people, particularly the more vulnerable group such as women and youth need, to be provided with chances to build individual and collective capability in order to gain access to economic opportunities and basic living

conditions. They need an enabling environment through education, motivation, empathy and support from enlightened political and professional organization that work with and on their behalf (Pyakuryal, 2000).

Additionally, the social/cultural impacts of tourism have been discussed. For example, tourism provides cultural exchange opportunities and more recreational facilities, and disrupts various quality of life factors. However, it was also found that unlike the economic impacts of tourism, the social and cultural impacts of tourism development could negatively affect residents' perceptions (Jurowski et al., 1997; Liu & Var, 1986; Milman & Pizam, 1988; Perdue et al., 1987; Pizam, 1978; Prentice, 1993). Creating congestion, traffic jams, noise and increasing crime are examples of the social/cultural impacts of tourism (Gunn, 1988; Johnson et al., 1994; Milman & Pizam, 1988). Researchers found that tourism improved local public services (Keogh, 1990), cultural activity (McCool & Martin, 1994), changing traditional culture (Akis et al., 1996) and preserved the identity of local culture (Liu & Var, 1986).

The previous literature has discussed the physical and environmental impacts of tourism development. It has been identified that physical and environmental impacts are associated with the development of natural, cultural or historical resources, tourist service facilities, preservation of historic and cultural resources, recreation opportunities for visitors and residents, and better roads and public facilities (Davis, Allen, & Cosenza, 1988; Gartner, 1996; Getz, 1994; Liu et al., 1987; Milman & Pizam, 1988; Murphy, 1983; Rothman, 1978; Lankford & Howard, 1994). Likewise, it has been concluded that if residents have a positive perception of tourism impacts in terms of physical and environmental consequences, they will render support for additional tourism development.

Therefore, an investigation of the perceived impacts of tourism development is critical for examining a community's preferences and support of tourism development or opposition to tourism development. Particularly, as key player in local communities, tourism stakeholders' perceptions on tourism impacts are critical to implementing further tourism planning and development.

Consequently, as the success and sustainability of any tourism development projects and development relies on the extent to which the development is planned and constructed with the knowledge and support of the tourism stakeholders, tourism destination competitiveness can be enhanced through the local community, particularly, the support of tourism stakeholders who have received the benefits of tourism development impacts.

4.2.3 Environmental attitudes

In the tourism literature, it has been discussed that people's support for tourism development could be varied; depending upon their attitudes toward environmental concerns (Yoon, Gursoy, Chen, 2000; Jurowski, Uysal, & Williams, 1997). More specifically, their values and preferences for preservation and utilization of tourism resources may vary based upon their attitudes about human relationships to the natural environment. (Gursoy, Jurowski, & Uysal, 2002). Jurowski et al. (1995) examined the relationships among environmental attitudes, support for conservational policies, and preferences for recreational facilities in a national park. Two distinctive attitude groups --- ecocentric and anthropocentric were identified.

The former attitude favored protection and regulation, and the latter supported recreation development that would transform the environment. In other words, an ecocentric value proposes that mankind must live in harmony with nature, while an

anthropocentric value reflects the view that nature exists primarily to serve the needs of humans. Subsequently, they suggested that diverging preferences related to recreational facilities or management actions consistent with particular attitude groups. Jackson (1987) points out that “one of the most urgent issues in resource management is the problem of finding an acceptable compromise between the development of land for recreation and its preservation for ecological, scientific, cultural, historical, and aesthetical reasons (p. 236).” The previous studies explain that those whose environmental attitudes include exocentric values are likely to prefer that resources be allocated to protect and preserve the environment, while those with anthropocentric inclinations favor transforming the environment to fulfill human needs and desires (Crick-Furman & Prentice, 2000; Jurowski, Uysal, Williams, & Noe, 1995; Uysal, Jurowski, McDonald, & Noe, 1994).

Additionally, Jurowski, Uysal, and Williams (1997) and Gursoy et al. (2002), studied residents’ attitudes in terms of their environmental concern about ecocentric values and their impacts and support for tourism development. They concluded that residents’ ecocentric attitudes have a direct impact on the support of tourism development, showing a significant positive relationship with support for its development. However, the results showed that there is an inverse relationship between ecocentric attitudes and the perceived costs and benefits of tourism. Thus, it is interesting to note that residents’ ecocentrism can positively influence their support for tourism development. Furthermore, this result supports the previous findings that those with higher ecocentric values are more likely to support cultural and event tourism rather than attraction-based or natural based tourism Jurowski (1994).

Environmental values and attitudes have been evaluated by the New Environmental Paradigm (NEP), which was originally developed by Dunlap and Van Liere (1978).

This view refers to the inevitability of imposing limits to human growth, the importance of conserving a balance in nature, the need for developing a sustainable economy, or the need to review the idea that nature exists solely to satisfy human needs (Dunlap & Van Liere, 1978). In other words, the New Environmental Paradigm focuses on beliefs about humanity's ability to upset the balance of nature, the existence of limits to growth for human society, and humanity's right to rule over the rest of nature (Dunlap, Van Liere, Mertig, & Jones, 2000). Thus, belief domains about the environment are assessed by this environmental value paradigm (Crick-Furman & Prentice, 2000; Kaiser, Wolfing, & Fuhere, 1999).

In a study done by Uysal, Jurowski, Noe, and MacDonald (1995), who investigated the correlations between preferences for management action and the NEP subscales, people who have more anthropocentric attitudes are likely to have more preferences for improvements in the beaches and resort amenities group, while people who have ecocentric attitudes are more likely to have preferences for less visible structures, and more wildlife and vegetation projects. These results imply that for targeting naturalists and conservationists, protection of and preserving the environment may be desirable products for destinations. The marketing efforts recommend promoting flora and fauna, natural as opposed to human-built attractions, and un-crowded facilities.

The empirical results of this found out that the development of tourism in most African and other developing countries is increasing being influenced by the unpredictable process of global oligopoly, (control of tourism market by a small number of multinational companies). They can shift international tourism demands among destinations in developing countries, depending on profit considerations, causing unforeseen disruptions to tourism development in third world countries. Further the marketing of Kenyan's tourism products in tourist- generating countries,

particularly in Europe and North America, is mainly under the control of overseas tour operators and travel agents (Sindiga, 2000). To maximize their profit margins, overseas tour mainly market inclusive tour packages to Kenya, whereby tourists pay there for a complete tour package. Isiolo tourist attraction do not even have a brand of their own, thus relies on Samburu brand, hence adopting names like “simba samburu”, to remain on tourist circuit.

Goudirn, (1998) and WTO, (2002) suggests the following measures to counteract tourism revenue leakages:

Encouragement of local ownership in management of tourism resources, and small and medium enterprise development.

Enhancement of linkages and partnership to local economy. Hoteliers and tour operators need to work with local communities and local government to develop firms of tourism that would bring sustainable local development and provide richer experience for both local and international tourists.

Develop local sources of supply to the tourism establishments. Most of goods required are usually from outside sources, thus retaining little expenditure locally.

Closer examination of the relationships of the remaining observed indicators to the construct showed that tourism development impacts were measured by four indicators that are related to economic and cultural benefits from tourism development. For example, job creation, attracting investment, and cultural activities and cultural exchange were relatively important indicators to measure tourism stakeholders’ perceived tourism development impacts. In terms of environmental attitudes, six indicators remained and measured the construct. Those indicators revealed that tourism stakeholders’ environmental attitudes were primarily ecocentric attitudes,

rather than anthropocentric, even if other studies discussed these two different perspectives of environmental attitudes, (Dunlap & Van Liere, 1978; Dunlap, Van Liere, Mertig, & Jones, 2000). Place attachment that is associated with a symbolic and emotional attachment to the community contained four indicators to measure this construct. The indicators that were related to functional attachment may not be appropriate for targeting tourism stakeholders to measure place attachment to their community because any indicators related to a functional attachment did not remain in measuring the construct of place attachment.

In terms of tourism stakeholders' preferences about tourism attractions/resources development, four indicators remained to measure this construct. Tourism stakeholders preferred to develop small independent businesses and services, cultural and folk events, and information for tourists. These results implied that rather than developing nature oriented attractions and resources, tourism stakeholders in Virginia wanted to develop various travel services, activities, events, businesses, and information for tourists. For support for tourism destination competitive strategies, three indicators including sustainable management and practices, marketing efforts and activities, and destination management organizations' role were derived from EFA and retained to measure the construct. As discussed in the literature review, these results supported other researchers' assumptions and arguments of how tourism destination competitive strategies are formed in order to improve destination competitiveness (Crouch & Ritchie, 1999; Hassan, 2000; Mihaič, 2000; Ritchie & Crouch, 1993).

The marketing and promotions of Isiolo tourist destinations, the study found out, is mostly under the control of overseas tour companies and their local subsidiaries, with little input from local residents. The images of Isiolo attractions that appear on

tourism brochures and on websites are usually constructed and presented by external interest groups that may not necessarily represent the economic interests and cultural values of local people.

Thus although Isiolo and its surroundings areas have diverse and nature based attractions, only a limited image of Isiolo is presented. Other aspects of Kenyans culture that have great potential are rarely featured. It can thus be argued that local people are disenfranchised in the co modification and marketing of local resources. When the international tourists arrive in the region, they already have a preconceived ideas and expectations based on tour operators marketing materials. In view of this, the spatial distribution and movement of international tourists is highly curtailed, thus the denying the locals and the region at large, the trickle down benefits.

Additionally, more often than not, international tourists are usually given inaccurate and exaggerated information concerning the local security situation by external tour operators mentioned above. This is intended to discourage tourists from venturing into other areas of the town apart from prescribed sites.

From the literature review of this New Environmental Paradigm, concerning other areas such as recreation, several studies found relationships between demographics (socioeconomic variables), and environmental attitudes (Arcury, 1990; Geisler, Martinson, & Wilening, 1977; Jone & Dunlap, 1992; Langanau, 1987; Van Liere & Dunlap, 1980). Generally, the studies suggest that age, education levels, gender, and living area may affect environmental concerns and attitudes. For example, the young visitor places a higher value on preservation than do others. Rural residents are likely to be more knowledgeable about wildlife than urban residents, and have a more utilitarian attitude about wildlife, while residents who are from cities more likely to have protective values (Langanau, 1987). Jones and Dunlap (1992) also suggested

that among young adults, those raised in urban areas express more environmental concern than older adults, the less educated, and rural residents.

Additionally, Dunlap and Hefferman (1975) studied the reactions of participants in “appreciative” activities such as cross-country skiing and hiking, and found that they showed stronger pro-environmental attitudes than participants in “consumptive” activities such as hunting and fishing. However, since the findings about socio or demographic characteristics have produced different aspects or inconsistent explanations of environmental concerns and attitudes, those socio and political ideology variables may not be recommended for use in explaining environmental concerns and attitudes (Jurowski, Uysal, Williams, & Noe, 1995; Samdahl & Robertson, 1989).

The beliefs about the nature of the earth and humanity’s relationship with the environment have been measured by the NEP (Dunlap, Van Liere, Mertig, & Jones, 2000). This environmental paradigm views humans as an integral part of nature (Schultz & Zelezny, 1999) and explains a vision of the world consisting of a series of ideas that oppose the dominant anti-ecological social paradigm (Hernandez, Suarez, Martineztorvisco, & Hess, 2000). The NEP scale also has been treated as a measure of endorsement of a fundamental paradigm or worldview, as well as of environmental attitudes, beliefs, and values.

Therefore, people’s beliefs about their environments may influence their support for tourism development. Inevitably, different values and interests among tourism stakeholders are likely to exist so that more clear information about and understanding of their environmental attitudes are required for the long-term success and sustainability of tourism destinations.

4.2.4 Place attachment

In the field of natural resource management, the concept of place attachment has been widely applied in the study of how people evaluate natural environments and their surrounding places (Mitchell, Force, Carroll, & McLanughlin, 1993; Warzecha, & Lime, 2001; Williams & Stewart, 1998). This is because the theoretical strength of the linkage between peoples' perceptions and places has been accepted as a management tool for assessing the value of their surroundings and natural places, understanding resource conflicts, and identifying individuals or groups who should be included in the public involvement process (Moore & Graefe, 1994; Warzecha, & Lime, 2001).

It also has been acknowledged that people's attachment to the community in terms of feelings of community, length of residency, and birth place may affect their perceptions about tourism development, as well as perhaps being a critical determinant of successful coexistence between residents and tourism development (McCool & Martin, 1994; Sheldon & Var, 1994; Um & Crompton, 1987; Williams, Mcdonal, Riden, & Uysal, 1995; Yoon, 1998; Yoon, Chen, & Gursoy, 1999).

These studies have emphasized residents' general feelings about their community and its influences on their support of and cooperation with tourism development. It has been argued that residents are an integral component of destination environments, and their values and perceptions of natural and environmental settings should be evaluated and incorporated into the management process. Additionally, building a better understanding of the values people attach to their community can be an essential step toward a more effective approach to destination management.

Theories and concepts about place attachment have been found in various disciplines, including geography, architecture, and environmental psychology (Kaltenborn, 1997). Peoples' perceptions, attitudes, and behaviors toward their surrounding places are

commonly discussed in terms of research issues and topics in studies of place attachment. Additionally, several models and conceptual frameworks of people-place relationships (e.g. place identity and place dependence) have been developed. Such models may help to conceptualize the extent to which an individual values or identifies with a particular environmental setting (Moore & Graefe, 1994; Twigger-Ross & Ussell, 1994).

Specifically, place attachment has been considered as “an affective bond or link between people and specific places” (Hidalgo & Hernandez, 2001, p. 274), “emotional involvement with places” (Hummon, 1992, p. 256), and “an individual’s cognitive or emotional connection to a particular setting or milieu” (Low, 1992, p. 165). Tuan (1976) said that this concept may be referred to as “geopiety,” which implies people’s attachment to nature in general and certain places in particular. There is a broad range of emotional and social bonds between humans and their territorial area. Subsequently, people’s attachment to place can be considered as enduring psychological attitudes and behavioral tendencies that can enable an understanding of the identity of a person based upon a geographical place (Feldman, 1990).

Since the meaning of place can be complex and diverse in terms of its size, shapes, and levels, place attachment can also be multifaceted, and the natural physical landscape, social life, culture, community, and history of places can be involved in building attachment to places (Kaltenborn, 1997). According to Low and Altman (1992), there are four basic processes that lead to the development of place attachment: 1) biological, 2) environmental, 3) psychological, and 4) socio-cultural.

In general, it has been believed that peoples’ attachment to place may be built by expressing the sense of belonging and certain purpose that gives meaning to their lives (Bricker & Kerstetter, 2000; Buttimer, 1980; Tuan, 1980). This implies that

people have not only a deep and complex attachment that is expressed through emotional and behavioral actions, but also have functional attachment to places (Bricker & Kerstetter, 2000). Thus, place attachment has been assessed by at least two conceptual domains, including place identity and place dependence (Bricker & Kerstetter, 2000; Lee & Allen, 1999; Proshansky, Fabian, & Kaminoff, 1983).

Place identity is associated with “those dimensions of self that define the individual’s personal identity in relation to the physical environment by means of a complex pattern of conscious and unconscious ideas, beliefs, preferences, feelings, values, goals and behavioral tendencies and skills relevant to this environment” (Proshansky, 1978, p. 155). It involves “place belongingness,” which is characterized by strong desires and emotional attachment, and is theorized to be a “complex cognitive structure” that consists of the “norms, behaviors, rules, and regulations that are inherent in the use of these places and spaces” (Proshansky et al., 1983, p.61).

According to Moore and Graefe (1994), place identity is developed over a longer period of time and builds emotional and symbolic meanings of a place. Place identity is formed through individual awareness and perception of the world as represented by a collection of memories, conceptions, interpretations, ideas, and related feelings about specific physical settings and types of settings. It is implied that people recognize a place as an important part of themselves, and as an integral component of self-identify from their experiences of the surroundings and environment. Consequently, place identity represents people’s symbolic/emotional relationship with their natural surroundings and environments and places (Proshansky, Fabian, & Kaminof, 1983).

As another domain component of place attachment, place dependence can be considered as an “occupant’s perceived strength of association between him and

herself and specific places” (Stokols & Shumaker, 1981, p. 457). It involves the quality of a specific place, depending upon the degree to which it satisfies the needs or goals of an individual, and also it is related to the quality of a particular place as it compares to alternative sites or settings that may satisfy the individuals’ needs or goals (Bricker & Kerstetter, 2000; MaCool & Martin, 1994; Shumaker & Talyor, 1983; Warzecha & Lime, 2001).

Thus, it can be said that place dependence is the level to which individuals perceive themselves as functionally associated with places or groups. Depending upon a person’s previous experiences with other places and also their perception or awareness of alternative existing places, people’s attachment to place is formed. Thus, place attachment is theorized to be peoples’ functional relationship with their environmental settings and its facilities.

Additionally, place attachment is the extent to which people perceive the value of natural and environmental settings and places. This valuation can be evaluated by two general domains of place attachment, including place identity (emotional/symbolic meanings and attachment) and place dependence (functional meanings and attachment). In other words, place can be valued by people because it particularly appeals to peoples’ emotional or symbolic mind, or both, and it can be valued because it has a good quality of facilities and activities (Moore & Graefe, 1994). Traditionally, research on this concept of attachment to a place has been performed in various geographical settings, such as residential communities (Cooper, 1976; Hummon, 1992; Korpela, 1989), childhood neighborhoods (Altman & Low, 1992), and recreational settings and facilities (Schreyer, Jacob, & White, 1981). In the tourism literature, a number of studies have applied the concept of place attachment to tourism

(McCool & Martin, 1994; Sheldon & Var, 1984; Um & Crompton, 1987; Williams, McDonald, Riden, & Uysal, 1995, Yoon, 1998).

For example, Um and Crompton (1987) studied residents' attachment to the community, which was measured by length of residence, birth place, and heritage. They found that the more attached residents were to the community, the less positively they perceived the impacts of tourism development in their community. Macool and Martin (1994) examined how the adverse effects of tourism development influence feelings of community attachment. They measured community attachment by length of residence and two Likert scale items measuring residential preference, and concluded that people living in communities with higher levels of tourism development have the strongest sense of attachment, but those living in these communities also have the shortest tenure in that locale. Highly attached residents viewed the costs and impacts of tourism as well as the sharing of costs with more concern than those who were unattached. Additionally, highly attached individuals viewed the benefits of tourism more positively than those who were unattached.

In a study done by Williams et al. (1995), it was found that length of residency was correlated with community sentiment, community identity, and regional identity. Particularly, regional identity had a strong correlation with attitude toward tourism's economic and social impacts. As a result, they concluded that more attached residents perceived tourism impacts more favorably and also may express ties to the regional character of the landscape more than ties to the community. People may have different attitudes toward tourism development, depending upon their source or degree of community or place attachment.

In conclusion, peoples' attachment to place is apparently an important concept in identifying their relationship with natural and environmental surroundings and

settings. Depending upon the degree or value of peoples' attachment, they may have different attitudes and behaviors toward their environments. Since the success of tourism development is highly affected by tourism stakeholders' support and interests, information about their relationships and attachment to community are a critical source of determining tourism development and its sustainability.

Therefore, this study applied the concept of place attachment in investigating tourism stakeholders' supporting of tourism development. It is interesting to note that if tourism stakeholders have a high attachment to their community, they may have strong preferences about tourism development.

CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND

RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Summary of the research findings

In an increasingly saturated market, an understanding of how tourism destination competitiveness can be enhanced and sustained is a fundamental issue in successful destination management and planning. Since tourism destinations involve multifaceted components of natural/cultural tourism resources and a multiplicity of man-made tourism businesses, a systematic analysis and framework for destination competitiveness is required. This analytical model may also contribute to creating and integrating value added tourism attractions/resources to achieve greater destination competitiveness.

This study was focused on an investigation of the structural relationships between tourism stakeholders' preferences about tourism attractions/resources development and their support for destination competitive strategies that are influenced by tourism development impacts, environmental attitudes, and place attachment. The most critical research finding from this study was the strong relationship (the highest path coefficient score) between preferences about tourism attractions/resources development and support for destination competitive strategies. Accordingly, the managerial implications of this study are more focused on a discussion of this finding, rather than focusing on a discussion of the influence of the perceived tourism development impacts and place attachment on preferences about tourism attractions/resources development.

Importantly, these research findings may help tourism planners, developers, and policy-makers to understand what key tourism players such as tourism stakeholders prefer to develop in tourism attractions/resources and to plan and implement

successful competitive strategies. These results are likely to help tourism stakeholders and marketers to collect information and plan appropriate competitive strategies based on the tourism attractions/resources they prefer to develop. It could be said from the findings of this study that destination competitive strategies supported by tourism stakeholders may be associated with destination marketing efforts and activities, and destination management organizations' role. These competitive strategies can be implemented based on the tourism attractions/ resources of small independent businesses and cultural and folk events that may include gift shops, prearranged attractive, flexible tour packages, guide services, campgrounds, concerts, arts and crafts, dances, and festivals. Information for tourists in order to attract more tourists to their communities was also an important source of tourism attraction. Accordingly, with not only these tourism attractions/resources but also well-prepared marketing plans and strategies, and effective support and help by destination management organizations, the best strategies for enhancing destination competitiveness may be established for the tourism destinations.

Closer examination of the marketing efforts and activities presented in this study may provide more detailed information and useful sources of managerial applications, because the incorporation of marketing concepts and competitive development strategies may help to enhance destination competitiveness (Bordas, 1994; Kozak, 2001; Poon, 1994). As previous researchers have discussed (Crouch & Ritchie, 1999; Go & Govers, 2000; Peattie & Peattie, 1996), overcoming seasonality and quality management may be important strategies for destination competitiveness so that tourists may spend more time and money at their destinations. Certain marketing programs and activities to overcome seasonality in tourists' visits should be

considered. The development of strong linkages with tourism wholesalers and retailers could be suggested.

Moreover, as Poon (1993) argued, including “permanent innovation” and “ceaseless change,” and flexible, segmented, customized products and services for tourists may be necessary to enhance destination competitiveness. The selection of appropriate target markets, the development of strong destination image, and tourism promotion and operation for international tourists and visitors may be recommended as specific marketing plans for destination competitive strategies. These marketing strategies may enable tourism destinations to achieve a maximum correlation with tourists’ demand to meet their wants and needs. Additionally, in recent trends of tourism industry, more effective tourism product delivery and services require the use of modern, advanced technology and information systems. This study also found that the respondents (tourism stakeholders) supported the development of advanced technology and information systems. Thus, it is recommended that destination management teams or marketing planners pay attention to this current trend.

Another important finding for destination competitive strategies from this research was related to destination management organizations’ roles. Especially, in order to effectively use tourism resources over the long term, destination management organizations’ roles could be emphasized and systematically established, because their functions and roles within the tourism destination may be critical in terms of their responsibility to the well-being of all aspects of destination management and operation (Crouch & Ritchie, 1999). As Mihalič (2000) and Ritchie and Crouch (1993) have discussed, destination competitiveness could be enhanced through management organizations’ capabilities and efforts. Especially, according to Crouch and Ritchie (1999), destination management organizations’ roles should be

understood as total “management” rather than “marketing.” It should be also noted that their roles emphasize the provision of a form of leadership for destination development that makes extensive use of team work in all DMO-led initiatives. More specific implications supported by tourism stakeholders in this study were that tourism destination management organizations may need to play an important role as facilitators between local government and agencies for tourism planning and development. The establishment of effective linkages between local government and agencies was recommended in order to improve destination competitiveness in the long run. Additionally, the development of the leadership of destination management organizations for local government and agencies was also suggested, particularly in marketing tourism destinations to tourists. Lastly, establishing effective cost strategies in providing different levels of quality and various types of tourism experiences can be recommended.

Consequently, as suggested in other studies (Crouch & Ritchie, 1999; Hassan, 2000; Mihalič, 2000; Ritchie & Crouch, 1993), the findings of this research supported that appropriate destination management efforts and marketing activities may help to create and integrate tourism attractions, products, and resources so that tourism destinations could achieve better competitive market environments and positions. Therefore, destination managers and planners may need to understand what combinations or matches of tourism attractions/resources and destination competitive strategies can be achieved to create more competitive tourism destinations.

5.2 Conclusions

It is evident from this study that there are no clear tourism strategies and policies that have been devised to enhance sustainable socio-economic development in the region.

If tourism is to contribute to the sustainable local tourism development, there is an urgent need of tourism development strategies centered mainly on the following:

Expansion of local employment and self employment

Expansion of informal sector opportunities

Development of partnership amongst public and private sectors; NGOs and local communities.

Improving social and cultural impacts

Increasing local access to infrastructure and services provided for tourists

Increasing participation of local people in decision making process and

Capacity building to enable their participation.

Given the fact that, if any, there are a limited number of empirical studies on tourism destination competitiveness, this study analysed and reported its findings empirically on tourism destination competitiveness and its relevant constructs from the perspectives of tourism stakeholders. Accordingly, as discussed in the research findings, it is hoped that this study has made valuable contributions to the understanding and insights about tourism destination competitive strategies. From the results of the comprehensive data analyses and procedures, this study may conclude that in successful tourism development and management for destination competitiveness, a more thorough understanding of tourism stakeholders' attitudes and behaviors toward tourism should be made. As key players in tourism destination competitiveness, their preferences about tourism attractions/resources and support for destination competitive strategies should be understood so that more competitive destination environments and positions can be achieved. Finally, even though the results and findings of this study are somewhat exploratory in nature, it is expected that the information produced and the implications of the study may be of help to

tourism planners, policy-makers, and marketers to build more competitive tourism destination environments and positions in the whole republic of Kenya.

In conclusion, the above management activities and actions can be considered as destination competitive strategies that can allow destinations to enhance their competitiveness. Particularly, as Mihalič (2000) concluded, destination environmental competitiveness (attractions and resources) can be increased by appropriate managerial efforts and can also be enhanced through certain environmental marketing activities; the concepts and scope of those management activities can be utilized as the framework for developing and measuring destination competitiveness strategy. More appropriate management efforts, marketing activities, quality of services, and environmental management can help to create and integrate value in tourism products and resources so that tourism destinations can achieve better competitive market positions.

Thus, as suggested by the literature review, destination competitiveness can be improved by the appropriate matches between tourism attractions/resources and the enhancement strategies of destination competitiveness. Consequently, identification of the relationship between development preferences about tourism attractions/resources and support of destination competitive strategies is important in enhancing destination competitiveness.

5.3 limitations and recommendations for future research

As expected in all research, limitations to this study were found and should be addressed to encourage more sound research in the future. The major limitations derived from this study are: 1) research scope and boundaries of the research, 2) selected observed indicators and constructs, 3) lack of residents' and tourists'

opinions, 4) absence of longitudinal characteristics, and 5) limited analysis of performance of destination competitive strategies.

This study investigated the structural relationships of tourism destination competitiveness from tourism stakeholders' perspectives. The surveyed data were only collected in the county of Isiolo. This geographically limited survey may produce different results and conclusions in terms of the magnitude and directions of relationships among the constructs studied in this research. Tourism stakeholders in other counties may have different perceptions, attitudes, and behaviors concerning tourism development and destination competitive strategies. Other geographic boundaries and research scopes should be explored to see if similar findings and results could be addressed. And also, future research may collect data from other competitive countries so that comparison studies can be conducted. This study has been somewhat limited in its selection of observed indicators, variables, and constructs. Even if those observed indicators, variables, and constructs were selected based on the literature review and researcher's observations, other critical variables and constructs may exist to achieve further insights of destination competitiveness. For example, more specific variables and constructs that address international competitive strategies are limited.

The various variables and constructs that are related to tourism information systems or management information systems were abbreviated. In current tourism markets, any tourism destination may need to pay more attention to advanced technologies and techniques so that quality products and services are delivered effectively and efficiently. Therefore, future studies may address destination competitiveness that includes information technology and techniques such as tourism information systems.

Another critical limitation to this study is related to the respondents. Generally, in the tourism literature, tourism stakeholders may include residents, tourists, and tourism experts such as people who are involved in organizations, associations, destination management and attractions such as the respondents for this study. However, this study did not include residents' and tourists' opinions of destination competitive strategies. Accordingly, compared with the respondents (tourism stakeholders) surveyed in this study, residents and tourists may express different perceptions, attitudes, and behaviors concerning the issues and topics presented in this study.

As a result, for more comprehensive and thorough investigations of destination competitive strategies supported by all tourism stakeholders, future research is recommended to include both residents and tourists. Conducting studies that include comparisons and differences between/among tourism stakeholders in terms of destination competitive strategies may be possible.

Due to the fact that this study did not include any performance and satisfaction variables to see what and how much destination competitive strategies work for the current tourism market, future research should address this limitation to suggest more appropriate destination competitive strategies to the tourism industry. Consequently, the above-mentioned limitations should be considered as essential and critical suggestions for future research. Future studies should take into account these limitations to produce more complete research results.

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Appendix A
Cover Letter

Dear Participant

I am a Masters of Business Studies student in the Department of Business Administration at University of Nairobi. I am working on my dissertation on the subject of strategies applied to attract tourism, development and destination competitiveness in Isiolo county.

The attached questionnaire is an important survey designed to assess your opinions about general issues related to tourism development and destination competitiveness. The answers will only be used for academic research. All information you provide will be strictly confidential.

I would very much appreciate it if you would answer all of the questions carefully, put the completed questionnaire into the enclosed postage-paid envelope, and drop it in any mailbox.

Should you have any questions regarding the survey or research, feel free to contact me on mobile no. 0722 789 767 (email: jchiwe07@gmail.com)

Thanks for your time and help.

Sincerely,

James Chiwe
MBA Student
Dept. of Business Studies
University of Nairobi.

Appendix B

Survey Instrument

Survey of Tourism Development and Destination Competitiveness

Part I: Tourism Development Impacts

Please read each item carefully and circle the appropriate number that indicates how much you agree or disagree with each of the Tourism Development Impact statements.

1= Strongly Disagree 2= Disagree 3 = Neither Disagree nor Agree 4= Agree 5 = Strongly Agree

1. Tourism has created jobs for our community.
2. Tourism has attracted investment to our community.
3. Our standard of living has increased considerably because of tourism.
4. Tourism has given economic benefits to local people and businesses.
5. High-spending tourists have negatively affected our way of life.

1 2 3 4 5

1 2 3 4 5

1 2 3 4 5

1 2 3 4 5

1 2 3 4 5

6. Tourism has changed our traditional culture.

7. Local residents have suffered from living in a tourism destination area.

8. Tourism has encouraged a variety of cultural activities by the local residents.

9. Tourism has resulted in more cultural exchange between tourists and residents.

10. Tourism has resulted in positive impacts on the cultural identity of our community.

1 2 3 4 5

1 2 3 4 5

1 2 3 4 5

1 2 3 4 5

1 2 3 4 5

11. Tourism has resulted in traffic congestion, noise, & pollution.

12. Construction of hotels & tourist facilities have destroyed the natural environment.

13. Tourism has resulted in unpleasantly overcrowded beaches, hiking trails, parks and other outdoor places in our community.

14. Tourism provides more parks and other recreational areas for local residents.

1 2 3 4 5

1 2 3 4 5

1 2 3 4 5

1 2 3 4 5

Part II: Place Attachment

Please indicate **how much you agree or disagree with** each of the following place attachment statements.

1= Strongly Disagree 2= Disagree 3 = Neither Disagree nor Agree 4= Agree 5 = Strongly Agree

1. I would prefer to spend more time in my community if I could.

2. I am very attached to my community.

3. I identify strongly with my community.

4. This community means a lot to me.

5. I feel like this community is a part of me.

1 2 3 4 5

1 2 3 4 5

1 2 3 4 5

1 2 3 4 5

1 2 3 4 5

6. No other place can compare to this community.

7. The time I spend in my community could just as easily be spent somewhere else

8. I get more satisfaction being in my community than from visiting any other place

9. This community is the best place for what I like to do.

10. This community makes me feel like no other place can.

1 2 3 4 5

1 2 3 4 5

1 2 3 4 5

1 2 3 4 5

1 2 3 4 5

ϕ **What is your level of satisfaction with the following items?**

Very Very

Dissatisfied Satisfied

Your leisure life

Your quality of life

Your recent travel experiences

Your recent experiences with local event & festivals

Local governments' tourism planning & development

Your participation in tourism development related decision making

Protection & preservation of tourism resources while sustaining economic benefits

1 2 3 4 5

1 2 3 4 5

1 2 3 4 5

1 2 3 4 5

1 2 3 4 5

1 2 3 4 5

1 2 3 4 5

Part III: Tourism Attraction Development

Please indicate how much you prefer or do not prefer the development of each of the following tourism attractions in your community.

1 = Don't at all Prefer 2 = Don't Prefer 3 = Neutral 4= Somewhat Prefer 5 = Highly Prefer

1. Nature-based tourism development (e.g. skiing, camping, parks, trails).
2. Attractions designed for large numbers of tourists (e.g. theme parks, resorts).
3. Cultural or historic-based attractions(e.g. museums, folk villages, historic sites).
4. Supporting visitor services (e.g. hotels, restaurants, entertainment, etc).
5. Small independent businesses (e.g. gift shops, guide services, campgrounds).
6. Cultural and folk events (e.g. concerts, arts and crafts, dances, festivals).

1 2 3 4 5

1 2 3 4 5

1 2 3 4 5

1 2 3 4 5

1 2 3 4 5

1 2 3 4 5

7. Pre-arranged attractive and flexible tour packages.
8. Outdoor recreation facilities, programs & events (e.g. hiking, bike rides, climbing).
9. Improved roads and transportation.
10. Information for tourists.
11. Sports facilities and activities.
12. Business/convention meeting events and facilities.

1 2 3 4 5

1 2 3 4 5

1 2 3 4 5

1 2 3 4 5

1 2 3 4 5

1 2 3 4 5

Part IV: Tourism Oriented Decisions

How important are the following tourism-oriented decision, made by local tourism authorities, about developing tourism destinations and/or attractions in your community?

Not at all, Extremely Important, Important

1. Supporting economic development of local/regional tourism products.
2. Local/regional tourism promotion and operation of tourist offices.
3. Supporting completion of local/regional tourism development plans & strategies.

4. Long term vision for tourism related to social, economic,& environmental factors.

5. Policies on zoning, permissible criteria, other controls for tourism development.

1 2 3 4 5

1 2 3 4 5

1 2 3 4 5

1 2 3 4 5

1 2 3 4 5

6. Providing guidelines & controls for facilitating tourism development possibilities.

7. Architectural and engineering designs of specific tourist facilities.

8. Safety, health & environmental integrity requirements for tourism developments.

9. Specific licenses/permits or other consents to be granted for tourism development

10. Varied assessment criteria or standards regarding tourism development.

1 2 3 4 5

1 2 3 4 5

1 2 3 4 5

1 2 3 4 5

1 2 3 4 5

11. Determining future/present land use zones for incremental tourism development.

12. Determining suitable sites that show permissible development of land for tourism

13. Infrastructure changes for enhancing the tourist experience & visitor management

14. Recreational, open space and infrastructure plans in the local region.

15. Establishing fees, taxes, rates etc. from tourism developments & visitor amenities

16. Funding for expert advice and research to address tourism related issues.

1 2 3 4 5

1 2 3 4 5

1 2 3 4 5

1 2 3 4 5

1 2 3 4 5

1 2 3 4 5

Part V: Tourism Destination Competitiveness

Please indicate how favorable or unfavorable you consider each of the following destination competitive strategies and actions to be for Isiolo.

1=Not at all favorable 2=Unfavorable 3=Neutral 4=Favorable 5= Highly Favorable

1. The development of a strong destination image.

2. The selection of appropriate target markets (tourist groups).

3. The development of strong linkages with tourism wholesalers and retailers.

4. Overcoming seasonality (peak and off-season) in tourists' visits.
5. Increasing tourists' length of stay.
 - 1 2 3 4 5
 - 1 2 3 4 5
 - 1 2 3 4 5
 - 1 2 3 4 5
 - 1 2 3 4 5
6. Use of modern, advanced technology and information systems (e.g. Internet).
7. Tourism promotion and operation for targeting international tourists and visitors.
8. Increasing tourists' spending.
9. The establishment of standards for tourism facilities.
10. Both education and training programs for present/future industry personnel.
 - 1 2 3 4 5
 - 1 2 3 4 5
 - 1 2 3 4 5
 - 1 2 3 4 5
 - 1 2 3 4 5
11. Establishing the cost of providing different levels of quality for various types of tourism experiences.
12. Local government and agencies' roles as facilitators for tourism development.
13. The leadership roles of local government and agencies in marketing this region as a tourism destination.
14. The development of safety and security programs and systems for tourists and the tourism community.
15. Collecting information that inventories a destination's products and services.
 - 1 2 3 4 5
 - 1 2 3 4 5
 - 1 2 3 4 5
 - 1 2 3 4 5
 - 1 2 3 4 5
16. An inventory of information to monitor the attitudes of the local population towards the tourism industry.
17. Research that aids the development of new tourist services.

- 18. Protecting and improving more wildlife habitat.
- 19. Promoting ethical responsibility towards the natural environment.
- 20. Expanding educational opportunities for the visiting public in terms of natural/
environmental quality and protection.

1 2 3 4 5

1 2 3 4 5

1 2 3 4 5

1 2 3 4 5

1 2 3 4 5

- 21. Encouraging citizen participation in decision-making about tourism
development

22. Sensible use of natural resources.

23. Environmental considerations in the marketing of tourism.

24. Environmental training of tourism staff.

1 2 3 4 5

1 2 3 4 5

1 2 3 4 5

1 2 3 4 5

Part VI: General Tourism Attitude

φ Would you oppose or support tourism development in your community?

Strongly Oppose ___ Oppose___ Moderate___ Support ___Strongly Support ___

φ How do you perceive the overall impacts of tourism development in your
community?

Very Negative___ Negative___ Moderate ___ Positive ___ Very Positive_____

φ How would you evaluate the competitiveness of your community as a tourism
destination?

Not at all Competitive__ Less Competitive__Somewhat Competitive__Highly
Competitive__

φ How would you evaluate the level of tourism development in your community?

Initial Stage___ Development Stage___ Growth Stage___ Maturity Stage___ Decline
Stage__

φ How would you evaluate the attractiveness of your community as a tourism
destination?

Not at all Attractive___ Less Attractive ___ Somewhat Attractive___ Highly Attractive___

φ Have you ever been involved in developing tourism attraction in your community?

Not at all involved___ Seldom involved___ Somewhat involved___ Highly involved_

Part VII: Environmental Attitude

Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with each of the following environmental attitude statements.

1= Strongly Disagree 2= Disagree 3= Neither Disagree nor Agree 4= Agree 5= Strongly Agree

Environmental Attitude

1. We are approaching the limit of the number of people the earth can support.
2. Humans have the right to modify the natural environment to suit their needs.
3. When humans interfere with nature, it often produces disastrous consequences.
4. Human ingenuity will insure that we do not make the earth unlivable.
5. Mankind is severely abusing the environment.

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6. The earth has plenty of natural resources if we just learn how to develop them.

7. Plants and animals have as much of a right to exist as humans

8. The balance of nature is strong enough to cope with the impacts of modern industrial nations.

9. Despite our special abilities, humans are still subject to the laws of nature.

10. The so-called “ecological crisis” facing humanity has been greatly exaggerated.

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11. The earth is like a spaceship with only limited room and resources.

12. Mankind was meant to rule over the rest of nature.

13. The balance of nature is very delicate and easily upset.

14. Humankind will eventually learn enough about how nature works to be able to control it

15. If things continue on their present course, we will soon experience a major ecological catastrophe.

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Part IX: Your Demographic Information

φ **Gender:** (1) Male (2) Female

φ **Your Age:** _____

φ **How long have you been living in Isiolo?** _____ year(s)

φ **Marital Status:** (1) Single (2) Married (3) Widowed/Divorced/Separated

φ **Education:** (1) Less than high school (2) High school (3) College (4) Graduate

φ **Ethnic Groups:**

(1) Somali (2) Borana (3) Turkana (4) Samburu (5) Meru (6) Other

φ **How long have you been working for the current company or organization?**
_____ years

φ **Primary organization for whom you work (please mark the appropriate number)**

1) (1) Chamber of Commerce

2) (2) Private business

3) (not directly related to tourism)

4) (3) Travel information center

5) (4) State & local public park

(5) Hotel & resort

(6) Government official & Council

- (7) Non-profit organization & association
- (8) Convention and Visitors Bureau
- (9) Outdoor recreation company, facility, & outfitters
- (10) Private & commercial theme park & facility
- (11) Local travel attractions (e.g. museum, theater)
- (12) College & university
- (13) Travel agency
- (14) Planning and development company related
to tourism
- (15) Other (please specify):

Thank you for filling out the survey